Note

Hot CH₄ in the polar regions of Jupiter

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A B S T R A C T

We have obtained 3.3–3.4-µm spectro-images of Jupiter including CH₄ and H₂ emission lines from both polar regions at the Gemini North telescope. We find that the peak of the 3-µm CH₄ northern bright spot is located at ~200° (SysIII) longitude, ~20° west of the center of the 8-µm north-polar bright spot, and does not coincide with the 3-µm H₂ bright spot. We derive high temperatures (500–850 K) from CH₄ rotational lines on the bright spots of both polar regions, above the 1-µbar pressure level, while we find cooler temperatures (<350 K) over the 8-µm spot. The intensity ratios of the various 3-µm vibrational bands of CH₄ are roughly constant, indicating that the upper states of these bands are mostly populated by non-thermal excitation mechanisms, such as auroral particle precipitation and/or Joule heating, in contrast with the 8-µm thermal emission.

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1. Introduction

The region of the 8-µm north-polar brightening of CH₄, which is known to be warmer than the surrounding polar region (Kim et al., 1985; Drossart et al., 1993), has been observed to be stationary at 180° (SysIII) longitude since the early 1980s (Caldwell et al., 1983; Sada et al., 2003; Greatthouthouse, private communication, 2014), whereas the south-polar bright spot has been observed to wander between 268°W and 96°E (SysIII) longitude in the south polar region (Caldwell et al., 1988). The morphology of the northern 8-µm CH₄ bright spot is similar to that of the 13-µm C₂H₆ polar emission (Sada et al., 2003), but it is very different from that of the H₂ auroral oval (Satoh et al., 1996) suggesting a significantly different excitation process for the two hydrocarbons than for H₂.

The 3-µm polar (and presumably auroral) CH₄ emission was first reported in 1993 in ProtoCAM images of Jupiter (Kim et al., 1991) obtained at the NASA Infrared Telescope Facility. Nearly two decades later enhanced 3-µm CH₄ emission from a small area near the south pole was detected with CGS4 on the United Kingdom Infrared Telescope (UKIRT) (Kim et al., 2009). The interpretation of the 3-µm CGS4 CH₄ spectrum was hampered, however, by its low signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio. It was difficult to disentangle the ν₄, ν₅ + ν₄ − ν₆, and ν₂ + ν₃ − ν₂ lines of CH₄ from the complicated structure of the CH₄ bands, nor was it possible to compare the morphology of the 3-µm CH₄ emission with that of the 8-µm CH₄ polar brightening for the study of the excitation processes of these vibrational bands.

2. Observations and data reduction

In order to investigate the excitation processes of CH₄ in the auroral regions, we have obtained R ~ 18,000 spectra at significantly improved S/N ratio of the north and south polar regions in the 3.30–3.39 µm interval using the Gemini Near-Infrared Spectrograph (GNIRS) with a 0.1 arcsec wide slit, at Gemini North on January 13, and February 4, 2013 (UT), respectively. The relative velocities of Earth and Jupiter were 20.60 and 26.26 km/s, respectively, which allowed the partial separation of the lines of the fundamental ν₂ band of CH₄ from their telluric counterparts. The spectral region observed also contained lines of the ν₂ + ν₃ − ν₂ and ν₂ + ν₃ − ν₂ bands (Kim and Geballe, 2005; Kim et al., 2014), which do not have significant telluric counterparts, although some of them are obscured by other telluric absorption lines. We oriented the 0.1 arcsec wide slit perpendicular to the central meridian and stepped in latitude from just off of each pole through each polar region, using 0.8 arcsec steps with an exposure time of 4 min for each latitude. The atmospheric seeing at 3.3 µm was 0.5–0.6 arcsec; thus the raw data are undersampled in latitude and highly oversampled in longitude (the array pixel dimension was 0.0513 arcsec on the sky). In the longitudinal direction the data were binned by ~0.5 arcsec to match the latitudinal sampling more closely. Since even at the lowest latitudes Jupiter covered no more than 25 arcsec within the 49 arcsec slit, it was possible to nod the telescope along the slit and observe Jupiter 100% of the time, using the sky portions in the preceding or succeeding spectro-images to subtract the sky emission. The limb positions were determined by where the intensities from the disk decrease rapidly, but limb brightening or darkening produces an uncertainty of ~0.3 arcsec in the limb positions. Taking seeing into account we estimate the total uncertainty in the longitudinal direction to be less than 1 arcsec. However, the relative positions of the H₂ and CH₄ bright spots are accurate to much better than the seeing limit because they were measured on the same spectro-images.

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3. Morphology and temperatures

Fig. 1 contains 3.3-μm CH₄ and 3.4-μm H₃⁺ images of Jupiter extracted from strong CH₄ and H₃⁺ emission lines in the spectra. The CH₄ lines are shown in Fig. 2; a complex of strong 3.4-μm H₃⁺ lines (not shown in Fig. 2; see Fig. 6 of Kim et al. (2010) for example), which do not overlap with strong CH₄ lines, are used to construct the H₃⁺ images in Fig. 1. The latitudinal stripes observed at different times are shifted and are stretched or compressed so that the longitudes for each stripe align and the central meridian is 180° (SysIII). The CMLS at the times of the observations, and the Io footprints and the main ovals observed in the ultraviolet (Grodent et al., 2003; part of the boundary of the southern region is over or near the horizon). Dark areas are where data are not available or intensities are relatively very low. The H₃⁺ and CH₄ emission intensities are normalized to the brightest regions in the images to produce a common color scale (shown at right). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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Fig. 2a and b shows spectra extracted from the northern and southern 3.3-μm bright regions. The wavelength ranges where ν₀, ν₁ + ν₄ − ν₀, and ν₂ + ν₃ − ν₀ lines dominate the emission from Jupiter, can be seen in the model spectra near the bottom of each panel. We derive temperatures from the rotational lines of the CH₄ bands using the following considerations. Radiative transfer programs that simulate the fluorescent emission of the 3-μm bands of CH₄ have been developed for analysis of jovian spectra (Drossart et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2009, 2010, 2014). For the CH₄ molecular line list, we adopt the HITRAN database (Rothman et al., 2009). Since CH₄ is a spherical top molecule, its dipole moment is small, resulting in very low rotational Einstein A coefficients. For the rotational states we measured, the A coefficients are significantly less than collisional deexcitation rates in the auroral regions. Thus one may assume that the rotational-state populations of CH₄ are in LTE. The populations of excited vibrational states of CH₄ are probably not controlled by collisions, however, due to the high values of the vibrational Einstein A coefficients (Kim et al., 2014) compared to collision rates. Therefore, regardless of the energy sources (Wong et al., 2000, 2003) over the auroral regions, the rotational populations of the CH₄ states are governed by LTE, and the rotational structures of the CH₄ bands can be constructed by radiative transfer equations with Planckian source functions. The rotational temperatures derived from the intensities of individual lines of the various 3-μm bands of CH₄ thus reflect the local atmospheric temperatures.

In order to determine the nature of the vibrational band emission, we first constructed synthetic spectra at different rotational temperatures to be compared with the observations, and found the best-fit rotational temperatures of 500 ± 50 and 850 ± 70 K for the northern and southern bright spots, respectively, as presented in Fig. 2a and b. These temperatures are significantly higher than those derived from surrounding non-auroral zones and equatorial regions (Kim et al., 2014), and are even higher than the temperatures (~350 K) derived from the 3.3-μm spectra obtained at the location (160–200° SysIII longitude, and 60–80° N latitude) of the 8-μm bright spot (spectrum and fit not shown here).

We then examined the intensity ratios ν₃/ν₁ + ν₄ − ν₀ and ν₁/ν₂ + ν₃ − ν₂ as well as the intensities of these bands in order to determine whether the observed vibrational band emission from them is thermal or nonthermal. As seen in Fig. 3, the intensity ratios of the vibrational bands are relatively constant compared with the intensity profiles themselves in both polar regions. This is significant, because radiative excitation (by sunlight) of the ν₁ state and of the ν₁ + ν₄ and ν₂ + ν₃ states occurs at different wavelengths (3.3 μm and 2.3 μm, respectively). Since the spectrum of thermal radiation is determined by the blackbody temperature, it is not plausible that local thermal radiation can produce the observed uniform intensity ratios in the polar regions, where the temperatures, and hence the ratio of thermal radiation at 3.3 μm and 2.3 μm, vary drastically from
Fig. 2. (a) Comparison of the north polar bright spot with a CH$_4$ model spectrum with a 500 K rotational temperature (H$_3^+$ lines are not included in the model). The red line is the model sum of the contributions from all three CH$_4$ bands; the individual combination bands are shown as dots. The continuum levels in the spectra of the northern and southern bright spots are approximately 0.25 and 0.48 mW m$^{-2}$ μm$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$, respectively. The S/N ratio is $\sim 3$ for an intensity of 0.1 mW m$^{-2}$ μm$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$. (b) Comparison of the south polar bright spot with a CH$_4$ model spectrum with a 850 K rotational temperature. The spectrum of the standard star, HIP23871, used for correcting for telluric absorptions in the jovian spectra, is also shown. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Fig. 3. The relative intensities of the $\nu_3$ and $\nu_3 + \nu_4 - \nu_2$, $\nu_2 + \nu_3 - \nu_2$ bands of CH$_4$, and the intensity ratios $\nu_3/\nu_3 + \nu_4 - \nu_2$, and $\nu_2/\nu_3 + \nu_3 - \nu_2$ for the four stripes containing bright line emission, in each polar region. From the top of this figure, the approximate latitudinal ranges at the central meridian for the four stripes are 70–78°N, 66–70°N, 64–70°S, and 70–90°S. The intensity ratios near the limbs are uncertain due to low signals, and those data with large error bars were cut off. 1 – σ error bars are shown. Note the relatively uniform intensity ratios in both polar regions, although the relative intensities vary with longitude.
region to region. A good example of a uniform $v_3/v_1 \cdot v_4 - v_4$ ratio is the non-auroral 3-μm CH$_4$ emission on the disk of Jupiter excited by sunlight (Kim et al., 2014). This ratio is also very similar on the disks of Saturn (Kim and Geballe, 2005) and Titan (Kim et al., 2000), because they receive the same intensity ratio of solar radiation at 3.3 and 2.3 μm as Jupiter, although the absolute solar insulations are different.

4. Results and discussion

The nearly constant intensity ratios in Fig. 3 suggest that the polar CH$_4$ molecules are excited by source(s) whose energy distributions are similar throughout the auroral regions so that the ratios of energy inputs at 3.3 μm and 2.3 μm are similar, although the absolute energy inputs may be different from region to region. The candidates for providing this kind of broad energy sources in the near-IR range are thought to be auroral particle precipitation and/or Joule heating, which should mainly occur above the 1-bar pressure level, where the atmosphere becomes ionized and the CH$_4$ mixing ratio rapidly decreases. This is in contrast to the 8-μm CH$_4$ thermal radiation which forms around the 10–20 μbar level (Drossart et al., 1993), where the CH$_4$ column density is much higher.

The first step in determining the cause of the different morphologies of the 3- and 8-μm CH$_4$ bright spots should be an investigation of the radiative processes at the different altitudes where the 3- and 8-μm CH$_4$ line emission as well as H$_2$ line emission (Lystrup et al., 2008) occur. At present, however, due to lack of vertically resolved observational data over the polar regions, it is premature to investigate the detailed radiative processes in order to determine which of the above candidates is the dominant energy source causing the infrared emission. One of the principal objectives of the Juno Mission is to study Jupiter’s magnetosphere near the poles with JIRAM (Jupiter InfraRed Auroral Mapper, Adriani et al., 2008), an on-board IR imager and low-resolution IR spectrometer. Successful observations of vertically resolved auroral CH$_4$ emission by JIRAM/Juno, which is expected to be at Jupiter in 2016, may shed light on these unresolved issues. Interpretation of the Juno observations could be aided by observations of jovian auroral line emission, using ground-based 3- and 8-μm imaging or spectroscopy, which are contemporaneous with Juno’s JIRAM and UVS measurements.

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