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► **To cite this version:**

Majd Mayyasi, J. Clarke, D. Bhattacharyya, Jean-Yves Chaufray, M. Benna, et al.. Seasonal Variability of Deuterium in the Upper Atmosphere of Mars. *Journal of Geophysical Research Space Physics*, 2019, 124 (3), pp.2152-2164. 10.1029/2018JA026244 . hal-03047052

HAL Id: hal-03047052

<https://hal.science/hal-03047052>

Submitted on 8 Dec 2020

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Seasonal Variability of Deuterium in the Upper Atmosphere of Mars

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Running Title: Mars D Properties

Index Terms:

6225 (Mars)

5405 (Atmospheres)

5410 (Composition)

3359 (Radiative Processes)

5464 (Remote sensing)

Keywords: Mars, Deuterium, Variability, Water

Key Points:

1. Deuterium (D) emissions from the limb of Mars are analyzed to produce atomic abundances and escape rate estimates in the upper atmosphere.

2. D property variations are pronounced. Brightness and densities increase with Mars' proximity to the Sun and peak near southern summer solstice.

3. Variations of deuterium brightness, densities and escape rates suggest a seasonally varying D/H ratio at Mars.

39 **Abstract**

40

41 Measurements by multiple Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution mission instruments,
42 obtained between November 2014 and November 2017, are analyzed to produce deuterium
43 properties in the upper atmosphere of Mars. We show here, for the first time, the seasonal
44 distribution and variability of D densities, temperatures, and estimated Jeans escape rates at
45 the exobase (200 km). Within the data constraints, it is found that the variations in D properties
46 are similar for the northern and southern hemispheres, and peak near southern summer
47 solstice. Trends in the D Lyman- α brightness, temperature, density, and escape rate are
48 increasing during the beginning of the dust storm season, peak near southern summer solstice,
49 and decrease toward the end of the dust storm season. This suggests that seasonal drivers at
50 Mars cause deuterium in the upper atmosphere to become globally enhanced when Mars is
51 closest to the Sun and during the martian dust season when water is provided to the upper
52 atmosphere by subsurface, hydrological, and dust storm dynamics.

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55

56 **1. Introduction**

57

58 Estimates of the ancient water content at Mars derived from surface mineralogy are
59 presently debated [e.g., *Head et al.*, 2003; *Bibring et al.*, 2006]. Recent ground-based, orbital
60 and in situ observations have been used to re-evaluate water reservoirs on the martian surface
61 and in the lower atmosphere in order to better determine global water loss [*Smith et al.*, 2009;
62 *Trokhimovskiy et al.*, 2015; *Mahaffy et al.*, 2015; *Villanueva et al.*, 2015, *Fedorova et al.*, 2018;
63 *Orosei et al.*, 2018]. These determinations are made by constraining present epoch estimates
64 that range from few to tens of meters to an integrated ancient reservoir of ~140 m global
65 equivalent layer of water [e.g., *Jakosky et al.*, 2018].

66

67 The isotopic ratio of deuterium (D) to hydrogen (H) abundance at Mars has been useful
68 for describing the planet's early formation [*Solomon et al.*, 2005; *Fisher*, 2007; *Horner et al.*,
69 2009]. Directly measured and inferred ratios of D to H abundances (D/H) have been used to
70 quantify water in the various ice and vapor reservoirs on the surface, within the subsurface, and
71 throughout the lower atmosphere [*Owen*, 1992; *Kass and Yung*, 1999; *Krasnopolsky*, 2000;
72 *Bertaux and Montmessin*, 2001; *Montmessin et al.*, 2005]. Derivations of the martian D/H ratio
73 and comparisons with terrestrial values have been used to estimate the integrated loss rate of
74 H, and subsequently to constrain water loss from Mars [e.g. *Yung et al.*, 1988; *Krasnopolsky*,
75 2002; *Villanueva et al.*, 2015; *Jakosky et al.*, 2018 and references therein].

76

77 The upper atmosphere of Mars is the region where escape into outer space occurs [*Carr*,
78 1986; *Lammer et al.*, 2013]. Determining the present escape rate of water and its variability in
79 the upper atmosphere can therefore be used to extrapolate past values and to constrain
80 estimates of primordial water abundance on the martian surface. To this purpose, roving and
81 orbiting missions at Mars are being used to characterize the planet's climatology using a variety
82 of techniques, such as determining the atmospheric abundance of species and their isotopes
83 [*Jakosky et al.*, 1994; 2017; *Gillmann et al.*, 2011; *Ehlmann and Edwards*, 2014].

84

85 Atomic hydrogen in the upper atmosphere of Mars originates from photo-dissociated
86 water lower in the atmosphere. Through chemical reactions and hydrological cycle dynamics,
87 water-based atomic H and D are transported to the upper atmosphere where they can escape.
88 Early theories set the timescale for this transport to be on the order of tens of years [*Hunten*
89 *and McElroy*, 1970]. However, observations by the Hubble Space Telescope as well as Mars-
90 orbiting spacecraft have shown the planet to have an extended H corona with properties that
91 varied on shorter (seasonal) timescales than theoretically predicted [*Clarke et al.*, 2014; *Chaffin*
92 *et al.*, 2014; 2015; *Chaufray et al.*, 2015; *Bhattacharyya et al.*, 2015, 2017b; *Halekas* 2017;
93 *Chaffin et al.*, 2017; *Heavens et al.*, 2018; *Clarke*, 2018]. These variations in brightness are

94 consistent with variability in lower atmospheric water vapor and HDO observed at Mars
95 [Villanueva *et al.*, 2015; Fedorova *et al.*, 2018].

96

97 Properties of H and D in the upper atmosphere of Mars can vary due to both external
98 mechanisms such as space weather and solar activity as well as internal ones such as dust
99 dynamics and atmospheric circulation [Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017b; 2018]. The timescales for these
100 internal and external processes range from hours to months. Measuring properties of D and H
101 over a baseline in time that exceeds the variability of individual physical processes is therefore
102 fundamental to interpreting the dynamical nature of water escape where species are most
103 volatile. The Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution (MAVEN) mission has been in orbit about
104 Mars since September 2014 [Jakosky, 2015]. MAVEN carries a high-resolution echelle channel,
105 designed to resolve Lyman- α emissions from H and D at 121.567 and 121.534 nm, respectively,
106 as well as other emissions [McClintock *et al.*, 2015; Clarke *et al.*, 2017; Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017a].

107

108 A comprehensive analysis of the properties of D in the upper atmosphere of Mars – the
109 interface of loss to space – have so far been missing from the context of H variability and are
110 critical in determining the D/H ratio. The MAVEN mission has been designed for such an
111 analysis of D and H properties. In this work, 3 Earth years of echelle observations are used to
112 map the properties of atmospheric D at Mars with unprecedented coverage. The optically thin
113 D Lyman- α emission is analyzed and used with independent temperature derivations to provide
114 modeled estimates of density and escape rates in order to provide insights into D/H and its
115 variability.

116

117 A description of the MAVEN instruments used in this study is provided in Section 2. The
118 models used to simulate the observations are described in Section 3. Resulting brightness
119 values, derived densities, and escape rates for deuterium at Mars are shown in Section 4.
120 Discussion and interpretation of the results is presented in Sections 5 and 6, respectively.
121 Additional information showing consistent results for various modeling assumptions and
122 observational details are provided in the Supplemental Material.

123

124

125 **2. Instruments and Observations**

126

127 Observations from three MAVEN instruments were used in this work: the remote
128 sensing Imaging and Ultraviolet Spectrograph (IUVS), the in situ Neutral Gas and Ion Mass
129 Spectrometer (NGIMS), and the Extreme Ultraviolet Monitor (EUVM) instruments.
130 Measurements were separated into two seasonal epochs: aphelion (where solar longitude, L_s ,

131 varies between 0° and 120°) and perihelion (where L_s varies between 220° to 340°). Details on
132 the observations are provided in the Supplemental Material.

133

134

135 2.1 IUVS

136

137 Observations early in the MAVEN mission defined the background noise threshold on
138 the IUVS detector and showed that the few months around perihelion were optimal for
139 observing faint emissions such as D [Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017a]. IUVS makes separate observations
140 of the planet's disk, limb and corona with each orbit. The D emissions appear brightest at the
141 sunlit limb-pointed line of sight due to limb brightening of the optically thin emission. We
142 therefore concentrate exclusively on these limb observations for deriving a brightness profile
143 for D. In order to obtain an altitude profile of deuterium emissions, only observations where
144 the minimum ray height (MRH) was between the surface and 300 km were used. The deuterium
145 signal above 300 km is too faint to be detected [Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017]. Resulting echelle spectra
146 were reduced and calibrated at Lyman- α wavelengths to derive the D brightness in standard
147 units of Rayleighs [Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017a].

148

149 2.2 NGIMS

150

151 NGIMS makes in situ measurements of neutral and ion densities [Mahaffy *et al.*, 2014].
152 The neutral densities of species with masses ranging between 2 and 150 amu are measured in
153 each nominal MAVEN orbit along inbound and outbound segments of the spacecraft track. Only
154 inbound observations are used here due to adsorption of gas onto the walls of the
155 spectrometer that affect measurements in the outbound orbital segments [e.g., Cui *et al.*,
156 2009]. MAVEN periapsis altitudes reach ~150 km during nominal orbits and can drop to ~130
157 km during select 'deep dip' campaigns [Benna *et al.*, 2015]. In the observations used here,
158 nominal orbits were used. NGIMS data are used to derive neutral temperature values at the
159 exobase (the altitude where the mean free path equals the scale height, taken here to be 200
160 km). CO₂, N₂, and Ar are the most chemically stable species measured by NGIMS [Mahaffy *et*
161 *al.*, 2015]. In this work, the neutral densities of CO₂ and Ar were used to calculate scale heights
162 in order to provide a temperature in a given altitude range. The methodology for this derivation
163 is described further in Section 3. Observations spanning aphelion and perihelion were used to
164 constrain temperatures in the upper atmosphere of Mars.

165

166 2.3 EUVM

167

168 MAVEN carries an Extreme Ultraviolet Monitor (EUVM) instrument [Eparvier *et al.*,
169 2015] that makes measurements of the solar energy incident at Mars using three wavelength
170 channels. Two channels are dedicated to obtaining X-ray irradiances at 0.1-3 nm, and 0.1-7 nm
171 wavelengths, and one channel is dedicated to isolating the solar Lyman- α line at 121.6 nm.
172 EUVM measurements of the solar Lyman- α flux at Mars are used in the modeling component of
173 this analysis, described below, to determine the concentrations of deuterium from the
174 observed irradiances. EUVM observations that were made on the days of the echelle
175 observations were used to provide the solar irradiance at Mars. In this work, observations from
176 IUVS, NGIMS, and EUVM are averaged for relatively long periods of time, and span over 1.5
177 Mars Years.

178
179

180 **3. Models**

181

182 In order to derive physical properties from the observed D brightness, we use a single-
183 scattering model, adapted for optically thin emissions [Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2017a].
184 Procedurally, these model simulations require constraining ambient atmospheric conditions at
185 the times of the observed emissions in order to obtain the concentrations of the emitting
186 species along a given line of sight. The single-scattering model utilized had previously assumed
187 spherical symmetry for simplicity. To make model retrievals of the observations presented here
188 more physically plausible, a spherically asymmetric background atmosphere is adopted, where
189 the asymmetry is assumed to be due to variations in solar zenith angle (SZA) and martian
190 season, denoted by solar longitude, L_s . SZA depends on both latitude as well as local time and is
191 chosen as the single parameter to represent variations in planetographic observational
192 conditions. Therefore, in this application, a single-scattering model is coupled to a 2D
193 background atmospheric model, that includes empirically derived neutral densities and
194 temperatures, to provide a global map of conditions that can be used to reproduce the
195 observed emission brightness for D. Aphelion and perihelion scenarios were considered to
196 account for seasonal variations at Mars.

197

198 Below 80 km, the predominantly CO₂ atmosphere of Mars absorbs almost all Lyman- α
199 emission, and no emissions are expected to be generated at those altitudes [Bhattacharyya *et*
200 *al.*, 2017a]. At thermospheric altitudes (above 80 km), a global asymmetric background
201 atmosphere is simulated using the following methodology: (1) Scale heights of CO₂ and Ar,
202 obtained from NGIMS density profiles, are used to determine a neutral atmospheric
203 temperature near exobase altitudes of \sim 200 km. (2) Empirically derived trends are used to
204 account for variability in the exobase neutral temperature with SZA and season. (3) A
205 mathematical representation is used to generate a temperature profile for remaining

206 thermospheric altitudes. (4) A CO₂ atmosphere is derived from the neutral temperature using
207 an atmospheric model and constrained to NGIMS density observations, at overlapping
208 altitudes, for consistency. (5) Finally, a single-scattering model uses the asymmetric background
209 atmosphere, as well as IUVS observations, to simulate the D intensity for comparison with the
210 IUVS observations to produce a best-fit exobase density.

211

212

213 *3.1.1 Obtaining Temperatures of the Martian Atmosphere at the Exobase*

214

215 In a horizontally stratified atmosphere, the altitude over which the density of a species
216 decreases by e⁻¹ of its value at some reference altitude is defined as the scale height, H_n , and is
217 defined as:

218

$$219 H_n = \frac{k_b T_n}{m_n g_r} \quad (1)$$

220

221 where, k_b is the Boltzmann constant, T_n is the neutral temperature, m_n is the mass of the
222 neutral species n , and g_r is the gravity at the altitudes of the measurements.

223

224 For the observations used here, MAVEN spacecraft periapsis nominally ranged between
225 ~150 km and 180 km. The slope of NGIMS CO₂ and Ar densities between 160 km and 200 km
226 were used to derive a scale height for each species. In cases where the spacecraft periapsis was
227 higher than 150 km, the slope of the densities between 180 km and 220 km was used. Using
228 equation (1), the neutral temperature was calculated for each species. The temperatures
229 derived using this method showed results similar to within ~10% for aphelion, and ~15% for
230 perihelion, for each species. Since these differences were within the uncertainties in the
231 measurements, an average temperature from the two species was adopted as a representative
232 exobase temperature.

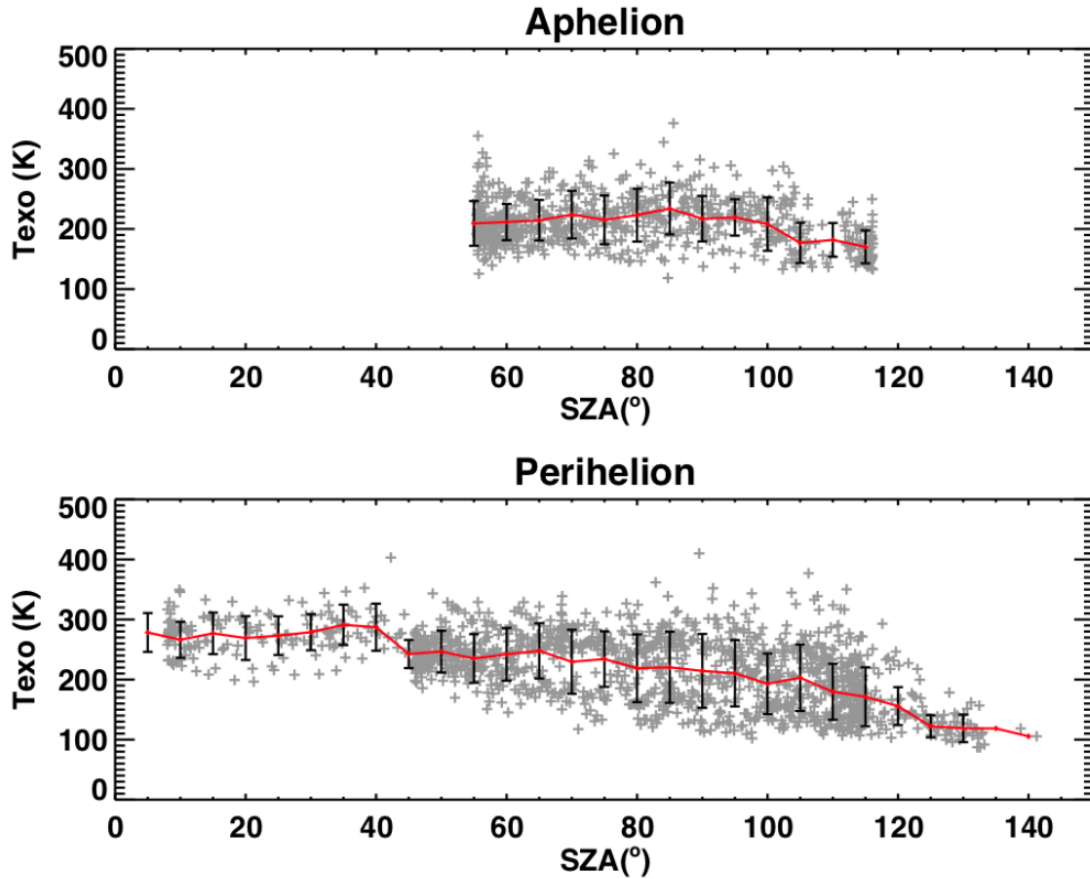
233

234 *3.1.2 Determining Seasonal and SZA Variations in Exobase Temperature*

235

236 The averaged CO₂ and Ar scale height derived temperatures are shown in Figure 1 for
237 aphelion and perihelion seasons. During aphelion, NGIMS nominal in situ measurements
238 spanned ~50° to 110° SZA. During both perihelion seasons observed by MAVEN to date, NGIMS
239 measurements spanned ~5° to 140° in SZA. The red horizontal lines are the averages of values
240 in 5° SZA bins, with their standard deviation in vertical black error bars. At the common SZA of
241 50° for each season, aphelion and perihelion temperatures were ~210 ± 37 K and 235 ± 40 K,
242 respectively.

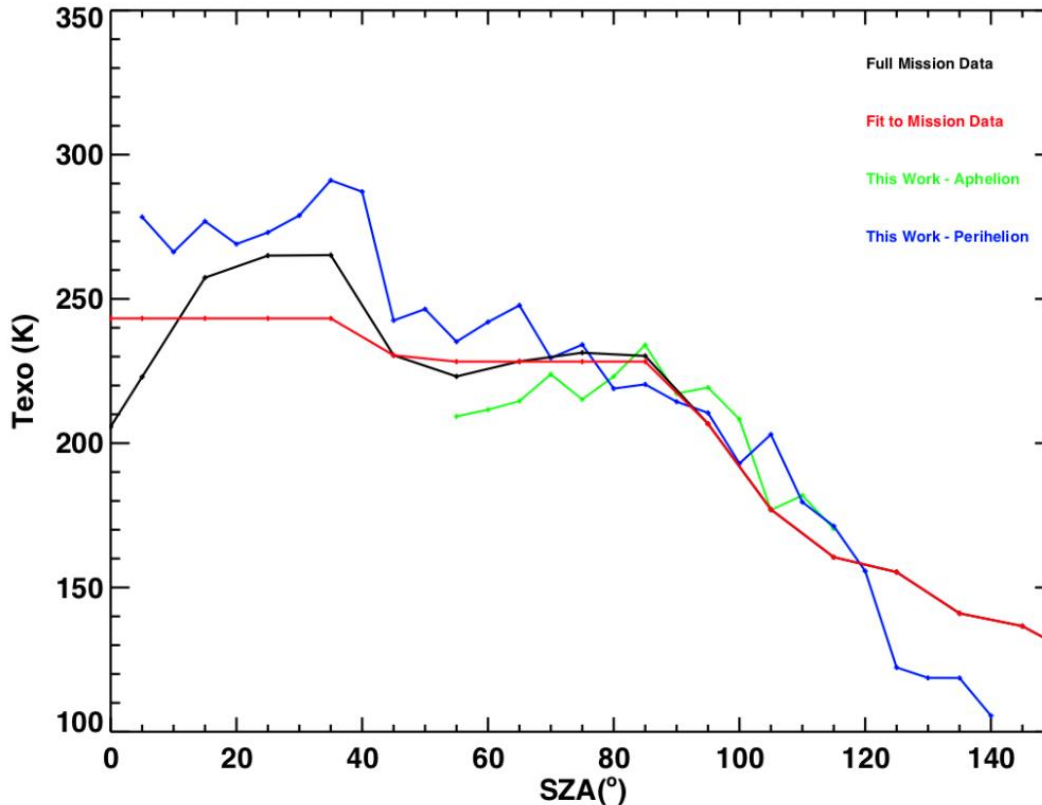
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244
 245 *Figure 1: Neutral temperatures derived from NGIMS observed scale heights for orbits at*
 246 *aphelion (top) and perihelion (bottom) conditions. Individual orbit temperatures are shown as*
 247 *grey plus symbols and span a range of SZAs. The red lines in each panel show trends from 5° SZA*
 248 *bins. Black vertical lines represent the standard deviation within each bin.*

249
 250 There have been ongoing efforts to characterize the neutral upper atmospheric
 251 temperature at Mars [Stone et al., 2016, 2018; Bougher et al., 2017]. In order to get a broader
 252 SZA representation of the neutral temperature variation at the exobase, the seasonal trends
 253 obtained here from NGIMS-constrained scale heights are compared to trends of empirically
 254 constrained MAVEN observations that span the whole mission and are shown in Figure 2. The
 255 NGIMS measurements available at any time are for one location only. This necessitates
 256 determining a time-averaged functional relationship for the global representation of
 257 temperature variation with SZA. Local time variations in exobase neutral temperatures are
 258 within the uncertainties of the mission-long averages and are not accounted for separately.

259
 260



261
 262 *Figure 2. A comparison of exobase temperature variability with SZA for specific seasons and for*
 263 *all seasons across the MAVEN mission. NGIMS observations at aphelion are shown in green,*
 264 *binned by 5° in SZA, and perihelion observations are shown in blue with similar SZA binning.*
 265 *Observations from the first 1.75 years of the MAVEN mission are shown in black and fit to a*
 266 *curve shown in red [Stone et al., 2018].*

267
 268 The temperatures derived using the method described here are consistent with those
 269 obtained independently and follow similar trends to observations across the MAVEN mission
 270 [Stone et al., 2016; 2018]. The trend line fit to the full mission observations are used to
 271 extrapolate the exobase temperatures to remaining SZAs not covered by NGIMS during the
 272 IUVS observation times analyzed in this work. An additional temperature shift is done
 273 (incremental for aphelion temperatures and decremental for perihelion temperatures) to the fit
 274 trend line to account for seasonal variations in exobase temperatures. The resulting aphelion
 275 and perihelion temperatures extracted from this interpolation and scaling are 216 ± 39 K and
 276 255 ± 29 K, respectively, at the subsolar point (0° SZA). Linear interpolations of these values
 277 were used to constrain the exobase temperature of the martian atmosphere at 0° SZA
 278 (overhead sun conditions) for other solar longitude observations.

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 280 **3.1.3 Determining Temperature Profiles with Altitude**

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For the seasonal and SZA conditions of the observations, the neutral temperature, determined at the exobase was used to generate a profile at thermospheric altitudes. This was done using a mathematical representation [Krasnopolsky, 2002]:

$$T(h) = T_{\infty} - (T_{\infty} - 125) \times \exp\left(-\frac{(h-90)^2}{11.4 \times T_{\infty}}\right) \quad (2)$$

where h is altitude (in km) between 90 and 400 km and T_{∞} is the exospheric temperature (in degrees Kelvin) derived from the NGIMS neutral density scale heights. The neutral temperature is assumed to remain isothermal above the exobase (200 km) for a particular SZA.

3.1.4 Generating a Consistent Neutral Atmosphere

CO₂, which is the dominant component of the martian atmosphere, absorbs Lyman- α ; therefore, a neutral background atmosphere consisting of CO₂ as well as D densities is required as input to the single-scattering model. The CO₂ abundance was generated from a volume mixing ratio at 80 km, and used the temperature provided by NGIMS measurements and molecular and eddy diffusion to account for interactions with other neutral species to provide a density profile for the altitudes of interest for the observing conditions [Matta et al., 2013].

The CO₂ mixing ratios at 80 km are consistent with the relative abundances found in the Mars Climate Database for CO₂ and did not show significant variability with SZA [Forget et al., 1999; Lewis et al., 1999]. However, the pressure of the neutral atmosphere is variable and can introduce variability not quantified by the mixing ratio used. The density of the atmosphere at 80 km is a free parameter that was varied to constrain the modeled species with NGIMS-observed CO₂ densities near spacecraft periapsis for aphelion and perihelion conditions [Mayyasi et al., 2018]. This methodology therefore provides an empirical density profile for CO₂ in the asymmetric background model that changes only with the neutral temperature.

Deuterium is a lighter species and varies differently with altitude than its heavier counterpart, CO₂ [e.g., Krasnopolsky, 2002]. A density profile between the altitude limits where D emissions are most relevant (80 to 300 km), was needed for the single-scattering model input. Above the exobase altitude of 200 km, a modified Chamberlain approach, which accounts for the variation of temperature with SZA, was used [Vidal-Madjar and Bertaux, 1972]. Between 120 and 200 km, a simple diffusion model was used [Chaufray et al., 2008]. At the exobase, the D density was considered to be a free parameter with a range of 6 values discussed in the next section. A mathematical formulation ($nT^{5/2} = \text{constant}$; where n is density of a light species and T its temperature) first derived by [Hodges and Johnson, 1968] and

319 recently verified by Chaufray et al., [2018] for H atoms, was used to determine the SZA
320 variability of D densities at the exobase. Below the assumed homopause at 120 km [Nagy et al.,
321 2009; Mahaffy et al., 2015], a linear profile for D was used for simplicity, similar to that
322 described in *Bhattacharyya et al.*, [2017a] and that was consistent with a diffusion-generated
323 atmosphere.

324

325 *3.1.5 Simulating D Densities from Observed and Modeled Intensities*

326

327 A radiative transfer model described in *Bhattacharyya et al.*, [2017a], developed for
328 interpreting the optically thick H Lyman- α observations was modified to simulate the optically
329 thin D emission in order to interpret the IUVS deuterium observations. D Lyman- α emissions at
330 Mars are optically thin along a given line of sight where only single-scattering is assumed. Since
331 this D emission is due to solar resonant scattering, EUVM-measured solar Lyman- α flux is used
332 to determine the intensity of the observed emission for a particular observation [*Thiemann et*
333 *al.*, 2018]. The EUVM measurements of the line-integrated Lyman- α flux were converted to a
334 line center flux in order to calculate the g value for the deuterium emission at Mars [*Emerich et*
335 *al.*, 2005; *Chaufray et al.*, 2008]. The g values, ranging between $4.93\text{--}12.1\times 10^{-4}$ photons s^{-1} for
336 the data analyzed here. The g values were then multiplied by a line of sight column density in
337 the single-scattering model to simulate the intensity for deuterium emission at Mars.

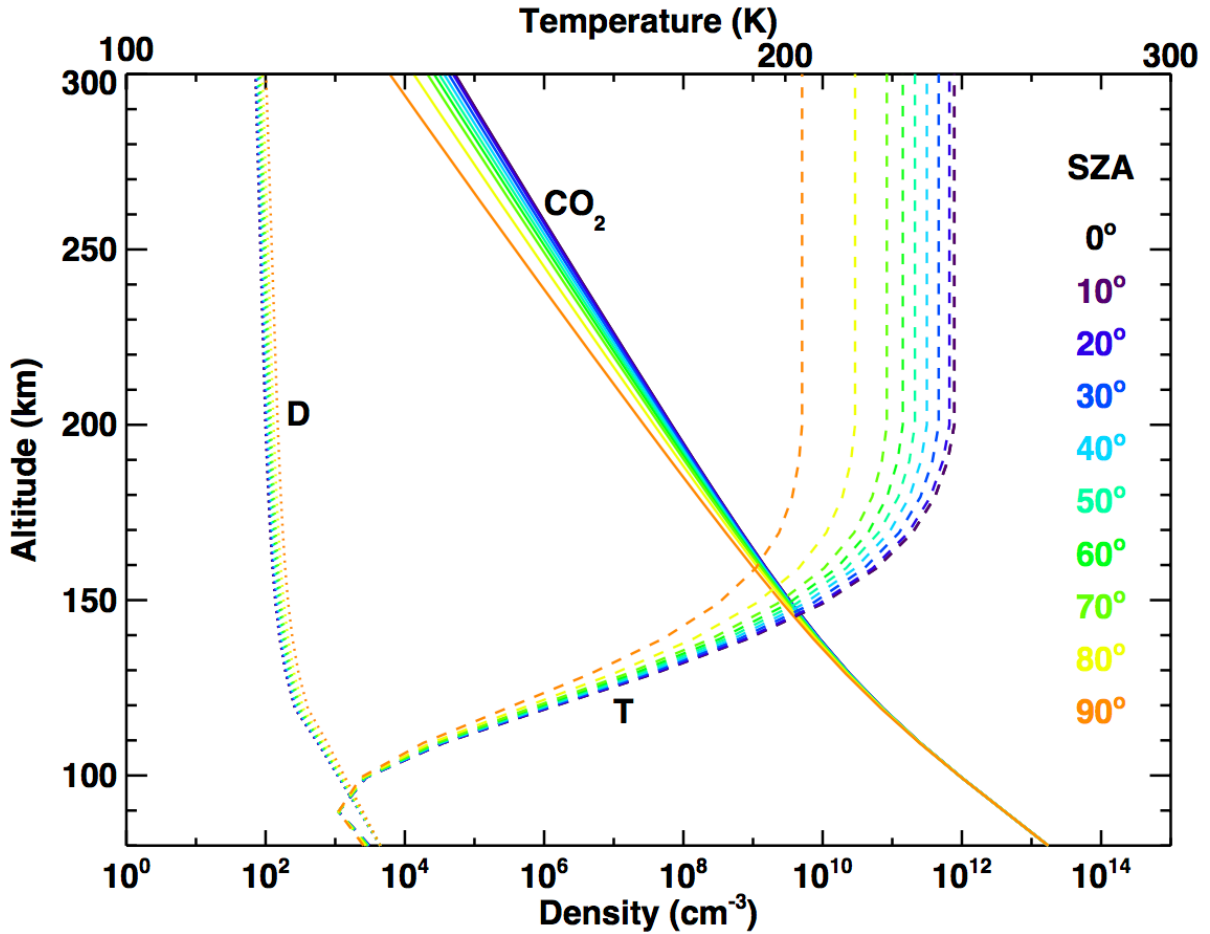
338

339 Six exobase D densities were used to generate the D background atmosphere for each
340 of the observing conditions. These densities were chosen to be 100, 500, 1000, 3000, 5000, and
341 7000 cm^{-3} . Each of the six densities was used with the CO_2 background and NGIMS-constrained
342 temperatures to provide a library of atmospheres. The single-scattering model uses the solar
343 flux measured at the time of each observation with this library of atmospheres to generate a
344 set of emission profiles for each line of sight (LOS) in the observations. The exobase density that
345 corresponds to the emission profile that best fits the data is determined by minimizing chi-
346 squared deviations between data and model in a least squared fit. The uncertainty in the
347 derived D density for a particular observation is determined by accounting for all modeled D
348 densities that lie within the minimum chi-squared+1 range.

349

350 A sample neutral atmosphere generated as background for the single-scattering model
351 is shown in Figure 3. The D and CO_2 density profiles are adopted for an average temperature
352 case at perihelion and use the 100 cm^{-3} exobase density value for D.

353



354
 355 *Figure 3. Background neutral atmosphere used in the single-scattering model to simulate D*
 356 *Lyman- α emissions and derive D densities. This atmosphere is generated for the average neutral*
 357 *temperature taken at perihelion derived from NGIMS observation for different SZA indicated by*
 358 *line color. The CO₂ density is shown in solid lines, the D density is shown in dotted lines.*
 359 *Temperatures follow the top x-axis scale and are shown in dashed lines.*

360
 361

362 4. Results

363

364 The D Lyman- α emission is faint in comparison to H Lyman- α [Bertaux *et al.*, 1984].
 365 Therefore, only observations with a local SZA between 0° and 90° were considered to ensure
 366 that the entire atmosphere was sunlit between the surface and 300 km. Over 20,000 echelle
 367 image frames of the martian limb, measured across the observational time span used here, fit
 368 the dayside criteria. Echelle spectra are averaged across the observational dataset in order to
 369 optimize the signal to noise when retrieving the faint D signal.

370

371 The data were binned according to the LOS latitude, SZA, MRH altitude (hereafter
372 referred to as altitude), and L_s . The bins considered include two in latitude, ranging between
373 90° N and 30° N for northern hemisphere observations, and 30° S to 90° S for southern
374 hemisphere observations. Three SZA bins were considered, ranging between 30° and 75° with
375 15° spacing. Twenty-one bins in altitude were used ranging between 0 and 400 km with 20 km
376 spacing. At the highest altitudes, D was too faint to be resolved and so only observations up to
377 300 km were used in the analysis. At aphelion, one representative L_s bin was used ranging
378 between 0° and 120° (described further next). At perihelion, six L_s bins were used ranging
379 between 220° and 340° with 20° spacing. Observations made in each of the bins were spectrally
380 aligned to account for differences in detector operational binning schemes before co-adding
381 (see Table A1 in *Mayyasi et al.*, [2017b] for a description of detector binning schemes used
382 throughout the MAVEN mission). Insufficient echelle observations were available at equatorial
383 regions (30° S to 30° N latitudes), lower SZAs (0° - 30°), and L_s values beyond those considered
384 here to build statistically significant brightness profiles due largely to the geometry of the
385 MAVEN orbit. However, at the time of this writing, MAVEN continues to make echelle
386 observations as Mars approaches perihelion. The next few months of observations would be
387 used in future work to close existing observational gaps.

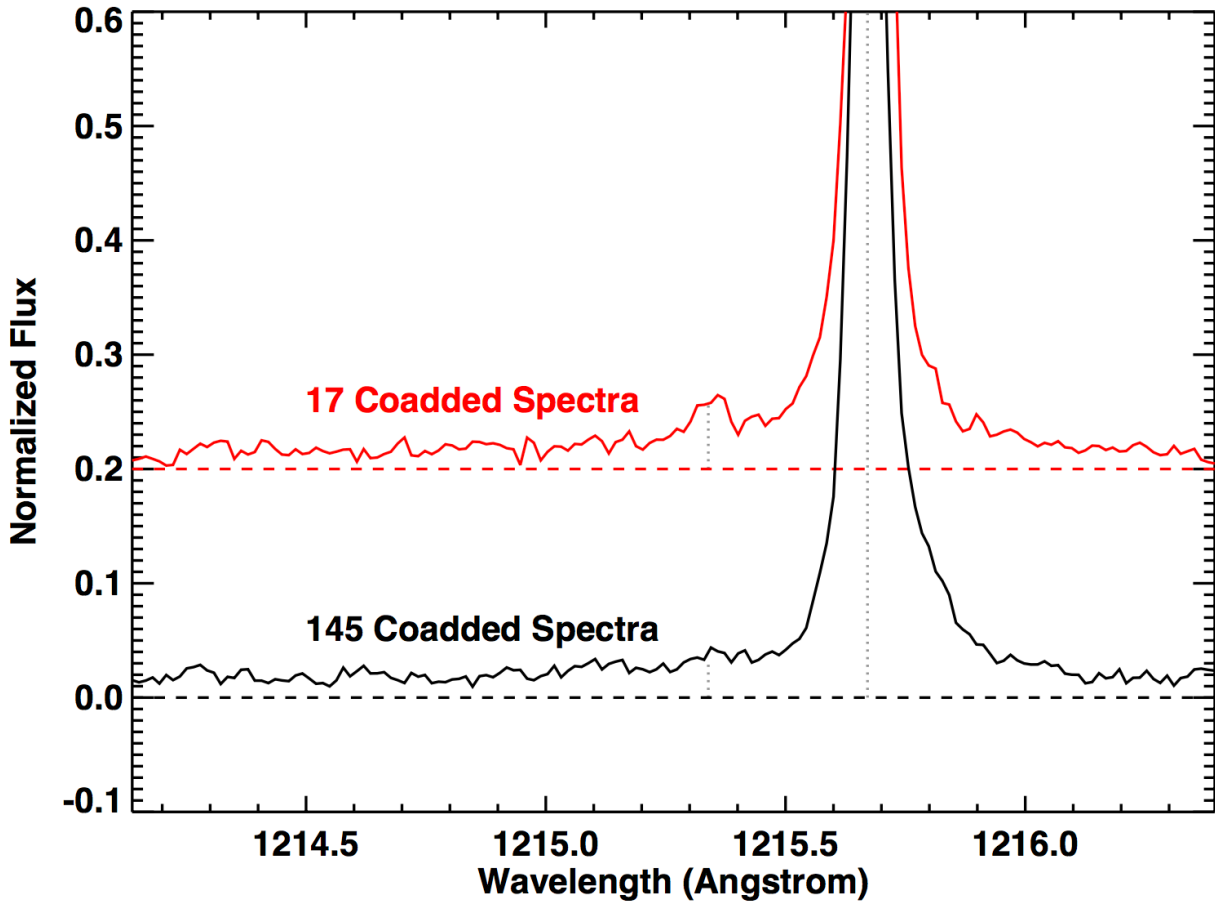
388

389 4.1 Aphelion

390

391 The first detections of martian D emission based on Hubble Space Telescope (HST)
392 observations showed Lyman- α brightness values of 30 Rayleigh [*Bertaux et al.*, 1993] and 23 ± 6
393 Rayleigh [*Krasnopolsky et al.*, 1998]. These observations occurred at times when Mars was at
394 63° and 67° L_s , respectively, and therefore close to Mars aphelion (71° L_s). D and H Lyman- α
395 emissions observed by MAVEN were found to vary dramatically throughout a martian year and
396 showed consistency with these previous detections [*Clarke et al.*, 2017; *Mayyasi et al.*, 2017b].
397 Due to the faintness of the D signal near perihelion, and the limitations of the instrument, the D
398 emission was not always attainable above the background detector noise. Aphelion
399 observations between 0° and 120° L_s were co-added to improve signal to noise yet still fell
400 below the detection limits. An example is shown in Figure 4 for one line of sight bin for
401 reference and demonstrates the resolvability of D emission above the blue-ward wing of the H
402 emission. The D emission signal is comparable to the background when near aphelion and more
403 clearly resolvable (with fewer individual observations) near perihelion. Co-added observations
404 from all available dayside aphelion observations are therefore used to provide an upper limit
405 for the simulated properties. Using the average aphelion exobase temperature of 216 K, the
406 exobase density range and mean Jeans' escape rate for overhead Sun conditions are derived.
407 The upper limits for the deuterium exobase density and escape rates at aphelion conditions are
408 found to be $2.3 \pm 2.3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $\sim 3 \times 10^3 \text{ atoms cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively.

409
410



411
412 *Figure 4. Sample spectra from aphelion (black) and perihelion (red) that correspond to bins of*
413 *60°–75° SZA and 120–140 km altitude obtained from observations of the northern hemisphere*
414 *of Mars. The aphelion spectrum is obtained by averaging 145 available integrations obtained*
415 *between 60° and 80° L_s. The perihelion spectrum is obtained by averaging 17 available*
416 *integrations between 220° and 240° L_s. The vertical dotted lines represent the locations of the D*
417 *and H Lyman- α emission wavelengths at 1215.34 and 1215.67 Å, respectively. Both spectra are*
418 *normalized in flux and the perihelion spectrum is vertically offset by 0.2 to facilitate comparison*
419 *of the relative brightness of the D emission at each seasonal epoch. The asymmetry in the*
420 *aphelion (black) H profile is due to the interplanetary hydrogen emission that is shifted red ward*
421 *of the Mars H emission for these observations.*

422
423 4.2 Perihelion

424
425 Mars perihelion occurs at 251° L_s. Observations spanning a range of 220° to 340° L_s were
426 analyzed to provide D brightness profiles for near-perihelion conditions at the L_s and SZA

427 binning scheme described previously. Only bins with at least 3 observed spectra and that
428 resulted in profiles with data points in at least 5 altitude grids were used. The resulting D
429 irradiance from co-added observations as well as the model best fits are shown in Figure 5 for
430 the averaged perihelion derived temperature of 255 K, and are sorted by hemisphere, L_s and
431 SZA. Data-model comparisons at the lower and higher temperature limits from the uncertainty
432 in perihelion temperatures (226 K and 284 K), are shown in Figures S1 and S2, respectively, in
433 the Supplemental Material, as are the number of observations used in each bin (Table S5).

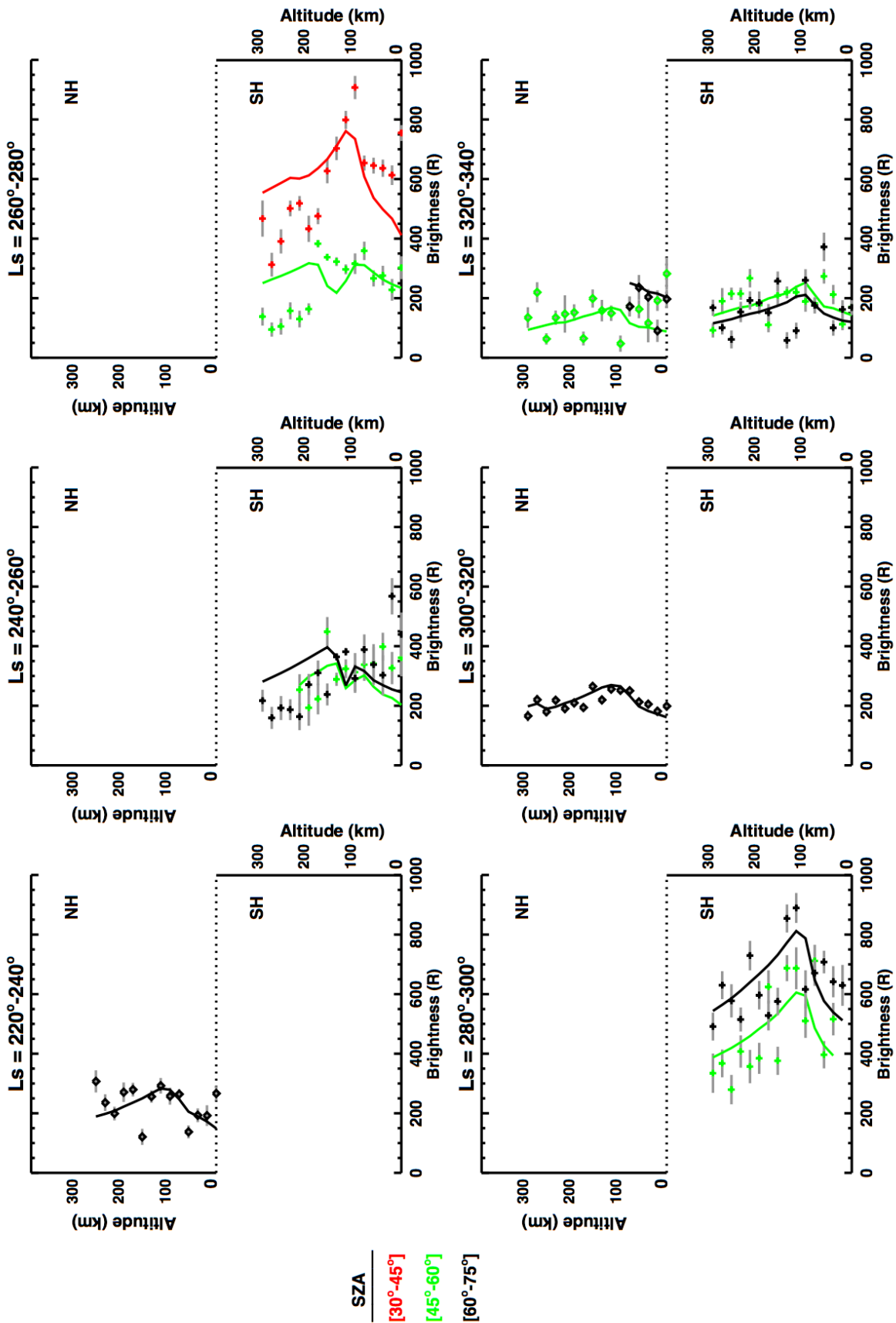
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440 *Figure 5. Deuterium brightness profiles derived from bin-specific co-added spectra, shown as a*
 441 *function of L_s (by panel), SZA (by color of profile), and adjacent hemispheres for comparison.*
 442 *Northern hemisphere (NH) profiles are shown on the top part of each panel as diamonds with*
 443 *an altitude scale on the top left of each panel. Southern hemisphere (SH) profiles are shown on*
 444 *the lower part of each panel as crosses with an altitude scale on the lower right of each panel.*
 445 *Season spans through perihelion with top rows covering 220°-240° (left), 240°-260°(middle) and*
 446 *260°-280° (right), respectively. Bottom row panels cover seasonal ranges of 280°-300° (left),*
 447 *300°-320° (middle), and 320°-340° (right), respectively. Data are shown in diamonds for SZAs*
 448 *spanning 30°-45° (red), 45°-60° (green), and 60°-75° (black). Uncertainties in the data points are*
 449 *shown in grey horizontal lines. Model fits to the data are shown as solid lines with the SZA-*
 450 *respective color code. In each panel, both NH and SH data and model plots follow the bottom*
 451 *scale for brightness in Rayleigh.*

452

453 The D densities at the exobase, derived by the single-scattering model from best fits to
 454 the irradiance data, and constrained to empirically-determined exobase temperatures are listed
 455 in Table 1. The data covers observations made over a range of SZA. Subsequently, the
 456 asymmetric model utilizes a range of neutral temperatures. The range of solar conditions
 457 applicable to the echelle observations in each bin contribute to the uncertainties in the model-
 458 determined densities. To facilitate comparisons, the exobase densities and temperatures
 459 derived for D from different SZAs are extrapolated to 0° SZA (overhead Sun conditions) and are
 460 also shown in Table 1. These results correspond to an asymmetric background model that
 461 adopts the average perihelion temperature of 255 K derived from NGIMS measurements.
 462 Similar results derived from the lower and higher perihelion temperature limits of 226 K and
 463 284 K are shown in Tables S1 and S2, respectively, in the Supplemental Material.

464

465 *Table 1: Modeled D number density at the exobase (200 km) for the observations shown in Fig.*
 466 *5, and extrapolated to subsolar point conditions (SZA, $\chi=0^\circ$) using the averaged perihelion*
 467 *temperature of 255 K.*

L_s Range	SZA Range	T_{exo} (K)	D_{exo} ($\times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$)	$\chi=0^\circ T_{\text{exo}}$ (K)	$\chi=0^\circ D_{\text{exo}}$ ($\times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$)
Northern Hemisphere					
220° - 240°	60° - 75°	232 ± 4	1.2 ± 0.18	248	1.0 ± 0.1
300° - 320°	60° - 75°	226 ± 6	1.5 ± 0.23	241	1.3 ± 0.1
320° - 340°	45° - 60°	227 ± 3	1.0 ± 0.26	237	0.8 ± 0.2
320° - 340°	60° - 75°	223 ± 4	2.4 ± 0.62	239	2.0 ± 0.4
Southern Hemisphere					
240° - 260°	45° - 60°	243 ± 3	1.0 ± 0.14	253	0.9 ± 0.1
240° - 260°	60° - 75°	237 ± 5	1.2 ± 0.19	253	1.0 ± 0.1

260° - 280°	30° - 45°	244 ± 3	2.3 ± 0.19	250	2.2 ± 0.1
260° - 280°	45° - 60°	241 ± 3	1.1 ± 0.16	251	1.0 ± 0.1
280° - 300°	45° - 60°	236 ± 2	2.4 ± 0.29	247	2.2 ± 0.2
280° - 300°	60° - 75°	230 ± 4	3.9 ± 0.54	246	3.3 ± 0.3
320° - 340°	45° - 60°	226 ± 3	1.5 ± 0.29	237	1.3 ± 0.2
320° - 340°	60° - 75°	221 ± 5	1.2 ± 0.33	238	1.0 ± 0.2

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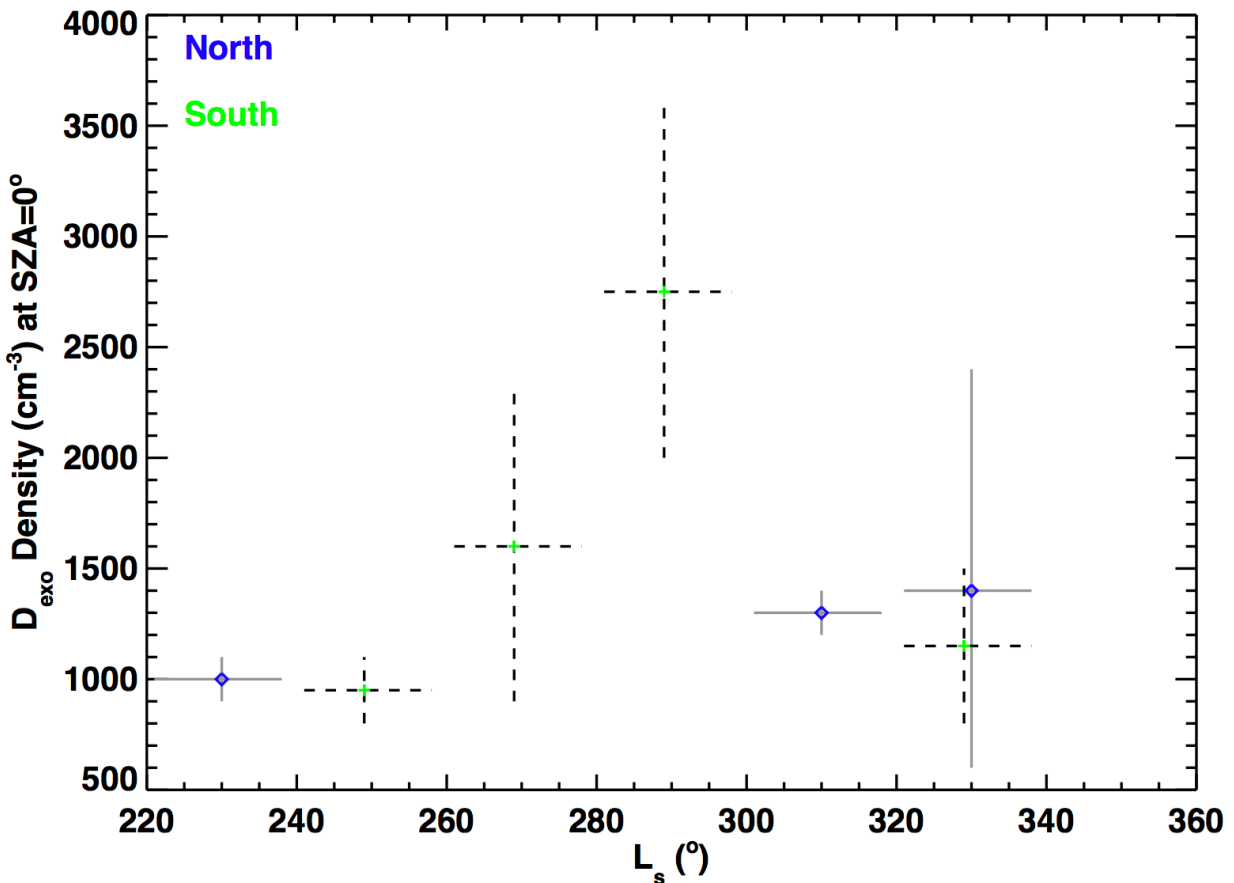
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477

The resulting D exobase densities, extrapolated to subsolar point conditions (SZA=0°) for perihelion observations are shown in Figure 6. The uncertainties in the modeled values stem from the ranges in the L_s , SZA, and altitude bins, and account for the range of results from model fits where more than one altitude profile (at different SZA bins) were available for interpolation to subsolar point conditions. Fig. 6 utilizes the averaged perihelion temperature of 255 K. Similar results corresponding to the low and high temperature ranges of 226 K and 284 K are shown in Figures S3 and S4, respectively, in the Supplemental Material.



478

479 Figure 6. Deuterium density at the exobase, extrapolated to 0° SZA, constrained by data and
 480 model results at other SZA for perihelion conditions (220° to 340° L_s). The northern hemisphere
 481 data points (blue diamonds) and the southern hemisphere data points (green crosses) are
 482 shown with their uncertainties in solid grey and dashed black lines, respectively. The modeled
 483 results correspond to data averaged over a 20° range in L_s, indicated by the length of the
 484 horizontal uncertainties. The modeled density uncertainties (vertical lines) in each L_s bin
 485 correspond to the largest range of results from constraining the model to observed data at the
 486 observation's SZA bins. Data points from the southern hemisphere are offset by one degree in L_s
 487 from center of bin for clarity when shown along overlapping northern hemisphere data points.
 488

489 The averaged densities for each L_s bin shown in Fig. 6 at subsolar conditions and the
 490 corresponding empirical temperatures described in this work are used to generate the
 491 estimated escape rates for deuterium [Jeans, 1925]. The resulting escape rates are listed in
 492 Table 2 for the low, average, and high temperature cases of 226 K, 255 K, and 284 K,
 493 respectively.
 494
 495
 496
 497

Table 2: Modeled Jeans escape rates at perihelion.

L _s Range	$\chi=0^\circ$ Jeans Escape Rate (x 10 ³ atoms cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)		
Northern Hemisphere			
	Low T Limit (226 K)	Average T (255 K)	High T Limit (284 K)
220° - 240°	1.1 ± 0.1	4.7 ± 0.5	16 ± 1.6
300° - 320°	0.9 ± 0.0	4.6 ± 0.4	15 ± 1.3
320° - 340°	0.8 ± 0.5	4.6 ± 2.7	17 ± 11
Southern Hemisphere			
	Low T Limit (226 K)	Average T (255 K)	High T Limit (284 K)
240° - 260°	1.6 ± 0.2	5.7 ± 0.9	16 ± 1.7
260° - 280°	2.2 ± 1.0	8.6 ± 3.8	25 ± 9.8
280° - 300°	2.9 ± 0.9	13 ± 3.6	37 ± 10
320° - 340°	0.6 ± 0.2	3.4 ± 1.0	12 ± 3.5

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 500
 501
 502

5. Discussion

503 There is generally good agreement between observed and simulated D brightness
 504 values at perihelion conditions, as shown in Fig. 5 (and Figs. S1 and S2). MAVEN arrived at Mars

505 in September 2014, during perihelion of Mars Year (MY) 32. In the early IUVS measurements,
506 echelle observations were made with relatively short integration times (few seconds) that
507 introduced higher uncertainties than longer-integration observations later in the mission (MY
508 33 and beyond). A few cases in Fig. 5 show a model-data divergence at lower altitudes (namely,
509 in the southern hemisphere, $L_s=240^\circ\text{--}260^\circ$, $\text{SZA}=45^\circ$ though 75° bins). The data from these bins
510 are predominantly obtained from early mission data and the data-model discrepancy is likely
511 associated with early echelle observational limitations [Mayyasi *et al.*, 2017b]. Additionally,
512 model profiles agree better with the observations when temporally similar observations are
513 used for co-adding. This is because there is less variability in the ambient atmosphere along the
514 line of sight vector used to generate the background atmosphere as well as less variability in
515 the input solar EUV flux.

516

517 The D emission brightness increased as Mars approached perihelion and decreased as
518 Mars moved further away from the Sun. These trends are similar in both hemispheres. When
519 global data were available (in L_s bins $280^\circ\text{--}300^\circ$ and $320^\circ\text{--}340^\circ$), northern hemispheric D
520 brightness observations were comparable to or brighter than southern hemispheric
521 observations at similar seasonal epochs. In most of the subpanels in Fig. 5 with brightness
522 profiles, more than one profile with SZA was available. The observed brightness profiles show
523 increasing, constant, and decreasing trends with increasing SZA. Theoretical estimates of these
524 trends predict an enhancement in D brightness with decreasing SZA. The present data coverage
525 is too sparse to empirically analyze these trends, and so further interpretation of D brightness
526 variability with SZA is deferred to future work once more observations near perihelion become
527 available.

528

529 The NGIMS temperatures at the exobase were derived with one-sigma uncertainties
530 with lower and higher limits of 226 K and 284 K, respectively, at perihelion. A similar analysis
531 was done at those temperature limits (with results shown in the Supplemental Material). The
532 resulting trends in brightness profiles, model fits, exobase densities and escape rates for
533 observational conditions as well as extrapolated subsolar conditions were consistent with the
534 trends found at the average temperature of 255 K.

535

536 Modeled values of D density at the exobase altitude of 200 km are derived for the
537 binned observational conditions, with the caveat of having no hemispherical differences in the
538 empirical background neutral atmosphere. These values are extrapolated to subsolar conditions
539 for more direct comparisons by hemisphere, as shown in Fig. 6 (and Figs. S3 and S4). The
540 exobase densities show similar trends in each hemisphere, with the northern hemisphere
541 concentrations being comparable to and higher than concentrations in the southern
542 hemisphere. Trends in the exobase density of both hemispheres peak near southern summer

543 solstice ($L_s \sim 280^\circ\text{--}300^\circ$ range). Simulating the observed D brightness with different
544 temperatures for the northern and southern hemispheres may produce different densities. 3D
545 temperature models validated to ongoing observations of the upper atmosphere would be
546 useful for making these determinations in future work. The temperature values derived for the
547 observational conditions and their subsequent modeled densities at the exobase are shown in
548 Table 1 (and Tables S1 and S2). These tables also include D exobase densities extrapolated for
549 subsolar conditions. Southern hemisphere derived exobase temperatures do not vary from
550 northern hemisphere temperatures, as expected from the atmospheric model assumptions.

551
552 In averaging the results of this work from both hemispheres, the D density at the
553 exobase varies from $\sim 1 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $220^\circ L_s$ to $\sim 3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $280^\circ L_s$ and then decreases to
554 $\sim 1 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $320^\circ L_s$ for the average exobase temperature of 255 K. No other existing
555 measurements of D densities near perihelion have been published to date for comparison to
556 these results; however, theoretical estimates have been made. Previous modeling work derived
557 an exobase density of $\sim 0.04 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at a higher temperature limit ($\sim 350 \text{ K}$) than used here
558 [Yung *et al.*, 1988]. A subsequent study derived a modeled exobase density of $\sim 0.5 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for
559 a temperature comparable to the average case here [Krasnopol'sky, 2002]. More recently, a
560 theoretical model analyzing lower resolution (FUV) IUVS observations made during Dec 2014
561 and Aug 2016 computed a D exobase density of $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $L_s \sim 205^\circ$ for a temperature of
562 $\sim 185 \text{ K}$, and $\sim 5 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $L_s \sim 255^\circ$ and temperature of $\sim 265 \text{ K}$, respectively [Chaffin *et al.*,
563 2018]. These theoretical results compare favorably within the limits of the observations and
564 simulations found in this work for the average temperature range and are consistent with the
565 higher and lower limit temperature results shown in Supplemental Material Tables S1 and S2
566 where the temperatures are closer to those modeled from FUV data.

567
568 The Jeans escape rate was calculated for aphelion conditions (as an upper limit) and for
569 20° seasonal bins at perihelion conditions. The trends in escape rate near perihelion follow
570 those of D exobase density at 0° SZA and brightness at the observed conditions. The
571 uncertainties in the escape rates are representative of those of the extrapolated densities at
572 the assumed exobase temperatures described in Table 2. The D escape rate at the exobase for
573 the average temperature conditions determined here varies seasonally within the range of $\sim 2\text{--}$
574 $19 \times 10^3 \text{ atoms cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in the southern hemisphere. At the low temperature limit, these
575 seasonal variations span $\sim 0.5\text{--}4 \times 10^3 \text{ atoms cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. At the high temperature limit, the
576 southern hemisphere seasonal variations span $\sim 9\text{--}47 \times 10^3 \text{ atoms cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

577
578 Inter-hemispheric deuterium escape rate comparisons are limited by observations.
579 There is insufficient coverage of northern hemisphere observations near perihelion at the time
580 of this work to compare trends in escape rates, and from existing coverage, would seem to be

581 constant. Escape rates for the northern hemisphere vary from ~ 1 , to ~ 4.5 , to $\sim 16 \times 10^3$ atoms
582 $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for low, average and high temperature conditions, respectively, and seem relatively
583 stable across the observed L_s ranges. The variation in escape rate across temperature limits and
584 observed L_s range span an order of magnitude both hemispheres.

585

586 Previous theoretical models estimated a deuterium escape rate of $\sim 8\text{--}15 \times 10^3$ atoms
587 $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at temperature conditions similar to the average temperature adopted here
588 [Krasnopolsky, 2002], and $\sim 7 \times 10^3$ atoms $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at higher temperatures than the high
589 temperature limit obtained here [Yung *et al.*, 1988]. Analysis of ongoing and future MAVEN
590 observations would enable further determinations of D abundances, escape rates, and their
591 variability across hemispheres and seasonal coverage.

592

593

594 **6. Interpretation**

595

596 The simulated trends of D densities and escape rates are consistent with observed and
597 theoretical expectations of Lyman- α brightness variations with martian season. The global
598 mean temperature in the exosphere of Mars is higher at perihelion than at aphelion, and D
599 irradiances were found to increase as Mars approaches the Sun in its orbit. It is plausible that
600 seasonal drivers produce circulation patterns in the lower atmosphere that cause an upwelling
601 of water and its deuterated constituents into higher altitudes when Mars is closer to the Sun.

602

603 The increasing and decreasing trends in D properties near perihelion occur during the
604 dust season at Mars [$L_s \sim 220^\circ\text{--}330^\circ$]. Type A and C dust storms originate in the northern
605 hemisphere and migrate south [Fernández, 1998]. The dynamics of dust migration and
606 circulation contribute to transporting water from the surface to higher altitudes [Heavens *et al.*,
607 2018]. Additional weather circulation patterns distribute photo-dissociated water products
608 from these altitudes into the upper atmosphere [e.g., Clarke, 2018], and may do so with varying
609 efficiency in the hemisphere of dust storm origin. At the time of this writing, Mars is
610 experiencing a planet encircling dust event. Analysis of MAVEN IUVS echelle observations for
611 this time and over the subsequent few months would contribute to determining the effects of
612 dust storms on the variability of D and H properties and their escape rates in the upper
613 atmosphere of Mars.

614

615 These seasonal trends in D densities are global since they are consistent for both
616 hemispheres. Similar trends have been found for properties of upper atmospheric hydrogen at
617 Mars [Clarke *et al.*, 2014; 2017; Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2015; Halekas, 2017]. Studies of water
618 variability lower in the atmosphere, using spectral analysis of H_2O and HDO as well as using

619 simulations, have shown seasonal differences in the distribution of water and its isotopologues
620 lower in the martian atmosphere [Montmessin et al., 2005; Krasnopolsky, 2015; Villanueva et
621 al., 2015; Encrenaz et al., 2016; 2018; Fedorova et al., 2018]

622
623 The surface in the northern hemisphere of Mars has been found to be as ancient as that
624 in the southern hemisphere, estimated from underground crater detections [Watters et al.,
625 2006]. Geological fluvial activity, attributed to covering up many of these craters in the
626 northern hemisphere, is associated with an enhanced reservoir for subsurface H₂O and HDO
627 [Orosei et al., 2018]. The water cycle at Mars includes these reservoirs as sources for upper
628 atmospheric deuterium [Bertaux and Montmessin, 2001]. Such a resource would plausibly
629 contribute to asymmetric D abundances with hemisphere [Heavens et al., 2018].

630
631 Seasonal processes that produce a near 3-fold brightening in deuterium emission on a
632 planet-wide scale are inferred to produce factors of 3 enhancements in exobase densities and
633 escape rates in the southern and northern hemispheres. Within the limitations of data
634 coverage, these trends appear symmetric about southern summer solstice. The D densities and
635 escape rates found here by analysis of the MAVEN IUVS echelle observations are comparable to
636 previous theoretical estimates at similar seasonal times. At overhead Sun conditions, the D
637 exobase density ranges between $\sim 1\text{--}4 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Extrapolating this density to lower altitudes
638 using a simplified atmospheric model described in Matta [2013] produces a volume mixing ratio
639 for deuterium that ranges between 4–22 parts per billion at 80 km for the average temperature
640 conditions used here.

641
642 Deriving H densities from these observations requires more comprehensive transfer
643 modeling to account for the optically thick emission. Efforts are underway to do so in order to
644 derive and interpret the D/H ratio and its variability in the upper atmosphere of Mars. Based
645 on the results of this analysis, the properties of D and H are expected to vary with altitude from
646 the surface to space as well as with season. The variations in D densities in the upper
647 atmosphere presented in this work will complement derivations of the D/H ratio in the lower
648 atmosphere of Mars (below 80 km) made by the Trace Gas Orbiter mission [Korablev et al.,
649 2018; Vandaele et al., 2018]. As more perihelion observations become available, variations due
650 to hemispherical processes may become more apparent. This variability would provide new
651 insights into the hydrological cycle at Mars, the effects of dust activity on regional and global
652 water escape and would be helpful in constraining primordial water content at the planet.

653
654 **Acknowledgements**

655

656 The first author thanks Paul Withers for helpful discussions of reference frames within the
657 MAVEN instrument suite, and Jean-Loup Bertaux for insights into spectral instrument
658 limitations. This work was supported, in part, by NASA Grant 80NSSC18K0266 and by NASA
659 Contract 1000320450 from the University of Colorado to Boston University. The MAVEN data
660 used here are available on the NASA Planetary Data System at
661 <https://pds.nasa.gov/datasearch/subscription-service/SS-20180215.shtml> for release 12 of the
662 IUVS level1a and level1c echelle dataset.

663

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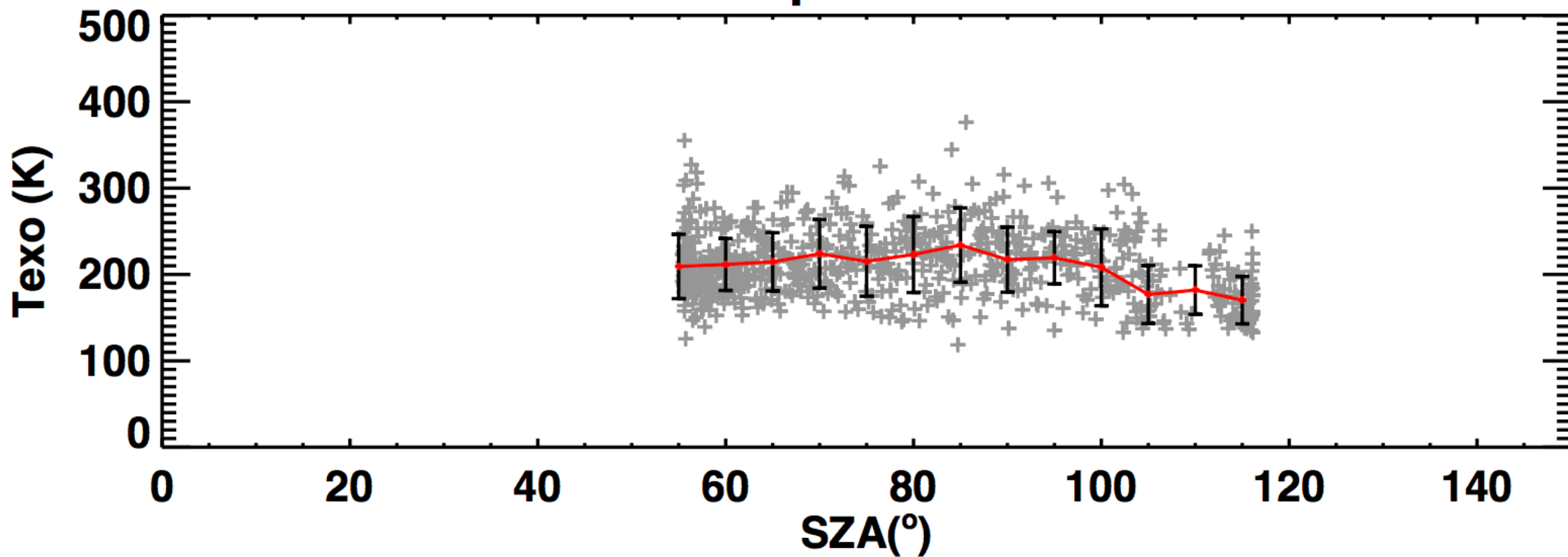
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Figure 1.

Aphelion



Perihelion

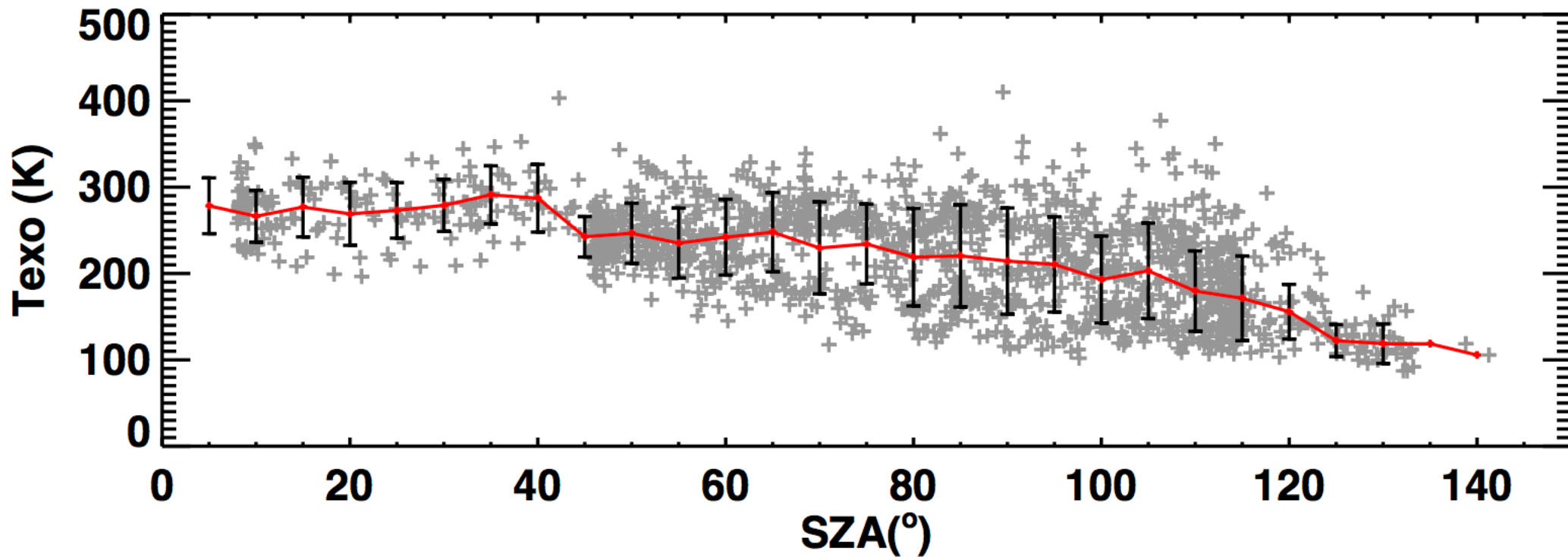


Figure 2.

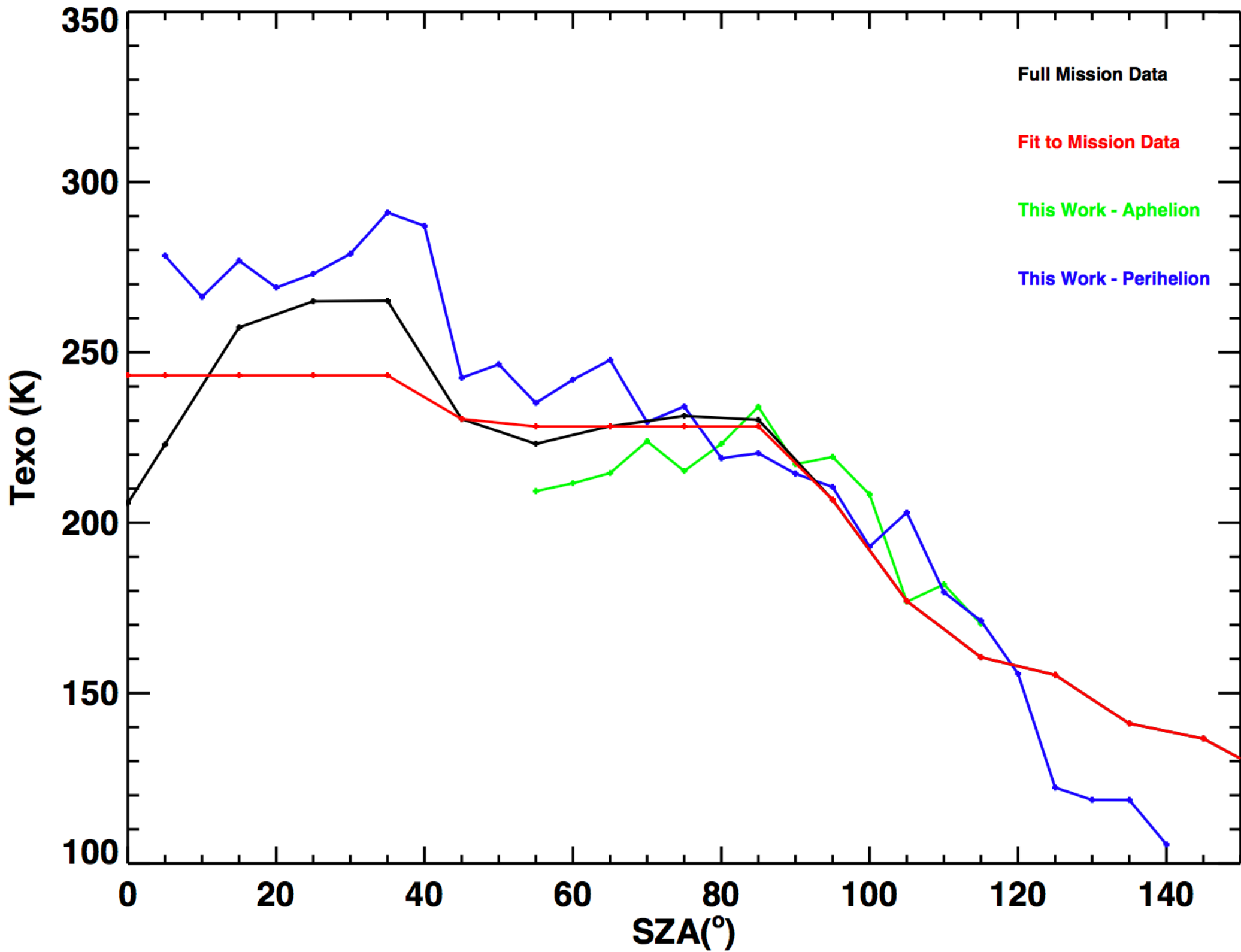


Figure 3.

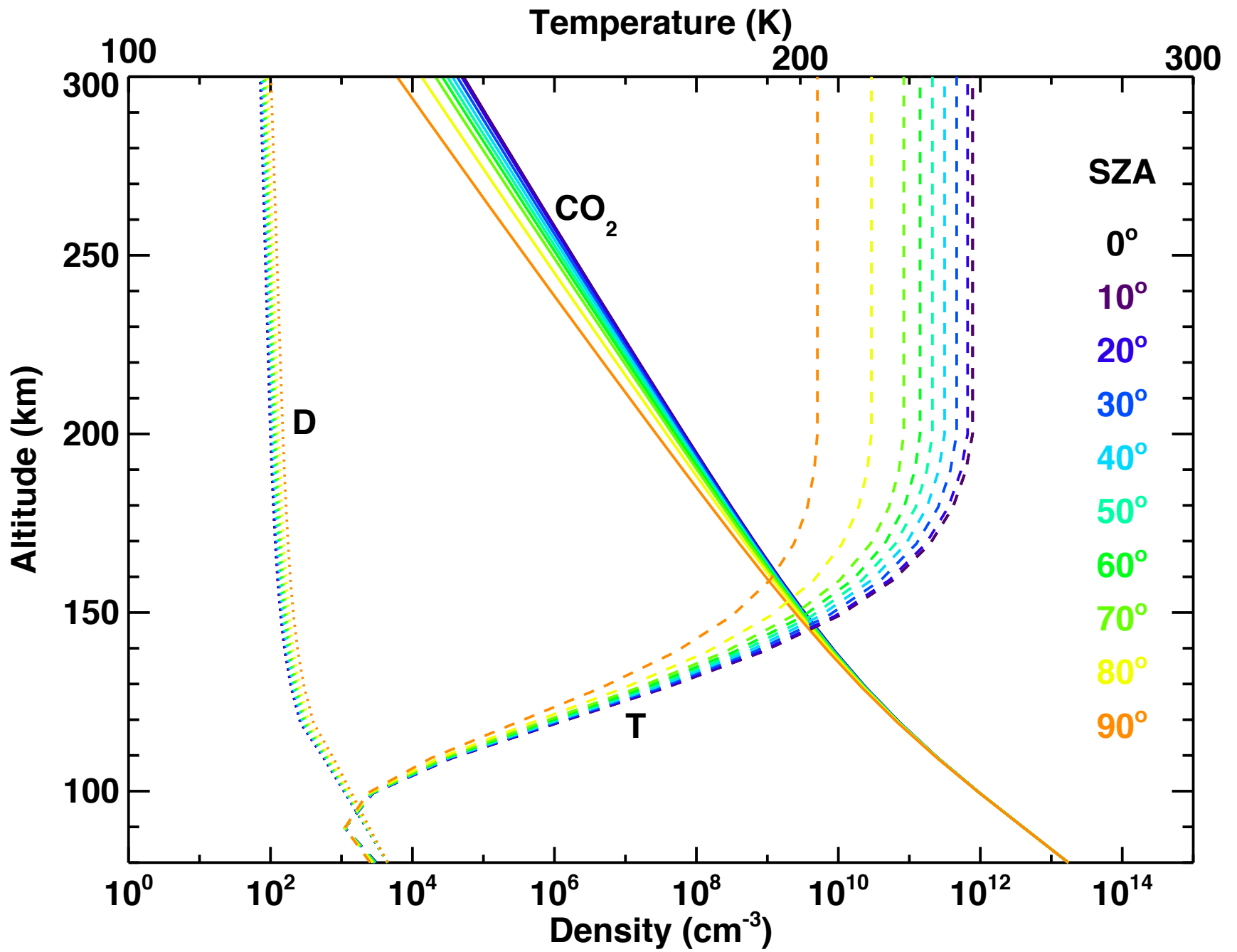


Figure 4.

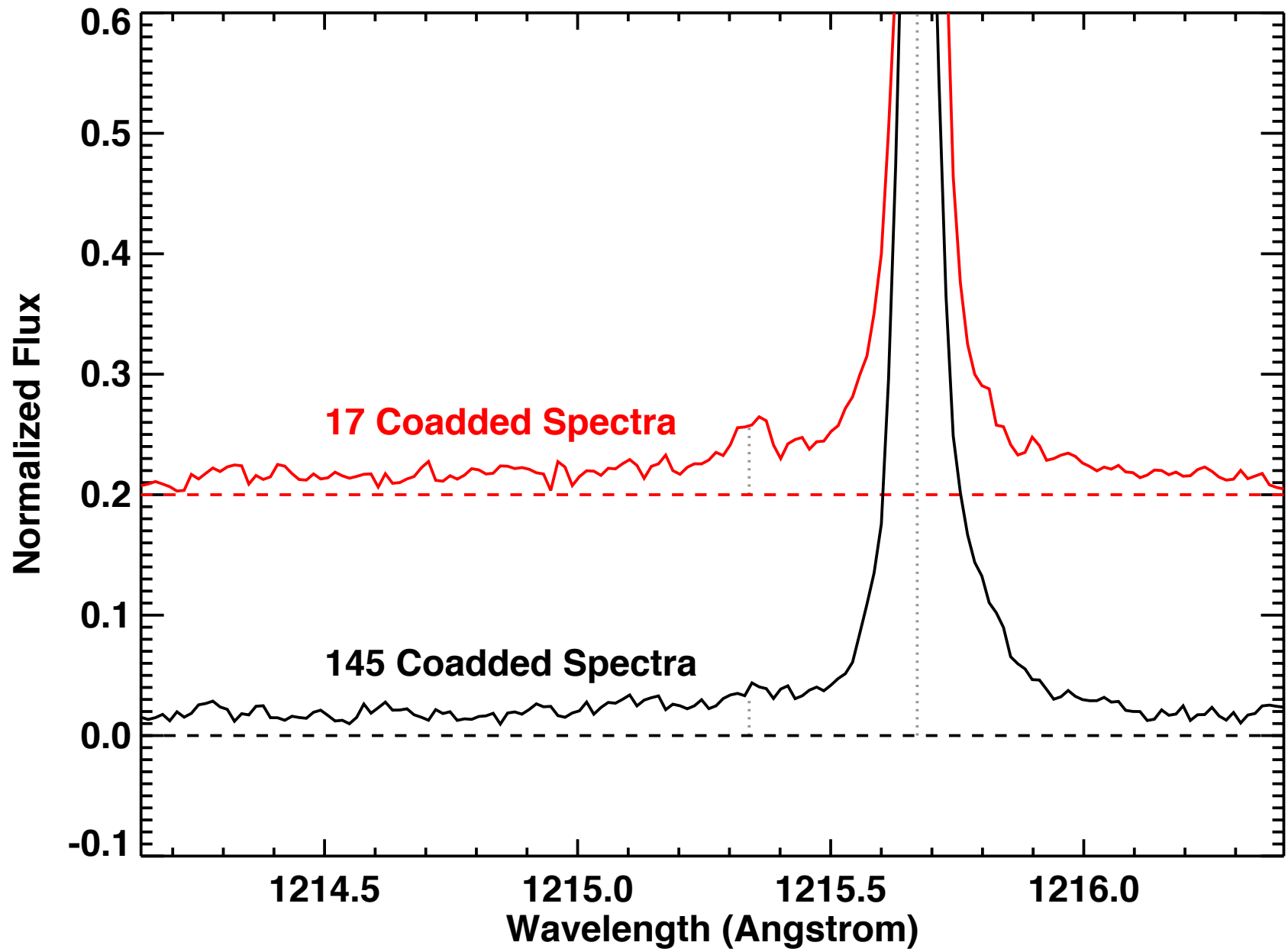


Figure 5.

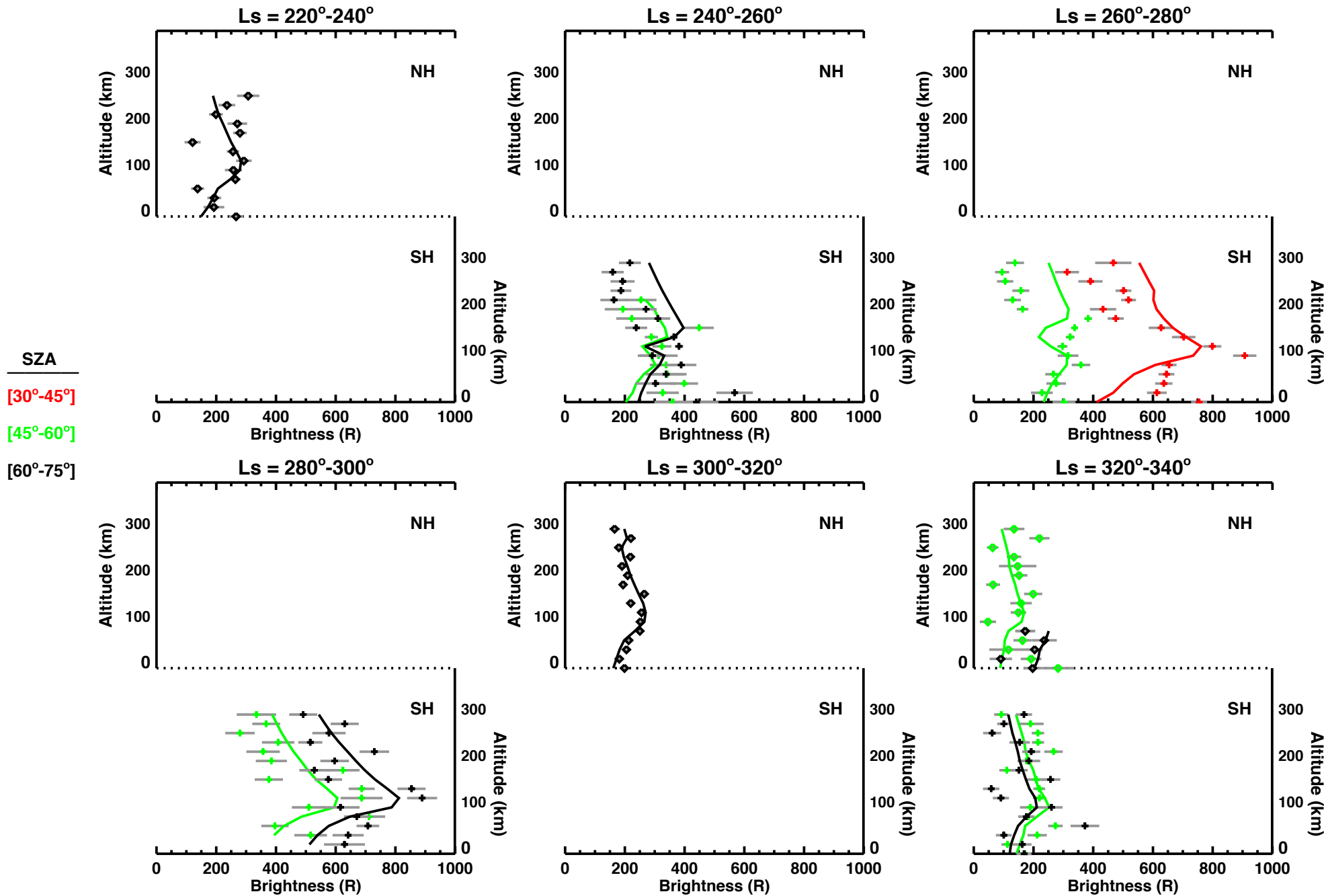


Figure 6.

