

Research article

Effect of chemical disequilibrium during metal-silicate partitioning on the thermal state of the early core

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In this study, we improved a previously published numerical model linking the core composition to the core temperature during accretion by introducing the possibility of chemical disequilibrium during the segregation of the core in the magma ocean phase. Our study shows that at least 60 % of the accreting metal needs to be equilibrated in order to obtain a chemically coherent Earth, thus favoring a rapid core formation according to the Hf-W chronometer. The dilution factor of this equilibrated metallic mass needs to be 4 (for 100 % of metallic mass equilibrated) to 40 (for 60 % of the metallic mass equilibrated) in order to obtain concentrations of major and trace element close to the Bulk Silicate Earth composition. At the minimum degree of equilibrium in metal and silicate phases, the final temperature of the core is increased by a maximum $\sim 250 \pm 40$ K, with an average of $(50 \pm 5) - (100 \pm 5)$ K compared to the fully equilibrated case which yields an isentropic core-mantle boundary temperature (T_{CMB}^{is}) of $\sim 3800 \pm 250$ K. The chemical disequilibrium could be then one factor favoring the hot core hypothesis, but has to be coupled with other phenomena (gravitational energy dissipation, radiogenic heat production) to produce a hot core.

1 Introduction

The presence of light elements in the core has been demonstrated for a long time (Birch, 1965), and constraining the nature and concentrations of these light elements is important to understand the so-called core density deficit (Dziewonski and Anderson, 1981). The incorporation of light elements in the core has been proposed to happen in a deep magma ocean, where the core-forming metal segregates from the silicate (e.g. Drake and Righter, 2002; Bouhifd and Jephcoat, 2011). This formation at high pressure and high temperature (maximum pressure between 54 GPa and 80 GPa, maximum temperature between 3400 K and 4000 K, Bouhifd and Jephcoat, 2011; Fischer et al., 2015; Rubie et al., 2015) favors the incorporation of light elements in the core, the main light elements being Si and O (Rubie et al., 2015; Fischer et al., 2017; Clesi and Deguen, 2023b; Pu et al., 2025).

The final composition of the core, and in particular the concentrations of light elements, is dependent on several

factors, the main factors being the composition of the building blocks of the Earth and the P – T – f_{O_2} conditions of metal-silicate segregation in a deep magma ocean. Among those conditions, the efficiency of mixing in the magma ocean and the degree of chemical equilibrium are often overlooked, with a majority of models focusing on the end-member with full equilibrium (e.g. Wood et al., 2008; Siebert et al., 2012; Fischer et al., 2015; Clesi et al., 2016; Fischer et al., 2017; Clesi and Deguen, 2023b; Loroch et al., 2024; Pu et al., 2025). The effect of disequilibrium is complex to apprehend, as two phases are involved (e.g. Rubie et al., 2003; Ulvrová et al., 2011; Gu et al., 2023) with dynamic separation of the two phases that are complex to model (e.g. Samuel, 2012; Deguen et al., 2014; Landeau et al., 2021) with elemental specific equilibrium rates (Clesi et al., 2020).

In a previous work (Clesi and Deguen, 2023b), we used an accretion model combining the metal-silicate partitioning behavior of different elements and a thermal evolution model of the metallic phase, dependent on the metal-

lic phase composition, to link the thermal evolution of the core to its composition. This model tends to favor the cold core hypothesis, with temperatures ranging from 3500 ± 200 K (Nomura et al., 2014; Dobrosavljevic et al., 2022) to 4000 ± 200 K (Zhang et al., 2016), particularly if the amount of gravitational dissipation energy going to the metal is low (Monteux et al., 2009; Samuel et al., 2010). The hot core hypothesis ($T_{CMB} \sim 5000$ – 6000 K; King and Olson, 2011; Andrault et al., 2017; Driscoll and Davies, 2023), to be true, necessitates other mechanisms than the simple compressional heating used in Clesi and Deguen (2023b). One factor that could increase the initial core temperature is the chemical disequilibrium during the metal-silicate segregation process. Indeed, to explain the bulk silicate Earth composition while considering chemical disequilibrium during core mantle segregation, it is necessary to increase the average depth of the magma ocean (going from a maximum extent of ~ 1300 – 1800 km to depths above 2000 km and up to the CMB Rubie et al., 2003, 2011; Gu et al., 2023). Clesi and Deguen (2023b) showed that such an increase in average magma ocean depth translates into higher core temperatures as well as higher concentrations of Si and O.

Therefore, in this study, we modify the model of Clesi and Deguen (2023b) by introducing various degrees of disequilibrium in the metallic and silicate phase during the accretion process. We used the results to quantify the effect of chemical disequilibrium on the initial core temperature. We showed that a minimum 60 % of the metallic phase needs to be equilibrated with the silicate; and that introducing some degree of disequilibrium favors the formation of a hotter core at the end of accretion, but not hot enough to comply with the 'hot core' hypothesis.

2 Description of the thermal model

To determine the heat content and temperature of the core we consider the following steps :

- (i) The initial temperature of each addition of metal to the core is set at the bottom of the magma ocean, where the metal is assumed to equilibrate with the silicates. The initial temperature is therefore given by the liquidus of silicate at the pressure of the bottom of the magma ocean, as given by Andrault et al. (2011). The metal composition is an alloy of Fe-Ni-Co-Si-O-V-Cr whose composition is determined by the chemical equilibrium, see Section 3.
- (ii) The chemically equilibrated metal is then heated by compression while migrating from the bottom of the magma ocean to the growing core, without changing its composition for a given step of accretion. At each step of accretion its composition is different, and we do not consider any mixing of the core, thus resulting in the formation of a stratified core (as in Jacobson et al., 2017).
- (iii) This metal is further heated by compression due to the growth of the core up to its size. We use the

resulting temperature and density profiles to calculate the heat content of the core.

- (iv) We assume that the core is then mixed from the stratified state, and use the previously calculated heat content to get the temperature at the CMB (T_{CMB}^{is}) assuming the core to be isentropic. That the core is mixed at the end of accretion is a somewhat strong assumption (Jacobson et al., 2017), but it has the advantage of allowing to quantify the thermal state of the core with a single parameter (here the CMB temperature), which greatly simplifies the analysis.

The details on the model and the different calculations are described in Clesi and Deguen (2023b), but we propose a quick description of the thermal model in the following paragraphs.

The initial temperature of the metal is set to be the liquidus temperature of the silicate from Andrault et al. (2011) at the bottom of the magma ocean where the chemical equilibrium happens. It is given by:

$$T_{eq} = 1940 \pm 70 \left(\frac{P_{eq}}{29 \pm 5} + 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{1.9 \pm 0.14}} \quad (1)$$

where P_{eq} and T_{eq} are the equilibrium pressure and temperature at the base of the magma ocean, with the error on the parameter written in the equation. This equation is widely used in models of accretion, notably Fischer et al. (2015) from which we adopted the chemical parameterization, and also the initial study of Clesi and Deguen (2023b). To facilitate the comparisons, we will keep using this equation for the liquidus of silicate, as it is tailored for chondritic compositions that are used in this study. It is important to note that using Fiquet et al. (2010) liquidus curve for peridotitic composition would increase the final temperatures (see Supplementary Material, Sect. S.1). The number of solution is roughly the same, as the partitioning behavior of the elements chosen in this study are not very sensitive to pressure (Geßmann and Rubie, 1998). The temperature changes in steps (ii) and (iii) are obtained from:

$$\frac{dT}{T} = \frac{\gamma}{K_s} dP \quad (2)$$

where γ and K_s are the Gruneisen parameter and isentropic bulk modulus. We use the Murnaghan approximation for the bulk modulus, fitted on the PREM model with an 8 % density deficit, for which the rationale is explained in detail in Section 4.1 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b),

$$K_s = K_0 + K'P \quad (3)$$

with $K_0 = 128.49 \pm 3.63$, and $K' = 3.67 \pm 0.1$ the parameters obtained by Clesi and Deguen (2023b) to simplify the equation of state. Since the fit is made on (Dziewonski and Anderson, 1981) model, the relative errors are the same as in the PREM model, 4 %. This equation yields the following equation of state for the metal:

$$\frac{\rho(P)}{\rho_0} = \left(1 + \frac{K'}{K_0} P \right)^{1/K'} \quad (4)$$

where ρ denotes density. The value of ρ_0 is varying throughout accretion, depending on the composition of the metal after chemical equilibration (or lack thereof in this study) with the silicates (see Clesi and Deguen, 2023b, for details)). This is theoretically a problem, as we keep K_0 and K' constant. However, the main driver of change for those parameters is the concentration of sulfur (Sanloup et al., 2000), which is absent from our models. The main light element in our outputs is Si, which does not affect the bulk modulus as much as S (see, Morard et al., 2013, and references therein). Therefore, keeping K_0 constant does not affect much the output of the model. This problem, and the limitations of interpretation it imposes, is discussed in Sections 4.1 and 7.1 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b).

Following the study of Clesi and Deguen (2023b), we use the formalism of Al'Tshuler et al. (1987) for the calculation of the Grüneisen parameter γ given by:

$$\gamma = \gamma_\infty + (\gamma_0 - \gamma_\infty) \left(\frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right)^\beta \quad (5)$$

where $\beta = \gamma_0/(\gamma_0 - \gamma_\infty)$, with $\gamma_0 = 1.933$ and $\gamma_\infty = 0.916$ as refitted in Clesi and Deguen (2024b). These values might not be appropriate to get a precise estimate of the core temperature, but the formalism chosen tends to limit the sensitivity of the output to the value chosen introduced by the uncertainty on γ_0 and γ_∞ (Clesi and Deguen, 2024b). The model sensitivity to the Grüneisen parameter will introduce an overall error on the mean value of 6 % (determined from the data in Table 4 of Clesi and Deguen, 2024b). The propagation of the error is detailed in Section S.5 in the Supplementary Material. Nonetheless, the goal of the study is not to determine the precise temperature of the core, but to assess the sensitivity of the thermal model to a specific chemical phenomenon, in this specific instance the dilution and disequilibrium during core/mantle segregation. With this Grüneisen formalism, integrating Equation 2 during the accretion yields:

$$T(P) = T_{eq} \left(\frac{K_0 + K'P}{K_0 + K'P_{eq}} \right)^{\gamma_\infty/K'} \times \exp \left[\frac{\gamma_0 - \gamma_\infty}{\beta} \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{K'P_{eq}}{K_0} \right)^{-\beta/K'} - \left(1 + \frac{K'P}{K_0} \right)^{-\beta/K'} \right\} \right] \quad (6)$$

where P is the final pressure of the metal in the stratified case (the difference between the stratified and mixed cores is discussed further in Clesi and Deguen, 2023b). The heat content of the core is then calculated as

$$Q = 4\pi \int_0^{R_{core}} \rho(r) C_p T(r) r^2 dr \quad (7)$$

where R_{core} is the radius of the core, r the distance from the center of the core, and $C_p = 1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ the specific heat capacity of the metal, kept constant throughout the model. The limitation of this choice, governed by the choice to simplify the model, is discussed in Sections 4 and 7 of

Clesi and Deguen (2023b). The link between the radius of the core and pressure $P_{core}(r)$ within the core is given by:

$$P_{core}(r) = P_{center} + \left(\frac{P_{CMB} - P_{center}}{R_{core}^2} \right) r^2 \quad (8)$$

where $P_{center} = 360 \text{ GPa}$ and $P_{CMB} = 136 \text{ GPa}$ denote pressure at the center of the core and CMB, obtained by derivation of the hydrostatic equation applied to a two-layered body, with the detailed equations in Clesi and Deguen (2023b) and references therein. The isentropic temperature profile can then be obtained by integrating

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln T^{is}}{\partial \ln \rho_{core}} \right)_s = \gamma \quad (9)$$

where γ is the Grüneisen parameter given in Equation 5. In the final step of calculation we consider a fully mixed core with a constant heat content, which allows us to calculate the temperature at the CMB following:

$$T_{CMB}^{is} = \frac{Q}{4\pi \int_0^{R_c} \rho^{is}(r) C_p T^{is}(r) r^2 dr} \quad (10)$$

which is evaluated numerically. In the following sections, we will evaluate how T_{CMB}^{is} evolves when applying a chemical disequilibrium at stage (i) of the model, thus changing the composition and density profile of the core. Before describing the chemical model, we must however acknowledge that the initial temperature in Equation 1 is overestimated, both because of the liquidus choice and because we chose to set this temperature at the liquidus. Indeed, it would have been more physically sound to consider the case where metal-silicate equilibrium happens in a mushy zone where some of the silicate is crystallized, as it would slow the metal. With such a mechanism, the temperature would be comprised between the solidus and the liquidus which would translate into a lower initial temperature. As it is standard to set the temperature at the liquidus in metal-silicate partitioning study (among other, Rubie et al., 2003; Siebert et al., 2012; Fischer et al., 2015, 2017; Suer et al., 2021; Gu et al., 2023; Loroch et al., 2024), and we want to be able to compare our results with these studies and the initial study (Clesi and Deguen, 2023b), we will keep this overestimation throughout.

3 Description of the chemical model

The thermal model described above is linked to a chemical model of core/mantle segregation. In this section, we present briefly the initial model used in Clesi and Deguen (2023b), and the modifications made to it so as to model a chemical disequilibrium during core/mantle segregation.

3.1 Inputs of the models

We tested a whole range of metal-silicate segregation scenario during accretion. In all of the models presented below, the initial conditions of core-mantle segregation are fixed by the pressure of equilibrium, representing the bottom

of the magma ocean. The pressure of equilibrium, P_{eq} is parameterized by:

$$P_{eq}(f) = a_P P_{CMB}(f) \frac{1 - e^{-(f/f_c)^\lambda}}{1 - e^{-(1/f_c)^\lambda}} \quad (11)$$

where f is the mass fraction of the Earth accreted, $P_{CMB}(f)$ is the pressure at the CMB for a given mass fraction accreted and the parameters a_P , f_c and λ are the varying parameters. The average value of P_{eq} , noted $\overline{P_{eq}}$ in the rest of the text, is representative of the average depth of equilibrium (Clesi and Deguen, 2023b), and as such used preferentially in the interpretations of the results in Section 4. Equation 11 is a convenient equation to span a range of possible scenarios for the evolution of magma ocean depth, and it is not linked to any physical mechanism such as impact/melt scaling (Nakajima et al., 2021). This purely mathematical form can be interpreted roughly as specific scenarios, see Figure S.15 in the Supplementary Material, the figures in Clesi and Deguen (2024a) and Section 3.1.2 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b).

The effect of each parameter on the evolution of the equilibrium pressure P_{eq} is shown in Figure 1. As shown in Figure 1a, a_P is the parameter controlling the maximum pressure at the end of accretion, with only the examples of $a_P = 0.25, 0.50, 0.75$ and 1 shown in Figure 1a. In the present study, we varied the parameter a_P between 0.05 and 1. Depending on the values of f_c and λ , the pressure of equilibrium approaches $a_P P_{CMB}(f)$ sooner or later during the accretion, but the maximum is set by a_P . For $a_P = 1$, the value of P_{eq} reaches the same value as the pressure at the CMB, for $a_P = 0.5$, P_{eq} will always be lower or equal to half of the CMB pressure at any point of accretion. In Figure 1b, we show the effect of the scale parameter f_c on the evolution of the pressure of equilibrium. This parameter sets the moment in accretion when the pressure increases faster, especially for high values of λ . It is also when we chose to change the oxidation state of the impactor, and therefore the initial composition of metal and silicate accreted, from a reduced composition to an oxidized composition (see below and Tab. 1). Finally, Figure 1c shows the effect of the shape parameter λ on P_{eq} , determining the shape of the accretion profile. When $\lambda = 0$, Equation 11 becomes $P_{eq}(f) = a_P P_{CMB}(f)$, i.e. the magma ocean pressure is a fixed fraction of the CMB pressure all along the accretion, as it is classical in several other studies (Bouhifd et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2008; Siebert et al., 2012; Clesi et al., 2016). When $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, the Equation 11 becomes a step function with $P_{eq}(f) = 0$ for $f < f_c$ and $P_{eq}(f) = a_P P_{CMB}(f)$ for $f > f_c$. As can be seen in Figure 1, using a finite value of λ , varying between 0.1 and 5 in this study, smoothes out the step function, and the transition from a shallow (i.e. low P_{eq}) to a relatively deep magma ocean (i.e. P_{eq} close to the maximum pressure allowed by a_P value).

The scale parameter f_c does not only control the transition of regime for high values of λ , but also the composition of the impacting masses, combining the two transitions being a convenient way of simplifying the model, and is

Table 1. Impactor composition given in Fischer et al. (2015) supplementary material and used in our model. All units are in wt% except where $\mu\text{g/g}$ is specified.

Elements	Reduced material	Oxidized material
Silicate phase		
SiO ₂	51.41	42.19
MgO	37.5	29.40
Al ₂ O ₃	4.62	3.63
CaO	3.75	2.95
FeO	2.24	21.13
NiO ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	10.1	174
CoO ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	5.1	83
Cr ₂ O ₃ ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	4500	6170
V ₂ O ₃ ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	203	164
Metallic phase		
Fe	91.1	89.07
Ni	5.55	10.0
Co	0.26	0.34
Si	2.4	0.0205
Cr ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	6100	870
V ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	9.24	0.775
O	0.04	0.4
Metallic mass fraction of the impactor		
-	0.313	0.165

compatible with N-Body simulations results, as argued in Section 3.1.2 and 4 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b). We chose a simple model with only two different initial compositions: one reduced and one oxidized. The compositions, taken from Fischer et al. (2015), exhibit CI-chondritic elemental ratios (Wasson and Kallemeyn, 1988) in order to match the refractory lithophile element trend in the Bulk Silicate Earth (McDonough and Sun, 1995). For $f < f_c$, the Earth is accreting the reduced composition presented in Table 1, and for $f > f_c$ the Earth is accreting the oxidized composition presented in Table 1. Accreting reduced material before oxidized material is consistent with N-body simulations of Solar System formation that tend to accrete inner solar system material (hotter, more reduced and less rich in volatile elements) first and outer solar system material (cooler, more oxidized and rich in volatile elements) at the end of accretion (Morbidelli et al., 2000; Raymond et al., 2009; Izidoro et al., 2021). The parameters and compositions presented in this section are used in all of the models presented in the following subsections, and a schematic of the physical meaning of the model, derived from Clesi and Deguen (2024a), is given in Figure S.14 in the Supplementary Material. The models do not consider a specific Moon-forming impact, as we tried to keep every input parameter independent. As every input parameter is kept independent of the impactor's size (in particular k and Δ), the end results are exactly the same, see Clesi and Deguen (2024a) and Figures S.2–S.6 in the Supplementary Material. This point is also discussed further in Section 4.

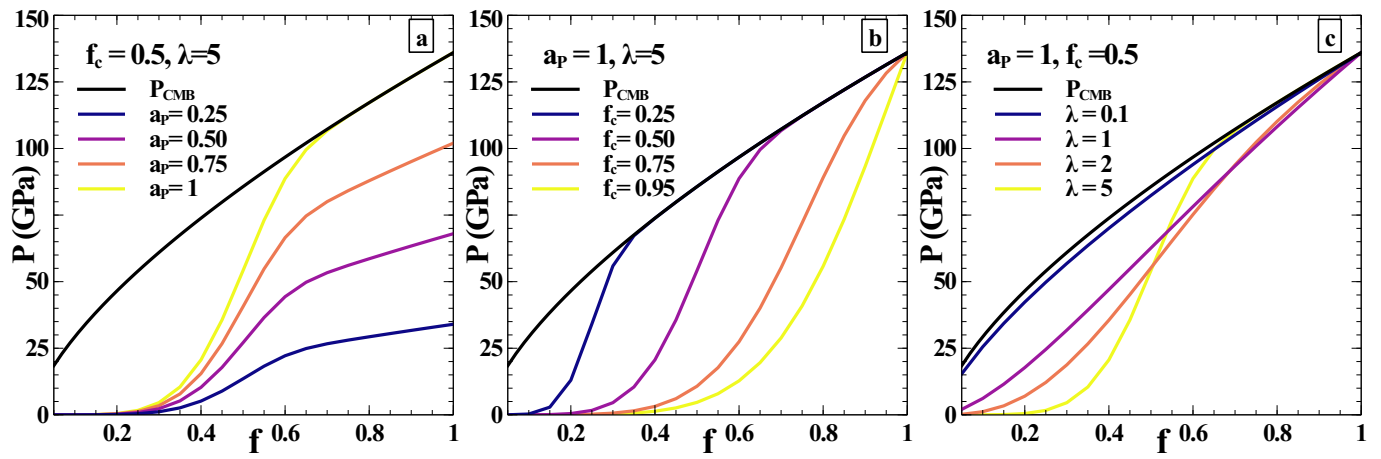


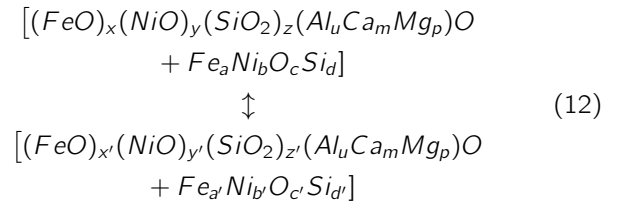
Figure 1. Description of the effect of the parameters used in Equation 11 on the value of P_{eq} . The black line is the pressure at the CMB, $P_{CMB}(f)$. Panel (a) shows P_{eq} with $f_c = 0.5$ and $\lambda = 5$ with variable a_p . Panel (b) shows the evolution of P_{eq} for $a_p = 1$ and $\lambda = 5$ with variable f_c . Panel (c) shows the effect of P_{eq} for $a_p = 1$ and $f_c = 0.5$ with λ variable.

3.2 Reference chemical model description

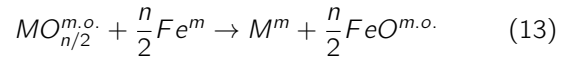
The core-mantle segregation model we will take as a reference for this study is based on the work of Fischer et al. (2015), with the link to the thermal model being explained in Clesi and Deguen (2023b). A qualitative description of the model is given in Figure 2. The model consists of the following steps of calculations:

- (i) Initialisation of the calculation: we accrete a planetesimal corresponding to 5 % of the Earth mass, and calculate the initial core and mantle composition by equilibrating the entire mass of the metal and silicate at a given pressure. This equates to a single stage model for the first 5 % of accretion, which is standard for small bodies (e.g. Grewal et al., 2019, and references therein).
- (ii) Main accretion process: the Earth is growing by adding impactors of 5 % of the Earth size. All of the metal in the impactor mass and only the impactor silicate mass are re-equilibrated at the bottom of the magma ocean, which sets the equilibrium pressure and temperature (P_{eq} and T_{eq}). The metal then sinks into the core, adding a chemically different layer on top of the growing core. During the descent, the temperature of the core is increasing from T_{eq} to its final temperature due to compressional heating during the migration of the metal through the mantle, and further compression due to Earth's growth, following Equation 6. It is chemically insulated from the mantle and the other layers of core. Before another impactor is added, the mantle is considered well-mixed. This process continues until the entire Earth mass is accreted.
- (iii) Final stage: at the end of the main process, we get a fully accreted Earth with a stratified core and a well-mixed mantle. We consider that the core is then mixed isentropically to calculate the temperature at the CMB, T_{CMB}^{is} , given by Equation 10.

At each step, the composition of mantle and core is simplified, and we consider the following equilibrium described by Rubie et al. (2011):



The equilibrium of Reaction 12 is described by sub-reactions for each element involved, following:



where $MO_{n/2}^{m.o.}$ is a given element of valence n in oxide form in the magma ocean phase, and M^m the metallic form of the element in the metallic alloy.

The equilibrium of each sub-reaction is set by the exchange partitioning coefficient K_d , which is parameterized by:

$$\log_{10} K_d^M = a_M + \frac{b_M}{T_{eq}} + \frac{c_M P_{eq}}{T_{eq}} \quad (14)$$

where P_{eq} is expressed in GPa, T_{eq} in K, and considering that the activity coefficients of all elements are equal to unity. The coefficients (a_M , b_M and c_M) of Equation 14 for each element are the one given in Fischer et al. (2015). For a given element the exchange partitioning coefficient is by definition:

$$K_d^M = \frac{\chi_M^m}{\chi_{MO_{n/2}}^{m.o.}} \left(\frac{\chi_{FeO}^{m.o.}}{\chi_{Fe}^m} \right)^{n/2} \quad (15)$$

with χ_M^m the molar fraction of element M in the metallic phase, and $\chi_{MO_{n/2}}^{m.o.}$ the molar fraction of the corresponding oxide in the silicate. Combining Equation 12 and Equation 15 with the K_d^M value set by Equation 14 allows to calculate the final equilibrated composition of both phases with a self-evolving oxygen fugacity. The partitioning of V,

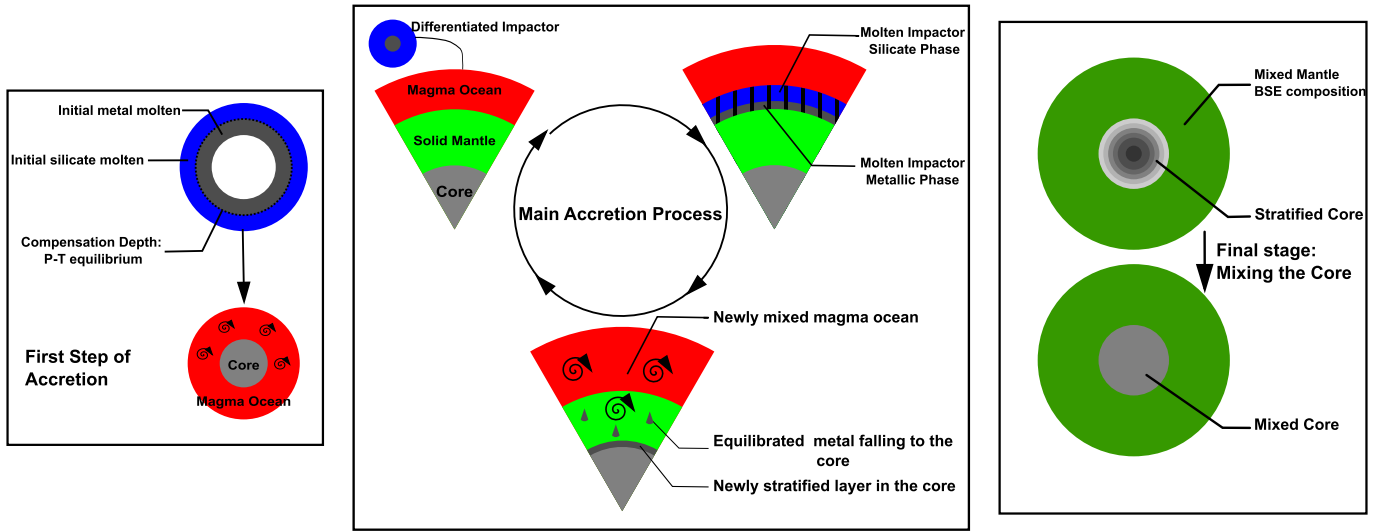


Figure 2. Qualitative description of the model as described in Fischer et al. (2015) and in Section 3.2. The left rectangle described the first step of accretion, setting the initial composition of the planetesimal. The middle rectangle describes the main accretion process: an impactor on a magma ocean is re-equilibrated at the bottom of the magma ocean before segregation of the core and mixing of the whole mantle by vigorous convection. The right rectangle shows the last part of the model: once the mass of the Earth is obtained, we calculate the heat content of a segregated core and calculating the temperature of a mixed core.

Cr and Co are also calculated after the initial equilibrium of reaction 12 using the same method. The main calculation consists in solving the mass balance system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x + a &= x' + a' \\ y + b &= y' + b' \\ z + d &= z' + d' \\ x + y + 2z + u &= x' + y' + 2z' + u \\ + m + p + c &= + m + p + c' \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

with $a, b, c, d, u, m, p, x, y, z, a', b', c', d', x', y', z'$ the number of moles of the elements involved in reaction 13. This system of equation is combined with the one created by the K_d of Ni, Si and O, with Equation 15 applied for each element. For instance for Ni, an element with a valence of 2, expressing Equation 15 becomes:

$$K_d^{Ni} = \frac{b'}{a' + b' + c' + d'} \times \frac{x' + y' + z' + u + m + p}{y'} \times \left(\frac{x'}{x' + y' + z' + u + m + p} \times \frac{a' + b' + d'}{a'} \right)^{2/2} \quad (17)$$

Combining system 16 with 17 for Ni, Si and O yields a system of 7 equations with 7 unknowns ($a', b', c', d', x', y', z'$) that allows for several solutions, only one respecting the constraint that no mass can be negative. The complexity comes from the formula of K_d^O , which is calculated using the formula given in Frost et al. (2010). The valence 3+ elements (V and Cr) are solved after the main calculation, because the system would become harder to solve analytically. It introduces an error in the masses of silicate and metal, but it is limited to a variation of 0.01–0.1 %. The detailed method of solving the system of equation calculation is described in the supplementary information of Rubie et al. (2011) and Clesi and Deguen (2023b). The

number of moles involved in the initial stage of the reaction is calculated using the mass and composition of the silicate and metal involved in the metal-silicate reaction 12. In the case of the reference model of this study (Fischer et al., 2015; Clesi and Deguen, 2023b), the mass of both silicate and metallic phase involved is equal to the silicate and metal in the impactor (Fig. 2). The composition of each phase involved is also the composition of the impactors, given in Table 1. The number of mole for element in the metal M is therefore:

$$\mathcal{N}_M^{met} = \frac{m_{metal}^{impactor} X_M^{m,imp}}{\mathcal{M}_M} \quad (18)$$

where $\mathcal{N}_M^{met}$ is the number of mole of M (a, b, c or d in Reaction 12), $m_{metal}^{impactor}$ is the mass of metal in the impactor, $X_M^{m,imp}$ the mass fraction of element M in the metallic phase of the impactor and $\mathcal{M}_M$ the molar mass of element M . As for the silicate, the number of mole of an oxide $MO_{n/2}$ is given by:

$$\mathcal{N}_{MO_{n/2}}^{sil} = \frac{m_{silicate}^{impactor} w_{MO_{n/2}}^{sil,imp}}{\mathcal{M}_{MO_{n/2}}} \quad (19)$$

with $\mathcal{N}_{MO_{n/2}}^{sil}$ the number of mole of $MO_{n/2}$ (x, y, z, u, m, p in Reaction 12), $m_{silicate}^{impactor}$ the mass of silicate in the impactor, $w_{MO_{n/2}}^{sil,imp}$ the mass fraction of $MO_{n/2}$ in the silicate phase of the impactor and $\mathcal{M}_{MO_{n/2}}$ the molar mass of oxide $MO_{n/2}$.

Since only the impactors are equilibrated, the bulk composition at a given mass fraction is given by:

$$w_{i,bulk}^{s+}(f) = \frac{w_i^s(f) m_{accreted}^s(f) + w_{i,bulk}^{s-} M_{mantle}^-}{M_{mantle}^+} \quad (20)$$

where $w_{i,bulk}^{s-}(f)$ and $w_{i,bulk}^{s+}(f)$ are the bulk concentrations (in wt%) before and after each addition of mass, and

M_{mantle}^- and M_{mantle}^+ the masses of the mantle before and after the impact ($M_{\text{mantle}}^+ = M_{\text{mantle}}^- + m_{\text{accreted}}^s(f)$). When properly calculated at each step of accretion then for $f=1$, Equation 20 yields the bulk composition of the mantle. The same equation can be applied to the core, only by replacing the masses of silicate and mantle by the masses of metal and core respectively.

3.3 Modeling of disequilibrium

Now that the reference model is described, we used the calculation technique of Deguen et al. (2014) to model the disequilibrium between the phases. Since the model is not a time-resolved model, the degree of equilibrium is approximated by the amount of reacting silicate (black stripes) and reacting metal (red stripes) that are equilibrated. To simplify the calculation of these masses at each step, we considered that the silicate impactor is mixed with the previous mantle before reacting.

We therefore define, following Deguen et al. (2014), two parameters that are used to model this phenomenon: k , a parameter describing the amount of metal that is equilibrated and Δ , the degree of dilution of the metal, i.e. the amount of silicate that is equilibrated. The parameter k is defined by:

$$k = \frac{m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{met}}}{m_{\text{total}}^{\text{met}}} \quad (21)$$

where $m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{met}}$ is the mass of metal that is equilibrated, and $m_{\text{total}}^{\text{met}}$ is the total mass of the metal added from the impactor. The parameter Δ is defined by :

$$\Delta = \frac{m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{sil}}}{m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{met}}} \quad (22)$$

where $m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{sil}}$ is the amount of silicate equilibrated, and $m_{\text{eq}}^{\text{met}}$ is the amount of metal equilibrated given by Equation 21. This way of defining the degree of equilibrium links the amount of equilibrium in the silicate to the amount of equilibrium in the metallic phase, therefore not treating the equilibrium in each phase as independent parameters. Therefore, direct comparison with studies such as Gu et al. (2023) cannot be performed as the amount of silicate equilibrated for a given value of Δ varies first with the value of k (see Eq. 22) and varies also within the accretion model (in particular the parameter f_c , see Fig. S.16 in the Supplementary Material), since the total amount of metal added depends on the moment of accretion, the mass added being lower for the oxidized part of the accretion process (see Sect. 3.1). For the higher values of Δ (~ 90 to 100 , depending on the value of k), the entire mantle is equilibrated (see Fig. S.16 in the Supplementary Material for the actual percentage of mantle equilibrated). We tested the models for k ranging between 0.05 and 1 , and for Δ ranging between 1 and 500 . The values higher than $\Delta = 100$ are redundant since 99.9 – 100% of the mantle is equilibrated, but serves as control of the stability of the model.

3.4 Definition of a solution and reference model

In Equation 11 we varied the parameters as follows: the parameter a_P takes 20 values between 0.05 and 1 (0.05

steps), the parameter f_c also 20 values between 0.05 and 1 , and the parameter λ takes 50 values between 0.1 and 5 (0.1 steps). All the combinations within those values are tested, thus yielding $20\,000$ models. For a discussion on the choice of bounds for those values, see Clesi and Deguen (2023b), Section 3.1.1. For each (k, Δ) couple we tested these $20\,000$ combinations. In these $20\,000$ models, the outputs mantle compositions are not necessary close to the Bulk Silicate Earth (BSE) composition. Therefore, we consider a model given by a (a_P, f_c, λ) triplet to be a solution if all the elemental concentrations are within an acceptable range relatively to the BSE as defined in McDonough and Sun (1995). All major elements concentrations are considered solutions if their values are within a 10% range of the values of the BSE: $w_{\text{SiO}_2}^{\text{mantle}} = 45.18 \pm 4.52 \text{ wt\%}$, $w_{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{mantle}} = 4.47 \pm 0.45 \text{ wt\%}$, $w_{\text{FeO}}^{\text{mantle}} = 8.10 \pm 0.81 \text{ wt\%}$, $w_{\text{MgO}}^{\text{mantle}} = 38.03 \pm 3.80 \text{ wt\%}$ and $w_{\text{CaO}}^{\text{mantle}} = 3.56 \pm 0.36 \text{ wt\%}$. For the trace elements, the concentrations are considered solutions if their values are within 15% of the values of the BSE: $w_{\text{NiO}}^{\text{mantle}} = 2509 \pm 376 \mu\text{g/g}$, $w_{\text{CoO}}^{\text{mantle}} = 134 \pm 20 \mu\text{g/g}$, $w_{\text{V}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{mantle}} = 121 \pm 18 \mu\text{g/g}$ and $w_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{mantle}} = 3859 \pm 579 \mu\text{g/g}$. In this work, the reference model solutions to which everything will be compared is the model described in Section 3.2 and Figure 2 for which the filter described above has been applied. This differs from Clesi and Deguen (2023b) in which we used a weighted method that tends to yield more solutions by allowing some elements concentrations, in particular V and Cr, to be outside the 15% range of the BSE concentration. This effect of threshold choice is discussed in Section S.3 and Figures S.7–S.8 in the Supplementary Material. Increasing the threshold to 20% for Ni, Co, V and Cr increases the number of solutions and widens the range of output values, but does not change the average values significantly. Overall, the trends highlighted in Clesi and Deguen (2023b) (correlation between light elements concentration in the core, core temperature and mean pressure of equilibrium) are the same, with less points (see Fig. S.15 in the Supplementary Material). Some of the models with high values (40 GPa to 50 GPa) of $\overline{P}_{\text{eq}}$, and therefore higher concentrations of Si and O in the core ($w_{\text{Si+O}}^{\text{core}}$ above $6 \text{ wt\%}$), are removed from the dataset. A comparison between the solution from Clesi and Deguen (2023b) and the reference we use in this study (also used in Clesi and Deguen, 2024a, under the name C20) is presented in Figure S.15 in the Supplementary Material. This shows that the kind of filter applied to define a solution does affect to some extent the output of the models. Several other filters could have been used for instance using the mean quadratic difference like in Rubie et al. (2015) or using uniquely the N-body simulation results combined with a sensitivity study as in Gu et al. (2023). In any case, the trends we highlighted in Clesi and Deguen (2023b) would yield correlations in the same order of magnitude, as evidenced by the comparison of two methods for selecting a solution provided in Figure S.15 in the Supplementary Material. The effect of filter width, or rather its low effect, in relation to the BSE model is discussed more in detail in Section S.3 of the Supplementary Material.

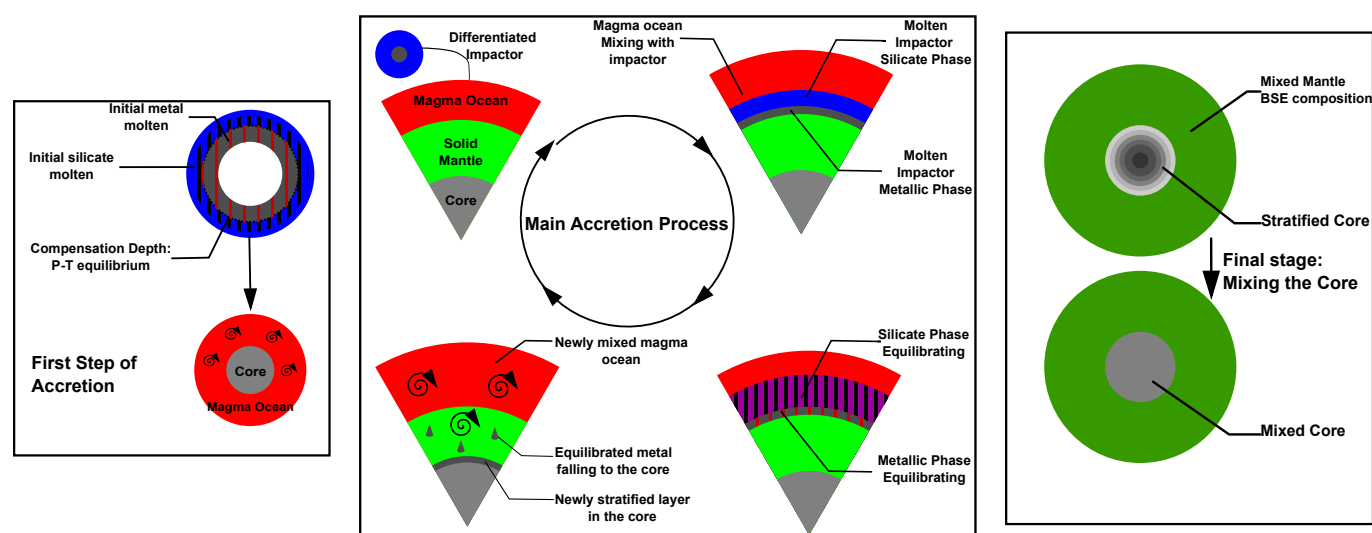


Figure 3. Schematic of the model of disequilibrium used in this study. In all steps only a part of the metal and the silicate is considered to have reacted, even at the first initiation stage. The vertical striped areas represent the amount of metal and silicate reacting. For readability, we considered $k = 1$ (all metal reacted) and an arbitrary value of Δ . Compared to Figure 2, a mixing step has been added before the actual reaction. The amount of silicate equilibrated is colored purple with black stripe in the main accretion stages, and is calculated on the fully mixed magma ocean before reacting with the metal. Once the purple part composition is changed, the magma ocean is fully mixed before the subsequent impact. The last part of the model (re-mixing of the core and mantle) is the same as in the reference model. The display of equilibrated silicate and metal in layers has been chosen to simplify the visualization of the masses and does not represent the actual physical reality of the equilibrium process and subsequent mixing.

4 Results of the calculations and their implications

4.1 Number of solutions and implications for the Hf-W chronometer

For the range of k and Δ tested (i.e. the prior distribution described in Sect. 3.4), the models yield between 0 and 241 solutions. This success rate ranges from 0 % to 1 %, which is comparable to the efficiency of implantation of 0.07 % given in Walsh et al. (2011), and comparable to the success rate of Raymond et al. (2009) for N-Body simulations able to produce a Mars-sized planet. The maximum absolute number of 241 successful scenarios is in line with the number of simulations used in the similar study of Gu et al. (2023), where 201 Earth analogues are taken out 765 N-body simulations (numbers from their Tab. 1). As for N-body simulations, these numbers are dependent on the limits imposed by the filters for solutions, see Section 3.4 and Section S.3 in the Supplementary Material. This number of solution defines a likelihood under the uniform prior distribution described in Section 3.4. This likelihood is barely changed with increasing the sampling range, see Section S.4 and Figures S.12–S.13 in the Supplementary Material. As shown in Figure 4, most of the disequilibrium models do not yield any solution: for any value of k below 0.6 and for any value of Δ below 4, no model will yield a BSE-like mantle. This shows the need to have at least some equilibration in both phases. For dilution factors Δ greater than 100, the number of solutions for a given value of k does not change, indicating that the full mantle is equilibrated during the entire time of accretion (see also

Supplementary Material, Fig. S.15). Figure 4 also shows that the maximum number of solutions is not reached for full equilibration of both phases: the optimum is obtained when 70–80 % of the metallic mass is equilibrated with a dilution factor between 55 and 100. Higher equilibrium degrees in the metal or in the silicate do not increase the number of solutions, and even tend to decrease the number of solutions in the case of the values of k . This indicates that it is easier to model the accretion of the BSE with some moderate disequilibrium in the metal, at least with the chondritic material we used in these models. Finally, the number of solutions drastically decreases for $k < 0.7$ and for $\Delta < 30$. Therefore, while it is easier to produce a BSE mantle with moderate disequilibrium, it is highly improbable to form the Earth with a low degree of equilibrium in the silicate or metallic phase.

The results laid out in Figure 4 shows that the minimum amount of equilibrium is 60 %, higher than the model of Rudge et al. (2010) who proposed a minimum value of 36 % for a similar definition of k , thus allowing comparison with our study. This value is a minimum because applying more precise filters tends only to decrease the number of solutions, as shown in Figure S.4 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b). This point is even clearer as we tried different filters on the current model (See Sect. S.3 in the Supplementary Material). Increasing the filter size increases the number of solutions, but also the distance to the BSE composition (see Figs S.4–S.6 of Clesi and Deguen, 2024a, and Figs S.9–S.11 in the Supplementary Material). Decreasing the limits decreases the overall number of solutions and moves the minimums of k and Δ towards higher values. Since the

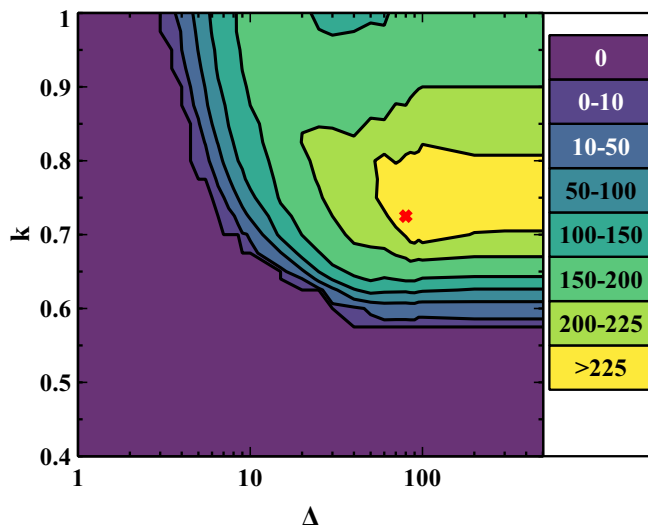


Figure 4. Number of solutions yielded by the model for different values of k (fraction of metal equilibrated, Eq. 21) and Δ (silicate mass equilibrated, see Eq. 22). x-axis is in logarithm scale, y-axis in linear scale. The red cross marks the maximum value ($n = 241$) at $k = 0.725$ and $\Delta = 80$.

initial filters are the upper bounds given by McDonough and Sun (1995) for the BSE, the threshold of $k = 0.6$ and $\Delta = 4$ are strong minimum values if the model to be fitted is the BSE as presented in McDonough and Sun (1995). More details on this subject can be found in Section S.3 and Figures S.7–S.11 in the Supplementary Material. The discrepancy between our study and Rudge et al. (2010) could be explained by the fact that our parameterization of metal/silicate partitioning is the same as Fischer et al. (2015), while Rudge et al. (2010) used Wood et al. (2008) and Wade and Wood (2005) for moderately siderophile elements. Furthermore, their initial starting material is also different than the one used in the present study, and because disequilibrium is an extensive phenomena, even using the same parameterization of metal-silicate partitioning would yield different results. The lowest value of Δ that yields a consistent BSE composition is found to be smaller than found from Deguen et al. (2014): for $k = 1$ we find the minimum value of Δ to be 4, while they propose $\Delta = 17$. This value of 17 is obtained in Deguen et al. (2014) by focusing on the tungsten (W) partitioning in the case of a small magma ocean relatively to the size of the metallic impactor's core.

We can further note two things:

- (i) Our limited number of elements for which we calculate the Earth's composition might not be selective enough to constrain the degree of equilibrium, and adding other elements (among them W or S, for instance) would change the domain of possibility presented in Figure 4.
- (ii) Applying a constant value of k and Δ throughout the entire process of accretion is a rough estimation of the degree of disequilibrium, and more precise results would be achieved by including dynamical elements to the model (relative sizes of metallic particles and the entrainment coefficient in particular; see Deguen et al., 2014).

In summary, the most probable values of k for our model is comprised between 0.7 and 0.8, which, according to the Hf-W chronometer developed by Rudge et al. (2010) favor rapid formation of the core: between 20 Myr and 50 Myr (for two-stage or exponential model of accretion, respectively). Further developments of the model need to include more elements, including W, and to take into account the dynamical element of metal-silicate segregation so as to further constrain the time scale of core formation with the degree of equilibrium of metal and silicate.

4.2 Chemical equilibrium control on the accretion scenarios

In this section we present how the degree of equilibrium affects the type of model that can yield coherent chemical solutions.

4.2.1 Effect of silicate dilution

On Figure 5 are presented the evolutions of the different input parameter values that yield chemically coherent solutions as a function of the amount of equilibrium in the silicate (Δ) for $k = 0.6$, $k = 0.75$ and $k = 1$. Other plots, in the same fashion but for the other elements composing the mantle and the core, are presented in Figures S.17–S.32 in the Supplementary Material. No effect of silicate dilution can be seen on the parameter f_c , which controls the redox state of the impactor: the f_c range is between 0.8 and 1, with mean values close to 0.9 for every model, including the reference model. Therefore, the amount of disequilibrium during core-mantle segregation does not affect the redox state significantly: most of the accretion has to be from reduced impactors (more than 80 %) with the more oxidized impactors arriving at the end. For most of the values of Δ , some models can yield chemically coherent Earth mantles for a fully reduced accretion. However, it is impossible to accrete a chemically coherent Earth for a fully reduced accretion at very low values of Δ ($\Delta \sim 4$ –7, Fig. 5h,i). This effect is enhanced for low values of k (Fig. 5g), which indicates it is impossible not to accrete oxidized material if the degrees of equilibrium in both phases are very low. This effect is common to Δ and k and is discussed further in the following subsection.

The effect of silicate disequilibrium on the type of solution obtained is the same for each value of k : as Δ is lowered, the mean pressure of equilibrium during accretion is increased in order to get chemically coherent solutions. This effect is more visible in Figure 5b,c: for $k = 0.75$ and $\Delta = 100$, the mean value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ is 18 GPa, while for $\Delta = 7$ the mean value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ is 28 GPa; and for $k = 1$ the mean value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ varies between 33 GPa and 18 GPa for Δ varying from 4 to 100, respectively. These values can appear low, as they are mean values throughout the accretion process. However, the final pressures of equilibrium are always higher, since it is the moment of accretion when Ni and Co abundances are set. The issue of interdependence between the different input parameters and the value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ is discussed in Clesi and Deguen (2023b), precisely in Section 5.2, Figures 3 and 4 and Section 6.2, Figure 6.

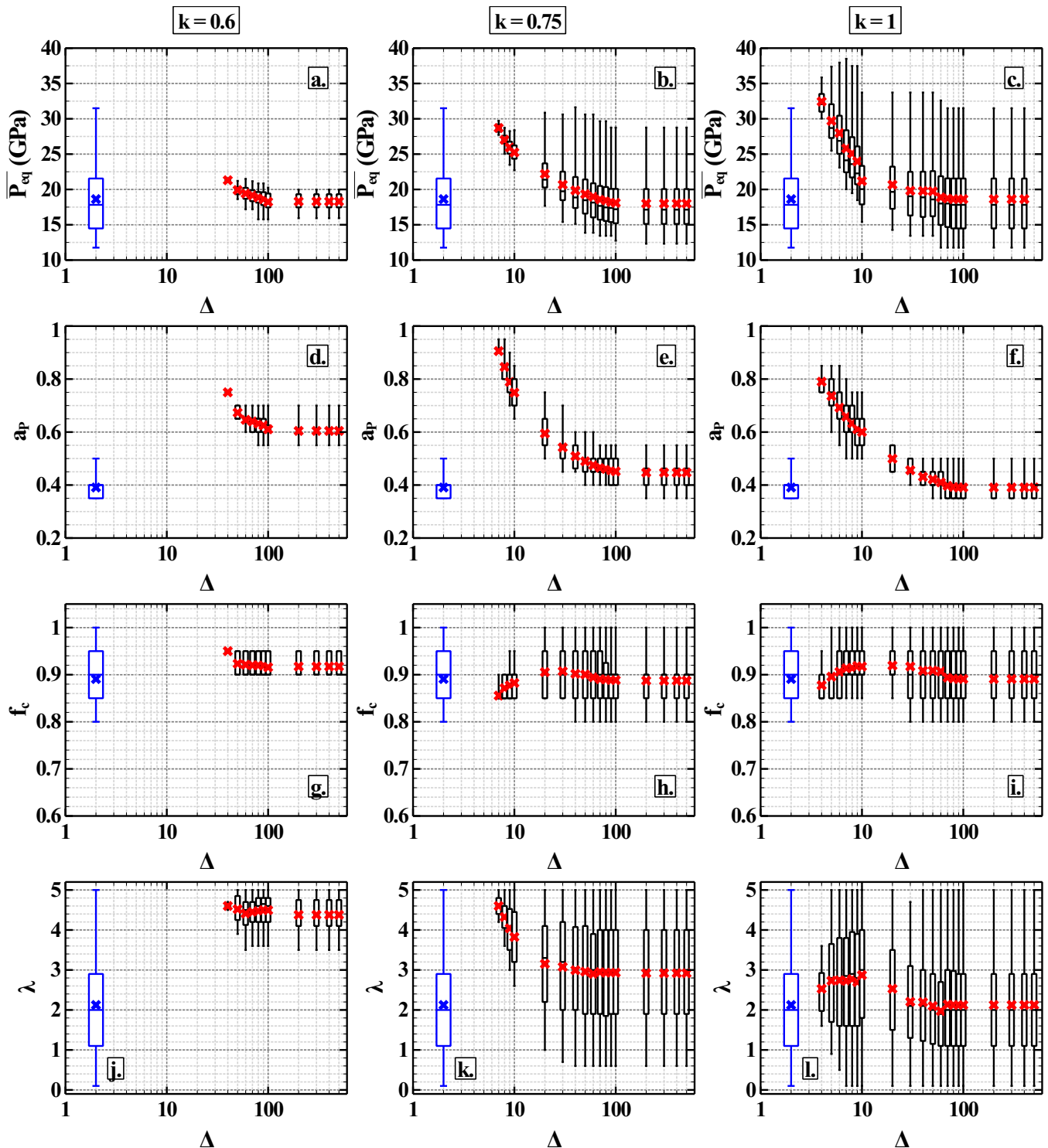


Figure 5. Effect of the silicate dilution Δ on the input parameters controlling the output composition of the model mantle for different values of k . First row, panels (a)–(c): $\overline{P_{eq}}$ in GPa. Second row, panels (d)–(f): a_P . Third row, panels (g)–(i): f_c . Fourth row, panels (j)–(l): λ . The left, middle and right column shows the evolution of the parameter values for $k = 0.6$, $k = 0.75$ and $k = 1$, respectively. In each panel the entire solutions range are presented as boxplots, with the red cross being the mean value of the parameter, the white box delimiting the 1st and 3rd quartile, the horizontal line the median value and the vertical lines the minimum and maximum values. The reference model dataset is presented in blue with the same type of plot for comparison at $x = 2$.

The parameter a_P , which controls the maximum extent of the magma ocean is likewise increased as Δ decreases: for $k = 1$, the mean value of a_P increases from 0.4 to 0.8 for Δ decreasing from 100 to 4. This means that when the degree of equilibrium is low, the magma ocean is twice as deep as when the entire magma ocean is equilibrated, thus leading to higher mean pressure of equilibrium during accretion. The final pressures of equilibrium considering the cases presented in Figure 5 range from 30 % to 95 % of the final CMB pressure, which translate to 40 GPa to 130 GPa for the final pressures of equilibrium. The final depth of the magma ocean ranges between ~ 1000 km at the minimum (high equilibrium degree scenarios, $\Delta \sim 100$ and $k = 1$) to ~ 2700 km at the maximum (low equilibrium degree scenarios, $\Delta \sim 10$, and $k = 0.75$).

The parameter λ , which controls the style of accretion (stable depth of the magma ocean relatively to the size of the planet or sharp transition from shallow to deep magma ocean) is also affected by the silicate dilution imposed on the model. As shown in Fig. 5j–l, the reference model spans the entire range of λ values tested, while it is not the case for the disequilibrated model, especially at low values of k and low values of Δ . Indeed, for $k = 0.75$ the mean value of λ decreases from 4.9 to 3.1 for Δ increasing from 7 to 100. Furthermore, the range of λ values that provides chemically coherent solutions gets narrower as the amount of silicate equilibrated decreases: for $k = 0.6$, the range of λ values is comprised between 3.5 and 5 for all Δ values that yield solutions; for $k = 0.75$, the range varies from 4.2 to 5 for $\Delta = 7$ and from 0.2 to 5 for $\Delta = 100$; and for $k = 1$ the range varies from 1.8 to 3.6 for $\Delta = 4$ and between 0.1 and 5 for $\Delta = 100$. This indicates that when the silicate is not fully equilibrated, the only scenarios of accretion that can yield chemically coherent Earth analogs are the ones that tend to have very shallow magma oceans during most of their accretion process followed by a dramatic increase of magma ocean depth toward the end of accretion.

4.2.2 Effect of metal equilibrium

In Figure 6 are shown the evolutions of input parameters values as functions of the metal degree of equilibrium k for $\Delta = 10$, $\Delta = 50$ and $\Delta = 100$. Other plots, focusing on the other elements composing the core and mantle, are presented in Figures S.17–S.32 in the [Supplementary Material](#).

Like the silicate dilution effect, the disequilibrium of the metallic phase has little effect on the acceptable f_c values, with all ranges of solution between 0.8 and 1, and mean values of f_c around 0.88 for all values of Δ . This confirms that in order to get chemically consistent Earth's mantles, accretion scenarios need to include at least 80 % of reduced material and less than 20 % of oxidized material at the end of accretion, with some solutions possible for 0 % of oxidized accreted material. A noticeable trend on the value of this parameter is that as the values of k and Δ get lower, the range of f_c values gets narrower. For the lowest values of k and Δ that yields solutions, no solution can be found for 100 % reduced accretion. This effect is only valid for

the minimum values of k (between 0.6 and 0.7 depending on Δ) and the minimum values of Δ (4 to 7 depending on the value of k). This indicates that very low degree of equilibrium during accretion render the accretion of some oxidized material necessary in order to obtain a chemically coherent Earth.

The parameter k affects the value of λ in the same way as Δ : decreasing the degree of equilibrium tends to select higher values of λ in order to get a solution. For instance, for $\Delta = 50$ (Fig. 6k), the range of λ that yield solutions is comprised between 3.9 and 5 (mean at 4.5) for $k = 0.6$, and is comprised between 0.1 and 5, i.e. the entire range of λ values tested, for $k = 1$. This shows that decreasing the amount of metal equilibrated during accretion favors models where the magma ocean is shallow at first, turning into a deep magma ocean dramatically at the end of accretion. More metal and silicate equilibration tends to favor on the other hand a more steady increase in the magma ocean depth.

The effect of k on $\overline{P_{eq}}$ and a_P is comparable to the effect of Δ : as the amount of metal equilibrated is lowered, the mean pressure of equilibrium is increased in order to get a chemically coherent Earth. This effect is enhanced by lowering the value of Δ : for $\Delta = 100$ (Fig. 6f), the mean value of a_P decreases from 0.61 to 0.4 (i.e. final pressure varying from 83 GPa to 54.4 GPa and final magma ocean depths varying from 1820 km to 1280 km) when k increases from 0.6 to 1; for $\Delta = 10$ (Fig. 6d), the mean value of a_P decreases from 0.83 to 0.6 (i.e. final pressure from 113 GPa to 82 GPa, and final depth from 2390 km to 1800 km), when k increases from 0.7 to 1. This effect is comparable to the effect Δ has on a_P . This shows that the maximum extent of the magma ocean at the end of accretion is significantly affected by the degree of equilibrium both in the silicate and metallic phases: for low equilibrium degree ($k \sim 0.6$) the final magma ocean extent almost to the CMB (~ 2700 km), for higher equilibrium degree ($k \sim 1$) the final magma ocean can be more shallow (1000 km to 1500 km).

However, the clear effect of Δ on the mean pressure of equilibrium during accretion $\overline{P_{eq}}$, shown in the previous section, is less visible, though still present, when plotting the values of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ as a function of k . Indeed, lower k values tend to yield higher mean values (and mostly median values) of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ than higher values of k : for instance for $\Delta = 10$ (Fig. 6a), the mean value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ is 26 GPa for $k = 0.7$ and $\overline{P_{eq}} = 24$ GPa (the median value being 22 GPa) for $k = 1$. This effect is not as clear as the effect of k on a_P , because increasing k tends to widen the range of $\overline{P_{eq}}$, in particular because the maximum value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ increases with increasing k . For instance, for $\Delta = 100$ (Fig. 6c), the maximum value of $\overline{P_{eq}}$ increases from 20 GPa for $k = 0.6$ to 32.6 GPa for $k = 1$ and reaching a maximum at 33.75 GPa for k between 0.7 and 0.95. This discrepancy in the effect of k on a_P and $\overline{P_{eq}}$ which are highly correlated shows that the degree of metal equilibrium controls more the maximum extent of the magma ocean at the end of accretion (which is the physical meaning of the a_P parameter, Fig. S.14 in the [Supplementary Material](#)) than the overall pressure

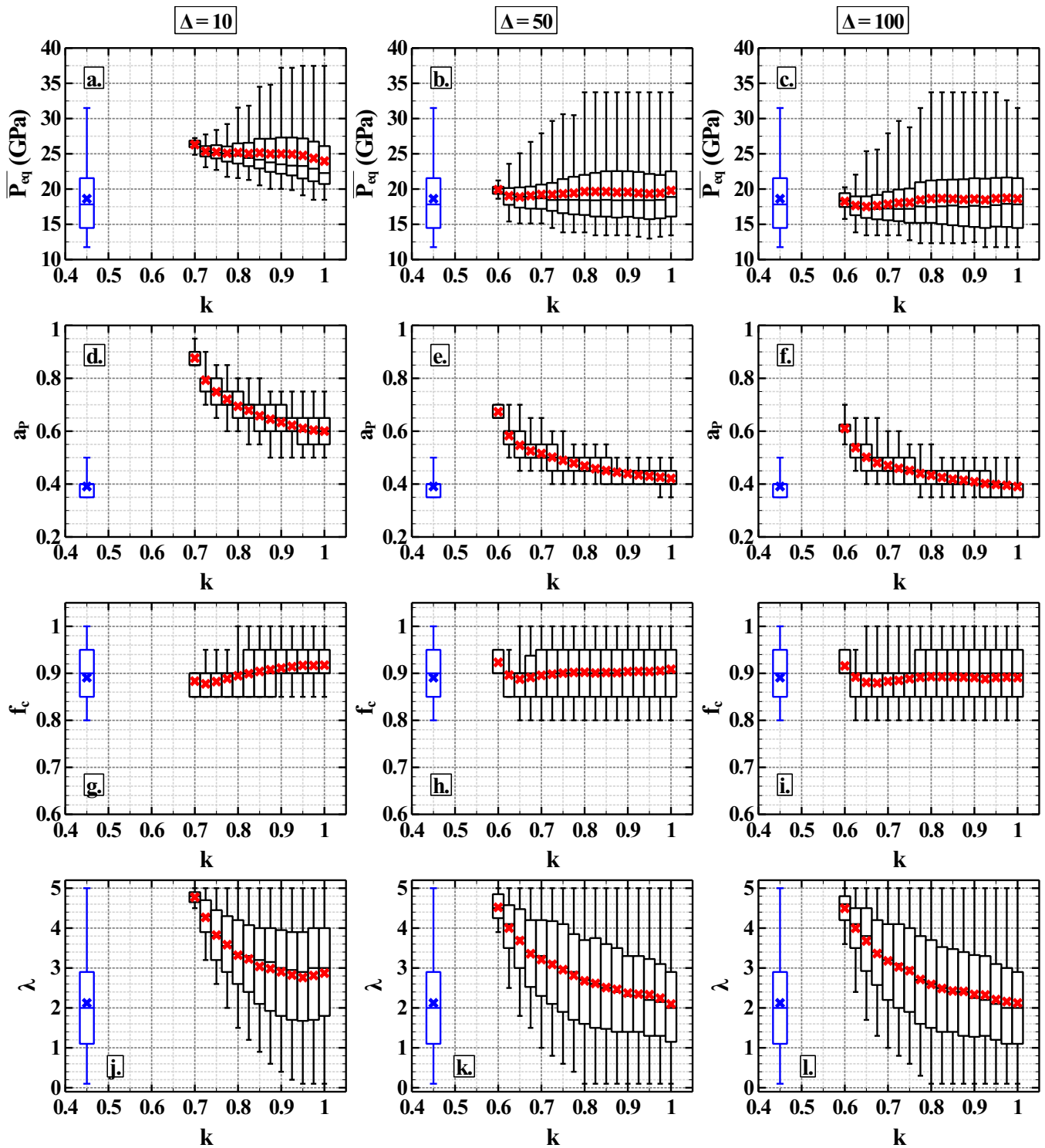


Figure 6. Effect of metal equilibrium k on the input parameters controlling the output composition of the model mantle for different values of Δ . First row, panels (a)–(c): $\overline{P}_{eq}$ in GPa. Second row, panels (d)–(f): a_P . Third row, panels (g)–(i): f_c . Fourth row, panels (j)–(l): λ . The left, middle and right column shows the evolution of the parameter values for $\Delta = 10$, $\Delta = 50$ and $\Delta = 100$, respectively. In each panel the entire solutions range are presented as box plots, with the red cross being the mean value of the parameter, the white box delimiting the 1st and 3rd quartile, the horizontal line the median value and the vertical lines the minimum and maximum values. The reference model dataset is presented in blue with the same type of plot for comparison at $x = 2$.

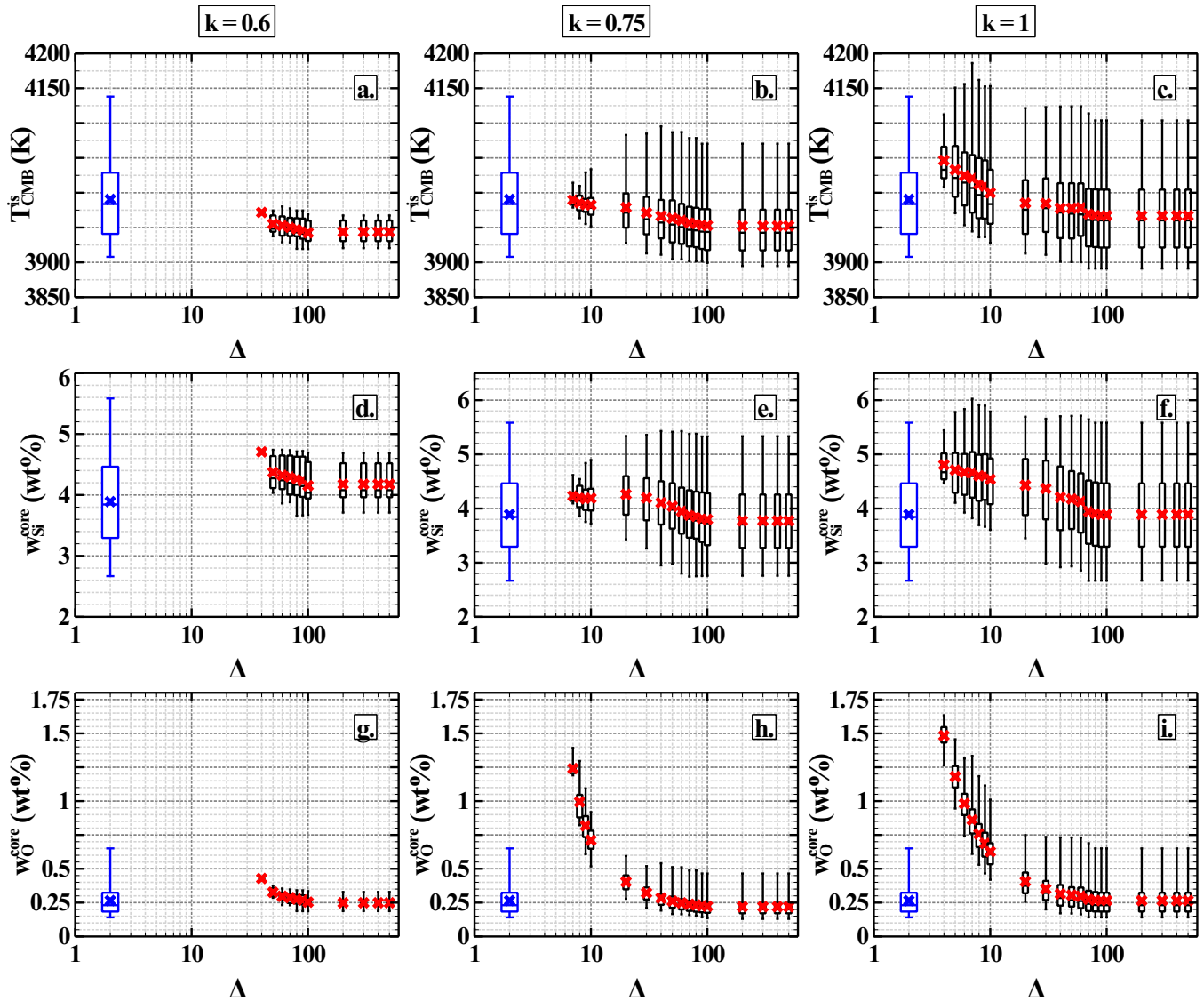


Figure 7. Effect of the silicate dilution Δ on the core properties (isentropic temperature at the CMB, light element content) for different values of k . First row, panels (a)–(c): T_{CMB}^{is} in K. Second row, panels (d)–(f): w_{Si}^{core} in wt%. Third row, panels (g)–(i): w_O^{core} in wt%. The left, middle and right column shows the evolution of the parameter values for $k = 0.6$, $k = 0.75$ and $k = 1$, respectively. In each panel the entire solutions range are presented as box plots, with the red cross being the mean value of the parameter, the white box delimiting the 1st and 3rd quartile, the horizontal line the median value and the vertical lines the minimum and maximum values. The reference model dataset is presented in blue with the same type of plot for comparison at $x = 2$.

necessary to get a chemically coherent mantle, which is more controlled by the degree of equilibrium in the silicate.

4.3 Chemical equilibrium effect on temperature and core composition

In this section we present how the degree of equilibrium affects the temperature and composition of the Earth's core.

4.3.1 Effect of silicate dilution

The main output of our model is the composition of the core, in particular the Si and O contents, and the heat content (T_{CMB}^{is}) it correlates with. In Figure 7 are presented the evolution of this three properties of the core as a function of Δ for $k = 0.6$, $k = 0.75$ and $k = 1$. The more silicate

phase equilibrated, the lower the heat content of the core, especially if a large portion of the metal is equilibrated (see Fig. 7a,c). For instance, when $k = 1$ (Fig. 7c), the mean value of T_{CMB}^{is} decreases from 4050 K to 3970 K when Δ increases from 4 to 100. This relates to the effect Δ has on the input parameters: the more the silicate is equilibrated, the lower $\overline{P_{eq}}$ needs to be to yield a chemically coherent mantle, and therefore the temperature of the metal accreted to the core is lower. However, this effect on mean values is low, with a decrease of only 100 K for $k = 1$, and 50 K for $k = 0.6$, between the minimum equilibrium possible and a full magma ocean equilibration. The effect of k , i.e. metal equilibrium, seems to be more important on the heat content and core temperature (see the range of T_{CMB}^{is} in Fig. 7a–c), which is more discussed in the following section.

Because lowering Δ tends to increase $\overline{P_{eq}}$ during accretion, the output core compositions tend to integrate more light elements as the degree of silicate equilibrium decreases. This is true for both Si and O, with the effect being more important for O than Si. Indeed, the mean values of w_{Si}^{core} for $k = 1$ decreases from 4.8 wt% to 3.9 wt% when Δ increases from 4 to 100 (Fig. 7f); while the mean values of w_O^{core} for $k = 1$ (Fig. 7i) decreases from 1.47 to 0.27 wt% when Δ increases from 4 to 100. This shows that the oxygen content of the core is more affected by the mean pressure and type of accretion (higher values of $\overline{P_{eq}}$, a_P and λ for lower Δ , see Fig. 5) than Si, despite both reacting the same way to the lack of equilibrium in the silicate phase. This is mainly due to the selection by the models of f_c values between 0.8 and 1, i.e. the majority of accretion process is reduced, thus tends to prevent O from entering the core. This low concentration of O is linked to the parameterization used (Frost et al., 2010; Fischer et al., 2015) which tends to prevent the accretion under oxidizing conditions (as proposed by Siebert et al., 2013). There is also an effect of the law of mass action: O is less available to react than Si even in oxidizing conditions, thus Si tends to enter the core and exclude O. This effect is illustrated in Figure S.2 of Clesi and Deguen (2023b). Since the overall concentration of O is low because of it, and the partitioning of O dependent on pressure (Frost et al., 2010), increasing the average pressure of equilibrium counteracts the effect of the reducing conditions. The relative variations in oxygen concentrations appear more clearly as the initial O concentration is lower than Si concentration. Overall, these results show that there is a positive correlation between the heat content and the light elements concentrations in the core that is mediated by the mean pressure of equilibrium during the metal/silicate segregation phase. The mean pressure of equilibrium is inversely proportional to the silicate equilibrium, and therefore decreasing the amount of silicate equilibrated tends to increase both the heat content and light elements content of the core.

4.3.2 Effect of metal equilibrium

The effect of metal equilibrium k on T_{CMB}^{is} , w_{Si}^{core} and w_O^{core} for fixed values of Δ (10, 50 and 100) is presented in Figure 8. This figure shows that all the output of the model are less sensitive to the amount of metal equilibrated than the amount of silicate equilibrated (see Fig. 7 for comparison). The trends in Figure 8, especially on the mean and median values, are not as clear as the trends that emerge when plotting the same parameter as a function of Δ . However, one can note that for $\Delta = 10$, increasing k from 0.7 to 1 lead to a decrease of the mean value of w_O^{core} from 0.97 to 0.65 wt% (Fig. 8g). This decrease is less important than the one observed when varying Δ for $k = 1$ (Fig. 7j), thus indicating a lower sensitivity of Earth's core oxygen content to the metallic equilibrium than to the silicate equilibrium.

Most of the effect of k lies mostly in the range of possible output: as more metal equilibrates, it is possible to obtain different core compositions and heat contents and still be

chemically coherent with the BSE. Indeed, the range of possible T_{CMB}^{is} values widen from a 50 K range (3920 K to 3970 K) to a 230 K range (3891 K to 4120 K) when k increases from 0.6 to 0.925 and $\Delta = 100$ (Fig. 8c). This widening of the range of solutions is mostly borne by the higher temperature (and concomitantly higher Si and higher O) solutions rather than lower temperature solutions. This relates to the selection in input parameters presented in Figure 6: increasing the value of k allows for solution to happen for lower values of λ , thus increasing the average $\overline{P_{eq}}$ during accretion and consequently the values of T_{CMB}^{is} , w_{Si}^{core} and w_O^{core} are increased. Increasing the metal equilibrium therefore allows for models with a steady increase of the magma ocean depth throughout accretion (lower values of λ) to yield chemically coherent models, those models yielding then higher temperatures for their cores. Decreasing the metallic equilibrium tends to select lower temperature solutions. The difficulty of isolating an effect of k on the core composition is due to two competitive phenomenon:

- (i) Decreasing k tends to necessitate an increase in a_P (maximum pressure of equilibrium, see Fig. 6) to obtain the right mantle composition, which in turn tends to increase the concentration of Si and O in the core.
- (ii) Decreasing k means, by definition, to increase the amount of metal that does not react with the mantle and keeps the same initial composition. Because the initial concentrations of Si and O in the metal are very low, this tends to lower the concentration of Si and O in the core

From our data, it is not possible to distinguish which of the two phenomena takes over. As the range of possibility increases with the values of Δ , which phenomena takes over might be very specific to the value of Δ , a_P and λ . Untangling this question would necessitate further study beyond the scope of this one.

4.4 Quantitative relationship between temperature and chemical equilibrium

Figure 9 shows that the values of CMB temperature decrease with the logarithm of Δ , an effect that is counterbalanced linearly when increasing the value of k . This effect is easier to see for $\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}}$ (Fig. 9b), with the highest value of $\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}}$ on the top left corner of the solution space (high k , low Δ) and the lowest values on the bottom right corner of the solution (low k , high Δ).

Therefore it is possible to quantify the evolution of the primitive core temperature as a function of Δ and k . In Figure 9, we can summarize the effect of k and Δ to the following equation:

$$T_x = a_x \log_{10} \Delta + b_x \log_{10} k + c_x \quad (23)$$

where, T_x stands for the minimum, mean or maximum value of T_{CMB}^{is} and a_x , b_x are the fitted parameter (in K) for each temperature, and c_x is the maximum temperature for each dataset, reached for $k = 1$ and $\Delta = 4$, with the error propagated following Section S.5 in the [Supplementary Material](#). The results of the fit are presented in Table 2.

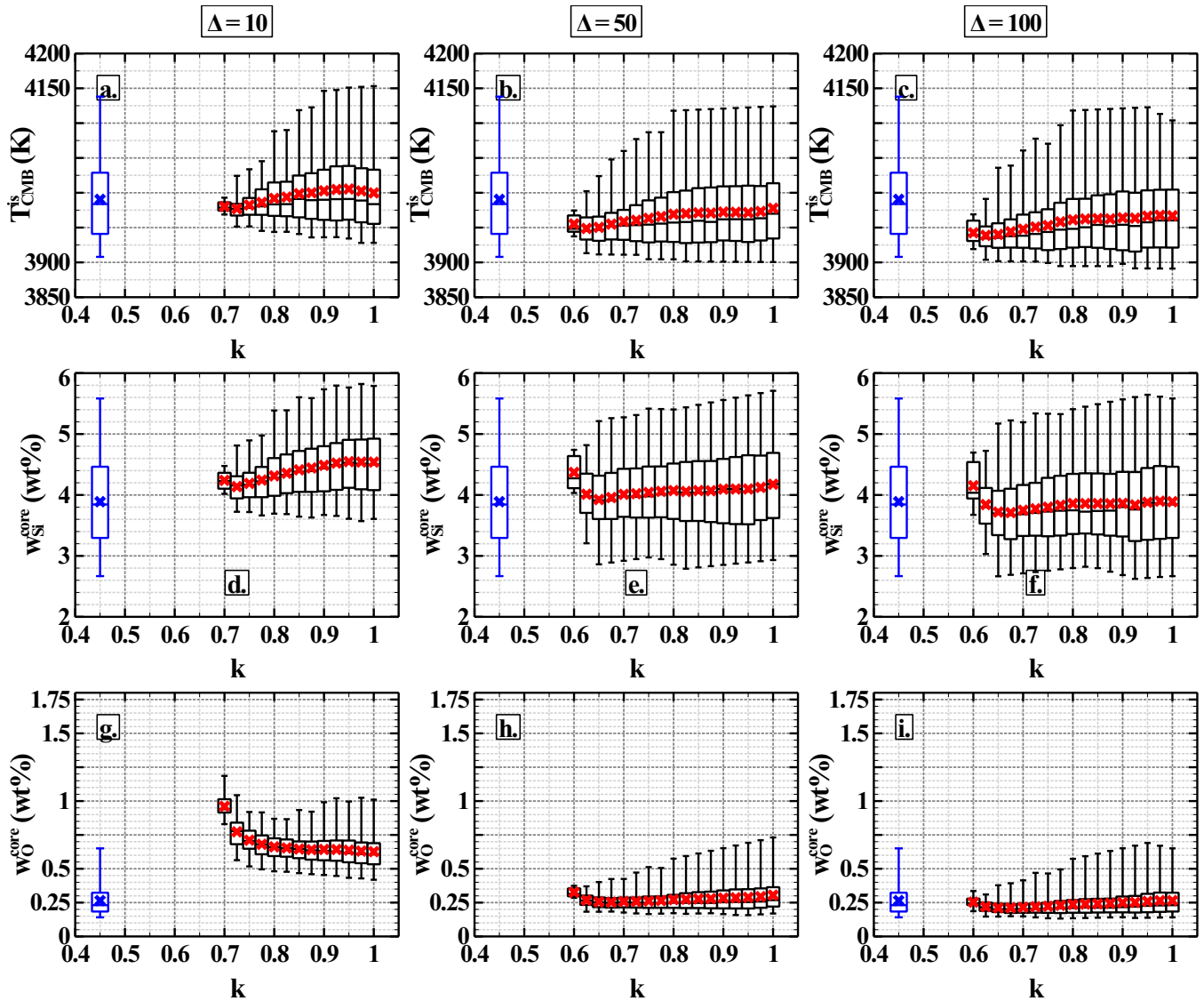


Figure 8. Effect of metal equilibrium k on the core properties (isentropic temperature at the CMB, light element content) for different values of Δ . First row, panels (a)–(c): T_{CMB}^{is} in K. Second row, panels (d)–(f): w_{Si}^{core} in wt%. Third row, panels (g)–(i): w_O^{core} in wt%. The left, middle and right column shows the evolution of the parameters values for $\Delta = 10$, $\Delta = 50$ and $\Delta = 100$, respectively. In each panel the entire solutions range are presented as boxplots, with the red cross being the mean value of the parameter, the white box delimiting the 1st and 3rd quartile, the horizontal line the median value and the vertical lines the minimum and maximum values. The reference model dataset is presented in blue with the same type of plot for comparison at $x = 2$.

The core temperature dependency with the silicate dilution Δ is higher when most of the metal is equilibrated. This is partly due to the lack of solutions, which tends to skew the value of temperature towards higher Δ values, but is also an effect of the disequilibrium in the metal: as the k is lowered, the temperature decreases but the number of solutions decreases with it. The values given in Table 2 can yield a first approximation on the thermal state of the core for a given model is affected by disequilibrium. Indeed, most partitioning models assume equilibrium of the silicate on large scale (among other examples Rubie et al., 2011; Jacobson et al., 2017; Grewal et al., 2019; Suer et al., 2021; Loroch et al., 2024), due to fast convecting mantle silicate (Höink et al., 2006; Deguen et al., 2014) reacting with falling metallic spheres. These types of models will imply a lower temperature of the primitive core, thus

favoring the cold core hypothesis of Nomura et al. (2014), Davies et al. (2015) or Dobrosavljevic et al. (2022) (CMB temperature of ~ 3500 – 4000 K). Studies focusing on the Hf/W partitioning and the moon forming impact (Rudge et al., 2010; Nimmo et al., 2010; Fischer and Nimmo, 2018) tend to yield lower values of metal equilibrium, with values of $k \sim 0.3$ – 0.6 , to account for the large size of the last impact. The value of $k = 0.3$ is also taken as a reference value for the sensitivity study of Gu et al. (2023). According to our results, these models will tend to favor also a cold core at the end of accretion: with $k = 0.6$ (higher end of the range proposed by Nimmo et al., 2010), the maximum temperature will be ~ 4000 K for low silicate equilibrium ($\Delta \sim 4$, supposing a solution exists) and ~ 3980 K for full mantle equilibrium according to Equation 23. If we consider the mean temperature and not the maximum possible for

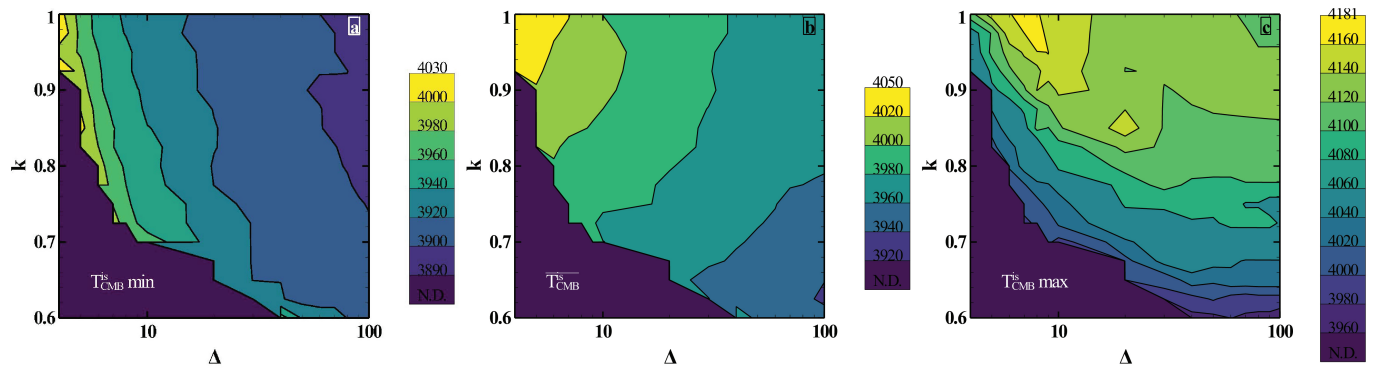


Figure 9. Evolution of minimum (panel (a), $T_{CMB}^{is} min$), mean (panel (b), $\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}}$) and maximum (panel (c), $T_{CMB}^{is} max$) temperature at the CMB after isentropic mixing as a function of k (linear scale) and Δ (log scale). The color scale is changing from panel to panel to account for the different range of values (larger range for the maximum value, narrower range for mean and minimum values).

$k=0.6$, Equation 23 yields $\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}} \sim 3940$ K for full silicate equilibrium, and $\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}} \sim 3990$ K, even closer to the cold core hypothesis.

On the other hand, some models favor the hot core hypothesis, for instance Andrault et al. (2017) or Driscoll and Davies (2023) (CMB temperatures above 5000 K); and some models tends to favor higher core temperatures right after accretion, for instance King and Olson (2011) who proposed a mechanism allowing a higher intake of gravitational dissipation energy by the metallic phase, thus leading to a hot core right after accretion.

While the cold core hypothesis is easy to explain with classical accretion scenarios such as proposed in this paper, the hot core hypothesis necessitates more hypothesis: if we take the parameters in Table 2, and assume the temperature at the CMB after accretion is the same as the temperature estimated by Andrault et al. (2017, $T_{CMB} = 5000$ K), for $k = 1$, no value of Δ can yield this temperature. The closest one are for Δ ranging from 6 and 50 to reach 4000 K at the CMB. Getting high temperatures by disequilibrium alone is therefore not possible, and necessitates other mechanisms which can add more heat to the core: for instance gravitational dissipation energy intake (King and Olson, 2011; Clesi and Deguen, 2023b), radiogenic element partitioning (Faure et al., 2020), or a combination of several mechanisms (Driscoll and Davies, 2023). However, what our results show, is that in order to obtain a hot core at the end of accretion, the amount of additional heat added to the core by these processes is lower if there is some chemical disequilibrium, yielding higher concentrations of light elements into the core.

4.5 Moon-forming impact: a limitation of the model

Our model does not take into account the Moon-forming impact, which is supposed to induce higher disequilibrium degree (Nimmo et al., 2010). Indeed, several models showed that the Moon-forming impact between Theia and the accreting Earth might have led to extensive melting of the mantle but with a core-merging event, therefore no equilibrium between metal and silicate (Canup, 2004). In a previous study with the same model, we showed that

accounting for a Moon-forming impact in the discretization process with full equilibrium does not affect the results of the model (Clesi and Deguen, 2024a). Here, we tested this type of discretization for a few cases, still applying an *a priori* fixed value of k and Δ . The results of those tests are presented in Section S.2 and Figures S.2–S.6 in the [Supplementary Material](#). For the cases we ran, there are also no effect whatsoever on the output of the model. This means that the conclusion of Clesi and Deguen (2024a) also applies to the degree of equilibrium: as long as k or Δ are not linked to the size of impactors, the results are not changed. This is a limitation of our model: the *a priori* fixing of parameters tends to erase the specificity of each impactor. A way to improve the model would be to use N-body simulation results (Rubie et al., 2015), coupled with scaling laws for melting (Nakajima et al., 2021), and scaling laws for chemical equilibrium (Henningsen et al., 2025, and references therein). This would lead to a better determination of the Moon-forming impact effect on temperature than the rough approximation presented in this study.

4.6 Advection regimes and decoupling of thermo-chemical equilibrium

As a final note, these results are dependent on the hypothesis that there is a thermal equilibrium of the metal at the bottom of the magma ocean, but not a chemical equilibrium. Indeed, advection regime tends to affect the chemistry and the temperature in the same way (e.g. Deguen et al., 2014; Wacheul and Le Bars, 2018; Clesi et al., 2020, and references therein); it is an equalizing force between the two phenomena. If the advective regime is vigorous and leads to a strong mixing, both temperature and composition will be equilibrated, and diffusion is not the driver of equilibrium. If the advection is less vigorous, and does not mix metal and silicate efficiently, then the difference between diffusion coefficients will make a difference between thermal and chemical equilibrium. Within this scenario, two cases can occur: either the diffusion of temperature happens fast enough to get to full equilibrium, but the chemical diffusion is too slow to reach equilibrium; or the

Table 2. Results of the fit for Equation 23 for different values of k . The logarithmic dependency of the different temperature on the Δ and k values is quite clear for the minimum and mean temperature, and less obvious for the maximum temperature.

T_x	a_x	b_x	c_x	R^2
$T_{CMB}^{is} \text{ min}$	-73.78 ± 1.16	$1.2 \times 10^{-15} \pm 16$	4033 ± 291	0.76
$\overline{T_{CMB}^{is}}$	-38.74 ± 0.38	143.63 ± 5.35	4046 ± 292	0.96
$T_{CMB}^{is} \text{ max}$	-18.68 ± 2.65	753.8 ± 37.42	4186 ± 302	0.53

diffusion of temperature occurs too slowly to compensate for the lack of mixing and then both chemical and thermal equilibrium are fully decoupled. This model assumes mixing is not vigorous enough to equilibrate both temperature and composition, and therefore diffusion is the controlling factor. In such a case, the thermal equilibrium is faster than the chemical one. Given that the thermal diffusivity within metallic alloys falls into the range of $\sim 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Monaghan and Quested, 2001; Wilthan et al., 2015); and the chemical diffusivity of the elements within a metallic alloy ranges between $\sim 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Si or O (Posner et al., 2017a,b) and $10^{-8} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for self diffusion of Fe (Dobson, 2002). Therefore, it should be 100 to 1000 times slower than the thermal equilibrium.

5 Conclusions

To conclude, we used a previously developed method to quantify the effect of chemical disequilibrium on the thermal state of the core at the end of accretion. Our model shows that at least 60 % of the accreting metallic phase needs to be in equilibrium with the silicate phase. Depending on the amount of metal equilibrated, the dilution factor of the metal in the silicate needs to be > 4 if $k = 1$ and > 40 if $k = 0.6$. This minimum value of $k = 0.6$ implies a rapid formation of the Earth's core, up to ~ 50 Myr, according to the Hf-W chronometer's dependency on k as defined by Rudge et al. (2010).

As the degree of equilibrium, in particular in the silicate, is decreased, the average pressure of equilibrium in the magma ocean needs to be increased to obtain a chemically coherent BSE. This increase in the average pressure of equilibrium translates directly into a higher initial core temperature. However, the maximum temperatures obtained from the minimum equilibrium ($T_{CMB}^{is} \sim 4200 \text{ K}$) is not enough to account for the hot core hypothesis, with 800 K to 1000 K unaccounted for. Other mechanisms increasing the core temperature are needed to produce a hot core, in particular gravitational heat dissipation. Further studies are needed in order to fully comprehend the accretion process and the thermal evolution of the early core. In particular, the thermal model must be enhanced to account for more element and better equation of state for the metal. Enhancing the model, and in particular the implications for the Hf-W age of core formation, will necessitate to link the degree of

disequilibrium to the dynamic of metal-silicate segregation throughout the entire process of accretion.

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Data, code, and outputs availability

The initial code used to generate the model described by Clesi and Deguen (2023b) is available in Clesi and Deguen (2023a). A tutorial covering the chemical component of the model is provided in the supplementary material of Clesi and Deguen (2024a). The code used to generate the remaining figures is available in Clesi (2026, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.21771983>). The data used to generate the figures, together with the figure source files, are provided in the [Supplementary Material](#). Main text figures and tables are available for download in the online version of this article.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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