On the possibility of fast neutral production of the inner Io torus

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[1] The Galileo spacecraft passed through the Io torus and its inner boundary on 7 December 1995 and 5 November 2002 during the J0 and A34 passes, respectively. Electron densities inferred from plasma wave measurements on both passes indicated a steep gradient at the inner boundary of the cold Io torus located between 4.5 and $5 \, R_J$ (Io is at $5.9 \, R_J$), as well as the expected much less steep gradient in the outer torus, with an outer boundary at distances greater than $8 \, R_J$. We attempt to model the inner torus with the fast neutral production model of Wang et al. (2001). A reduced ion pickup velocity at Io can prevent fast neutrals from penetrating inside the observed inner edge of the cold torus. Outward radial convection that increases with radial distances enables a steady state to be maintained. Differences between the passes are not entirely explained by varying pickup velocity at Io and convective transport. Factors including variable mass loading, diffusive transport mechanisms, dawn-dusk torus asymmetry, and spacecraft trajectory effects may also be important.


1. Introduction

[2] Sulfur monoxide and sulfur dioxide ion cyclotron waves have been detected by the magnetometer on the Galileo spacecraft at distances as far as $\sim 20 \, R_J$ outward and to a lesser extent inward of Io. This ion cyclotron wave production region far exceeds the bounds of the region in which newly born ions should be created in Io’s exosphere. These ions should simply be convected downstream from Io with the corotational flow in a wake about 1 Io diameter wide. Wang et al. [2001] explained how the ion production region could spread downstream of Io by a multistep ion acceleration and transport process. This process begins with the ionization of Iogenic atmospheric neutrals via photoionization and impact ionization. It is followed by reneutralization via charge exchange near Io and finally reionization far from Io (Figure 1). In the period between step 1 and step 2 the ion experiences the $-v \times B$ electric field and is accelerated in Io’s rest frame up to twice the local plasma velocity (114 km/s if the ion sees the full corotational velocity). Step 2 allows the neutralized ion to travel freely across field lines to distances far from Io where after step 3 it rejoins the plasma torus and emits cyclotron waves.

[3] Wang et al. [2001] applied this process to sulfur monoxide ions for varying ionization, neutralization, and dissociation lifetimes. They showed the overall shape of the resulting ion distribution and the distances to which the neutrals could travel in the gravity fields of Jupiter and Io after the stage of ion acceleration. After the neutral is ionized, no further radial transport occurs in the model. Model runs indicated that Iogenic particles cannot approach arbitrarily close to Jupiter. There is an inner edge to the emplaced particles, whose location depends on the velocity of the background plasma flow near Io, where the particle was first ionized. Further, the density at the inner edge is low.

[4] Plasma densities determined from the Voyager (1979) and Galileo (1995 and 2002) passes through the Io plasma torus are plotted in Figure 2. The Galileo data are from the plasma wave spectrometer, and the Voyager data are from the plasma science instrument. The density profiles show several interesting features. First, there is a drop in local density by a factor of 2–3 in the cold torus about 0.1–0.3 $R_J$ inside the orbit of Io. We attribute this to the details of the convective flow of newly picked up ions at Io rather than the fast neutral transport and do not attempt to explain this feature further. Second, the Galileo electron density profiles on passes J0 and A34 show a steep inner edge and a very steep drop in density. Since the Voyager spacecraft went in to only 4.9 $R_J$, it is possible that it did not reach the steep density gradient. While the steep gradients observed...
by Galileo are similar in sharpness, they are about 0.3 \(R_J\) apart. If we assume Voyager was just outside of the steep gradient, then it would be located between the two Galileo profiles. Both Galileo profiles have a local peak density at a radial distance about 0.2 \(R_J\) farther out than the inner edge of the torus (the Voyager density peaks are more difficult to interpret).

Figure 3 shows an example of the \textit{Wang et al.}, 2001\textit{] simulated two-dimensional (2-D) distribution of fast neutrals. The modeled particles are launched uniformly around Io from an exobase altitude of 300 km. The particles are assigned lifetimes for each of the ionization and neutralization stages: 20 gyroperiods (1.6 s gyroperiod for \(SO^+\)) for the initial ion lifetime, 1000 gyroperiods for the neutral lifetime, and 500 gyroperiods for the final ion lifetime.

Figure 2. Electron density profiles from the Voyager and Galileo J0 and A34 passes. Voyager plasma science instrument data from the inbound (crosses) and outbound (circles) are shown. Galileo plasma wave spectrometer data from the A34 (thin line) and J0 (thick line) are shown. The J0 pass is a combination of the outbound (8 to 5.4 \(R_J\)) and inbound (inside 5.4 \(R_J\)) data (adapted from \textit{Bagenal et al.}, 1997\textit{]). A34 electron densities inferred from the cutoff frequencies (upper hybrid frequency from 8 to 4.9 \(R_J\) and electron plasma frequency inside 4.9 \(R_J\)) are courtesy of D. A. Gurnett (private communication, 2003). Only those densities with high certainty were used.

Figure 3. Steady state neutral particle distribution at \(t = 3.48\) hours from the \textit{Wang et al.}, 2001\textit{] model. Ion pickup velocity is 57 km/s.
Differences between the model radial density profile and the Galileo-measured A34 profile are shown in Figure 4. The modeled inner torus boundary is closer to Jupiter, there is no inner torus boundary drop-off, and there is only a single peak. In addition, the peak is centered at Io’s orbital distance not inside it. It may be relevant that this density profile was obtained some distance from Io and not on an Io flyby such as J0. We seek here to reproduce the inner and outer torus density gradients and the boundary location with our model, but we leave the multiple density peak structure for future work. In order to model the inner boundary drop-off we have coupled the Wang et al. [2001] model with a simple 1-D convection (advection) model in which a radially outward velocity profile is applied to its steady state modeled ion distribution. This 1-D model does not include any heating or cooling or ion dissociation processes; ions are lost from the simulation only by exiting the simulation region ($x > 12 R_J$). The outward, centrifugal motion of the plasma by flux tubes or other mechanism is supported by observational evidence and inferences of outward radial velocities in the torus. Assuming a 1 t/s mass-loading rate, Russell et al. [2000] estimated outward radial velocities between 6 and 7 $R_J$ to be about 9 m/s. Intriligator and Miller [1982] estimated the velocity to be ~400 m/s near Europa’s orbit (~10 $R_J$). Such outward motion of ions is necessary to maintain a steady state magnetodisk.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Inner Torus Boundary Location

As it travels by Io, the background torus plasma is decelerated upstream of the moon and accelerated downstream of it [Frank et al., 1996; Frank and Paterson, 2000, 2001, 2002]. For example, when Galileo flew over the Io polar region with a closest approach of 200 km altitude, it detected decreases in the bulk plasma flow speeds from the corotational values to several kilometers per second relative to Io [Frank and Paterson, 2002]. An ion picked up into a plasma with a decreased flow speed will gain less energy because of the lower pickup velocity, $v_{\text{pickup}} = v_{\text{flow}} - v_{\text{ion}}$. In the Wang et al. [2001] model this pickup ion then becomes a neutral retaining its velocity and traveling across field lines until it is reionized. The momentum of these fast neutrals derives from the momentum of the pickup ion distribution, which is directly determined by the pickup velocity at Io. Thus ions with lower pickup velocities will not travel as far in their neutral lifetimes as their counterparts with higher pickup velocities. It is then possible that the location of the inner torus boundary is determined by the ion pickup velocity at Io. Figure 5 shows the modeled radial distributions of ions for various pickup velocities. The 57 km/s pickup velocity assumes that the ions are picked up at Io’s orbital velocity (17 km/s) into a torus plasma flowing at corotation velocity (74 km/s).

Figure 5. Comparison of the modeled radial distributions of ions for various pickup velocities. The 57 km/s pickup velocity assumes that the ions are picked up at Io’s orbital velocity (17 km/s) into a torus plasma flowing at corotation velocity (74 km/s).

Figure 4. Comparison of the A34 pass (solid line) and the modeled ion distribution with ion pickup velocity equal to 57 km/s (dash-dotted line). A34 data are courtesy of D. A. Gurnett (private communication, 2003).
they were accelerated during their final ion lifetime. Before they are accelerated, the ions form ring beams in velocity space in the reference frame of the initial flow field into which they were picked up at Io. However, at distances further from Io, where the reference frame is that of corotational drift, their distribution is restricted (large dots). This restriction shapes the ring beam formed after acceleration (small dots) and prevents ions from having lower velocities. 

As shown in Figure 5, the radial profile of the ion density changes shape as the ion pickup velocity is decreased. The ions stay closer to their source, increasing the size of the peak at Io and decreasing the radial extent of the distribution. At the inner and outer torus boundaries the gradients remain relatively the same. The steep drop-off in plasma density at the inner edge of the torus observed by Galileo is likely not a product of the pickup conditions at Io. It is necessary to include other mechanisms to alter the modeled torus density gradients. The outward radial convection of ions, as described in section 2.2, will be shown to further alter the distribution.

2.2. Inner Torus Boundary Gradient

Estimated outward radial convective velocities for Jupiter’s magnetodisk from Russell et al. [2000] are used as a starting point. We extrapolate the Russell et al. [2000] values to the inner torus because although there are plasma pressure gradient forces at work inside Io’s orbit, the plasma is so cold that the centrifugal force will dominate, and the net motion of plasma will be outward. The outward radial velocities used are small with respect to the corotation velocity and the ion gyrovelocities, such that a simple 1-D model provides the easiest way to examine the effects of this slow outward convection. The 1-D model solves the mass conservation equation,

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (nv) = S,$$

where $n$ is the density, $t$ is time, $v$ is the convective velocity, and $S$ is the mass-loading source rate (constant). We use the second-order upwind finite difference and Lax-Wendroff schemes to obtain the time evolution of the radial density from this equation. The mass-loading profile is taken from the Wang et al. [2001] steady state distribution. For this study, we model outward convective velocities, which are continuous and do not decrease with radial distance.

Figure 9 shows the 57 km/s pickup velocity radial density profiles resulting from the applied outward radial velocity profiles for cases A–C. Applied velocity profile A is a fit from the Russell et al. [2000] values and results in an ion distribution, which is peaked at Io’s orbit and decays more gradually in the outer torus than near the inner torus boundary. The inner torus boundary is steeper than it would be without radial convection, but it is not as steep as that observed on A34. Also, because of the small velocities and the peaks and valleys of the density-loading profile derived from the Wang et al. [2001] model, the steady state convected density profile is not smooth in the inner torus. It is important to note that density values from the model should not be compared directly with observations for several reasons: First, the Wang et al. [2001] model did not attempt to mimic measured densities, as its goal was to investigate the shape and extent of the ion distribution only. Second, the ion-loading profile used in the one-dimensional simulation

![Figure 6](image-url)
was derived from a two-dimensional simulation. Third, the one-dimensional simulation does not include any ion loss processes. Fourth, the model does not account for the changing volume of an element of plasma as it moves outward in the actual three-dimensional geometry. Also, for these reasons the time required to reach steady state in the simulation is not an estimate of the real values in the torus. [12] Because simulation A did not have the desired inner torus gradient, other velocity profiles are applied. Velocity profile B rises from 0 m/s at 3.5 \( R_J \) to 1000 m/s at Io and is then constant. The resulting ion distribution does not have a steep inner torus boundary, does not peak at Io, and has very high densities out to the end of the simulation region. The extension of the torus density outward from Io is a result of the constant radial velocity, such that in the real torus the velocity likely varies with distance in the outer torus. Velocity profile C is linear across the simulated region (3.5 to 12 \( R_J \)), starting at a velocity of 0 m/s at 3.5 \( R_J \) and rising to 400 m/s at 12 \( R_J \). The resulting ion profile is peaked at Io and decreases more gradually in the outer torus than in the inner torus. Yet the decreases are both too gradual compared to observations. Increasing or decreasing the slope of the linear velocity profile changes the magnitude of the ion density but leaves the overall shape of the distribution unchanged. It seems that to produce a simulated ion density profile resembling observations, it is necessary to include an outward radial velocity, which increases with distance across the torus. This is consistent with observations that show higher convective velocities at greater radial distances [Russell et al., 2000; Intriligator and Miller, 1982]; however, the exact form of the velocity profile is unknown, as it results from nonlinear effects such as variable mass loading in the torus and line tying in the Jovian ionosphere. Thus the simulation work shown next aims at reproducing the observed densities in the torus using simple functional forms of a smooth, continuous, and radially increasing velocity profile. [13] Using the case of ion pickup at 20 km/s with inner torus boundary at 4.7 \( R_J \), several outward radial velocity profiles are explored. Figure 10 shows the resulting ion and applied velocity profiles for simulations D–G. Velocity profile D is the same as A, but now it is applied to the case of ion pickup at 20 km/s. The results show that the ion distribution is again peaked at Io and decreases gradually away from Io. While the inner torus density gradient remains relatively unchanged despite the outward radial convection of ions, the outer torus has been extended to greater radial distances, decreasing the outer torus gradient. For better agreement with the Galileo A34 data it is necessary to have a velocity profile that allows ions time to build up at the inner torus edge and then rises to values high enough to move the ions out quickly and prevent a buildup in the far outer torus. [14] Velocity profile E rises more steeply and has a velocity at the inner torus edge half that of D. This profile succeeds in moving particles quickly through the outer

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**Figure 7.** Comparison of all ion gyrokinetic energies versus radial distance for various pickup velocities (\( v_{\text{pickup}} \)).
torus. It also moves the peak outward from Io’s orbital distance. Ions have built up at the inner edge; however, the loading profile is not sufficient to build up enough ions to see a steep gradient. The outer edge is closer to Io than in the previous case, since the ions are moved out with greater speed. Velocity profile F is the same as profile D except moved across the x axis by $\frac{3.5}{C_24}$ $R_J$. This puts the lowest velocities of the profile near the inner edge of the distribution, enabling particles to build up. The resulting inner torus gradient is very steep and, like case A, has bumps in the density profile. When the loading profile from the Wang et al. [2001] model is smoothed out, the bumps disappear, as shown in case G. Higher convective velocities also smooth out small density variations.

[15] Case F is compared to the A34 pass in Figure 11. The steepness of the inner boundary is well reproduced, as is the radial range of the density. As mentioned previously, the small peaks and valleys in the result of the F profile are due to the small peaks and valleys of the loading profile, which build up over time in the low convective velocity field and become more exaggerated. Unlike observations, the peak near Io is displaced outward from its observed location, indicating that in the real torus there is likely an inward motion of plasma at Io. The multiple density peak observed on A34 and other Galileo passes through the inner torus was not reproduced. If the density peak at the inner torus is the result of some large mass-loading event, then it is possible that the inner torus boundary gradient is generally not as steep and higher convective velocities would be more appropriate. Figure 12 shows several less steep ion radial profiles for cases H–J.

[16] While the Wang et al. [2001] model used sulfur monoxide exclusively, we will explore mass loading with sulfur dioxide and sulfur, other pickup ion species, which are observed to generate ion cyclotron waves in the torus. The ionization lifetime of sulfur compounds in the torus is less than several hours [Smyth and Marconi, 1998a], and as was shown by Wang et al. [2001], the choice of lifetimes for the Iogenic particle in its neutral stage of at least $\frac{25}{C_24}$ min allows the neutralized ions sufficient time to reach the inner torus boundary. Use of a lifetime greater than this only serves to increase the density of the particle distribution and does not move the inner torus boundary. Use of a lifetime greater than this only serves to increase the density of the particle distribution and does not move the inner torus boundary. In the final ion stage of the model, since the ions do not experience any radial transport, the length of the final ion lifetime does not affect the radial locations of the density peak and the inner boundary or the overall shape of the radial density profile. In addition, decreasing the initial ion lifetime does not affect the distribution as long as the ion can complete one full gyration before being neutralized.

Figure 8. Gyrovelocity space plots of the ions for various pickup velocities. The small dots represent the ions in steady state after they have been accelerated by the corotation electric field during their final ion lifetime. The large dots are the ions before they were accelerated in this final stage. Note that if the large dots are plotted in the reference frame of the plasma flow into which they were added at Io (not the current corotating reference at their radial distance), they form ring shapes.
Figure 13 compares the steady state neutral particle distribution for the cases of mass-loaded sulfur dioxide ($m = 48$ amu) and sulfur ($m = 16$ amu) under the same pickup conditions. While there are small, qualitative differences in the two distributions due to gyroradius effects, the overall distribution of mass-loaded particles is the same regardless of mass. Applying the same convective velocity profile as shown in case F to the sulfur or sulfur dioxide distribution results in the same steepened inner torus boundary that occurred with sulfur monoxide.

2.3. Other Considerations in the Structure of the Torus

In the discussion in section 2.2, we implicitly assumed that the torus region is axisymmetric. If, in fact, there is a strong asymmetry in the magnetospheric electric field (corotational plus that imposed by the outer magnetosphere), then the differences in the observed radial location of the various density features between the passes could result from differing spacecraft trajectories. If so, the location of the steep density gradient in the inner torus on the various passes does not reflect a dynamically changing inner torus structure but rather a steady state. In order to discuss this possibility, Tables 1a–1c show Galileo’s position during its passes through the torus during the J0 inbound and outbound passes and A34.

When Galileo passed through the inner torus boundary on J0, it detected it at approximately $5 R_J$, $4.75 \text{ Lat}_{\text{III}}$, and $-3 \text{ MLAT}$. On A34 it detected the inner torus boundary at approximately $4.7 R_J$, $-0.73 \text{ Lat}_{\text{III}}$, and $0 \text{ MLAT}$. Models of the latitudinal structure of the Io torus [Bagenal, 1994; Moncuquet et al., 2002] show an inner torus electron density structure with steep gradients and density peaks close to the centrifugal equator. These models only predict latitudinal structure in to $5 R_J$, however, making comparison of the inner boundary data difficult. We presume that because of the confined latitudinal widths of the density peaks, Galileo was close to the centrifugal equator when it observed them on J0 and A34 and that the confined radial width of the peaks to within a tenth of a Jovian radius indicates that the $\sim 0.3 R_J$ difference in the observed locations of the inner boundary and density peaks cannot be fully accounted for by spacecraft trajectory. However, if we assume that the spacecraft did not necessarily fly through the most dense portions of the torus, then the heights of the density peaks are relative. If the torus structure is assumed to be the same on Voyager’s inbound and outbound passes, then the variations in peak intensity and location are functions of the spacecraft trajectory. The Voyager data are difficult to interpret because there is no clear double-peak structure on the outbound pass; however, it does appear that the peaks vary by as much as $\sim 0.2 R_J$ in the
location of their detection. Thus the possibility exists that the difference between the J0 and A34 passes is a trajectory effect.

Remote sensing of the torus suggests it varies its distance from Jupiter because of the effect of a dawn-dusk electric field across the magnetodisk. First identified by Sandel and Broadfoot [1982], the torus exhibits an east-west (or dawn-dusk) asymmetry where the dusk side is brighter (and hotter) than the dawn side. Barbosa and Kivelson [1983] explained this effect as the result of a dawn-dusk electric field resulting from the flow of magnetodisk plasma down the tail. This electric field shifts the orbits of the torus ions toward dawn, such that the torus is closer to Jupiter at the dawn ansa than at the dusk ansa. Observing the radial location of the brightest region of the torus at [S III] and [S II], Dessler and Sandel [1992] and Schneider and Trauger [1995] saw, in addition to a dawn-dusk asymmetry, a system III longitudinal (LonIII) dependence. Ground-based observations of the Io torus “ribbon,” the brightest region of the torus, associated with the density peak nearest Io, show that its location varies depending on its local time and longitude [Bagenal et al., 1997]. If the changing location of the ribbon is an indicator of the changing location of other density features in the torus, then the inner boundary should be expected to vary its distance from Jupiter in a similar way.


Figure 10. Convective velocity profiles D–G and the resulting normalized steady state ion radial distributions. The normalized initial distribution is shown with a dotted line. All cases use initial and loading density profiles derived from the Wang et al. [2001] model with pickup velocity equal to 20 km/s.

Figure 11. Comparison of the A34 and result of the F density profiles. A34 data are courtesy of D. A. Gurnett (private communication, 2003).
depending on \( \text{Lon}_{\text{III}} \). For the cases of J0 and A34, with inner boundary crossings both at roughly the same local time near dusk (Table 2), the brightest region of the torus should be farther from Jupiter at \( 115^\circ /C176 \) longitude on the A34 pass than \( 45^\circ /C176 \) longitude on J0. However, Smyth and Marconi [1998b] predict that the whole torus structure, including density peaks, should be shifted closer to Jupiter on A34. While the east-west effect could exhibit a \(~0.3\ R_J\) difference in the

\[ \text{Figure 12.}\ Convective velocity profiles H–J and the resulting normalized steady state ion radial distributions. The normalized initial distribution is shown with a dotted line. All cases use initial and loading density profiles derived from the Wang et al. [2001] model with pickup velocity equal to 20 km/s.} \]

\[ \text{Figure 13.}\ Comparison of the steady state particle distribution from the Wang et al. [2001] model for the cases of (left) sulfur dioxide and (right) sulfur mass loaded under the same conditions, with pickup velocity equal to 20 km/s. The distributions are very similar; any small differences are due to the differences in the gyroradii of these different mass particles. When subjected to the same outward convective velocities, they form the similarly shaped density profiles.} \]
radial location of the torus density structure [Dessler and Sandel, 1992], it does not explain the difference on the J0 and A34 passes.

[22] If the large density peak nearest to Io is directly associated with the ribbon, then it may be a better indicator of the system III periodicity in the torus. The location of Galileo and Voyager during their detection of the near Io peak are shown in Table 3. As predicted by Smyth and Marconi [1998b] and as was observed by Voyager, the location of the ribbon should be closer to Jupiter on the Voyager 1 outbound trajectory than on its inbound one. However, the near-Io peak observed on J0 is farther from Jupiter than was observed on A34, opposite of what is predicted. This inconsistency for the J0 and A34 passes may be due to other magnetospheric conditions or to latitudinal variations in the torus structure. It is also possible that variations in the whole torus structure may not be predicted by the location of the ribbon or that the torus does not always exhibit system III longitudinal periodicity. Noszawa et al. [2004] indicate that although the torus does exhibit a system III periodicity in the short term, it does not do so over years. Since the J0 and A34 passes were 7 years apart, they should not necessarily be expected to exhibit a system III periodicity. By contrast, the Voyager inbound and outbound passes, which occurred within hours of each other, should show a torus structure correlated with \( \text{Lon}_{\text{III}} \).

### 3. Conclusions

[23] Ion pickup in the Io atmosphere can occur in a plasma that is slowed relative to its corotation velocity. The model by Wang et al. [2001] considers ion pickup into a corotating flow, \( v_{\text{cor}} = 74 \text{ km/s} \), from a velocity equal to Io’s orbital velocity, \( v_{\text{Io}} = 17 \text{ km/s} \). In this 57 km/s pickup velocity case the inner torus boundary is located at \( \sim 3.5 R_J \). For an inner torus boundary at \( \sim 4.7 R_J \), as is consistent with Galileo pass A34 observations, the plasma flow near Io would need to be slowed to 37 km/s (\( v_{\text{pickup}} = 20 \text{ km/s} \)), for an inner edge at 5 \( R_J \), as shown in pass J0, the plasma would have to be slowed to 29 km/s (\( v_{\text{pickup}} = 12 \text{ km/s} \)). Galileo observed plasma flows decelerated to several kilometers per second relative to Io’s orbital velocity as well as those accelerated faster than corotation.

[24] As expected, if the pickup velocity is increased from 57 km/s, the average gyrokinetic energy in each radial bin also increases. However, for decreasing pickup velocity, there is an unexpected effect. Because of the multiple stages of acceleration in the model, higher final gyrokinetic energies are favored for particles with lower pickup velocities at Io. Low-temperature gaps form for particles with pickup velocities less than about half the corotation pickup velocity. This affects the average energies such that as pickup velocity is lowered, the average gyrokinetic energy per radial bin actually increases. Modeled velocities are higher than the observations because the model does not include any ion cooling and it only considers sulfur monoxide particles. \( \text{SO}^+ \) will dissociate into its constituent ions, decreasing the average temperature per ion.

[25] The inclusion of an outward radial convection of the Wang et al. [2001] simulated ion distribution with 20 km/s pickup velocity successfully reproduced the steep inner edge of the inner torus observed on the A34 pass. The outer torus density gradient was also generally reproduced, but the multiple density peaks were not, and the density peak near Io was moved outward in the torus instead of inward. We have not included the fluid dynamics of the slowed flow near Io in our calculations, however. A slowed flow will have a different force balance than the nearby fully corotating flow and could deviate from strictly longitudinal motion near Io.

[26] We also considered mass-loaded sulfur in our model and showed that the overall distribution of particles was similar to that of mass-loaded sulfur monoxide. The location of the inner torus boundary is independent of mass and is changed only by altering the pickup velocity or the lifetimes of the particles. When these steady state distributions of different mass particles from the Wang et al. [2001] model are convected outward with the same velocities, they produce similarly shaped radial density profiles. The exact form of the outward convective velocity profile is uncertain,

### Table 1a. J0 (Inbound), 7 December 1995

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<th>1700</th>
<th>1800</th>
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*SCET is spacecraft event time.
* \( R \) is radial distance from Saturn in Jovian radii.

### Table 1b. J0 (Outbound), 7 December 1995 to 8 December 1995

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### Table 1c. A34, 5 November 2002

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<tr>
<td>( \text{Lat}_{\text{III}} )</td>
<td>-0.729</td>
<td>-0.738</td>
<td>-0.746</td>
<td>-0.749</td>
<td>-0.738</td>
<td>-0.692</td>
<td>-0.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLAT</td>
<td>-7.81</td>
<td>-10.34</td>
<td>-8.98</td>
<td>-5.35</td>
<td>-0.88</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>5.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Estimated Location of Io Inner Torus Boundary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pass</th>
<th>( R/ R_J ) (Inner Boundary)</th>
<th>( \text{Lon}_{\text{III}} )</th>
<th>LT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J0 (out)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A34</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V1 (in)*</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>1845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V1 (out)*</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>2130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SCET is spacecraft event time.
* \( R \) is radial distance from Saturn in Jovian radii.

[2001] model are convected outward with the same velocities, they produce similarly shaped radial density profiles. The exact form of the outward convective velocity profile is uncertain,
because although our model shows that velocities should increase with radial distance, as is consistent with observations [Russell et al., 2000; Intriligator and Miller, 1982], it is highly simplified and ignores many important transport mechanisms in the torus. Inward convection of plasma also occurs, as evidenced by the location of the density peak near Io, as well as diffusive plasma processes in the inner and outer torus [Herbert, 1996]. The net motion of the plasma, however, will be outward, as centrifugal forces act across the entire torus and are not be overwhelmed by plasma pressure of the cold inner torus.

[27] An apparent discrepancy between our model and the data is the inward displacement of the inner boundary location by $\sim 0.3 R_J$ between the J0 pass and the A34 pass, 7 years later. Outward radial convection certainly cannot account for this motion. A highly efficient mass-loading event would have had to occur between the time of J0 and A34 that produced a new cold density region inside the J0 peak. Such an event could have been observed in August 1999 both by ground telescopes and Galileo. Russell et al. [2001], interpreting the fluxes of energetic particles detected by the star sensor on Galileo, believe a large mass-loading event took place either during or just before the Galileo C22 pass on 11 August.

[28] Also worth noting is the change in the configuration of the torus if the magnetosphere lost its outer magnetodisk and returned to a near-potential field state. If mass loading ceased and the magnetosphere were emptied of ions, the field lines near Io would move inward only 0.4 $R_J$ (Figure 14). If the part of the inner Io torus that is not dynamically significant to the magnetodisk remained, it could also move this far.

[29] It is possible that the differences in the torus structure observed between the Galileo passes are due to the spacecraft trajectory. Since the torus exhibits a latitudinal structure with steep gradients at varying radial distances in the inner torus, the spacecraft’s position could be very important in interpreting its results. The Voyager inbound and outbound passes, which saw $\sim 0.2 R_J$ differences in the radial location of features, indicate the possibility that the differences between J0 and A34 are trajectory-related. However, models of the inner torus latitudinal density structure only reach in to 5 $R_J$ [Bagenal, 1994; Moncuquet et al., 2002], making analysis of the A34 data difficult.

[30] The dawn-dusk electric field in the torus could also be responsible for a $\sim 0.3 R_J$ shift in torus structure [Dessler and Sandel, 1992]. This shift is predicted to also depend on system III longitude [Smyth and Marconi, 1998b]; however,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pass</th>
<th>R/R_s (Near-Io Peak)</th>
<th>Lon_{III}</th>
<th>LT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J0 (in)</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A34</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V1 (in)</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V1 (out)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>2145</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14. Modeled field lines of Jupiter’s magnetic field. The thickest line shows the field line, which intersects the equator at Io’s orbital distance of 5.9 $R_J$ using both the internal field model, O6, and the external field model, KK 96 [Khurana, 1997]. If the external currents are removed, this field line moves inward and intersects at 5.47 $R_J$ (middle thickness) Plot is courtesy of Z. J. Yu (private communication, 2004).
since the shift detected between J0 and A34 is opposite to predictions, it is possible that the torus does not exhibit a system III periodicity over years. Herbert and Sandel [2000] note the complications in observing system III dependence of UV emissions from the torus due to system IV fluctuations, and Nozawa et al. [2004] predict that while the torus may exhibit system III periodicity over short timescales, it does not do so over years; rather, it shows a system IV periodicity. Thus the differences between the inner boundary of the Io inner torus observed by Galileo on the J0 and A34 orbits are difficult to explain by the hypothesized spatial asymmetries in magnetospheric convection. It is possible that the differences indicate temporal variations in the mass-loading rate at Io or in the magnetospheric configuration.

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References


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