

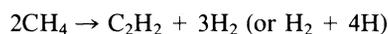
Reports

Ethane Ocean on Titan

Abstract. *It is proposed that Saturn's satellite Titan is covered by an ocean one to several kilometers deep consisting mainly of ethane. If the ocean is in thermodynamic equilibrium with an atmosphere of 3 percent (mole fraction) methane, then its composition is roughly 70 percent ethane, 25 percent methane, and 5 percent nitrogen. Photochemical models predict that ethane is the dominant end product of methane photolysis so that the evolving ocean is both the source and sink for continuing photolysis. The coexisting atmosphere is compatible with Voyager data.*

The Voyager 1 radio occultation experiment placed a probable upper limit on the abundance of methane in the lower atmosphere of Titan of 3 mole percent (1), a value well below the 10 percent obtained by assuming the atmosphere to be in equilibrium with a pure CH₄ liquid surface at 94 K. The near-surface temperature gradient inferred from the data is 1.38 ± 0.1 K/km, essentially that of an unsaturated N₂ adiabat over a solid surface. Thus a predominantly CH₄ ocean is very unlikely (2, 3). However, the present abundance of CH₄ in the atmosphere will be consumed by photochemical processes in a time on the order of 10⁷ years. An almost pure N₂ atmosphere is compatible with the presence of an ocean if the dominant oceanic constituent is less volatile than CH₄ and substantially depresses the CH₄ vapor pressure. Photochemical modeling suggests a natural candidate—ethane. A C₂H₆-rich ocean containing ~ 25 percent CH₄ is not only consistent with the occultation data but also provides a long-lived (≥ 10⁹ year) source for CH₄ photolysis. The idea of an ocean in which the CH₄ vapor pressure is depressed by the presence of higher hydrocarbons has been suggested independently by Flasar (2, 4).

Methane is readily photolyzed in the mesosphere of Titan by absorption of sunlight shortward of 1450 Å to yield the radicals ¹CH₂, CH₂, and CH, which can react to produce C₂H₄ and C₂H₂ (5). The net result can be summarized as



With rapid loss of hydrogen by escape, conversion of CH₄ into the heavier hydrocarbon-poor hydrocarbons is extremely

efficient (> 95 percent per CH₄ dissociation) and irreversible. The most likely fate of C₂H₄ in the mesosphere is dissociation to C₂H₂. Since there are no effective permanent sinks for C₂H₂ in the mesosphere, the molecule flows down to the stratosphere and is ultimately removed by condensation at the tropopause.

Photochemistry in the stratosphere is initiated by absorption of photons be-

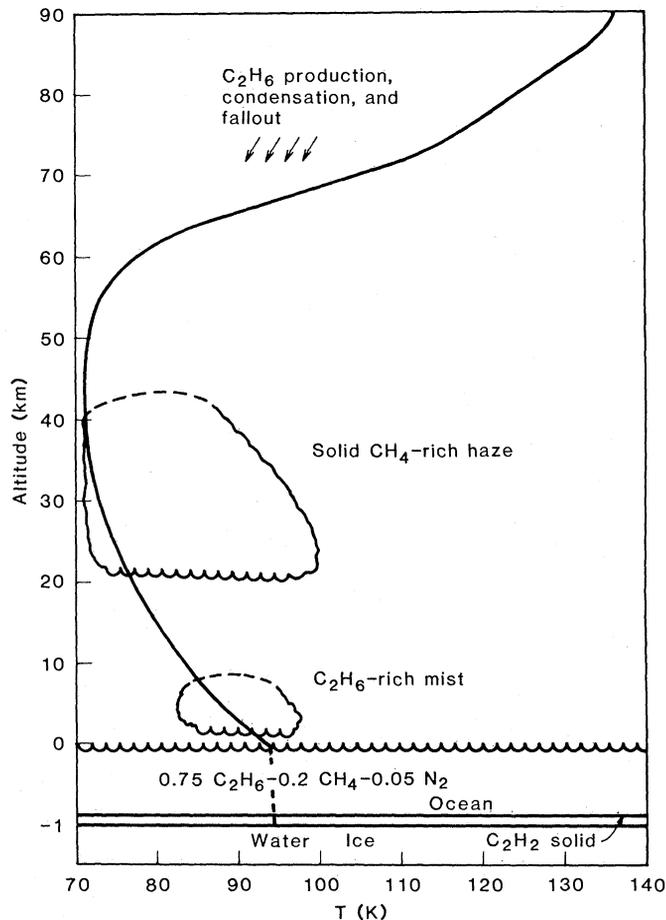
tween 1450 and 2000 Å by C₂H₂, resulting in the photosensitized dissociation of CH₄, and ultimately the production of C₂H₆. The net result can be summarized as



where C₂H₂ plays the role of a catalyst (6). With the formation of C₄H₂ (diacetylene) it is possible to drive the photosensitized dissociation of CH₄ with photons as soft as 2300 Å. Since the solar flux increases drastically from 1450 to 2300 Å, the rate of C₂H₆ production in the atmosphere can be much larger than that of C₂H₂. Once it is formed, C₂H₆ is stable against photolysis in part because of shielding by CH₄ and C₂H₂. Stratospheric C₂H₆ is lost primarily by condensation at the tropopause.

The column-averaged mixing ratios for stratospheric H₂, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, C₂H₂, and C₃H₈ predicted by the model (and compared with observed values shown in parentheses) are, respectively, 2.1 × 10⁻³ (2 × 10⁻³), 1.7 × 10⁻⁵ (2 × 10⁻⁵), 3.3 × 10⁻⁸ (4 × 10⁻⁷), 4 × 10⁻⁶ (2 × 10⁻⁶), and 7.9 × 10⁻⁷ (2 to 4 × 10⁻⁶); the predicted values compare favorably with the observed values (7). In the

Fig. 1. Model of Titan's near-surface and atmospheric structures. Altitude and temperature data from (1). Below surface the temperature in the ocean is assumed to follow an adiabat. Between ~ 10 and 20 km coexisting solid and liquid haze may be present. Note the change in altitude scale below 0 km.



current epoch, CH₄ is being destroyed in the atmosphere at the rate of 1.5×10^{10} cm⁻² sec⁻¹ and converted into C₂H₆, C₂H₂, and C₃H₈ at the rates 5.8×10^9 , 1.2×10^9 , and 1.4×10^8 cm⁻² sec⁻¹. The rates of H and H₂ escape from the exosphere are 5.5×10^9 and 7.2×10^9 cm⁻² sec⁻¹. Over the age of the solar system then, a kilometer-deep primarily ethane liquid surface layer in coexistence with CH₄ and N₂ has accumulated. This depth is compatible with limits derived by Sagan and Dermott (8) from a study of the tidal damping of Titan's orbital eccentricity.

Thermodynamic data on the C₂H₆-CH₄-N₂ system is restricted to temperatures above 110 K (9); however, there are lower temperature data on the binary end-members of this ternary, and we have estimated equilibrium abundances of the three components for the present conditions at the surface of Titan. In the C₂H₆-CH₄ binary (10), the C₂H₆ vapor pressure at 94 K, Titan's surface temperature, is only $\sim 10^{-5}$ bars. If we require the CH₄ mixing ratio at the base of the atmosphere to be constrained between 1.6 and 3 percent, as suggested by Voyager data, then the CH₄ mole fraction of the liquid is between 13 and 25 percent (11). To estimate the N₂ content of the ocean, N₂-CH₄ and N₂-C₂H₆ solubility data (12) were used to estimate the Henry's law constant for N₂ in the C₂H₆-CH₄ mixture (13). Assuming the ternary system to be ideal, we find an N₂ mole fraction in the ocean of $X(\text{N}_2) \approx 0.05$ (14). The presence of at least several percent propane dissolved in the liquid, as implied by the Voyager data, does not alter substantially the CH₄ and N₂ mixing ratios derived above.

At the present temperature of Titan's surface, C₂H₂ is a solid. We estimate its solubility in the ocean at 94 K to be $\leq 3.1 \times 10^{-4}$ (15). The ocean floor should be covered with a solid C₂H₂ layer 100 to 200 m thick (16) plus a small amount of heavier organic debris (17).

We turn now to the atmospheric structure and meteorology above an C₂H₆-CH₄ ocean. A rising parcel of gas, expanding adiabatically, forms C₂H₆-rich droplets and follows a temperature path defined by a "wet" adiabat. Since the relevant vapor pressure is predominantly that of C₂H₆, the resulting lapse rate is found to be about 1.4 K/km, essentially indistinguishable from the dry N₂ adiabat or the radio occultation result of 1.38 ± 0.1 K/km (1). This should be contrasted with the expected wet adiabatic lapse rate of 0.6 K/km for a CH₄ ocean (18). Despite the small amount of condensa-

tion, it is possible to have significant scattering optical depth: the condensation of a few tens of microbars of C₂H₆ into 0.1- μ m droplets gives an optical depth in excess of unity. This may affect the radiative-convective transport in the lower atmosphere, which could be relevant to understanding the transition from adiabatic to subadiabatic conditions at 3.5 km, as inferred from the radio occultation data.

At successively higher levels in the atmosphere, droplet condensation still occurs; the composition of the droplets becomes more CH₄-rich, as dictated by the rapidly decreasing C₂H₆ vapor pressure and nearly constant CH₄ gas mixing ratio. At about 80 K, at an altitude of about 15 km, two condensates are formed—a CH₄-rich solid and a very small amount of liquid that grades with decreasing temperature to a eutectic composition of about 35 percent C₂H₆ at 77 K (19). This defines the predominant region of CH₄ condensation and haze formation in the troposphere.

The structures of ocean and atmosphere are illustrated in Fig. 1. The ocean contains the equivalent of at least one Titan atmosphere of CH₄, sufficient to maintain photolysis for $\geq 10^9$ years, and at least one-half Titan atmosphere of N₂, a significant buffer of the present atmosphere. The most important observational tests of our model are (i) verification of the presence of CH₄ clouds as an opacity source in the lower atmosphere (20); (ii) detection of C₂H₆ saturation or near saturation in the lower troposphere; and (iii) evidence (from radar or other sources) of an essentially global ocean, since the expected depth exceeds nearly all probable elevation differences for an icy satellite such as Ganymede.

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References and Notes

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7. The complete model is referred to Y. L. Yung, M. Allen, and J. P. Pinto [*Astrophys. J. Suppl. Ser.*, in press]. The column-averaged mixing ratio is defined as the ratio of the column-integrated abundance of a given species to the same column of N₂ above the tropopause. The observations are from Voyager 1 and 2 published data [*Science* **212** (10 April 1981); *Nature (London)* **292** (20 August 1981); *J. Geophys. Res.* **87** (1 March 1982)]. Integrated production rates and fluxes refer to the surface.
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14. A miscibility gap is possible with an N₂-CH₄ layer separating above a primarily C₂H₆-CH₄ layer (9). An approximate extrapolation of the 111 K data down to 94 K, suggests that the miscibility gap requires $X(\text{N}_2) \geq 0.15$.
15. Calculated from data in J. M. Prausnitz (13, p. 385) and G. T. Preston and J. M. Prausnitz [*Ind. Eng. Chem. Process Des. Dev.* **9**, 264 (1970)].
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17. We also examined the solubility of minor constituents in the ocean. The CO₂ is sufficiently soluble that an amount equal to the inferred atmospheric abundance of CO [B. L. Lutz, C. de Bergh, T. Owen, *Science* **220**, 1374 (1983)] may be dissolved. The CO and H₂ are relatively insoluble. Because the ocean is capable of dissolving large amounts of Ar and Kr it will control their atmospheric abundances. The Kr/Ar ratio over the ocean can be predicted and is thus diagnostic of the evolution of Titan.
18. Calculated from a generalized form of an equation described by J. S. Houghton [*Physics of Atmospheres* (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1977), p. 19]. G. F. Lindal *et al.* (1), in computing the saturated adiabat for CH₄, used an expression that omitted a term involving the change of vapor pressure with temperature and hence found a value of 0.3 K/km.
19. The temperature and composition at which the solid-liquid boundary is crossed depends on the surface CH₄ mole fraction, assumed to be 3 percent. Eutectic composition estimated from F. Pavese [*J. Chem. Thermodyn.* **10**, 369 (1978)] and other data (15).
20. Models that support the presence of methane clouds are those of R. Courtin [*Icarus* **51**, 466 (1982)] and R. E. Samuelson [*ibid.* **53**, 364 (1983)].
21. We thank J. Pearl, D. M. Hunten, and C. Sagan for helpful discussions and R. E. Samuelson and F. M. Flasar for detailed reviews of the manuscript. Supported by NASA grants NSG 7376 and NAGW 185. Contribution number 3933 from the Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences, California Institute of Technology.

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