



## RESEARCH LETTER

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## Key Points:

- MESSENGER data reveal magnetic fields induced at the top of Mercury's core
- The annual induction signal constrains Mercury's core radius to within  $\pm 90$  km
- Mercury's magnetopause reaches the dayside planetary surface 1.5–4% of the time

## Supporting Information:

- Table S1

## Correspondence to:

C. L. Johnson,  
cjohnson@eos.ubc.ca

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## MESSENGER observations of induced magnetic fields in Mercury's core

Catherine L. Johnson<sup>1,2</sup>, Lydia C. Philpott<sup>1</sup>, Brian J. Anderson<sup>3</sup>, Haje Korth<sup>3</sup>, Steven A. Hauck, II<sup>4</sup>, Daniel Heyner<sup>5</sup>, Roger J. Phillips<sup>6,7</sup>, Reka M. Winslow<sup>8</sup>, and Sean C. Solomon<sup>9,10</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Earth, Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, <sup>2</sup>Planetary Science Institute, Tucson, Arizona, USA, <sup>3</sup>The Johns Hopkins University Applied Physics Laboratory, Laurel, Maryland, USA, <sup>4</sup>Department of Earth, Environmental, and Planetary Sciences, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, USA, <sup>5</sup>Institut für Geophysik und extraterrestrische Physik, Technische Universität Braunschweig, Braunschweig, Germany, <sup>6</sup>Planetary Science Directorate, Southwest Research Institute, Boulder, Colorado, USA, <sup>7</sup>Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, Missouri, USA, <sup>8</sup>Institute for the Study of Earth, Oceans and Space, University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire, USA, <sup>9</sup>Department of Terrestrial Magnetism, Carnegie Institution of Washington, Washington, District of Columbia, USA, <sup>10</sup>Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University, Palisades, New York, USA

**Abstract** Orbital data from the Magnetometer on the MErcury Surface, Space ENvironment, GEOchemistry, and Ranging (MESSENGER) spacecraft allow investigation of magnetic fields induced at the top of Mercury's core by time-varying magnetospheric fields. We used 15 Mercury years of observations of the magnetopause position as well as the magnetic field inside the magnetosphere to establish the presence and magnitude of an annual induction signal. Our results indicate an annual change in the internal axial dipole term,  $g_1^0$ , of 7.5 to 9.5 nT. For negligible mantle conductivity, the average annual induction signal provides an estimate of Mercury's core radius to within  $\pm 90$  km, independent of geodetic results. Larger induction signals during extreme events are expected but are challenging to identify because of reconnection-driven erosion. Our results indicate that the magnetopause reaches the dayside planetary surface 1.5–4% of the time.

### 1. Introduction

Mercury's magnetosphere is distinctive because of the planet's weak magnetic field [Ness *et al.*, 1974, 1975; Anderson *et al.*, 2008, 2011] and proximity to the Sun. Observations by the MErcury Surface, Space ENvironment, GEOchemistry, and Ranging (MESSENGER) spacecraft have demonstrated that the long-wavelength global field originates in the core [Anderson *et al.*, 2008; Uno *et al.*, 2009] and is dipolar, axisymmetric, and equatorially asymmetric [Anderson *et al.*, 2011, 2012; Johnson *et al.*, 2012]. The weak internal field and high solar wind dynamic pressure at Mercury lead to a small magnetosphere with an average subsolar distance,  $R_{SS}$ , from the dipole origin to the subsolar magnetopause location of  $\sim 1.5 R_M$  [Winslow *et al.*, 2013; Zhong *et al.*, 2015], where  $R_M = 2440$  km is Mercury's radius. Temporal variations in solar wind conditions, in particular in the solar wind ram pressure ( $P_{ram}$ ) and the strength and direction of the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF), together with the short response time of the magnetosphere (the Dungey cycle time), mean that the magnetosphere is also highly dynamic. Aperiodic variations occur frequently with timescales from less than a second to a few minutes [Anderson *et al.*, 2013] and intermittently over several to tens of hours, in particular in association with extreme solar events [Slavin *et al.*, 2009, 2014; Winslow *et al.*, 2015]. However, periodic changes in solar wind pressure occur on Mercury's annual timescale (88 days) as a result of the planet's eccentric orbit.

Temporal variations in  $P_{ram}$  can change the position of Mercury's magnetopause. To first order, for a static internal dipole field,  $R_{SS} \sim P_{ram}^{-1/6}$  [e.g., Winslow *et al.*, 2013]. The magnetopause is thus expected to approach the planet with increasing  $P_{ram}$  and recede from the planet with decreasing  $P_{ram}$ . The currents on the magnetopause, and the field generated by them, change accordingly and act to confine the planetary field within the compressed or expanded magnetosphere.

Analyses of MESSENGER gravity data and Earth-based radar measurements of Mercury's rotational state have confirmed the presence of a large metallic core [Margot *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 2012; Hauck *et al.*, 2013], which occupies a substantial volume fraction of the magnetosphere. An open question for Mercury has been whether  $P_{ram}$ -driven changes in the magnetopause can induce currents at the top of the core that in turn produce

detectable fields at or above the planetary surface [Hood and Schubert, 1979; Suess and Goldstein, 1979; Grosser et al., 2004; Glassmeier et al., 2007]. An increase in  $P_{\text{ram}}$  will compress the magnetosphere and induce currents in the core that increase the planetary field to oppose the decrease in  $R_{\text{SS}}$ . Conversely, a decrease in  $P_{\text{ram}}$  leads to a decrease in the planetary field. Induction at Mercury is important for two reasons. First, the induced fields are sensitive to the interior electrical conductivity structure of the planet, which in turn is strongly dependent on the interior temperature distribution. For a simple two-layer electrical conductivity model consisting of an inner conducting sphere and an insulating outer shell, the induced field depends on the geometry and magnitude of the inducing (magnetopause) field and the radius of the conducting sphere, typically interpreted as the radius of the core [Grosser et al., 2004; Glassmeier et al., 2007]. Second, induction increases the minimum solar wind dynamic pressure needed to compress the dayside magnetosphere to the surface of the planet. This effect, in turn, could substantially inhibit direct bombardment of the dayside surface by the solar wind [Hood and Schubert, 1979; Jia et al., 2015], with implications for space weathering of the surface and production of exospheric species [e.g., Leblanc and Johnson, 2003, 2010; Wurz et al., 2010].

Early models of induced fields predicted that, in the absence of reconnection, the dayside surface would be directly exposed to the solar wind ( $R_{\text{SS}} \sim 1$ ) for only a small fraction of the time [Suess and Goldstein, 1979; Hood and Schubert, 1979]. Later studies found similar magnitudes for induced fields [Grosser et al., 2004; Glassmeier et al., 2007] and predicted that these signals could be detected in observations to be made by the BepiColombo spacecraft [Grosser et al., 2004]. The  $R_{\text{SS}}-P_{\text{ram}}$  relationship determined with  $R_{\text{SS}}$  values inferred from 3 Mercury years of MESSENGER observations, together with ENLIL [Odstroil, 2003] model estimates of  $P_{\text{ram}}$ , suggested that induction does occur at Mercury [Winslow et al., 2013].

This view of compression and expansion of the magnetosphere is complicated by magnetospheric dynamics, driven by magnetopause reconnection and erosion of the dayside magnetospheric field [e.g., Slavin and Holzer, 1979]. At Mercury, these dynamics are in turn controlled by the relative orientations and strengths of the IMF and the magnetospheric field at the magnetopause boundary [Sonnerup, 1974; DiBraccio et al., 2013]. Erosion of dayside flux will act to offset or even exceed the effects of induction, and Slavin and Holzer [1979] concluded that this effect could reduce  $R_{\text{SS}}$  by  $0.2 R_{\text{M}}$  to  $0.7 R_{\text{M}}$  from its uneroded value up to 60% of the time. MESSENGER observations of the reconnection rate across the magnetopause [DiBraccio et al., 2013] and of three extreme solar wind events [Slavin et al., 2014] support this notion and indicate that, at least under extreme conditions, the effects of induction are secondary to those of reconnection-driven erosion.

MESSENGER Magnetometer (MAG) data taken in orbit around Mercury from 23 March 2011 to 30 April 2015 allow a systematic investigation of induction. We focus on the annual signal for several reasons. First, because  $P_{\text{ram}}$  varies as  $r_{\text{h}}^{-2}$ , where  $r_{\text{h}}$  is heliocentric distance, the  $R_{\text{SS}}-P_{\text{ram}}$  relationship can be recast in terms of heliocentric distance, removing the need for independent estimates of  $P_{\text{ram}}$  that were not routinely available from the suite of plasma sensors on MESSENGER. Second, the multiple Mercury years of MESSENGER orbital observations allow robust detection of an annual signal using only magnetospherically quiet orbits [Anderson et al., 2013]. Third, periodic forcing on this 88 day timescale allows us to apply the two-layer electrical conductivity model of Grosser et al. [2004]. The model formulation and the observed annual signal constrain the radius of the top of the highly electrically conductive region, providing an assessment of Mercury's core radius that is independent of traditional geodetic approaches [Hauck et al., 2013].

## 2. MESSENGER Observational Constraints on Induced Core Fields

Induced fields, if sufficiently large, will have two observable effects that can be investigated with MESSENGER MAG data. In the absence of induction,  $R_{\text{SS}}$  will vary as  $r_{\text{h}}^{1/3}$ . If induction occurs, the induced fields effectively dampen the compression and expansion of the magnetosphere driven by variations in solar wind density (and hence  $P_{\text{ram}}$ ) with heliocentric distance. As a result,  $R_{\text{SS}}$  will vary as  $r_{\text{h}}^b$ , where the exponent  $b$  is less than  $1/3$ . In addition, the change in the planetary field due to induction can be investigated using observations inside the magnetosphere. The largest induction signals will be in the axial dipole term,  $g_1^0$ , in the internal field (see section 3): a relative increase in the dipole moment will occur at perihelion, and a decrease will occur at aphelion. We examined these effects with 15 Mercury years of MESSENGER MAG data taken in orbit around Mercury.

MESSENGER observed both the planetary and the interplanetary magnetic fields on every orbit, and the magnetopause boundary locations are readily identified in the data. Data were analyzed in Mercury solar orbital

(MSO) coordinates, for which +X is sunward, +Z is northward, and +Y completes the right-handed system. MSO positions at the magnetopause and inside the magnetosphere were corrected for solar wind aberration using Mercury's instantaneous orbital speed, an average solar wind speed of 402 km/s [cf. Johnson *et al.*, 2012], and the dipole offset [Anderson *et al.*, 2013].

### 2.1. Magnetopause Position: Variation With Heliocentric Distance

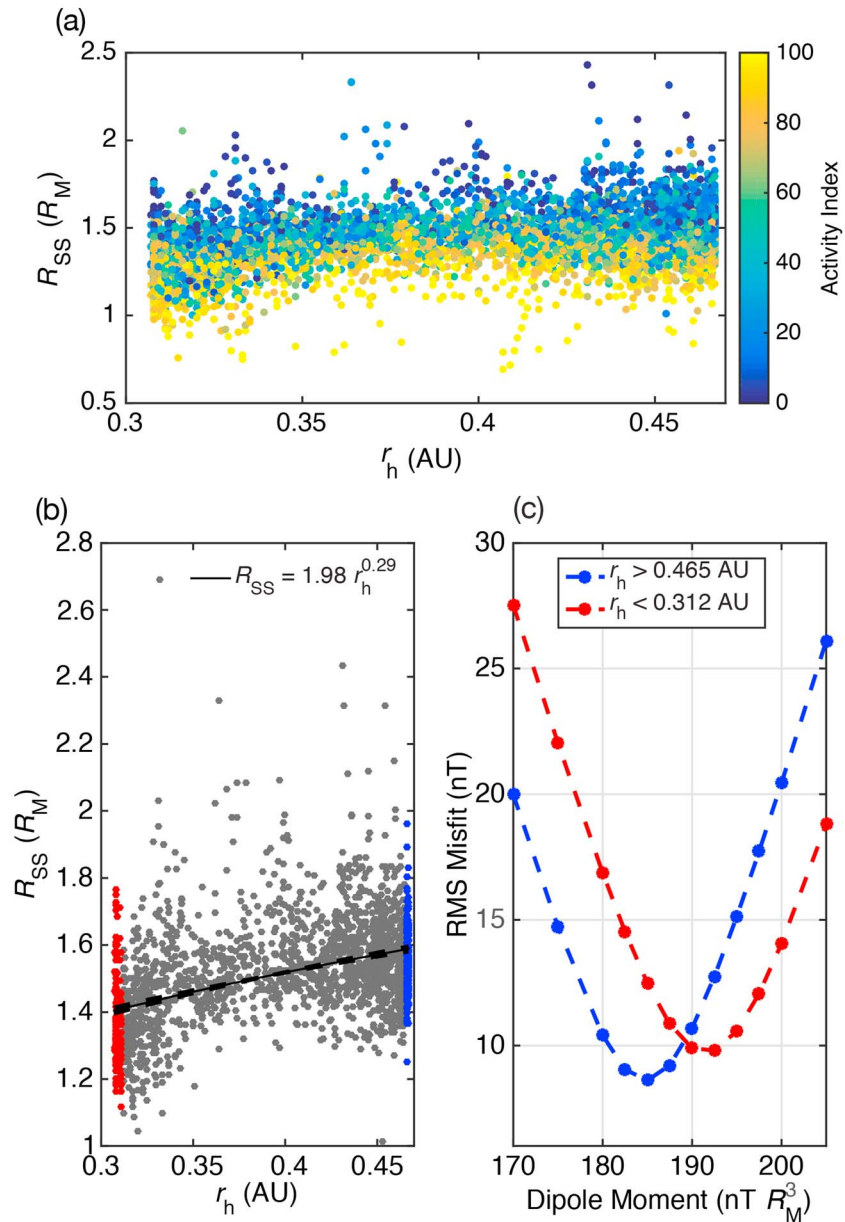
We identified magnetopause crossings on the inbound and outbound segments of MESSENGER orbits from 24 March 2011 through 31 October 2014 using the approach of Winslow *et al.* [2013] and calculated the magnetic disturbance index [Anderson *et al.*, 2013] for each orbit. The average magnetopause position was computed for each inbound or outbound orbit segment from the inner and outer limits to the magnetopause crossings (supporting information Table S1). Magnetopause positions near perihelion were observed to be systematically closer to the planet than those at aphelion. For each magnetopause position, we computed  $R_{SS}$  with the Shue *et al.* [1997] functional form for magnetopause shape, under rotational symmetry and with an average flaring parameter,  $\alpha = 0.5$ .  $\alpha$  governs whether the magnetotail is closed ( $\alpha < 0.5$ ) or open ( $\alpha \geq 0.5$ ), and we confirmed that the best fit value of 0.5 found by Winslow *et al.* [2013] is appropriate for our larger data set of magnetopause crossings. The  $R_{SS}$  values were computed for magnetopause crossings sunward of  $X = -2 R_M$  to minimize sensitivity to variations in tail flaring. More magnetopause crossings are observed near aphelion and perihelion than at the average  $r_h$ , reflecting the variation in Mercury orbital angular velocity with  $r_h$ .  $R_{SS}$  values increase on average with increasing  $r_h$ , but there is considerable scatter at any given  $r_h$ . In general, lower  $R_{SS}$  values are seen on orbits with greater magnetospheric activity. The activity index is a measure of relative magnetic variability for each orbit at periods of 0.1 s to 300 s [Anderson *et al.*, 2013]. The physical processes contributing to the activity index include signatures of magnetospheric dynamics associated with reconnection and erosion, which can modify or mask any induction signals. We therefore restricted our investigations of an annual induction signal to magnetically quiet orbits.

We selected orbits with an activity index less than 33, i.e., the quietest one-third of the data. The activity index is normalized for local time, such that the distribution of heliocentric distance for the 1943 quiet crossings mirrors that of the full data set. The magnetopause crossings were considered to be statistically independent given that timescales for magnetospheric variability are much less than the time interval between successive crossings. We investigated a least-squares fit,  $R_{SS} = a r_h^b$ , and computed the 95% confidence limits on  $b$  (reported as  $\pm \Delta b$ ). We found an exponent  $b = 0.29 \pm 0.03$  (Figure 1b). Thus, at the 95% confidence level the value for  $b$  is significantly different from the value of 1/3 expected in the absence of induction. The fit results were insensitive to the quiet-orbit selection criteria:  $b = 0.28 \pm 0.04$  (880 orbits) for an activity index cutoff of 15 and  $b = 0.29 \pm 0.02$  (2362 orbits) for a cutoff of 40. The  $R_{SS}$ - $P_{ram}$  relationship found by Winslow *et al.* [2013] can be related to an  $R_{SS}$ - $r_h$  relationship, under the assumption that the  $P_{ram}$  variations in the ENLIL model used by Winslow *et al.* [2013] reflect mainly  $r_h$  variations. The resulting value of  $b$  is 0.296, in excellent agreement with that found here. However, the smaller data set (and lack of restriction to quiet orbits) yielded 95% confidence limits of  $b = 0.248$ – $0.344$  and could not confirm that the value was statistically different from  $b = 0.33$  (no induction).

If the induced field signature at the magnetopause boundary is dominantly dipolar in geometry, the  $R_{SS}$ - $r_h$  relationship can be related to the induced dipole moment. Between aphelion ( $r_h = r_a$ ) and perihelion ( $r_h = r_p$ ), the change in dipole moment,  $f$ , expressed as a fraction of the dipole moment in the absence of induction is given by  $f = (r_p/r_a)^{3b-1} - 1$ . Our value for  $b$  corresponds to a 5% change in dipole moment, with lower and upper 95% confidence limits of 2% and 8%. For a mean dipole moment of 190 nT  $R_M$  [Johnson *et al.*, 2012; Korth *et al.*, 2015], this change in dipole moment is 9.5 nT  $R_M$ , with 95% confidence limits of 3.8–15.2 nT  $R_M^3$ .

### 2.2. Field Inside the Magnetosphere: Aphelion Versus Perihelion

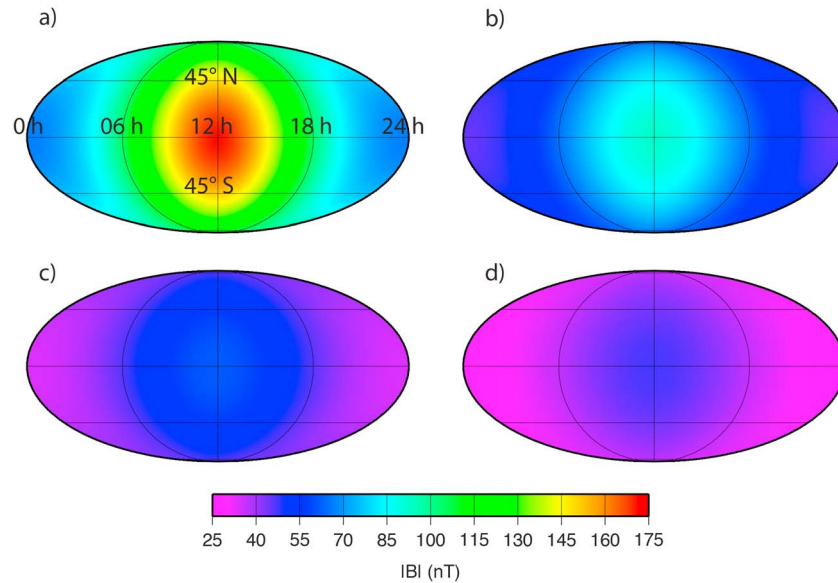
We selected two subsets of quiet orbits to investigate changes in the field measured inside the magnetosphere within 0.005 AU of perihelion (76 orbits) and 0.002 AU of aphelion (93 orbits). We used the KT14 magnetospheric model [Korth *et al.*, 2015] and the approach of Johnson *et al.* [2012] to find the best fit dipole moment ( $m$ ) for each subset. The KT14 tail field parameters, dipole offset, and dipole tilt (zero) were as specified by Korth *et al.* [2015], and the  $R_{SS}$  values were set to the mean values computed from the subsets of perihelion and aphelion orbit subsets ( $1.4 R_M$  and  $1.6 R_M$ , respectively). For each  $R_{SS}$ - $m$  model-parameter pair, the model shielding fields were recomputed. The root-mean-square (RMS) misfit of the resulting model field to the observations



**Figure 1.** (a) Subsolar distance,  $R_{SS}$ , versus heliocentric distance,  $r_h$ , computed for magnetopause crossings spanning the period 24 March 2011 to 31 October 2014 (15 Mercury years) for which  $\chi_{M_{SO}} > -2 R_M$  and color coded by activity index. One crossing for which  $R_{SS} > 2.5 R_M$  is not shown. (b)  $R_{SS}$  versus  $r_h$  for 1943 quiet orbits (see text) along with the best-fit power law  $R_{SS} = 1.98 r_h^{0.29}$  (black solid line) and 95% confidence limits (black dashed lines). Red and blue dots denote  $R_{SS}$  values for 76 and 93 orbits within 0.005 AU of perihelion and 0.002 AU of aphelion, respectively. (c) RMS misfit of predicted  $B_r$  to observed  $B_r$  inside the magnetosphere as a function of dipole moment for orbits near perihelion (red) and aphelion (blue).

was calculated using only the radial component of the magnetic field, in order to minimize the effects of residual contributions on the horizontal field components from field-aligned currents [Anderson et al., 2014] observed in MESSENGER's dawn-dusk orbit geometry near perihelion and aphelion. The dipole moment was varied in steps of  $5 \text{ nT } R_M^3$  initially and then in steps of  $2.5 \text{ nT } R_M^3$  near the minima in RMS misfit.

The RMS misfit curves (Figure 1c) are systematically offset from each other, with the best-fit dipole moment at aphelion  $7.5 \text{ nT } R_M^3$  greater than that at perihelion, consistent with the presence of an induction signal and in good agreement with the mean change in dipole moment inferred from the  $R_{SS}$ - $r_h$  relationship. Formal 95% confidence limits for the best-fit dipole moment derived from the number of magnetic field measurements in



**Figure 2.** Strength of the model magnetopause field at Mercury’s core-mantle boundary (radius,  $R_C = 2020$  km [Hauck et al., 2013]) for (a)  $R_{SS} = 1.15 R_M$ , (b)  $R_{SS} = 1.40 R_M$ , (c)  $R_{SS} = 1.60 R_M$ , and (d)  $R_{SS} = 1.75 R_M$ . The field strength is computed with the KT14 magnetospheric model [Korth et al., 2015]. The same color scale is used throughout to emphasize the change in the field strength across the four cases. Grid lines are spaced at  $45^\circ$  in latitude and 6 h in local time, and each plot is centered on noon at the equator. The large-scale day/night and latitudinal variations in the field are most easily seen in Figure 2a.

each subset correspond to an increase in RMS misfit above the minimum RMS of only  $\sim 0.2$  nT. We regard this figure as unrealistically small, so we do not quote these uncertainties here.

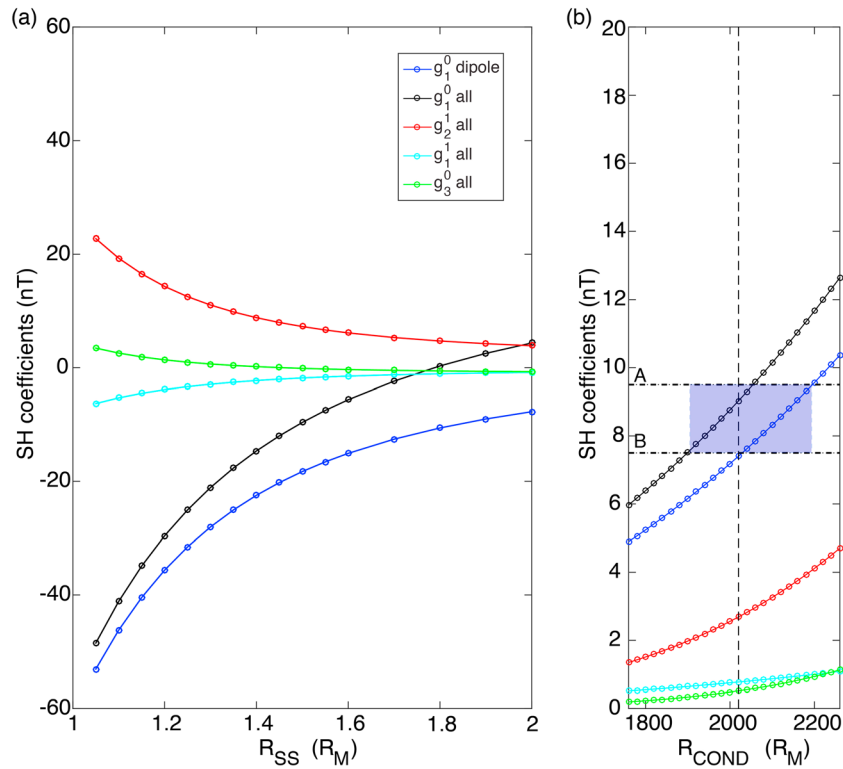
### 3. Predicted Induction Signatures

We adopted the two-layer electrical conductivity model of Grosser et al. [2004], which includes an inner conducting sphere, of conductivity  $\sigma_0$  ( $\sim 10^6$  S/m) and radius  $R_{COND}$ , and an insulating silicate shell ( $\sigma_m \sim 0$ ). For silicate conductivities similar to those of terrestrial mantle materials [Constable, 1993] and proposed for Mercury [Verhoeven et al., 2009], the characteristic time for external field variations to diffuse from the surface to the core is  $O(1$  h). For longer periods and a sufficiently high conductivity contrast ( $\sigma_0 - \sigma_m$ ), induction in the mantle and crust is negligible relative to that in the core. Under these assumptions, the transfer function between the induced and the inducing fields at a given period is

$$\frac{I_n^m}{E_n^m} = \frac{n}{n+1} q^{2n+1} \quad (1)$$

where  $I_n^m$  and  $E_n^m$  are coefficient pairs  $[g_n^m, h_n^m]$  and  $[G_n^m, H_n^m]$ , which are the induced and inducing spherical harmonic Gauss coefficients of degree  $n$  and order  $m$  in the planetocentric local time frame, for the internal and external fields, respectively [Olsen et al., 2010], and  $q = R_{COND}/R_M$  [Rikitake, 1966; Grosser et al., 2004]. (Note that the external field coefficients are typically given by  $[q_n^m, s_n^m]$  in the geomagnetic literature). Typically,  $R_{COND}$  is assumed to be the radius of the core,  $R_C$ . Prior to the MESSENGER mission,  $R_C$  was constrained by the Mariner 10 estimate of Mercury’s mass and possible interior composition models. A commonly used value for  $R_C$  was 1800 km, with a permitted range from  $\sim 1760$  km to 2200 km [Harder and Schubert, 2001; Hauck et al., 2007] and even to 2400 km [Harder and Schubert, 2001]. MESSENGER observations of Mercury’s gravity field, in combination with Earth-based observations of Mercury’s rotational state, have enabled the radius of Mercury’s liquid outer core to be well determined at  $R_C = 2020$  km  $\pm 30$  km [Hauck et al., 2013]. Furthermore, the possibility of a solid FeS layer at the base of the silicate mantle has been proposed [Hauck et al., 2013], although experimental work relating Mercury’s core composition to MESSENGER’s observations of surface composition suggest that the conditions under which such a layer could occur are highly restrictive [Chabot et al., 2014]. If present, such a layer may have an electrical conductivity much





**Figure 3.** (a) Induced spherical harmonic (SH) terms  $g_1^0$ ,  $g_2^1$ ,  $g_1^1$ , and  $g_3^0$  versus subsolar distance,  $R_{SS}$ . Coefficients are computed from the full external field (the tail field and both the dipole and tail shielding fields) from the KT14 model [Korth et al., 2015] for  $R_{COND} = 2020$  km [Hauck et al., 2013]. The induced  $g_1^0$  term for a magnetopause field that shields only the planetary dipole field is also shown. (b) The predicted annual induction signal resulting from a change in  $R_{SS}$  from  $1.4 R_M$  to  $1.6 R_M$  as a function of  $R_{COND}$ . The dashed vertical line denotes  $R_{COND} = 2020$  km. Dotted horizontal lines are the mean values for the annual  $g_1^0$  induction signal inferred from  $R_{SS}-t_h$  (labeled “A”) and the field inside the magnetosphere (labeled “B”). The shaded region indicates the range of  $R_{COND}$  consistent with the observed average dipole induction signal and the predicted values from the KT14 model.

greater than that of the silicate rocks above it; under such a scenario,  $R_{COND}$  would reflect the radius of the top of this layer rather than  $R_C$ .

The inducing field geometry was obtained by a spherical harmonic expansion of the KT14 magnetopause fields in the MSO frame. Because the KT14 model describes only a static magnetosphere, we represented the temporally varying magnetopause field by a series of quasi-static states and computed the spherical harmonic expansion of the magnetopause field at distinct  $R_{SS}$  values from  $R_{SS} = 1.05 R_M$  to  $2.0 R_M$ . The lower limit of  $R_{SS} = 1.05 R_M$  is set by the  $R_{SS}$  value for which the magnetopause first touches the surface of the planet in the southern hemisphere owing to the equatorial asymmetry in the internal field. Changes in  $R_{SS}$  result in substantial changes in magnetopause field strength at the core-mantle boundary (CMB) (Figure 2). For example, the maximum dayside magnetopause field strengths at the CMB are 171 nT for  $R_{SS} = 1.15 R_M$  and 47 nT for  $R_{SS} = 1.75 R_M$ . For the annual average variation in  $R_{SS}$  the maximum magnetopause field strength at the CMB varies from 62 to 92 nT. The inducing field is dominated by the  $G_1^0$  and  $G_2^1$  terms, reflecting the equator-to-pole and day-night structure in the magnetopause field, respectively.

The transfer function in equation (1) predicts that the ratios of the magnitudes of the induced to inducing fields are 28%, 26%, and 20% for spherical harmonic degrees 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The resulting largest induced terms ( $g_1^0$ ,  $g_2^1$ ,  $g_1^1$ , and  $g_3^0$ ) are shown for the quasi-static states in Figure 3a. The actual induction signals resulting from a change in  $R_{SS}$  and the predicted values are shown in Figure 3b for the pre-MESSENGER range of  $R_{COND}$ . The magnetopause fields shield both the planetary field and the fields from current systems inside the magnetosphere, notably the field resulting from the tail current sheet. The geometry of the tail current sheet, particularly its proximity to the planet on the nightside, is less well constrained by MESSENGER

data than the magnetopause geometry. We estimated the effects of the uncertainty in our knowledge of the tail field on the resulting shielding field by computing the induced  $g_1^0$  term resulting from (a) a magnetopause field that shields only the planetary dipole field and (b) the full external field, including the tail field and magnetopause fields that shield both the dipole and the tail field (Figure 3). The corresponding predicted  $g_1^0$  induction signals for  $R_{\text{COND}} = 2020$  km are 7.5 and 9.0 nT (Figure 3b).

#### 4. Discussion and Conclusions

MESSENGER observations of Mercury's magnetopause position and of the field inside the magnetosphere show evidence for an annual induction signal. The inferred average changes in the axial dipole term from the two distinct approaches are 7.5 and 9.5 nT. The 95% confidence limits on the induced dipole term obtained from the  $R_{\text{SS}}-r_h$  relationship are relatively large (4–15 nT) but confirm that the induction signal is distinct from zero. The average values obtained from the two approaches show excellent agreement with the predicted values for  $R_{\text{COND}} = R_C = 2020$  km [Hauck *et al.*, 2013], given uncertainties in the tail field (Figure 3b).

The observed average annual induction signal obtained from two distinct methods constrains  $R_{\text{COND}}$  to within 160–180 km for a given external field model and under the assumption of negligible mantle conductivity (Figure 3b). The predicted induced signal for the full external field indicates that  $R_{\text{COND}} = 1900$ – $2060$  km is compatible with the signal inferred from observations. For an external field corresponding to only the dipole shielding field, a larger conductive radius is required to match the observed signal ( $R_{\text{COND}} = 2020$ – $2200$  km). Importantly, pre-MESSENGER canonical values for MESSENGER's core radius ( $\sim 1800$  km) are not favored by the observed average signal.

The approach taken here to modeling induced fields differs from the orbit-by-orbit approach typically used at Earth [e.g., Hulot *et al.*, 2015; Sabaka *et al.*, 2015] because of the still-limited characterization of Mercury's external fields and the limited spatial coverage of MESSENGER's highly eccentric orbit. For example, efforts underway to characterize the dependence of the large-scale magnetospheric fields on activity [Anderson *et al.*, 2013] and to incorporate field-aligned currents [Anderson *et al.*, 2014] are important to future work. Refinement of the estimate of  $R_{\text{COND}}$  and interior conductivity structure more generally requires improved knowledge of the inducing field geometry and information at periods other than 1 year.

A related open question is whether time variations in Mercury's internal magnetic field could result from librational core flow. Although this process would not predict the correspondence of internal and external field variations observed here, it is still of interest to examine. The magnetic Reynolds number associated with the forced libration is  $O(1)$ , suggesting that such a mechanism is only marginally possible. Full treatment of this issue would require detailed assessment of possible driving instabilities [e.g., LeBars *et al.*, 2015] and the resulting poloidal (observable) field.

Larger changes in  $P_{\text{ram}}$  (and hence in  $R_{\text{SS}}$ ) will yield a larger induction signal, and the contributions to the induced fields from spherical harmonic terms beyond  $g_1^0$ , notably  $g_2^1$ , might be detectable. We examined the entire MESSENGER data set for orbit-to-orbit changes in the peak field strength and in  $R_{\text{SS}}$  to assess whether there were any candidate orbits with obvious large induction signals. We defined the average peak field strength,  $B_p$ , to be the average of the peak field strength measured on three orbits preceding, and three orbits following, a given orbit. The change in peak field strength  $\Delta B_p$  was then defined to be the difference between the peak field strength on that orbit and  $B_p$ . We found 14 orbits with  $\Delta B_p$  greater than 10% (i.e., approximately twice the equivalent annual induction signal amplitude). Of these orbits, 12 occurred at times of extreme events [e.g., Winslow *et al.*, 2015], and the remaining two had activity indices of 97.6 and 98.8, corresponding to highly disturbed conditions. Extreme events are difficult to model from an induction perspective with MESSENGER data, not only because of the additional effect of reconnection-driven erosion but because both the tail field and magnetopause geometry are highly time dependent. MESSENGER's orbit combined with this time dependence implies that knowledge of the inducing field is poor on these timescales. Figure 3 shows that even for a given magnetopause geometry, uncertainties in the tail field are important and translate directly into uncertainties in the inferred interior electrical conductivity structure. The upcoming BepiColombo mission will offer substantive advances to induction studies because the plasma ram and thermal pressures will be measured, magnetic field observations will be obtained from two spacecraft simultaneously, and improved coverage of the magnetotail will be obtained [Glassmeier *et al.*, 2010].

Our observations of Mercury's magnetopause position allow quantification of the percentage of the time that the magnetopause reaches the planetary surface. For a magnetopause shape with  $\alpha = 0.5$ , this situation occurs when  $R_{SS}$  is less than  $1.05 R_M$ . For a more flared magnetopause, the critical  $R_{SS}$  value decreases, and vice versa; e.g., for  $\alpha = 0.4$  to  $0.6$  the critical value of  $R_{SS}$  ranges from  $1.06 R_M$  to  $1.04 R_M$ . From our average magnetopause crossings and the corresponding magnetopause shape, we find  $R_{SS}$  to be less than  $1.05 R_M$  on 1.5% of the observed magnetopause transits. Innermost limits on the magnetopause crossings yield  $R_{SS}$  values less than  $1.05 R_M$  on 4% of the crossings. We infer that at least some of the dayside is directly exposed to the solar wind between 1.5% and 4% of the time. Although this percentage is small, when integrated over time it suggests that intermittent direct bombardment of the dayside, in addition to the quasi-steady bombardment observed in the cusp [Raines *et al.*, 2014, 2015; Winslow *et al.*, 2014; Gershman *et al.*, 2015], plays an important role in space weathering the surface and in the generation of the exosphere.

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