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2	Lorenz number and transport properties of Fe: Implications to the thormal conductivity at Earth's core months boundary
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19	Highlights:
20 21	• Four-wire van der Pauw method is applied in the multi-anvil press to measure the electrical resistivity of solid iron at 300 K and pressures to 26 GPa.
22 23	• The thermal conductivity of solid hcp iron is calculated as 129±9 W/m/K at 136 GPa and 300 K conditions by the first-principles molecular dynamics method.
24 25	• Electrical resistivity and thermal conductivity of solid hcp iron at Earth's CMB are estimated as ~76-83 $\mu\Omega$ ·cm and 114 ± 6 W/m/K, respectively.

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#### Abstract

The electrical resistivity ( $\rho$ ) and thermal conductivity ( $\kappa$ ) of the Earth's core compositions 27 28 are essential parameters for constraining the core's thermal state, the inner core age, and 29 the evolutionary history of the geodynamo. However, controversies persist between 30 experimental and computational results regarding the electronic transport properties ( $\rho$ 31 and  $\kappa$ ) of the Earth's core. Iron is the major element in the core, and its transport 32 properties under high pressure and high temperature conditions are crucial for 33 understanding the core's thermal state. We measured the  $\rho$  values of solid iron using the 34 four-wire van der Pauw method at 300 K and pressures ranging from 3 to 26 GPa within 35 a multi-anvil press. For comparison, we calculated the  $\rho$  and  $\kappa$  values of hexagonal closepacked (hcp) iron at conditions of 300-4100 K and 22-136 GPa using the first-principles 36 37 molecular dynamics (FPMD) method. Our calculations generally align with prior studies, indicating that the electrical resistivity of solid hcp iron at Earth's core-mantle boundary 38 (CMB) conditions is ~76-83  $\mu\Omega$ ·cm. The resistivity of hcp iron changes small as it melts 39 40 from solid to liquid at pressures from 98 to 134 GPa. The impact of temperature and 41 pressure on the Lorenz numbers of solid hcp iron are investigated according to our calculation results and previous studies. Under the CMB's pressure conditions, the  $\kappa$  of 42 43 hcp iron initially decreases with increasing temperature and subsequently increases. The electron-electron scattering plays a dominant role at low temperatures and causes the 44 45 decrease in  $\kappa$ . At high temperatures, the increase of electronic specific heat significantly 46 increases the Lorentz number and  $\kappa$ . Overall, we estimate the  $\kappa$  of solid hcp iron at CMB's condition to be  $114 \pm 6$  W/m/K, slightly lower than the room temperature value 47 of  $129\pm9$  W/m/K at the same pressure. Our model shows that a 0-525 km thickness of a 48

- 49 thermally stratified layer may exist beneath the Earth's CMB depending on the core's
- 50 heat flow and thermal conductivity.
- 51
- 52 Keywords: iron, first-principles calculation, thermal conductivity, Earth's core, high
- 53 pressure experiments

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#### **INTRODUCTION**

The Earth's core consists of Fe, Ni, and light elements like Si, S, O, C, H, and P, as 55 suggested by geochemical and geophysical observations (Li and Fei 2014). The thermal 56 conductivity ( $\kappa$ ) of iron, the dominant element in the core, is thus essential to constrain 57 58 the core's thermal properties, which impact geodynamo models, the age of the inner core, thermal evolution, and the magnetic field over geological time (Davies et al. 2015, 2022; 59 Driscoll and Bercovici 2014; Labrosse 2015; Nimmo 2015). Moreover, since electrons 60 61 are the primary transport particles in metals, the electrical resistivity ( $\rho$ , the reciprocal of electrical conductivity) of iron is related to its electronic thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{el}$ ), 62 described by the Wiedemann-Franz law (WFL),  $\kappa_{el} = LT/\rho$ , where L is the Lorenz number, 63 64 and T is the temperature. Though the lattice (ionic) thermal conductivity contributes to 65 the total thermal conductivity of pure iron and iron alloys under the Earth's core-mantle boundary (CMB) conditions, it is approximately 2-5% of the electronic part and is 66 67 negligible (Pozzo et al. 2012; Yue and Hu 2019). Thus, the resistivity of iron and iron alloys can be used to estimate the thermal properties of the Earth's core, and extensive 68 studies on the resistivity have been conducted through experiments and first-principles 69 70 calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) (see the reviews of Berrada and 71 Secco 2021; Pommier et al. 2022; Yin et al. 2022a). The DFT method usually calculates 72 electronic part of thermal conductivity through the Chester-Thellung formulation of the Kubo-Greenwood formula (Chester and Thellung 1961; Greenwood 1958; Kubo 1957) 73 and ionic contribution with the Green-Kubo formula (Kubo 1957). Furthermore, due to 74 75 the significant challenge in the experiment, only a few studies have reported the thermal 76 conductivity of iron and iron alloys measured in-situ at high pressure-temperature (P-T)

conditions (Hasegawa et al. 2019; Hsieh et al. 2020; Konôpková et al. 2016; Saha et al.
2020).

79 The thermal conductivity of the Earth's core remains debated. Resistivity measurements 80 and the first-principles calculations both suggest that the Earth's CMB has a high thermal 81 conductivity (~100 W/m/K) (Gomi et al. 2016; Li et al. 2022; Pozzo et al. 2012; Seagle et 82 al. 2013; Xu et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2022). Nevertheless, thermal conductivity measurement experiments indicate a low  $\kappa$  value of ~20-30 W/m/K at the CMB (Hsieh et 83 84 al. 2020; Konôpková et al. 2016). The low thermal conductivity in the core implies a low 85 rate of heat transfer by conduction, which can sustain a long-lived thermal dynamo and extend the onset time of inner core solidification to  $\sim$ 3.4 Ga ago (Gomi et al. 2013; Hsieh 86 87 et al. 2020; Konôpková et al. 2016). Conversely, high thermal conductivity in the core 88 corresponds to a rapid cooling rate and a high initial temperature at the CMB, implying 89 that the solidification of the inner core started less than 1 Ga ago (Li et al. 2022). Pozzo et 90 al. (2022) attempted to reconcile experimental and computational transport properties of 91 Fe-Si alloys at high P-T conditions via the DFT calculation method. Compared to 92 experimental results (Hsieh et al. 2020), their calculated thermal conductivity with 93 electron-electron scattering (EES) correction matches the experiments at 72-106 GPa but exceeds at 121-144 GPa. 94

As the high *P-T* resistivity of iron samples in most experiments (Inoue et al. 2020; Ohta et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2020) is computed based on room-temperature data, this roomtemperature information is a vital benchmark. The resistivity of iron at room temperature varies between studies. Previous measurements indicate that the highest resistivity of hexagonal-close-packed (hcp) iron at ~20 GPa and 300 K was ~24  $\mu\Omega$ ·cm (Gomi et al.

100 2013; Jaccard et al. 2002; Yong et al. 2019), nearly twice of the results (13  $\mu\Omega$ ·cm) from recent measurements (Ezenwa and Yoshino 2021; Zhang et al. 2020). One reason for this 101 102 discrepancy is the systematic uncertainty in estimating sample thickness under high pressure conditions (Lobanov and Geballe 2022). With the DFT method, Gomi et al. 103 (2013) and Sha and Cohen (2011) calculated the resistivity of hcp iron at room 104 temperature and high pressure conditions using the ordered lattice structures, yielding 105 results deduced at 0 K, coming with lower resistivity values than experiments at 20-80 106 107 GPa. Moreover, Xu et al. (2018) calculated the electronic transport properties of hcp iron 108 under Earth's core conditions, including the electron-lattice scattering and the EES contribution. However, they omitted the thermal disorder effect and did not address the 109 110 room temperature situation. Zhang et al. (2020) calculated the resistivity of hcp iron at 105 GPa and 2000 K, incorporating the thermal disorder effect and EES effect, aligning 111 with the experimental data. In some studies (Pozzo et al. 2014, 2022; Pozzo and Alfè 112 113 2016), the thermal disorder effect was included in the calculations for solid hcp iron and iron-silicon alloys, but no discussions on the room temperature conditions. 114

115 The Wiedemann-Franz law connects electrical resistivity and electronic thermal 116 conductivity through the Lorentz number. Based on the assumption that WFL relies on elastic electron scattering (Klemens and Williams 1986; Uher 2004), Lorentz number has 117 a Sommerfeld theoretical value ( $L_0$ ) of 2.445×10<sup>-8</sup> WΩK<sup>-2</sup>. The inelastic scattering of 118 electrons in thermal conduction makes the Lorentz number deviate from the  $L_0$ . A 119 120 systematic investigation on the Lorenz number for iron and iron-silicon alloys under high 121 P-T conditions was conducted by Secco (2017), revealing that the Lorenz number positively deviates from  $L_0$  when the electronic component fails to fully describe the total 122

123 thermal conductivity. This departure was observed in pure Fe and Fe-Si alloys under 124 ambient pressure and high temperature conditions (Secco 2017). Under high pressures, 125 the inelastic scattering of electrons is enhanced with rising temperature, causing the 126 Lorenz number to fall below  $L_0$  (Secco 2017). As a result, the Lorenz number exhibits variability under high P-T conditions (Pozzo et al. 2022). Experimental results 127 128 (Konôpková et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2020) roughly suggest that the Lorentz number of hcp iron at 80-200 GPa and 2000-3000 K is about  $0.8-1.0 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> (Yin et al. 2022a), 129 significantly lower than  $L_0$ . Even in the case of a Fermi liquid with only inelastic 130 scattering, the L value of hcp iron under Earth's core conditions is  $1.59 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>. 131 132 about  $0.65L_0$  (Pourovskii et al. 2017), which still exceeds experimental observations. 133 Gomi and Yoshino (2018) calculated the Lorentz number of iron-light elements (Si, Ni, S, C, N, and O) alloys under high P-T conditions, suggesting that the species and 134 135 concentration of light elements significantly affect the Lorentz number, particularly under 136 high temperature conditions. Liquid Fe-Si-O alloys exhibit smaller Lorentz numbers than 137 pure iron, indicating that light elements can decrease the L values (Pozzo et al. 2013). In addition. Pourovskii et al. (2020) theoretically calculated the L value at Earth's core 138 conditions for the perfect hcp iron lattice at  $1.57 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> and for the thermo-139 disordered one at  $2.28 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>. However, there are limited reports on the Lorenz 140 141 number of iron under room temperature conditions.

To comprehensively understand the temperature and pressure effects on the electronic transport properties of iron, we applied both experiments and the first-principles calculation method in this study. Though the resistivity of iron has been widely measured and discussed in the multi-anvil press experiments, most previous studies used the

146 conventional four-wire method for resistivity measurement (Ezenwa and Yoshino 2021;

Secco and Schloessin 1989; Yong et al. 2019). The four-wire van der Pauw method is 147 148 broadly employed in diamond-anvil cell experiments to measure the resistivity of iron and iron alloys (Gomi et al. 2013; Seagle et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2020). For comparison, 149 150 we used the van der Pauw method to measure the resistivity of iron at room temperature 151 (300 K) and pressures from 3 to 26 GPa in the multi-anvil press. To broaden the pressure 152 and temperature range, we calculated the electrical resistivity of hcp iron at both room temperature and high temperature conditions (300-4100 K and 22-136 GPa). Most 153 154 previous studies only used ordered lattice structures to calculate the electronic transport 155 properties of solid hcp iron at 300 K (Gomi et al. 2013; Sha and Cohen 2011) and high 156 temperature conditions (Xu et al. 2018). In this study, we applied the first-principles 157 molecular dynamics (FPMD) method and the Kubo-Greenwood formula (Greenwood 1958; Kubo 1957). The FPMD method generates disordered lattice structures and 158 159 naturally includes the thermal disorder effect. Using the Chester-Thellung-Kubo-160 Greenwood approach (Chester and Thellung 1961), we also estimated the electronic thermal conductivity. Based on the results, we discussed the temperature and pressure 161 162 effect on the Lorentz number and transport properties of hcp iron at high *P*-*T* conditions. 163 These results are also applied to constrain the thermal conductivity in the Earth's core, subsequently used to estimate the adiabatic heat flow in the core, inner core age, and the 164 165 thermally stratified layer thickness beneath the CMB.

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## METHODS AND CALCULATIONS

# 168 Electrical resistivity measurement of iron

169 All experiments were conducted at room temperature (300 K) and 3-26 GPa in an 800-170 ton multi-anvil press in the Earth and Planets Laboratory at Carnegie Institute for Science. 171 For high pressure studies, we used an 8/3 assembly, in which the Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-doped MgO 172 octahedron has an 8 mm length edge, and tungsten carbide has a 3 mm length corner-173 truncated edge. An iron plate sample with a thickness of 0.5 mm and a diameter of 1.6 174 mm was sandwiched by two  $Al_2O_3$  rods and placed at the center of the assembly. 175 Additionally, two MgO bars were placed on top of  $Al_2O_3$  rods to serve as pressure 176 transition materials. The 8/3 assembly sketch is shown in Figure S1 in the supporting 177 information. For the resistivity measurements, we utilized a four-wire van der Pauw 178 method (van der Pauw 1958) and used four tungsten wires (a diameter of 0.1 mm) as 179 leads to measure sample's resistance. The van der Pauw method requires the contact 180 point between the wire and the sample to be as small as possible to minimize errors. Our 181 tungsten wires were much smaller than the sample size, and the contact area at the iron 182 plate's edge was also small. It is crucial to ensure that the sample had a flat shape with 183 uniform thickness and was homogeneous and isotropic. Our sample, a pure iron plate, meets these requirements. Controlling sample deformation and thickness during the 184 185 experiment presented challenges, but we used two  $Al_2O_3$  rods to minimize the impact of 186 deformation. Figure S1 shows no significant deformation was observed in the recovered 187 samples.

The measurement strategy is similar to our previous study (Yin et al. 2022b). We first press the sample to the target pressure, hold the pressure, and then start resistance measurement. All resistance data are acquired during the compression process. However, due to experimental challenges, only two runs yielded reasonable data. The U1419 run

192 reached a maximum pressure of 22.3 GPa before the tungsten leads broke at higher 193 pressures. In the U1423 run, no data was recorded below 13 GPa due to lead 194 disconnection. The pressure uncertainty is 0.5 GPa in our experiments. After experiments, 195 the recovered samples were mounted in epoxy resin and subsequently ground and 196 polished to measure the sample's thickness. The iron plate sample had a thickness of 0.5 197 mm before the experiment and 0.39-0.43 mm after the experiment (Figure S1). With 198 these post-compression dimensions (sample thickness) and measured resistances at 300 K, we calculated the resistivity at different pressure conditions. As the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> rods are much 199 200 harder than pure iron, we neglected the volume change during decompression. The 201 change in thickness of the iron plates during compression was estimated using an 202 equation of the state for pure iron (Zhang and Guyot, 1999). The total estimation of 203 resistivity error is from the geometry uncertainty and is less than 4% in our experiments.

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# 205 **First-principles calculations**

206 The electronic transport properties of iron at 300-4100 K and 22-136 GPa were 207 calculated using FPMD and the Kubo-Greenwood formula in the Computational 208 Geochemistry Lab at the Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. 209 Calculations were carried out using the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Packages (VASP), a 210 plane wave density functional code developed by Kresse and Furthmüller (1996), and 211 incorporated the projector augmented wave (PAW) method (Blöchl 1994; Kresse and 212 Jouber, 1999) to represent ion-electron interaction. The potential file is the Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (Perdew et al. 1996) type  $(3p^{6}4s^{1}3d^{7})$  valence configuration, 213 214 labelled PAW PBE Fe pv), and the plane-wave cutoff energy is 400 eV (similar to Li et

215 al. 2022 and Wagle et al. 2018). The supercells of the hcp Fe have 150 atoms, 216 comparable to the literature (Li et al. 2022; Pourovskii et al. 2020; Wagle et al. 2018). 217 The unit cell's lattice parameters were derived from high pressure X-ray diffraction 218 experiments in the literature (Anzellini et al. 2013; Dewaele et al. 2006; Fei et al. 2016) 219 (Table S1). For comparison, additional calculations for hcp iron were conducted using the 220 calculated lattice parameters at 0 K, which displayed comparable c/a ratios to previous 221 theoretical studies (Kleinschmidt et al. 2023; Pourovskii et al. 2014). Figure S2 shows 222 that the c/a ratios calculated by the DFT method at 0 K are smaller than the experimental 223 results at 300 K. Kleinschmidt et al. (2023) suggested that the electronic transport 224 properties of hcp iron are insensitive to the c/a ratios under high temperature conditions. 225 However, the impact of c/a ratios under room temperature conditions remains unclear. 226 Volume is a significant parameter in the Kubo-Greenwood formula, and thermal 227 expansion influences the volume under high temperatures. Thus, we exclusively used the 228 experimental lattice parameter to construct supercells at high temperatures ranging from 229 1500 to 4100 K. Then, we employed FPMD with the canonical ensemble (NVT: number 230 of atoms, volume, and temperatures are constant) to update the atomic coordinates of the 231 supercell at a time step of 1 fs. Temperature is controlled by the Nosé-Hoover thermostat 232 (Hoover 1985; Nosé 1984). The FPMD simulation ran for 11 ps, with the first ps 233 discarded for equilibration, and one snapshot of nuclear positions was extracted every 234 500 molecular dynamic steps from the final 5 ps. The electronic states were occupied according to Fermi-Dirac statistics at the thermostat's temperature, and only the gamma 235 236 point was used to sample the Brillouin zone during molecular dynamics simulations.

237 Using a VASP post-processing tool, KG4VASP (Di Paola et al. 2020), we calculated the electrical resistivity through the Kubo-Greenwood formula (Greenwood 1958; Kubo 238 239 1957) and electronic thermal conductivity with the Chester-Thellung-Kubo-Greenwood 240 formula (Chester and Thellung 1961). The electrical and thermal conductivities are 241 derived as the frequency in Onsager coefficients in the above formulas approach zero (Di 242 Paola et al. 2020). Like Korell et al. (2019), we employed a linear extrapolation method 243 when the frequency equals zero as the results usually unphysically decrease at very small frequencies. For every snapshot, we used a dense grid of 4x4x4 k-points in the Gamma 244 245 centered scheme, which ensured convergence in calculations. The Dirac delta functions 246 were approximated with one Gaussian function with a spreading of 10 meV, minimizing 247 its value to remove the small oscillations in the optical conductivity arising from the discretization of the band structure. After calculation, we averaged  $\rho$  and  $\kappa_{el}$  over the 248 snapshots and considered one standard deviation as the uncertainty. In this study, the 249 250 electronic transport properties were calculated at the DFT level, including electron-lattice 251 scattering, while the EES was disregarded. Given the computational cost and its slight impact on results at pressures above 50 GPa (Korell et al. 2019), the spin polarization 252 253 effect was also neglected. The Lorenz number  $(L=k_{el}*\rho/T)$  was determined through the 254 WFL based on our electrical and thermal conductivity results.

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# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

# 257 Electrical resistivity of hcp Fe

258 In Figure 1a, we present the results of our experimental measurements of iron's electrical 259 resistivity under conditions of 3-26 GPa and 300 K, alongside our theoretical calculation 260 results at 22-136 GPa and 300 K. Figure 1a also includes the previous experimental 261 results (Ezenwa and Yoshino 2021; Gomi et al. 2013; Jaccard et al. 2002; Seagle et al. 2013; Ohta et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2018, 2020) and theoretical calculation results (Gomi 262 et al. 2013; Sha and Cohen 2011). When the pressure increases from 3 to 11 GPa, the 263 264 iron's resistivity decreases, followed by a rapid increase from 11 to 19 GPa. Then, 265 resistivity decreases once again as the pressure rises from 19 to 26 GPa (Figure 1a). The 266 inflection point in resistivity at 11 GPa is due to the phase transition of iron from bcc to hcp phase, ending at 19 GPa. Within the 11-19 GPa range, the sample is a mixture of bcc 267 268 and hcp phases. Our results are roughly consistent with those of Ezenwa and Yoshino (2021), who measured the bcc to hcp phase transition pressure range between 12-20 GPa. 269 270 Our results align with Seagle et al. (2013) and Zhang et al. (2020) within the range of 271 uncertainties. However, it is worth noting that, below 5 GPa, the results from Ezenwa and Yoshino (2021) were significantly larger than those of this study and Zhang et al. (2020). 272 In the study by Ezenwa and Yoshino (2021), iron probes were used for resistivity 273 274 measurements, while we used tungsten probes, which are also used and discussed in other 275 studies (Silber et al. 2018; Berrada et al. 2021). The diffusion of probe material into the 276 sample impacts resistivity measurements under high temperature conditions. Given that 277 our experiments were conducted at room temperature, such influence is negligible. The 278 sample deformation and measurement approach may contribute to the variations between 279 the results of Ezenwa and Yoshino (2021) and this study. The highest resistivity of hcp 280 iron measured in this study is about 14.1-15.3  $\mu\Omega$  cm at 300 K, consistent with certain

literature results (Ezenwa and Yoshino 2021; Zhang et al. 2020), but lower than others
(Gomi et al. 2013; Jaccard et al. 2002; Zhang et al. 2018). Therefore, the electrical
resistivity of hcp iron at 300 K and pressures below 60 GPa may not be as high as some
previous estimations (Figure 1a).

285 In comparison with the results by Sha and Cohen (2011) and Gomi et al. (2013), our 286 calculated  $\rho$  values for hcp iron at 22-136 GPa and 300 K are generally consistent with 287 experiments (Figure 1a). Notably, in Figure 1a, the R2 simulation (solid down triangle) 288 employed experimental lattice parameters at 300 K from the literature, while the R1 289 simulation (solid up triangle) used the optimized lattice parameters to the lowest energy 290 at 0 K, based on DFT calculations. Though these runs exhibit rough consistency below 80 291 GPa, discrepancies emerge at 80-136 GPa. This is probably due to the different c/a ratios 292 of hcp structure between the experimental data and calculations (Figure S2). Korell et al. 293 (2019) found that spin-polarization impacts the electronic transport properties of liquid 294 iron at 20-50 GPa, which may also impact the solid hcp iron. Pourovskii et al. (2014) 295 indicated that the contribution of EES to the resistivity of hcp iron is  $\sim 5\%$  of the total 296 resistivity at 20 GPa and 294 K, and the contribution decreases with increasing pressures. 297 In this study, our calculated results at 20-60 GPa have slightly lower resistivity and much 298 higher thermal conductivity values than experiments (Figure 1). It is possibly due to the 299 omission of spin-polarization and EES effects, both of which tend to increase resistivity 300 and decrease thermal conductivity under high P-T conditions (Korell et al. 2019; 301 Pourovskii et al. 2020).

Moreover, we conducted resistivity calculations for hcp iron at high *P-T* conditions, including 98 GPa (1562 K and 3521 K), 132 GPa (2725 K), and 134 GPa (4114 K). The

304 results are shown in Figure 2a and Table 1. Generally, our results agree with both the 305 experimental data (Zhang et al. 2020) and calculation results (Korell et al. 2019; Xu et al. 306 2018; Zhang et al. 2020). Xu et al. (2018) used ordered lattice structures for simulation, 307 applied a parallel resistor correction for resistivity saturation, and included the EES effect. 308 In Figure 2a, the resistivity calculated by Xu et al. (2018) is slightly higher than ours, 309 likely due to the inclusion of the EES effect. No remarkable resistivity saturation is 310 observed in hcp iron below 134 GPa and 4114 K (Figure 2a). The electrical resistivity of hcp iron shows a quasi-linear temperature dependence in both computational and 311 experimental configurations, suggesting conformability with the Bloch-Grüneisen 312 313 formula. Our results are also consistent with the calculation results from Korell et al. 314 (2019) under conditions of 135 GPa and 3700 K, indicating a negligible impact from the 315 spin-polarization effect in such conditions. In a recent experimental study, resistivity 316 measurements were conducted for liquid iron at pressures up to 140 GPa (Ohta et al. 317 2023). Figure 2a illustrates that liquid iron at 105 and 135 GPa has slightly higher 318 resistivities than solid hcp iron at 98 and 134 GPa. This implies that the transition from 319 solid hcp iron to a liquid state may not significantly increase the resistivity at 320 pressures >105 GPa. According to previous DFT calculations, the resistivity of hcp iron 321 only experiences a minor increase of 6-10 % upon melting under Earth's core conditions 322 (Pozzo et al. 2014, 2012; Xu et al. 2018).

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### **Thermal conductivity of hcp Fe**

Figure 1b shows our computed thermal conductivity of hcp Fe with previous experimental (Hsieh et al. 2020; Ohta et al. 2018) and computational results

327 (Kleinschmidt et al. 2023). Hsieh et al. (2020) measured the thermal conductivity of bcc 328 and hcp iron at 1-120 GPa and 300 K using the time-domain thermoreflectance (TDTR) 329 technique, a well-established ultrafast metrology method that accurately measures the 330 thermal conductivity of materials under high pressure conditions. The thermal 331 conductivity of iron first increases from 76 to 88 W/m/K as pressure increases from 1 to 332 13 GPa, then rapidly decreases to  $\sim$ 55 W/m/K at 22 GPa. This value remains nearly 333 constant between 22 and 45 GPa, subsequently increasing to  $120 \pm 30$  W/m/K as pressure 334 rises from 45 to 120 GPa (Figure 1b). Compared to the results from Hsieh et al. (2020), 335 Ohta et al. (2018) reported similar  $\kappa$  values at 40-45 GPa but markedly lower values at 336 16-24 GPa. They employed thermal diffusivity, density, and isobaric heat capacity to 337 calculate thermal conductivity (Ohta et al. 2018), and the observed discrepancies in  $\kappa$ 338 values at  $\sim 20$  GPa may be attributed to uncertainties arising from heat capacity. The 339 markable change in the thermal conductivity at 13 GPa is a consequence of the phase 340 transition from bcc to hcp Fe (Figure 1b). The low and nearly constant experimental 341 thermal conductivity at 22-45 GPa is possibly due to the electronic topological transition of pure Fe (Glazyrin et al. 2013). 342

Compared to the experimental data, our calculated  $\kappa$  values for hcp iron are higher at 22-80 GPa but consistent at 80-105 GPa and 300 K (Figure 1b). In Figure 1b, the electronic thermal conductivity in the R1 simulation decreases from 134 to 86 W/m/K as the pressure increases from 60 to 136 GPa, while that of the R2 simulation increases from 116 to 129 W/m/K as the pressure increases from 50 to 136 GPa (Table 1). However, at room temperature, the total thermal conductivity of hcp iron increases with increasing pressure from 80 to 136 GPa (Hsieh et al. 2020). The unexpected decrease of thermal

350 conductivity in R1 simulation is due to its lattice parameter that was derived at 0 K by 351 DFT calculations. The increase of resistivity between 80-136 GPa in R1 simulation, as 352 shown in Figure 1a, makes it expected in the decrease of thermal conductivity. Therefore, 353 the experimental lattice structures (R2) are more suitable than those (R1) derived from 354 DFT calculations at 0 K for estimating the electronic transport properties of iron under 355 room temperature conditions. At 22-60 GPa, we observe that the calculated resistivity is 356 slightly lower than that in experiments, but the calculated thermal conductivity is much 357 higher. This difference is likely due to disregarding EES and spin-polarization effects 358 during calculation. At 300 K and pressures higher than 50 GPa, the EES and spin-359 polarization effects become very small (Korell et al. 2019, Pourovskii 2014). Under high 360 *P-T* conditions, the spin-polarization effect impacts resistivity and thermal conductivity 361 almost equally (Korell et al. 2019), while EES affects thermal conductivity more than 362 resistivity (Pourovskii et al. 2020). Hence, the EES effect may have a dominant impact 363 within the pressure range of 22-60 GPa at 300 K. Above 80 GPa, the pressure 364 dependence of hcp iron's thermal conductivity on the isotherm of 1850 K reported by 365 Kleinschmidt et al. (2023) agrees with our result at 300 K (Figure 1b). Overall, our 366 results estimate the  $\kappa$  for hcp iron as  $129 \pm 9$  W/m/K at 136 GPa and 300 K (Table 1).

Konôpková et al. (2016) suggested that the thermal conductivity of hcp iron at the Earth's
CMB conditions is as low as 35-55 W/m/K. Figure 2b shows that the electronic thermal
conductivity of hcp iron at 2725-4114 K and 132-134 GPa, similar to CMB conditions, is
130-158 W/m/K, nearly three times of the experimental results. The EES significantly
affects the electronic transport properties of pure Fe and Fe-Si alloys (Pourovskii et al.
2014, 2020; Zhang et al. 2022). The EES contribution to the total resistivity of hcp iron

373 increases quasi-linearly from 0 to 28.5% as the temperature increases from 300 to 4000 K 374 at 110-150 GPa (see Figure S7 in the study by Zhang et al. (2022)). Under the Earth's 375 core conditions (360 GPa and 5802 K), including the EES effect, the electrical resistivity 376 of solid hcp iron increased by 9%, and the thermal conductivity decreased by 24% 377 (Pourovskii et al. 2020). Though thermal disorder is the dominant contribution to total 378 scattering, the impact of inelastic scattering from EES cannot be discarded (Pourovskii et 379 al. 2020). Our FPMD calculation method naturally includes the thermal disorder effect 380 but lacks the EES effect. Here we assume that the impact of EES on the electronic 381 thermal conductivity of solid hcp iron at Earth's CMB conditions is temperaturedependent (Xu et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2022) and increases linearly from 0 to 28.5% as 382 383 temperature rises from 300 to 4000 K (Figure S3). As mentioned above, EES impacts 384 thermal conductivity more than electrical resistivity. Thus, our assumption may 385 underestimate the EES effect at Earth's CMB condition.

386 With the EES correction, the thermal conductivity of hcp iron in this study at 98-136 GPa 387 and high temperatures is accordingly reduced to somewhere roughly aligns with the 388 results of the DFT study by Xu et al. (2018), who also accounted for the EES effect in 389 their calculations (Figure 2b). Above all, the EES correction is essential in the calculation of solid iron's thermal conductivity, particularly under high temperature conditions. 390 391 Figure 2b illustrates that, at 105-136 GPa, the electronic thermal conductivity of hcp iron 392 first decreases with increasing temperature from 300 to ~2000-3000 K and then gradually 393 increases as the temperature rises to 4000 K. In contrast, experiments directly measuring 394 the thermal conductivity suggest that the temperature dependence of the pure hcp iron's thermal conductivity follows a  $T^{1/2}$  relationship (Konôpková et al. 2016) at CMB 395

396 conditions, deviating significantly from the predicted trend from calculations (Figure 2b). 397 To explain such low thermal conductivity of hcp iron in the experiment, apart from the 398 EES effect, stronger inelastic scattering mechanisms are required to reduce electronic 399 thermal conductivity. At 106-134 GPa and ~1800 K, our calculated results match the upper boundary of thermal conductivity of iron measured by Saha et al. (2020) (Figure 400 401 2b). Overall, solid hep iron's electronic thermal conductivity (with EES correction) at 134 GPa and 4100 K is calculated as  $114 \pm 6$  W/m/K, consistent with previous studies 402 403 (Xu et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2020).

404

### 405 Lorenz number of hcp Fe

406 We computed the total Lorentz number of iron at room temperature through the electrical resistivity (Seagle et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2020) and thermal conductivity (Hsieh et al. 407 408 2020), both directly measured in experiments. We only considered the contribution from 409 thermal conductivity on the uncertainty of the total Lorentz number, as the errors for the 410 experimental resistivity measurement are smaller than those of the thermal conductivity 411 measurement. We have shown that our experimental and calculated results are partly 412 consistent with those measured in the literature (Hsieh et al. 2020; Seagle et al. 2013; 413 Zhang et al. 2020). It remains reasonable to compare the Lorentz number calculated from 414 these literature data with our calculation results, despite large uncertainty arising from 415 different data sources. In Figure 3a, an experimental Lorentz number is as low as  $\sim 1.50$  $\times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> at 22-55 GPa and 300 K, smaller than the L<sub>0</sub>, indicating a significant 416 417 inelastic scattering effect in this pressure range. The Lorentz number at pressures between 20 and 50 GPa experiences a drop. It is possibly because the resistivity of hcp 418

419 iron decreases largely in this pressure range, while the thermal conductivity remains 420 consistent and lower than our calculations based on the assumption of elastic electron 421 scattering. Strong inelastic electron scattering processes can cause the L value to 422 negatively depart from  $L_0$  (Secco 2017). The EES effect induces strong inelastic electron 423 scattering in hcp iron at a pressure range of 22-55 GPa and 300 K and causes the 424 remarkably lower Lorentz numbers compared to  $L_0$  and calculated results from this study. Above 50 GPa, the experimental Lorentz number gradually increases to  $\sim 2.3 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-</sup> 425  $^{2}$  and remains relatively constant at higher pressures. Pourovskii et al. (2020) calculated 426 the Lorentz number for a perfect lattice structure of solid hcp iron, with  $L = 1.57 \times 10^{-8}$ 427 WQK<sup>-2</sup>, while for the disordered lattice structure,  $L = 2.28 \times 10^{-8}$  WQK<sup>-2</sup>. At 300 K and 428 below 60 GPa, the calculated Lorentz number in this study varies from 2.59 to  $2.73 \times 10^{-8}$ 429 W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>, exceeding both the  $L_0$  and experimental values (Figure 3a; Table 1). At 300 K 430 and 80-136 GPa, the calculated Lorentz number is in the range of  $2.1-2.3 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> 431 432 (Figure 3a, Table 1), lower than the  $L_0$  value but consistent with experiments.

Under 110-190 GPa and 2000-3000 K conditions, Xu et al. (2018) reported the L value of 433 hcp iron as  $2.1 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>. As the EES effect on the hcp iron's electrical resistivity is 434 435 temperature-dependent suggested by Zhang et al. (2022), we accordingly reduce 0-28.5% 436 from the calculated Lorentz number of hcp iron in this study, as shown in Figure 3b, 437 resulting in consistent data with Xu et al. (2018). Pourovskii et al. (2017) indicated that the fraction of EES is enhanced with increasing temperature, and the L value of hcp iron 438 under inner core's pressure conditions decreases from  $L_0$  to ~0.65 $L_0$  (1.59×10<sup>-8</sup> WΩK<sup>-2</sup>, 439 440 representing the pure Fermi liquid result) as temperatures rise from 300 to 30000 K (Figure 3b, black short dot line). Additionally, Gomi and Yoshino (2018), considering 441

442 ordered lattice structures (no thermal disorder and EES effect), calculated the Lorentz number of pure iron and iron alloys. Their results indicate a similar positive temperature-443 444 dependence of hcp iron's Lorentz number as the temperatures increase from 300 to 4000 K at 120 GPa (black short dash line in Figure 3b). The inset graph in Figure 3b 445 demonstrates that the Lorentz number (with EES correction) of hcp iron decreases with 446 447 increasing temperatures from 300 to 2000-3000 K and then increases with increasing temperatures to 4000 K at 98-140 GPa. Under high P-T conditions, the total Lorentz 448 numbers derived from experimental studies by Zhang et al. (2020), Saha et al. (2020), 449 and Konôpková et al. (2016) are as low as ~ $0.8 \times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>, which seems unreasonable 450 because it is much lower than the case of pure Fermi liquid  $(1.59 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega\text{K}^{-2})$  with only 451 inelastic scattering (Pourovskii et al. 2017) (Figure 3a). It is essential to acknowledge that 452 453 the total Lorentz numbers derived from non-internal experiments exhibit considerable uncertainty under high-temperature conditions, which could potentially lead to 454 455 unreasonable interpretations.

456 As shown in Figure 2b, the computed  $\kappa$  of hcp Fe at 105-136 GPa initially decreases with 457 increasing temperature and subsequently increases. The main reason is the total Lorentz 458 number. In the case of a constant Lorentz number for pure metals,  $\kappa \propto T/\rho$ . The residual resistivity ( $\rho_0$ ) causes the rapid decrease in  $\kappa$  at temperatures below 1000 K, as  $\rho = \rho_0 + \rho_0$ 459 AT (Williams, 1998). At high temperatures,  $\rho \approx AT$ , thus  $\kappa$  approaches to a constant. 460 461 However, the total Lorentz number, L(T) is a function of temperature. When the slope of L(T) is positive, the  $\kappa$  will increase with increasing temperature at high temperatures. This 462 is the case in this work and the study of Gomi et al. (2018). Including the EES effect, the 463 464 L values are reduced to below the Sommerfeld value  $(L_{\theta})$  (Figure 3b). However, the L is

465 proportional to the electronic specific heat, and the high-order terms of the electronic specific heat cause the deviation of L from the  $L_0$  (Gomi et al., 2015). For hcp iron, below 466 467  $\sim 2000$  K, both numerical and Sommerfeld values of the electronic specific heat show similar linear T-dependences (Boness et al., 1986), suggesting a small slope of L. In this 468 temperature range, the EES effect increases faster than the L as rising temperatures, 469 470 indicating an EES dominant effect and thus a decrease in  $\kappa$ . But above ~2000 K, the 471 numerical values increase more rapidly than the Sommerfeld value (Gomi et al., 2018) 472 (Figure 3b, S4). Thus, the slope of L becomes larger than that of EES, increasing  $\kappa$ . In 473 comparison to Gomi et al. (2018), our L values are smaller due to the thermal disorder 474 effect (Figure. 3b), but the slope of L under high temperatures is indeed large enough to 475 increase the  $\kappa$ . In summary, the thermal disorder effect systematically reduces the L of hcp iron, the EES effect reduces the L with a linear T-dependence, and the increase of 476 electronic specific heat rapidly enlarges the L at high temperatures. 477

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- 479

#### IMPLICATIONS

480 Thermal conductivity at the Earth's CMB

At 134 GPa and 4100 K, the thermal conductivity of hcp iron without EES correction is about  $158 \pm 8$  W/m/K, much higher than  $100 \pm 10$  W/m/K estimated by Zhang et al. (2020) and ~97 W/m/K computed by Xu et al. (2018). After EES correcting, the thermal conductivity is reduced to  $114 \pm 6$  W/m/K. Pozzo et al. (2022) pointed out that resistivity saturation may occur for hcp iron above 3000 K. However, our data shows no obvious resistivity saturation for hcp iron from 1500 to 4100 K (Figure 2a). Xu et al. (2018)

487 computed the saturation resistivity of hcp-Fe under the conditions of the Earth's outer 488 core (136 GPa) and inner core (360 GPa) to be 155 and 143  $\mu\Omega$  cm, respectively, using 489 the criterion mean free path. At 134 GPa and 4100 K, the computed and experimental 490 resistivity of hcp iron is about 80  $\mu\Omega$ ·cm, far below the saturation resistivity (Figure 2a). Thus, no apparent resistivity saturation for hcp iron is found in this study. Using the real-491 492 time formalism of time-dependent DFT method, Ramakrishna et al. (2023) calculated the 493 electrical resistivity of hcp iron at conditions related to Earth's core. They detected no 494 apparent resistivity saturation, even at temperature as high as 6000 K.

495 With the WFL, we estimated the thermal conductivity of hcp iron at the Earth's CMB conditions according to the Bloch-Grüneisen fit data for the resistivity (Figure 2a) from 496 497 Zhang et al. (2020) and Lorentz numbers (Figure 3b) from this study. As show in the inset of Figure 3b, the Lorentz number varies around 2.20  $\times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> (0.9 times of  $L_0$ ). 498 depending on the temperature and pressure. We set the L value of hcp iron to vary from 499 2.0 to 2.4  $\times 10^{-8}$  W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> at the CMB conditions. The short-dashed lines and grey regions 500 501 in Figure 2b show the estimation of thermal conductivity at 105 and 136 GPa and 502 temperatures of 300-4100 K. Thus, we estimated the thermal conductivity of solid hcp 503 iron at Earth's CMB conditions as 106-127 W/m/K (136 GPa and 4100 K). The upper boundary of thermal conductivity measured by Saha et al. (2020) falls into the estimated 504 505 range. After correcting the potential thickness errors of iron samples in the experiments, Lobanov and Geballe (2022) revised the thermal conductivity of hcp iron as 133 W/m/K 506 507 at Earth's CMB conditions, slightly higher than our estimations. For liquid iron at Earth's 508 CMB conditions, its thermal conductivity could be lower at ~95-114 W/m/K because the electrical resistivity of solid hcp iron may increase ~6-10 % at the onset of melting 509

510	(Figure 2a) (Yin et al. 2022a). Furthermore, the lattice thermal conductivity of an iron-
511	rich liquid outer core is about 2.5-4 W/m/K, which is negligible compared to the
512	electronic thermal conductivity (Pozzo et al., 2012). The light elements, such as silicon
513	and oxygen, in the Earth's liquid outer core can also lower the thermal conductivity of
514	iron. With the EES correction (~24% reduction on the $\kappa$ ) to the calculated thermal
515	conductivity of the Fe-Si (Pozzo et al. 2022) and Fe-Ni-O (Li et al. 2022) system, the
516	thermal conductivity at the Earth's CMB is estimated as ~75-85 W/m/K. Therefore, we
517	suggest that the reasonable thermal conductivity at the Earth's CMB is likely from 70 to
518	90 W/m/K.

519

# 520 Stable thermal stratification

521 The thermal state of Earth's outer core depends on the core compositions, CMB 522 temperature, and thermal conductivity (Nimmo 2015). The adiabatic heat flow ( $Q_{ad}$ ) in 523 the core can be approximately computed through the formula:

524 
$$Q_{ad} = -4\pi r^2 \kappa \frac{T_{ad}}{dr}$$
(1)

where *r* is the radius,  $\kappa$  is the thermal conductivity,  $\frac{T_{ad}}{dr}$  is the adiabatic temperature gradient. The adiabatic temperature gradient at CMB is about 0.9-1.0 K/km (Davies et al. 2015; Labrosse 2015). Here we simply assumed that the total heat flow in the core ( $Q_T$ ) is also a function of radius, so that:

529 
$$Q_T = Q_{cmb} = -4\pi r^2 \kappa \frac{dT}{dr}$$
(2)

530 which is a good approximation for the heat flow near the CMB ( $Q_{cmb}$ ). When the uppermost core is subadiabatic,  $Q_{cmb} < Q_{ad}$ , a thermal stratification layer may exist 531 532 beneath the CMB (Davies 2015; Nimmo 2015; Zhang et al. 2022). Here, we calculated 533 the adiabatic heat flow across the CMB, ranging from 13.7 TW (with  $\kappa = 90$  W/m/K) to 534 10.7 TW (with  $\kappa = 70$  W/m/K), by assuming a 1.0 K/km adiabatic temperature gradient at 535 the topmost of outer core. The present-day total heat flow across the lowermost mantle is 536 estimated at ~10-12 TW according to the thermal conductivity (~10 W/m/K) and 537 temperature gradient data for the lowermost mantle (Okuda et al. 2020). Given the low 538 thermal conductivity of liquid silicate under CMB conditions (~5.3 W/m/K, Deng and 539 Stixrude 2021), the present-day  $Q_{cmb}$  may be reduced to 6-7 TW. Davies et al. (2022) 540 employed numerical geodynamo simulations with theoretical scaling laws to propose that 541 a present-day  $Q_{cmb}$  in the range of 12-16 TW best aligns with the model for the 542 evolutionary history of Earth's magnetic field strength. However, Frost et al. (2022) suggest a  $Q_{cmb}$  of ~15 TW derived from reasonable historic mantle temperatures. In the 543 544 models from Li et al. (2022), the core's entropy remains positive throughout Earth's 545 history when  $Q_{cmb}$  exceeds 7 TW, supporting the existence of the geomagnetic field 546 beginning at 3.5 Ga ago.

In the case of high thermal conductivity (111.68-182.33 W/m/K) in the core, Li et al. (2022) calculated the inner core's age in a range from 0.502 to 1.221 Ga (Figure 4). Pozzo et al. (2022), based on a low thermal conductivity of 75-81 W/m/K at Earth's CMB and considering radiogenic heating contribution with 30 ppm  $^{40}K$  in the core, estimated the inner core's age as 0.4-0.8 Ga. Davies et al. (2015) proposed that subadiabatic condition could result in the formation of a thermally stratified layer,

553 potentially hundreds of kilometers thick and stable against thermal convection, beneath 554 the CMB. Using the same approach as Zhang et al. (2022) and assuming the potential 555 thermal conductivity of  $\sim$ 70-90 W/m/K at the CMB, we calculated the thickness of the stratified layer at various  $Q_{cmb}$  values (Figure 4). All the parameters used for this 556 557 calculation are listed in Table S2. When  $Q_{cmb}$  is below 13.7 TW, thermal stratification can occur, with its thickness varying from 0 to 1000 km as  $Q_{cmb}$  further decreases to 7 558 TW. Notably, thermal stratification is not feasible at the uppermost of the liquid core 559 when  $Q_{cmb}$  exceeds ~15 TW. When the  $Q_{cmb}$  ranges from 10 to 12 TW, the stratified layer 560 561 may have a thickness between 0 and 525 km (Figure 4). Similarly, Davies and 562 Greenwood (2023) suggested that the maximum thickness of the thermal stratification 563 layer ranges from 400 to 500 km when the thermal conductivity at the CMB is about 70 564 W/m/K. However, instead of thermal stratification, chemical stratification may play a 565 pivotal role. For instance, a compositional stratification layer may form via chemical 566 interactions between the liquid core and mantle (Buffet and Seagle 2010; Davies et al. 567 2020). Experiments conducted under high *P*-*T* conditions have revealed the liquid-liquid 568 immiscibility in the Fe-S-H system occurs at pressures up to 118 GPa, providing a 569 scenario of chemical stratification to explain the low-velocity layer beneath the CMB 570 (Yokoo et al. 2022).

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572

#### CONCLUSIONS

We investigated the electrical resistivity of hcp iron at high pressures and room temperature conditions, using both the experimental and first-principles calculation methods. At 136 GPa and 300 K, the electrical resistivity and thermal conductivity of hcp

576 iron are calculated at 5.72  $\pm$  0.65  $\mu\Omega$ ·cm and 129  $\pm$  9 W/m/K, respectively. At 134 GPa 577 and 4100 K, they are  $79.58 \pm 3.59 \ \mu\Omega$  cm and  $114 \pm 6 \ W/m/K$ , respectively. At 98-136 578 GPa and 300-4100 K, the Lorentz number of hcp iron varies with pressure and 579 temperature. Based on the resistivity results and Lorentz number, we estimated the 580 thermal conductivity of solid hcp iron at 105 and 136 GPa via the Wiedemann-Franz law. Thus, solid hcp iron at Earth's CMB conditions (136 GPa and 4100 K) has an electronic 581 582 thermal conductivity of 106-127 W/m/K. Considering the impact of light elements and 583 melting, the corresponding thermal conductivity at CMB decreases to  $\sim 70-90$  W/m/K. 584 Therefore, a potential subadiabatic condition in the outer core could form a thermally 585 stratified layer with a thickness of 0-525 km beneath the CMB, depending on the current 586 total heat flow across the CMB.

587 Most of our data reconcile the experimental and computational results for the resistivity 588 and thermal conductivity of solid hcp iron at high pressure and room temperature 589 conditions. However, to explain the abnormally low thermal conductivity of hcp iron at 590 20-60 GPa and 300 K, further calculations involving the EES and spin-polarization 591 effects are necessary, though these calculations are expensive. Additionally, it's essential 592 to note that the experimental Lorentz number of pure iron in this study was not derived from internal measurement studies. Consequently, future works should focus on 593 594 generating internally consistent experimental datasets, encompassing electrical resistivity 595 and thermal conductivity, to gain a comprehensive understanding of the Lorentz number 596 for iron and iron alloys under high P-T conditions. The overall picture of the transport 597 properties of iron from room to high temperature conditions suggests that the liquid outer

598 core has possible low thermal conductivity only if there are a large number of light 599 elements in the outer core.

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#### 874 Figure captions

875 Figure 1. The electrical resistivity (a) and thermal conductivity (b) of iron at room 876 temperature and high pressure conditions. (a) shows our measured results at pressures up to 26 GPa (half solid circles, U1419 and U1423) and computed results at pressures up to 877 878 136 GPa (solid triangles, R1 and R2). The labels exp and calc state the results from 879 experimental measurement and FPMD calculations, respectively. R1 and R2 differ on the 880 input lattice parameters, where the former applied the DFT-based lattice parameters 881 calculated at 0 K and the latter with experimental data measured at 300 K. The arrows in 882 (a) and (b) note the pressures of the bcc to hcp phase transition and the electronic 883 topological transition (ETT). In (a) and (b), we see the R1 run exhibits opposite pressure 884 dependency compared to experimental results at 80-136 GPa, indicating the failure of 885 prediction from the calculated lattice parameters at 0 K. In (b), all the experimental 886 thermal conductivity values are measured directly in high *P*-*T* experiments. References: 887 Ez21-(Ezenwa and Yoshino 2021); Go13-(Gomi et al. 2013); Hs20-(Hsieh et al. 2020); 888 Ja02-(Jaccard et al. 2002); Kl23-(Kleinschmidt et al. 2023); Oh18-(Ohta et al. 2018); 889 Se13-(Seagle et al. 2013); Sh11-(Sha and Cohen 2011); Zh18, Zh20-(Zhang et al. 2018, 890 2020).

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Figure 2. The electrical resistivity (a) and thermal conductivity (b) of hcp iron at high *P*-*T* conditions. In (a), the experimental data from Zhang et al. (2020) only display the error bar at the highest temperature. Solid and dashed lines are Bloch-Grüneisen fitting lines from Zhang et al. (2020). In (b), the numbers near the symbol note the pressures, and the pressure error is in parentheses. The grey short-dashed line and region (noted as WFL)

show the predicted thermal conductivity range of solid hcp iron at 105 and 136 GPa via 897 898 the Wiedemann-Fanz law in this study, in which the resistivity data is the Bloch-899 Grüneisen fitting data from Zhang et al. (2020), and the Lorentz number is from this study. The data of grey short-dashed lines are calculated with L values of  $2.20 \times 10^{-8}$ 900 W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup> and the grev regions are calculated with L values from 2.0 to 2.4×10<sup>-8</sup> W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>. 901 902 The red solid triangles state the calculated electronic thermal conductivity from this study, 903 whereas the open inverted triangles are data with an EES correction. References: Ko16-(Konôpková et al. 2016); Ko19-(Korell et al. 2019); Oh23-(Ohta et al. 2023); Sa20-904 905 (Saha et al. 2020); Xu18-(Xu et al. 2018); Zh20-(Zhang et al. 2020).

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907 Figure 3. The Lorenz numbers of Fe at room-temperature (a) and high temperature (b) 908 conditions. (a) The grey horizontal dash-dot, dash-dot-dot, and dash lines represent Lorenz numbers of the theoretical value ( $L_0 = 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega\text{K}^{-2}$ ), iron with disordered 909 lattice structure (2.28×10<sup>-8</sup> W $\Omega$ K<sup>-2</sup>), and iron with ordered lattice structure (1.57×10<sup>-8</sup> 910  $W\Omega K^{-2}$ ), respectively (Pourovskii et al. 2020). The experimental Lorentz number is 911 912 computed from experimental resistivity (Seagle et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2020) and 913 experimental thermal conductivity (Hsieh et al. 2020; Konôpková et al. 2016; Saha et al. 914 2020) data. (b) Symbols of plus, cross and open square denote the Lorentz numbers after 915 electron-electron scattering (EES) correction. The black short dash and short dot curves 916 are part of the Lorentz number of hcp iron from the theoretical calculation studies by 917 Gomi and Yoshino (2018) and Pourovskii et al. (2017), respectively. The results from Pourovskii et al. (2017) include the EES effect while those from Gomi and Yoshino 918 919 (2018) do not. Some error bars of results from this study are smaller than the symbol size.

The dash-dot line denotes the  $L_0$  value. The inset in (**b**) shows an enlarged view of all theoretically calculated Lorentz numbers with EES correction, and the y-axis is the ratio of calculated and theoretical *L*. References: de12-(de Koker et al. 2012), Go18-(Gomi and Yoshino 2018), Hs20-(Hsieh et al. 2020), Ko16-(Konôpková et al. 2016), Po17-(Pourovskii et al. 2017), Sa20-(Saha et al. 2020); Se13-(Seagle et al. 2013); Xu18-(Xu et al. 2018); Zh20-(Zhang et al. 2020).

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927 Figure 4. The thickness of the potential thermally stratified layer beneath CMB varies 928 with the total heat flow across the CMB ( $Q_{cmb}$ ). The grey dashed line is the calculated 929 inner core age from Li et al. (2022). Open circles represent the thickness when the 930 thermal conductivity at CMB is  $\sim 100 \text{ W/m/K}$  from the study by Zhang et al. (2022). The 931 vertical light-yellow area represents the most likely  $Q_{cmb}$  values at present-day CMB. 932 Numbers next to the symbols and lines represent different thermal conductivity (70, 90, 933 and 100 W/m/K) at CMB. Though the thermal conductivity of liquid iron is ~95-114 934 W/m/K at the CMB, the alloying of iron and light elements (silicon and oxygen) may 935 reduce the thermal conductivity to 70-90 W/m/K (Pozzo et al. 2022; Li et al. 2022), and 936 thus the most possible thermal conductivity at CMB is around 70-90 W/m/K. The black 937 dashed area represents the thickness of thermally stratified layer beneath the CMB when 938 the thermal conductivity at CMB varies from 70 to 90 W/m/K.

Pressures <sup>**</sup>	Temperature	ρ	$\kappa_{el}$	L	Pressures	Temperature	ρ	$\kappa_{el}$	L
(GPa)	(K)	$(\mu\Omega \cdot cm)$	(W/m/K)	$(10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega\text{K}^{-2})$	(GPa)	(K)	$(\mu\Omega \cdot cm)$	(W/m/K)	$(10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega \text{K}^{-2})$
Room tempe	erature (300 K)								
R1*					R2				
22	-	10.65(102)	77.84(570)	2.61(13)	22	-	9.69(110)	92.82(1179)	2.73(15)
30	-	8.64(64)	99.24(950)	2.69(11)	29	-	8.13(133)	107.58(1857)	2.65(10)
40	-	8.09(58)	105.92(639)	2.67(12)	50	-	6.88(53)	115.77(743)	2.56(14)
60	-	6.14(49)	133.79(634)	2.59(15)	80	-	6.54(71)	110.64(1109)	2.35(21)
80	-	5.81(52)	127.09(1051)	2.37(11)	105	-	5.91(66)	116.58(662)	2.26(25)
100	-	6.52(72)	115.19(785)	2.43(21)	136	-	5.72(65)	128.56(844)	2.36(38)
136	-	7.66(55)	85.57(478)	2.12(10)					
High pressu	re-temperature								
98.5	1562	37.86(279)	105.32(737)	2.53(2)	132	2725	55.79(287)	130.20(525)	2.66(4)
98.6	3521	80.01(333)	137.33(578)	3.13(3)	134	4114	79.58(359)	157.76(840)	3.06(3)

**Table 1.** Pressure, electrical resistivity ( $\rho$ ), electronic thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{el}$ ), and Lorentz number (L) for hcp iron in this study.

<sup>\*</sup>Pressure-temperature conditions and lattice parameters are referred to Dewaele et al. (2006); Anzellini et al. (2013); and Fei et al. (2016) for iron.

941 \*The lattice parameters used in R1 simulation are calculated at 0 K while R2 simulation are from experiments. All lattice parameters are listed in942 Table S1.







