EVOLUTION OF MERCURY'S CORE DYNAMO. K. M. Soderlund¹ and G. Schubert² ¹Institute for Geophysics, Jackson School of Geosciences, University of Texas at Austin, 78758 (krista@ig.utexas.edu). ²Department of Earth, Planetary, and Space Sciences, University of California, Los Angeles, 90095 (schubert@ucla.edu).

Introduction: Measurements by the MErcury Surface, Space Environment, GEochemistry, and Ranging (MESSENGER) spacecraft have provided a wealth of new information about Mercury's magnetic field and its evolution, which highlight several characteristics of the Hermian field that are unique across the solar system. First, the magnetic field is characterized by a dipole that is displaced by ~0.2 planet radii toward the north pole and titled less than 3° from the rotation axis [1]. In addition, the magnetic field is unusually weak compared to other planets with a mean surface field strength of approximately 0.4 µT [1]. Similar to the Earth, however, the magnetic field appears to be long-lived with evidence of ancient (~3.8 Ga) remnant crustal magnetization; the strength of this early field is difficult to constrain, with estimates ranging from the present day value to Earth-like values of ~50 µT [2]. In this study, we investigate the evolution of Mercury's core and magnetic field using interior models and dynamo theory.

Convection and Magnetic Field Generation: Planetary magnetic fields are most likely generated by dynamo action, where thermo-compositional convection of an electrically conducting fluid drives electrical currents and generates a magnetic field. For Mercury, there are several lines of evidence supporting a liquid ironalloy core [3-5]; a solid iron inner core may also be present, but must be smaller than ~1325 km to fit geodetic constraints [6]. The dominant light element in Mercury's core is typically assumed to be sulfur [7], but silicon may also be present [5]; however, the relative S and Si contents are not well constrained [8].

Core convection can be driven by thermal and/or composition buoyancy sources, such as secular cooling, radiogenic heating, and inner core growth that contributes both latent heat and light element release. However, in bodies where the core cools to the liquidus temperature in the bulk fluid, precipitation of iron provides an additional buoyancy source [6,9-10]. In this "iron snow" regime, the iron crystals are relatively heavy and will sink into the non-snow zone below where they re-dissolve. These liquid droplets of nearly pure iron are denser than their surroundings and can drive compositional convection in the non-snow zone. This process also releases light elements that will buoyantly rise through the core. Here, we simulate the evolution of Mercury's core and estimate the compositional contribution to magnetic field generation.

Interior Model: We use an established interior model of Mercury [6] that assumes a four layer structure consisting of a silicate crust, silicate mantle, fluid outer core composed of an iron-rich Fe-FeS alloy with an imposed sulfur concentration, and optional solid inner core

of pure iron. Silicon is neglected here since its concentration and behavior at high pressures and temperatures are not well known. The models assume a spherically symmetric planet that obeys hydrostatic equilibrium and satisfies Poisson's equation. Iron snow is taken into account through modification of the temperature and sulfur concentration profiles [6], and an adiabatic core is imposed for simplicity. If no inner core is present, the temperature profile is anchored at the center by specifying the temperature excess with respect to the melting temperature of the liquid alloy. In models with an inner core, its radius is imposed and the core and melting temperatures are assumed to be equal at the inner core boundary.

We have carried out six series of models that demonstrate how the core would evolve in time for different initial core sulfur contents, $\chi_S^{\ 0},$ ranging from 1 to 11 weight percent in 2 wt% increments. For each χ_S^0 value, we begin the model sequence with a sufficiently hot central temperature to prohibit any iron crystallization within the core. The central temperature excess is then reduced in 10 K increments until a solid inner core forms. After this point, the inner core's radius is progressively increased in 50 km increments. Note that the sulfur content of the fluid outer core increases with inner core size to conserve the total core mass as well as the mass of core sulfur. In order to estimate the timeline for core evolution, we calculate the core mantle boundary (CMB) temperature difference between each consecutive model and assume that the core cools at a constant rate of 60 K/Gyr, based on intermediate rates from [11].

Magnetic Field Estimates: Power generated by convection must overcome ohmic dissipation in order for a dynamo to be maintained. Following a common approach to estimate the dynamo's magnetic field strength [12], we assume a balance between Ohmic dissipation and volumetric convective power derived from the interior models ($\phi = gf$, where g is gravitational acceleration and f is mass flux in units of kg m⁻² s⁻¹) and employ mixing length theory such that:

$$B_{ML} = 1.1 \mu_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \rho^{\frac{1}{6}} (gfD)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

In order to compare against observations, we calculate the surface magnetic field as

$$B_s = 0.05 B_{ML} (R_c/R_M)^3$$

to reflect partitioning between poloidal and toroidal field components and upward diffusion from the top of the dynamo region at radius R_c to the planet surface at radius R_M . Here, we assume a 1/20 pre-factor following the partitioning of Mercury-like dynamo models [13].

Results: The schematic in Figure 1 shows the evolution of a representative core model with χ_S^0 =5 wt% sulfur. Iron first precipitates near the core mantle boundary (Fig. 1a), and the inner core begins to form thereafter (Fig. 1b). An intermediate snow layer then develops at mid-depths with additional cooling (Fig. 1c). As the inner core continues to grow, the intermediate snow layer thickens until it extends to the inner core boundary (Fig. 1d). The top boundary of the lowermost snow layer, however, is quasi-stationary; as a result, the deep snow zone is eventually overtaken by the inner core such that only the shallow snow zone remains (Fig. 1e). In the final stage, iron snow occurs throughout the liquid core (Fig. 1f).

Figure 2 shows the magnetic field strength as a function of time and core crystallization regime for this model series. In Regime 1 (cyan markers), iron sinking from the snow zone into the layer below will drive convection and dynamo action. A substantial increase in magnetic field strength occurs in Regime 2 (red markers) due to the onset of inner core growth, which provides an additional buoyancy source. Two dynamo regions develop in Regime 3, where convection is driven by iron falling from the snow zone above as well as sulfur rising from either the underlying snow zone (blue square markers) or the inner core boundary (blue diamond markers). Here, the lower convecting region often produces the stronger dynamo, but has a weaker contribution to the surface field because it is located deeper within the planet. In Regime 4 (orange markers), the magnetic field in the dynamo region is similar to that of the upper snow zone in Regime 3. The magnetic field strength then decreases with subsequent cooling, coincident with the recurrence of Regime 2 (red markers); here, the thickness of the deep convection layer decreases as the inner core grows until the outer core becomes stably stratified and the dynamo turns off (Regime 5, black markers).

Implications: These preliminary results suggest that Mercury's core may have evolved through a series of core crystallization regimes that are likely associated with different convection characteristics (e.g., vigor and geometry) and magnetic field properties (e.g., amplitude, morphology, and secular variation).

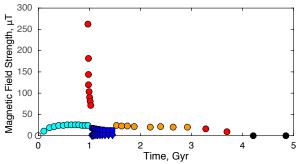


Figure 2: Magnetic field strength due to compositional convection as a function of time for a core with 5 wt% sulfur. The colors correspond to the core crystallization regimes identified in Figure 1. In Regime 3 (blue markers), the deep (shallow) convection zone is denoted by diamonds (squares).

Acknowledgements: We thank Mathieu Dumberry and Attilio Rivoldini for providing the interior model code they developed in [6], which was modified for this study. This work is funded by NSF Grant No. 0909206.

References: [1] Anderson, B. J. et al. (2011) *Science*, 333, 1859-1862. [2] Johnson, C. L. et al. (2015) *Science*, 348, 892-895. [3] Margot, J.-L. et al. (2007) *Science*, 316, 710-714. [4] Smith, D. E. et al. (2010) *Icarus*, 209, 88-100. [5] Malavergne, V. et al. (2010) *Icarus*, 206, 199–209. [6] Dumberry, M. and Rivoldini, A. (2015) *Icarus*, 248, 254-268. [7] Chen, B. et al. (2008) *GRL*, 35, L07201. [8] Chabot, N. L. et al. (2014) *EPSL*, 390, 199-208. [9] Hauck, S. A. et al. (2006) *JGR*, 111, E09008. [10] Rückriemen, T. et al. (2015) *JGR*, 120, 1095-1118. [11] Tosi, N. et al. (2013) *JGR*, 118, 1-14. [12] Christensen, U. R. (2010) *SSR*, 152, 565-590. [13] Cao, H. et al. (2014) *GRL*, 41, 4127-4134.

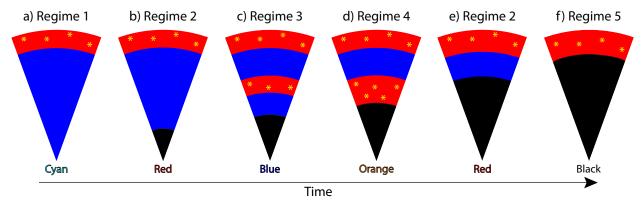


Figure 1: Schematic showing the evolution of core crystallization for an intial core sulfur content of 5 weight percent. Blue denotes fluid regions where iron snow does not occur, red with yellow asterisks denote regions with iron snow, and black denotes the solid inner core. The colors named on the bottom of each regime correspond to the marker colors used in Figure 2.