Magnetic signature of the lunar South Pole-Aitken Basin: Character, origin, and age

Michael E. Purucker, and James W. Head III, and Lionel Wilson

Abstract. A new magnetic map of the Moon, based on Lunar Prospector (LP) magnetometer observations, sheds light on the origin of the South Pole-Aitken Basin (SPA), the largest and oldest of the recognized lunar basins. A set of WNW-trending linear to arcuate magnetic features, evident in both the radial and scalar observations, covers much of a 1000 km wide region centered on the NW portion of SPA. The source bodies are not at the surface because the magnetic features show no first-order correspondence to any surface topographic or structural feature. Patchy mare basalts of possible late Imbrian-age are emplaced within SPA and are inferred to have been emplaced through dikes, directly from mantle sources. We infer that the magnetic features represent dike swarms that served as feeders for these mare basalts, as evident from the location of the Thomson/Mare Ingenii, Van de Graaff, and Leeuwenhoek mare basalts on the two largest magnetic features in the region. Modeling suggests that the dike zone is between 25 and 50 km wide at the surface, and dike magnetization contrasts are in the range of 0.2 A/m. We theorize that the basaltic dikes were emplaced in the lunar crust when a long-lived dynamo was active. Based on pressure, temperature, and stress conditions prevalent in the lunar crust, dikes are expected to be a dominantly subsurface phenomenon, consistent with the observations reported here.

1. Introduction

The mapping of magnetic fields has proven to be a useful tool for providing a third dimension to surface observations of the Earth’s composition and geologic structure. A suite of mathematical techniques has been developed [Blakely, 1995] to facilitate the interpretation of these fields. Application of these techniques to the Moon may permit new insights into the geologic processes acting there.

The magnetic anomalies of the South Pole-Aitken (SPA) basin region have previously been interpreted to be related to impact shock effects in a transient magnetic field by virtue of their locations approximately antipodal to the Imbrium, Serenitatis, and Crisium basins [Hood et al., 2001; Hood and Artemieva, 2008].

Magnetic anomalies on the Earth are often the consequence of igneous activity, with the magnetic signal locked in as the magnetic minerals cool below their Curie temperature. An abundance of dikes should exist in the crust of the Moon [Head and Wilson, 1992], just as on the Earth [Wilson and Head, 1981], although we expect that most of these dikes were probably emplaced early in the history of the Moon before compressive stress reached present levels, and most of them reside in the lower crust. On the Moon, eruptive volcanic phases probably originate from dikes directly from mantle sources, without shallow crustal magma reservoirs. Theoretical analyses of the ascent and eruption of magma, combined with observations of shallow dike intrusions and related deformation on the Moon [Wilson and Head, 1981; Head and Wilson, 1992] suggest that mare basalts were emplaced in blade-like dikes with dimensions of several tens to many hundreds of kilometers length and tens to 250 m width. Dikes tend to approach the surface from depth with a broad convex-upward shape, and magma eruption usually takes place at the point where the convex portion of the dike first intersects the surface. Radiating, arcuate, and linear mafic dike swarms are common in the Earth [Ernst et al., 1996] and these dikes often have recognizable magnetic signatures [Reeves, 2000]. One example of a lunar dike (Rima Sirsalis) with a purported magnetic signature has been identified [Srnka et al., 1979; Head and Wilson, 1993; Head et al., 2001]. The recognition of magnetized dikes would imply the existence of a magnetic epoch in the Moon’s history, possibly associated with a lunar dynamo. The paucity of examples identified to date may have to do with the absence of a lunar-wide magnetic field for much of its history, and the absence of detailed modeling and analysis of the low-altitude LP data set.

2. Data

Two internal magnetic field models of the Moon [Purucker and Nicholas, 2010] developed from LP magnetometer observations are used here. The first model adopts a sequential approach to the modeling of the external and internal magnetic fields, and best preserves original signal amplitudes. We utilize this model to determine the strength of the magnetization required in our forward models. The second model utilizes a harmonic wave number correlation approach to independently determined sequential and coestimation models, and is best for feature recognition. This model is shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. We utilize this model to characterize the magnetic signature of the SPA basin region. The models extend to spherical harmonic degree 170, and coverage is complete over SPA.

The topographic map utilized here (Figure 3) is based on the Lunar Reconnaissance Orbiter laser altimeter and is described in Smith et al. [2010]. The outline of SPA is from Garrick-Bethell and Zuber [2009], based on topography, iron, and thorium signatures. The mare pond observations are from Yingst and Head [1997] and the extent of the mare ponds are shown there.
our analysis we have retained only lava ponds with areas ≥ 2320 sq km (Table 1). This cutoff retains 25 of the original 52 lava ponds. This cutoff was established because it allows for a better matching with the 64 km full wavelength resolution of the global lunar magnetic model [Parucker and Nicholas, 2010]. The ultimate resolution of the LP magnetometer data is 9 km along-track [Parucker and Nicholas, 2010], a limit set by spin averaging, and comparable to the altitude of the lowest observations.
by far the largest occurrence by volume (Figure 4) of mare basalts in the SPA region, are located in the middle of the 2nd largest magnetic feature in the region (Figure 4). The Van de Graaff and Leeuwenhoek (3, 4, and 9) mare basalts sit astride the longest and largest (Figure 4) of the magnetic features, as outlined above. In spite of this correspondence, the topographic map (Figure 3) shows little indication of any NW-Λ trending feature paralleling the magnetic feature. The only suggestion of such a feature is a short segment of the inner ring of SPA in the NE corner of the basin, in an area of enhanced magnetic fields.

The relationship between lava pond volume and the strength of the magnetic field is shown in Figure 4. As previously discussed, several of the lava ponds in the NW corner of SPA have large magnetic anomalies associated with them. The Thomson/Mare Ingenii, Van de Graaff, and Leeuwenhoek lava ponds all have anomalies that exceed the 98th percentile, in terms of the global distribution of lunar magnetic fields. However, the correlation between volume and magnetic magnitude is poor. The Van de Graaff and Leeuwenhoek occurrences have comparatively small volumes, and four other occurrences (7, 11, 18, and 26) have large volumes but comparatively weak (but still large) magnetic features. With the possible exception of Thomson/Mare Ingenii, this suggests that the lava ponds themselves are insufficient to produce the observed magnetic features.

We now describe the longest magnetic feature (Figure 6 and Figure 5) in the area chosen for detailed study, and describe a forward modeling approach that allows us to estimate parameters of the inferred dike swarm and its magnetization. The Lunar Prospector data set over this region has observations at two altitudes, averaging 22 and 29 km above the lunar datum. Shown in Figure 6 are the locations of the most negative radial magnetic field values along the low (black stars) and high (green stars) altitude passes. This location would identify the center of the source body if it were vertically magnetized. An independent guide to the direction of the magnetization is provided by the difference in the location of the stars at a constant longitude. For a given longitude, the green and black stars would have the same latitude in the case of a vertically magnetized source body. Although there are two sets, at about 174 and 177 degrees longitude, that do not have the same latitude, the correspondence is in general reasonable, so we will assume in our models a vertical magnetization. A linear least-squares fit to these stars (shown in red) delineates the NW-Λ trending feature, and shows that the largest difference from this line

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**Figure 3.** Topographic map of a region centered on South Pole-Aitken basin (SPA). The topographic map is described in *Smith et al.* [2010]. Elliptical outline of SPA is from *Garrick-Bethell and Zuber* [2009]. See Figure 1 for further details.

**Table 1.** Characteristics of Lava Ponds (Figure 1 and Figure 3) in South Pole-Aitken Basin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pond</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Area (sq. km)</th>
<th>Volume (cu. km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Aitken</td>
<td>3605</td>
<td>1620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Van de Graaff NE</td>
<td>3725</td>
<td>745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Van de Graaff SW</td>
<td>2455</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jules Verne</td>
<td>5830</td>
<td>8745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ingenii/Thomson</td>
<td>38140</td>
<td>61025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Leeuwenhoek</td>
<td>2320</td>
<td>1055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Leibnitz</td>
<td>20500</td>
<td>17425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Chrétien</td>
<td>4565</td>
<td>1795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Von Kármán</td>
<td>13095</td>
<td>13095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Makutov</td>
<td>2600</td>
<td>1950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Nishina E</td>
<td>7815</td>
<td>1365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Apollo S</td>
<td>11445</td>
<td>4290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Apollo W</td>
<td>5430</td>
<td>2035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Apollo N</td>
<td>8335</td>
<td>3125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Hopmann</td>
<td>8335</td>
<td>2600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Poincaré</td>
<td>13985</td>
<td>9790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Antares</td>
<td>3465</td>
<td>945</td>
</tr>
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<td>31</td>
<td>Von Kármán S</td>
<td>5780</td>
<td>4625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Poincaré NE</td>
<td>2735</td>
<td>1370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Hess</td>
<td>3255</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Poincaré E</td>
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<td>2580</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Nishina SE</td>
<td>3505</td>
<td>1470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Bose SW</td>
<td>3540</td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Bose S</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Bose N</td>
<td>3610</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Adapted from *Yingst and Head* [1997]. Table 1, showing ponds with areas ≥ 2320 sq km.
occurs in the proximity of the topographic ridge separating the Van de Graaff and Nassau craters. This might be explained if the source bodies were dipping slightly to the SSW.

Stacked profile plots of the $B_x$ and $B_y$ components of the magnetic field over this area are shown in Figure 5. Because the magnetic features are dominantly oriented E-W, the largest magnetic signatures are expected to be associated with these two components, whereas the E-W component of the magnetic field is expected to be weak, and not diagnostic. We use a two-dimensional approximation to model the magnetic bodies, replacing the cross-sectional shape of the body with an N-sided polygon, in this case a rectangle with flat ribbons of charge [Blakely, 1995], infinitely extended in the $+y$ and $-y$ directions, as defined in equations 9.27 and 9.28 of Blakely [1995]. See Figure 7 for details of the geometry. It can be shown that the $B_x = -B_0$ and $B_z = -B_x$ magnetic fields will be

$$B_x = -2C_m(M \cdot \hat{n})[\hat{s}_x \log \frac{r_2}{r_1} - \hat{s}_x(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]$$

$$B_z = -2C_m(M \cdot \hat{n})[\hat{s}_x \log \frac{r_2}{r_1} + \hat{s}_x(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]$$

where $r_1$ and $r_2$ are distances from the origin to edges 1 and 2, respectively, and $\theta_1$ and $\theta_2$ are angles between the x-axis and those lines connecting edges 1 and 2, respectively. The vector $\hat{s}$ is always directed parallel to the ribbon from edge 1 to edge 2. $C_m$ is the constant multiplier appropriate for SI units, while $(M \cdot \hat{n})$ describes the magnetization (M) and its direction ($\hat{n}$).

The forward model of a dike swarm [Wilson and Head, 1981] that we adopt, shown schematically in Figure 7, has dikes extending from the base of the crust (30 km here, according to the crustal thickness model [Wieczorek et al., 2006]) to the near-surface (0.5 km). An RMS trade-off curve of dike magnetization vs dike zone width (Figure 8), shows that the model that best fits the observations has dike zone widths of 25-50 km at the surface, and magnetizations of between 0.1 and 0.3 A/m. We utilize a dike swarm instead of a single dike in our modeling because rheological constraints [Head and Wilson, 1992] suggest that individual dikes are unlikely to be wider than 0.25 km. However, mathematically there is little practical difference between a single dike of magnetization $M/2$ and multiple dikes of magnetization $M$ separated by non-magnetic interlayers of equal width. Using the values selected from the trade-off curve of 0.22 A/m magnetization and a 40 km dike zone thickness, the predicted magnetic field values are calculated and shown in the central panel of Figure 5. The dike zone width of the modeled dikes is shown in green in the central panel of Figure 5, and it should be noted that they are centered on the location of the most negative radial field value (the stars of Figure 6). This might be refined in future work to allow for a continuous dike, if the dike were dipping slightly to the SSW, and if the top of the dike were allowed to follow the lunar topography. After removal of the model from the observations (right panel of Figure 5) the resulting RMS values decrease from 7.6 to 5.2 nT. This RMS misfit is calculated

Figure 5. Stacked profile plots show (on the left) the vector magnetic field observations after external field removal ([Purucker and Nicholas, 2010]: Sequential approach), the modeled internal component (center), and the remaining unfit field (right). The location is shown in Figure 1 and Figure 6 and is located east of the Van de Graaff lava ponds. The two vector components are shown at average altitudes of 22 (range 20–24) and 29 (range 27–31) km. Red colors indicate positive fields, blue are negative. The scale bar below the figures indicates the magnitude of the field. The RMS value for the $B_x$ and $B_0$ observations at 29 and 22 km is 7.64 nT. After removal of the models, the RMS value decreases to 5.24 nT. The location of the modeled dike swarm is outlined with a green line on the modeling figures.

Figure 6. Location of most negative radial field values along low altitude (black stars) and high altitude (green stars) passes shown in Figure 5. Topographic contours in km relative to the lunar datum are shown in solid lines, and the two major basins, Van de Graaff and Nassau are located. The red line is the linear least squares fit to the locations. The radial magnetic field map (Figure 1) is also shown in color as a background. The area shown here is outlined in Figure 1.
between an individual profile and the model. The patterns in the residual misfits suggest the presence of an additional short dike segment in the SW portion of the modeled region with a different, possibly antiparallel, magnetization direction. Assuming a different magnetization direction could affect the magnitude of the predicted magnetizations by as much as a factor of two. However, a different magnetization direction would change the magnetic field pattern and so should be recognizable in the analysis.

4. Discussion

The proximity of these magnetic lineations to the South Pole-Aitken basin suggests that the lineations may be related to the formation of the basin or its subsequent history. Preservation of magnetic fabric dating from early crustal formation processes seems unlikely, due to the physical disruption of crustal target material by the impact and the likelihood that the event would tend to demagnetize and destroy magnetic lineation coherency in the immediate vicinity of the impact. Subsequent to the formation of the South Pole-Aitken basin, the major events in the history are the formation of additional craters and small basins in the basin interior and rim (e.g., Poincaré, Antoniadi, Apollo, Van de Graaff, Aitken and many others) and the formation of the Orientale basin to the east and deposition of Orientale ejecta and crater chains in the interior of SPA [e.g., [Stuart-Alexander, 1978; Wilhelms et al., 1979; Wilhelms, 1987]. Emplacement of mare basalts on the SPA basin floor occurred well after basin formation and thus mare basalt eruptions tended to pond within the many craters that formed between the time of the impact and the volcanic flooding, and in other low-lying intercrater areas. Unlike the larger nearside maria, such as Imbrium and Serenitatis, which are characterized by widespread, continuous and thick mare deposits (e.g., [Head and Wilson, 1992; Wilhelms, 1987]), SPA is incompletely flooded and has a patchy mare distribution. Yingst and Head [1997] mapped 52 mare ponds in the South Pole-Aitken Basin, with a mean pond area of 2000 sq km, and a mean volume of 860 cubic km. They interpreted the ponds to be due largely to single eruptive phases that were emplaced through dikes directly from mantle sources without shallow crustal magma reservoirs and staging areas.

The timing and strength of the source magnetizations responsible for these magnetic lineations is poorly constrained. Yingst and Head [1999] examined the spectral characteristics of 21 of the mare ponds in SPA and found that their affinities were consistent with nearside basalts emplaced in the Late Imbrian Period, a conclusion confirmed by SELENE crater counts [Haruyama et al., 2009]. The possibility also exists for the presence of earlier cryptomaria on the floor of SPA [Pieters et al., 1997]. The recent works of Garrick-Bethell et al. [2009] and Lawrence et al. [2008] on the lunar sample collection have yielded conflicting interpretations on the question of the existence, timing, and possible strength of a lunar dynamo. We can confidently say only that the Moon may have possessed a surface field of intensity comparable to or smaller than that of the present-day Earth at one or more times in the past, and the favored periods for the existence of a lunar dynamo are the Imbian, the Nectarian, and the pre-Nectarian. Our knowledge of the expected magnetizations of the basaltic magma from which the dikes originated is also not well known [Wieczorek and Weiss, 2010] because it depends on the strength of the magnetizing field, the magnetic mineral responsible for the magnetization, and the amount of iron in the source rocks. Wieczorek and Weiss [2010] suggest values between 0.1 and 0.4 A/m for a variety of plausible scenarios, consistent with the values reported here.

Examination of the location of the magnetic lineations shows some positive correlation between their concentration and mare pond locations (Figure 1 and Figure 2). Furthermore, the magnetic lineations cross specific mare ponds in...
some locations. For example, the most prominent linear anomaly trends WNW and crosses mare patches in Van de Graaff (3.4), Leeuwenhoek (9), and Apollo (21-23), and trend-parallel graben and mare-related dark-halo craters on the floor of Oppenheimer [Head et al., 2000]. Other linear trends also show correlations with mare patch occurrences. Not all magnetic lineations are associated with mare ponds. In this scenario, not all intrusions reached the surface and resulted in mare ponds. In contrast, all but one of the mare ponds has a magnetic signature greater than the lunar median value, and 18 of the 26 ponds have magnetic signatures above the 75th percentile (Figure 4).

The modeling performed here does not resolve some ambiguities that are inherent in the interpretation of potential field data. For example, because a uniform magnetization can be added to any assumed magnetization distribution with no effect on the measured magnetic field outside [Run- corn, 1975; Purucker and Nicholas, 2010], it is impossible to distinguish between some plausible geologic scenarios unless samples of the magnetized bodies are available. The satellite is sensitive to only lateral magnetization contrasts. As an example, it is impossible to determine whether the inferred dikes were emplaced in a host rock that was already magnetized, or whether the host rock was non-magnetic.

5. Conclusion

In summary, a number of lines of evidence support an interpretation of the linear magnetic anomalies as the manifestation of magnetized dikes related to the ascent of magma and emplacement of mare basalts on the floor of the South Pole-Aitken basin: 1) the linear nature of the magnetic anomalies and the linear nature of dikes, 2) the concentration of the anomalies in the center and NW portions of the basin where the mare ponds are also concentrated, 3) the coincidence of some magnetic lineation locations with specific basaltic ponds, and 4) the candidate width and depth range of the mare pond feeder dikes and the strength of the magnetic lineations. Thus, we interpret the linear magnetic anomalies to have formed by dikes that emplaced many of the mare ponds on the floor of SPA, with solidification of the dikes taking place in the Late Imbrian, probably 3.6-3.8 Ga, and possibly earlier, during the emplacement of cryptomaria [Pieters et al., 1997].

Future studies of these inferred dike swarms will benefit from the addition of data from the SELENE mission [Tsunakawa et al., 2010] and from higher resolution maps made from LP data (see discussion in [Purucker and Nicholas, 2010]). Higher degree gravity field models of the Moon also offer the possibility of independent verification of the dike swarms.

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Michael E. Purucker, SGT at Planetary Geodynamics Laboratory, Code 698, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA. (michael.e.purucker@nasa.gov)

James W. Head III, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island, USA.

Lionel Wilson, Lancaster University, Lancaster, UK.