

1 **Cassini CAPS identification of pickup ion**
2 **compositions at Rhea**

R. T. Desai^{1,2,3}, S. A. Taylor^{1,2}, L. H. Regoli⁴, A. J. Coates^{1,2}, T. A.

Nordheim⁵, M. A. Cordiner⁶, B. D. Teolis⁷, M. F. Thomsen⁸, R. E. Johnson⁹,

G. H. Jones^{1,2}, M. M. Cowee¹⁰, J. H. Waite⁷

Corresponding author: R. T. Desai, Blackett Laboratory, Imperial College London, London,
UK. (ravindra.desai@imperial.ac.uk)

¹Mullard Space Science Laboratory,

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as doi: [10.1002/2017GL076588](https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076588)

3 Saturn's largest icy moon, Rhea, hosts a tenuous surface-sputtered exo-
4 sphere composed primarily of molecular oxygen and carbon dioxide. In this
5 Letter, we examine Cassini Plasma Spectrometer velocity space distributions
6 near Rhea and confirm that Cassini detected nongyrotopic fluxes of outflow-
7 ing CO_2^+ during both the R1 and R1.5 encounters. Accounting for this nongy-
8 rotropy, we show that these possess comparable alongtrack densities of $\sim 2 \times 10^{-3}$
9 cm^{-3} . Negatively charged pickup ions, also detected during R1, are surpris-
10 ingly shown as consistent with mass 26 ± 3 u which we suggest are carbon-
11 based compounds, such as CN^- , C_2H^- , C_2^- , or HCO^- , sputtered from car-
12 bonaceous material on the moons surface. The negative ions are calculated
13 to possess alongtrack densities of $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and are suggested to de-
14 rive from exogenic compounds, a finding consistent with the existence of Rhea's
15 dynamic CO_2 exosphere and surprisingly low O_2 sputtering yields. These pickup
16 ions provide important context for understanding the exospheric and surface-
17 ice composition of Rhea and of other icy moons which exhibit similar char-
18 acteristics

University College London, UK.

1. Introduction

19 Rhea is Saturn's largest icy moon with a radius of ~ 764 km, and orbits within the
20 sub-Alfvénic environment of Saturn's middle magnetosphere. As such, Rhea presents an
21 archetype of the dominant satellite class at the outer planets, whose physical properties
22 can be used to understand the formation and evolution of the giant planetary systems
23 and, especially, their many moons.

24 A sputter-induced exosphere was first discovered to exist at Rhea by the Cassini space-
25 craft [Teolis et al., 2010], a phenomenon also present at Dione, Europa, Callisto, and
26 Ganymede [Tokar et al., 2012; Hall et al., 1998; Carlson, 1999]. Rhea's and Dione's exo-
27 spheres were also surprisingly found to host large quantities of CO_2 [Teolis & Waite, 2016],
28 a characteristic shared with Callisto. Rhea's surface is predominantly water ice whilst also
29 containing lesser quantities of darker non-ice constituents and trace compounds such as
30 CO_2 [Clark et al., 2008]. Beneath this, Rheas gravitational field indicates a body existing
31 away from hydrostatic equilibrium which might be differentiated [Tortora et al., 2016],
32 and possibly hosts a subsurface water ocean [Hussmann et al., 2006].

33 Rhea is an unmagnetised body and acts to absorb incident magnetodisk plasma [Khu-
34 rana et al., 2008; Roussos et al., 2008]. Ionised material can be directly picked up by the
35 motional electric field and form "pickup ion" current systems which, with the resulting
36 $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{B}$ force and density gradients associated with the plasma wake [Simon et al., 2012;
37 Khurana et al., 2017], slows down the incident magnetoplasma causing field-line drap-

²Centre for Planetary Science at

38 ing and Alfvén wings. Pickup ions, as well as providing information on bulk and trace

UCL/Birkbeck, London, UK.

³Blackett Laboratory, Imperial College
London, UK.

⁴Michigan University, Department of
Space Science and Engineering, Michigan,
USA.

⁵NASA-JPL/Caltech, Pasadena,
California, USA.

⁶NASA Goddard Space Flight Center,
Maryland, USA.

⁷Space Science and Engineering Division,
Southwest Research Institute, Texas, USA.

⁸Planetary Science Institute, Tucson,
Arizona, USA.

⁹Engineering Physics, University of
Virginia, Charlottesville, USA.

¹⁰Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los
Alamos, New Mexico, USA.

39 atmospheric constituents, impact the moon's plasma interaction and mass load Saturn's
40 middle magnetosphere.

In a plasma flow, pickup ions will be accelerated to a maximum velocity of twice that of the bulk plasma and, in the plasma frame, will possess energies of

$$E_i = \frac{1}{2}m_i v_b^2 \sin^2 \theta, \quad (1)$$

41 where m_i is the pickup ion mass, v_b is the bulk plasma velocity in the initial rest frame,
42 and θ is the angle between the bulk plasma velocity and the magnetic field [Coates et al.,
43 1989].

44 At Rhea's orbit of $\sim 8.9 R_S$, the Saturnian magnetic field is nominally dipolar and
45 newly born ions will be accelerated perpendicularly to the magnetic field to execute rings
46 in velocity space. If the size of the ion gyroradii significantly exceeds that of the pickup ion
47 source region, the resultant distributions won't fill the entire ring and can be considered
48 nongyrotopic.

49 Pickup ion distributions are inherently unstable and provide a source of free energy for
50 plasma wave generation [Wu & Davidson, 1972]. These waves act scatter the distributions
51 in pitch angle and energy, and heat ambient gyroresonant populations. Alfvén-cyclotron
52 waves, generated by pickup ions, have been observed throughout Saturn's extended neutral
53 cloud out to $\sim 8 R_S$ where the increased plasma beta (ratio of magnetic to thermal pressure)
54 results in the Mirror Mode dominating [Russell et al., 2006; Meeks et al., 2016]. The
55 magnetic signatures of mass loading have, however, not been reported in the vicinity of
56 Rhea, despite increased O_2^+ abundances being observed at these radial distances [Martens
57 et al., 2008].

58 In this *Letter*, we examine Cassini Plasma Spectrometer (CAPS) observations of pickup
59 ions outflowing from Rhea with emphasis on further constraining the composition and
60 origin of the negatively charged pickup ions detected by the CAPS Electron Spectrometer
61 (ELS).

2. Velocity Space Analysis

62 The CAPS Ion Mass Spectrometer (IMS) and CAPS Electron Spectrometer (ELS)
63 [Young et al., 2004] were designed to measure low energy ions and electrons in the ranges
64 of 1 eV to 50.3 keV and 0.6 eV to 28.8 keV, respectively. CAPS is located on an actuator
65 which was held fixed during the Rhea flybys. Figure 1 shows the CAPS observations during
66 the targeted R1 encounter on 26 November 2005 and the non-targeted R1.5 encounter on
67 30 August. Closest approach occurred at 765 km and 5736 km, respectively, and both
68 flybys occurred behind the moon, thus providing the opportunity to observe outflowing
69 material.

70 During both encounters, a marked drop-out in ion and electron fluxes occurs as Cassini
71 traversed the moon's plasma wake. During R1, distinct plasma populations are visible in
72 the IMS spectrogram around 22:33 UT at ~ 2.5 keV, and during R1.5 a similar population
73 is observed at 01:32 UT at ~ 3.5 keV. In the ELS spectrogram, a distinct plasma population
74 is visible at 22:41 UT at ~ 1.6 keV, and a differenced plot, obtained by averaging the counts
75 on anodes oriented away from 90° pitch angle (anodes 2, 3, 6, 7), and subtracting these
76 from anode 3, reveals this signature as analogous to the IMS signatures. These respective
77 plasma populations have been identified as positively and negatively charged pickup ions

78 deriving from Rhea and provided evidence for the moon's tenuous exosphere [Teolis et al.,
79 2010].

80 The IMS and ELS utilise electrostatic analysers to energy select charged particles, and
81 the characteristic velocity imparted to newly created ions by the pickup process allows
82 CAPS to discriminate between pickup ions of different masses. Figure 2 shows an IMS
83 and ELS energy sweep corresponding to when these pickup ions were detected. The
84 data are transformed into velocity space using the mass of anticipated pickup ions and
85 projected onto planes which are parallel and perpendicular to the magnetic field and
86 $-v \times B$ electric field, as measured by Cassini [e.g. Wilson et al., 2010]. The spacecraft
87 and plasma velocity are subtracted, leaving the measurements in the pickup ion rest
88 frame and a contour representing the anticipated pickup ion ring distribution is overlaid,
89 as predicted by Equation 1.

90 During R1 and R1.5, the pickup ions observed by the IMS appear consistent with masses
91 40 ± 4 u and 46 ± 4 u, respectively. This uncertainty derives from the width of the IMS
92 energy bins and the plasma velocity which varies between ~ 55 and ~ 60 km/s during R1,
93 and ~ 55 and ~ 65 km/s during R1.5, see Wilson et al. [2010]. The pickup ions arrive with
94 near-zero velocity parallel to the B-field as anticipated for pickup within a dipolar pickup
95 geometry and are therefore attributed to CO_2^+ , a conclusion previously reached by Teolis
96 & Waite [2016].

97 The pickup ions possess varying velocities parallel to the electric field indicating they are
98 highly nongyrotropic and exist within slightly different locations in phase space. During
99 both encounters the pickup ions appear shifted compared to the predicted velocity con-

100 tours, the most likely explanation being that the plasma conditions were different closer
101 to the moon, where and when the ions were produced, compared to at the time and lo-
102 cation of their detection. In Figure 3, the nominal trajectories of outflowing positive and
103 negative pickup ions are shown, calculated using Cassini field and plasma measurements.
104 The CO_2^+ trajectories can be seen to correspond to where the respective detections were
105 made during both R1 and R1.5.

106 The nongyrotropic nature of these distributions also becomes evident when examining
107 these trajectories as they demonstrate how the pickup ions are only able to occupy a
108 finite amount of the 2π velocity-ring space at any given instance. This also explains
109 why the pickup ions are only observed over a finite time period as the pickup ion phase
110 angle changes closer to the moon to where the CAPS finite FOV did not cover. Spatial
111 variations in the ion production rate, due to the spatial distribution of the exospheric
112 neutral density, could also contribute to this effect.

113 The identification of CO_2^+ on both the Rhea encounters raises interesting questions
114 regarding the lack of O_2^+ pickup ions, as observed at Dione by Cassini [Tokar et al.,
115 2012]. The IMS spectra shown in Figure 4 do, however, feature a shoulder on the main
116 corotational plasma distribution near ~ 2 keV which, when closer to Rhea (not shown),
117 appears similar to the O_2^+ pickup ion detections reported by Tokar et al. [2012]. It is,
118 however, difficult to differentiate this from the corotational plasma at Rhea's orbit, which
119 exhibits a greater spread in energy compared to at Dione. Rhea's CO_2 and O_2 exosphere
120 has been measured insitu by Cassini's Ion and Neutral Mass Spectrometer [Teolis & Waite,
121 2016], and the O_2 production rates have notably been determined to be significantly (~ 300

122 times) lower than that predicted from the sputtering of pure water-ice, and are consistent
123 with the presence of significant surface impurities.

124 The consistency of these identifications with the analysis and exospheric modelling
125 results reported by Teolis & Waite [2016], validates the use of the pickup ions velocity as
126 a means of identifying composition, a method which will now be applied to analyse the
127 negatively charged pickup ions.

128 The CAPS-ELS is capable of detecting negatively charged ions [Coates et al., 2007],
129 and Teolis et al. [2010] reported that the negatively charged pickup ions detected during
130 R1 were likely comprised of O^- . While initially reported as produced from electron
131 attachment to atmospheric species, the inefficiency of this process was highlighted in a
132 subsequent study [Teolis & Waite, 2016; Itikawa, 2009], and it was consequently suggested
133 that these were likely produced by surface mediated process such as sputtering. In Figure
134 1 and 2, these detections appear above the anticipated O^- energy by ~ 15 km/s which
135 corresponds to an energy discrepancy of ~ 500 eV. These detections therefore appear
136 consistent with a heavier species of mass 26 ± 3 u. It is, however, possible for pickup ions
137 to be accelerated to increased energies by a number of processes, which are now examined:

138 • Intense plasma waves have been observed at Rhea [Santolík et al., 2011], and right-
139 hand polarised Alfvén-cyclotron waves, which would gyroresonantly interact with O^- ,
140 could be produced by negatively charged pickup ions [Desai et al., 2017b]. These however
141 feed of the free energy from the pickup ions and this effect could not be significant over
142 such a short time period.

143 • Specular reflection from the lunar surface has been observed to accelerate solar wind
144 ions to three times that of the bulk plasma velocity [Saito et al., 2008]. This is however
145 judged unlikely at Rhea due to high water-group photo-detachment rates in Saturn’s mag-
146 netosphere [Coates et al., 2010] precluding negatively charged O^- existing in abundance
147 as an ambient magnetospheric population.

148 • Sputtering can result in energy being transferred to the sputter products. O^- sput-
149 tering experiments have, however, shown this to be too inefficient to account for the
150 velocity discrepancy discovered herein [Tang et al., 1996].

151 • Previous theoretical studies have predicted large negative surface potentials at Rhea
152 up to several hundred volts [Roussos et al., 2010; Nordheim et al., 2014] and observations
153 during the Rhea R2 flyby appear to support this [Santolík et al., 2011]. However, for
154 surface potentials to explain the observed energy discrepancy, a negative surface potential
155 of 500V would have to occur uniformly over a large region of Rhea’s surface. Given that
156 the theoretical studies have predicted surface potentials which vary strongly depending
157 on surface location, this is not considered likely.

158 • The bulk plasma velocity is predicted to vary in the vicinity of Rhea and in partic-
159 ular on the Saturn-facing hemisphere [Roussos et al., 2008]. The CAPS plasma velocity
160 measurements during R1 were, however, obtained in this region and do not show this
161 effect to be significant [Wilson et al., 2010].

162 The apparent inconsistency with O^- pickup ions raises two possibilities. Firstly, the
163 signature could be produced by an electron beam oriented perpendicularly to the magnetic
164 field. The longevity of this signatures above the background populations, its spatial

165 occurrence, and the similarity to the unambiguous positive pickup ion signatures, are
166 however highly indicative of negatively charged pickup ions of mass 26 ± 3 u, of a type not
167 previously considered.

3. Origin of the Negative Ions

168 Heavier negative pickup ions could result from carbon-based compounds with positive
169 electron affinities (EA), such as CN^- , C_2H^- , C_2^- , or HCO^- , being produced via sputtering
170 of the moon's surface. Spectroscopic observations of Rhea at ≤ 5.2 μm wavelengths have
171 revealed unusually dark material which is consistent with the presence of either tholin
172 (C-, H-, N-, O- bearing) and/or iron (Fe- bearing) compounds [Ciarniello et al., 2011;
173 Stephan et al., 2012; Scipioni et al., 2014]. This material is also present at Dione, Phoebe,
174 Iapetus, Hyperion, Epimetheus and throughout Saturn's F-ring, thus implying a common
175 process occurring throughout these icy satellites [Clark et al., 2008]. Dark tholin-like
176 material is also apparent in spectroscopic observations of the Galilean icy moons, which is
177 thought to be comprised of hydrocarbon or cyanide compounds [McCord et al., 1998]. An
178 abundance of electrons are also anticipated near Rhea's negatively charged surface which
179 could readily attach onto electrophilic molecules.

180 Visual Infrared Mapping Spectrometer (VIMS) observations of Rhea have shown that an
181 $\sim 1\%$ tholin-type admixture could explain unidentified features in the near-infrared [Cia-
182 rniello et al., 2011]. It therefore initially appears surprising that such a trace constituent
183 would be observed outflowing in significant quantities. The pickup ion trajectories, how-
184 ever, shown in Figure 3, demonstrate how pickup ions originating from different regions
185 in Rhea's exosphere become concentrated in phase space when observed, a phenomenon

186 which appears enhanced for heavier species due to their larger gyroradii. This could
187 explain why a trace heavier species might preferentially be detected.

188 VIMS observations of Rhea's surface are also derived from the top few microns and
189 exogenous material might not have penetrated this far. A thin carbonaceous surface
190 coating on the moon, possibly only a few monolayers thick, could therefore consist of
191 significantly larger fraction of this unidentified dark material than is apparent from remote
192 observations. This could have been deposited from magnetospheric plasma and dust
193 populations, or been delivered by micrometeorite, cometary and interplanetary particles
194 raining into the Saturn system [Clark et al., 2008; Stephan et al., 2012]. At Rhea, the
195 spatial distributions of the unidentified material indeed suggest an external origin, with
196 higher concentrations on the leading and trailing hemispheres pointing to magnetospheric
197 dust and plasma deposition, respectively [Clark et al., 2008; Scipioni et al., 2014].

198 Dark spots are also observed near Rhea's equator which are associated with surface
199 disruptions [Schenk et al., 2011]. The negative pickup ions map back to near Rhea's
200 equatorial regions and the possibility that endogenic carbon-rich material could have been
201 released onto the surface via impact events such as the cause of the Inktomi impact crater,
202 or the discolored spots, or from further large-scale geogocial resurfacing [e.g. Stephan et
203 al., 2010], cannot be discounted.

204 It is possible for tholin-type compounds to be incorporated into the ice from when the
205 moon formed. Compounds such as C_2H_2 , CH_3OH and HCN appear ubiquitously within
206 cometary ices at $\sim 1\%$ of H_2O abundances, thus signifying their presence in the protosolar
207 accretion disk from which the giant planetary systems formed [Mumma & Charnley, 2011].

208 Teolis & Waite [2016] go on to predict the quantity of carbon atoms in Rhea's surface
209 ice to be as high as 13% that of H₂O and processes such as photolysis, radiolysis, and
210 heating could act to process the chemical state of such compounds, whether endogenic or
211 exogenic to Rhea.

212 The CN⁻ (EA = 3.8 eV), C₂H⁻ (EA = 3.0 eV) and C₂⁻ (EA = 3.3 eV) anions can be
213 produced from electrons impacting compounds such as hydrogen cyanide, acetylene and
214 diacetylene [Inoue, 1966; May et al., 2008]. Graphite-compounds could be created through
215 radiation bombardment and surface chemistry [Lifshitz et al., 1990; McCord et al., 1998],
216 which could produce C₂⁻. Sputtering experiments indeed predict the efficient production
217 of the C₂H_x⁻ anions from hydrocarbon compounds [Johnson et al., 1992], and these are
218 suggested as candidate sputter products at Europa [Johnson et al., 1998]. Carbon chain
219 anions have also possibly been observed at Comet Halley [Cordiner & Charnley, 2014] and
220 exist elsewhere in Saturn's magnetosphere, amongst carbon-rich compounds in Titan's
221 ionosphere [Desai et al., 2017a]. The HCO⁻ (EA = 0.31 eV) anion could possibly be
222 formed by deprotonation or dissociative electron attachment of H₂CO or CH₃OH. Further
223 study of the sputtering of carbon-rich ejecta from ices representative of the icy moons of
224 Saturn and Jupiter, could surely provide further insight into which sputtering rates are
225 significant with regards to these anions.

226 Although the aforementioned negative pickup ions appear inconsistent with O⁻, it
227 should be noted that in the differenced ELS spectrogram displayed in Figure 1, fur-
228 ther signatures also consistent with negative pickup ions are present earlier in time at
229 a lower energy. Although too brief to conclusively identify these as negative ions, this

230 might represent the same pickup ion population dispersed in energy via interactions with
231 a surface-generated electric field as observed at the Earth's moon [Poppe et al., 2012], or
232 indeed could correspond to O^- pickup ions given their location in phase space, see Figure
233 3.

4. Densities & Escape Rates

234 Figure 4 shows IMS energy spectra during R1 and R1.5 and the ELS spectrum during
235 R1, corresponding to the pickup ion detections. The ion background is fitted using a
236 Maxwellian water-group velocity distribution which appears to better match the data
237 during R1.5 when Cassini was farther from Rhea's plasma interaction. In either instance
238 the pickup ion detections are clearly identifiable and these fits are sufficient to isolate
239 the pickup ion populations. A lower energy hydrogen population is also present, as well
240 as further high energy populations evident at >4 keV. These are not considered for this
241 analysis.

242 The ELS spectrum shows two distinct electron populations at low and high energies
243 which are represented using a double Kappa distribution [Schippers et al., 2009]. A sig-
244 nificant amount of intermediary electrons are also present which are also approximated
245 by a broad Kappa distribution. The proximity to Rhea's plasma interaction, as well
246 as multiple possible photoelectron populations [Taylor et al., 2017], result in significant
247 variabilities in the electron spectrum during R1. The negatively charged pickup ion pop-
248 ulation consistently remains above the background throughout this variability, see Figure
249 1.

The nongyrotropic pickup ion densities are calculated using an expression derived for partially-filled ring-velocity distributions. In the plasma frame, the pickup ions can be expressed relative to the magnetic field as

$$f(v) = \frac{n}{\Delta\phi v_{b\perp}} \delta(v_{perp} - v_{b\perp}) \delta(v_{\parallel} - v_{b\parallel}), \quad (2)$$

where $\Delta\phi = 2\pi$ in the case of a gyrotropic ring [Wu & Davidson, 1972].

Pickup ion trajectories derived from the extrema of Rhea's exosphere, see Figure 3, are used to estimate that the pickup ions are able to fill $\sim \pi/4$ of velocity space, see Figure 3. This can be expressed in the spacecraft frame as

$$f(v) = \frac{n}{\Delta\phi v_{b\perp}} \delta(v_b - v_c) \delta v_{b\parallel}, \quad (3)$$

where v_c is the velocity corresponding to the CAPS energy bin in which the pickup ions were detected. The spacecraft velocity is removed for an inertial reference frame. The pickup ion density, n , can then be calculated from the count rate, R_c by the expression,

$$n = \frac{R_c \Delta\phi}{v_b \varepsilon A \Delta\phi_c}, \quad (4)$$

where the area of acceptance $A = 0.33 \text{ cm}^{-2}$, the CAPS phase angle coverage $\Delta\phi_c = \pi/2$, and ε is the Microchannel Plate (MCP) efficiency. An MCP efficiency of 0.46 is used for the CO_2^+ pickup ions and 0.50 for the negatively charged pickup ions [Tokar et al., 2012; Stephen & Peko., 2000].

Figure 4 shows the resulting IMS and ELS along-track densities. The CO_2^+ densities peak at $\sim 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ whereas the negatively charged pickup ions peak at values nearly an order of magnitude lower at $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$. The CO_2^+ densities during R1 are also calculated

258 assuming a gyrotropic distribution to demonstrate how such an assumption significantly
259 overestimates abundances.

260 Whilst Rhea's exosphere has shown to be dynamic and variable, the CO_2^+ densities
261 can be integrated over the hemisphere of the moon where the motional electric field will
262 result in ion escape, to calculate approximate global escape rates. Assuming uniform
263 ionisation, this results in an estimated $\sim 4.6 \times 10^{20} \text{ CO}_2^+ \text{ s}^{-1}$ escaping the moon during
264 R1 and $\sim 5.7 \times 10^{20} \text{ CO}_2^+ \text{ s}^{-1}$ during R1.5. This rate is compatible with the varying CO_2
265 production rates resulting from the model of Teolis & Waite [2016]. This is also ~ 0.25
266 times that predicted at Dione which experiences more intense plasma bombardment due
267 to being located deeper inside Saturn's magnetosphere [Wilson et al., 2017]. A similar
268 calculation can be performed for the negative ions which results in an outflow rate of
269 $\sim 5.4 \times 10^{19} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

270 It should be noted that these rates are only an estimate as studies have shown highly
271 varying dynamical processes at Rhea's magnetospheric interaction at small or intermediate
272 scales, and such dynamics may "destroy" or disperse the smooth paths of pick-up ions with
273 small or moderate-sized gyroradii [Roussos et al., 2012]. It is therefore not clear precisely
274 which density should be used to represent globally averaged ion production rates.

275 The outflowing pickup ions will contribute to magnetospheric ion populations. Rhea's
276 CO_2 exosphere may therefore provide a source of the 44 u ions, or the carbon and oxygen
277 ions via dissociative reactions, identified at radial distances of $< 20 R_S$ [Christon et al.,
278 2015]. If the breakup is sufficiently fast, this may provide some explanation for the elevated
279 O_2^+ levels reported by Martens et al. [2008] at Rhea's orbit.

280 Further analysis of the generation of instabilities associated with nongyrotropic pickup
281 ions, in a plasma beta regime representative of Rhea's plasma environment, is required to
282 understand whether the magnetic signature of this mass loading might be visible.

5. Summary & Conclusions

283 This study has analysed the composition, density and outflow rates of positively and
284 negatively charged pickup ion distributions at Saturn's icy moon Rhea and determined
285 the following:

286 • CAPS-IMS observed nongyrotropic fluxes of CO_2^+ pickup ions during the R1 and
287 R1.5 encounters with comparable alongtrack densities of $\lesssim 2 \times 10^{-3} \text{cm}^{-3}$.

288 • The R1 CAPS-ELS detections, previously identified as deriving from the pickup of
289 O^- , are shown as consistent with a heavier species of mass $26 \pm 3u$. These are consequently
290 identified as negatively charged carbon-based compounds produced from tholin-type ma-
291 terial on Rhea's surface.

292 • The negatively charged pickup ions are suggested to consist of CN^- , C_2H^- , C_2^- or
293 HCO^- , resulting from the dark material observed at Rhea and throughout the icy moons
294 of Saturn.

295 • The negatively charged ions were observed with alongtrack densities of $\lesssim 5 \times 10^{-4}$
296 cm^{-3} .

297 • Possible further negative ion signatures are also identified which could represent
298 dispersion in energy as a result of surface charging or a further population of O^- pickup
299 ions.

300 This study provides context for understanding the exospheric and surface compositions
301 and plasma interaction of Rhea as well as other icy satellites in the outer solar system.
302 The trace constituents in Rhea's surface ice, and also at other Saturnian and Jovian
303 icy moons, are largely unconstrained and it remains to be determined just how similar
304 or different these ices are to each other or indeed to ices formed elsewhere in the solar
305 system such as those within comets and further icy bodies.

306 **Acknowledgments.** RTD acknowledges STFC Studentship No.1429777. AJC
307 and GHJ acknowledge support from the STFC consolidated grants to UCL-MSSL
308 ST/K000977/1 and ST/N000722/1. The Cassini CAPS data used are available on the
309 Planetary Database System (PDS) or upon reasonable request.

References

- 310 Carlson, R. W. 1999, A Tenuous Carbon Dioxide Atmosphere on Jupiter's Moon Callisto,
311 *Science*, 283, 820
- 312 Christon, S. P., Hamilton, D. C., Plane, J. M. C., et al. 2015, *Journal of Geophysical*
313 *Research (Space Physics)*, 120, 2720
- 314 Ciarniello, M., Capaccioni, F., Filacchione, G., et al. 2011, Hapke modeling of Rhea
315 surface properties through Cassini-VIMS spectra, *Icarus*, 214, 541
- 316 Clark, R. N., Curchin, J. M., Jaumann, R., et al. 2008, Compositional mapping of Saturn's
317 satellite Dione with Cassini VIMS and implications of dark material in the Saturn
318 system, *Icarus*, 193, 372

- 319 Coates, A. J., Crary, F. J., Lewis, G. R., et al. 2007, Discovery of heavy negative ions in
320 Titans ionosphere, *GRL*, 34, L22103
- 321 Coates, A. J., Johnstone, 1989, A. D., Wilken, B., Jockers, K., & Glassmeier, K.-H. 1989,
322 Velocity space diffusion of pickup water group ions at Comet-Halley, *JGR*, 94, 9983
- 323 Coates, A. J., Jones, G. H., Lewis, G. R., et al. 2010, Negative Ions in the Enceladus
324 Plume, *Icarus*, 206, 618
- 325 Cordiner, M. A., & Charnley, S. B. 2014, Negative ion chemistry in the coma of comet
326 1P-Halley, *MPS*, 49, 21
- 327 Desai, R. T., Cowee, M. M., Wei, H., et al., 2017, Hybrid simulations of positive and
328 negatively charged pickup ions and cyclotron wave generation at Europa, *JGR*, 122, 10.
- 329 Desai, R. T., Coates, A. J., Wellbrock, A., et al. 2017, Carbon chain anions and the
330 growth of complex organic molecules in Titan's ionosphere, *ApJL*, 844, L18
- 331 Hall, D. T., Feldman, P. D., McGrath, M. A., & Strobel, D. F. 1998, The Far-Ultraviolet
332 Oxygen Airglow of Europa and Ganymede, *ApJL*, 499, 475
- 333 Hussmann, H., Sohl, F., & Spohn, T. 2006, Subsurface oceans and deep interiors of
334 medium-sized outer planet satellites and large trans-neptunian objects, *Icarus*, 185, 258
- 335 Inoue, M., Ions ne gatifs forme s dans le cyanoge'ne et lacide cyanhydrique, 1966, *J. Chim.*
336 *Phys.*, 63 1061-1071
- 337 Itikawa, Y. 2009, Cross sections for electron collisions with oxygen molecules, *Journal of*
338 *Physical and Chemical Reference Data*, 38, 1
- 339 Johnson, R. E., & Sundqvist 1992, Electronic sputtering: from atomic physics to contin-
340 uum mechanics, *Physics Today*, 28-36

- 341 Johnson, R. E., Killen, R. M., Waite, J. H., Jr., & Lewis, W. S., Europa's surface com-
342 position and sputter-produced ionosphere, 1998, *GRL*, 25, 3257
- 343 Khurana, K. K., Russell, C. T., & Dougherty, M. K. 2008, Magnetic portraits of Tethys
344 and Rhea, *Icarus*, 193, 465
- 345 Khurana, K. K., Fatemi, S., Lindkvist, J., et al. 2017, The role of plasma slowdown in the
346 generation of Rheas Alfvén wings, *JGR*, 122, 1778
- 347 Lifshitz, Y., Kasi, S. R., Rabalais, J. W., & Eckstein, W. 1990, Subplantation model for
348 film growth from hyperthermal species, *PRB*, 41, 10468
- 349 Martens, H. R., Reisenfeld, D. B., Williams, J. D., Johnson, R. E., & Smith, H. T.
350 2008, Observations of molecular oxygen ions in Saturn's inner magnetosphere, *GRL*,
351 35, L20103
- 352 Mary, et al. 2008, Absolute cross sections for dissociative electron attachment to acetylene
353 and diacetylene, *Phys. Rev. A*, 77, 040701
- 354 McCord, T. B., Hansen, G. B., Clark, R. N., et al. 1998, Non-water-ice constituents in the
355 surface material of the icy Galilean satellites from the Galileo near-infrared mapping
356 spectrometer investigation, *JGR*, 103, 8603
- 357 Meeks, Z., Simon, S., & Kabanovic, S. 2016, A Comprehensive analysis of ion cyclotron
358 waves in the equatorial magnetosphere of Saturn, *PSS*, 129, 47
- 359 Mumma, M. J., & Charnley, S. B. 2011, The Chemical Composition of Comets - Emerging
360 Taxonomies and Natal Heritage, *ARAA.*, 49, 471
- 361 Nordheim, T. A., Jones, G. H., Roussos, E., et al. Detection of a strongly negative surface
362 potential at Saturn's moon Hyperion, 2014, *ARAA*, 41, 7011

- 363 Poppe, A. R., Samad, R., Halekas, J. S., et al. 2012, ARTEMIS observations of lunar
364 pick-up ions in the terrestrial magnetotail lobes, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 39, L17104
- 365 Russell, C. T., Leisner, J. S., Arridge, C. S., Dougherty, M. K., & Blanco-Cano, X. 2006,
366 Nature of magnetic fluctuations in Saturn's middle magnetosphere, *JGR*, 111, A12205
- 367 Roussos, E., Müller, J., Simon, S., et al. 2008, Plasma and fields in the wake of Rhea- 3-D
368 hybrid simulation and comparison with Cassini data, *Ann. Geophys.*, 26, 619
- 369 Roussos, E., Krupp, N., Krüger, H., & Jones, G. H. 2010, Journal of Geophysical Research
370 (Space Physics), 115, A08225
- 371 Roussos, E., Kollmann, P., Krupp, N., et al. 2012, Energetic electron observations of
372 Rheas magnetospheric interaction, *Icarus*, 221, 116
- 373 Saito, Y., Yokota, S., Tanaka, T., et al. 2008, Solar wind proton reflection at the lunar
374 surface: Low energy ion measurement by MAP-PACE onboard SELENE (KAGUYA),
375 *GRL*, 35, L24205.
- 376 Santolík, O., Gurnett, D. A., Jones, G. H., et al. 2011, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, , 38, L19204
- 377 Schenk, P., Hamilton, D. P., Johnson, R. E., et al. 2011, Plasma, plumes and rings: Saturn
378 system dynamics as recorded in global color patterns on its midsize icy satellites, *Icarus*,
379 211, 740
- 380 Schippers, P., André, N., Johnson, R. E., et al. 2009, Identification of photoelectron energy
381 peaks in Saturn's inner neutral torus, Journal of Geophysical Research (Space Physics),
382 114, A12212
- 383 Scipioni, F., Tosi, F., Stephan, K., et al. 2014, Spectroscopic classification of icy satellites
384 of Saturn II: Identification of terrain units on Rhea, *Icarus*, 234, 1.

- 385 Simon, S., Kriegel, H., Saur, J., et al. 2012, Analysis of Cassini magnetic field observations
386 over the poles of Rhea, *Journal of Geophysical Research (Space Physics)*, 117, A07211
- 387 Sittler, E. C., Johnson, R. E., Jurac, S., et al. 2004, Pickup ions at Dione and Enceladus-
388 Cassini Plasma Spectrometer simulations, *JGR*, 109, A01214.
- 389 Stephen, Pekol. 2000, Absolute calibration of a multichannel plate detector for low energy
390 O, O, and O+, *Rev. Sc. Instr.*, 71, 1355.
- 391 Stephan, K., Jaumann, R., Wagner, R., et al. 2010, Dione's spectral and geological prop-
392 erties, *Icarus*, 206, 631
- 393 Stephan, K., Jaumann, R., Wagner, R., et al. 2012, he Saturnian satellite Rhea as seen
394 by Cassini VIMS, *PSS*, 61, 142.
- 395 Tang, et al., O- ESD from O₂ monolayers physisorbed on graphite: a surface mediated
396 mechanism, 1996, *Zeitschrift fr Physik D Atoms, Molecules and Clusters*, 38, 41-44.
- 397 Taylor, et al. 2017, Modelling, analysis and interpretation of photoelectron energy spectra
398 at Enceladus observed by Cassini, *JGR*, doi:10.1002/2017JA024536, in press.
- 399 Teolis, B. D., Jones, G. H., Miles, P. F., et al. 2010, Cassini finds an oxygen-carbon dioxide
400 atmosphere at Saturns icy moon Rhea, *Science*, 330, 1813
- 401 Teolis, B. D., & Waite, J. H. 2016, Dione and Rhea seasonal exospheres revealed by
402 Cassini CAPS and INMS, *Icarus*, 272, 277
- 403 Tokar, R. L., Johnson, R. E., Thomsen, M. F., et al. 2012, Detection of exospheric O₂+
404 at Saturn's moon Dione, *GRL*, 39, L03105
- 405 Tortora, P., Zannoni, M., Hemingway, D., et al. 2016, Rhea gravity field and interior
406 modeling from Cassini data analysis, *Icarus*, 264, 264

- 407 Wu, C. S., & Davidson, R. C. 1972, Electromagnetic instabilities produced by neutral-
408 particle ionization in interplanetary space, *JGR*, 77, 5399
- 409 Wilson, R. J., Tokar, R. L., Kurth, W. S., & Persoon, A. M. 2010, Properties of the
410 thermal ion plasma near Rhea as measured by the Cassini plasma spectrometer (IMS),
411 *JGR*, 115, A05201
- 412 Wilson, R. J., Bagenal, F., & Persoon, A. M. 2017, Journal of Geophysical Research
413 (Space Physics), 122, 7256
- 414 Young, D. T., et al. 2013, Cassini Plasma Spectrometer Investigation, Space Science
415 Reviews, *SSR*, 114, 1-112

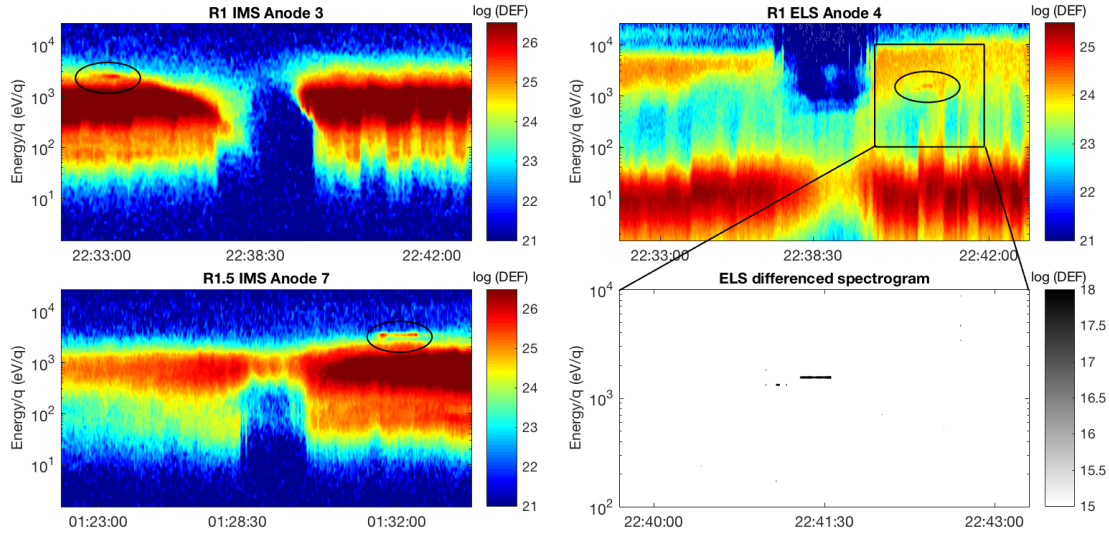


Figure 1. The left-hand panels show CAPS IMS differential energy flux (DEF) spectrograms acquired during the R1 and R1.5 encounters with Rhea and the right-hand panels CAPS ELS DEF spectrogram acquired during the R1 encounter. The IMS pickup ion detections are encircled at 22:33:00 during R1 at ~ 2.5 keV and 01:33:00 during R1.5 at ~ 3.5 keV. The negative pickup ion detections are evident at 22:41:30 at ~ 1.5 keV. The lower right-hand panel shows a differenced plot of the ELS data which shows a negatively charged pickup ion signature similar in appearance to the positive pickup ion signatures.

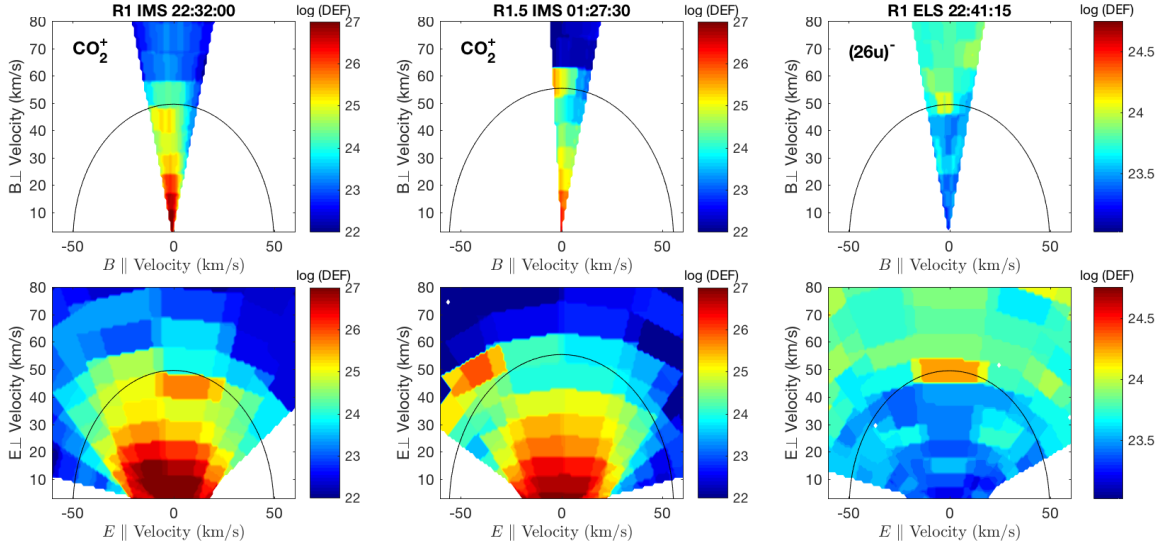


Figure 2. The CAPS data are converted into velocity space assuming CO_2^+ (left and centre panels) and mass 26 u (right-hand panels). These are projected into planes parallel and perpendicular to the magnetic field and $-v \times B$ electric field for a single energy sweep. A linear interpolation is used for overlapping FOVs which dilutes the detections when projected relative to the magnetic field. The geometrical look directions are used which, combined with each anodes 20° width, smears the detections in the parallel and anti-parallel directions. The pickup velocity ring-contour are overlaid.

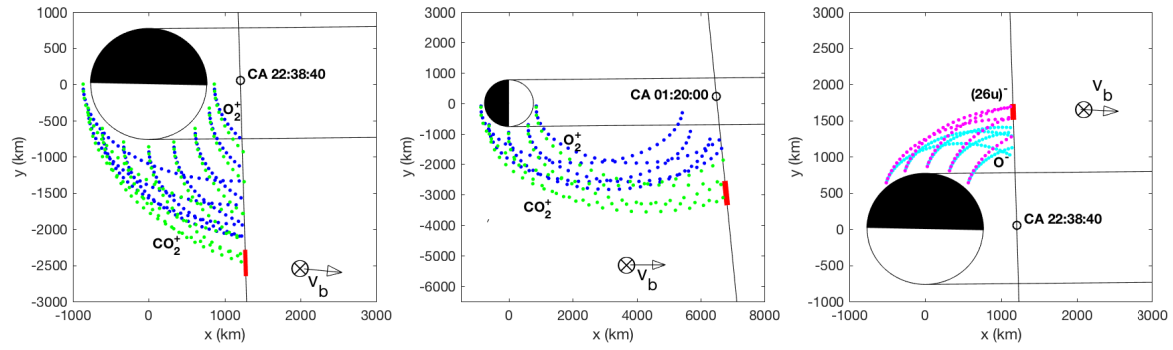


Figure 3. Nominal trajectories of outflowing O_2^+ (blue) and CO_2^+ (green) during R1 in the left-hand panel and during R1.5 in the centre panels. Outflowing O^- (cyan) and negative ions of 24u (magenta) are shown during R1 in the right-hand panel. The trajectories are calculated based upon Cassini plasma and field measurements at the time of detection and displayed in a Rhea centred coordinate system. The nominal corotational wake and approximate sunlit regions of Rhea are marked and times along Cassini's trajectory where the pickup ions were detected are marked red. The pickup ion trajectories originate within 100 km of Rhea's surface where increased neutral abundances are anticipated.

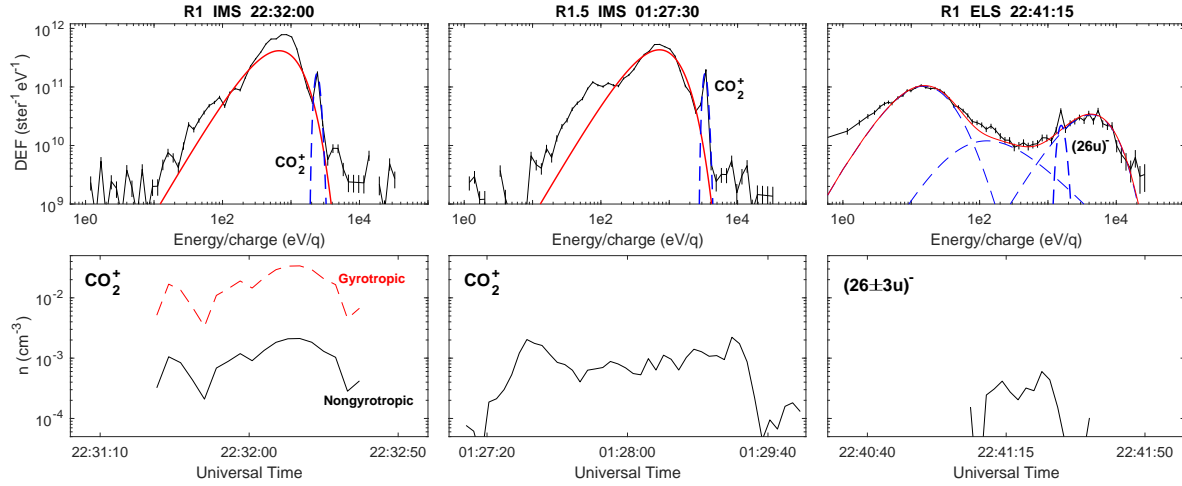


Figure 4. The top panels show an IMS and ELS spectrum from each of the pickup ion detections identified in Figure 1. The IMS background plasma is fitted to using Maxwellian velocity distributions for water-group ions and the ELS spectra is fitted using a low, medium and high energy kappa distributions. The lower panels show the calculated alongtrack densities.