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## Key Points:

- Application of photometric correction to Cassini-VIMS data
- Computation of Dione albedo maps at VIS and IR wavelengths
- Retrieval of VIS slopes and water ice band depth maps

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## Photometric Modeling and VIS-IR Albedo Maps of Dione From Cassini-VIMS

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**Abstract** We report about visible and infrared albedo maps and spectral indicators of Dione's surface derived from the complete Visual and Infrared Mapping Spectrometer (VIMS) data set acquired between 2004 and 2017 during the Cassini tour in Saturn's system. Maps are derived by applying a photometric correction necessary to disentangle the intrinsic albedo of the surface from illumination and viewing geometry occurring at the time of the observation. The photometric correction is based on the Shkuratov et al. (2011, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jps.2011.06.011>) method which yields values of the surface equigonal albedo. Dione's surface albedo maps are rendered at five visible (VIS: 0.35, 0.44, 0.55, 0.7, and 0.95  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and five infrared (IR: 1.046, 1.540, 1.822, 2.050, and 2.200  $\mu\text{m}$ ) wavelengths in cylindrical projection with a  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  angular resolution in latitude and longitude, corresponding to a spatial resolution of 4.5 km/bin. Apart from visible and infrared albedo maps, we report about the distribution of the two visible spectral slopes (0.35–0.55 and 0.55–0.95  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and water ice 2.050  $\mu\text{m}$  band depth computed after having applied the photometric correction. The derived spectral indicators are employed to trace Dione's composition variability on both global and local scales allowing to study the dichotomy between the bright-leading and dark-trailing hemispheres, the distribution of fresh material on the impact craters and surrounding ejecta, and the resurfacing of the bright material within the chasmata caused by tectonism.

## 1. Introduction

The application of a photometric correction to icy surfaces hyperspectral data is an operation necessary to remove the illumination and viewing effects from I/F spectra, to derive spectral reflectance, and to correctly associate spectral variations to changes in composition or physical properties of the surface. Different models have been proposed to model the phase function of a planetary surface by using parameters that depend on the physical characteristics of the regolith, such as the surface's scattering behavior, roughness, and porosity. The most widely used models are those based on Minnaert (1941), Hapke (1993, 2002), and Shkuratov et al. (1999) formulations. Other authors have modeled the surface phase function by fitting the observational data with polynomial series (Besse et al., 2013; Buratti et al., 2011; Hicks et al., 2011; Hillier et al., 1999).

In this work we are adopting the Shkuratov et al. (2011) photometric correction to derive albedo maps of Dione's surface from disk-resolved Cassini-Visual and Infrared Mapping Spectrometer (VIMS) data spanning in the 0.35–5.0  $\mu\text{m}$  spectral range. VIMS data have already been exploited to realize global compositional maps of Dione following different approaches to mitigate the effects of the photometric response of the surface: Stephan et al. (2010) and Scipioni et al. (2013) have used the Spectral Angle Mapper (Yuhas et al., 1992) to compare the surface spectral properties with previously defined spectral endmembers. This technique reduces the influence of the photometric effects between pixels acquired at varying illumination/viewing geometries. Both authors have found a significant dichotomy between the bright water ice-rich leading hemisphere and the dark non-icy material on the trailing hemisphere. Moreover, they have found that bright and water ice-rich units are those associated with the ejecta departing from the geologically recent Creusa crater and with the linear features probably caused by tectonism. In Scipioni et al. (2017) several spectral indicators have been used to trace the distribution of the submicron grains caused by the bombardment of charged particles and by micrometeorite gardening. The resulting maps were built without applying an exhaustive photometric correction but only normalizing VIMS data at a fixed wavelength (2.230  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The analysis performed

by Clark et al. (2008) indicates that the dark material on the trailing hemisphere of Dione is caused by the bombardment of dark submicron grains that originated outside the Saturnian system, possibly of cometary or Kuiper Belt origin. These submicron particles are also the scatterers originating the Rayleigh scattering visible in the blue spectral range. All these results were achieved from a VIMS mosaic acquired during the 2005 October 11th flyby with a fixed phase angle of  $22^\circ$ . A comparison of Dione disk-integrated colors and water ice band properties retrieved from observations taken in a wide range of illumination and viewing geometries in the context of the other Saturn's system satellites and rings is given in Filacchione et al. (2012, 2013). So far, the best spatially resolved albedo map of Dione has been derived from ISS (Imaging Science Subsystem) camera images by Schenk et al. (2011). The map is photometrically corrected at visible colors reaching a spatial resolution of 1–1.5 km/pixel above the entire surface of the satellite. The add-on of this work is the exploitation of the complete VIMS data set and the application of a rigorous formalism to derive photometric correction necessary to compute visible near-infrared albedo and spectral indicator maps of Dione.

## 2. Observations and Data Selection

During the 13 yearlong Cassini mission in Saturn's system, VIMS (Brown et al., 2004) has collected hyperspectral data of Dione's surface during five targeted flybys that occurred on 11 October 2005, closest approach at 17:59 at a minimum distance of 500 km; 7 April 2010, 05:16, 503 km; 12 December 2011, 09:39, 99 km; 16 June 2015, 20:12, 516 km; and 17 August 2015, 18:33, 474 km. Apart from the aforementioned cases, VIMS has returned disk-resolved data on numerous other occasions from greater distances, extending the spatial coverage at lower resolution and at varying illumination/viewing conditions. This data set has been used to perform disk-integrated observation analysis (Filacchione et al., 2007, 2010). In this work we have exploited the entire VIMS data set by searching all observations targeted at Dione. VIMS data have been calibrated in radiance factor units,  $I/F$  (where  $I$  is the reflected intensity of light from the surface and  $\pi F$  is the plane-parallel incident solar flux) using the RC17 version pipeline (Clark et al., 2012). Each VIMS observation geometry has been computed by means of SPICE reconstructed kernels (Acton, 1996) which determine the geographic position of each VIMS pixel on Dione's surface (longitude and latitude position), the corresponding illumination and viewing conditions (incidence, emission, phase angles, local solar time) and spatial resolution (Cassini altitude above the surface). These quantities are computed at the pixel's center and on the four corners of the pixel for the entire Dione data set. A total of 421,323 and 470,490 pixels are acquired on Dione's surface from the VIMS-VIS and IR spectral channels, respectively. However, not all these data points are useful for building an albedo map because unfavorable observation geometry sometimes occurs resulting in poor spatial resolution or in too much oblique illumination and viewing angles. In addition, the signal in some low phase observations is saturated and unusable. The data set is therefore filtered to reduce the presence of shadows caused by topography, to achieve a good signal to noise, and to remove extreme observation conditions not suitable for the production of global maps. As a consequence of these requirements, the following rules have been applied to the data set to exploit only the good pixels: (1) unsaturated signal lower than 4,000 DN (VIMS detectors have a dynamical range of 12 bits, corresponding to 1–4,096 Digital Numbers, or DN), (2) values of the incidence and emission angles on the pixel's center  $\leq 80^\circ$ , (3) value of the solar phase angle on the pixel's center  $10^\circ \leq \text{phase} \leq 90^\circ$ , and (4) Cassini altitude  $\leq 100,000$  km from the surface, corresponding to a spatial resolution better than 50 km/px in nominal resolution mode and 17 or  $17 \times 25$  km in high-resolution mode, respectively, for the VIS and IR channels. By applying these criteria the filtered data set is reduced to 156,728 and 167,787 pixels, respectively, for the VIS (at  $0.55 \mu\text{m}$ ) and IR (at  $1.046 \mu\text{m}$ ) channels. The photometric correction and resulting albedo maps shown later are derived by processing the filtered data sets.

## 3. Photometric Correction

In this work we have adopted the method given by Shkuratov et al. (2011) to photometrically correct the Cassini-VIMS data of Dione. A similar approach has been successfully applied to other solar system bodies, for example, Mercury (Domingue et al., 2016), asteroids 4 Vesta and 21 Lutetia (Longobardo et al., 2016), and the Earth's Moon (Kaidash et al., 2009).

For a given geometry defined by means of incidence ( $i$ ), emission ( $e$ ), and phase ( $g$ ) angles, the radiance factor  $I/F(\lambda, i, e, g)$  is given by the product

$$\frac{I}{F}(\lambda, i, e, g) = D(i, e, g) \times F(\lambda, g) \quad (1)$$

where  $D(i, e, g)$  is the disk function and  $F(\lambda, g)$  is the phase function which includes the albedo. The disk function  $D$  is computed following the Akimov model (Shkuratov et al., 1999)

$$D(i, e, g) = D(\beta, \gamma, g) = \cos\left(\frac{g}{2}\right) \cos\left[\frac{\pi}{\pi - g} \left(\gamma - \frac{g}{2}\right)\right] \frac{(\cos \beta)^{\frac{g}{\pi - g}}}{\cos \gamma} \quad (2)$$

where  $\gamma$ ,  $\beta$  are the photometric longitude and latitude, respectively, defined as

$$\gamma = \arctan\left(\frac{\cos(i) - \cos(e)\cos(g)}{\cos(e)\sin(g)}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$\beta = \arccos\left(\frac{\cos(e)}{\cos(\gamma)}\right) \quad (4)$$

The phase function  $F(\lambda, g)$  can be derived by applying an arbitrary fit to the observation data corrected for the disk function  $D$ . In our case we have used a second degree polynomial fit. From equation (1) we derive

$$\frac{I}{F}(\lambda) = a + bg + cg^2 \quad (5)$$

which at null phase gives the value of the equigonal albedo  $a$

$$\frac{I}{F}(\lambda, g = 0) = a \quad (6)$$

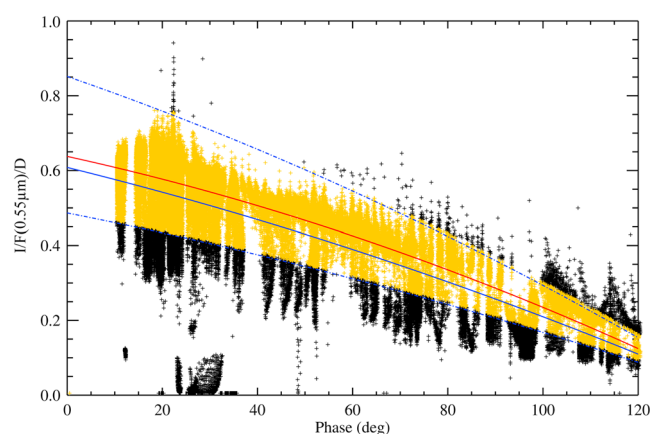
being  $D(g = 0) = 1$ . In this work, the equigonal albedo  $a$  corresponds to the albedo at  $g = 0^\circ$  as derived from the polynomial fit applied to observations taken at phase angles not affected by the opposition surge. The phase angle range in the Dione data set is  $10^\circ \leq g \leq 120^\circ$ . For this reason, since the equigonal albedo does not model the opposition effect surge, it is lower than the normal albedo as defined in Hapke (1993). Comparing the results of this work with others in literature is necessary to consider this difference.

#### 4. Phase Curve Fitting and Photometry Parameters Derivation

The photometric fit parameters  $a, b, c$  in equation (5) are computed on the distribution of the  $(I/F)/D$  for the filtered pixels as a function of the phase  $g$ . As an example, in Figure 1 the best fit to the data at  $0.55 \mu\text{m}$  is shown. VIMS data are not filtered for specific terrains units (bright or dark areas) and therefore show an intrinsic variability along the vertical axis. Since we aim to derive parameters able to photometrically correct the average terrain, we need to manage this spread to achieve the best fit solution. The fit is performed in two steps to reduce the effects caused by the clutter of the observations. As a first step the polynomial fit (blue curve) is computed on the entire data set (black and orange plus symbols), including the pixels having a large spread caused by: (1) partially filled pixels occurring along limb and terminator and (2) mismatch between images and geometry parameters as a consequence of inconsistencies in VIMS timing and/or accuracy of the reconstructed kernels. A second polynomial fit (red curve) is computed on a reduced data set consisting of the points dispersed within  $-20\%$  and  $+40\%$  with respect the first fit (orange plus symbols). The parameters  $a, b, c$  computed on the second fit for the 10 wavelengths analyzed in this work are listed in Table 1.

#### 5. Albedo Maps

Albedo maps are built by applying the same mapping method discussed in Filacchione, D'Aversa, et al. (2016), Filacchione, Capaccioni, et al. (2016) and Ciarniello et al. (2016). While broad filtering conditions are used for the retrieval of the photometric parameters  $a, b, c$ , the selection of the data to build albedo maps has been truncated to incidence and emission angles  $(i, e) \leq 50^\circ$  and phase  $10^\circ \leq g \leq 70^\circ$  in order to achieve better rendering results. The pixels simultaneously matching all these filtering conditions are projected on a cylindrical map by filling the area of the grid defined by the coordinates of the four corners. In case of multiple acquisitions above the same bin, the mean value of the albedo is computed and shown in the map. The cylindrical map has a spatial resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ/\text{bin}$  along longitude and latitude axes. With this sampling a resolution of  $4.5 \text{ km}/\text{bin}$  is reached at the equator. The average incidence, emission, phase angles, and data redundancy (number of times a given bin has been observed) on the map are shown in Figures 2a–2d.



**Figure 1.** Dione's phase curve at 0.55  $\mu\text{m}$ . The blue curve corresponds to the quadratic fit computed on all observations (black plus symbols). Orange plus symbols correspond to the subset of observations within  $-20\%$  and  $+40\%$  (blue dashed curves) of the first fit (blue curve) and are used to compute the second fit (red curve). The equigonal albedo of 0.62 is given by the red curve value at  $g = 0^\circ$ .

The photometrically corrected equigonal albedo map at three visible colors ( $B = 0.44 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $G = 0.55 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $R = 0.7 \mu\text{m}$ ) is shown in Figure 2e. The resulting data coverage spreads across the equatorial regions up to about latitude  $\pm 45^\circ$  due to the limiting filtering conditions applied on the incidence and emission angles. Across the anti-Saturnian hemisphere (centered at longitude  $180^\circ$ ) and leading hemisphere (centered at longitude  $0^\circ$ ) the best coverage and data redundancy are reached. Conversely, wide gaps in coverage occur on the regions around longitude  $90^\circ$  and  $270^\circ$ . On the anti-Saturnian hemisphere the transition between the bright leading and the more dark trailing hemisphere is visible: several craters and chasmata are recognizable, as indicated by the numerals shown in Figure 2e. Within the limits imposed by the wide excursion of the illumination and viewing conditions, the photometric correction is able to return quite homogenous and seamless albedo results. The major discrepancies are seen where redundancy is low, like on the edge starting from equator at longitude  $= 60^\circ$  up to longitude  $= 45^\circ$ , latitude  $= 45^\circ$  or where the incidence angle is changing rapidly, like around longitude  $= 135-180^\circ$ , latitude  $= -30^\circ$  (Figure 2a). For a comparison with ISS-derived albedo maps at  $1-1.5 \text{ km/bin}$  resolution at visible colors (IR, Green, UV filters) the interested reader can refer to the work of Schenk et al. (2011) where a simplified

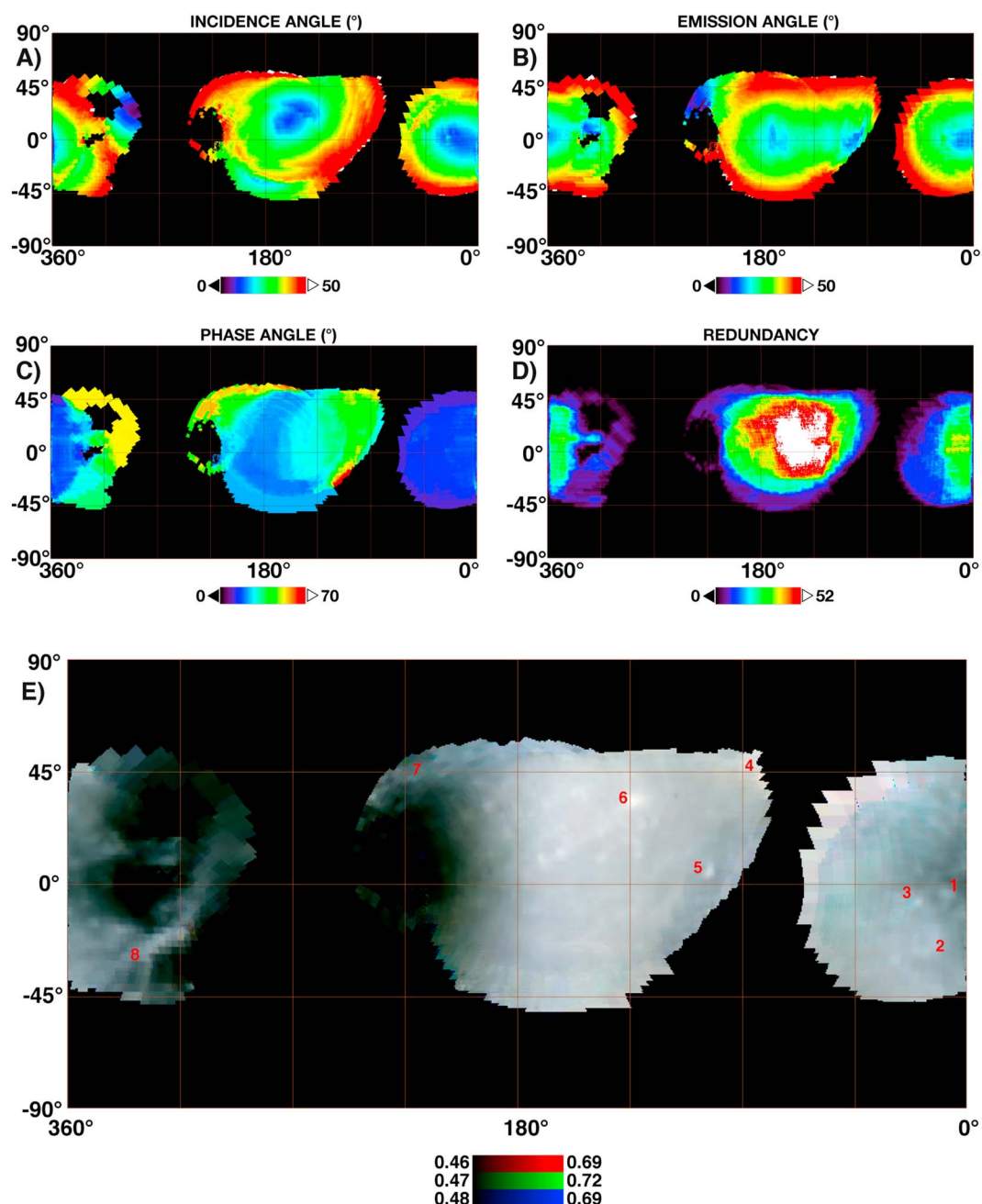
lunar-Lambertian photometric function (McEwen, 1991) has been applied. The spatial distribution of the visible albedo appears well correlated with similar VIMS daytime temperature maps derived from the spectral properties of the  $3.6 \mu\text{m}$  reflectance peak (Filacchione, D'Aversa, et al., 2016): a maximum temperature of 140 K is measured above the equatorial dark units on the trailing hemisphere, about 30 K higher than on the bright water ice-rich areas on the leading equatorial regions.

The same methodology used to map visible images is applied to infrared data too. The albedo maps derived at 1.046, 1.540, and 2.200  $\mu\text{m}$  are shown in Figure 3. In this case we keep the three monochromatic maps separated because the spatial coverage among them is different and it is not feasible to retrieve a spatially homogeneous RGB combination like for the visible channel. We have selected these bands to check the capabilities of the photometric correction to derive satisfactory albedo maps on both high (1.046, 2.200  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and low (1.540  $\mu\text{m}$ ) reflectance bands. In the latter case there is a larger occurrence of unsaturated pixels with respect to the former ones. As a consequence of this effect, the 1.540  $\mu\text{m}$  map has a wider spatial coverage across the dark wispy terrains on the trailing hemisphere (Figure 3b). Apart from the coverage differences, the contrast among the three monochromatic maps appears different: on the water ice band at 1.540  $\mu\text{m}$

**Table 1**  
Photometric Fit Parameters for the Visible and Infrared Channels Used to Render Albedo Maps Shown in Figures 2 and 3 and Spectral Indicators in Figure 4

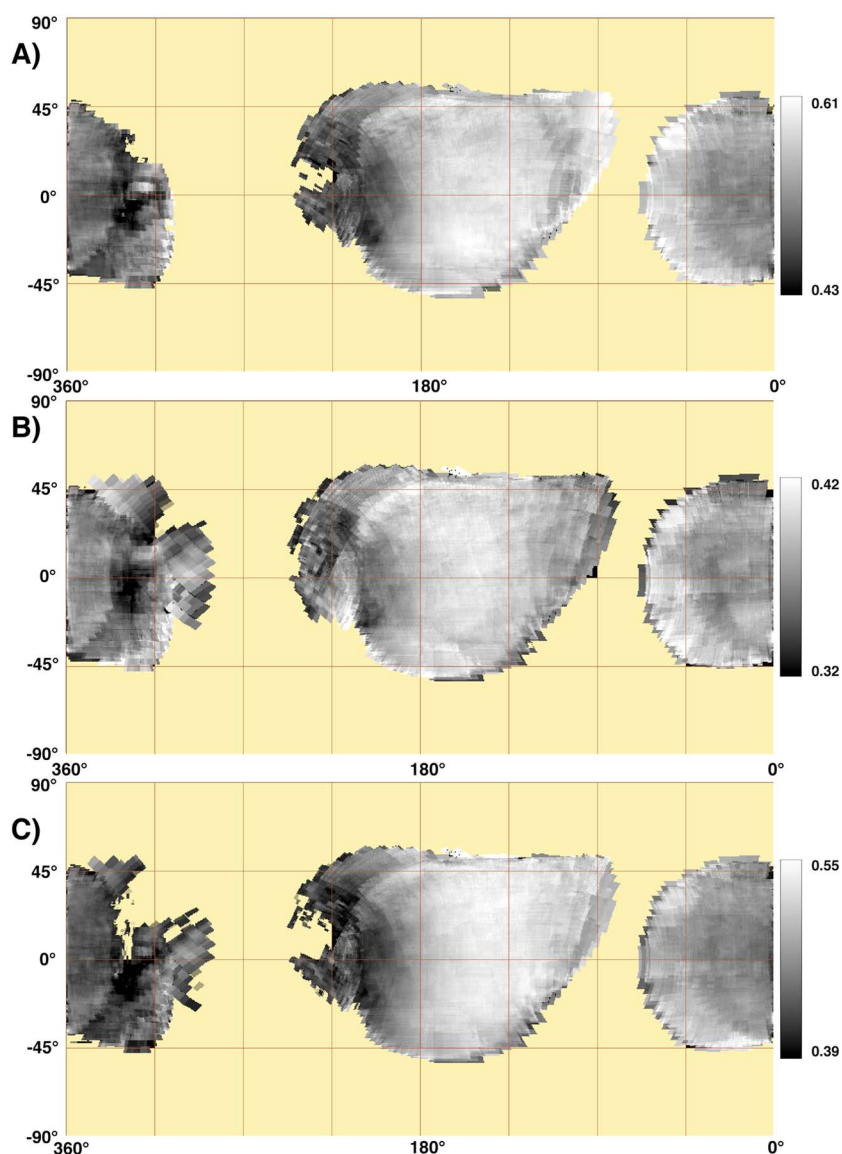
| Wavelength ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) | $a$                   | $b$                                            | $c$                                            |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| 0.35                         | $0.57582 \pm 0.00034$ | $-3.8629 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 1.79 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-2.2568 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 1.72 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 0.44                         | $0.61407 \pm 0.00040$ | $-2.7793 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 2.10 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-1.2833 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 1.98 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 0.55                         | $0.61977 \pm 0.00047$ | $-2.0784 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 2.44 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-1.6930 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 2.27 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 0.70                         | $0.58411 \pm 0.00051$ | $-1.3168 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 2.63 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-2.1872 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 2.43 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 0.95                         | $0.58268 \pm 0.00046$ | $-1.1177 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 2.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-2.3364 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 2.24 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 1.046                        | $0.55834 \pm 0.00071$ | $-2.2498 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 3.81 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-1.1178 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 3.83 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 1.540                        | $0.40562 \pm 0.00044$ | $-1.8476 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 2.34 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $-7.7896 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 2.30 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 1.822                        | $0.55832 \pm 0.00077$ | $0.4313 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 4.02 \cdot 10^{-5}$  | $-3.7100 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 4.03 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |
| 2.050                        | $0.24751 \pm 0.00023$ | $-1.6671 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 1.26 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $1.3615 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 1.22 \cdot 10^{-7}$  |
| 2.200                        | $0.51508 \pm 0.00067$ | $0.1546 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 3.48 \cdot 10^{-5}$  | $-3.0367 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 3.46 \cdot 10^{-7}$ |

Note. The parameter  $a$  is the equigonal albedo value.



**Figure 2.** Average geometry parameters for visible albedo map shown in cylindrical projection. (a) Incidence angle. (b) Emission angle. (c) Phase angle. (d) visual channel data redundancy. (e) Dione visible color albedo map at  $B = 0.44 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $G = 0.55 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $R = 0.7 \mu\text{m}$ . Numerals indicate the position of the geological features resolved on the map: (1) Antenor crater, (2) Dido crater, (3) Romulus crater (4) Creusa crater ejecta, (5) Sagaris crater, (6) Aeneas crater, (7) Padua Chasmata, and (8) Eurotas Chasmata.

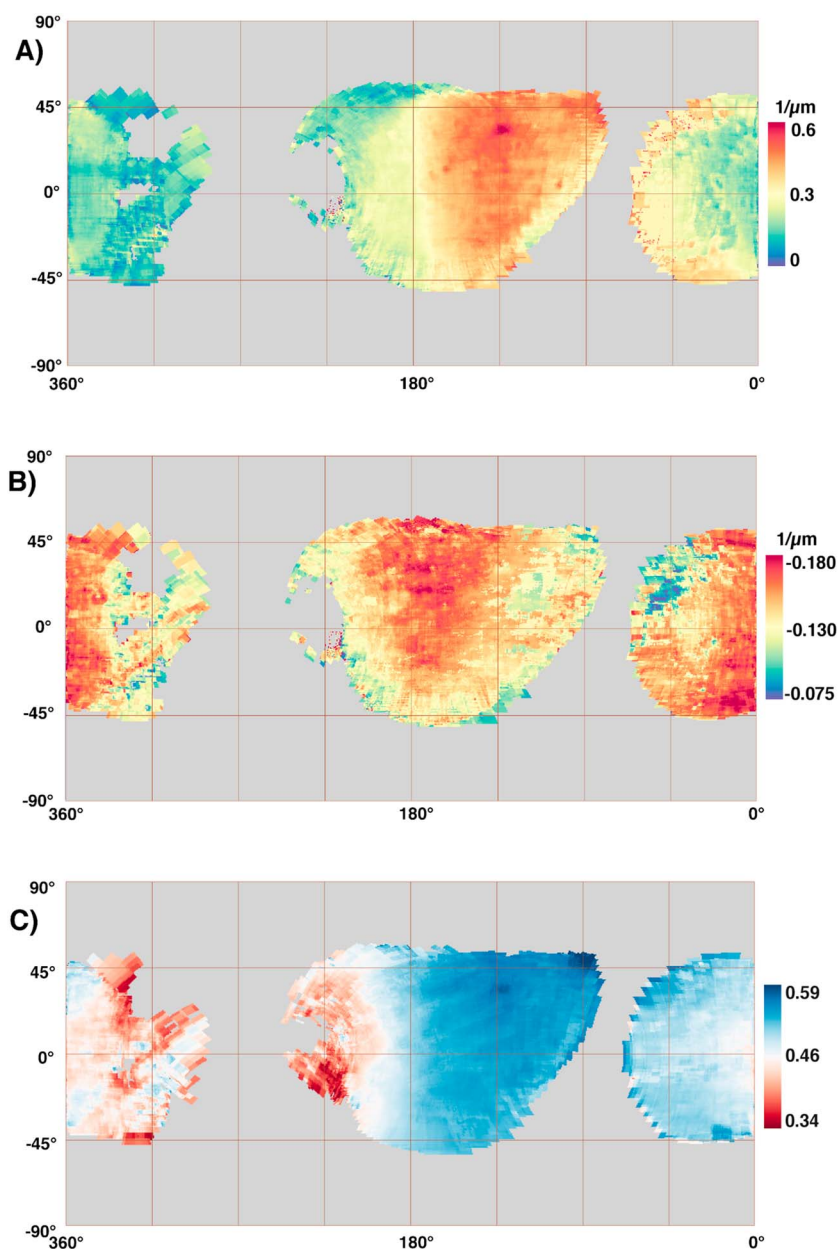
the albedo variations are limited to the 0.32–0.42 range, while on the continuum the albedo appears more variable in the range 0.43–0.61 and 0.39–0.55 for the 1.046 and 2.200  $\mu\text{m}$  maps, respectively. Apart from the lower values measured across the wispy terrain units, no significant changes are seen in correspondence with the impact craters on the monochromatic maps shown in Figure 3. The single color albedo maps are affected by an average error between 2 and 3%. The maximum error is equal to 10% for bins affected by low data redundancy and poor illumination conditions.



**Figure 3.** Dione infrared albedo maps at 1.046  $\mu\text{m}$  (a), 1.540  $\mu\text{m}$  (b), and 2.200  $\mu\text{m}$  (c).

## 6. Spectral Indicators Maps

After having applied the photometric correction, it is possible to derive the spatial distribution of spectral indicators unaffected by illumination and viewing conditions. In this work we have derived three indicators, for example, 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  spectral slope, 0.55–0.95  $\mu\text{m}$  spectral slope, and 2.05  $\mu\text{m}$  water ice band depth. These indicators have been widely used in the past for the retrieval of surface compositions of the icy satellites (Clark et al., 2008; Filacchione et al., 2012, 2013; Scipioni et al., 2013; Stephan et al., 2010). The spectral slopes are computed from equigonal albedos at 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  and 0.55–0.95  $\mu\text{m}$ . The band depth at 2.05  $\mu\text{m}$  is computed with respect to the continuum estimated at 1.822 and 2.2  $\mu\text{m}$ . The spectral indicator maps shown in Figure 4 have been generated adopting the same method previously described for the equigonal albedo maps. The spectral slopes and water ice band depth are affected by error bars lower than 1% and 5%, respectively. The 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  slope map (Figure 4a) shows a dichotomy between the leading and trailing hemispheres with a spatial distribution similar to the VIS albedo shown in Figure 2e. The highest reddening is measured across the leading anti-Saturnian quadrant ( $90^\circ \leq \text{lon} \leq 180^\circ$ ) where the maximum slope of  $0.6 \mu\text{m}^{-1}$  is reached on the Aeneas crater and on the Creusa crater ejecta (respectively indicated by labels 6 and 4 in Figure 2). A local increase of the slope is observed also on the Sagaris crater (label 5). The reddening



**Figure 4.** Dione cylindrical maps for 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  slope (a), 0.55–0.95  $\mu\text{m}$  slope (b), and 2.050  $\mu\text{m}$  water ice band depth (c).

gradually reduces to  $0.3 \mu\text{m}^{-1}$  moving toward the trailing hemisphere where it reaches neutral values on the dark terrain regions. While the 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  slope is positive (or red), the 0.55–0.95  $\mu\text{m}$  slope map (Figure 4b) has a negative (or blue) distribution with the lower value of  $-0.180 \mu\text{m}^{-1}$  across the anti-Saturnian hemisphere (around longitude =  $180^\circ$ ) and on Saturnian at longitude =  $0^\circ$ . The slope becomes more neutral in vicinity of the wispy terrains on the trailing side. The water ice 2.05  $\mu\text{m}$  band depth map (Figure 4c) shows a substantial difference between the two hemispheres: on the leading one the absorption is higher, reaching a maximum of 0.59 above the Aeneas crater and on the Creusa crater ejecta, the same areas where the 0.35–0.55  $\mu\text{m}$  slope is maximum. On the dark units of the trailing hemisphere the band depth decreases reaching values as low as 0.34. These units have an exogenic origin resulting from the effect of charged particles and submicron grains bombardment (Clark et al., 2008). Above the bright streaks of Padua Chasmata (label 7) and Eurotas Chasmata

(label 8) the band depth is  $\geq 0.46$ , higher than the surrounding dark terrains. These changes in band depth distribution are caused by tectonism which causes the resurfacing of bright ices within the chasmata features (Stephan et al., 2010).

## 7. Conclusions

The average photometric response of Dione surface at five visible and five infrared wavelengths has been derived from the full VIMS data set acquired during the entire Cassini mission at Saturn (from 2004 to 2017). The photometric correction disentangles the effects caused by the illumination and viewing geometry from surface properties, and it yields values of equigonal albedo and spectral indicators (slopes and band depth). We underline that such a result has an interdisciplinary impact since a more detailed knowledge of the surface's spectral properties can provide constraints for its erosion rate and evolution history. After having reported here about the methodology applied to the Dione data set, we aim to build similar maps for the remaining Saturn's icy satellites at multiple wavelengths with the scope to determine the spatial distribution of the spectral indicators (spectral slopes and water ice band properties) from photometric-corrected data and to correlate them with morphological features of the surfaces. This will be the argument of a future paper.

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