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1 **Global mapping and characterization of Titan's dune fields with Cassini: correlation**
2 **between RADAR and VIMS observations**

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36
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38

39 **Abstract**

40 Vast fields of linear dunes have been observed in the equatorial regions of Titan,
41 Saturn's largest moon. As the Cassini mission, in orbit around Saturn since July 2004 and
42 extended until May 2017, carries on, the high-resolution coverage of Titan's surface
43 increases, revealing new dune fields and allowing refinements in the examination of their
44 properties. In this paper, we present the joint analysis of Cassini's microwave and infrared
45 global scale observations of Titan. Integrating within an up-to-date global map of Titan all the
46 Cassini RADAR and VIMS (Visual and Infrared Mapping Spectrometer) images – the latter
47 being empirically corrected for atmospheric scattering and surface photometry, from July
48 2004 through July 2013 and June 2010 respectively, we found a very good qualitative and
49 quantitative spatial matching between the geographic distribution of the dune fields and a
50 specific infrared spectral unit (namely the “dark brown” unit). The high degree of spatial
51 correlation between dunes and the “dark brown” unit has important implications for Titan's
52 geology and climate. We found that RADAR-mapped dunes and the “dark brown” unit are
53 similarly confined within the equatorial belt ($\pm 30^\circ$ in latitudes) with an equivalent distribution
54 with latitude, suggesting an increasing sediment availability and mobility at Titan's tropics
55 relative to higher latitudes, compatible with the lower ground humidity predicted in equatorial
56 regions by General Circulation Models. Furthermore, the strong correlation between
57 RADAR-mapped dunes and the VIMS “dark brown” unit (72%) allows us to better constrain
58 the total surface area covered by dune material, previously estimated from the extrapolation of
59 the RADAR observations alone. According to our calculations, dune material cover $17.5 \pm$
60 1.5% of Titan's surface area, equivalent to a total surface area of 14.6 ± 1.2 million km^2 (~ 1.5
61 times the surface area of Earth's Sahara desert). The VIMS “dark brown” coloration of the
62 dune material is here confirmed at large spatial scale. If the sand particle composition is

63 dominated by solid organics produced in and settling from the atmosphere, as supported by
64 our spectral modeling and by previous spectral analysis, microwave radiometric data and
65 atmospheric modeling, dune fields are one of the major surface hydrocarbon reservoirs on
66 Titan. Assuming two possible scenarios for the sand distribution (either the sand is (1) entirely
67 trapped in dune landforms, or (2) trapped in dunes at places where dune landforms are firmly
68 observed and in sand sheets elsewhere), we estimate the volume of hydrocarbons trapped in
69 the dune sediment to be comprised between 1.7 and $4.4 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$, corresponding to an average
70 total mass of 230,000 GT, in comparison with ~4,000-30,000 GT of hydrocarbons in the polar
71 lakes and seas. This indicates a maximum age for the dune sediments of ~730-Myr, consistent
72 with estimations of the ages of the current Titan's atmospheric methane and surface.

73

74 **1. Introduction.**

75 Saturn's largest moon Titan has a cold, hazy, dense nitrogen- and hydrocarbon-rich
76 atmosphere. This planet-sized icy moon has a complex climatic system (see [Lebonnois et al.,](#)
77 [2009](#) for a review), with hydrocarbon seasonal cycles including clouds ([Rodriguez et al.,](#)
78 [2009, 2011](#); [Brown et al., 2010](#); [Turtle et al., 2009, 2011a](#); [Le Mouélic et al., 2011](#)) and
79 rainfall ([Turtle et al., 2011b](#); [Barnes et al., 2013](#)), that globally tends to transport humidity
80 from the equator to the poles ([Rannou et al., 2006](#); [Mitchell et al., 2006](#); [Mitchell, 2008](#);
81 [Schneider et al., 2012](#)). Since 2004, the Cassini orbiter has been continuously providing a
82 wealth of images of the surface of Titan at different wavelengths and with unprecedented
83 resolution (down to ~200 m for the RADAR imager). Images from the ISS (Imaging Science
84 Sub-system) cameras, the VIMS (Visual and Infrared Mapping Spectrometer) instrument and
85 the RADAR experiment in SAR (Synthetic Aperture Radar) mode, all on board the Cassini
86 spacecraft, have revealed the presence of landforms strongly linked to the climatic activity of
87 the moon: hydrocarbon lakes and seas at high latitudes (e.g. [Stofan et al., 2007](#)), complex
88 networks of fluvial channels at all latitudes (e.g. [Elachi et al., 2006](#)) and vast fields of dunes
89 mostly around the Equator (e.g. [Lorenz et al., 2006](#)). The latitudinal distribution of these
90 features is indicative of the different types of climates that Titan experiences or has
91 experienced in the past. Dunes, in particular, provide a powerful tool to investigate the
92 sedimentary and climatic history of the arid and/or semi-arid environments likely to prevail at
93 Titan's tropics.

94 The thousands of dunes observed by Cassini on the surface of Titan, globally
95 organized in vast dune fields, are mainly confined to the equatorial belt, within $\pm 30^\circ$ in
96 latitude, and almost encircle the globe in longitude, except in the Xanadu region (70°W -
97 140°W , e.g. [Radebaugh et al., 2011](#)) where dunes are absent. The high resolution RADAR

98 SAR images allowed estimation of their main morphological properties. Titan's dunes have a
99 width of ~1 km, a spacing of 1-3 km, lengths of many tens to a few hundreds of km (Lorenz
100 et al., 2006; Radebaugh et al., 2008; Lorenz and Radebaugh, 2009), and their heights have
101 been estimated by photo- and radar-clinometry to ~100 m (Barnes et al., 2008; Neish et al.,
102 2010). Nearly all of them are radar-dark, linear in form and similar in size and morphology to
103 linear dunes typically found in large sand seas on Earth, *e.g.* in the Namib, Chinese or Saudi
104 Arabian deserts (Lancaster, 1995). Cassini VIMS and RADAR observations at lower
105 resolution have also shown that both the infrared behavior and the microwave emission from
106 the dune fields are strongly suspected to be compatible with "sand" particles most likely
107 dominated by solid organics, spectrally similar to atmospheric aerosols (Soderblom et al.,
108 2007; Barnes et al., 2008; Clark et al., 2010; Le Gall et al., 2011; Hirtzig et al., 2013). The
109 mechanical properties of Titan's dunes and their formation mechanism have also been
110 investigated. Titan's low gravity (1.35 m/s^2) and slightly denser atmosphere than Earth's
111 ($1.47 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$) increase the mobility of particles. The theoretical "fluid" threshold friction
112 speed required to initiate the formation of dunes (through the saltation of particles) under
113 Titan's condition has been calculated as 0.03 to 0.06 m/s (which corresponds to "real" near-
114 surface wind speeds of 0.8-1.5 m/s), with an optimum saltation diameter of 200-600 μm
115 depending on the bulk composition of particles (Greeley and Iversen, 1985; Allison, 1992;
116 Lorenz et al., 1995, 2006; Kok et al., 2012; with an extended review in Lorenz, 2013). Kok et
117 al. (2012) also defined the "impact" threshold as the threshold friction speed needed to sustain
118 saltation. They calculated the "impact" threshold for Titan and showed that the ratio of the
119 "impact" to "fluid" threshold speeds is greater than unity (as for Venus, but contrary to Earth
120 and Mars). Saltation on Titan therefore needs greater winds to be sustained than to be
121 initiated, primarily due to the thicker atmosphere which efficiently dissipates the vertical
122 motion of saltating particles (Kok et al., 2012). The presence of dunes at Titan's tropics thus

123 indicates (1) the production of a sufficient supply of saltatable particles, probably originated
124 as photochemical end-products settling directly from the atmosphere, (2) the generation of
125 winds capable of moving sand-sized particles by saltation, and (3) conditions dry enough to
126 allow sand transport near equatorial latitudes.

127 The complex interplay between the hydrocarbon cycle and surface processes leading
128 to the formation and dynamics of Titan's dunes, however, is far from being fully understood.
129 The precise composition and mechanical properties of the dune sediment, its origins, sources,
130 geographic coverage and total volume are still open questions that require further
131 investigation. The total volume of organic sediment trapped in the dunes has been roughly
132 evaluated to be between $\sim 10^4$ and 10^5 km³ by [Lorenz et al. \(2006\)](#), by extrapolation of the
133 area that dunes cover in the two RADAR SAR swaths acquired in February and October 2005
134 and thanks to their apparent correlation with the large infrared-dark regions found by ISS in
135 equatorial regions. Subsequent SAR observations indicated that dunes may cover as much as
136 20% of Titan's total surface area (up to 40% of equatorial areas) ([Radebaugh et al., 2008](#)),
137 allowing a re-evaluation of the total volume of sand-sized sediment between 2 and 8×10^5 km³
138 ([Lorenz et al., 2008](#)), suggesting that the dune system represents a major surface geologic
139 feature. These numbers were recently updated by [Le Gall et al. \(2011\)](#) compiling the 27
140 RADAR SAR images available at that time, resulting, in a new estimate of the total surface
141 area covered by dunes (~ 11 -12.5%) and sediment volume (0.5 - 5×10^5 km³) by extrapolating
142 the partial RADAR coverage to the whole surface of Titan.

143 Combining data from RADAR and infrared experiments from the Cassini orbiter
144 offers an extraordinary powerful and complementary tool to explore the surface of Titan. It
145 allows to jointly benefit from the high resolution of the SAR images on one side (enough to
146 resolve individual dunes) and from the spectral and spatial coverage of the ISS and VIMS

147 observations on the other side. The combined use of microwave and infrared observations of
148 Titan therefore allows not only to better constrain and quantify the total dune coverage, but
149 also to provide more quantitative clues to their composition. [Soderblom et al. \(2007\)](#) and
150 [Barnes et al. \(2008\)](#) were the first to thoroughly investigate the degree of correlation between
151 infrared spectral units identified with VIMS and RADAR images of Titan's dunes. At
152 regional scale, they clearly demonstrated that SAR dunes strongly correlate with a specific
153 spectral unit showing up mainly in the equatorial belt in VIMS mosaics (the "dark brown"
154 unit, suspected to be water ice poor – [Barnes et al., 2007, 2008](#); [Soderblom et al., 2007](#); [Le](#)
155 [Mouélic et al., 2008](#)). Extending the work of [Soderblom et al. \(2007\)](#) and [Barnes et al. \(2008\)](#)
156 at Titan's globe scale, [Le Corre et al. \(2008\)](#) calculated the correlation between SAR dunes
157 and the VIMS "dark brown" unit to be more than 80%, inferring a total dune coverage of
158 ~18% and a total "sand" volume of $\sim 3 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$. Although in agreement with both previous
159 and following calculations, estimates of [Le Corre et al. \(2008\)](#) were obtained from a very
160 preliminary study with only a limited set of observations (up to 2007 for RADAR SAR –
161 from TA to T25 – and 2008 for VIMS observations – from TA to T42). Recently, [Arnold et](#)
162 [al. \(2013\)](#) explored in a single sand sea the possible correlation between dunes seen in
163 RADAR images and albedo units at $0.938 \mu\text{m}$ in ISS images, extending the previous work of
164 [Lorenz et al. \(2006\)](#). They found good qualitative correlation between dunes and the darkest
165 ISS areas within a test zone located in Fensal and Aztlan areas. Using the global RADAR/ISS
166 image coverage and the total sand area from RADAR and ISS in Fensal and Aztlan areas (2.3
167 million km^2), they extrapolated the total sand coverage on Titan to 14%, or 12 million km^2 ,
168 close to the calculation of [Le Gall et al. \(2011\)](#). [Arnold et al. \(2013\)](#) also gave a new estimate
169 of $1.5\text{-}3 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$ for the global sand volume.

170 As illustrated by the fluctuations in all the sediment volume estimates, despite the
171 extensive body of work in mapping Titan's dunes, calculating the areas of the sand seas is
172 very challenging given the partial coverage of RADAR images and low resolution of
173 ISS/VIMS observations. Besides, the accurate analysis of infrared observations of Titan's
174 surface is made complex due to the strong atmospheric contributions (gaseous absorption and
175 haze scattering), especially at short infrared wavelengths (below 3 μm). Thus, as Cassini will
176 continue to observe Titan up to May 2017, one must take advantage of any significant
177 progress in the coverage and method of processing of SAR and infrared data. Following the
178 pioneering work of [Soderblom et al. \(2007\)](#), [Barnes et al. \(2008\)](#) and [Le Corre et al. \(2008\)](#),
179 we present here detailed mapping and characterization of Titan's dune fields at the global
180 scale, using an importantly extended set of RADAR and VIMS images (section 2). Doing so,
181 we significantly update the geographic distribution and the estimate of the total coverage of
182 the dunes, and refine the correlation of different types of data (RADAR/SAR and VIMS) and
183 the inventory of solid organics on Titan (section 3). On this purpose, we use here a full global
184 mosaic of VIMS images of Titan's surface empirically corrected for atmospheric
185 contributions. The correlation between the dunes imaged by the RADAR/SAR and some
186 infrared spectral units appearing in VIMS observations also provides new constraints on the
187 dune compositional properties (section 3).

188

189 **2. Global mapping of the dunes.**

190 **2.1 Dune global mapping with the RADAR SAR data.**

191 The Cassini RADAR instrument is a microwave sensor operating at a frequency of
192 13.78 GHz ($\lambda=2.17$ cm, Ku band) and having three active (altimeter, scatterometer and

193 synthetic aperture radar, or SAR) and one passive working modes (radiometer) (Elachi et al.,
194 2004).

195 For our mapping purposes, we restricted this study to datasets acquired by the SAR
196 imaging mode of the Cassini RADAR. Depending on the altitude of Cassini during
197 acquisition, RADAR images provide the best spatial sampling of the Cassini remote sensing
198 payload when observing Titan, ranging from 0.2 to 2 km/pixel for the “regular” SAR mode,
199 when the spacecraft is at closest approach, i.e. between 1,000 and 4,000 km altitude. RADAR
200 images can also be acquired for altitudes greater than 10,000 km. The RADAR is thus
201 operating in the “High-altitude” SAR mode (also called HiSAR) and the resulting spatial
202 sampling is lower, typically >1 km/pixel (possibly up to ~20km/pixel). The RADAR imaging
203 mode results in the production of swaths 120 to 450 km-wide, at Cassini altitude of 1,000 to
204 4,000 km, and about 5,000 km-long following the track of the spacecraft (Elachi et al., 2004).

205 **Figure 1a** presents the map of Titan’s surface obtained by mosaicking all the SAR and
206 HiSAR images recorded between Titan’s first close flyby TA (October 26th 2004) and flyby
207 T92 (July 10th 2013), putting together a total of 149 individual images (46 SAR and 103
208 HiSAR images). This corresponds to an addition of 19 individual SAR images (and of all the
209 HiSAR images) as compared to the dataset used by Le Gall et al. (2011) to map Titan’s dunes.
210 All the RADAR swaths have been reprojected into the sinusoidal equal area coordinate
211 system (guaranteeing a simple and rigorous area calculation) and simple cylindrical
212 coordinate system (only for visualization purposes) using the ISIS software (Integrated
213 Software for Imagers and Spectrometers, Anderson et al., 2004) and then incorporated in a
214 Geographic Information System (GIS). Relative co-registration errors between swaths are
215 small, never exceeding ~0.1-0.2° in latitude or longitude.

216 Thanks to their integration into the GIS, the surface area of each individual swath has
217 been automatically calculated (see 3rd column of **Table 1**), updating and extending the
218 previous evaluations of [Le Gall et al. \(2011\)](#) and allowing the precise determination of the
219 total surface area observed by the RADAR. At the end of July 2013, 43.1% (~35,900,000
220 km²) of Titan's surface was thus covered by the highest spatial resolution SAR images. This
221 increases by ~10% the total surface coverage of SAR observations estimated from the map
222 drawn by [Le Gall et al., 2011](#). The RADAR coverage is further extended up to 58.4%
223 (~48,700,000 km²) if all the SAR and HiSAR images are incorporated (**Figure 1a**).

224

225 **[Figure 1 – full page, landscape]**

226

227 The spatial resolution of the SAR images allows individual dunes to be resolved,
228 permitting the accurate identification and delineation of the dune regions, taking into account
229 the exclusion of the radar-bright “inselbergs” or patches embedded within the dune fields
230 (**Figure 1b and inset**). It has been also possible to outline some more dunes within the lower-
231 resolution HiSAR observations, but only for those down to 1.5-2 km/pixel of spatial sampling
232 (which is the critical minimum limit of spatial sampling in order to resolve kilometer-sized
233 features). As we manually outline dune fields, this results in small but unavoidable errors in
234 the calculation of their total surface area. The visual uncertainty has been evaluated by
235 drawing several times the geographic limits of dune fields over the same region. This leads to
236 a conservative systematic uncertainty on the dune coverage and absolute surface area of 2%.

237 In the 2004-2013 period, dunes appear in 27 SAR and 7 HiSAR images (**Table 1**),
238 mainly at the tropics with no apparent longitudinal preference (except for the total absence of

239 dunes in the Xanadu area). A few isolated dune-like features are detected at latitudes higher
240 than 30° , in the southern ($\sim 40^\circ\text{S}$, $\sim 35^\circ\text{E}$) and northern hemisphere ($\sim 50^\circ\text{N}$, $\sim 45^\circ\text{W}$), the latter
241 having been already reported by [Radebaugh et al. \(2012\)](#). We evaluate that dunes cover $13 \pm$
242 2% of the 58.1% of Titan's surface covered by the SAR and HiSAR observations, considering
243 only images having a sufficient spatial resolution to identify individual dunes by excluding
244 HiSAR swaths with resolution coarser than 2 km/pixel (accounting for 0.3% of Titan's
245 surface coverage), and taking into account the overlap between images and dunes observed on
246 these images. 99.6% of the imaged dunes are found within the equatorial belt (within $\pm 30^\circ$
247 latitudes). The dune coverage as strictly observed by the RADAR thus represents a total
248 surface area of $6,500,000 \pm 130,000 \text{ km}^2$. This increases by almost a factor 2 the total area of
249 dunes firmly observed at Titan's surface (compared to the previous estimate of [Le Gall et al.](#)
250 [\(2011\)](#)), especially thanks to the addition of the T77 "equatorial" SAR swath which contains
251 72% of dunes (**Table 1**). A direct extrapolation from the RADAR fragmentary observations
252 alone suggests that dunes may cover more than $\sim 23\%$ of Titan's total surface area, equivalent
253 to ~ 19.2 million km^2 (more than 2 times greater than the Sahara desert surface area), or at
254 least $\sim 22\%$ (~ 18.3 million km^2) if the dunes are confined within the equatorial belt ($\pm 30^\circ$
255 latitudes), 61.3% of which has been imaged after T92. **Table 1** summarizes the information
256 on the coverage, and the average latitude and longitude of all the dune fields that we have
257 identified in the SAR and HiSAR swaths between TA (October 2004) and T92 flybys (July
258 2013).

259

260 **2.2 Infrared global mapping with the VIMS instrument and extraction of spectral units.**

261 In order to complement the mapping of Titan's surface, we also built a global mosaic
262 of surface observations recorded in the infrared by the VIMS instrument on board Cassini.

263 The VIMS instrument is a camera that acquires images in 352 separate wavelengths and
264 produces hyperspectral cubes (Brown et al., 2004). It is composed of two distinct detectors,
265 VIMS-VIS in the visible (96 channels from 0.35 to 1.04 μm) with a spectral sampling of 7.3
266 nm, and VIMS-IR in the near-infrared (256 channels from 0.88 to 5.11 μm) with a spectral
267 sampling of 16.6 nm. VIMS-IR is able to see Titan's surface in seven narrow atmospheric
268 windows of weakest gaseous absorption (the "methane" windows) centered at 0.93, 1.08,
269 1.27, 1.59, 2.03, 2.7–2.8 and 5 μm (Sotin et al., 2005). VIMS data that we use in this study are
270 reduced to I/F using the VIMS calibration pipeline, as described in Barnes et al. (2007).

271

272 **[Figure 2 – full page, landscape]**

273

274 **[Figure 3 – single column]**

275

276 All methane windows at wavelengths shorter than 5 μm are strongly affected by
277 atmospheric scattering due to the aerosols present in Titan's atmosphere – which blurs and
278 masks the details of the surface – whereas the 5 μm window can be considered at first order as
279 free of any haze scattering (Rodriguez et al., 2006). Atmospheric contribution, along with
280 surface photometric behavior, result in significant artifacts expressed as seams in raw global
281 mosaics because they are both highly dependent on the variation of the viewing conditions
282 (incidence, emission, and phase angles).

283 **Figure 2a** shows a color composite global mosaic of Titan's surface incorporating all
284 VIMS observations between TA (October 26th, 2004) and T70 (June 21st, 2010), adding

285 observations acquired during 28 extra Titan’s flybys since the study of [Le Corre et al. \(2008\)](#).
286 This noticeably extends the coverage and improves the average resolution of the equatorial
287 regions. Furthermore, unlike the VIMS global mosaic of [Le Corre et al. \(2008\)](#), the map used
288 in this study has been produced applying the heuristic correction method for atmospheric
289 contribution and surface photometry described in [Le Mouélic et al. \(2012\)](#) and [Cornet et al.](#)
290 [\(2012\)](#). This method, which includes recent refinements of the surface photometric function
291 from [Cornet et al. \(2013\)](#), is based on empirical corrections (applied at the center of each
292 methane window) for (1) the atmospheric scattering effects present in the short-wavelength
293 methane windows, and (2) the surface photometry. Those corrections allow to globally
294 homogenize the infrared map by diminishing the occurrence of seams, and significantly
295 enhance subtle spectral heterogeneities between surface terrains, which are otherwise damped
296 by atmospheric scattering, by getting closer to the true surface albedo.

297 As shown in **Figure 2a**, at the end of June 2010, VIMS observations entirely covered
298 the equatorial belt of Titan, with an average spatial resolution of ~15 km (see also [Le Mouélic](#)
299 [et al., 2012](#)). Titan’s polar coverage with VIMS is also complete at a low spatial resolution,
300 but does not appear in **Figure 2a** as observations with the most extreme illumination and/or
301 observation geometries were automatically filtered out by the correction algorithm ([Le](#)
302 [Mouélic et al., 2012](#)). The VIMS map shows that equatorial regions are mostly dominated by
303 three main spectral units, whose contrast is particularly enhanced thanks to our empirical
304 corrections. Using a specific color scheme with red as the 5- μm corrected channel, green as
305 the 2.01- μm corrected channel and blue as the 1.27- μm corrected channel, the three spectral
306 units visually appear, respectively (1) “bright” (the Xanadu area being part of it), (2) “dark
307 brown”, and (3) “dark blue” (**Figure 2a**), the last two having been long suspected to be
308 strongly linked to equatorial dune fields ([Soderblom et al., 2007](#); [Barnes et al., 2008](#)).

309 We searched for spectral criteria to automatically extract the infrared “dark brown”
310 and “dark blue” units from the corrected VIMS global map. Obvious advantages of this
311 method are to avoid visual biases and to guarantee the spectral and physical consistency of the
312 extracted areas. As we focus on the equatorial belt, all the regions poleward of $\pm 40^\circ$ in
313 latitudes have been excluded from the extraction process. Besides, the equatorial regions
314 benefit from the most favorable illumination and observation geometries, and therefore are
315 where the atmospheric correction algorithm produces its best results. Looking at the spectra,
316 “dark brown” and “dark blue” units are both characterized by very low I/F in all the
317 atmospheric windows compared to the equatorial “bright” unit and can be easily
318 discriminated from the brightest terrains by simply applying I/F thresholds. “Dark brown” and
319 “dark blue” units are further separated owing to their subtle but discernible spectral
320 differences, especially at the shortest wavelengths (below 3 μm). Indeed, “dark brown”
321 spectra have a greater spectral slope between 1.59 and 2.78 μm than between 1.27 and 2.01
322 μm , which is the exact opposite spectral behavior of the “dark blue” spectra. “Dark brown”
323 spectra also systematically exhibit lower 1.27/1.59 μm and 1.27/2.01 μm ratios than the “dark
324 blue’s”. Given all those criteria, we were able to automatically isolate the two dark “units”
325 (**Figure 2b**), which match extremely well the visual boundaries of the brownish and bluish
326 areas of the VIMS mosaic (**Figure 2a**), and calculate their respective surface areas. As the
327 visual transition between spectral colors is slightly fuzzy, whose sharpness is mainly limited
328 by the average resolution of the global mosaic, i.e. ~ 15 km, the localization of the spectral
329 unit edges, and the subsequent calculation of their surface areas, suffer from uncertainties.
330 This source of error has been evaluated by conservatively expanding and shrinking the
331 borders of the spectral units by one ‘unit’ of average resolution (15 km). We thus estimate that
332 the “dark brown” and “dark blue” units cover 17.5 ± 1.5 % ($14,600,000 \pm 1,200,000$ km²) and
333 1 ± 0.5 % ($840,000 \pm 410,000$ km²) of the total Titan’s surface area respectively.

334 **Figure 3a** shows the two infrared spectra extracted and averaged over the entire “dark
335 brown” and “dark blue” units. These spectra are each built by combining the values of I/F in
336 the five atmospheric windows from 1.27 up to 5 μm , all corrected for atmospheric
337 contribution. Even after the averaging over a very large number of spectra (more than 460,000
338 for the “dark brown” unit and more than 25,000 for the “dark blue” unit), the two resulting
339 spectra still present substantial differences. The spectrum of the “dark blue” unit is
340 significantly brighter at 1.27 μm , slightly brighter at 1.59 μm , and slightly darker at 2.01, 2.75
341 and 5 μm than the spectrum of the “dark brown” unit. When we represent the spectral slopes
342 1.27/1.59 vs 1.27/2.01 μm scatterplot for the two units (**Figure 3b**), the spectral differences
343 appear even clearer. In the scatterplot, the two units are both well confined in two small
344 clusters with only few overlaps. This is indicative of two important properties for those
345 spectral units: (1) the fact that the two units are confined in two distinct clusters in the
346 scatterplot strongly suggests that they are representative of two different classes of surface
347 composition, and (2) the fact that their spectra lie each in narrowed clusters shows that the
348 two units have intrinsically a very high degree of spectral homogeneity, indicating that the
349 two units are each covered by the same type of material.

350 As the spectra of the “dark brown” and “dark blue” units are all corrected for the
351 atmospheric contribution (following the approach of [Le Mouélic et al. \(2012\)](#)), this allowed us
352 to investigate further their most probable compositions. We calculated synthetic I/F spectra of
353 intimate and linear (or geographic) mixtures of granular surface composed of water ice and
354 tholins (laboratory analogues to the atmospheric solid organics constituting Titan’s settling
355 haze). These synthetic spectra are computed for the average geometries of the “dark brown”
356 and “dark blue” units, by using the formalism developed by [Hapke \(1993\)](#) and [Lucey \(1998\)](#),
357 including a Henyey-Greenstein phase function for the grains and multiple scattering between

358 grains. The asymmetry factor for the grain phase function has been set to -0.4 (Buratti et al.,
359 2006) and the average grain radius has been fixed at 50 μm . We used the refractive indexes
360 measured by Warren (1984) for water ice and Khare et al. (1984) for tholins. Spectral slopes
361 of the “dark brown” and “dark blue” units are thus compared with spectral slopes predicted
362 from the granular surface modeling (Figure 3b). The matching between observed and
363 simulated slopes is sufficiently close to be informative. Given the numerous uncertainties
364 (from the observation side: spectral slopes calculated from spectra very close, but still not
365 perfectly equal, to the true surface albedos; from the modeling side: arbitrary choice for grain
366 size and type of mixtures), it is not possible to discriminate between intimate or linear
367 mixtures of water ice and tholins, though both or a combination of the two are still compatible
368 with the observed spectral slopes. However, the general trend of the modeled spectral slopes
369 leaves less ambiguity and advocates for a strong gradient in water ice/solid organics content
370 between the two observed units. This unequivocally confirms the interpretation that “dark
371 brown” terrains are largely dominated by solid organics similar to atmospheric aerosols, and
372 also validates the enrichment in the fine-grained water ice content (or the pure water ice larger
373 exposure) of the “dark blue” regions relative to the “dark brown” terrains (as suspected from
374 the spectral slopes extracted from atmosphere-corrected Titan’s spectra by Rodriguez et al.,
375 2006; from uncorrected spectra by Soderblom et al., 2007; Barnes et al., 2008; Clark et al.,
376 2010; in accordance with radiative transfer modeling of Hirtzig et al., 2013).

377

378 **3. Discussion.**

379 Putting together the distribution of Titan’s dunes inferred from the RADAR images
380 and the mapping of the VIMS observations, it is possible to confirm and quantify, at the
381 global scale, the correlation between the dune regions and the infrared “dark brown” unit. We

382 discuss here the possible implications of such a correlation for the sand composition, the
383 volume of the solid organic trapped in the dunes and the climatology.

384

385 **3.1 Latitudinal distribution of RADAR-mapped dunes and correlation with VIMS** 386 **spectral units.**

387 **Figure 4** shows the fractional surface area occupied by Titan's dunes observed by the
388 RADAR as a function of latitude, updating and extending that of [Le Gall et al. \(2011\)](#). The
389 dune surface area has been normalized by the total fractional area imaged by the RADAR
390 (including SAR and HiSAR observations), in such a way that the calculation of fraction of
391 dune coverage is not biased by the partial coverage of the RADAR observations. The
392 latitudinal distribution of dunes is Gaussian-like to first order with a maximum fractional
393 coverage of ~60% at the equator, dropping down to no dunes for latitudes higher than $\pm 30^\circ$.
394 The only exceptions are a few dunes found at $\sim 40^\circ\text{S}$ and $\sim 50^\circ\text{N}$ within isolated small areas
395 morphologically (greater interdune areas) and spectrally (brighter at radar and infrared
396 wavelengths) distinct from the majority of those observed around the equator (see [Radebaugh](#)
397 [et al., 2012](#)).

398 This particular distribution of the dunes, generally associated with arid to semi-arid
399 climates (e.g. [Lancaster, 1995](#)), strongly suggests that the efficiency of the sediment mobility
400 monotonically decreases with latitude, possibly due to increasing ground humidity from the
401 equator to the poles resulting in a declining availability in mobile sediment ([Le Gall et al.,](#)
402 [2012](#)). Those observations are in general agreement with climate models that predict a global
403 transport of humidity from the equator to the poles, inescapably drying the equatorial regions
404 where arid conditions must prevail ([Rannou et al., 2006](#); [Mitchell et al., 2006, 2008](#);

405 [Schneider et al., 2012](#)). The progressive poleward disappearance of dunes could also be partly
406 attributed to a decrease in availability of “dark brown” organic sediment (mid-latitudes being
407 indeed dominated by bright infrared terrains, cf. **Figure 2a**) and to less frequent storms able to
408 produce sufficiently strong winds to mobilize the sediment ([Schneider et al., 2012](#)). Looking
409 more carefully, the latitudinal distribution of dunes displays a slight hemispherical imbalance
410 with fewer dunes in the southern hemisphere. If infrared bright equatorial terrains are more
411 elevated than the equatorial “basins” where dunes seem to preferentially accumulate ([Le Gall
412 et al., 2012](#)), this slight south/north asymmetry could be explained by the topography, because
413 most of these highlands (equatorial bright terrains) are located in the southern hemisphere
414 ([Lorenz et al., 2013](#)).

415 We also indicate in **Figure 4** the latitudinal fractional coverage of the VIMS “dark
416 brown” unit inferred from the global VIMS spectral unit map (**Figure 2b**). The latitudinal
417 correspondence between the fractional coverage of the VIMS “dark brown” unit and the
418 RADAR-mapped dunes is very good. The two distributions can be almost super-imposed,
419 pointing toward a very high level of correlation between the dunes and the VIMS “dark
420 brown” unit. The precise degree of spatial correlation is explored and quantified in the
421 following section.

422 The latitudinal extent of the “dark brown” unit leads to an important conclusion. The
423 infrared spectral signature of the bright mid-latitudes seems to indicate that sand has not
424 settled in large exposed amounts at mid-latitudes in the present epoch. If the sand came from
425 high latitudes, it must have been swept efficiently to the equatorial belt without leaving a lot
426 en route in mid-latitudes. Another possibility is that the sand was never deposited away from
427 the equator, which raises the questions of where it came from and how it formed.

428

429

[Figure 4 – single column]

430

431 **3.2 Global geographic correlation between RADAR-mapped dunes and VIMS spectral**
432 **units, dune global coverage and total sand volume: implication for Titan’s global carbon**
433 **cycle.**

434

435

[Figure 5 – full page, landscape]

436

437 We show in **Figure 5** (bottom) the spatial overlap between the dune fields extracted
438 from the RADAR observations (see **Figure 1b**) and the “dark brown” and “dark blue” units
439 derived from the VIMS global map (see **Figure 2b**). We observe a noticeably good
440 correlation between the imaged dunes and the VIMS “dark brown” unit, extending at the
441 global scale their very good latitudinal correlation (**Section 3.1** and **Figure 4**). Local visual
442 examination (**Figure 5**, top insets for examples) shows that the edges of dune fields match
443 most of the boundaries of the “dark brown” unit to within the resolution limit of the data.

444 Quantitative correlation calculations show that $72 \pm 3\%$ of the imaged dunes (SAR and
445 HiSAR with spatial sampling down to ~ 2 km/pixel) lie in the “dark brown” unit. Conservative
446 uncertainties have been computed taking into account (1) the visual 2% error in drawing the
447 boundaries of the RADAR dune fields (see **section 2.1**), (2) the 1.5% and 0.5% errors in
448 estimating the areas covered by the “dark brown” and “dark blue” units respectively (caused
449 by the low-resolution VIMS observations in some places and the resulting difficulty in visual
450 identification of a sharp border for the more diffuse parts of the “dark brown” and “dark blue”

451 units – see **section 2.2**), and (3) co-registration errors due to remaining uncertainties on
452 Titan’s orbital parameters and Cassini pointing, leading to a global shift between RADAR and
453 VIMS datasets which has been estimated to 0.5° at maximum (mostly in longitude).

454 The geographic overlap between RADAR-mapped dunes and the VIMS “dark brown”
455 unit is substantial and indicates that dune material composition is largely dominated by solid
456 organics (see **section 2.2**). Conversely, the correlation of dunes with the “dark blue” unit is
457 much more fortuitous ($2 \pm 1\%$ of the observed dunes being infrared-“dark blue”). Only a few
458 “dark blue” patches among the whole “dark blue” unit are found within the dune fields. But,
459 even if incidental, the occurrence of such “dark blue” areas in dune regions may be very
460 informative regarding the local heterogeneities in composition, morphological and/or textural
461 properties of the dunes. We showed in **section 2.2** that the spectra modeling strongly favors
462 local enrichment in water-ice of a solid organic-water ice granular mixture or a larger
463 exposure percentage of pure water ice (i.e. a lack of sediments in the interdune areas) to
464 explain the spectral behavior of the “dark blue” dunes, as it was previously anticipated
465 ([Barnes et al., 2008](#); [Le Gall et al., 2011](#)). This hypothesis is further supported by the fact that
466 the “dark blue” unit occurs quasi-systematically as diffuse patches at borders delimiting dark
467 and bright terrains, and may represents areas of intermediate organic sediment availability.
468 Finally, a few dune fields are also found outside of the “dark brown” and “dark blue” regions.
469 Most of them are isolated patches (also known as “cat scratches”) surrounded by local reliefs
470 where dunes are shorter and present very bright interdune areas at the RADAR wavelength.
471 Those dune fields have probably interdune areas totally devoid of sediment, which make them
472 appearing also globally brighter in the infrared lower-resolution images rather than brown or
473 blue. **Figure 6** summarizes the actual interpretations of the dune infrared colors in terms of
474 dune field morphology and progressive decrease in sediment availability.

475

476

[Figure 6 – single column]

477

478 The high level of qualitative and quantitative spatial correlation between the dunes and
479 the “dark brown” unit that we infer from our global RADAR and VIMS maps confirms the
480 strong bilateral connection between these geomorphological and spectral units. We can thus
481 extrapolate with reasonably good confidence the extent of the dune fields (or at least the dune
482 material) to the total area of the VIMS “dark brown” spectral unit. Given the spectral
483 homogeneity of the “dark brown” unit, this also tells us that the dune material must be
484 homogeneous in composition and grain size (sand-sized solid organics) over the total extent
485 of the dune regions, in good agreement with the global homogeneity of the RADAR
486 reflectivity and emissivity of the dune fields (Janssen et al., 2011) and consistent with dune
487 formation processes. Therefore the dune system on Titan can be extended up to 17.5% of
488 Titan’s surface area (see **Section 2.2**). This corresponds to an area of ~14.6 million km², much
489 less than the over-estimated ~18-19 million km² computed from the arbitrary extrapolation
490 using the RADAR observations alone (see **Section 2.1**).

491 We showed that the infrared “dark brown” unit is most likely dominated by solid
492 organics, equivalent to the material composing the RADAR-mapped dunes. However, as
493 infrared reflectivity of a surface is primarily sensitive to the composition and granularity of
494 the first tens of microns of the material coating it, the “dark brown” spectral class, where no
495 RADAR observations are available and where dunes cannot be resolved, may be caused by a
496 thin coating independent of the underlying geologic feature, i.e. with or without dunes. We
497 should therefore consider two possible alternative scenarios: either (1) the “dark brown” unit

498 is entirely covered by dunes, or (2), more conservatively, only the “dark brown” areas
499 overlapping RADAR-mapped dunes is covered by dunes, the rest of the “dark brown” unit
500 being coated by the dune material but without dune landforms (i.e. like sand sheets).

501 Considering an average dune height of 100 m (Barnes et al., 2008; Neish et al., 2010),
502 a dune/interdune coverage fraction of 35-60% (Savage et al., this issue), an average thickness
503 of sediment covering the interdune (or covering the “dark brown” areas devoid of dunes) of 5
504 m (Lorenz et al., 2008), supposing a prismatic shape for the dunes, and taking into account the
505 uncertainties on the surface areas of the RADAR-mapped dunes and “dark brown” unit, the
506 total volume of organic sediments should be within the range $3\text{-}4.4\times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$ for the scenario
507 (1) and $1.7\text{-}2.5\times 10^5 \text{ km}^3$ for the scenario (2).

508 Assuming a mass density of $800 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for the organic sand particles, this corresponds
509 to an equivalent of 136,000 to 350,000 GT (with an “average” value of 230,000 GT) of solid
510 organic trapped in the dune sediments. These estimates make the equatorial sand one of the
511 largest hydrocarbon reservoirs on Titan’s surface and atmosphere, greater than the polar lakes
512 and seas (ranging from 4,000 to 30,000 GT, Lorenz et al., 2008; Sotin et al., 2012), the
513 photochemical haze particles (0.14 GT, Sotin et al., 2012), and possibly the current
514 atmospheric gases (190,000 GT, Sotin et al., 2012). Considerable subsurface reservoirs of
515 liquid or gaseous hydrocarbons may also exist on Titan (Hayes et al., 2008; Mousis and
516 Schmitt, 2008; Cornet et al., 2012; Choukroun and Sotin, 2012), but their volumes are still
517 impossible to evaluate.

518 Titan’s atmospheric methane is irreversibly destroyed by solar photons and charged
519 particles accelerated by Saturn’s magnetosphere. A large fraction of the atmospheric methane
520 destruction ends with the formation of complex organic aerosols that settle on the surface and
521 form the primary source of organic sediments from which dune formation may be initiated.

522 Taking our “average” value for the total mass of dune material and a formation rate for the
523 atmospheric aerosols of 10-130 kg/s (Rannou et al., 2003, 2004), the time required to form the
524 total amount of dune material from the settling of photochemical aerosols ranges from 50- to
525 730-Myr, consistent with the age of the last global outgassing episode proposed by the models
526 of Tobie et al. (2006), Mandt et al. (2012) and Choukroun and Sotin (2012), and the estimate
527 of the age of Titan’s equatorial surface from crater counting (Wood et al., 2010; Neish and
528 Lorenz, 2012).

529

530 **4. Conclusions.**

531 This work has shown that a joint analysis of Cassini/RADAR and VIMS overlapping
532 observations is an extremely powerful tool to explore the surface of Titan, providing
533 additional constraints on the correlation between Titan’s geomorphological and infrared
534 spectral units. By significantly updating mosaics of RADAR and VIMS observations of
535 Titan’s surface, we were able to extract and delineate at the global scale both equatorial dunes
536 from RADAR images and infrared spectral units from VIMS hyperspectral images. A new
537 VIMS global mosaic corrected for the atmospheric contributions has been used in this study,
538 improving and extending the work of Soderblom et al. (2007), Barnes et al. (2008) and Le
539 Corre et al. (2008). RADAR-mapped dunes and the “dark brown” unit are similarly confined
540 within the equatorial belt ($\pm 30^\circ$ in latitudes) with an equivalent distribution with latitudes.
541 This particular latitudinal distribution is indicative for the aridity of the climate prevailing at
542 Titan’s tropics, characterized by lower ground humidity and more frequent (but still episodic)
543 energetic storms than at higher latitudes, increasing both sediment availability and mobility.
544 At the global scale, we found an overall correlation of 72% between the imaged dunes and the
545 equatorial infrared VIMS “dark brown” unit. The very high degree of global scale correlation

546 conclusively proves the close link between both units, which was already proposed based on
547 local studies ([Soderblom et al., 2007](#); [Barnes et al., 2008](#)) and at the global scale from a
548 limited set of observations ([Le Corre et al., 2008](#)). This correlation allowed us to extrapolate
549 the extent of dune material to the whole surface area covered by the VIMS “dark brown” unit,
550 that is to say 14.6 ± 0.2 million km², updating and revising previous values evaluated using
551 the partial coverage of RADAR images alone. Spectral modeling confirms that Titan’s dune
552 sediment (mostly “dark brown” in the infrared) is most plausibly largely dominated by solid
553 organics similar to the photochemical atmospheric aerosols.

554 A refined estimate of the global dune material volume and distribution is essential to
555 constrain Titan’s total organic inventory and therefore to understand the carbon cycle on
556 Titan. From our estimate of the total surface area covered by dune material and assuming two
557 possible scenarios for the sand distribution (either the sand is (1) entirely trapped in dune
558 landforms, or (2) trapped in dunes at places where dune landforms are firmly observed and in
559 sand sheets elsewhere), we estimate the total volume of organic sand to be $1.7\text{-}4.4 \times 10^5$ km³.
560 The average total amount of hydrocarbon trapped in Titan’s sand is thus evaluated to 230,000
561 GT, confirming that dunes (and possibly sand sheets) are a major geological surface unit and
562 the largest visible hydrocarbon reservoir on Titan. The volume and the spectroscopic
563 properties of the sediment contained in Titan’s dunes are consistent with organic products of
564 atmospheric origin. Given the rate of atmospheric methane destruction into organic aerosols,
565 we calculate a maximum age of 730 Myr for the dune material, which agrees with the
566 timeframe of the last episode of global methane outgassing (e.g. [Tobie et al., 2006](#)) and the
567 young age of Titan’s surface from crater counting (e.g. [Wood et al., 2010](#)).

568 All the results and refinements of our study, regarding the nature, origin and global
569 distribution of Titan’s dunes, not only can help the global circulation models to improve their

570 prescriptions for tropical surface albedos and stratospheric haze production rates, but also
571 bring strong constraints on the latitudinal distribution of ground humidity and strength of the
572 near-surface winds. All the mapping shapefiles produced for this study (RADAR SAR and
573 HiSAR coverages, RADAR-mapped dunes and VIMS spectral units) are shared with the
574 community and accessible through the following website: [http://aim172.aim.univ-](http://aim172.aim.univ-paris-diderot.fr/WebGIS/TitanGIS.html)
575 [paris-diderot.fr/WebGIS/TitanGIS.html](http://aim172.aim.univ-paris-diderot.fr/WebGIS/TitanGIS.html).

576 The Cassini spacecraft continues to observe Titan up to the planned end of the Solstice
577 mission in May 2017 and record new RADAR and VIMS images. In particular, new RADAR
578 and VIMS observations of the equatorial belt (up to the mid-latitudes) will complement the
579 high-resolution and spectral coverage of this region. Yet, it is important to note that up to May
580 2017 the RADAR experiment will only acquire 8 new SAR swaths and most of them will
581 pass above already observed equatorial regions, the major potential update above new
582 equatorial (and “dark brown”) regions being expected from the T113 pass in September 2015.
583 The RADAR observations of Titan’s dunes we compile in this paper are therefore almost
584 complete for the Cassini’s era.

585 Even so, more high-resolution VIMS observations at low- to mid-latitudes and better-
586 quality corrections for atmospheric scattering and surface photometry are needed in order to
587 sharpen the fuzziest edges of the “dark brown” unit and thus to improve their location. Future
588 work will also consist in adding the ISS mosaics to the Titan’s GIS. ISS provides images of
589 Titan’s surface at 0.93 μm with an overall better spatial resolution than VIMS (except when
590 VIMS is observing at the closest approach), providing additional constraints on the global
591 correlation of dunes with infrared-dark regions. Because water ice is bright at 0.93 μm , ISS
592 should be good at differentiating “dark brown” dunes from “dark blue” and “bright” deposits.
593 All of this will better constrain both the nature and geographic distribution of Titan’s sand and

594 its total volume, which are crucial for a more complete understanding of Titan’s climatology
595 of and hydrocarbon cycle. Finally, the nature and origin of the singular infrared-“bluish” and
596 “bright” areas within the dune fields will also deserve further investigations.

597

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898

899 **Table 1.** SAR and HiSAR observations of Titan's dune fields from TA through T77.

Flyby	Date	SAR swath coverage ^b	Dune coverage within the SAR swath ^c	Median of the swath spatial sampling [azimuth-range] (km/pixel)	Dune latitude range	Dune longitude range	Imaged dune fields ^d
T3	Feb. 15, 2005	2.11%	16.6%	0.33-0.44	1.5°N-22.5°N	6.2°W-118.9°W	F
T8	Oct. 28, 2005	2.08%	51.2%	0.3-0.42	18.1°S-5.6°S	41.8°E-176.6°E	B, SL
T13	Apr. 30, 2006	1.72%	17.9%	0.33-0.45	16.7°S-4.2°S	142.7°W-170.1°W	SL
T13 (H)^a	Apr. 30, 2006	0.17%	39.1%	2.71-1.57	10.5°S-2.5°S	164.9°W-169.7°W	SL
T16	Jul., 22, 2006	2.05%	7.5%	0.31-0.41	14.4°N-25.9°N	140.9°W-149.6°W & 11.1°E-19.9°E	- A
T17	Sep. 7, 2006	0.28%	83.7%	0.26-0.28	2.5°N-14.9°N	32.4°W-66.8°W	F
T19	Oct. 6, 2006	2.22%	7.5%	0.3-0.41	5.3°S-25.6°N	30.2°E-45.3°E	S
T19 (H)	Oct. 6, 2006	0.33%	6.5%	0.61-1.19	6.8°N-10.2°N	49.5°E-54.8°E	S, B
T21	Dec. 12, 2006	1.54%	18.6%	0.31-0.34	19.5°S-13.8°N	61.9°E-84.9°E	-
T23	Jan. 13, 2007	2.05%	7.9%	0.3-0.42	21.1°S-53.7°N	0°-21.8°E & 0°-47.8°W	S F, A
T25	Feb. 22, 2007	2.07%	17.2%	0.28-0.4	20.8°S-31.2°N	27.6°W-50.5°W	F, A
T28	Apr. 10, 2007	2.18%	38.3%	0.29-0.47	18.9°S-33.4°N	17.8°W-13.8°W	F, A
T29	Apr. 26, 2007	1.99%	15.4%	0.29-0.42	3.6°S-24.8°N	24.4°W-39.4°W	F, A
T36 (H)	Oct. 2, 2007	0.47%	47.6%	0.76-1.04	11.4°S-16.6°N	153.1°E-172°E	SL
T39 (H)	Nov. 19, 2007	0.31%	2.7%	0.92-1	1.8°S-1.3°N	158.9°E-161.5°E	SL
T41	Feb. 22, 2008	2.16%	23.4%	0.29-0.46	28.6°S-12.7°N	141.4°E -174.8°W	SL
T41 (H)	Feb. 22, 2008	0.39%	40.3%	0.61-1.28	3°S-8.6°N	45.7°W-65.8°W	A
T43	May 12, 2008	2.23%	9.1%	1.46-1.06	0.9°N-26.2°N	153.4°E-133.3°W	SL
T44	May 28, 2008	2.11%	17.8%	0.28-0.46	4.9°S-21.1°N	146.7°E-140.9°W	SL
T48	Dec. 5, 2008	1.51%	22.1%	0.33-0.28	15.8°S-27.4°N	154.2°E-148.3°W	SL
T49	Dec. 21, 2008	1.24%	45.7%	0.3-0.44	22.6°S-23.3°N	81.5°E-105.5°E	B
T49 (H)	Dec. 21, 2008	0.25%	49.1%	1.88-0.86	7.5°S-10.7°N	75.7°E-87.7°E	S, B
T50	Feb. 7, 2009	0.81%	18.1%	0.28-0.27	37.2°S-14.5°N	33.3°E-59.2°E	S
T50 (G)	Feb. 7, 2009	0.61%	46.7%	2-2.42	8.9°S-0.2°S	81.8°E-109.1°E	B
T55	May 15, 2009	2.08%	18.5%	0.3-0.39	31.5°S-22.8°N	133.8°W-172.7°W	SL
T56	Jun. 6, 2009	2.05%	24.4%	0.3-0.39	30.2°S-22.5°N	128.8°W-165.3°W	SL
T57	Jun. 22, 2009	0.83%	8.2%	0.3-0.27	29.8°S-10.7°N	132.4°W-157.8°W	SL
T58	Jul. 8, 2009	1.96%	12.4%	0.29-0.38	16.1°S-5.6°N	136.8°W-151.2°W	SL
T61	Aug. 25, 2009	2.02%	40.3%	0.29-0.39	14.8°S-8.3°N	50.5°E-177.1°W	S-B-SL
T64	Dec. 28, 2009	1.08%	5.9%	0.31-0.35	12.1°N-16.5°N	146.6°E-149.7°E	-
T77	June 20, 2011	1.06%	72.0%	0.33-0.43	2.4°N-18.7°N	33.2°W-95.1°W	F
T84	Jan. 2, 2013	0.71%	15.5%	0.3-0.39	6.5°N-16.3°N	132.7E-148.4E	B
T91	May 23, 2013	1.02%	1.9%	N/A	15.5°N-19.5°N	108.4E-112.9E	B
T92	July 10, 2013	2.03%	13.9%	N/A	31.8°S-19.4°N	112.1E-117.9E	B

900 ^a (H) and (G) indicate HiSAR swaths. ^b In percentage of Titan's total surface area, not

901 accounting for possible overlap between swaths. ^c In percentage of swath's total surface area,

902 not accounting for possible overlap between swaths. ^d If available, the names of the dune

903 field(s) imaged during each flyby are noted: A = Aztlan, B = Belet, F = Fensal, S = Senkyo,

904 SL = Shangri-La.

905

906 **Figure 1. (a)** Global mosaic of all the Cassini SAR and HiSAR swaths recorded from the
907 beginning of the mission (July 2004) through the 92nd close flyby of Titan (July 2013). The
908 swaths are reprojected using the simple cylindrical coordinate system. **(b)** Dune fields and
909 “inselbergs” embedded within the dune fields are here outlined in yellow. The inset shows a
910 zoomed view the RADAR map (**Figure 1a**) with an example of how dune fields are
911 delineated, excluding the “inselbergs” and embedded bright areas.

912

913 **Figure 2. (a)** RGB color composite map of Titan’s surface incorporating all VIMS
914 observations between TA (October 26th, 2004) and T70 (June 21st, 2010). The RGB channels
915 correspond to Red = 5.0 μm , Green = 2.01 μm and Blue = 1.27 μm , with the 5.0 μm image
916 being corrected for photometry, and the 2.01 and 1.27 μm images being empirically corrected
917 for scattering and photometry. The VIMS images are reprojected using the simple cylindrical
918 coordinate system. **(b)** “Dark brown” and “dark blue” units are here represented by the solid
919 brown and blue areas (details on how those spectral units have been extracted from the VIMS
920 global map are explicated in the text).

921

922 **Figure 3. (a)** VIMS I/F spectra averaged over the whole “dark blue” (blue triangles) and
923 “dark brown” (brown circles) units displayed in **Figure 2b**. The “dark blue” and “dark
924 brown” spectra are averages of 25,129 and 466,819 spectra respectively. The I/F values are
925 taken at the center of 5 atmospheric windows (at 1.27, 1.59, 2.01, 2.75 and 5 μm), each
926 corrected for atmospheric haze scattering and surface photometry. **(b)** Scatter plot of the
927 1.27/1.59 vs 1.27/2.01 μm spectral slopes for all the “dark brown” (brown circles) and “dark
928 blue” (blue triangles) spectra, all being empirically corrected for atmospheric scattering and

929 surface photometry. Squares denote the spectral slopes modeled for intimate (gray squares) or
930 linear mixtures (black squares) of granular water ice and tholins by step of 10% of mixing, for
931 grainsizes of 50 microns. The brown square is 100% of tholins and the blue square is 100% of
932 water ice.

933

934 **Figure 4.** Dune and “dark brown” unit latitudinal distributions. The surface area covered by
935 dunes is normalized by the surface area sampled by Cassini SAR and HiSAR (down to the
936 spatial sampling of ~ 2 km/pixel) through T92, as a function of Titan’s latitude (thick black
937 curve). The latitude bin size is 1° . The dotted black line shows the fractional surface area of
938 Titan covered by SAR+HiSAR swaths. It shows that all latitudes are significantly sampled by
939 existing coverage.

940

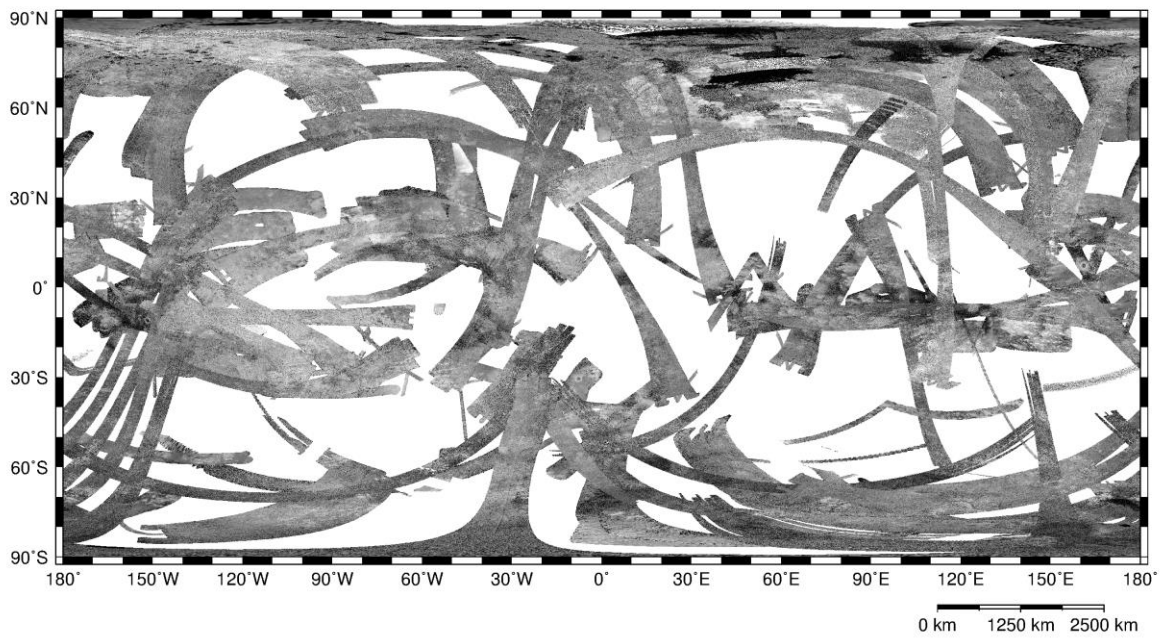
941 **Figure 5.** (a) Maps of the dune fields (outlined by the yellow lines), “dark brown” regions
942 (solid brown area) and “dark blue” regions (solid blue area), as extracted from the maps
943 shown in **Figure 1b** and **2b**. (b) Zoom on the eastern part of the Shangri-La dune fields. (c)
944 Zoom on the northern part of the Senkyo dune fields. (d) Zoom on the western part of the
945 Shangri-La dune fields. The three insets illustrate the very good qualitative spatial correlation
946 between the imaged dunes and the VIMS “dark brown” unit.

947

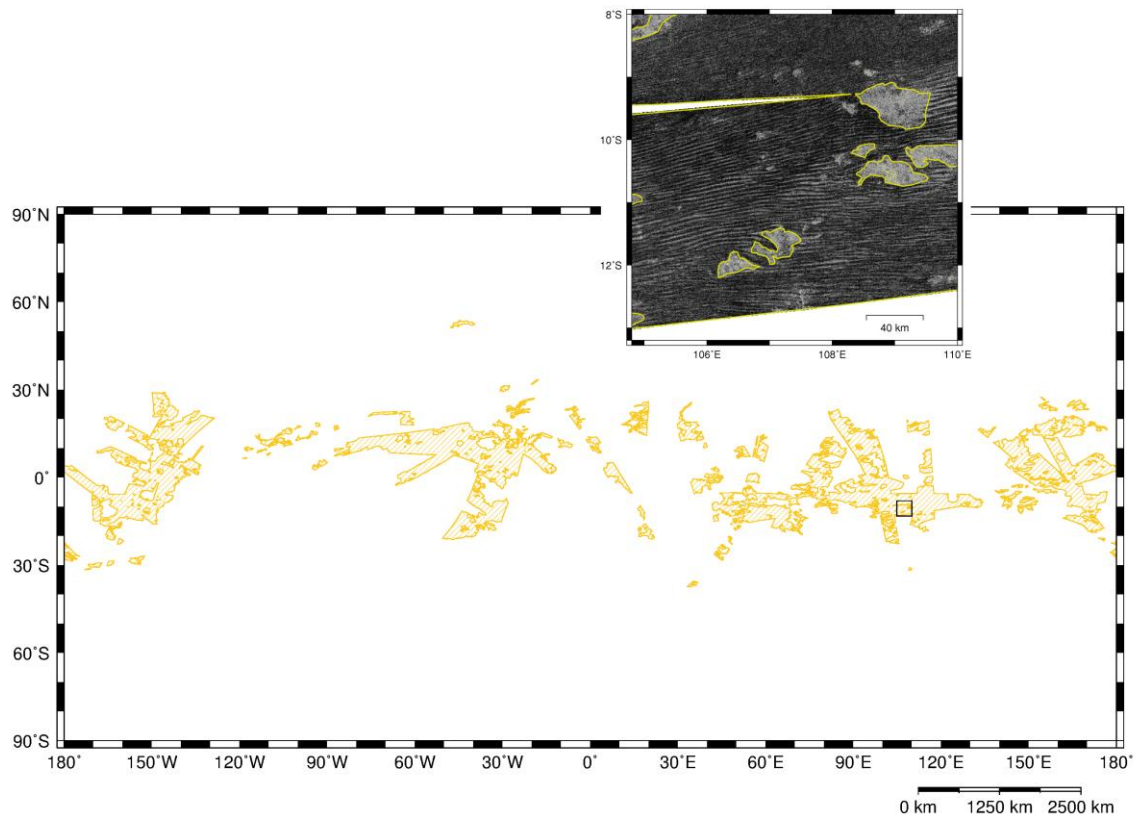
948 **Figure 6.** Sketch of Titan’s dune sediment coverage related to their infrared color. “Dark
949 brown” dune systems (dunes and interdunes) are dominated by organic sediment. “Dark blue”
950 and “bright” dunes are gradually depleted and devoid of sediment in the interdune areas.

951

952 **Figures 1a and 1b.**



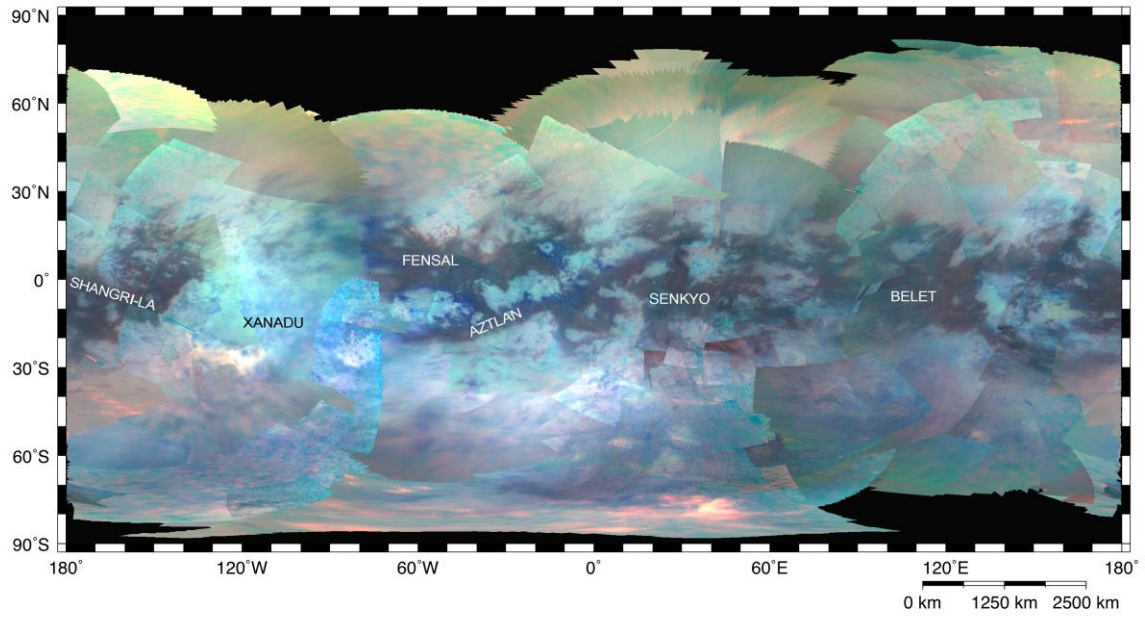
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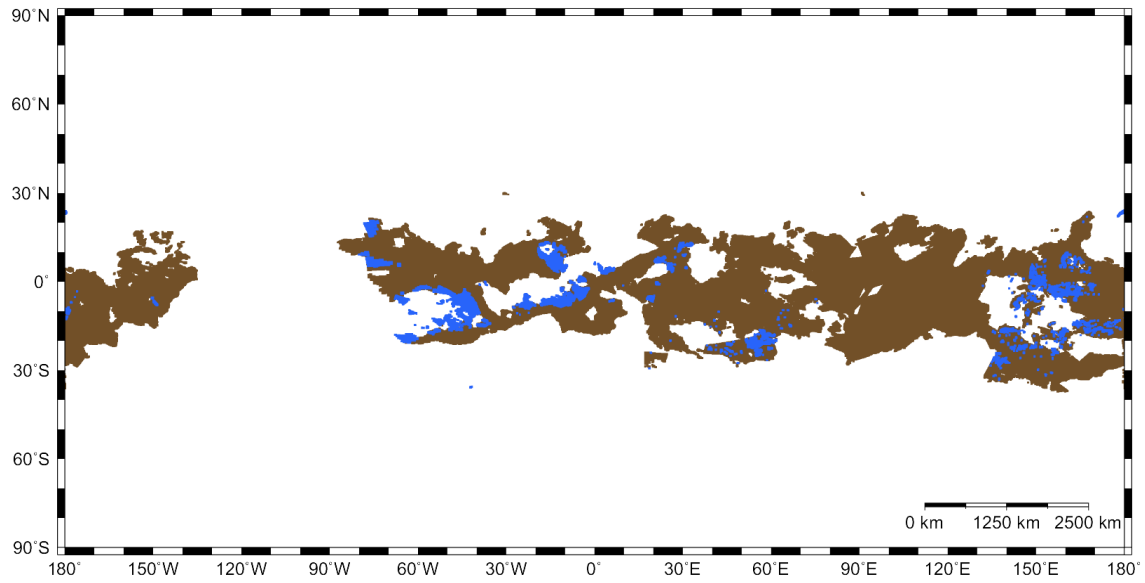
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955

956 **Figures 2a and 2b.**



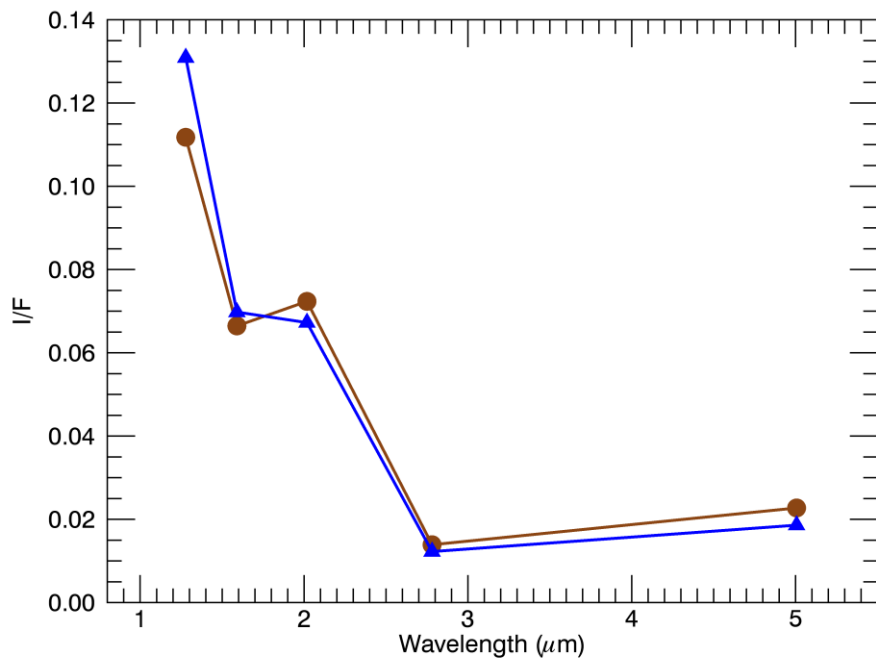
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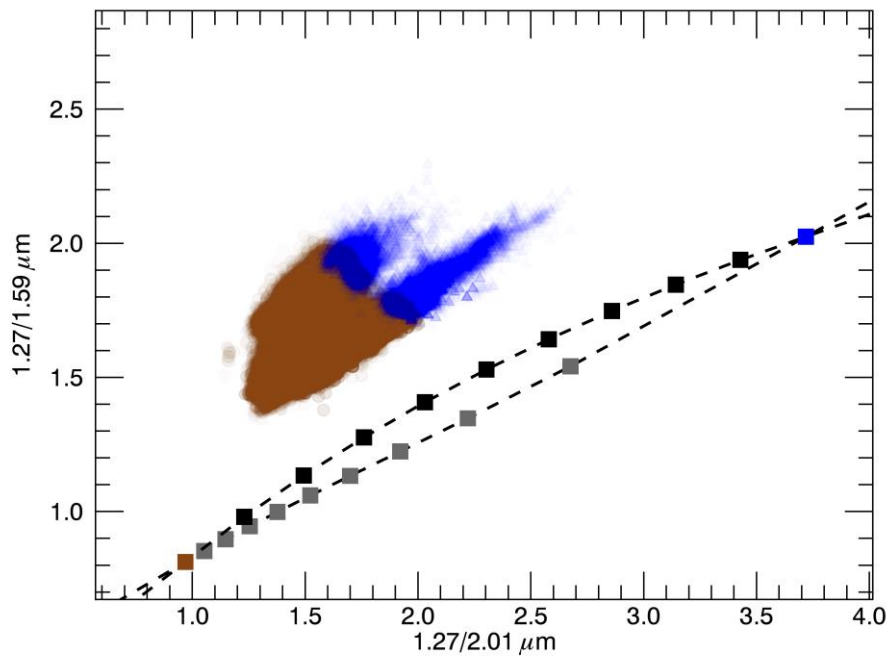
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959

960 **Figures 3a and 3b.**



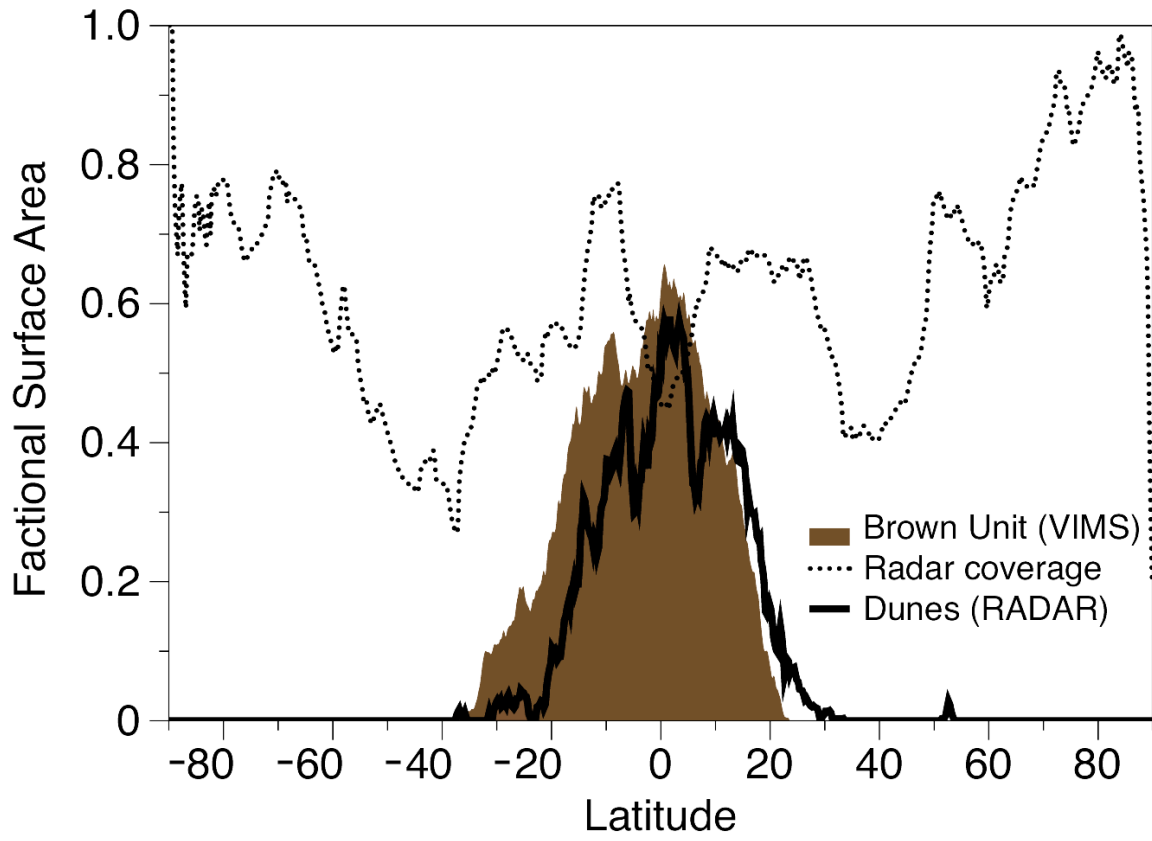
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962

963 **Figure 4.**

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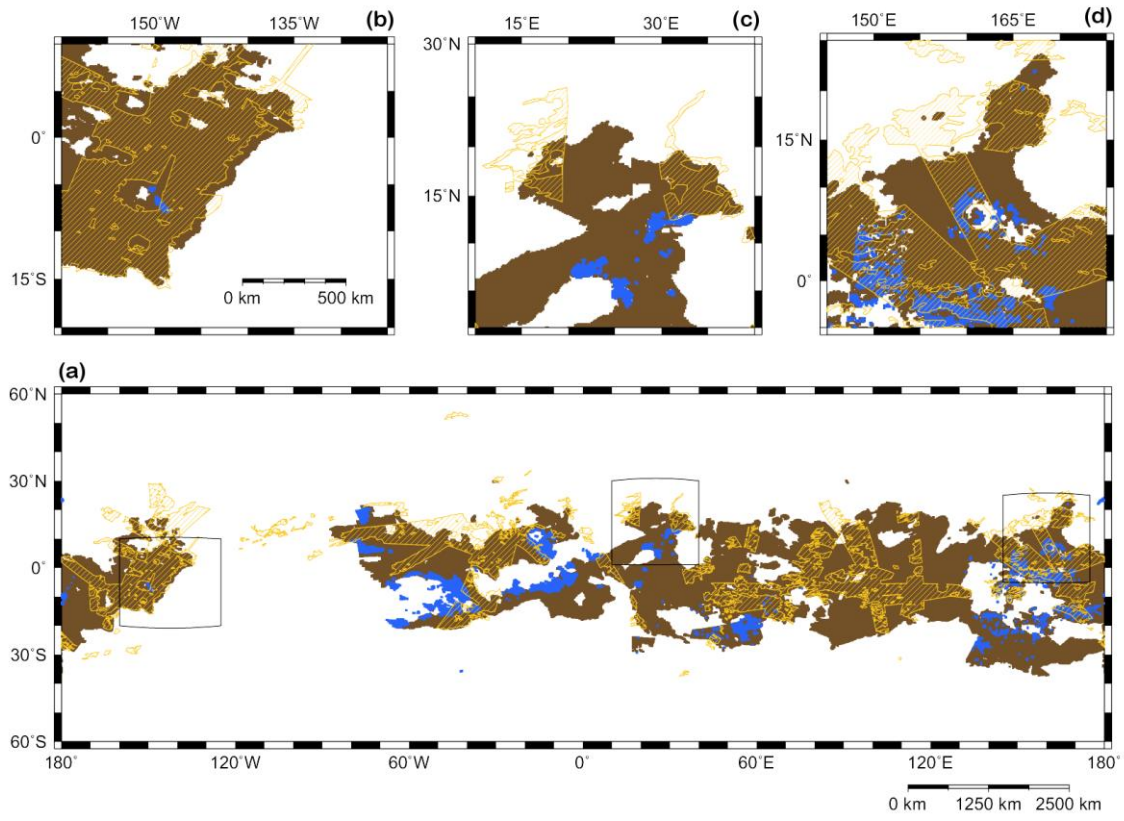
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967 **Figure 5.**

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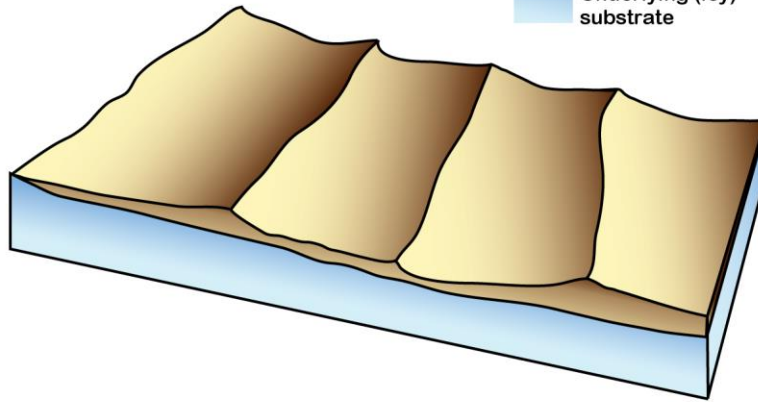


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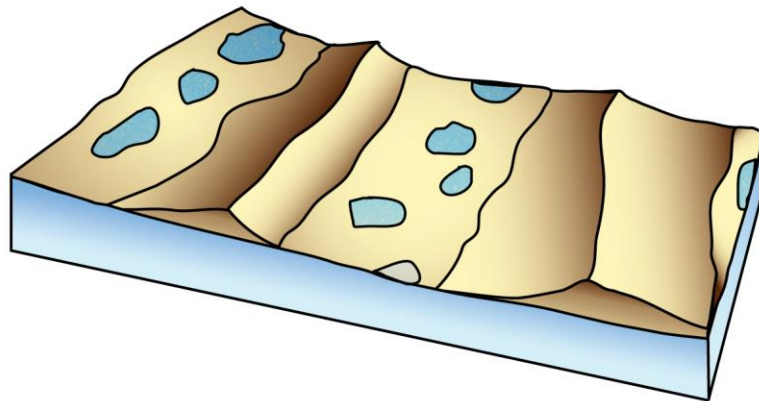
971

"Dark brown" dunes

Organic sediment
Underlying (icy) substrate



"Dark blue" dunes



RADAR and VIMS brighter dunes

