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2	Early differentiation of the bulk silicate Earth as recorded
3	by the oldest mantle reservoir
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# 26 ABSTRACT

An emerging challenge for understanding the Earth system is to determine the 27 relative roles of early planetary processes versus progressive differentiation in shaping 28 the Earth's chemical architecture. An enduring tenet of modern chemical 29 geodynamics is that the Earth started as a well-mixed and homogeneous body which 30 evolved progressively over the geologic time to several chemically distinct domains. 31 32 As a consequence, the observable chemical heterogeneity in mantle-derived rocks has 33 generally been attributed to the Earth's dynamic evolution over the past 4.5 Ga. However, the identification of chemical heterogeneity formed during the period 4.53– 34 35 4.45 Ga in the ca. 60 Ma Baffin Bay high-magnesium lavas provides strong evidence that chemical effects of early differentiation can persist in mantle reservoirs to the 36 37 present day. Here, we demonstrate that such an ancient mantle reservoir is likely 38 composed of enriched and depleted dense melts, and propose a model for early global differentiation of the bulk silicate Earth that would produce two types of dense melts 39 with distinctive chemical compositions in the deep Earth. These dense melts 40 ultimately became parts of the thermo-chemical piles near the core-mantle boundary 41 42 that have been protected from complete entrainment by subsequent mantle convection currents. We argue that although such dense melts likely exhibit some 'primordial' 43 44 geochemical signatures, they are not reprehensive of the bulk silicate Earth. Our work provides a strong case for the mantle chemical heterogeneity being formed by a major 45 differentiation event shortly after planet accretion rather than through the subsequent 46 47 geodynamic evolution.

### 48 INTRODUCTION

The Earth's mantle is chemically heterogeneous at all scales (Hofmann, 1997; 49 Zindler and Hart, 1986). Knowledge about the chemical composition and 50 differentiation of the primordial silicate Earth is crucial for understanding how the 51 Earth's mantle works (e.g., Caro, 2011; Hofmann, 1997; Zindler and Hart, 1986). 52 However, chemical signatures related to the Earth's early differentiation are believed 53 54 to have largely been scrambled or diluted by whole mantle convection, tectonic-plate recycling and continuous exchanges between the mantle and crust over the past 4.5 55 Ga (e.g., Allègre, 1982; Caro, 2011). As a result, the isotopic and chemical 56 57 heterogeneities observed in modern mantle-derived rocks are generally believed to reflect later production and recycling of oceanic and continental crust through 58 geological time, and thus bear no direct signature of the primordial silicate Earth (e.g., 59 60 Allègre, 1982; Hofmann, 1997; Zindler and Hart, 1986). This led to the widely held believe that the Earth started as a well-mixed homogeneous body that evolved 61 progressively over geologic time to several chemically distinct domains (Allègre, 62 1982; Hofmann, 1997; Zindler and Hart, 1986). However, we demonstrated here that 63 the very-early-formed chemical heterogeneity as recorded by the oldest mantle 64 reservoir can persist in mantle reservoirs to the present day. 65

The ca. 60 Ma old Baffin Bay picrites between Baffin Island and West
Greenland (BIWG) are among the earliest manifestations of the ancestral Iceland
mantle plume. The high <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He end-member of the mantle composition range (up

to 50 R<sub>A</sub>, where R<sub>A</sub> is the atmospheric value of  $1.39 \times 10^{-6}$ ) (Starkey et al., 2009) in 69 the picrites may signify an undegassed primitive mantle source or isolated primordial 70 He-rich reservoir that is a residue of ancient mantle depletion (Heber et al., 2007). 71 The recent landmark discovery of a primitive Pb isotopic composition confirmed that 72 the BIWG lavas were derived from a deep-Earth reservoir preserved at the 73 74 core-mantle boundary (CMB) that has remained isolated since the earliest days of planetary accretion some 4.5 Ga (Jackson et al., 2010). Jackson et al. (2010) proposed 75 that the composition of such an ancient reservoir is representative of the bulk silicate 76 77 Earth (BSE) (Andreasen et al., 2008) 'parental to all mantle reservoirs'.

# 78 **DISCUSSION**

A previous back-calculation based on the two highest <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He samples (DUR8 79 and BI/PI/25) (Jackson et al., 2010) suggested that the oldest mantle reservoir 80 represents a residue of an ancient global depletion event. If this is true, the estimated 81 Nb/La ratio for the oldest mantle reservoir should be similar to typical depleted 82 mantle reservoirs. However, such a back-calculation resulted in an extremely high 83 Nb/La ratio of 1.41 that is much higher than any known depleted reservoir, such as 84 modern depleted mid-ocean-ridge basalt (MORB) mantle reservoirs (Nb/La = 0.64-85 0.97; Workman and Hart, 2005) and early depleted reservoirs (Nb/La = 0.74-0.79; 86 Carlson and Boyet, 2008). Furthermore, uncontaminated BIWG picrites (Starkey et al., 87 2009) and their olivine-hosted melt inclusions (Starkey et al., 2012) exhibit a large 88 range of isotopic and chemical compositions, overlapping that of both typical depleted 89

90 and enriched mantle reservoirs. There has been no evidence suggesting the existence of either depleted melt inclusions in the enriched picrites, or enriched inclusions in the 91 depleted picrites (Starkey et al., 2012), arguing strongly against the derivation of the 92 picrites from a single depleted reservoir. This emphasizes the needs for a better 93 understanding of the nature and origin of the oldest mantle reservoirs, and the 94 95 chemical heterogeneity of the BIWG picrites holds the key for unrevealing early global differentiation of the BSE (e.g., Bennett et al., 2007; Caro, 2011; Lee et al., 96 2010; Nomura et al., 2011). Before discussing the characteristics of the BIWG source, 97 we first use a set of criteria (Figs. 1-2) to first strip-off the highly evolved BIWG 98 samples, and then reconstruct the primary melt compositions (Appendix Table S1). 99 The uncontaminated BIWG picrites show a fairly narrow <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb range that plots 100 within the geochrons of 4.53 to 4.40 Ga, whereas the contaminated lavas show a 101 larger <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb range plotting outside this geochron band (Fig. 2h). This confirms 102 criteria 103 the effectiveness of the used for striping-off the effects of assimilation-fractional crystallization. The estimated primary melt compositions and 104 melting pressures suggest melt fractions of ~7 to 22%, that correlate with Sm/Nd, 105 Nb/La, Zr/Sm, Zr/Nb and La/Sm ratios (Fig. 3). Thus, refractory lithophile element 106 ratios of the less-evolved BIWG picrites and partial melting conditions can be used to 107 examine the nature and origin of such an ancient mantle reservoir. 108

109 The refractory lithophile element ratios and isotopic results of the less-evolved 110 BIWG picrites suggest that their source likely contains two extreme end-member 111 components (Fig. 4 and Appendix Fig. R2). This is consistent with the end-members

defined by olivine-hosted melt inclusions from uncontaminated BWG picrites (Fig. 112 4a-c). The compositions of the two end-member sources were estimated based on 113 114 forward partial melting modelling (Fig. 4). Melt fractions for the enriched and depleted end-member melts are constrained by the correlation of refractory lithophile 115 element ratios with melt fractions (Fig. 3). The best estimate for the enriched 116 end-member source is Sm/Nd = 0.33 (corresponding to  ${}^{147}Sm/{}^{144}Nd = 0.1977$ ), La/Sm 117 = 1.7, Nb/La = 1.4, Zr/Sm = 29.2, Zr/Nb = 12.2, and  $\varepsilon Nd_{60}$  = +2 to +4. The estimated 118 depleted end-member source, on the other hand, has Sm/Nd = 0.38 ( $^{147}Sm/^{144}Nd =$ 119 0.217), La/Sm = 0.77, Nb/La = 0.62, Zr/Sm = 22.1, Zr/Nb = 50.0, and  $\varepsilon Nd_{60} = +8$  to 120 +11. The corresponding parent/daughter ratios of Rb-Sr, Lu-Hf and Re-Os for the two 121 end-member sources are shown in Fig. 4f-h. Because the BIWG source likely formed 122 123 at 4.5 Ga (Jackson et al., 2010), the above two end-members therefore likely bear important information regarding early global differentiation of the BSE (e.g., Caro, 124 2011). 125

The depleted end-member source likely represents a residual of the global 126 depletion event early in the Earth's history (Jackson et al., 2010). This end-member 127 source is highly depleted relative to chondritic BSE, with refractory lithophile element 128 ratios similar to that of modern depleted MORB mantle and early depleted reservoirs, 129 130 and Nd-Sr-Hf isotope comparable to early depleted reservoirs (Fig. 4). The differentiation of the early silicate Earth was expected to produce such an early 131 depleted reservoir with super-chondritic Sm/Nd and Lu/Hf, and sub-chondritic Rb/Sr 132 ratios (Caro and Bourdon, 2010 and references therein), which is similar to that 133

observed in the depleted end-member source (Figs. 4d–f). Evidence for the existence
of such an early depleted reservoir is mainly from superchondritic <sup>142</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd ratios
(e.g., Caro, 2011) and coupled <sup>182</sup>W–<sup>142</sup>Nd anomalies (Moynier et al., 2010) in most
terrestrial samples.

However, it has been unclear whether a complementary early-formed enriched 138 component exists in modern silicate domains and, if any, how it affects modern 139 140 mantle reservoirs (e.g., Andreasen et al., 2008; Caro, 2011). The enriched end-member source calculated here is characterized by a higher superchondritic 141 Nb/La ratio (1.4) and broadly chondritic Sm/Nd, La/Sm and Zr/Nb ratios and Nd 142 143 isotopes (Fig. 4b-d). The following argument suggests that the decoupling of Nb/La ratios from Sm/Nd ratios and associated Nd isotopes is a lower mantle signature. Bulk 144 solid-melt Sm/Nd partition coefficients (<sup>bulk</sup>D<sub>Sm/Nd</sub>) at upper mantle pressures are 145 146 about 2, and decrease to unity at lower mantle pressures (Appendix Table S3 and Fig. R3). Furthermore, experimental partition coefficients for lower mantle minerals show 147 that rare earth elements are strongly compatible in Ca-perovskite (Corgne et al., 2005). 148 By contrast, Nb, Ta, Pb, Rb and Ba are incompatible in Ca-perovskite. As a 149 consequence, melt segregated from a basal magma ocean (Nomura et al., 2011) will 150 be depleted in rare earth elements, U and Th, but enriched in Rb, Ba, and Nb, Ta, and 151 152 Sr (Jackson et al., 2010) (Fig. 5a). Therefore, freezing of a magma ocean with a nonchondritic BSE composition (Sm/Nd = 0.343, Nb/La = 0.89; Fig. 5a) initiated at 153 the base of mantle (Caro et al., 2005 and references therein) would have resulted in an 154 incompatible element-enriched residual melt with Nb/La, Zr/Nb, La/Sm, Zr/Sm and 155

Sm/Nd ratios and Nd-Sr-Os isotopes, as observed in the BIWG enriched end-member (Figs. 4 and 5a). In contrast, differentiation of a chondritic BSE (McDonough and Sun, 1995) cannot produce the enriched end-member source (Fig. 2d and f). Together with the homogeneous super-chondritic <sup>142</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd ratios in the BIWG picrites (de Leeuw et al., 2010), we propose that the enriched end-member source originated from a nonchondritic BSE in the lower mantle.

Because both the depleted and enriched BIWG end-member sources possess 162 primordial (high) <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He signatures (Starkey et al., 2012), the above two 163 end-member sources were most likely generated in an undegassed deep Earth. It has 164 been argued that differentiation of early silicate Earth in deep Earth can generate 165 undegassed dense melts concentrating at the CMB (e.g., Lee et al., 2010; Nomura et 166 al., 2011) and ultimately result in the primordial time-integrated high <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He of ca. 167 60 R<sub>A</sub> at 60 Ma (Lee et al., 2010) (Fig. 5b). The large range in the estimated Th, U 168 and He contents implies that the oldest mantle reservoir should evolve to have 169  ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He} = 33-54 \text{ R}_{A}$  after ca. 4.4 Ga of isolation from whole-mantle convection (Fig. 170 5b). This coincides well with observed values in the uncontaminated BIGW picrites 171 (Fig. 3B). Although the early-formed dense melts exhibit some 'primordial' isotopic 172 signatures, providing an elegant argument for the survival of a primitive geochemical 173 174 component in the mantle, we argue that they did not preserve the true primordial bulk silicate Earth composition in terms of major element and key trace element 175 compositions. 176

## 177 CONCLUSION

Understanding the way of early silicate Earth differentiation requires knowledge of 178 the density contrast between solid and melt fractions (e.g., Lee et al., 2010; Nomura et 179 al., 2011). Positive and negative melt buoyancies yield drastically different 180 geodynamical models. The prevailing view of differentiation of Earth's silicate 181 mantle is driven by extraction of low-density melts. As the mantle upwells and 182 183 decompresses across its solidus, it partially melts. These low-density melts rise to the surface and form the continental and oceanic crusts, driving the differentiation of the 184 silicate part of the Earth. Lee et al. (2010) proposed a fresh perspective on the way of 185 186 early Earth silicate Earth differentiation if liquids sink instead of rise. Under certain high-pressure conditions in upper mantle, it has been suggested that peridotite partial 187 melts may be more dense than solid peridotite because such liquids are Fe-rich and 188 more compressible than solids (e.g., Lee et al., 2010; Miller et al., 1991; Stolper et al., 189 1981; Suzuki et al., 1998). Recent experimental determined iron partitioning over the 190 entire mantle pressure range suggested that liquid formed at  $\geq$ 1,800 km becomes 191 denser than coexisting solid in the lower mantle (Nomura et al., 2011). It should be 192 pointed out that the behaviour of solid-liquid iron partitioning in Earth's deep mantle 193 is still poor constrained and highly debated (e.g., Andrault et al., 2012). 194

We use Figure 6 to illustrate how global differentiation of the early silicate Earth during 4.55–4.40 Ga may have produced two types (depleted and enriched) of dense melts in an undegassed deep Earth. If crystallization of a magma ocean began at the

base of the Earth's mantle and progressed upward (Caro et al., 2005 and references 198 therein), the global differentiation of the BSE would have occurred in two 199 independent layers at >1,800 km and  $\leq$ 1,800 km depths (Nomura et al., 2011) (Fig. 200 6a). With progressive crystallization, the density contrast (Nomura et al., 2011) would 201 produce an enriched denser liquid phase at the core-mantle boundary, enriching in 202 203 incompatible trace elements (Rb, Ba, Nb, Pb, and Sr) including volatile species (Labrosse et al., 2007). In contrast, within the upper layer ( $\leq 1,800$  km), as the 204 crystallization proceeded, the residual liquid would rise buoyantly until a small 205 206 fraction (<1%) of melt ultimately formed a protocrust at the Earth surface, resulting in depleting 60% of the silicate Earth. This is consistent with the 60% depletion 207 constraint by the Nd budget of the crust (Caro et al., 2005 and references therein). The 208 209 depleted dense melt may have been generated by high degree partial melting of peridotite at about 300-410 km depths (Lee et al., 2010) shortly after magma ocean 210 crystallization (Fig. 6a). The above two types of dense melts would result in materials 211 212 constituting the present-day thermo-chemical piles hosted within the two large low-shear-wave-velocity provinces above the CMB (e.g., Jackson and Carlson, 2011; 213 214 Nomura et al., 2011), that have been protected from complete entrainment by subsequent mantle convection currents (e.g., Caro, 2011; Nomura et al., 2011). 215

Because the homogeneous superchondritic <sup>142</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd signatures in the BIWG picrites (de Leeuw et al., 2010) were mainly formed within the Earth's first 30 Ma (Caro et al., 2008), both the enriched and the depleted end-members likely formed at 4.53–4.45 Ga, as independently constrained by the primitive Pb isotopes (Fig. 1h). 220 This coincides with a mean early mantle differentiation age of  $4.51 \pm 0.02$  Ga (Bennett et al., 2007). The identification of such very-early-formed chemical 221 222 heterogeneity in modern mantle-derived rocks therefore provides strong evidence that the BSE was affected by non-uniformitarian processes early on in Earth history, 223 resulting in extremely local chemical differentiation (e.g., Bennett et al., 2007). 224 225 Furthermore, such chemical effects can persist in mantle reservoirs to the present day, which is attributed to a combination of compositionally induced high density and low 226 viscosity (e.g., Caro, 2011; Nomura et al., 2011). This provides a strong case against 227 228 the popular chemical geodynamic model that the observable isotopic and elemental heterogeneity in mantle-derived rocks mainly reflects the presence of several 229 end-member mantle reservoirs formed through the Earth's younger geodynamic 230 processes (e.g., Hofmann, 1997; Zindler and Hart, 1986). Thus, an emerging 231 challenge for the understanding the Earth system is to determine the relative roles of 232 early planetary processes versus progressive differentiation in shaping the Earth's 233 234 chemical architecture.

How such a dense chemical layer can be sampled and brought to the surface is an important question. Geological evidence related to supercontinent reconstructions (e.g., Li and Zhong, 2009) shows that both the location and formation of superplumes were dominantly controlled by the first order geometry of global subduction zones. Recent studies proposed that sinking subducted slabs could not only push the dense chemical layer upward, but also push the thermal boundary layer to form thermal-chemical domes (Steinberger and Torsvik, 2012), enhancing or triggering

242	thermal instability (Fig. 6b). The physical properties of mantle plumes also imply that
243	materials from the dense chemical layer near the CMB should only be a minor
244	component of mantle plumes and thus can only be identified in the earliest phase of
245	high temperature melts (picrites and komatiites) (e.g., Campbell and O'Neill, 2012).

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254 Figure Caption

Fig. 1. Variation of selected oxides, trace element ratios, and isotopes as a function of 255 256 MgO concentration in the BIWG lavas (Dale et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2010; Larsen and Pedersen, 2009; Lightfoot et al., 1997; Robillard et al., 1992; Schaefer et al., 2000; 257 Starkey et al., 2009). Black dashed lines in (a-f) represent the BIWG lavas evolution 258 path. The solid black lines with arrows indicate the effect of fractional crystallization 259 of single minerals on magmatic evolution (Wang et al., 2012). These figures show 260 that after stripping-off the effect of crustal contamination, the samples with MgO>12 261 262 wt.% are only affected by olivine fractional crystallization or accumulation. Due to the extremely high incompatibility in olivine, the incompatible trace element ratios of 263 the samples with MgO >12 wt.% reflect the contribution of source region and/or 264 265 crustal contamination.

266 Fig. 2. Evaluating the effects of crustal contamination on BIWG magma compositions. This figure shows that the effects of assimilation-fractional crystallization (AFC) on 267 the samples with SiO<sub>2</sub>  $\leq$ 50 wt.%, MgO >12 wt.%, and  $\epsilon$ Nd(t)>+2 are insignificant if 268 any. Black curves indicate evolution of <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb versus <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb starting from 269 the initial Pb-isotope composition of Canyon Diablo (Paul et al., 2002). Also shown 270 are 4.568 Ga, 4.53 Ga, and 4.45 Ga geochrons (Jackson et al., 2010). Pb\* = 271 272  $2Pb_N/(Ce_N + Pr_N)$ , subscript N indicates the CI-chondrite (McDonough and Sun, 1995) normalized values. 273

Fig. 3. Plots of incompatible trace element ratios versus calculated melt fraction 274 number (**F**, %). The melt fraction number is calculated by function A1 and A2 in the 275 276 appendix of Putirka et al. (2007). The calculated melt fraction broadly correlates with the incompatible trace element ratios from the uncontaminated picrites. This implies 277 278 that the enriched and depleted end-members were likely generated at different melting 279 degree. Such new information combined with the melt inclusion data (Starkey et al., 2012) and petrological evidence (e.g., Francis, 1985; Herzberg and O'Hara, 2002; 280 Kent et al., 2004) suggests that both the mantle source and degree of partial melting 281 for the enriched- and depleted-type of picrites are different. 282

283 Fig. 4. (**a**-**c**): Correlations of selected refractory lithophile element ratios with Sm/Nd. A chondritic BSE (McDonough and Sun, 1995), average compositions of 284 normal-MORB (N-MROB), ocean island basalt (OIB) (Sun and McDonough, 1989), 285 depleted MORB mantle (DMM) (Workman and Hart, 2005) the range of early 286 depleted reservoirs (EDR, black rectangles in a and c) (Carlson and Boyet, 2008), 287 nonmodal batch partial melting (solid lines with cross), binary mixing (green dashed 288 lines), super-chondritic Earth model (light pink colour area) and chondritic BSE (Caro 289 and Bourdon, 2010) are shown. EMI and DMI represent the enriched and depleted 290 types of melt inclusions from high  ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$  BIWG picrites (Starkey et al., 2012). 291 292 Numbers in italic mark partial melt fractions (%). (d-f): Evolution of Nd-Sr-Hf-Os isotopes in the oldest mantle reservoir. The grey fields represent the isotopic evolution 293 of the enriched end-member with Nb/La = 1.3-1.5 that originated from a chondritic 294 BSE (McDonough and Sun, 1995). The <sup>147</sup>Sm/<sup>144</sup>Nd ratios for both the enriched and 295

depleted end-members are estimated according to end-member Sm/Nd ratios. The 296 Rb-Sr and Re-Os system for the enriched end-member is calculated using  $({}^{87}\text{Rb}/{}^{86}\text{Sr})_{\text{E}}$ 297  $= K_E ({}^{87}\text{Rb}/{}^{86}\text{Sr})_{\text{CN}}$  and  $({}^{187}\text{Re}/{}^{188}\text{Os})_{\text{E}} = K_E ({}^{187}\text{Re}/{}^{188}\text{Os})_{\text{CN}}$ , where  $K_E =$ 298  $[(Nb/La)_E/(Nb/La)_{CN} + (Sm/Nd)_E/(Sm/Nd)_{CN}]/2$ , with subscripts E and CN refer to the 299 300 enriched end-member and the chondritic BSE, respectively. The same functions are used for calculating the isotopic systems of the depleted end-member. All isotopic 301 evolution paths start at 4.4 Ga. The data sources for the BIWG picrites are the same as 302 in Fig. 1. The nonmodal bacth melting was conducted at the garnet stability field 303 304 according to  $C_L = C_0/[D_0 + F(1-P)]$ , where  $D_0$  is the initial bulk distirbution coefficient, and P is the bulk distribution coefficient determed by the melting model. F is the 305 weight fraction of melt formed.  $C_0$  and  $C_L$  are the concentrations of an element in the 306 307 source and melt, respectively. The mineral/mlet parition coefficent datasets for olivine, clionpyroxenen, and orthophyroxenne are from (Kelemen et al., 2004), and 308 the garnet/melt partition coefficent datasets are from (van Westrenen et al., 2000). 309 310 The mineral model and melt reaction are from (Salters and Stracke, 2004).

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312 Fig. 5. (a): CI chondrite normalized (McDonough and Sun, 1995) trace-element-source budget of the early-formed silicate Earth. The nonchondritic 313 BSE composition is based on the collision erosion model (O'Neill and Palme, 2008). 314 The depleted mantle-1 and -2 were derived from the above nonchondritic BSE by 315 respective extraction of 0.002 and 0.01 of basaltic melts to form protocrust, based on 316

mantle-crust partition coefficients (Workman and Hart, 2005) and the method 317 proposed by (Hofmann, 1988). The depleted end-member source is produced by 22% 318 partial melt of a depleted mantle-1 at 300-410 km. The enriched end-member source 319 is melt segregation from a basal magma ocean at  $\geq 1,800$  km (see text). The 320 back-calculated BIWG source (Jackson et al., 2010), estimates 1 and 2 for EDR 321 322 (Carlson and Boyet, 2008), enriched and depleted MORB mantles (Workman and Hart, 2005), and chondritic BSE (McDonough and Sun, 1995) are also shown. (b): 323 Evolution of <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He in the Earth's silicate reservoirs. Evolution of <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He for the 324 early formed dense chemical layer (blue colour area) is based on the method of (Class 325 and Goldstein, 2005) with the following constraints: (1) an initial  ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He} = 120 \text{ R}_{A}$ ; 326 (2) [<sup>3</sup>He] ranging from 2.0  $\times$  10<sup>11</sup> atomsg<sup>-1</sup> [25% higher than the estimate for 327 undegassed primitive mantle; Class and Goldstein, 2005) to  $0.8 \times 10^{10}$  atomsg<sup>-1</sup> (10% 328 of the modern OIB source; Class and Goldstein, 2005) due to extraction of protocrust]; 329 (3) U = 0.038 to 0.0028 ppm; Th = 0.0735 to 0.010 ppm. Evolution of deep mantle 330 (thick red line) and shallow mantle (grey band) are devolved from Lee et al (Lee et al., 331 2010). The  ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$  lower than  $37R_{A}$  (open circles) were likely affected by 332 post-eruption <sup>4</sup>He accumulation and concomitant reduction of <sup>3</sup>He/<sup>4</sup>He (Appendix Fig. 333 R4). 334

Fig. 6. (a): Freezing of a magma ocean with nonchondritic BSE composition (Fig. 5a) would have produced enriched dense melts below 1,800 km depth that accumulated at the CMB, and 60% depletion of the BSE occurred at above 1,800 km depths due to positive buoyance of the residual melt (e.g., Nomura et al., 2011). Shortly after

magma ocean crystallization, hot and deep melting of the upper mantle could have 339 generated depleted dense melts at 410–300 km depth (e.g., Lee et al., 2010). The two 340 types of dense liquids sunk and accumulated at the CMB to form a dense chemical 341 layer. (b): Late Archean to present-day mantle: melting is restricted to shallow depths. 342 The dense chemical layer is likely hosted by large low-shear-wave velocity provinces 343 (LLSVPs) and ultralow-velocity zones (ULVZs) (e.g., Nomura et al., 2011) and 344 appears to have persisted for much of Earth's history unless pushed by 345 deep-subducted slabs to rise up. 346

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