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Bulk chemical and Hf–W isotopic consequences of incomplete accretion during planet formation

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Abstract

Late-stage accretion involves collisions which may result in complete or incomplete merging of the two objects, hit-and-run encounters, or mass loss from the target. We use a recent N-body study incorporating these different collision styles (Chambers, 2013) to investigate how collision style affects the bulk chemical and isotopic outcomes of terrestrial planet formation. Compared with simulations in which all collisions result in perfect mergers, the variability in modeled silicate mass fraction and tungsten isotope anomaly is larger, especially for lower-mass planets. The final tungsten anomaly also shows a systematic reduction, because the timescale to finish planet growth is longer when incomplete mergers are included. Simulations including incomplete merging can reproduce the observed scatter in both tungsten anomaly and silicate mass fraction of the terrestrial planets.

Keywords: impact processes, planetary formation, terrestrial planets

Highlights

- Calculated bulk and isotopic composition of planets formed via imperfect accretion.
- Our results are consistent with the silicate:metal ratio of the terrestrial planets.
- Due to protracted accretion time, prefer moderate (~ 0.4) core equilibration factor.
- Larger scatter in core:mantle ratio and tungsten anomaly at smaller mass.

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1. Introduction

The final stages of terrestrial planet accretion involved energetic collisions between objects of comparable sizes. N-body simulations of this period have scored some notable successes, in particular obtaining accretion timescales which roughly agree with timescales inferred from the Hf–W isotopic system (Kleine et al., 2009), and generating model planetary systems which resemble our own inner solar system (e.g., Agnor et al., 1999; Chambers, 2001; O’Brien et al., 2006; Raymond et al., 2006; Fischer and Ciesla, 2014). Recent work has focused on explaining the anomalously small mass of Mars (Hansen, 2009; Walsh et al., 2011), using the inferred mass of material delivered as a “late veneer” after the end of the giant impact phase as a chronometer (Jacobson et al., 2014), and examining the effect of spatial variations in starting compositions on the final make-up of planets (Bond et al., 2010; Rubie et al., 2014).

Despite the success of these models, almost all make one major simplifying assumption, which is that all collisions result in a perfect merger. In reality, roughly one in two collisions will result in a “hit-and-run” outcome, rather than a merger (Asphaug, 2009; Kokubo and Genda, 2010) and most collisions are expected to result in at least some debris escaping the local environment. We refer to this process below as inefficient accretion or incomplete merging. As discussed below, incorporation of incomplete merging into N-body codes results in changes to the dynamics of the accreting bodies. In this paper, however, we focus on the compositional consequences of incomplete mergers, which have yet to be studied in any detail.

There are several lines of evidence suggesting the importance of incomplete mergers in the composition of our solar system. Most notably, Mercury probably underwent a giant collision which removed most of its mantle (Benz et al., 2007), thus changing its bulk composition in a dramatic fashion. Alternatively, Mercury may be the remnants of an impactor which suffered a hit-and-run collision with a larger target body (Sarid et al., 2014; Asphaug and Reufer, 2014). The iron-poor Moon is probably a fragment of the Earth’s mantle, spalled off during an impact (Ćuk and Stewart, 2012; Canup, 2012). There is thus little doubt that inefficient accretion can have a major effect on the bulk composition of the terrestrial planets. More subtly, trace element and isotopic systematics of planets can also be affected by inefficient accretion. For instance, O’Neill and Palme (2008) suggested that preferential removal of crustal material due to impact erosion would reduce the bulk concentrations of incompatible elements and thus render the bulk Earth non-chondritic.

In this paper we concentrate on two compositional aspects of inefficient accretion. The first is the bulk iron:silicate ratio of a body, since this can be remotely determined and provides a simple tracer of the effects of giant impacts. The second is the Hf–W isotopic system, which is strongly affected by the iron:silicate ratio, and also depends on the timescale with which accretion happens. Various authors have used the output of N-body simulations to calculate Hf–W isotopic evolution in the past (Halliday, 2004; Jacobsen, 2005; Nimmo and Agnor, 2006; Nimmo et al., 2010; Morishima et al., 2013; Kobayashi and Dauphas, 2013), but

all such simulations have hitherto assumed perfect mergers.

Thanks to hydrocode simulations of individual impacts (Agnor and Asphaug, 2004; Leinhardt and Stewart, 2012) the outcome of an individual collision can be predicted, based on the impact velocity, impact angle, and relative and total masses of the two bodies involved. Kokubo and Genda (2010) incorporated a criterion based on these studies into an N-body code to investigate the effects of “hit-and-run” collisions on the timescale of accretion; their simulations included only perfect merger and hit-and-run collisions. As discussed further below, Chambers (2013) incorporated a more complex model of partial accretion into his N-body code, whereby a collision could result in one, two, or more final bodies, depending on the particular characteristics of the impact. The resulting dynamics change in two important ways, compared to simulations in which all collisions result in mergers. First, dynamical friction – which damps the eccentricities of larger bodies – plays a bigger role, because small objects are generated during impacts. Second, the timescale for accretion to be completed is increased by a factor of about two.

In this paper we use the results of Chambers (2013) to investigate the bulk chemical and isotopic consequences of inefficient accretion. The rest of this paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we outline our computational approach, while in Section 3 we discuss the results, paying particular attention to how results differ between perfect-merger and incomplete-merger cases. In Section 4 we investigate the robustness of our results to various assumptions, while Section 5 summarizes our findings and makes suggestions for future work.

2. Methods

In this section, we detail the models used in this work. We briefly outline the N-body model (Section 2.1) of Chambers (2013), including the treatment of inefficient accretion. We then, in Section 2.2, describe our geochemical post-processing, in which the chemistry is evolved as a result of radioactive decay and impact-related mixing and partial equilibration. This post-processing stage is broken down into two parts: bulk composition (Section 2.2.1) and Hf–W isotopic (Section 2.2.2).

2.1. N-body Model

16 runs were performed by Chambers (2013) using the MERCURY N-body code (Chambers, 1999). Other than the incorporation of incomplete merging, this set-up is identical to Chambers (2001) (which assumed all collisions were perfect accretion events). As a result, we can compare the outcomes of the two groups of models directly, since the only difference is in the treatment of collisions. Hereafter, N-body data from the Chambers (2013) simulations (including runs with unimodal initial mass distribution as well as the bimodal runs discussed in the paper) will be referred to as Ch13 and N-body data from the Chambers (2001) simulations (freshly analyzed in this work) will be referred to as Ch01.

88 The initial bodies were distributed between 0.3 AU and 2.0 AU. The sixteen
 89 runs were divided into two groups (unimodal and bimodal initial mass distri-
 90 bution) which were each subdivided into two groups (identical initial masses
 91 and radially-dependent initial masses). Each run contained ≈ 150 initial bodies
 92 totaling $7.65 \times 10^{-6} M_{\odot}$ as well as Jupiter and Saturn in their current orbits
 93 with their current masses. In the radially-dependent cases, the initial mass
 94 distribution was defined such that the surface density is:

$$\Sigma(a) = \begin{cases} \left(6 (0.7)^{-3/2} \text{ g/cm}^2\right) [(a/0.3 \text{ AU}) - 1] & \text{for } a \in [0.3 \text{ AU}, 0.7 \text{ AU}] \\ \left(8 \text{ g/cm}^2\right) (a/1 \text{ AU})^{-3/2} & \text{for } a \in [0.7 \text{ AU}, 2 \text{ AU}] \\ 0 \text{ g/cm}^2 & \text{for } a \notin [0.3 \text{ AU}, 2 \text{ AU}] \end{cases}$$

95 ~~In the unimodal runs, there were 153 initial planetesimals. In the bimodal~~
 96 ~~runs, there were 154 initial bodies: 14 embryos (containing half the mass)~~
 97 ~~and 140 planetesimals (containing half the mass).~~ *Runs 01–04:* unimodal
 98 with uniform initial mass distribution; **there were 153 planetesimals**, each body
 99 was $5 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$. *Runs 11–14:* unimodal with radially-dependent initial
 100 mass distribution; **there were 158 planetesimals**, the initial mass range was
 101 $[0.579, 11.8] \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$. *Runs 21–24:* bimodal, uniform initial mass distribu-
 102 tion; the planetesimals each had a mass of $2.8 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$ and the embryos each
 103 had a mass of $28 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$. *Runs 31–34:* bimodal, radially-dependent initial
 104 mass distribution with the same radial dependency as listed above. The initial
 105 planetesimal mass range was $[0.357, 6.66] \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$ and the initial embryo mass
 106 range was $[14.3, 66.2] \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}$. **Both bimodal runs had 154 initial bodies: 14**
 107 **embryos (containing half the mass) and 140 planetesimals (containing half the**
 108 **mass).**

109 Only the bimodal cases (Runs 21–34) were discussed in Chambers (2013)
 110 as the starting conditions of those simulations presumably more closely match
 111 the end conditions of oligarchic growth. We examine both cases here in order
 112 to gain insight into the extent to which the final results are sensitive to the
 113 initial conditions assumed. We exclude from consideration here any object which
 114 survived until the end of its simulation without experiencing any collisions.
 115 Specifically, these bodies (Planxxx) are, for Ch13: Plan139 of Run 24, Plan116
 116 of Run 31, Plan75 of Run 33; and for Ch01: Plan127 of Run 01, Plan147 of
 117 Run 12, and Plan90 of Run 32.

118 When two bodies collide in Ch13, the outcome of the collision is depen-
 119 dent upon on the impact characteristics. The parameters which determine the
 120 mass(es) of the final body(ies) after an impact are impactor mass (M_i), target
 121 mass (M_t), mass ratio ($\gamma = M_i/M_t$), impact angle (θ ; head-on is 0°), and im-
 122 pact velocity (v_i). M_F is the mass of the largest final body post-impact and
 123 $M_{\Sigma} = M_t + M_i$ is the total mass of the colliding system.

124 The calculation steps are described in detail in Chambers (2013) and are
 125 based on Leinhardt and Stewart (2012). Briefly, the outcome depends on the
 126 size of the impact energy per unit mass, Q , and the specific energy required
 127 to disrupt 50% of the total mass, Q^* . A higher impact energy relative to the

128 disruption energy results in a smaller largest remnant. The specific impact
129 energy is given by

$$Q = \frac{\mu v_i^2}{2(M_t + M_i)}$$

130 where v_i is the impact velocity and the reduced mass $\mu = M_t M_i / (M_t + M_i)$.
131 For oblique impacts, the specific disruption energy is given by

$$Q^* = \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_\alpha} \right)^{3/2} \left[\frac{(1 + \gamma)^2}{4\gamma} \right] 1.44\pi\rho_1 G R_{c1}^2$$

132 Here $\rho_1 = 1$ g/cc is a reference density, $R_{c1}^3 = 3(M_t + M_i)/(4\pi\rho_1)$ and μ_α is the
133 reduced mass for the fraction α (Leinhardt and Stewart, 2012) of the projectile
134 that would intersect the target in an oblique impact:

$$\mu_\alpha = \frac{\alpha M_t M_i}{M_t + \alpha M_i}$$

135 This approach allows the mass of both the largest remnant of the target and
136 (if applicable) that of the projectile to be calculated. Mass in the target not ac-
137 counted for is then divided up into one or more equal-mass collision fragments,
138 with a minimum mass set to $0.0047 M_\oplus$. Hit-and-run collisions are identified us-
139 ing the criterion proposed in Asphaug (2010). In such cases the largest remnant
140 is the original target (i.e., it is unaffected by the collision), but the projectile
141 may suffer fragmentation.

142 2.2. Post-processing chemistry

143 We carry out our bulk chemical and isotopic calculations as a post-processing
144 step, because the dynamics will not be affected by these kind of details. In
145 Section 2.2.1 we discuss our approach to bulk composition, which is very similar
146 to that adopted by Chambers (2013). We then use these results to calculate the
147 Hf–W isotopic evolution of each body, as described in Section 2.2.2.

148 2.2.1. Bulk composition

149 We model all bodies as being composed of two idealized reservoirs, a metallic
150 ‘core’ and a silicate ‘mantle’, and we track the masses of these compositional
151 reservoirs for each body through the length of the simulation. We use a set of
152 rules to determine the composition of the body or bodies produced in an impact
153 as well as the fractions which come from the target and impactor. The largest
154 post-collision body is labeled the LPCB and the smaller post-collision body or
155 bodies are labeled SPCBs. A discussion of the ramifications of using different
156 approaches for determining the compositional result of an impact can be found
157 in Section 4.

158 All bodies are initially assigned a mantle mass fraction, y , of 0.7 which can
159 subsequently be modified by impacts. Following Chambers (2013), the y value
160 of the LPCB is determined by assembling the body from these reservoirs in
161 this order until the body is complete: core of the target, core of the impactor,

mantle of the target, mantle of the impactor. For partial accretion, this order is in line with smoothed particle hydrodynamics simulations (Asphaug and Reufer, 2013) and has been used elsewhere (Stewart and Leinhardt, 2012). For erosive impacts, this order probably overestimates the mantle loss (Marcus et al., 2010). If SPCBs are also present, they are built from the remainder of the material (in the case of multiple SPCBs, these all are given the same bulk composition and isotopic concentrations). In the case of a hit-and-run impact, the largest final body is identically the target. In some cases, hit-and-run impacts cause the impactor to split up into multiple fragments, in which case, the impactor is evenly divided amongst the fragments and no isotopic equilibration occurs (see below). For a perfect merger impact, the final body is simply composed of the entirety of the target and impactor.

2.2.2. Isotopic chemistry

The Hf–W isotopic system provides an important constraint on terrestrial planet accretion because it is sensitive to both the rate at which planets grow and the processes taking place during individual impacts (Kleine et al., 2009). Briefly, Hf is lithophile and W is siderophile, and ^{182}Hf decays to ^{182}W with a half-life of 9 Myr. Early core formation strips tungsten from the mantle; subsequent decay of ^{182}Hf results in a mantle enriched in ^{182}W compared with stable W isotopes (^{183}W and ^{184}W). As a result, the more enriched in ^{182}W the mantle is, the earlier core formation took place.

In reality, of course, core formation is not a single event, but rather core material is added during each collision. Furthermore, during each collision the core material added may isotopically re-equilibrate with the target mantle material, changing the mantle tungsten isotopic composition (Rubie et al., 2003). As a result, the dependence of the final mantle tungsten signature on the collision history is complex (e.g., Rudge et al., 2010; Nimmo et al., 2010). Nonetheless, by comparing simulations which differ only in their treatment of collisions, we can gain insight into how inefficient accretion is likely to affect the final isotopic outcome, as discussed below.

The partitioning of a specified element ‘*El*’ between a metal reservoir ‘*met*’ and a silicate reservoir ‘*sil*’ at equilibrium is described by the elemental partition coefficient, D :

$$D_{\text{El}} = \frac{[\text{El}]_{\text{sil}}}{[\text{El}]_{\text{met}}} \quad (1)$$

where $[\text{El}]_r$ is the concentration of element ‘*El*’ in reservoir ‘*r*’. In this work, we use $D_{\text{Hf}} = 10^4$ and $D_{\text{W}} = 1/30$, which yield an Earth-like mantle $f^{\text{Hf/W}}$ for an Earth-like silicate mass fraction y . The partition coefficient also determines the concentration following initial differentiation. The elemental concentration in the silicate portion of a body, $[\text{El}]_{\text{sil}}$, immediately after differentiation is:

$$[\text{El}]_{\text{sil}} = \frac{[\text{El}]_{\text{bulk}}}{y + (1 - y)/D_{\text{El}}} \quad (2)$$

where $[\text{El}]_{\text{bulk}}$ is the bulk composition of the undifferentiated object. We assume D_{El} to be constant in time and space, and discuss the impact of this

assumption in Section 5 below. The relative abundances of Hf and W is another constraint which can be measured in the laboratory. It is calculated using the stable isotopes in order to avoid the complications of attempting to deal with the radioisotopes and normalized against a chondritic undifferentiated reservoir, CHUR. Specifically, the Hf/W fractionation factor, $f^{Hf/W}$, of a mantle reservoir is:

$$f^{Hf/W} = \frac{([^{180}\text{Hf}]/[^{183}\text{W}])_m}{([^{180}\text{Hf}]/[^{183}\text{W}])_{\text{CHUR}}} - 1 \quad (3)$$

The mantle tungsten anomaly, ϵ_W , is defined as follows:

$$\epsilon_W = \left[\frac{([^{182}\text{W}]/[^{183}\text{W}])_m}{([^{182}\text{W}]/[^{183}\text{W}])_{\text{CHUR}}} - 1 \right] \times 10^4 \quad (4)$$

Here $[^{182}\text{W}]$ and $[^{183}\text{W}]$ are the concentrations of the two W isotopes, and m refers to the mantle reservoir. Between impacts, radioactive decay occurs.

The effect of a collision upon the Hf and W isotopes depends on the impact style. There are four types of impact styles discussed in this paper (total accretion, hit-and-run, partial accretion, basic erosion). A hit-and-run impact results in no change in isotopic chemistry for the target or the impactor. In the event that the impactor in the hit-and-run is split into multiple pieces, the isotopic concentrations of the SPBCs are identical to the original impactor (i.e., there is no interaction between the mantle and the core in a hit-and-run). In the case of a total accretion, partial accretion, or basic erosion collision, the isotopic composition of the post-collision body(ies) is/are calculated according to an idealized partial mixing model. This model is discussed below first for the case of a total accretion event and the modifications for the other collision styles follows.

An important parameter is the core re-equilibration factor, k , defined as the mass fraction of the impactor core which equilibrates with the silicates prior to mixing with the rest of the core material. Thus, $k = 1$ indicates complete re-equilibration, while $k = 0$ indicates that the core undergoes no exchange with the silicates. k is a free parameter; here we use $k = 0.4$ and discuss the effects of this assumption in Section 4.1 below.

In the case of a total accretion impact, the entirety of the target and the entirety of the impactor both end up in the LPCB. Let us label the target as “Body A” and the impactor as “Body B.” Using this terminology, the isotopic ~~composition~~ **compositions** are calculated as follows:

1. The mantles from Body A and Body B are fully mixed. (We assume that the entire target mantle undergoes equilibration with the incoming core (cf., Sasaki and Abe, 2007; Morishima et al., 2013).)
2. The core from Body B is split into two parts according to the core re-equilibration factor k : ‘Part a’ contains a mass fraction k of the core and ‘Part b’ contains a mass fraction $(1 - k)$ of the core and both portions have the same isotopic concentrations as did the original core of Body B.

3. Part a equilibrates fully with the combined mantle. ~~Part b does not interact with any mantle material.~~
4. Part a and Part b and the core of ~~Body B~~ **Body A** fully mix.

The method of calculating the concentrations of LPCB and SPCBs is the same for partial accretion and basic erosion impacts. This method is based upon that described above for total accretion impacts. The first step is to divide the impactor and target into “material going into the LPCB” and “material going into the SPCBs” according to Section 2.2.1. Note that this division does not alter the isotopic composition. To calculate the isotopic composition of the LPCB, label the material from the target as “Body A” and the material from the impactor as “Body B” and then follow the process described above for total accretion. To calculate the isotopic composition of the SPCBs, label the material from the target as “Body B” and the material from the impactor as “Body A” and then follow the process described above for total accretion – this is a “reverse impact” of the sort discussed by Leinhardt and Stewart (2012).

2.2.3. Parameters Adopted

Bodies are assumed to start undifferentiated with chondritic compositions. The initial elemental ratios are taken to be as follows: $([^{180}\text{Hf}]/[^{183}\text{W}]) = 2.836$, $([^{182}\text{Hf}]/[^{183}\text{W}]) = 2.836 \times 10^{-4}$, and $([^{182}\text{W}]/[^{183}\text{W}]) = 1.850664$; these values are taken from Jacobsen (2005). Bodies differentiate at 3×10^6 yr or when they undergo a non-hit-and-run impact, whichever occurs first. We assume that all bodies begin with an Earth-like value for y of 0.7. Note that the zero point of time in this work is the beginning of the simulation and is not tied into any specific event, such as CAI formation. For simplicity, we have set the zero time of the simulation to the formation of the solar system, **4.567 Ga (from Amelin et al. (2002), cited within Jacobsen (2005)).**

For simplicity, we assume that both the partition coefficients and k are constant in space and time, and examine the effects of varying these parameters below (Section 4). In reality, of course, neither assumption is likely to hold. Partition coefficients may vary spatially, because of the differing volatile contents and oxidation states of bodies originating from different regions (Bond et al., 2010; Schönbachler et al., 2010). Partition coefficients are also pressure- and temperature-dependent, and thus are expected to evolve during the growth of an individual object (Wood et al., 2006; Rubie et al., 2011; Siebert et al., 2013). Nonetheless, the integrated effect of this partitioning behavior has to match the known present-day mantle Hf–W ratio. As a result, assuming constant D values is a reasonable starting assumption, especially when our main focus is to investigate whether inefficient accretion changes the isotopic outcome.

The assumption of constant k is more problematic. If a constant k is assumed, the protracted timescale of planet formation in Ch13 combined with the measured ϵ_{W} data requires that equilibration be less than complete. Nimmo et al. (2010) concluded that intermediate k values (≈ 0.5) are most consistent with the observations and, given the timescale found in this work, intermediate values are also consistent with Rudge et al. (2010). However both Nimmo et al.

(2010) and Rudge et al. (2010) neglected the fact that k is likely to be strongly dependent on impact characteristics (Dahl and Stevenson, 2010; Deguen et al., 2014). Although it may ultimately be possible to calculate k for an individual impact (cf., Rubie et al., 2014) the physics of emulsification and mixing during giant impacts is not currently well-understood, and we leave this issue as a topic for future work.

3. Results

3.1. General Results

Figure 1 shows the temporal evolution of four bodies which survive until the end of the simulation in Run 04, which is a unimodal, uniform initial mass distribution simulation. The x-axis is logarithmic, in units of Myr since the start of the simulation. Figure 1a shows the mass of the labeled bodies over time. Although most collisions do not result in complete mergers, there is nonetheless a general increase in mass with time; there are occasional slightly erosive impacts but their effects are not visible on the scale of the plot. The first time at which a body reaches 68% of its final mass, t_{68} , is indicative of how rapidly accretion proceeds, though this timing cannot be readily related to the final tungsten anomaly (e.g., Fig 3 of Nimmo and Kleine (2007)). The t_{68} of the bodies in Figure 1 is: 51.1 Myr (Plan03), 72.8 Myr (Plan11), 53.0 Myr (Plan24), and 49.7 Myr (Plan56). Plan101 begins the simulation with 74% of its final mass.

Figure 1b shows y , the silicate mass fraction, of the bodies. The original starting composition, $y_{init} = 0.7$, is marked with a magenta horizontal dash-dot-dot line. Impacts in which incomplete merging happens tend to decrease y , because core material is assumed to accrete preferentially (see Section 2.2 above). On the other hand, previously-produced mantle spall fragments will increase y when they are accreted. Because there does not appear to be a distinct trend in the evolution of y with time, this implies that the second mechanism (accretion of spall fragments) is of similar importance to the first.

Figure 1c shows how ϵ_W of the silicate mantles evolves. The abrupt changes in ϵ_W are the result of impacts, while the background evolution is the result of radiogenic ingrowth (the curvature is a result of the log-linear plot). Generally, the result of an impact is to lower ϵ_W , because partial re-equilibration is being assumed ($k = 0.4$); however, occasionally an impact increases the target's ϵ_W . This occurs when the impactor mantle has a greater ϵ_W anomaly than the target mantle and when the amount of the impactor mantle which mixes into the target is sufficiently large that neither mixing nor re-equilibration reduce the anomaly sufficiently. Impactors with a high mantle ϵ_W occur because an SPCB which was spalled off early and did not experience subsequent large impacts will have undergone significant radiogenic ingrowth.

Figure 2 shows y as a function of mass for all the bodies surviving at the end of every simulation. The results are broken into unimodal and bimodal initial mass distributions, hollow circles for unimodal and asterisks for bimodal. For

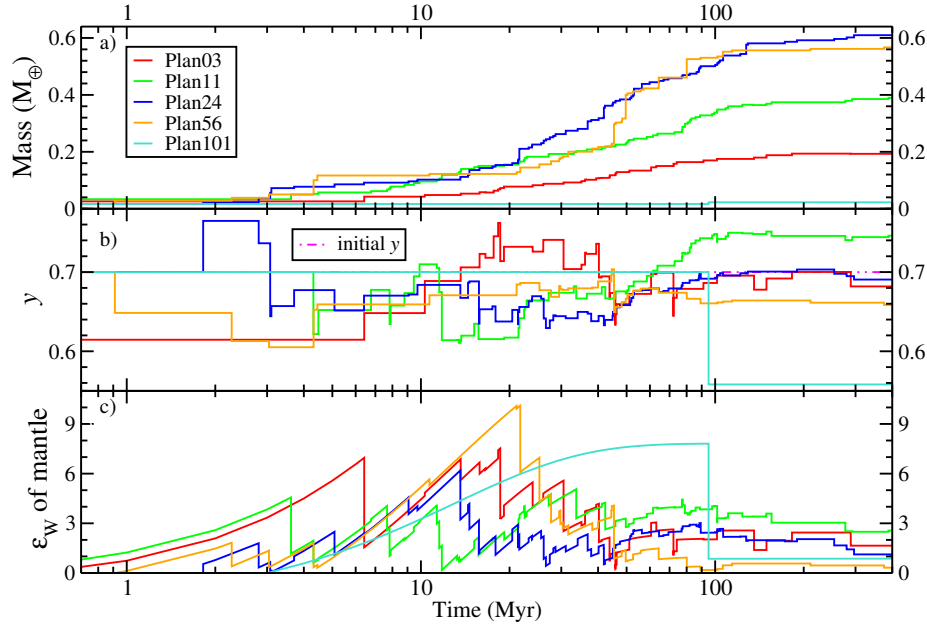


Figure 1: Time history of surviving planetesimals from Run 04 (unimodal, uniform initial mass distribution). Final bodies are color-coded and labeled by their identification numbers assigned by the simulation. The zero point of time is the start of the simulation; it does not have an explicit physical meaning. Part (a) shows the mass of the body. There are some instances of mass decrease; however, they are not visible on the scale of this plot. The t_{68} of these bodies is: 51.1 Myr (Plan03), 72.8 Myr (Plan11), 53.0 Myr (Plan24), and 49.7 Myr (Plan56). Plan101 begins the simulation with 74% of its final mass. Part (b) shows y , the silicate mass fraction. The horizontal magenta dash-dot-dot line is $y_{init} = 0.7$. Part (c) shows ϵ_w of the silicate mantle. The curve for Plan101 has been scaled by a factor of 0.5 for plotting purposes. All parameters use nominal values ($k = 0.4$, $y_{init} = 0.7$). The concave upwards evolution of ϵ_w (most easily seen around ~ 3 Myr) is a result of the log-linear plot.

327 comparison, the measured values for terrestrial bodies are plotted in solid black
328 circles. Figure 2a shows the Ch13 bodies while Figure 2b shows the Ch01 bodies
329 (in which all collisions result in perfect mergers).

330 The model outcomes shown in Figure 2a are approximately consistent with
331 an envelope defined by the known planetary data. Importantly, there is more
332 scatter in the outcomes at low masses. This is partly due to averaging effects
333 – larger bodies have experienced more collisions – but may also be due to the
334 fact that small bodies are inherently more vulnerable to experiencing mantle-
335 stripping collisions than large ones (Agnor and Asphaug, 2004; Leinhardt and
336 Stewart, 2012).

337 Figure 2b shows no variation in y because every single collision is assumed
338 to result in a perfect merger. The exact reason that the final Ch13 bodies tend
339 to smaller masses when compared to Ch01 is unclear. Part of the answer is

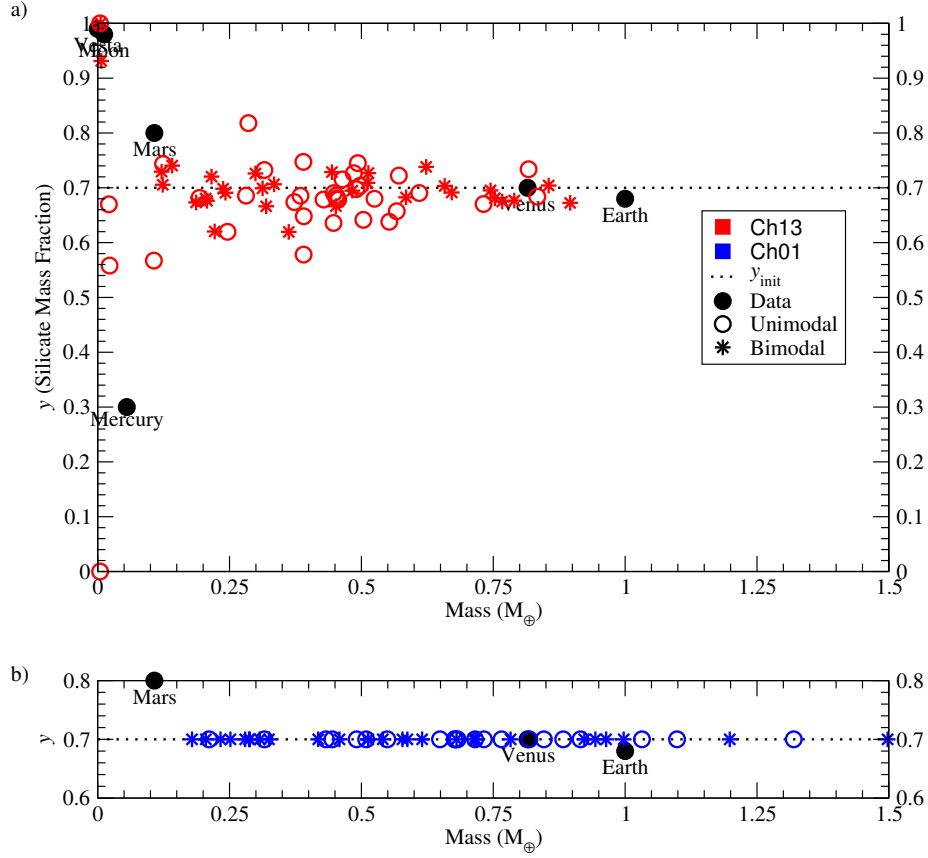


Figure 2: The silicate mantle mass fraction (y) of all surviving bodies from all simulation runs as a function of mass. The solid black dots are data from our solar system. The hollow dots are results from the unimodal initial mass distribution runs and the asterisks are from the bimodal initial mass distribution runs. Note that Vesta ($4.3 \times 10^{-5} M_{\oplus}$) is significantly smaller than the minimum mass in the N-body code ($0.0047 M_{\oplus}$), and thus is not resolved by the simulations. Part (a) shows the Ch13 bodies, which used the multi-modal collisional model. Part (b) shows the Ch01 bodies, which required all collisions to be perfect mergers. Data for Vesta is from Russell et al. (2012).

Table 1: Properties of Ch01 and Ch13 simulations which are relevant to the determination of the cause of Ch13 having smaller massed bodies. The average value and one standard deviation are reported. Note that this table excludes bodies which experienced no collisions and also excludes Run 31 of Ch13, which developed an apsidal resonance and thus lost an unusual amount of mass.

	Ch01	Ch13
Mass of a final body ($10^{-6} M_{\odot}$)	1.93 ± 0.092	1.21 ± 0.70
Number of final bodies per run	3.00 ± 0.73	4.40 ± 0.91
Fraction of mass which survives	0.752 ± 0.053	0.688 ± 0.038

likely an increase in dynamical friction (caused by the larger number of bodies present as a result of the multi-modal collisional model). This friction will circularize orbits and thus reduce the likelihood of late-stage collisions, which require crossing orbits. Another factor ~~probably~~ contributing to the lower final masses is ~~that Ch13 lost more mass than did Ch01. The material lost from the system was either captured by the Sun or gravitationally ejected from the system at large. the amount of mass lost from the system, either by capture by the Sun or by being gravitationally ejected. We cannot determine whither dynamical friction or mass loss is more important in decreasing the average Ch13 mass as both phenomena encourage that trend (see Table 1).~~

Figure 3 shows the mantle ϵ_W of all surviving bodies as a function of mass. The data is broken into unimodal and bimodal initial mass distributions, hollow circles for unimodal and asterisks for bimodal. Figure 3a shows the Ch13 bodies while Figure 3b shows the Ch01 bodies. Four data points (Earth, the shergottite (S) Mars source, the Moon and Vesta) are shown for comparison.

As with the silicate mass fraction (Figure 2), our model results assuming incomplete accretion mostly fit within an envelope defined by the four data points. In particular, as discussed below, the models are capable of producing small bodies with a very wide range of ϵ_W values (e.g., both Moon and Vesta analogues are present), while at the larger masses the model ϵ_W numbers converge on Earth-like values.

Comparison between Figure 3a (multi-modal collisions) and Figure 3b (complete mergers) shows some important differences. First, there is much more scatter in ϵ_W when multi-modal collisions are permitted, especially at the lower mass range. This effect is mainly due to the fact that each impact tends to drive ϵ_W down (because of partial re-equilibration), and larger bodies have suffered more impacts. However, part of the explanation is that complete mergers only permit one pathway to generating a low-mass object (it experienced minimal collisions), while there is an additional pathway (spallation of a fragment from a larger target) available in our collisional model. Because these two pathways will in general produce quite different isotopic histories, one would expect to see more scatter in the multi-modal collisions case.

Figure 3a also shows that lower ϵ_W values are obtained compared with Fig-

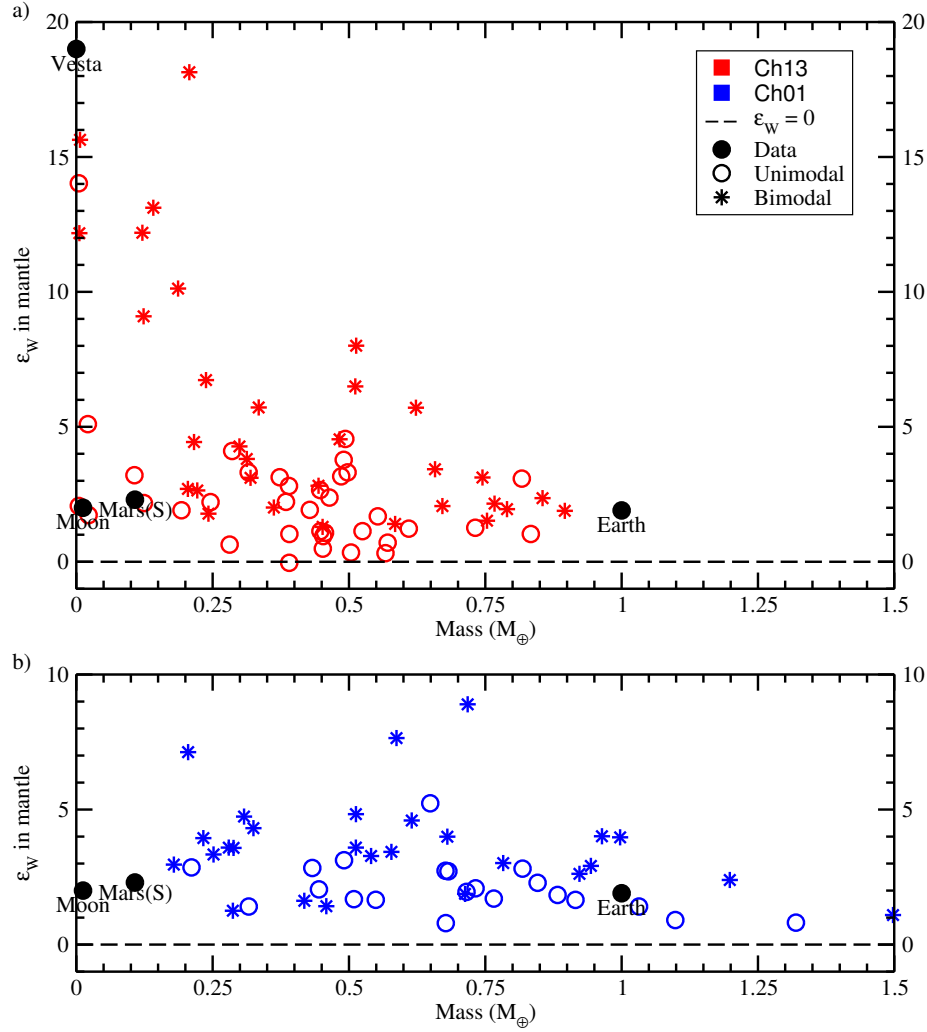


Figure 3: The mantle tungsten isotopic anomaly (ϵ_W) of all surviving bodies from all simulation runs as a function of mass. The solid black dots are data from our solar system. The hollow dots are results from the unimodal initial mass distribution runs and the asterisks are from the bimodal initial mass distribution runs. Note that Vesta is significantly smaller than the minimum mass permitted in our N-body code, and thus is not resolved by our simulations. Also, note that the Moon may have experienced partial or total equilibration with Earth during its formation and thus its datum might not be appropriate. Part (a) shows the Ch13 bodies, which used the multi-modal collisional model. Part (b) shows the Ch01 bodies, which required all collisions to be perfect mergers. The ϵ_W values for Earth, Moon, and Mars (S) were taken from Nimmo et al. (2010) and references therein. For Vesta, the ϵ_W value was taken from Jacobsen (2005) and the mass was from Russell et al. (2012).

ure 3b, and that in some cases slightly negative ϵ_W values result. The latter effect is impossible if all collisions result in perfect mergers. It arises because re-equilibration of impactor core material (which has a strongly negative ϵ_W) will drive the target mantle ϵ_W downwards, and will not necessarily be counteracted by the simultaneous addition of impactor mantle material if accretion is inefficient. A second effect which accounts for the ϵ_W values being slightly lower in the inefficient accretion case is the time taken for accretion to finish. As discussed in Section 1, inefficient accretion results in slower overall accretion timescales, which also tends to drive down the final tungsten anomaly (Jacobsen, 2005).

In both cases, the bimodal runs tend to produce slightly higher ϵ_W values than the unimodal runs. This is also probably a consequence of re-equilibration occurring during impacts. In the bimodal runs, some embryos have already formed, while in the unimodal runs there are no embryos initially present. As a result, the final planets in the unimodal runs tend to have experienced more impacts on average, and thus the final tungsten anomaly is more reduced.

3.2. Comparison with Solar System

Overall, the correlation between our solar system and our simulation results (Figure 2 and Figure 3) is not perfect but it is encouraging and the agreement is better than perfect-merging-only simulations, showing the importance of using multi-modal collisions when investigating planet formation. The effects of multi-modal collisions are likely to be at least as strong in the Grand Tack model (WalshEtAl2011) due to the high amount of scattering found there. Below we discuss how our results apply to each of the planets.

Mercury is extremely silicate poor, with $y \approx 0.3$. Aside from fragments which were entirely composed of core, the two most core-rich bodies in our simulations were Plan101 of Run 4, with $y = 0.56$, and Plan19 of Run 11, with $y = 0.57$. In order to better understand how these bodies end up with their low final y values, we have plotted their mass and y histories in Figure 4. Plan101 experienced several hit-and-run collisions, while Plan19 underwent an accretionary collision with another body (Plan33) which had already suffered two mantle-removing impacts. We lack samples of the Mercurian mantle to test for ϵ_W .

Venus lies within the y - M data cloud for Ch13 as well as Ch01. As we lack a measurement of ϵ_W for Venus, we cannot make other comparisons.

Technically, the binary Earth-Moon system should be treated as a combined set of constraints; however, as the N-body code does not include formation of binary planets, we consider Earth and Moon independently.

We have tuned our model to Earth, so it is unsurprising that we match the Earth well. For the Moon, the most important outcome of the multi-modal calculations is that it is relatively common to generate small fragments which – like the Moon – are mostly made of mantle material. Although we plot the lunar ϵ_W value, it is likely that post-impact isotopic equilibration between the Moon and the Earth took place (Pahlevan and Stevenson, 2007) so the significance of the Moon’s ϵ_W value is unclear.

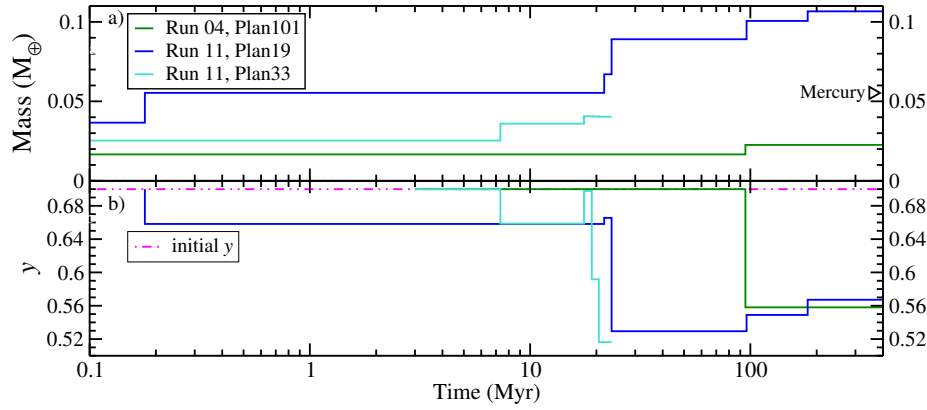


Figure 4: The temporal history of the two bodies which have the closest y to Mercury: Plan101 of Run 04 and Plan19 of Run 11. Also plotted is Plan33 of Run 11, which is the impactor which collides with Plan19 at 23.4 Myr. The zero point of time is the start of the simulation; it does not have an explicit physical meaning. Part (a) shows the mass of the bodies. The mass of Mercury is labeled. For Plan19, $t_{68} = 23.4$ Myr; using the mass of Plan33 prior to its collision with Plan19 gives $t_{68} = 7.3$ Myr. Plan101 begins the simulation with 74% of its final mass. Part (b) shows y , the silicate mass fraction. The horizontal magenta dash-dot-dot line is $y_{init} = 0.7$. For Mercury, $y = 0.30$.

418 Mars is on the edge of the data cloud for y - M . While Mars does lie within
 419 the cloud of ϵ_W - M points, this comparison is misleading because the Martian
 420 $f^{Hf/W}$ value is 3.38 ± 0.56 (Dauphas and Pourmand, 2011), much smaller than
 421 12.9, the Earth-like value used in this work. Simultaneously matching both the
 422 terrestrial and Martian $f^{Hf/W}$ values would require a time- or spatially-variable
 423 partition coefficient to be specified (cf., Nimmo et al., 2010).

424 The ϵ_W value listed for Vesta is from analyses of HED meteorites. Vesta
 425 is much less massive than the minimum mass permitted in our N-body code
 426 ($4.3 \times 10^{-5} M_{\oplus}$ versus $4.7 \times 10^{-3} M_{\oplus}$). Nonetheless, it is likely that higher-
 427 resolution simulations, permitting lower masses, would still result in fragments
 428 that underwent early differentiation and were not incorporated into a larger
 429 body subsequently. It is these kinds of fragments that generate Vesta-like ϵ_W
 430 values.

431 4. Sensitivity analysis

432 We may summarize the results of this study relatively simply. First, models
 433 in which incomplete accretion is included are more successful in matching the
 434 observed scatter in both y and ϵ_W in solar system bodies (Figure 2 and Figure 3).
 435 Second, these same models produce outcomes which are more diverse at
 436 lower masses. This increasing diversity is partly a result of the effect of aver-
 437 aging for larger bodies, but for ϵ_W also arises because objects exposed to fewer

438 impacts have undergone less re-equilibration and can thus retain large tungsten
439 anomalies.

440 Below, we investigate the extent to which these results depend on the various
441 assumptions and parameter choices made. In general, we find that although
442 there are some quantitative differences, the qualitative results appear robust.

443 4.1. Re-equilibration factor k

444 For simplicity, we assumed a constant value for the equilibration factor k .
445 In reality, this quantity is likely to depend on the details of individual impacts
446 (Section 2.2.3). In Figure 5 we plot how the mean mantle ϵ_W of Earth-like bodies
447 varies with the value of k assumed. As one would expect, more re-equilibration
448 (higher k) results in lower final tungsten anomalies. The inefficient accretion
449 cases have a slightly lower mean ϵ_W value than the complete merger cases,
450 because the timescale to complete accretion is longer for the former (see above).
451 The trend is similar for small bodies, however their mean ϵ_W is higher and they
452 have a larger standard deviation by a factor of several. Additionally, in the
453 small bodies, Ch01 has smaller standard deviation than Ch13 for the same mass
454 cut-off. To match the measured ϵ_W value for the Earth, a k in the range 0.3–0.6
455 is required, which is compatible with the ranges obtained by Rudge et al. (2010)
456 and Nimmo et al. (2010).

457 4.2. Initial silicate mass fraction y_{init}

458 For our nominal model we chose $y_{init} = 0.7$ because that is close to the
459 present-day value of Earth and Venus. For comparison, we also examined the
460 case where $y_{init} = 0.6$ was used. Although a reduction in y_{init} made it easier to
461 generate Mercury-like outcomes (with low y values), it made Earth- or Mars-
462 like core mass fractions very difficult to obtain. With $y_{init} = 0.6$, the final y
463 values for Ch13 were depressed by 0.10 on average, for large bodies only (mass
464 $> 0.75 M_\oplus$) and for all bodies. For Ch13, there are seven large bodies and 68
465 bodies total while for Ch01, there are fifteen large bodies and 48 total.

466 In order to determine the effect of changing y_{init} on ϵ_W , D_W must be adjusted
467 in order to generate the required $f^{Hf/W}$. As D_{Hf} is very large, we may use
468 Equation 49 of Jacobsen (2005) to determine the D_W value adjusted to account
469 for using a modified y_{init} value:

$$D'_W \approx D_W^\circ \frac{(1 - y_{init}^\circ) y'_{init}}{(1 - y'_{init}) y_{init}^\circ} \quad (5)$$

470 where the $'$ superscript denotes the modified value and the $^\circ$ superscript denotes
471 the nominal value. Using this equation, $y'_{init} = 0.6$ gives $D'_W = 7/135$.

472 For the large bodies of Ch13, the $y_{init} = 0.6$ case depressed the average ϵ_W
473 value by $0.062 \pm 0.101 \epsilon_W$ units (one standard deviation) compared to $y_{init} = 0.7$
474 and for the entire population of Ch13, the average ϵ_W was increased by $0.13 \pm$
475 $0.26 \epsilon_W$ units. Neither of these are significantly different from zero change. In
476 all cases, there was less scatter in ϵ_W using the lower y_{init} value. For Ch01, there
477 was no change in ϵ_W compared to their nominal values. This is as expected, since

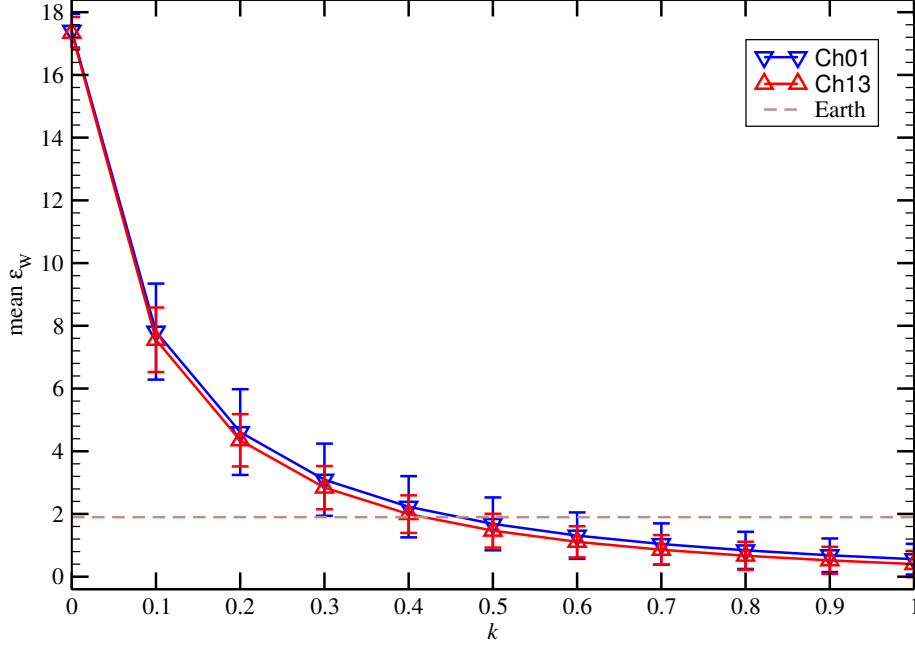


Figure 5: The mean mantle ϵ_W of final bodies in each simulation style. Only bodies with mass $\geq 0.75 M_\oplus$ are plotted. The error bars shown are one standard deviation. The blue line with down triangles is Ch01 and the red line with up triangles is Ch13. The horizontal brown dashed line is ϵ_W of Earth. 15 bodies from Ch01 made the mass cut-off and 7 bodies from Ch13 made the mass cut-off.

when calculating a single-stage core formation age, the only two ~~independent~~
independent parameters are $f^{Hf/W}$ and the time of differentiation. Here, we
chose D_W' and y'_{init} such that $f^{Hf/W}$ is the same for both y_{init} values. Thus,
only departures from single-stage core formation style equilibration can cause
changes in ϵ_W .

4.3. Differentiation time t_{diff}

For our nominal calculations we assumed that the time of differentiation
 t_{diff} is either 3 Myr after the start of the simulation or the time of the first non-
hit-and-run impact. A 3 Myr delay after CAI formation is broadly consistent
with the onset of extensive silicate melting due to ^{26}Al decay, but the zero-time
of our model is probably later than CAI formation (because significant planet
growth has already occurred). To test the effect of our choice for t_{diff} on our
results, we also ran our simulation using $t_{diff} = 0$ and found that the results
were not significantly different. The mean change was $0.39 \pm 0.58 \epsilon_W$ units (one
standard deviation) and the range was $[-0.079, 4.06] \epsilon_W$ units, but only four

bodies were changed by more than 0.75 ϵ_W units. Given the intrinsic variability in the outcomes (Figure 3), these small variations are unlikely to matter.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

N-body calculations in which not all collisions result in perfect mergers provide a more accurate depiction of the likely processes occurring during the final stages of planetary accretion (Chambers, 2013). In this work, we have carried out an initial analysis of how inefficient merging affects the chemical and isotopic evolution of the terrestrial planets. The biggest effect of including inefficient merging is an increased scatter in both model silicate mass fraction and mantle ϵ_W . The scatter is larger at small masses, mainly because of the averaging effects of multiple impacts (and, for ϵ_W , additional re-equilibration). The model predictions for both y and ϵ_W match the measured values quite well when incomplete merging is included (Figure 2 and Figure 3). Inefficient merging also results in a longer timescale to complete accretion, which slightly reduces the final mantle tungsten anomaly ϵ_W of the terrestrial planets (Figure 3).

There are several obvious future avenues of investigation. One is to improve the chemical model used here. For instance, we could follow the approach of Rubie et al. (2014) and adopt a more complicated (and hopefully realistic) prescription for k and the relevant partition coefficients D . Although any successful prescription for D has to produce the present-day mantle concentrations, there are different models for how D varies with time (e.g., Siebert et al., 2013), and they may produce different ϵ_W outcomes. Likewise, k probably varies with impactor size, and so too may the fraction of the mantle which initially equilibrates with the impactor (an effect not investigated here). A second avenue is to investigate the role of spatial variations in the starting conditions. Several lines of evidence suggest that later impactors were probably derived from greater semi-major axes and were more volatile-rich and more oxidized (O’Brien et al., 2006; Schönbachler et al., 2010; Rubie et al., 2011) than earlier impactors; the extent to which this kind of variation might affect tungsten isotopic evolution has yet to be determined. One way of simultaneously matching $f^{Hf/W}$ as well as ϵ_W for Earth and Mars is to assume some initial spatial variation in partitioning behavior (e.g., Figure 1a of Nimmo et al. (2010)).

The other obvious direction is to examine the effects of different accretion scenarios. Our simulations assume Jupiter and Saturn are in their current orbit during terrestrial planet formation; however, recent work has proposed a ‘Grand Tack’ model wherein Jupiter migrated extensively during the formation of the solar system, with potentially dramatic effects on the terrestrial planet forming region (Walsh et al., 2011). At present, the Grand Tack simulations treat all impacts as perfect mergers, but this may be rectified in future work, at which point the chemical and isotopic consequences can be examined. Another detail to include would be mantle stripping of impactors during hit-and-run collisions, as has been proposed as an origin for Mercury (Sarid et al., 2014; Asphaug and Reufer, 2014). Permitting the formation of binary planets (such as the Earth–Moon system) would allow for better comparison between simulation results

and our solar system. Lastly, advances in high-performance computing will allow more realistic simulations to be run. Using a larger number of starting bodies and allowing smaller fragments in the N-body code would be desirable, as is carrying out large numbers of realizations (Fischer and Ciesla, 2014). Extending the time period covered by simulations to earlier in planet formation (e.g., oligarchic or runaway growth) would improve our ability to test our understanding of formational process and could permit the inclusion of Mars, Vesta, and meteorites as constraints. It will also soon be possible to resolve crustal layers in impact simulations, the results of which can ultimately be incorporated into N-body codes. It will therefore soon be possible to investigate the suggestion by O’Neill and Palme (2008) that crustal erosion significantly altered the elemental composition of the Earth.

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