Radio Instrument Package for Lunar Ionospheric Observation: A Concept Study

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Abstract

The lunar ionosphere is a ~100 km thick layer of electrically charged plasma surrounding the moon. Despite knowledge of its existence for decades, the structure and dynamics of the lunar plasma remain a mystery due to lack of consistent observational capacity. An enhanced observational picture of the lunar ionosphere and improved understanding of its formation/loss mechanisms is critical for understanding the lunar environment as a whole and assessing potential safety and economic hazards associated with lunar exploration and habitation. To address the high priority need for observations of the electrically charged constituents near the lunar surface, we introduce a concept study for the Radio Instrument Package for Lunar Ionospheric Observation (RIPLIO). RIPLIO would consist of a multi-CubeSat constellation (at least two satellites) in lunar orbit for the purpose of conducting "crosslink" radio occultation measurements of the lunar ionosphere, with at least one satellite carrying a very high frequency (VHF) transmitter broadcasting at multiple frequencies, and at least one satellite signals cross through the lunar ionosphere, and the resulting phase perturbations of VHF signals may be analyzed to infer the ionosphere electron content and high- resolution vertical electron density profiles. As demonstrated in this study, RIPLIO would provide a novel means for lunar observation, with the potential to provide long-term, high-resolution observations of the lunar ionosphere with unprecedented pan-lunar detail.

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14 15 16	Corresponding author: Chris Watson (<u>chris.watson@unb.ca)</u>
17	Key Points:
18 19	• We propose a "crosslink" radio occultation method of observing electrically charged constituents of the lunar exosphere
20 21	• Simulations demonstrate that two CubeSats in lunar orbit result in a substantial increase in lunar ionosphere observational capacity
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32	• We demonstrate that a VHF transmitter-receiver "crosslink" setup is ideal for making radio occultation observations of the lunar ionosphere

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44 Abstract

45 The lunar ionosphere is a ~ 100 km thick layer of electrically charged plasma surrounding the moon. Despite knowledge of its existence for decades, the structure and dynamics of the lunar plasma 46 remain a mystery due to lack of consistent observational capacity. An enhanced observational picture 47 of the lunar ionosphere and improved understanding of its formation/loss mechanisms is critical for 48 understanding the lunar environment as a whole and assessing potential safety and economic hazards 49 50 associated with lunar exploration and habitation. To address the high priority need for observations of the electrically charged constituents near the lunar surface, we introduce a concept study for the 51 Radio Instrument Package for Lunar Ionospheric Observation (RIPLIO). RIPLIO would consist of a 52 multi-CubeSat constellation (at least two satellites) in lunar orbit for the purpose of conducting 53 "crosslink" radio occultation measurements of the lunar ionosphere, with at least one satellite 54 55 carrying a very high frequency (VHF) transmitter broadcasting at multiple frequencies, and at least one satellite flying a broadband receiver to monitor transmitting satellites. Radio occultations 56 57 intermittently occur when satellite-to-satellite signals cross through the lunar ionosphere, and the resulting phase perturbations of VHF signals may be analyzed to infer the ionosphere electron 58 content and high- resolution vertical electron density profiles. As demonstrated in this study, RIPLIO 59 60 would provide a novel means for lunar observation, with the potential to provide long-term, highresolution observations of the lunar ionosphere with unprecedented pan-lunar detail. 61

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63 Plain Language Summary

The lunar ionosphere comprises electrically charged particles within the lunar atmosphere and is 64 derived from a wide range of sources and formation mechanisms that are not fully resolved. 65 Although extremely tenuous compared to that of Earth's, the lunar ionosphere plays an integral role 66 in physical processes occurring within the lunar environment. The composition and dynamics of the 67 lunar ionosphere are mostly unknown at this point and may be linked to the lunar surface and sub-68 surface, solar wind, magnetosphere, and Earth's atmosphere. Observation of the lunar ionosphere is 69 essential to develop a complete picture of its structure and dynamic behaviour and how it is formed. 70 71 This is a critical aspect of assessing its physical role within the lunar environment and potential safety hazards for future lunar exploration and habitation. This paper presents the concept of a radio-72 73 based mission for lunar ionospheric observation called the Radio Instrument Package for Lunar Ionospheric Observation (RIPLIO). This mission would employ multiple CubeSats in lunar orbit, 74 equipped with radio transmitters and receivers, to observe the lunar ionosphere with unprecedented 75 detail. This paper presents preliminary simulations of radio measurements of the lunar ionosphere, 76 and discusses requirements for a potential RIPLIO mission and relevance to international science 77 78 objectives.

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81 **1. Introduction**

82 The lunar atmosphere, also considered an "exosphere," consists of a gravitationally-bound, tenuous, collisionless gas, thought to be dominated by inert atoms (e.g. Ar, Ne, and He) or dust with 83 densities on the order of 10⁴-10⁵ cm⁻³ [Stern, 1999 and references within]. Exospheric constituents 84 mainly originate from the lunar regolith and subsurface, the solar wind, and micrometeorites. This 85 thin (10s of kilometers) atmospheric layer is an integral part of a highly coupled system comprising the 86 lunar environment, sun, and solar system, and was identified as one of eight key areas of focus for 87 lunar science by the United States National Research Council in "The Scientific Context for 88 89 Exploration of the Moon" [NRC, 2007]. This document also emphasized the importance of promptly observing the native lunar atmosphere, as the anticipated increase in human activity will disrupt this 90 fragile environment and impede the study of its structure, dynamics, and formation mechanisms in its 91 pristine state. 92

93 The presence of a lunar ionosphere, the electrically charged constituents of the lunar atmosphere, was first inferred from lunar refraction of signals originating form astronomical objects 94 that occulted the lunar limb, which provided lunar electron density estimates of up to 1000 cm⁻³ 95 [Elsmore, 1957; Andrew et al., 1964]. The first direct observational evidence of a lunar ionosphere 96 97 was provided by observations of the Charged Particle Lunar Environment Experiment (CPLEE) ionelectron spectrometer and three Suprathermal Ion Detector Experiment (SIDE) mass spectrometers 98 installed on the lunar surface during the Apollo missions in late 1969 and the early 1970s [Lindeman 99 et al., 1973; Benson et al., 1975]. Since the Apollo era, satellite radio occultation (RO) measurements 100 have been a prevalent tool for observing the lunar ionosphere. To date, the lunar RO technique has 101 primarily employed radio sounding using an Earth-based ground station to monitor satellite-to-Earth 102 radio transmissions as the signal path moves in the vicinity of the lunar limb. Observed phase 103 104 perturbations in the received signal may be attributed to refractive effects of lunar ionosphere plasma (after removal of the terrestrial ionospheric effects), from which the columnar electron content along 105 106 the signal path and density of the lunar ionospheric plasma can be inferred. The first lunar RO measurements of the Pioneer 7 probe suggested the presence of lunar ionosphere plasma with 107 densities not exceeding 40 cm⁻³ [Pomalaza-Diaz, 1967]. Luna 19 and 22 spacecraft were used to 108 conduct dual frequency RO measurements, detecting electron densities of 500-1000 cm⁻³ [Vasil'ev et 109 110 al., 1974; Vyshlov and Savich, 1979]. The Istituto di Radioastronomia of the Istituto Nazionale di Astrofisica conducted lunar occultation campaigns in 2006-2007 using radio telescopes to observe 111 signals of SMART-1, Cassini, and Venus Express as they occulted the lunar ionosphere, with 112 estimated lunar ionosphere columnar electron content of $\sim 10^{13}$ m⁻² said to be "in agreement" with 113 results of the Luna mission [Pluchino et al., 2008]. The SELenological and Engineering Explorer 114 (SELENE; aka Kaguya) mission [Imamura et al., 2008; Imamura et al., 2010] used dual frequency 115 transmissions to observe only a fraction of the electron content observed by Luna, possibly due to 116 either lower solar activity levels comparted to the Luna observation period or the polar observation of 117 SELENE as opposed to lower latitude observations of Luna [Ando et al., 2012]. As the primary error 118 119 source in satellite-to-Earth RO links arises from variations in the Earth's ionosphere, SELENE also employed dual-satellite observations to alleviate some of this error, where one spacecraft at lunar 120 limb-viewing configuration, with a second spacecraft situated away from the limb monitoring the 121 122 interplanetary and terrestrial plasma.

A second experiment of SELENE used for lunar ionospheric detection was the Lunar Radar 123 124 Sounder (LRS), which observed auroral kilometric radiation (AKR; 100-500 kHz) of Earth origin. Phase perturbations of AKR signals due to propagation through the lunar ionosphere were used to 125 determine electron content and reconstruct lunar ionosphere density profiles [Ono et al., 2010]. 126 Based on these measurements, Goto et al. [2011] inferred lunar ionosphere electron densities on the 127 order of 10s of electrons/cm³, again substantially smaller than observed by Luna. Choudhary et al. 128 129 [2016] presented a lunar electron density profile based on measurements of a July 2009 radio occultation of the Chandrayaan-1 satellite, which showed electron densities in the range of 100s of 130 131 electrons/cm⁻³ extending up to \sim 40 km above the lunar surface.

While the existence of the lunar ionosphere has been established for decades, its structure, 132 dynamic behaviour, and formation mechanisms remain unresolved due to extremely limited 133 observational capacity and the significant discrepancies in existing results. Neutral atmospheric 134 constituents may be ionized through photoionization by solar radiation, energetic particle impacts, or 135 charge exchange reactions, while ions may sputter directly from the lunar surface due to direct 136 impacts of solar wind plasma [Stern, 1999; Sarantos et al., 2012]. However, the electric field induced 137 on the lunar surface by the interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) tends to sweep ionized constituents 138 away from the lunar region, limiting the accumulation of lunar-derived ions to densities below the 139 ambient solar wind plasma density [Johnson, 1971; Hodges et al., 1974; Stern, 1999]. High energy 140 "pick-up ions" of lunar origin, swept away from the lunar atmosphere by the solar wind, have been 141

142 observed downstream of the Moon [*Halekas et al.* 2012, 2013, 2015; *Poppe et al.*, 2016].

The Moon spends ~4-6 days of its ~27-day orbit in the Earth's magnetotail, during which the lunar 143 ionosphere interacts with the Earth's magnetospheric plasma environment rather than the solar wind 144 and IMF. Lunar ionospheric structure and dynamic behaviour is modified during this period of 145 "magnetospheric shielding" from the solar wind, and may include encounters with the highly 146 variable and hot plasma of the magnetospheric plasma sheet. The magnetosphere interactions can 147 result in more extreme charge accumulations on the lunar surface, modifying the electrodynamics 148 and plasma constituents of the lunar environment [Stubbs et al., 2007; Poppe et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 149 2013]. Halekas et al. [2018] used plasma oscillations of the ARTEMIS electric field instrument to 150 infer enhanced lunar ionosphere plasma densities on the dayside of the Moon within the geomagnetic 151 152 tail.

153 Several alternative mechanisms have been proposed to account for lunar ionosphere densities as large as 1000 cm⁻³. An increase in release of Ar and Ne from the lunar surface around the solar 154 terminator has been suggested as a possible source of localized plasma density enhancement [Hodges 155 et al., 1974; Daily et al., 1977]. Enhanced lunar crustal magnetic fields observed by Apollo missions 156 [Lin et al., 1998] may trap the ionized constituents in a "mini-magnetosphere" configuration, 157 preventing localized lunar ionosphere regions from being swept away [Savich, 1976]. In addition, 158 photo and secondary electron emissions from exospheric dust particles (i.e., "dusty plasma") have 159 been suggested to comprise a significant and potentially dominant portion of the lunar ionosphere 160 [Stubbs et al., 2011] where dust particles are accelerated upwards from the lunar surface by local 161 electric fields, micrometeor impacts, and artificial sources (e.g., lunar landers) and subsequently 162 163 ionized by solar UV radiation [Stubbs et al., 2006]. The Lunar Prospector satellite has observed significantly enhanced electric potentials on the dark lunar surface [Halekas et al., 2008], which may 164 contribute to enhanced uplift of lunar dust on the far side and polar regions of the Moon. The 165 possibility of the lunar ionosphere consisting primarily of ionized dust is intriguing, as the planetary 166 ionospheres observed and studied thus far consist of an ionized gas. The dynamics and structure of an 167 ionized dust medium are largely open questions, as are the potential effects of dusty plasma on radio 168 communication systems and navigation capabilities during future lunar missions. Additional possible 169 sources of lunar ionospheric plasma are the solar wind plasma itself, or the continuous loss of Earth's 170 ionospheric constituents to the magnetosphere, which may be inserted into the lunar environment 171 during the Moon's passage through the Earth's magnetotail. Given the potential variety of lunar 172 173 ionosphere formation mechanisms that can occur over a broad range of temporal and spatial scales, a complete observational picture of the lunar ionosphere and understanding of how it is formed 174 requires a large quantity of high temporal and spatial resolution observations on a global (pan-lunar) 175 176 scale.

Attaining a thorough observational picture of the lunar ionosphere, better understanding of the 177 178 physical mechanisms governing the formation and loss of ionospheric plasma, and a predictive understanding of lunar ionospheric behaviour is considered a high priority concern for future lunar 179 180 exploration and habitation for a number of reasons: (1) The lunar ionospheric plasma is quite different from that of Earth's, potentially consisting of dusty plasma and ionized inert gases, and its 181 effects on radio communication and navigation systems operating in the lunar environment are 182 largely unknown; (2) The ionosphere (including dusty plasma) is a safety hazard for humans and 183 satellite/surface equipment during lunar missions, with the potential to damage spacesuits, charge 184 electronics, and clog machinery; (3) The lunar ionosphere is intimately linked to electrodynamic 185 processes occurring within the near-moon environment, as well as processes and constituents 186 characteristic of the lunar surface and interior (e.g. moonquakes, radiation seepage, meteor impacts), 187 and thus a thorough understanding of the lunar ionosphere is essential for understanding the lunar 188 environment as a whole. 189

190 Here we introduce the concept of a crosslink RO system to make unprecedented, long-term observations of the lunar ionosphere. The long-term scientific objectives of a crosslink lunar RO 191 mission would be: (1) To provide global, high-resolution vertical electron density profiles of the 192 lunar ionosphere; (2) To observe and map the global structure of the lunar ionosphere, including its 193 194 climatological and transient behaviour under a broad range of solar wind and magnetospheric conditions; (3) To better understand the mechanisms governing the formation, loss, and dynamic 195 behaviour of the lunar ionosphere; and (4) To enhance understanding of the interactions between the 196 Moon's ionosphere and the Earth's magnetosphere and explore the role of magnetospheric shielding 197 on the lunar ionospheric structure and dynamics. In this paper we provide a description of the lunar 198 crosslink RO technique, followed by an orbital assessment and potential quantity and distribution of 199 RO observations, and finally a simulation of an RO event to assess the potential working frequency 200 range of a lunar crosslink RO system. Crosslink RO measurements of the Earth's atmosphere and 201 ionosphere are routinely conducted by using receivers onboard low-Earth orbiting satellites such as 202 COSMIC and CHAMP to observe perturbations of global navigation satellite system (GNSS) 203 transmissions. Crosslink RO measurements of a planetary ionosphere (other than that of Earth's) 204 have been previously conducted by using ultra-high frequency (UHF) transceivers on board the Mars 205 Odyssey (ODY) satellite and Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (MRO) [Ao et al., 2015; Asmar et al., 206 207 2016].

209 2. Description of the Crosslink RO Technique

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Our current knowledge of the vertical distribution of lunar ionosphere electron density is based 210 on very limited RO experiments of various missions [e.g., Vyshlov, 1976; Pluchino et al., 2008; 211 Imamura et al., 2012; and Choudhary et al., 2016], which have cumulatively resulted in a few 212 hundred RO observations. Only a small fraction of these observations have resulted in detection of 213 lunar ionospheric constituents. It is unknown whether low detection rates result from a lack of lunar 214 ionospheric presence or difficulty in extracting effects of the tenuous lunar ionosphere from satellite-215 to-Earth RO observations. There are extensive open questions pertaining to the structure, formation, 216 and dynamic behaviour of the lunar ionosphere, as well as its role in plasma and electrodynamic 217 218 processes in the near-Moon and magnetospheric environment. These questions can only be addressed 219 through observational campaigns.

220 Radio occultation is a technique to obtain information about the vertical gradient of the atmospheric refractive index, which is in turn related to the electron density. Radio waves 221 222 propagating through a medium with free electrons (e.g., an ionosphere) experience refractive effects, which modify the wave's velocity and direction of travel. To first order, the amount of this delay is 223 224 proportional to the integrated number of free electrons along the signal ray path, often referred to as total electron content (TEC); therefore it is possible to estimate TEC along a particular propagation 225 226 path by using a linear combination of the received phases of signals at different frequencies, often referred to as the geometry-free linear combination [Brunini et al., 2004; Jakowski, 2017]. 227

In the case of planetary/lunar ionospheres, crosslink radio occultations occur when the signal between a transmitting satellite and a second receiving satellite crosses through the ionosphere, which allows for sampling of the ionospheric TEC over a range of altitudes as the occultation event evolves. By applying inversion techniques to RO TEC measurements, such as the standard Abel method [*Abel*, 1826; *Hajj and Romans*, 1998; *Schreiner et al.*, 1999; *Mousa and Tsuda*, 2004], it is possible to reconstruct the vertical electron density profile of the ionosphere.

Here we introduce the concept of a lunar RO system that would employ a satellite-to-satellite "crosslink" configuration to observe the lunar ionosphere. Future work beyond this concept study will assess detailed mission/system requirements for placing two or more CubeSats in lunar orbit; at least one satellite with an onboard multi-frequency radio transmitter, and at least one satellite with a

broadband radio receiver; to conduct RO measurements of the lunar ionosphere and retrieve high-238 resolution vertical electron density profiles. Whereas Moon-Earth radio occultation links applied in 239 past missions such as Luna and SELENE result in two occultation events (ingress and egress) per 240 satellite pass with highly restricted coverage in latitude and longitude, radio occultation satellite-to-241 satellite "crosslinks" using multiple spacecraft in orbit around the Moon would benefit from much 242 more frequent occultation events, global coverage, higher vertical resolution, and much higher 243 signal-to-noise ratios (compared to Moon-Earth RO links). As the structure and three-dimensional 244 flows of the lunar ionosphere vary over a broad range of time and spatial scales associated with 245 factors such as sunlight/darkness, interaction of the lunar environment with the solar wind or Earth's 246 magnetosphere, and variability of the lunar surface/interior constituents and electrodynamics, 247 crosslink RO measurements will enable development of a statistical global climatological picture of 248 the lunar ionosphere under a broad range of conditions, which is not attainable using Moon-Earth RO 249 links. This is a critical aspect for a predictive understanding of lunar ionospheric behaviour. 250 Crosslink occultations also eliminate the most serious source of error impacting previous lunar RO 251 missions, which are density fluctuations of the Earth's ionosphere. 252

Figure 1 illustrates an example of a crosslink radio occultation of the lunar ionosphere for a two-satellite constellation, where the satellite-to-satellite signal paths sample a range of ionospheric

altitudes as the satellites progress in their orbits. Occultation tangent points are indicated by red dots. Conceptually, the transmitter would broadcast at two frequencies in the very high frequency (VHF) range, while the broad-band receiver would track the signals and measure the relative phase delays (advances) introduced by the ionospheric medium. This approach has been widely used by the scientific community for sensing the Earth's ionosphere using signals from global navigation satellite systems [e.g., *Komjathy and Langley*, 1996; *Hernandez-Pajares et al.*, 2009; *Jakowski et al.*, 2017; *Watson et al.*, 2018a,b; *Perry et al.*, 2019].







- The first successful RO crosslink measurements of a planetary ionosphere (other than Earth) 267 were conducted by using ultra-high frequency (UHF) transceivers on board ODY and MRO 268 spacecraft [Ao et al., 2015; Asmar et al., 2016]. By inverting the residual Doppler of ODY 269 transmissions recorded by MRO, after removal of the modeled expected Doppler due to relative 270 satellite motion, Ao et al., [2015] were able to retrieve Martian ionospheric refractivity and plasma 271 density profiles during three crosslink RO events. Asmar et al. [2016] showed that the dual-satellite 272 crosslink technique resulted in thousands of occultations of the Martian ionosphere with dense global 273 coverage after just two weeks, while the single satellite-to-Earth RO link resulted in a fraction of the 274 same coverage in a time span of years. The potential lunar coverage of RIPLIO occultations is 275 276 discussed in Section 3.
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Figure 2. Simulated lunar radio occultations for dual satellite crosslinks over a 120-hour period, for the specified orbital elements.

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284 **3. Lunar RO Simulations**

Figures 2 and 3 show example simulations of dual-spacecraft "crosslink" lunar occultations over a period of 120 hours, where black and grey lines are satellite ground track coordinates (selenographic), and colored lines show occultation tangent point coordinates, color indicating tangent point altitude. Satellite orbital configurations are specified by orbital elements: altitude (a),

eccentricity (e), inclination (I), longitude of ascending node (Ω), and argument of periapsis (ω). The 289 simulation in Figure 2 demonstrates circular orbits at altitudes of 1000 km and 150 km above the 290 lunar surface, while Figure 3 is for circular orbits at altitudes of 400 km and 150 km. Orbital 291 elements may be tuned to produce a broad range of occultation configurations to fit desired 292 measurement/science objectives, including occultations concentrated at latitudinal/longitudinal 293 regions of interest, or occultations covering a more global scale. The simulation shown in Figure 2 294 results in 164 complete occultations of the lunar ionosphere spanning a broad range of latitudes and 295 both far and near side of the Moon, while the orbital elements used in the Figure 3 simulation results 296 in 47 complete RO measurements primarily in the polar regions. Each complete RO measurement 297 (ground to Satellite 2 altitude) can be used to produce a complete vertical electron density profile via 298 iterative techniques such Abel inversion. The bold tangent point indicated with an arrow in Figure 2 299 is used for simulating an RO measurement of a model lunar ionosphere, results of which are shown 300 in Figure 4. Occultation durations listed (in minutes) beside each occultation event in Figures 2 and 301 3 range from 6.7 to 27.7 minutes, with the bulk of durations below 10.0 minutes. With 1 Hz 302 resolution RO measurements, this corresponds to altitude resolutions ranging from ~ 0.2 km to ~ 12 303 km for vertical electron density profiles. Resolutions are altitude-dependent as the transverse 304 velocity of the occulting signal relative to the lunar surface varies with time. 305

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310 Figure 3. Simulated lunar radio occultations for dual satellite crosslinks over a 120-hour period,

311 for the specified orbital elements.

As a simple example of a lunar crosslink RO simulation, the RO event highlighted by an arrow in Figure 2 is applied to a model ionosphere with spherical symmetry and vertical distribution of the form:

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$$N_e(h) = N_{e0} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{h}{H}\right)^{\nu}\right]$$
(1)

where N_e is the electron density at altitude h above the lunar surface, N_{e0} is the electron density at the 317 lunar surface, H is a scaling height that governs the rate of decrease in electron density with altitude, 318 and v is a dimensionless parameter. For a reasonable fit to RO measurements of the Luna 19 319 spacecraft presented in *Stubbs et al.* (2011), model parameters are set as $N_{e0} = 9.5e8 \text{ m}^{-3}$, H = 25 km. 320 and v = 3, which is referred to as the "Luna 19 fit". Figure 4 shows results of the simulation, where 321 panel (a) is the vertical electron density model, panel (b) is the line-of-site (LOS) TEC as a function 322 of tangent point altitude, where LOS TEC is the electron density integrated along the occulting 323 324 transmitter-to-receiver signal path:

$$LOS TEC = \int N_e dl$$
(2)

Panel (c) is the phase advance (
$$\Delta\Phi$$
; in units of meters) arising from the electron content shown in (b),
for several trial frequencies in the VHF band, calculated using the work of *Appleton* [1932]:

$$\Delta \Phi_i = \frac{e^2}{8\pi^2 \varepsilon_0 m_e f_i^2} LOS \, TEC + \varepsilon_i \tag{3}$$

where e is the electron charge, m_e is the electron mass, ε_0 is the vacuum permittivity, f_i is the *i*th 329 frequency, and ε_i is the sum of non-ionospheric effects such as Doppler frequency uncertainty and 330 frequency drifts of the onboard oscillator. The term ε_i is set to zero for calculated values shown in (c). 331 Panel (d) is the linear combination of phase perturbations (differential phase, in wave cycles with 332 respect to the lower frequency) for selected frequency pairs. Effects included in ε_i such as clock drift 333 and hardware delays will have to be accounted for in real measurement scenarios. VHF frequencies 334 show a significant response to the model lunar electron content, with frequency-dependent phase 335 advances ranging from ~ 0.2 m to ~ 25 m at ground level, and from ~ 0.01 m to ~ 1 m at 35 km 336 altitude, where the electron density is an order of magnitude smaller. Corresponding differential 337 phases shown in panel (d) range from ~ 0.008 to ~ 0.2 wave cycles at ground level, and from ~ 0.0001 338 to ~0.008 cycles at 35 km. Lunar RO TEC of Luna 19 and 22 were derived from differential phases 339 on the order of ~0.04 cycles at S-band frequencies, while SELENE lunar RO TEC was derived from 340 differential phases on the order of ~0.001 cycles at S-band frequencies [Ando et al., 2012]. Larger 341 342 frequency separations are evidently ideal, even more so since TEC measurements based on larger frequency separations are less sensitive to measurement noise. Ando et al. [2012] recommended the 343 use of large frequency separations in dual-frequency techniques for future lunar RO missions, given 344 the large measurement noise present in the SELENE radio occultation experiment. SELENE used 345 frequencies of 2218.0000 MHz and 2287.3125 MHz. 346

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Figure 4. (a) Modeled vertical electron density profile of the lunar ionosphere (Equation 1); (b)

Corresponding LOS TEC for the simulated RO event highlighted in Figure 2; (c) Corresponding phase advance along the RO signal path for several test frequencies; (d) Differential phase delay for selected frequency pairs.

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355 4. System and Operational Requirements

For a potential lunar crosslink RO mission, there are a broad range of system and operational 356 considerations including the physical component requirements of an RO system, selection of ideal 357 358 operating frequencies, atomic clock requirements, measurement sensitivity analysis, orbital considerations, data handling requirements, and cost estimates for a mission life cycle. These aspects 359 would be addressed in a thorough feasibility study. Such a study would cumulatively evaluate the 360 requirements for and feasibility of acquiring high quality and scientifically valuable crosslink RO 361 observations of the lunar ionosphere based on current knowledge of the lunar environment, while 362 evaluating the ideal system parameters with which to do so. 363

Crosslink lunar RO measurements require at least two distinct orbiting vehicles. The radio receiver and radio transmitter installed in their respective CubeSat payloads must be capable of receiving and transmitting widely (greater than 100 MHz) spaced tones, the tones having a deterministic phase relationship. Both payloads require a highly stable clock source. A preliminary product breakdown structure for a lunar RO mission is shown in Figure 5. The current technology readiness level (TRL) of a lunar RO system is estimated to be level two, based on the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 16290:2013 standard [*Heder*, 2017]. A mission concept has been postulated and a technology application has been formulated. The payload technology is stable and well defined for terrestrial use, while the peripheral and supporting sub-systems are expected to be greater than TRL 3. Critical technology elements of an RO system include the clock generator and reference clock assemblies, antenna subsystem and attitude control subsystem.

A feasibility study should include ionosphere RO simulations, which may include numerical 375 raytracing of RO signals across multiple frequencies using a broad range of lunar ionosphere models 376 in order to determine the ideal frequencies for lunar RO. Differential phase delays for a range of test 377 frequencies may be calculated, which would indicate the sensitivity of VHF frequencies for 378 narrowing down the requirements for frequency selection and clock accuracy and stability. In 379 determining ideal frequencies, considerations may include sensitivity to the ionosphere, availability 380 and cost of space-qualified clocks, antenna requirements, and availability of frequency bands. 381 Simulations may also include Doppler shifts due to the relative motion between satellites and satellite 382 383 line-of-site visibility, which should include satellite attitude control considerations.

The selection of the working frequency range for the RO system is stipulated by the physical 384 characteristics of the lunar ionosphere. The vertical TEC in the lunar ionosphere is several orders of 385 magnitude smaller than that of the Earth's ionosphere [Reasoner and Burke, 1972]. Vyshlov [1976] 386 demonstrated that the lunar TEC along RO links can reach ~ 0.03 TECU, with an estimated peak 387 number density of 10⁴ cm⁻³ at the lunar surface. However, later studies demonstrated RO TEC that 388 does not exceed 0.015 TECU, with a peak density on the order of 10^2 cm⁻³ [*Imamura et al.*, 2012; 389 Ando et al., 2012; Choudhary et al., 2016]. Integrating vertical density profiles obtained by the latest 390 391 studies, the vertical TEC is estimated to reach ~0.001 TECU. The accuracy of the signal phase measurements required to accurately estimate this level of TEC using L-band frequencies (GHz 392 range) would need to exceed 1.3×10^{-12} , which is a limiting factor in the selection of sufficiently stable 393 clocks. Another approach is to use lower frequencies at the expense of enlarging the physical size of 394 the transmitting and receiving antennas. The antenna required for use at VHF/UHF frequencies is 395 nominally larger than the CubeSat unit size and will require engineering effort to fit within size 396 constraints of a dispenser or require effort to develop a mechanical deployment method after 397 satellite deployment. The antenna gain needed to meet link budget requirements is an unknown 398 399 at the time.

The balance between antenna size and availability of clocks with the required stability for 400 space-based applications suggests that the VHF frequency band would be the optimal choice for lunar 401 RO purposes. For example, at 100 MHz, the clock stability must be $\sim 10^{-11}$, which is reachable with 402 the state-of-the-art, space application-ready rubidium atomic clocks [e.g., GPS World Staff, 2018]. 403 While clocking solutions that meet the estimated frequency stability requirements exist and are 404 readily available, integrating the clock within the timing subsystem while maintaining its 405 performance, managing environmental impacts to the clock stability, and adhering to volume-406 mass limitations of the satellite bus adds implementation risk. 407

The requirements for transmitter and receiver oscillator stability would be assessed in a 408 feasibility study. Requirements for the characteristics of the clock sources are conditioned by the 409 selected frequencies and estimated effects of the lunar ionosphere on the propagating signals, and 410 411 should be subject to further study. A possibility to measure total electron content with an accuracy of 1×10^{-3} TECU requires the clock stability to be ~0.1 ppb at a VHF frequency of 100 MHz. Study of 412 the available COTS components should be performed. Acquired COTS clock sources may be tested 413 for function, frequency precision, and stability. The associated requirements for clock stability may 414 be calculated based on optimal frequencies determined in RO simulations, and assessment of the 415 viability of the clock sources to operate at these frequencies should be performed. Optimal operation 416 frequencies can be updated based on these viability assessments. 417



Figure 5. Preliminary product breakdown structure to the assembly level for a potential RIPLIO mission.

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Selection of lunar orbits may be based on considerations of lunar orbit stability, accuracy of predicted orbits, ideal distributions of lunar radio occultations, instrument pointing requirements, and launch vehicle selection and trajectory. Orbit simulations may be conducted using software packages such as the Orbit Determination Tool Kit (ODTK) [*Vallado et al.*, 2010], which includes models for the lunar gravity field, solar radiation pressure, and gravitational perturbations of Earth. Lunar gravity field models are based on S- and X-band Doppler data of previous lunar orbiter missions such as Clementine [*Lemoine et al.*, 1997], Lunar Prospector [*Konopliv et al.*, 2001], and the Gravity

430 Recovery and Interior Laboratory (GRAIL) mission [Konopliv et al., 2014].

Orbital planning should include an appropriate lunar gravity model along with considerations 431 of orbital perturbations (e.g., solar radiation, Earth's gravity), orbital feasibility, orbital lifetime, and 432 maximization of the vertical resolution of RO measurements. The highly unstable lunar orbit requires 433 careful consideration, and the configuration of satellites in lunar orbit is likely to change significantly 434 over time. Lunar orbital lifetimes may range from days to years depending on orbital elements 435 [Mever et al., 1994]. Fortunately, the nature of the proposed RO satellite constellation allows for 436 continued collection of measurements even as orbits change, and may be a preferable scenario as it 437 would allow for observation of a broader range of lunar regions. Consideration of frozen "resonance" 438 orbits is also a possibility, which can result in more stable orbit configurations and considerably 439 longer orbital lifetimes [Elv, 2005; Lara, 2011]. Factors that reduce the number of usable orbits are 440 thrust limitations of the CubeSat, fuel requirements for a long-term (greater than one year) mission, 441 and antenna design limitations. The use of specialized plasma thrusters designed for CubeSat 442 443 propulsion may be considered [Liang et al., 2018].

A current knowledge gap to be addressed in a feasibility study is the limitations of off-the-shelf attitude control subsystems for lunar orbit. Orbiting satellites for lunar RO require strict orientation and coordination, and availability of technology that meets the requirements may affect the TRL of the science instrument and the work required to meet the objectives of a lunar RO mission.

Measurement sensitivity analysis may involve estimation of the link budget for the specific 448 configurations of two or more orbiters, to specify the requirements for the transmitting power and 449 receiver sensitivity. This analysis requires a preliminary model of lunar ionosphere electron density, 450 and a modified ray-tracing algorithm to implement the lunar ionosphere model. Extensive ray-tracing 451 simulations can be conducted using a broad range of frequencies and variable lunar, solar wind, and 452 magnetospheric conditions. The levels of noise of natural (e.g. cosmic background noise) and 453 manmade origins should also be considered, along with associated predictions of uncertainties in 454 simulated ionospheric detections. Analysis may consider the sensitivity of various techniques (e.g., 455 differential phase, differential Doppler) for detecting lunar ionospheric plasma. This process will help 456 in estimation of the power consumption for both the transmitting and receiving parts of the system. 457

458 A transmitter capable of broadcasting at more than two frequencies (either simultaneously or interchangeably) may enhance lunar ionospheric observational capabilities, given that the exact range 459 of electron densities within the lunar ionosphere is unknown. This capability would allow for more 460 than one option in frequency pair selection in application of the differential phase technique, thus 461 expanding options for application of optimal frequencies that are most sensitive to the lunar 462 ionosphere under given conditions. This option may be limited by increased signal noise (if 463 broadcasting simultaneously at more than two frequencies), or satellite command limitations (when 464 attempting to switch transmission frequencies). 465

A lunar RO mission must include comprehensive data processing techniques and algorithms, in 466 order to derive scientifically useful, high level data products from raw RO measurements (e.g., 467 vertical electron density profiles, line-of-site TEC). Existing algorithms for processing Earth-based 468 RO measurements may be adapted to lunar crosslink RO applications. Algorithms can be tested by 469 using results of RO simulations and estimated noise levels, including estimates of uncertainty levels in 470 ionospheric densities and TEC. Optimal sampling rates, vertical resolutions, and measurement 471 integration times can be determined, based on simulation results. Differential phase, differential 472 Doppler, and residual Doppler techniques may be applied in calculation of simulated LOS TEC, with 473 the sensitivity of LOS TEC to each technique analyzed. Techniques to solve for clock and inter-474 frequency biases may be developed. Techniques to analyze high-level RO data may also be 475 developed, such as data visualization tools and methods to assimilate data into lunar ionosphere 476 477 models.

479 **5. Relevance to International Science Goals**

There has been renewed interest in lunar and deep space exploration in recent years, 480 including development and construction of the Lunar Gateway space station planned for lunar orbit. 481 RIPLIO science objectives directly address several of the planetary science priorities described in 482 Canadian Space Exploration - Science and Space Health Priorities for Next Decade and Beyond: "To 483 484 understand the role of magnetic fields, plasma and atmosphere/ionosphere dynamics on the history and evolution of planets and other solar system bodies". This science priority specifically targets the 485 "Lunar plasma environment and its regions (PSE-01-03)" as well as "the lunar ionosphere". RIPLIO 486 has the potential to observe the lunar ionosphere with unprecedented detail and from a new 487 perspective by collecting a large number of high-resolution vertical electron density profiles. These 488 measurements would provide capacity to fill in vast gaps in current observational capabilities, 489 including the still unresolved vertical structure of the lunar ionosphere and its variability under 490 sunlight/darkness and a range of solar wind and Earth magnetospheric conditions. Such observations 491 would "unlock the secrets of the lunar ionosphere" and contribute to the "understanding of the Moon 492 and its evolution". Several other research priorities specified in PSE-01-03 can be addressed using 493 potential RIPLIO observations: (1) "Mini-magnetospheres" are thought to interact with the lunar 494 495 ionosphere [e.g. Savich, 1976], and extensive lunar RO observations may provide information integral in the identification and characterization of these structures and their role in the structuring 496 of the lunar ionosphere. (2) RO density profiles near the "lunar terminator" may allow for insight into 497 the unique electrodynamic processes associated with the day-night boundary, including the role of 498 possible enhanced ionosphere densities near the terminator as evidenced by Hodges et al. [1974] and 499 Daily et al., [1977]. (3) "Lunar dust and dust storms" may contribute to the formation of ionized dust 500 (e.g. dusty plasma) accompanied by electrons in the lunar ionosphere [Stubbs et al., 2011], with 501 RIPLIO potentially providing a means to statistically characterize the extent and occurrence of 502 electrically charged dust particles. (4) The study of "multi-scale fundamental plasma physics" at the 503 Moon would significantly benefit from extensive lunar ionospheric observations over a wide range of 504 temporal and spatial scales, attainable through a large number of high resolution RO measurements 505 506 of the lunar ionosphere.

507 The Artemis lunar program of NASA will include a Lunar Surface Electromagnetics 508 Experiment (LuSEE) [*Bale et al.*, 2020] designed to measure electromagnetic waves on the lunar 509 surface, and will attempt to determine ionosphere density with high accuracy through plasma wave 510 and thermal noise observations. Potential satellite-based RO measurements of RIPLIO would provide 511 a valuable validation tool for such measurements.

The International Lunar Observatory (ILO-1) mission (https://www.iloa.org/mission.html), 512 which involves the Canadian aerospace corporation Canadensys as a prime contractor, is an 513 international collaborative effort to place a lunar astronomy and communications laboratory at the 514 lunar south pole, for the purpose of galactic and astronomical observations and lunar-based 515 communications tests. One possible advantage of lunar-based astronomy is reduced contamination 516 from atmospheric turbulence or dimming, however the "likely effects" of the lunar atmosphere and 517 ionosphere on lunar-based optical observations are unknown [see The National Research Council, 518 The Scientific Context for Exploration of the Moon, pg. 44]. Lunar ionospheric observations, such as 519 those potentially provided by RIPLIO, are thus a critical component of assessing and mitigating the 520 risks posed by the lunar ionosphere on lunar astronomical laboratories such as ILO-1. 521

522 Demonstrated feasibility and success of RIPLIO may also open the door for future lunar and 523 planetary crosslink RO missions, including missions involving more than two satellites to provide 524 even greater RO measurement densities. RIPLIO can also potentially act as a testbed for future 525 missions, providing insight into potential improvements for hardware and software specifications, 526 orbital selections, and chosen transmission frequencies.

527528 6. Summary

This paper presents the concept of a crosslink lunar radio occultation mission, which we call 529 the Radio Instrument Package for Lunar Ionospheric Observation (RIPLIO). The structure and 530 531 dynamics of the lunar ionosphere are mostly unknown at the present stage. A crosslink lunar RO mission would address the current lack of observational capacity of the lunar ionosphere, providing 532 an unprecedented observational picture of its structure and dynamic behaviour through a broad range 533 of solar wind and magnetospheric conditions. Such observations are required to determine the 534 physical mechanisms governing lunar ionospheric formation and loss, determine its role in the 535 536 electrodynamics of the near-Moon environment and coupling within the broader environment encompassing the Earth's magnetosphere and ionosphere, and assess the potential safety hazards of 537 the lunar ionosphere for humans and satellite/surface equipment and its potential effects on radio 538 communication and navigation systems. These observations are also essential for development of 539 modeling and predictive capabilities for lunar ionosphere structure and dynamics, and may be 540 integrated into models of the Earth's magnetospheric plasma environment. RIPLIO observations 541 542 would address several science goals relevant to the renewed interest in lunar and space exploration and potential lunar habitation. 543

The crosslink radio occultation technique, previously employed in observations of the Martian ionosphere, employs two or more satellites in lunar orbit. From lunar ionosphere density estimates based on limited past observations, lunar ionospheric densities may be calculated from the differential phase of dual-frequency VHF links between two or more satellites in lunar orbit. Simulations of dual-satellite crosslink occultations show 10s of complete RO plasma density retrievals may be obtained per lunar day, depending on orbital configurations. A thorough feasibility study is required to determine the operational and system requirements of a lunar RO mission.

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552 Data Availability Statement

553 Software written to simulate the lunar ionosphere and crosslink radio occultations and to generate figures is 554 published on Zenodo (Watson, 2022).

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