

**MOUNTAIN BUILDING ON TITAN.** G. Mitri<sup>1</sup>, M. Bland<sup>2</sup>, and R. M. Lopes<sup>1</sup>, <sup>1</sup>Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology (4800 Oak Grove Dr. Pasadena California, Giuseppe.Mitri@jpl.nasa.gov), <sup>2</sup>Lunar and Planetary Laboratory, University of Arizona (1629 E. University Blvd. Tucson Arizona).

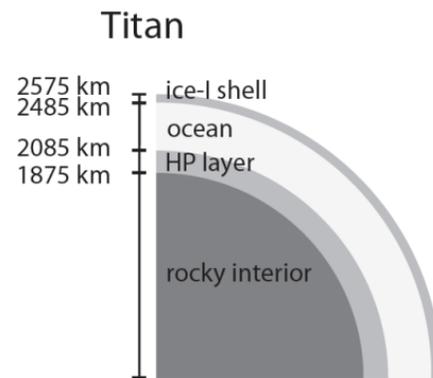
**Introduction:** Cassini remote sensing observations on Titan yield evidence of features of relatively high topography interpreted as mountains [1]. The mean topographic height observed with the Cassini Radar instrument during T3 (February 2005) and T8 (October 2005) is 864 m and the topography ranges between 123 m to 1930 m [1]. Both isolated blocks and linear chains of mountains 200 - 300 km long [1] are observed on Titan's surface. The Descent Imager Spectral Radiometer (DISR) has shown that the topography close to the Huygens probe landing site is ~100-150 m higher than the surrounding plains [2]. During the T20 flyby, the VIMS instrument observed large mountain chains (150 km long and 30 km wide) at the south of Titan's equator [3].

Four scenarios for Titan's orogenesis are proposed [1]: (i) compressional crustal deformation; (ii) horsts; (iii) secondary impact ejecta; and, (iv) mesas. The presence of mountain chains suggest that the dominant mountain building process is compressional crustal deformation. Successive denudation-accumulation controlled by erosion and weathering can modify the morphology of mountains though time. Here we investigate if the compression crustal deformation can produce topography on Titan.

**Internal structure and radial contraction:** The interior of Titan (radius 2,575 km) is likely differentiated in a rocky interior, a high pressure HP ice layer (with phases III, V, and VI), an ammonia-water subsurface ocean, and a surface ice-I shell [e.g., 4,5]. In Titan's early history, ammonia and other volatiles were released in the liquid layer during the accretion and differentiation stages [6], and at the present time an ammonia-water subsurface ocean could be present [4,5,7]. Fig. 1 shows a model of Titan's internal structure.

Present radiogenic and tidal heating from the rocky interior is actually of the order of 600 GW [7]. During Titan's early history, the heat flux was higher [7], leading to the assumption that Titan has experienced a cooling over time. The density of the ice-I layer is 920 kg m<sup>-3</sup>, HP layer is 1300 kg m<sup>-3</sup> and liquid layer is 1000 kg m<sup>-3</sup>. During the cooling of Titan and freezing of the ice-I and HP layers, these differences in density led to a global volume change. We compute the radial variation of Titan during this secular cooling adopting the thermal model of the ice-I shell developed in ref. [5]. We assume maximum initial ammonia mass con-

centration in the liquid layer that range between 0 and 5%, consistent with ammonia concentration observed in comets and modeling results of Titan's current orbital eccentricity [7]. We use the dependence of the melting temperature on the ice-I shell thickness as in ref. [8].

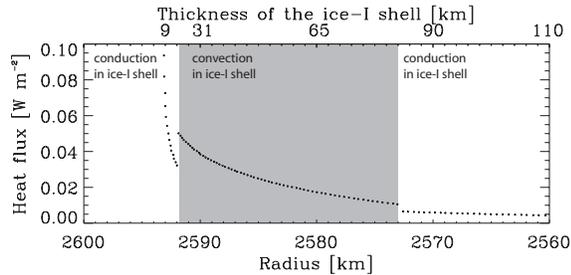


**Figure 1** Model of Titan's internal structure [5]. Titan is differentiated into a rocky interior and an outer water layer of ~700 km depth. The depth of the ice high pressure layer and the ice-I shell is determined as in ref. [8].

Fig. 2 shows the heat flux from the interior versus Titan's radius. We assume that the dominant creep mechanism of the ice is diffusion creep. The ice grain size is 1 mm, and the initial ammonia-water concentration is 5%. Fig. 2 shows also the thickness of the ice-I shell. The white and grey areas of Fig. 2 show where the heat flux is transported by thermal conduction and thermal convection in the ice-I shell, respectively. There are several key points. First, the response in Titan's radius, changing as a function of the variation in internal heat flux, depends on the thermal state (conductive and convective) of the ice-I shell. Second, the Onset-I transition in ice-I shell implies that two solutions exist for a range of heat flux and consequently, a conductive-convective transition of the ice-I shell causes a jump in radius of Titan. Third, at the Onset-II of convection in the ice-I shell, no steady-state solution exists for a range of heat flux for the ice-I shell and the radius of Titan. A full description of the Onset-I and Onset-II of convection in the ice-I

shell and the implication for the Titan's geology is in ref. [5].

Interestingly, Fig. 2 demonstrates that Titan's secular cooling produces radial contraction. Consequently, crustal compressional deformations of the ice-I shell can occur during the secular cooling of Titan.

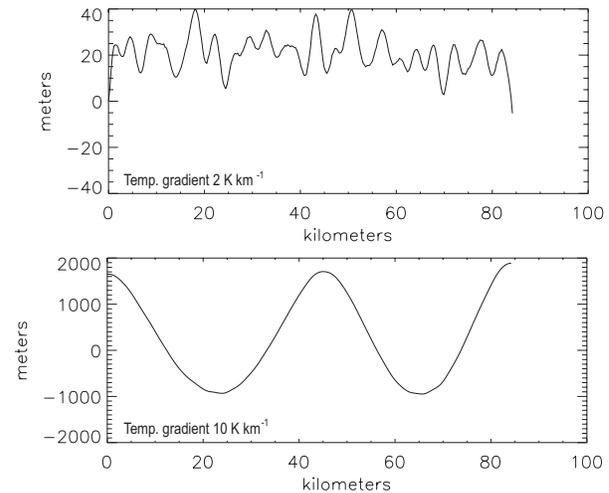


**Figure 2** Heat flux versus the radius of Titan. The plot shows also the thickness of the ice-I shell. Grey and white areas show where the heat is transported through the ice-I shell by thermal convection and conduction, respectively. The ice grain size is 1 mm and the initial ammonia-water concentration is 5%.

**Mountain building:** We simulate the two dimensional compressional crustal deformation in a state of plain strain of Titan's ice-I shell using the Tekton (version 2.3) finite-element code [9]. The model considers elastic-viscous-plastic and composites rheologies of the water ice [10]. The elastic behavior of the ice is characterized by the Young's modulus  $E$  ( $9 \cdot 10^9$  Pa) and the Poisson ratio  $\nu$  (0.314). The constitutive rheologies of the viscous flow are based on laboratory measurements [11,12,13]. Plastic deformation is modeled with Drucker-Prager yield criterion with a cohesion  $C = 10$  MPa and an angle of internal friction  $\phi = 30^\circ$ .

Fig. 3 shows the topography produced with a compressional crustal deformation of the ice-I shell. The initial two-dimension domain is 100 km per 25 km with a spatial resolution of 333 m for each element. The strain is 0.158, and the contraction time is  $10^6$  yr (corresponding to time scale of a freezing ice-I shell [5]). The plots are for two temperature gradients in the ice-I shell:  $2 \text{ K km}^{-1}$  and  $10 \text{ K km}^{-1}$ . For low temperature gradients in the ice-I shell (few  $\text{K km}^{-1}$ ) compressional crustal deformation produces a topography of the order of several tens of meters and a wavelength of the order of several kilometers. For higher temperature gradients (order of ten  $\text{K km}^{-1}$ ), the topography simulated is of the order of several kilometers with a wavelength of the order of fifty kilometers. An initial analysis suggests that compressional crustal deformation due to radial contraction of the satellite can produce topography on Titan.

**Conclusions:** We have simulated mountainous topography of the order of meters to several kilometers depending on strain rates and temperature gradients in the ice-I shell. Compressional crustal deformation as a consequence of Titan's radial contraction during hot periods of its thermal evolution produces a topography height of several kilometers. This topography encompasses the observed topography on Titan.



**Figure 3** Topography for compressional crustal deformation of Titan. The grain size is 1 mm, the strain is 0.158 and the compressional time is  $10^6$  yr. The temperature gradients in the ice-I shell are 2 and  $10 \text{ K km}^{-1}$ .

**References:** [1] Radebaugh J. et al. (2007) *Icarus*, 192, 77-91. [2] Tomasko M. G. et al. (2005) *Nature*, 765-778. [3] Sotin C. et al. (2007) *LPS XXXVIII*, Abstract #2444. [4] Grasset O. and Sotin C. (1996) *Icarus*, 123, 101-112. [5] Mitri G. and Showman A. P. (2008) *Icarus*, doi:10.1016/j.icarus.2007/07.16. [6] Lunine J. I. and Stevenson D. J. (1987) *Icarus*, 70, 61-77. [7] Tobie G. et al. (2005) *Icarus* 175, 496-502. [8] Grasset O. et al. (2000) *Planet. Space Sci.* 48, 617-636. [9] Melosh H.J. and Raefsky A. (1980). *Geophys. J. R. Astron. Soc.* 60, 333-354. [10] Bland M. T. and Showman A. P. *Icarus* 189 (2007) 439-456. [11] Kirby S.H. et al. (1987) *J. Phys.* 48, 227-232. [12] Durham W.B. et al. (1997) *J. Geophys. Res.* 102, 16293-16302. [13] Goldsby D.L. and Kohlstedt D.L. (2001) *J. Geophys. Res.* 106, 11017-11030.

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