

## Cassini measurements show seasonal O<sub>2</sub> – CO<sub>2</sub> exospheres and possible seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> frosts at Rhea and Dione. B. D. Teolis<sup>1</sup>, J. H. Waite<sup>1</sup>

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**Introduction:** We will present the discovery of a oxygen - carbon dioxide exosphere at Dione by the Cassini Ion Neutral Mass Spectrometer (INMS) from the 99 km December 12, 2011 equatorial Dione encounter. As shown in Fig. 1 the INMS; a quadrupole mass spectrometer equipped with an antechamber and electron impact ionizer for in situ collection and mass analysis of neutral gas, detected roughly equal O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> densities of  $\sim 2 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^{-3}$  at the time of closest approach to Dione. The new INMS findings confirm indications by the Cassini Plasma Spectrometer [1] and Magnetometer [2] from more distant Dione encounters in 2005 and 2010 of a possible exosphere at Dione, and compliment the recent discovery of an O<sub>2</sub> – CO<sub>2</sub> exosphere at Rhea [3], where O<sub>2</sub> formed in the surface ice by H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation and radiolysis reactions reactions is sputtered from the surface by magnetospheric particles. Exospheric CO<sub>2</sub> may be (i) synthesized from radiolysis involving surface-bound oxygen and endogenic and/or implanted organics, and/or (ii) may be due to escape of primordial CO<sub>2</sub> from the ice.

The presence of exospheres of similar densities and compositions at Dione and Rhea indicate that similar physical processes operate at both moons, since these moons have sufficient mass ( $1.1$  and  $2.3 \times 10^{21} \text{ kg}$ , respectively) to retain an exosphere, and orbit in the inner magnetosphere (at  $6.3$  and  $8.8 R_S$ ), where their surfaces are subject to similar magnetospheric particle fluxes [ $\sim 9(15)$ ,  $36(10)$ ,  $48(73) \times 10^{26} \text{ eV/s}$  from water group ions, protons and electrons at Dione(Rhea) [4]]. Together with the remote detections of sputter-produced O<sub>2</sub> exospheres at Ganymede and Europa by the Hubble Space Telescope [5], and of CO<sub>2</sub> at Callisto by the Galileo Near Infrared Mapping Spectrometer [6], the Cassini findings at Rhea and Dione appear to suggest radiolytic exospheres, in particular consisting of oxygen and carbon dioxide, may be ubiquitous around irradiated massive icy objects.

However the Cassini CO<sub>2</sub> measurements present a puzzle. First, while recent studies from VIMS can find no evidence for a currently active endogenic CO<sub>2</sub> source at Dione [7] or Rhea [8], the presence of a CO<sub>2</sub> abundance similar to that of O<sub>2</sub> at Dione and Rhea does not appear, at first look, to be consistent with radiolysis of the surfaces consisting mostly of H<sub>2</sub>O.

Moreover, INMS detected  $\sim 2 \times 10^{10} \text{ CO}_2/\text{m}^3$  over the Rhea north pole during the 97 km March 2, 2010 flyby, but then did not detect CO<sub>2</sub> during the 72 km January 11, 2011 south polar flyby above an upper

limit of  $0.7 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^{-3}$ . The Rhea findings are suggestive of possible CO<sub>2</sub> condensation onto the southern latitudes surfaces, which are presently cooling as the Saturn system approaches southern winter. Although such a process could account for a reduction of Rhea's global CO<sub>2</sub> exosphere between the 2010 and 2011 encounters, it cannot by itself explain the finding of significant CO<sub>2</sub> at Dione's equator in late 2011.

Here we present new Monte Carlo simulations of the Dione and Rhea exospheres demonstrating that the Cassini INMS measurements of different north-south CO<sub>2</sub> abundances at Rhea, and significant CO<sub>2</sub> at Dione, are consistent with strongly seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> exospheres at these moons. The exospheres are expected to form transient CO<sub>2</sub> polar frosts that migrate seasonally between northern and southern latitudes. The O<sub>2</sub> component is, to a lesser degree, also seasonal.

**Exospheric Evolution:** We model the exospheres via a Monte Carlo code by tracking the ballistic trajectories of molecules ejected from random surface locations at speeds chosen according to a mixed sputter / Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution [3]. Molecules are allowed to escape gravitationally, and are destroyed randomly in flight at a rate given by the expected molecule ionization rates by plasma interactions, i.e., photo-ionization, ion and electron impact ionization, and charge exchange, based on laboratory cross sections. On re-impacting the surface, molecules are allowed to stick for time approximated by a Boltzmann factor, i.e.,  $C \cdot \exp(E / kT)$ , with  $E$  the laboratory measured binding energy for O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> to a smooth substrate ( $x$  and  $x$ , respectively),  $T$  the local surface temperature based on Cassini CIRS data [9] adjusted for the local time and solar declination, and the prefactor  $C$  is an adjustable model parameter. After sticking the molecules are allowed to desorb in random directions with speeds initialized according to a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution at the local surface temperature. The simulation is initially run over several Saturn seasonal cycles to ensure steady-state.

The seasonal evolution of the CO<sub>2</sub> exosphere is shown in Fig. 2 during the 2002-2032 time frame. At solstice the CO<sub>2</sub> condenses at polar latitudes in the winter hemisphere. Then as equinox approaches the CO<sub>2</sub> frost gradually desorbs as the solar terminator advances poleward, heating the frost cap. The desorbed CO<sub>2</sub> forms a transient atmosphere over the day-side hemisphere, which simultaneously adsorbs onto the opposite pole. A few years past equinox (which

most recently occurred August 11, 2009) the CO<sub>2</sub> completes the transition between poles, and the atmospheric density rapidly collapses in  $\sim 1$  (earth) year. The cycle repeats, forming a transient dayside atmosphere every half-season, i.e., every 14.7 years.

In Fig. 2 we compare the modeled density along Cassini's trajectory to the INMS measurement during the Rhea 2010 and 2011 flybys, and the Dione 2011 encounter. The agreement with the data provides an explanation for the north-south difference at Rhea during the 2010-2011 time frame. While in the north the CO<sub>2</sub> density is elevated due to outgassing of condensed CO<sub>2</sub> from the previous winter, the CO<sub>2</sub> density in the south is suppressed because the south was depleted of CO<sub>2</sub> frost due to the still recently ended southern summer. Thus the CO<sub>2</sub> source was concentrated in the north at the times of the encounters. As shown at Dione the northern latitudes were still outgassing significant CO<sub>2</sub>, and therefore the detected Dione CO<sub>2</sub> abundance is consistent with the closer proximity of the equatorial flyby to the gas source in the north (i.e., in comparison to the Rhea 2011 south polar encounter).

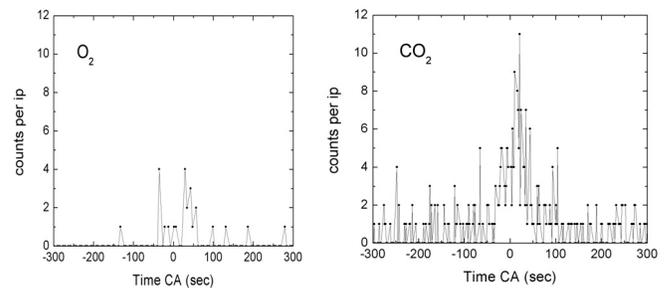
We also note that the model only requires source CO<sub>2</sub> source rates of  $\sim 9 \times 10^{21}$  and  $\sim 7 \times 10^{20}$  s<sup>-1</sup> at Dione and Rhea, respectively, which is much lower than, e.g., the estimated rate of H<sub>2</sub>O sputtering from their surfaces (of the order 10<sup>25</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> [10]), and the O<sub>2</sub> formation rates (of the order 10<sup>24</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> [3]). However the model suggests that the average CO<sub>2</sub> molecule spends over 99% percent of its life stuck to the surface, which drastically reduces the opportunity for escape into space. Therefore we can attribute the significant CO<sub>2</sub> abundance to the low rate of atmospheric escape (due to surface sticking), rather than a high source rate. Such a low source rate would be consistent with a radiolytic CO<sub>2</sub> source, e.g., from a mostly water ice surface, containing a small fraction of carbonaceous material either endogenic to the moon and/or deposited by micrometeorite impact.

**Figure Captions:** **Fig 1:** INMS measurement of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in mass channels 32 and 44 amu during the 2011 Dione flyby. **Fig 2:** Simulated time evolution of Rhea's CO<sub>2</sub> exosphere.

**References:** [1] R. L. Tokar *et al.*, Journal of Geophysical Research, in press (2012). [2] S. Simon, J. Saur, F. M. Neubauer, A. Wennmacher, and M. K. Dougherty, Journal of Geophysical Research **38**, L15102 (2011). [3] B. D. Teolis *et al.*, Science **330**, 1813 (2010). [4] M. F. Thomsen *et al.*, Journal of Geophysical Research, in press (2010). [5] D. T. Hall, P. D. Feldman, M. A. McGrath, and D. F. Strobel, Astrophysical Journal **499**, 475 (1998). [6] R. W. Carlson, Science **283**, 820 (1999). [7] K. Stephan *et al.*, Icarus **206**, 631 (2010). [8] K. Stephan *et al.*, Planetary and Space Science, in press (2012). [9] C. J. A. Howett, J. R. Spencer, J. Pearl, and

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**Figure 1**



**Figure 2**

