NASA SPACE VEHICLE DESIGN CRITERIA (ENVIRONMENT)

MODELS OF MARS' ATMOSPHERE [1974]


REVISED DECEMBER 1974

NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION
NASA experience has indicated a need for uniform criteria for the design of space vehicles. Accordingly, criteria have been developed in the following areas of technology:

- Environment
- Structures
- Guidance and Control
- Chemical Propulsion

Individual components of this work are issued as separate monographs as soon as they are completed. A list of all monographs published in this series can be found on the last pages of this monograph.

These monographs are to be regarded as guides to design and not as NASA requirements, except as may be specified in formal project specifications. It is expected, however, that the monographs will be used to develop requirements for specific projects and be cited as the applicable documents in mission studies, or in contracts for the design and development of space vehicle systems.

This monograph was prepared for NASA under the cognizance of the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center with Scott A. Mills as program coordinator. Principal authors were Richard B. Noll of Aerospace Systems, Inc. and Dr. Michael B. McElroy of Harvard University. The Technical Director was Mr. John Zvara of Aerospace Systems, Inc. This monograph is based on a draft manuscript prepared by Y. S. Lou of Northrop Services, Inc. His efforts which are included in part are gratefully acknowledged.

Comments concerning the technical content of these monographs will be welcomed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Goddard Space Flight Center, Systems Reliability Directorate, Greenbelt, Maryland 20771.

December 1974
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1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this monograph is to provide atmospheric models for support of design and mission planning of space vehicles that are to orbit the planet Mars, enter its atmosphere, or land on the surface. The atmosphere affects the orbital lifetime, the flight dynamics of the vehicle along its flight path, and the performance of the vehicle and its major subsystems. For design of experiments, knowledge of the Martian atmosphere is required to select instrumentation and establish the range of measurements.

Quantitative data for the Martian atmosphere have been obtained from Earth-based observations and from spacecraft that have orbited Mars or passed within several planetary radii. These data have been used in conjunction with existing theories of planetary atmospheres to predict other characteristics of the Martian atmosphere as discussed in reference 1. Because of limited observational data, it was necessary to extrapolate within the limits of applicable theory to establish reasonably complete model atmospheres. Earth-based observations have generally provided information on the composition, temperature, and optical properties of Mars with rather coarse spatial resolution, whereas spacecraft measurements have yielded data on composition, temperature, pressure, density, and atmospheric structure with moderately good spatial resolution.

The models herein provide the temperature, pressure, and density profiles required to perform basic aerodynamic analyses. The profiles are supplemented by computed values of viscosity, specific heat, and speed of sound. These ambient values and the calculated aerodynamic forces influence flight dynamics and space vehicle design; i.e., configuration, size, strength, and materials. Other characteristics are inferred from the measured data that also affect design. For example, electron densities of the ionosphere and the plasma characteristics in the region of the solar wind may dictate requirements for electromagnetic shielding. Also, opacity of the atmosphere caused by dust storms could constrain the design of landed solar power systems and may adversely affect performance of experiments.

This monograph provides a set of engineering models for the Martian atmosphere on the basis of theory and measured data available in July 1974. It replaces NASA SP-8010 of May 1968 (ref. 2). Data from US and USSR space exploration have narrowed considerably the range of parameters in the lower atmosphere in comparison to the 1968 monograph. The four model atmospheres developed herein include a model for a dusty atmosphere, a nominal model for a clear atmosphere, and two other models that encompass reasonable extremes of exospheric temperature.

Design criteria monographs on other planets, Earth environments, and space technology are listed in the last pages of this monograph.
2. STATE OF THE ART

The need for information on the Martian atmosphere that could be used to develop atmospheric engineering models for spacecraft design purposes was recognized in the middle 1960s (e.g., refs. 3, 4, and 5). Continuous observation of Mars from Earth, particularly by radio and radar astronomy, and the successful flyby mission of Mariner 4 in 1965 provided new information which was incorporated into improved models such as presented in reference 2. Since the publication of reference 2, knowledge of the Martian atmosphere and of the planet itself has undergone many changes. The most significant information came from the Mariner 6, 7, and 9 experiments. The revised Mars engineering models for the Viking Project (ref. 6) were developed on the basis of new findings from Mariner 6 and 7 missions.

Although the Mariner 9 mission did not provide in-situ measurements of the Martian atmosphere such as obtained from Venus spacecraft missions (ref. 7), the spacecraft was placed in orbit around Mars on November 14, 1971 and provided a remarkably successful record of planetary conditions over a moderately long time base. Multispectral sensing devices were used to observe Mars on a global basis and permitted a determination of atmospheric characteristics as a function of spatial position, local time, and season. As a result, it is now possible to reduce significantly the uncertainties inherent in spatially- and time-averaged models.

2.1 Atmosphere

For discussion of engineering models, the Martian atmosphere is divided into lower and upper regions as shown in figure 1. Reference 8 provides an overview of the impact of Mariner 9 on the knowledge of Mars as well as a useful reference chart. Reference 9 gives a more detailed account. The following sections briefly describe the current status of information for the parameters needed to construct model atmospheres.

2.1.1 Lower Atmosphere

2.1.1.1 Surface Pressure

Modern studies of the Martian atmospheric pressure began in 1963 with the spectroscopic study of Kaplan, Munch, and Spinrad (ref. 10). Subsequent spectroscopic results were reported in references 11 through 15. Of particular interest is the work by Grandjean and Goody (ref. 15) who used the observation of carbon dioxide \((\text{CO}_2)\) to determine the relationship between the surface pressure and the total volume fraction of \(\text{CO}_2\). The full significance of this result was not appreciated because of the then prevailing theories that favored high values for atmospheric pressure. Goody (ref. 16) noted that the assumption of a pure \(\text{CO}_2\) atmosphere led to a lower limit for the surface pressure of 13 mb. Another analysis made by Belton and Hunten (ref. 12) gave \(5.2 \pm 0.5\) mb. Low pressure was also derived by Musman (ref. 17) and Evans (ref. 18) from Martian ultraviolet albedos. Musman used an albedo for the total disk obtained photoelectricly by de Vaucouleurs (ref. 19). With assumptions of no absorbing atmospheric constituents, no particles in the atmosphere
that might contribute to the albedo, and a surface reflectivity of zero. Musman calculated a surface pressure of 27 mb for a pure N₂ atmosphere and 19 mb for a pure CO₂ atmosphere. On the other hand, Evans found surface pressures of 6 \pm 3 mb for pure CO₂, 9 \pm 4 mb for pure nitrogen (N₂), and 12 \pm 6 mb for pure argon (A) atmospheres on the basis of an ultraviolet spectrum from 2400 to 3600 Å that was obtained by an Aerobee rocket.

Through a careful examination of spectroscopic measurements, Wood (ref. 20) concluded that the values of the surface pressure on Mars fall between 5 and 7 mb except for two measurements which yielded pressures of 4.4 mb and 8.0 mb. Wood derived a mean Martian surface pressure of 5.3 mb on the basis of spectroscopic measurements of CO₂ abundance.

Additional information on the atmospheric pressure was obtained from Mariner 4, 6, and 7 occultation experiments in which changes in the frequency, phase, and amplitude of the S-band radio signal during passage through the atmosphere of Mars, were observed immediately before and after occultation by the planet. Analysis of these effects yielded estimates of the refractivity and density of the atmosphere near the surface, the scale height in the atmosphere, and the electron density profile of the ionosphere. From these data, surface pressure was estimated in the 4.2 to 8.0 mb range (refs. 21 through 26).

The most recent results for surface pressure were derived from both ground-based observations and Mariner 9 experiments. Absorption of CO₂ in the Martian atmosphere (from which the partial pressure of CO₂ can be inferred) was measured from Earth by means of a multislit spectrometer in 1969 (ref. 27) and in 1971 (ref. 28). These measurements, which

Figure 1.—Atmospheric Regions of Mars.
provided moderate spatial resolution, covered about three-fourths of the circumference from 40°N to 20°S latitude in 1969 and almost all of the surface from 40°N to 60°S in 1971. The results of these measurements were in general agreement.

An occultation experiment similar to those of Mariner 4, 6, and 7 was conducted on Mariner 9 (ref. 29). The results were similar to the previous occultation results even though the measurements were made at a time when the entire planet was shrouded by a dust storm. This storm obscured the surface at wavelengths ranging from the ultraviolet to the infrared (ref. 30). Unlike earlier Mariners, Mariner 9 was placed in orbit around Mars so it provided occultation measurements over various regions. Measurements made in the equatorial regions resulted in an average surface pressure of approximately 2.8 mb was measured in the Phoenix Lake region of the Tharsis ridge area as well as in the Claritas area at approximately 34.5°S latitude. The highest surface pressure of 8.9 mb was measured at the bottom of the Hellas depression.

Surface pressures at about 65°N latitude were considerably higher than those in the equatorial region. Pressures ranged from about 7.2 to 10.3 mb with a mean value of approximately 8.9 mb. The pressures derived from Mariner 9 occultation data are in agreement with Earth-based spectroscopic results of reference 28.

The difference in surface pressures shown by the spectroscopic and occultation results correlates with the topography of Mars.* Radar observations and spacecraft occultation experiments prior to 1969 showed that the elevation difference on Mars was about 12 km (refs. 31 through 34). References 35, 36, and 37 indicated elevation variations of about 14 km. However, recent topographic estimates that have been derived from occultation, radar, spectral, and optical measurements show a range of elevations from 4 km below the mean surface in Hellas depression to an altitude of 28 km on Olympus Mons as shown in figure 2.**

The surface pressure data achieved by the Mariner 9 occultation experiment strongly suggest that the physical shape of Mars is substantially more oblate that its gravitational equipotential surface and is approximated by a triaxial ellipsoid (ref. 38). Optical measurements of Mars indicate that the shape is an ellipsoid with an equatorial radius of 3398 ± 3 km and a polar radius of 3371 ± 4 km (ref. 39). Earth and Mariner 9 observations were combined to yield ellipsoid radii of 3400.12, 3394.19, and 3375.45 km.*** The mean equatorial radius of Mars determined from combined radar data is 3394 ± 2 km (ref. 36).

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*Beales variation with topography, seasonal variation, or surface pressure by 10 to 20 percent is indicated in recent study by P. M. Wocadlo, "Global Seasonal Fluctuations on Mars," Icarus 22, July 1972.


Table 1
Composition of the Martian Atmosphere
(ref. 40)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituent</th>
<th>Abundance (cm atm)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>7800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂O</td>
<td>~ 3, variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂</td>
<td>~ 0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₃</td>
<td>~10⁻⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂</td>
<td>&lt;400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A + inert gases</td>
<td>&lt;1560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO₂</td>
<td>&lt;3 x 10⁻³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂O</td>
<td>&lt;200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₄</td>
<td>&lt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₂H₄</td>
<td>&lt;2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₂H₆</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH₃</td>
<td>&lt;2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO₂</td>
<td>&lt;8 x 10⁻⁴</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These values give the abundance of each gas according to its thickness in cm if spread evenly over the planet. The uniform density is that for standard temperature and pressure (0°C and 760 mm Hg). 1 cm atm is equivalent to a 1 cm thickness and contains 2.69 x 10²³ molecules/m².

2.1.1.2 Composition and Molecular Mass

Present knowledge of the composition of the Martian atmosphere is based on spectroscopic observations and on theoretical deductions that certain gases are present. Additionally, the polarization and occultation measurements provide information on the total amount of gases. Table 1 from reference 40 lists the abundances of all the observed and assumed constituents.

A. Major Constituents

Of the expected major constituents (N₂, CO₂, and A), only CO₂ has been observed spectroscopically. The amount of CO₂ reported lies within the range of 50 to 90 m-atm (refs. 10, 12, 41 through 46), and the arithmetic mean of CO₂ abundance for the ten best measurements was 72 m-atm (ref. 6). A current value is 78 m-atm (ref. 40). On the basis of the observed spatial variations of total pressure, one would expect similar spatial variations for CO₂.

A small amount of nitrogen may be present in the Martian atmosphere even though it was not detected by the ultraviolet spectrometers on the Mariner 6, 7, and 9 spacecraft. From Mariner 6 and 7 evidence that the ionosphere of Mars contains CO₂⁺ ions, Goody (ref. 47)
noted that the amount of nitrogen present in the Martian atmosphere must be less than ten percent or else the ions would be OH* and CO*. Dalgarno and McElroy (ref. 48) estimated the maximum mole fraction of N₂ relative to CO₂ must be less than five percent on the basis of an analysis of dayglow data. It has been suggested (ref. 6) that the presence of one percent nitrogen may be assumed for the purpose of calculating radio blackout phenomena.

The possibility of potassium compounds near the surface of Mars led to the long-held assumption that the Martian atmosphere contains some argon associated with the production of potassium 40 by radioactive decay. The amount of argon in the Martian atmosphere is probably small. Recent studies (refs. 25 and 49 through 52) all confirm that CO₂ is the only major constituent; inert species other than argon can account for at most ten percent of the total atmospheric mass. *

B. Minor Constituents

Besides water vapor and dust, minor identified constituents are CO, O₂, and O₃. Water vapor was first detected spectroscopically by Spinrad, Munch, and Kaplan (ref. 53). An analysis of the line intensities gave an average abundance of 14 ± 7 µm precipitable water over the entire planet. Other findings for H₂O were reported by Dollfus (ref. 54) who gave value of 45 µm precipitable water, the highest determination, and by Schorn et al. (ref. 55) who estimated an abundance of 10 to 20 µm precipitable water from study of the lines of H₂O near 8200Å with a new high-dispersion spectrograph during the 1964-65 apparition. The mean relative humidity of the Martian atmosphere may be as high as 50 percent (ref. 56).

Seasonal and latitudinal variations of water vapor content have been reported by Tull (ref. 57) who found that during the period from the middle summer to the middle autumn the amount of precipitable water vapor reached as much as 48 µm in the northern hemisphere and 20 µm in the southern hemisphere. Schorn et al. (ref. 56) reported that more precipitable water vapor was found in the northern hemisphere in the northern midsummer and more in the southern hemisphere.

Water vapor was identified conclusively from spectra obtained by the infrared interferometer spectroscopy (IRIS) experiment on Mariner 9 (ref. 37). The total H₂O content was determined from a quantitative comparison of observed and synthesized spectra. This comparison indicated the abundance of water vapor at 10 to 20 µm of precipitable water. Water vapor data from the IRIS experiment are compared to Earth-based observations (refs. 58 and 59) in figure 3. The data shown by the dashed lines were made concurrently with the IRIS data. Latitudinal gradients were not found to be significant from the South pole to the equator. The 1971 Earth-based measurements and IRIS data are in general agreement; however, Earth measurements in previous years during similar seasonal conditions indicated larger amounts of water vapor. Results from the 1.38 µm water vapor band experiment on the USSR Mars 3 indicate substantially lower water vapor amounts (ref. 60) although the reason for an actual discrepancy is not clear.

*Reported detection of considerable amounts of an inert atmospheric gas by the recent Soviet lander is discussed by G. P. Wood in NASA TM X-71999, August 1974.
Figure 3.—Water Vapor Content of the Martian Atmosphere (ref. 37).
The average abundance of water vapor determined by IRIS was lower than values observed during previous oppositions. It is theorized that this could result from an unusually large amount of water trapped in the north polar cap (water vapor was not detected over the north polar hood) or that the large dust storm in late 1971 could have resulted in the adsorption of water vapor on the dust particles.

When Mariner 9 entered into orbit of Mars on November 14, 1971, the entire planet was shrouded by a dust storm. Thus, dust must be considered as a likely atmospheric constituent. Comparison of Mariner 9 observations of the brightness of the dust storm with results from a simple multiple scattering theory (ref. 61) leads to an albedo of about 0.7 for the particles. This is consistent with values for Martian surface albedo obtained from Earth-based measurements. Therefore, the mean size and composition of the dust storm particles appear to be similar to those for particles on the Martian surface. The mean particle size of surface material has been estimated as 100 \( \mu \text{m} \) in references 62 and 63 and between 10 and 300 \( \mu \text{m} \) in reference 64.

Because mineralogical characteristics determine the spectral position of absorption and transmission maxima (e.g., ref. 65), it is possible to infer the dust composition from Mariner 9 IRIS results. An empirical comparison of these data with laboratory transmission spectra of mineral dust indicates a \( \text{SiO}_2 \) content of 60 \( \pm \) 10 percent (ref. 37).

Other identified minor species of the lower Martian atmosphere are carbon monoxide (CO) detected by Kaplan et al. (ref. 49), oxygen (\( \text{O}_2 \)) observed by Carleton and Traub (ref. 66), and ozone (\( \text{O}_3 \)) measured by Lane et al. (ref. 67). Both CO and \( \text{O}_2 \) should be well mixed throughout the lower atmosphere of Mars. Their abundances are 5.6 cm-atm and 10.4 cm-atm, respectively.

Ozone was observed by the Mariner 7 ultraviolet spectrometer experiment at the Martian south polar cap during its late spring season but nowhere else (ref. 68). Results from a similar experiment on Mariner 9 (ref. 67) also indicated the presence of \( \text{O}_3 \) in the Martian atmosphere during the southern summer season. In the foregoing observations, ozone was detected only in the polar region north of 45\(^{\circ}\)N, but it was subsequently detected in the southern hemisphere with the approach of the autumnal equinox. The presence of ozone appears to increase as the amount of water vapor in the atmosphere decreases (ref. 67).

There are upper limits for the abundances of formaldehyde (HCHO), carbonyl sulfide (COS), ammonia (\( \text{NH}_3 \)), methane (\( \text{CH}_4 \)), and oxides of nitrogen such as \( \text{NO}_3 \), \( \text{N}_2\text{O}_4 \), \( \text{NO} \), \( \text{N}_2\text{O} \), and \( \text{HNO}_3 \). Theoretical models (refs. 28 and 69) indicate expected densities for \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), \( \text{H}_2 \), H, OH, and \( \text{HO}_2 \) species that play a major role in the chemistry of the Martian atmosphere.

C. Molecular Mass

From Mariner 4 occultation data, Spencer (ref. 70) has shown for a mean temperature above the occultation point of 140 to 180 K, the allowable mean molecular weight could range from 33.1 to 50. Similarly, Hess and Pounder (ref. 71) indicated that although the mean molecular weight estimated from the Mariner 4 data is between 33.2 and 39.2, a range of
3.1.2 to 44 is consistent with reliable spectroscopic data. More recently both Mariner 6 and 7 occultation experiments indicated that the molecular weight of the Martian atmosphere is close to 44 (refs. 23 and 24). Thus, the more recent data interpretations strongly favor a CO₂ rich atmosphere in which CO₂ accounts for at least 90 percent of the total atmospheric mass.

2.1.1.3 Temperature

Numerous theoretical models have been developed to describe the thermal structure of the Martian atmosphere (e.g., refs. 72, 73, and 74). These analyses are generally based on assumptions of radiative, convective, and conductive equilibrium for the Martian atmosphere and surface. One recent analysis (ref. 75) also includes absorption of solar energy by a grey atmosphere such as might be caused by the global dust storm of 1971. These theoretical techniques are in general accord and demonstrate variation of temperature with latitude and season.

The vertical temperature structure of Mars has been determined from occultation experiments on Mariner 4 (refs. 21, 22, 76, and 77), Mariner 6 and 7 (refs. 23 and 24), and Mariner 9 (refs. 29 and 78) and from the Mariner 9 IRIS experiment (ref. 37). Occultation results from Mariner 6 and 7 were compared to a revised model of the analysis developed by Leovy in reference 74 (ref. 79). Predictions by this model of the Martian atmospheric characteristics at the time of the Mariner 6 and 7 flybys (ref. 80) were in excellent agreement with observed data.* Mariner 9 IRIS results obtained during the global dust storm did not correlate well with the theoretical analyses for a dust-free atmosphere. However, Mariner 9 results were in reasonable agreement with the model of a dusty atmosphere presented by Gierasch and Goody (ref. 75).

The 20,000 spectra from the Mariner 9 IRIS experiment indicated temperature variations with latitude, season, local time, topography, and secular events such as the global dust storm (ref. 37). Figure 4a shows variation with latitude and local time during the dust storm at altitudes of about 10 km (2 mb pressure level of the atmosphere). For the period after the dust storm, figure 4b shows cooling of the atmosphere and shifting of the maximum temperature toward the subsolar point at the same altitudes. The isotherms were constructed from data averaged over 10 degree bands of latitude and one hour intervals in Martian local time. The diurnal variations of 15 to 30K were larger than expected from theoretical predictions.

At the surface, figure 5** shows variation of temperature with latitude and local time during and after the dust storm (ref. 37). Maximum temperatures occurred near the subsolar point at both times with little change in the maximum.

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*Private communication from Y. S. Lou, Northrop Services, Inc., Huntsville, Alabama.

**Figure 5 refers to the temperature on the surface. There is a large temperature drop in the first meter above the surface in the warmer parts of the day. In some temperature studies, the zero point for altitude is taken at the top boundary of this thin layer.
Figure 4. — Variations of Atmospheric Temperature with Latitude and Local Time at Altitudes of About 10 km (2 mb Pressure Level) (ref. 37).
Figure 5. Variation of Surface Temperature with Latitude and Local Time (ref. 37).

a) Revolutions 1-85 (Dust Storm)

b) Revolutions 161-186 (Clearing)
Temperature profiles obtained from the Mariner 6 and 7 occultations are shown in figure 6 (ref. 24). The profiles are uncertain at high altitudes because of uncertainties in the motion of the spacecraft and in the refractivity of the ionosphere. These data indicate an extremely cold region in the middle atmosphere with a subadiabatic lapse rate of about 3.5 K/km. Mariner 9 occultation results reported in reference 29 were obtained during the global dust storm. Measurements at beginning of occultation were made in the equatorial region and measurements near the end at about 65°N latitude in the Martian early morning during midwinter. Therefore, the near-surface temperatures of 150 to 160 K obtained at the end of occultation were noticeably lower than at the beginning. Typical temperature profiles obtained from Mariner 9 IRIS are shown in figure 7. The cooling of the atmosphere as the dust storm diminished is evident; however, in all cases the lapse rate remained subadiabatic (ref. 37).

2.1.1.4 Winds (Atmospheric Dynamics)

Information concerning Martian winds has been obtained from observation and theory. The observational input comes largely from the study of the motion of cloud systems in the Martian atmosphere although useful information has also been derived from analysis of temperature maps made by the IRIS instrument on Mariner 9. The theoretical work is based generally on the application of standard meteorological principles (ref. 81).
Observational studies of Martian clouds have a lengthy history. Ground based observations by Kuiper (ref. 82) and de Vaucouleurs (ref. 19) established the potential of the technique as a remote monitor of dynamic activity. They drew attention to a variety of interesting circulation phenomena. Their concepts have been followed in Mariner 9 experiments. The imaging experiment on this spacecraft provided superior spatial resolution and afforded an excellent opportunity for careful study of Martian meteorological phenomena (ref. 61).

A. Mariner 9 Results

Mariner 9 arrived at Mars during a planet-wide dust storm that altered meteorological conditions drastically. Dust was lifted to altitudes above 30 km (ref. 61). This vertical extent requires strong winds and circulation; these can be attributed to alterations in the temperature structure because of dust content. The effect of dust on heating was shown by the unexpectedly high atmospheric temperatures observed by Mariner 9 experiments. These high temperatures in conjunction with their nonuniformity in horizontal directions (refs. 37 and 75) can induce vertical circulation in two ways (ref. 61):

1) the diurnal variation of the heating can drive a large-scale circulation capable of completely overturning the atmosphere each day, and
2) If large-scale horizontal variations in dust content of the air occur, the dustier regions will be heated relative to their surroundings and will develop larger vertical velocities.

C. Ditsyn (ref. 83) has deduced that a dust storm can result in a cyclonic vortex with thermal winds (velocity changes) of about 40 m/s. For the upper part of the atmosphere where the temperature gradient is reversed, an anticyclonic vortex should arise. Thus, the dust storm can generate strong winds that can raise new dust from the surface. Sagan (ref. 84) concludes that wind velocities of 100 m/s and perhaps as high as 150 m/s are required to raise dust to the observed altitude.

The effect of the large observed diurnal variations in the atmospheric temperatures during the global dust storm of 1771 on tidal winds was considered in reference 37 and extended by Pirraglia and Conrath (ref. 85). Temperature fields derived from the Mariner 9 IRIS experiment were used as input data to solve the surface pressure tidal equation and subsequently to estimate the velocities of atmospheric winds. The derived wind fields are shown in figures 8 and 9. The resulting diurnal winds near the surface beyond 30°N and S (fig. 8) have amplitudes of the order of 20 m/s. These winds could not sustain the dust storm unless augmented by the polar symmetric fields or orographic wind fields. The 70 to 100 m/s zonally-symmetric winds in the latitude belt between 30°N and 30°S could contribute to the lifting of dust into the atmosphere.

Photographs from Mariner 9 (ref. 61) also revealed local dust storms. In one case, the storms appear to be associated with a strong southward movement of cold air following a cold front at an apparent speed of 15 m/s. These highly-convective local storms carried dust as high as 15 to 20 km.

The Mariner 9 pictures also revealed a variety of additional features of the Martian meteorology. Photographs of the clouds comprising the North polar hood (north of 45°N) indicated that those clouds move in a manner that is characteristic of cold fronts and associated baroclinic wave cyclones in the Earth's atmosphere. Cloud bands were observed in the region between 45 and 65°N during the winter season. These clouds which have 30 km wavelengths are indicative of gravity waves that are generated by flow over irregular topography. Wave orientations and positions in respect to the topography show that west-to-east winds prevailed in this region. Because of the static stability of the Mars atmosphere at this time (ref. 17), it was inferred that a deep layer containing westerly winds with speeds of at least 5 m/s lies above the wave-generating region (ref. 61).

Theoretical Studies

Information from Earth-based Martian cloud observations was used as a direct input for the theoretical study of atmospheric circulation (ref. 86) in which the presence of a wave-type circulation regime was found. A value of 100 m/s or more was obtained for the maximum surface wind and 13 m/s for the maximum large-scale vertical wind. The average zonal winds were about 25 m/s and average meridional winds about 1.3 m/s.

A comprehensive theoretical investigation of general circulation on Mars by Leovy and Mintz (ref. 87) included calculations of wind velocities for the northern vernal equinox and
Figure 8. Near-Surface Winds During 1971 Dust Storm (Ref. 85).
Figure 9 - High Altitude Winds During 1971 Dust Storm (ref. 85).
southern summer solstice. Their results for the southern summer solstice indicate that the meridional component of mean wind has a strong circulation across the equator. This meridional flow has a speed of 10 m/s with the southerly wind at high altitude and the northerly wind near the surface. Its effective region is between 25°N and 30°S latitudes. As a result of this flow pattern, the air mass is being transferred from the diminishing polar cap to the growing polar cap. The zonal component of the mean wind at near surface is illustrated in figure 10 where the easterly and westerly winds are plotted against latitudes. The mean flow in the summer hemisphere is expected to be stable and nearly undisturbed. For the winter hemisphere, however, the mean flow becomes unstable. Leovy and Mintz also found that the maximum instantaneous near-surface wind speed occurs at 26°S latitude and that the average speed of the extremely strong winds at 15 km altitude at 40°S is about 70 m/s.

The diurnal variation in wind velocity for a clear atmosphere has been explored by Goody (ref. 47). Goody pointed out that the diurnal variation of wind because of temperature changes is complicated by variations in tropopause height and eddy exchange coefficient and by the unknown behavior of the atmospheric tidal energy. The magnitude of this thermally-driven diurnal change of wind is estimated to be 2 m/s (ref. 88). However, the diurnal fluctuation in the vertical momentum exchange can cause a diurnal variation in wind velocity as large as the zonal wind itself, which has a magnitude of 40 m/s (ref. 88).

Large scale motions are known to have a significant effect on the atmospheric vertical temperature structure (e.g., refs. 89 through 92). Dynamic processes including baroclinic waves, vertical oscillations such as induced by topographic relief, and vertical oscillations at altitude were studied (ref. 93). These processes were shown to modify temperature structure predicted by radiative-convective model in such a way as to provide an explanation of the observed cold middle atmosphere (ref. 37) that was not predicted by the less complete models.
The vertical wind vector gradient in the Martian atmosphere has been investigated by Wood (ref. 20) who took the results of wind component at two levels provided by Leovy and Mintz and assumed a linear variation of wind with height. His analysis indicates that the vertical wind vector gradient is positive from the top of the surface boundary layer to 15 km altitude and negative for the altitude region above 15 km. The magnitude of the vertical wind vector gradient has been suggested to be 6 m/s-km for space vehicle design (ref. 94).

2.1.2 Upper Atmosphere

The only measurements that pertain directly to conditions in the upper atmosphere of Mars are the electron density profiles obtained from Mariner 4, 6, 7, and 9 and the ultraviolet airglow data obtained from Mariner 6, 7, and 9 and the USSR Mars 2 and 3. Therefore, engineering models for the upper atmosphere must rely on a variety of theoretical studies and inferences derived from limited data. The range in the models, however, has been narrowed considerably by spacecraft results.

2.1.2.1 Ionosphere

There has long been speculation that Mars has an ionosphere with a structure similar to that of Earth. A scientific discussion of the upper atmosphere of Mars, however, has only been possible since the successful experiment of Mariner 4. More information has been provided by Mariner 6, 7, and 9 experiments.

The formation of the Martian ionosphere and interpretation of electron number density data acquired from Mariner experiments are based on Earth analogy. As with the terrestrial atmosphere, the photoionization process on Mars is expected to form an ionosphere. The height and extent of the Martian ionosphere are complex functions of the season, solar activity, and time of day. In the uppermost regions of the atmosphere, the number density of the molecules is too low to produce an appreciable electron density. At lower altitudes, electron density is limited by attenuation of the ultraviolet radiation in the atmosphere and large electron recombination rates from increased density.

It has been concluded (ref. 20) that the electron number densities in the Martian ionosphere should not be large enough to affect radio communication to and from a lander on the surface. For spacecraft atmospheric entry, electron densities are not considered significant even behind the bow shock wave that forms by compression of the solar wind's magnetic field against the ionosphere (ref. 95).

A. Electron Density Data

Figure 11 shows the distributions of electron number-density in the Martian ionosphere from Mariner 4, 6, 7 and 9 (refs. 25, 29, and 97). The maximum electron densities are much lower than expected at altitudes of 120 km from Mariner 4 measurements, 135 km from Mariner 6 and 7 measurements, and 135 km from Mariner 9 data. This indicates a lower atmospheric temperature than anticipated.

The measured maximum electron density was $10^5$ cm$^{-3}$ from Mariner 4 when the solar activity was low and the solar zenith angle was large ($67^\circ$). The Mariner 6 and 7 measure-
ments gave a maximum electron density of $1.7 \times 10^3$ cm$^{-3}$ when the solar activity was higher than in 1965. The Mariner 9 data shown are for revolution 12 at a solar zenith angle of approximately 55°. As the solar zenith angle decreased in subsequent revolutions, the electron maximum was observed to occur at lower altitudes and to be of greater density (ref. 29).

B. Major Constituents

The major ion in the Martian ionosphere is ionized molecular oxygen, O$_2^+$. This has been inferred from a combination of laboratory experiments and analysis of Mariner 6 and 7 data (ref. 97). O$_2^+$ is generated by the reaction of atomic oxygen ions, O$^+$ with carbon dioxide, CO$_2$. Figure 12 is a theoretical model of the Martian ionosphere that shows the relative densities of the principal constituents at different altitudes. For a concentration of one percent atomic oxygen, the ratio of O$_2^+$ to CO$_2^+$ is approximately 3 to 1 (ref. 98).
C. Models

A preliminary one dimensional model for the interaction of the Martian ionosphere with the solar wind was presented by Cloutier et al. (ref. 99). Their model predicted a major depression of the ionospheric scale height that was associated with the pressure of lost shock solar plasma which was assumed to stream subsonically into the Martian upper ionosphere. The validity of the one dimensional model was not supported, however, by subsequent spacecraft results. More recent theoretical models have attempted to remove the one dimensional limitation.

Cloutier and Daniell (ref. 100) considered a model in which the magnetized solar wind acted as a dynamo over the day side of the planet. In this model the distribution of currents entering the ionosphere through the plasmapause was considered carefully. The location of the plasmapause was fixed by a requirement that the total ionospheric current must be of sufficient magnitude to cancel the shock-compressed interplanetary magnetic field. This requirement led to an estimated height of 320 to 425 km for the plasmapause.

An alternate model for the outer ionosphere was discussed by Bauer and Hartle (ref. 101). They noted evidence from the USSR spacecraft Mars 2 and 3 (ref. 102) for a weak intrinsic
magnetic field on Mars that could be of sufficient strength to balance the dynamic pressure of the solar wind at a height of about 1000 km. The distribution of plasma inside the magnetosphere would be controlled in large measure by the convective electric field induced by the solar wind except below 300 km where chemical processes are more efficient than electrodynamically-induced mass motion. A schematic illustration of the plasma flow pattern is given in figure 13 from reference 101. Bauer and Hartle estimated a plasmapause height of about 300 km.

![Figure 13. — Solar Wind-Induced Convective Flow Pattern for Mars (ref. 101).](image)

From the foregoing models, therefore, one could conclude that because of interaction with the solar wind, the Martian ionosphere should terminate effectively between 300 and 450 km, the predicted range of altitudes for the plasmapause. One expects also that the solar wind should induce significant departures from photochemical equilibrium in the ionosphere at high latitudes and at large solar zenith angles; there are indications in the Mariner 9 data (refs. 78 and 103) that these departures may have been observed.

2.1.2.2 Neutral Atmosphere

Mariner 6, 7, and 9 carried ultraviolet spectrometers to measure radiations emitted by atomic hydrogen and atomic oxygen (refs. 98 and 104). The measured airglow spectrum is characteristic of an essentially pure CO₂ atmosphere. Almost all of the observed emissions were produced by the action of solar ultraviolet radiation on CO₂. Mars 2 and 3 also carried experiments to measure ultraviolet emissions of the atmosphere (ref. 105). The Mariner results showed the presence of carbon monoxide (CO), atomic carbon, atomic hydrogen, and atomic oxygen (ref. 98). The amount of atomic hydrogen at 135 km was calculated to be one part per million (ref. 106) and the amount of atomic oxygen at the same altitude is about one percent (ref. 107).
The density of atomic hydrogen at 200 km was calculated to be $3 \times 10^4$ atoms cm$^{-3}$ (ref. 106) on the basis of Mariner 6 and 7 data. The temperature at the top of the Martian thermosphere (fig. 1) was determined to be 350 K from Mariner 6 and 7 data (ref. 108), 325 K from Mariner 9 data (ref. 109), and about 250 K from Mariner 4 data. The higher temperatures are associated with the higher values of extreme ultraviolet (EUV) radiation that occur in high-activity periods of the solar cycle.

Photodissociation of CO$_2$, electron-impact dissociation of CO$_2^+$, and dissociative recombination of CO$_2^+$ all produce atomic oxygen in the Martian upper atmosphere (ref. 98). Theoretically, it could be expected that atomic oxygen would be a dominant species; however, analysis of ionospheric profiles suggests that oxygen abundances at the ionospheric peak are less than ten percent, which is consistent with the one percent result of reference 107. The observed concentrations of O indicate that mixing processes must be exceedingly efficient in the upper Martian atmosphere. It may be estimated that the turbopause is located at an altitude as high as 150 km.

The major uncertainties in neutral densities of the upper atmosphere relate to the location of the turbopause and the abundance of light constituents O, N$_2$, CO, and He at the turbopause. Calculated densities for several known constituents are shown in figure 14, which is based on Mariner 6 and 7 observations (ref. 98). The turbopause in these models was set at 100 km. The amount of CO and O$_2$ in the model was based on the results of ground-based observations, that is, less than 0.1 percent for CO (ref. 49) and slightly more than 0.1 percent for O$_2$ (ref. 110). The expected low abundance of N$_2$ is discussed in section 2.1.1.2.

Theoretical attempts have been made to calculate temperatures for the upper Martian atmosphere with observed values for the flux of solar ultraviolet radiation and reasonable estimates for the rates of key chemical reactions. The resulting theoretical models tend to give temperature values that are higher than values of temperatures derived from analyses of ionospheric profiles and airglow data. For example, one theoretical thermal model (ref. 111) yielded an exospheric temperature of 487 K on the basis of Mariner 4 (solar flux) data (July 1965) as compared to 300 K that was derived from electron scale height by Stewart and Hogan (ref. 112). The difference was attributed to difficulties in estimating EUV heating efficiency and flux (ref. 111). An exospheric temperature of 500 K for July 1969 that was inferred from the electron scale height determined from Mariner 6 and 7 data (ref. 96) can be explained by greater EUV in 1969 than in 1965. It appears that the discrepancies may be removed by inclusion of eddy transport in the theoretical models although definitive results have not yet been reported.

### 2.1.3 Clouds

Clouds have been observed from Earth and have been verified by Mariner 6, 7, and 9 experiments, especially by television pictures. The cloud features are usually referred to as yellow, white, blue, and an ill-defined “blue haze”.

The observed yellow clouds are generally considered to be associated with dust storms. Storms of local extent may become global, as observed by Mariner 9 in late 1971. The
global storm of 1971 extended from the surface to as high as 30 km. Particle size has been discussed in section 2.1.2.

Stationary clouds have been observed from the Earth and in Mariner 9 pictures over large calderas and other high topographical features (ref. 30). These white clouds begin to brighten in the early afternoon and continue to brighten until they disappear over the afternoon limb (ref. 113). These clouds have been correlated with features in the Tharsis, Olympus Mons, and Elysium regions. The timing of the clouds' appearance and their relationship to very high topography indicates that they may be formed by lifting of heated air from the surrounding lower terrain. These clouds may lie between 8 to 10 km above the surface and contain water ice (ref. 114). Water ice also has been detected in the spectrum of the north polar hood (ref. 115).

Another layer of white clouds has been identified in the polar region between about 5 and 30 km (ref. 116), which are generated in a wave configuration by flow over irregular topography. Topographic clouds persist north of 45 N during the northern late winter season. Two of the wave-cloud systems seen in Mariner 9 pictures near the periphery of the
north polar hood have been seen repeatedly from Earth and were detected by Mariner 6 and 7 (ref. 117). Mariner 6 and 7 measurements revealed reflection features near 4.3μ that are characteristic of solid CO₂ (ref. 118); however, from a combination of Mariner 9 imaging and IRIS data, it has been argued that most of the clouds observed between 45 and 60°N are composed mostly of water ice (ref. 116).

Brightness profiles and pictures from Mariner 9 indicate a cloud layer between 45 and 65 km. The layer is much bluer than the underlying dust (ref. 30). The clouds were observed near the 0.02 mb pressure level and had an estimated thickness of not more than 2 km. In the South polar region, it is suspected that water ice is the principal constituent and the clouds over the north polar hood appear to be composed of CO₂ ice, and possibly water ice.

A “blue haze” has been observed, but its location in the atmosphere and its properties are unknown. Surface details on Mars generally are clearly seen in any light of wavelengths greater than 4500 to 4550 Å, i.e., red or yellow light. The Martian “blue haze” is a diffuse, variable phenomenon that occasionally clears and allows surface features to be observed in blue light, sometimes described as “blue clearing”. The haze itself, which is probably a high-altitude layer, is not blue but extinguishes solar blue light reflected from the Martian surface although transparent to longer wavelengths of light. When the effects of observational selection are removed, some workers believe that there is some correlation of blue clearing with favorable oppositions. The evidence is not compelling, however, because blue clearings have been observed also at unfavorable oppositions or several months from opposition and on small topographical scales of Mars down to the limit of telescopic resolution.

Some authorities discount the hypothesis that the “blue haze” is produced by scattering of light by condensed particles. They suggest that the “blue haze” and its occasional clearing may result from selective absorption of light by solid particles in the atmosphere. Others have suggested that interaction of solar wind protons with the CO₂ of the atmosphere causes the “blue haze” by producing molecular ions (CO₂⁺ and CO⁺) that have strong absorption bands in the required energies. These hypotheses are all speculative, however.

2.1.4 Gravity Field

If Mars is considered as an oblate spheroid, its gravitational potential function can readily be developed in a spherical harmonic series. Truncation after the first two terms gives the gravitational potential function as (ref. 119):

\[
\phi(R, \theta) = \frac{GM}{R} \left[ 1 - J_2 \left( \frac{R_E}{R} \right)^2 P_2^0 \right]
\]

and the radial acceleration of gravity as

\[
g = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial R} = \frac{GM}{R^2} \left[ 1 - 3J_2 \left( \frac{R_E}{R} \right)^2 P_2^0 \right]
\]

in which

\[
P_2^0 = \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 \theta - \frac{1}{2}
\]
\[ \theta = \text{latitude} \]
\[ R_E = \text{equatorial radius} = 3394(\pm 2) \text{ km} \]
\[ R = \text{distance from center of Mars (km)} \]
\[ GM = 42828.5 (\pm 0.4) \text{ km}^3/\text{s}^2 \]
\[ J_2 = \text{0.001965 (\pm 0.000006)} \]

The constant \( J_2 \) is a measure of the flattening, \( f = 0.00524 \pm 0.00003 \). The foregoing values are incorporated from Mariner 9 results (ref. 120).

The centrifugal correction to the radial component of gravitational acceleration can be expressed as

\[ F_c = \omega^2 R \cos^2 \theta \]

where \( \omega \) is the Martian angular velocity, \( 0.7088218 \times 10^{-4} \text{ radians/s} \).

### 2.2 Atmospheric Models

#### 2.2.1 Calculation

The models presented in this monograph were generated by the computer program described in reference 121. The program was modified to include a molecular mass subroutine to handle the molecular mass variation with altitude, an extended temperature range for the calculation of the specific heat and the reduced collision integral which appears in the viscosity relationship, and thermochemical data that allow for the inclusion of atomic oxygen and atomic hydrogen as component gases.

The basic inputs to the computer program are the temperature profile, the surface pressure, the near-surface atmospheric composition and corresponding molecular mass, the planetary radius, the acceleration of gravity at the planet's surface, and the atmospheric density at the turbopause. The values for density, pressure, speed of sound, molecular mass, density scale height, number density, mean free path, viscosity, and pressure scale height as functions of altitude are calculated with the mathematical relationships given in reference 113; additional mathematical operations are required to determine the mean molecular mass values above the turbopause. All operations satisfy the hydrostatic equation and equation of state. Calculations account for the variation of gravitational acceleration with altitude throughout the atmosphere.

#### 2.2.2 Choice of Model Parameters

Models were computed for the Martian atmosphere to account for uncertainties in atmospheric parameters. Table 2 shows the input parameters for the engineering models of the Mars atmosphere that have been developed. The lower portion of the atmosphere was based on temperature profiles determined from spacecraft measurements. In the upper atmosphere, temperature profiles were obtained from reference 122 which was based on the
thermal model of reference 108. The upper atmosphere temperature profiles were con-
strained at the lower end by density values at the turbopause and by the temperature
profiles that were adopted for the lower atmosphere. The top of the upper atmosphere
temperature profiles were constrained by exospheric temperatures based on spacecraft data.
The temperature profiles used for the atmospheric models are shown in figure 15.

The adopted temperature profiles near their minima cross the solid-vapor phase boundary
for CO₂, beyond which CO₂ cannot exist as a gas. This discrepancy in the data has not been
resolved in the literature. The adopted profiles represent the data that is currently available.

2.2.2.1 Lower Atmosphere

Temperature profiles for the lower atmosphere have been established by spacecraft measure-
ments (section 2.1.1.3). The mean temperature profile for the clear atmosphere is representa-
tive of Martian mid-latitudes at the mean surface level. The low temperature profile for
the clear atmosphere is derived from polar region measurements given in reference 123. The
high temperature profile for the clear atmosphere is that of Mariner 9, revolution 174 shown
in figure 7. The temperature profile for the dusty atmosphere is taken from revolution 20 of
Mariner 9 shown in figure 7; it is representative of high temperatures encountered during a
global dust storm.

Uncertainties in atmospheric surface temperature and pressure are associated with topo-
graphic differences, latitude, longitude, time of day, and season. The selected profiles
encompass extremes measured by Mariner 9. Computations were initiated at 10 km below
the mean surface level to allow for topographic variation. The composition of the lower
atmosphere was chosen as 98.8 percent CO₂, 1 percent N₂, 0.07 percent CO, and 0.13
percent O₂ on the basis of abundances given in table 1.

2.2.2.2 Upper Atmosphere

The lower boundary for the theoretical upper atmosphere is the turbopause. The turbopause
is the altitude below which the atmospheric gases mix in constant proportions; above this
altitude each constituent gas is taken to be in diffusive equilibrium, with number density
decreasing with altitude at a rate that depends upon the molecular mass of the gas and the
ambient atmospheric temperature. The density value at the turbopause was estimated on the
basis of the composition taken for the lower atmosphere and an eddy diffusion coefficient
of $1 \times 10^8$ cm²/s. From the turbopause upward the atmospheric composition was modified
by the addition of atomic oxygen O and atomic hydrogen H. The abundance of H was
assumed to be the same for all models, whereas O was chosen as 1 percent to obtain a
reasonable minimum density, 3 percent for the mean density, and 10 percent for a reason-
able maximum density. The abundance of CO₂ was decreased according to the amount of O
and H added. The models of the upper atmosphere are superposed on the lower atmosphere
models at the turbopause.
### TABLE 2.
COMPUTER INPUTS FOR MODELS OF MARS ATMOSPHERE (1974)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>MODEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planetary Radius (km)</td>
<td>3394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Gravity (cm/s²)</td>
<td>371.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Pressure (mb)</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface Temperature (K)</td>
<td>207.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition (% by volume)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Turbopause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>98.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At Turbopause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₂</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molecular Mass (g/g-mole)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Turbopause</td>
<td>43.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At Turbopause</td>
<td>42.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density at Turbopause (g/cm³)</td>
<td>1.46x10⁻¹²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exospheric Temperature (K)</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The upper constraint on the upper atmosphere models is the exospheric temperature which is a function of both diurnal heating and solar cycle heating. A value of 250K is used for a night-side atmosphere with minimum solar activity; 500K is used for maximum solar activity and day-side exospheric temperatures; and 350K is representative of mean conditions. The temperature profiles for the upper atmosphere for the different exospheric temperatures are shown in figure 15.
Figure 15 – Temperature profile for models of Mars' atmosphere.
3. CRITERIA

The engineering models of the Mars atmosphere presented herein should be used for mission planning and design of space vehicles that are to orbit Mars, descend through the atmosphere, maneuver in the atmosphere, land on the planetary surface, or conduct scientific investigations during a planetary flyby mission. The models should be used for all facets of space vehicle design including:

- Structure
- Deceleration system
- Propulsion system
- Flight control system
- Guidance system
- Heat shield and thermal control system
- Communication systems
- Electronics
- Power supply
- Mechanical devices
- Scientific experiments (equipment and measurement ranges)

The models should be regarded as approximations that are based on the best available data and which encompass current uncertainties in the atmospheric parameters. The models are by necessity relatively general in nature; they are particularly useful for preliminary design and mission tradeoff studies. In later design stages, after specific missions, orbits, and landing sites are selected, the range of atmospheric parameters can be significantly reduced by specifying geographic location of landings, orbital parameters of satellites and subsatellites, season of the Martian year, Martian local time, and predicted level of solar activity for that time. If the foregoing information is known, it may be possible to select temperature profiles from Mariner 9 data that embody the effects of variation as to spatial coordinates, topography, season, time of day, and dust storms. The Mariner 9 temperature profiles from the Infrared Interferometer Spectroscopy (IRIS) spectra will be made available to the scientific community in 1975 through the National Space Science Data Center, NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (ref. 124).

3.1 Atmospheric Models

The engineering models of the Mars atmosphere are given in tables 3 through 6. Model I (table 3) should be considered as the nominal model. It is representative of clear atmospheric conditions at mid-latitudes in mid-spring or mid-autumn during periods of moderate solar activity. Models II through IV (tables 4 through 6) take into account possible extremes of molecular mass, solar activity, exospheric temperature and atmospheric clarity in appropriate combinations as shown in table 2. Model II (table 4) presents a cold temperature model with a low-density upper atmosphere. It is best applied in the polar regions, during winter, or for night-time analyses, all at periods of low solar activity. Model III (table 5) presents a high temperature model of the clear atmosphere with a high-density upper atmosphere. It is intended for application in equatorial regions, during summer, or for
afternoon analyses, during periods of high solar activity. Model IV (table 6) presents a temperature model of the atmosphere that can be considered as typical during global dust storms. Figures 4 and 5 give additional information on temperature variation with latitude, local time, and the presence of dust.

All models are based on a mean planetary radius of 3394 km which corresponds to 0 km altitude in the tables. However, to encompass possible extremes of local topography as well as variations in local radius, the tables have been extended downward to -10 km which corresponds to a planetary radius of 3084 km. Thus, if a model is applied to a low area such as the Hellas region, the tables would be entered at about -4 km or if a high region such as Olympus Mons is considered, the table is entered at about 28 km (fig. 2).

The four tables were terminated at altitudes where the density falls to $10^{-16}$ g/cm$^3$ because the hydrostatic equilibrium assumption upon which these models are based undoubtedly becomes invalid at greater altitudes.

### 3.2 Winds

Information on Martian winds was obtained from cloud observations, studies of dust storm characteristics, and models of atmospheric circulation and tidal pressure. The following near-surface wind speeds are recommended for space vehicle design purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wind Parameter</th>
<th>Surface Pressure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 mb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Speed (1 m above surface)</td>
<td>50 m/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak Speed</td>
<td>145 m/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vertical Wind Vector Gradient</td>
<td>6 m/s · km</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3 Ionosphere

Observations by Mariner 4, 6, 7, and 9 spacecraft indicate peak electron density in the Martian ionosphere to be of the order of $10^3$ cm$^{-3}$. This density should not be large enough to affect radio communication to and from a lander on the surface. For spacecraft atmospheric entry, electron densities should not be significant even behind the bow shock wave which forms through compression of the solar wind's magnetic field against the ionosphere. The electron density profiles given in figure 11 should be used in design configuration analyses.
3.4 Clouds

Distinct cloud layers, identified by color, have been verified by spacecraft television pictures. Cloud characteristics are summarized below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cloud Layer</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
<th>Altitude Above Mean Surface (km)</th>
<th>Composition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Local and global dust storms</td>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Surface dust; 10-300 μm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-Low</td>
<td>High topographical features; late afternoon</td>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>Water ice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-High</td>
<td>Wave clouds associated with irregular topography</td>
<td>5-30</td>
<td>Mostly water ice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>Principally in polar regions</td>
<td>45-65</td>
<td>Water ice (south polar region); CO₂ ice and possibly water ice (north polar hood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue Haze</td>
<td>Diffuse, variable phenomenon - usually visible; rapid changes in state - random from opacity to near transparency</td>
<td>Not uniform over entire atmosphere; probably high altitude</td>
<td>Not known; sources speculative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 3

1974 MARS ATMOSPHERE MODEL I (MEAN TEMPERATURE PROFILE).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Temperature (K)</th>
<th>Pressure (mb)</th>
<th>Density (kg/m³)</th>
<th>Speed of Sound (m/s)</th>
<th>Percent Molecular Weight</th>
<th>Mean Molecular Weight</th>
<th>Mean Molecular Weight (E-6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All values are given in scientific notation. The number of significant figures may vary depending on the context.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Temperature (K)</th>
<th>Pressure (mb)</th>
<th>Density (g cm⁻³)</th>
<th>Speed of Sound (m s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Molecular Weight</th>
<th>Density Scale Height (km)</th>
<th>Molecular Density (cm⁻³)</th>
<th>Number Density (cm⁻³)</th>
<th>Mean Free Path (m)</th>
<th>Variance Height (m² s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Pressure Scale Height (km)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>158.9</td>
<td>1.43 ± 0.02</td>
<td>4.12 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>158.7</td>
<td>1.43 ± 0.03</td>
<td>4.12 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-3</td>
<td>158.5</td>
<td>1.43 ± 0.04</td>
<td>4.12 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.83 ± 0.01</td>
<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
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<td>-4</td>
<td>158.3</td>
<td>1.43 ± 0.05</td>
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<td>2.08 ± 0.02</td>
<td>9.93 ± 0.01</td>
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*All values are given in Kelvin (K) for temperature, in millibars (mb) for pressure, and in centimeters per cubic meter (cm⁻³) for density. The speed of sound is given in meters per second (m s⁻¹), and the molecular weight is given in atomic mass units (amu). The density scale height is given in kilometers (km), the molecular density in cm⁻³, the number density in cm⁻³, the mean free path in meters (m), and the variance height in m² s⁻¹. The pressure scale height is given in km.*
TABLE 6.
1974 MARS ATMOSPHERE (MODEL III) (HIGH TEMPERATURE PROFILE).

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<tr>
<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>Pressure (mbar)</th>
<th>Density (kg/m³)</th>
<th>Speed of Sound (m/s)</th>
<th>Molecular Scale Height (km)</th>
<th>Mean Free Path (μm)</th>
<th>Pressure Scale Height (km)</th>
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### TABLE 8.  
1974 MARS ATMOSPHERE (MODEL IV)  
(TYPICAL DUSTY ATMOSPHERE TEMPERATURE PROFILE).

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<th>Altitude (km)</th>
<th>Temperature (K)</th>
<th>Pressure (mbar)</th>
<th>Density (g/cm³)</th>
<th>Sound Speed (m/s)</th>
<th>Molecular Weight</th>
<th>Density Scale Height (km)</th>
<th>Number Density (cm⁻³)</th>
<th>Mean Free Path (m)</th>
<th>Viscosity (kg/m s)</th>
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<td>0.64</td>
<td>2.0×10⁻⁵</td>
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<td>2.0×10⁻⁵</td>
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<td>2.0×10⁻⁵</td>
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</table>

* A one or two digit number preceded by 'E' and a plus or minus sign following an entry indicates the power of ten by which that entry should be multiplied.

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## ENVIRONMENT

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| SP-8002 | Flight-Loads Measurements During Launch and Exit, revised June 1972 |
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| SP-8006 | Local Steady Aerodynamic Loads During Launch and Exit, May 1965 |
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<td>SF-8098</td>
<td>Effects of Structural Flexibility on Entry Vehicle Control Systems,</td>
<td>June 1972</td>
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<td>SP-8102</td>
<td>Space Vehicle Accelerometer Applications, December 1972</td>
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<td><strong>CHEMICAL PROPULSION</strong></td>
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<td>Solid Rocket Motor Metal Cases, April 1970</td>
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<td>Solid Rocket Motor Performance Analysis and Prediction, May 1971</td>
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<td>Captive-Fired Testing of Solid Rocket Motors, March 1971</td>
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<td>SP-8048</td>
<td>Liquid Rocket Engine Turbopump Bearings, March 1971</td>
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<td>Solid Propellant Selection and Characterization, June 1971</td>
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<td>Solid Propellant Grain Structural Integrity Analysis, June 1973</td>
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<td>Solid Propellant Processing Factors in Rocket Motor Design, October</td>
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<td>SP-8076</td>
<td>Solid Propellant Grain Design and Internal Ballistics, March 1972</td>
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<td>Liquid Rocket Engine Fluid-Cooled Combustion Chambers, April</td>
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