

**SPECTROSCOPY OF MARS ATMOSPHERE FROM ORBITING AND GROUND-BASED OBSERVATORIES: RECENT RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EVOLUTION.** V. A. Krasnopolsky, Catholic University of America, Department of Physics, 200 Hannan Hall, Washington, D.C. 20064 (vkrasn@verizonmail.com).

**Introduction:** The basic data on the chemical composition of Mars' atmosphere were obtained by the Viking mass spectrometers a quarter of century ago. Spacecraft missions to Mars in the last decade have not been aimed to this field, and the current progress is related to high-resolution spectroscopy from orbiting and ground-based observatories.

**HDO:** Deuterated water was detected [1] using CFHT/FTS with resolving power  $\nu/\delta\nu = 9 \times 10^4$  (Fig. 1). Very low humidity (0.5 pr. mm) above Mauna Kea and a significant (by a factor of 6) enrichment of water in D on Mars facilitated the detection.

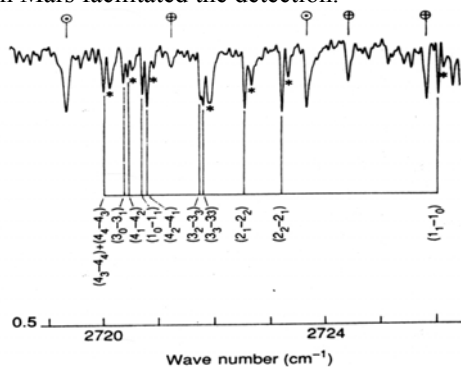


Fig. 1. HDO lines in the CFHT/FTS spectrum [1]. Telluric HDO (\*), CH<sub>4</sub> (+), and solar (○) lines are also seen.

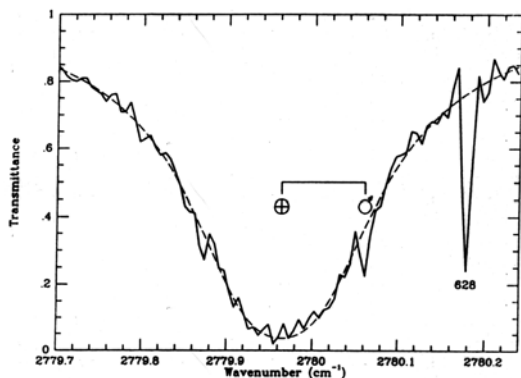


Fig. 2. One of ten HDO lines in the KPNO/FTS spectrum [2]. Telluric line is much stronger and broader than the Martian line. Dashed curve is a model fit to the telluric line, 628 is the CO<sup>18</sup>O line.

Ten HDO lines in the KPNO/FTS spectrum [2] were also used to measure the D/H ratio in water on Mars (Fig. 2). Despite the better spectral resolution ( $\nu/\delta\nu = 2.7 \times 10^5$ ), the HDO lines were less prominent

because of the much higher humidity (14 pr. mm) above Kitt Peak. Both observations agree and result in  $D/H = 5.5 \pm 1$  times the terrestrial value in the Martian water. The KAO observation of HDO [3] is still under revision.

**Atomic Deuterium:** The D Lyman- $\alpha$  line at 1215.34 Å is shifted from the H line by 0.33 Å and very much weaker than the H line. The Martian lines are Doppler-shifted by 0.06 Å maximum relative to the telluric lines. All four lines were detected and resolved (Fig. 3) in the HST/GHRS observation [4]. The instrument resolving power was  $1.6 \times 10^4$ . The observed D-line intensity of  $23 \pm 6$  R at solar minimum corresponds to  $[D] = 450 \pm 120 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  at 250 km.

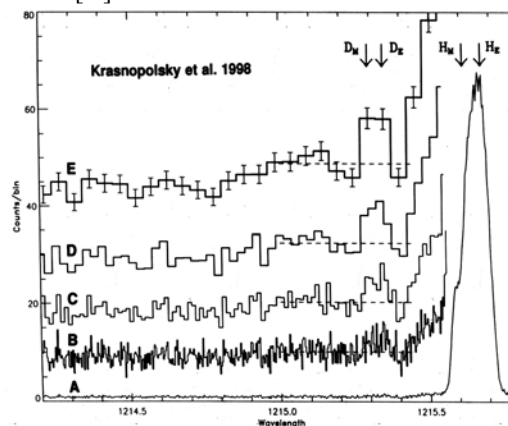


Fig. 3. Telluric and Martian (subscripts E and M, respectively) Lyman- $\alpha$  lines of H and D in the HST/GHRS spectrum [4] at five levels of binning.

**Molecular Hydrogen:** Vibrational and rotational transitions are strongly forbidden in H<sub>2</sub>. Despite the low dissociation energy of 4.48 eV, dissociation to the ground-state H atoms is parity-forbidden, and H<sub>2</sub> absorbs photons only below 1108 Å where the solar radiation is weak. Therefore, detection of H<sub>2</sub> presents a difficult problem. Fortunately, three absorption lines of H<sub>2</sub> coincide with the strong solar Lyman  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and C II lines and originate a few comparatively strong emission lines. These lines were observable (Fig. 4) in the FUSE spectrum of Mars [5]. The observation resulted in a column H<sub>2</sub> abundance of  $(1.71 \pm 0.13) \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  above 140 km. The FUSE spectrum of Mars [6] covered a range of 904 to 1186 Å with spectral resolution of 0.2 Å. The spectrum is of high quality and provides a detection limit of  $\approx 0.1$  R. Many Martian lines and

ion species  $N^+$ ,  $C^+$ , and  $Ar^+$  have been observed for the first time in that spectrum. For example, two  $Ar^+$  and eight H lines of the Lyman series are among other lines in Fig. 5.

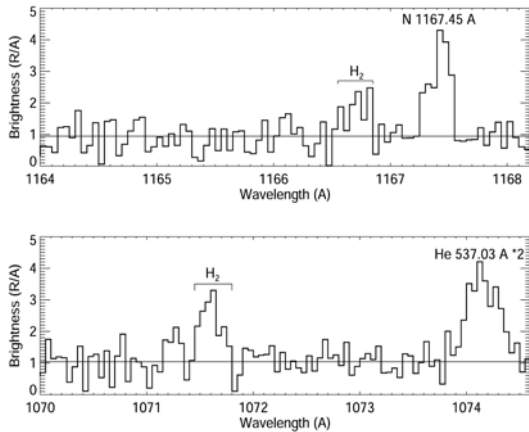


Fig. 4. Fragments of the FUSE spectrum [5] near the  $H_2$  lines at 1166.76 and 1071.62 Å.

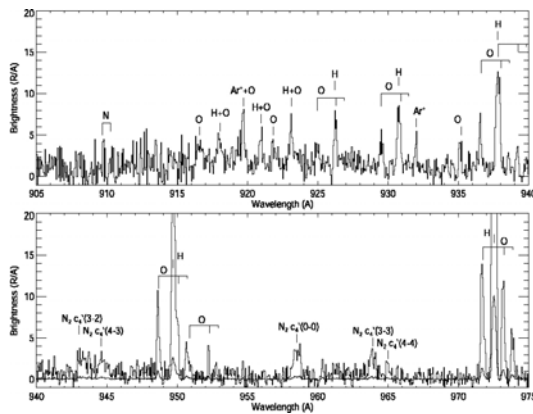


Fig. 5. A part of the FUSE spectrum [6].

### Interpretation of the Observed HDO, D, and $H_2$ :

Detailed photochemical modeling of Mars' upper atmosphere and ionosphere [7] to fit the observed D and  $H_2$  abundances results in the HD and  $H_2$  mixing ratios of  $11 \pm 4$  ppb and  $15 \pm 5$  ppm, respectively. Then

$$R = \frac{HD/H_2}{HDO/H_2O} = 0.4.$$

This agrees with the fractionation of D in chemical reactions ( $R \approx 1.6$  [8]), photolysis of  $H_2O$  ( $R \approx 0.4$  [9]), and the HDO depletion above the condensation level ( $R \approx 0.7$  [10, 11]). Finally,  $R = 1.6 \times 0.4 \times 0.7 \approx 0.4$ , and the controversial problem of deuterium fractionation in Mars' atmosphere looks solved. The observed HDO, D, and  $H_2$  require the escape fractionation factor

$$f = \frac{\phi_D / \phi_H}{D/H} = 0.105$$

averaged over the solar cycle.

**Implications for Evolution of Water:** Combining this fractionation factor with the water abundance in the polar caps (a global-mean layer of  $\approx 14$  m deep [12-14]) and the  $D/H = 1.9$  [15] at the end of the intense impact erosion of the atmosphere 3.8 Ga ago, this results in a loss of an ocean of water of 30 m deep for this period.

Hydrodynamic escape of  $H_2$  released in the reaction  $Fe + H_2O \rightarrow FeO + H_2$  could be effective for 0.1-0.3 Ga after Mars' formation. Using a fractionation factor of 0.8 for this escape [16] and a standard assumption of the terrestrial value for the initial  $D/H$  on Mars, the total loss of water by hydrodynamic escape was 1.2 km. Therefore Mars could initially be even more rich in water than Earth.

**Helium:** Helium was detected on Mars using the EUVE/LW spectrometer [17] that had a capability to detect the He 584 Å line against the strong geocoronal emission of this line. The observed line intensity of  $57 \pm 15$  R corresponds to the He mixing ratio of  $4 \pm 2$  ppm [18]. Helium is lost from Mars mostly by electron impact ionization above the ionopause and sweeping out of the ions by the solar wind. The total loss is equal to  $7 \times 10^{23} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and agrees with the Phobos measurements [19]. A source of He on the terrestrial planets is the radioactive decay in the uranium and thorium chains with subsequent outgassing. It is similar to the outgassing of  $^{40}Ar$  formed by the decay of potassium. A coupled model for the outgassing of He and  $^{40}Ar$  showed that (1) outgassing from Mars is weaker than that from Earth by an order of magnitude, (2) outgassing of He from Mars covers a third of its loss. An additional source of He is required, and that should be a capture of the solar-wind  $\alpha$ -particles with an efficiency of  $\approx 0.3$ . This is the first and probably the only case when a capture of the solar wind is critical to a

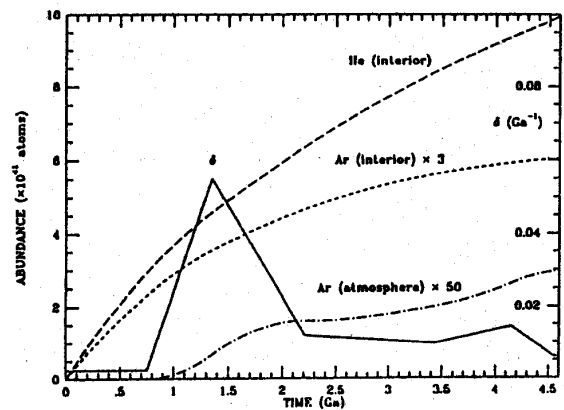


Fig. 6. Model [18] for evolution of  $^4He$  and  $^{40}Ar$  in Mars interior and atmosphere for outgassing coefficient  $\delta$  proportional to Mars volcanism rate from [20].

balance of atmospheric species. Later calculations of the solar wind capture efficiency by Mars [21] confirmed our conclusion and also gave the value of 0.3 for  $\alpha$ -particles.

**Ozone and O<sub>2</sub> 1.27  $\mu$ m Dayglow:** Ozone is a tracer of Mars photochemistry, and a latitudinal-versus-season mapping of O<sub>3</sub>, similar to that done for H<sub>2</sub>O by the Viking/MAWD [22] and MGS/TES [23], is the objective of ozone observations. Three tools are currently used. Infrared heterodyne spectroscopy at 9.6  $\mu$ m [24] gave the first data on the O<sub>3</sub> distribution at low and middle latitudes (Fig. 6). The instrument resolving power was 10<sup>6</sup> in the published observations. Another tool is the HST/FOS UV spectroscopy near Mars' limb [25, 26] (Fig. 7).

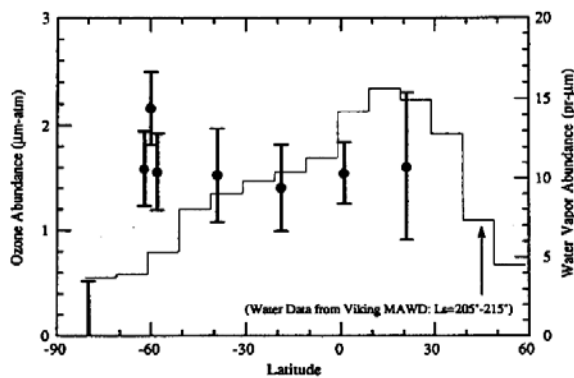


Fig. 6. Latitudinal distribution of ozone at  $L_S = 208^\circ$  [24].

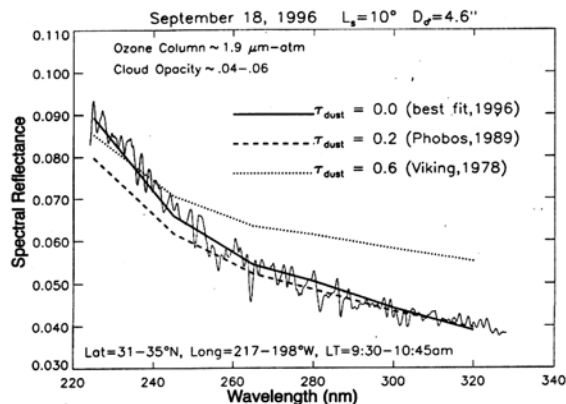


Fig. 7. Three-parameter fitting to the observed HST/FOS spectrum [26] near Mars' limb. The parameters are ozone column and cloud and dust opacities.

Ozone above 20 km is the most sensitive to seasonal variations of photochemistry at low and middle latitudes [27]. It was suggested in [28] to observe the O<sub>2</sub> 1.27  $\mu$ m dayglow using IRTF/CSHELL to map high-altitude ozone. This dayglow is excited by photolysis of O<sub>3</sub> and quenched by CO<sub>2</sub> below 15-20

km. Therefore it is the best tracer of Mars' photochemistry. The IRTF/CSHELL resolving power is  $4 \times 10^4$ , that is, 7.5 km/s, and the observations are feasible for the geocentric velocity  $\geq 10$  km/s. The dayglow spectrum observed at  $L_S = 112^\circ$  [29] is shown in Fig. 8. The retrieved dayglow intensities are corrected for airmass, surface reflectivity, and the instrument point spread function. (All these corrections are of a factor of  $\approx 1.5$  and cannot be ignored.) Latitudinal dependences of the dayglow intensity for three seasons [30] are shown in Fig. 9. The dayglow maps have a spatial resolution of 0.1-0.2 Mars radii. Analysis of the dayglow observation along one instrument slit was recently reported in [31].

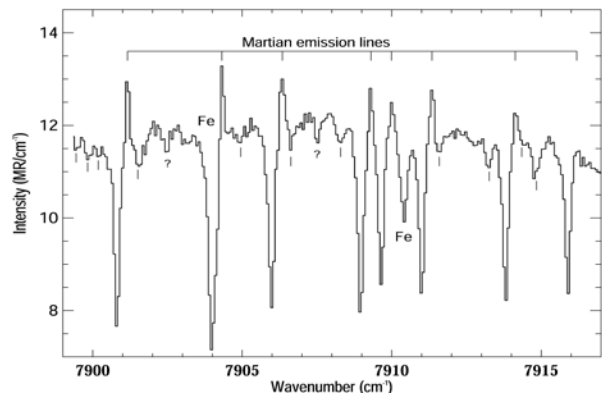


Fig. 8. One of 550 spectra of Mars observed with IRTF/CSHELL at  $L_S = 112^\circ$  [29]. The main features are the telluric absorption and Martian Doppler-shifted O<sub>2</sub> emission lines and two solar Fe lines.

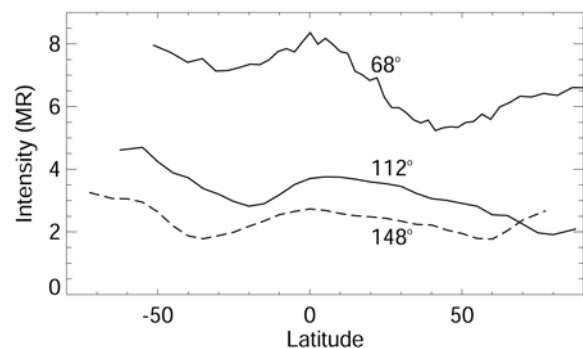


Fig. 9. Latitudinal dependences of the O<sub>2</sub> 1.27  $\mu$ m dayglow at three seasons [30].

**CO Mixing Ratio:** Low resolution spectroscopy from the Phobos orbiter [32] revealed a significant (by a factor of 5-8) decrease in the CO mixing ratio above the great Martian volcanoes. This decrease contradicts to gas-phase chemistry, which predicts a constant CO mixing ratio over Mars' globe and up to  $\approx 60$  km. Attempts to check this result by using ground-based observations were made in [33, 34] using the CO lines at

1.3 mm and 2.3  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. However, their fields of view were large, 1 and 0.5 Mars radii, respectively. No significant variations have been observed. A CO line shape at 1.3 mm [35] also favors a CO mixing ratio, which is constant with height.

The CO mixing ratio on Mars was mapped at  $L_S = 112^\circ$  [36] by observing both CO and CO<sub>2</sub> lines at 1.57  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 10) using IRTF/CSHELL. The measured CO mixing ratio does not vary from place to place, with local time and elevation (in the range of -6 to 3 km) while the variation with latitude is substantial (Fig. 11). It is explained by the intense condensation of CO<sub>2</sub> at the South (winter) polar cap and the low meridional circulation in the southern winter [37]. An alternative explanation is the photochemical accumulation of CO due to freezing out of H<sub>2</sub>O. However, it is compensated by the low insolation in winter polar regions (polar night) and much smaller than the observed effect. The increase in the CO mixing ratio to the South and its extent to low latitudes is determined by atmospheric dynamics and should be simulated by GCMs.

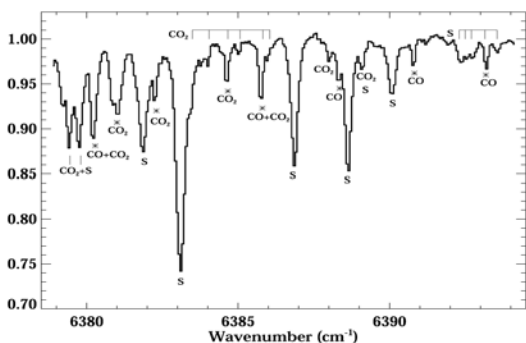


Fig. 10. One of 520 IRTF/CSHELL spectra at 1.57  $\mu\text{m}$  [36]. The spectrum consists of the CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, and solar (S) lines.

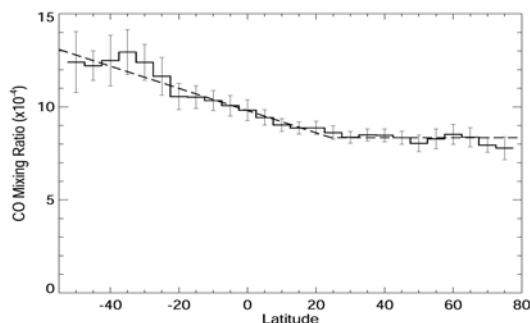


Fig. 11. Latitudinal dependence of the CO mixing ratio at  $L_S = 112^\circ$  [36].

**Upper Limits:** The most restrictive upper limit was obtained recently for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> using TEXES at 8  $\mu\text{m}$ . The instrument resolving power was  $7 \times 10^4$ , and the limit is 4 ppb [38], that is, below the model predictions

by an order of magnitude. Upper limits of 3 ppb to HCl and H<sub>2</sub>CO were extracted from the KPNO/FTS spectrum at 3.7  $\mu\text{m}$  [2]. The limit to HCl shows that chlorine chemistry is negligible on Mars.

Here I do not consider very fruitful and extensive MGS/TES observations of temperature profiles, H<sub>2</sub>O, dust and ice aerosol, and ground-based observations of water vapor, H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> ice, and dust, and microwave observations.

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**References:** [1] Owen T. et al. (1988) *Science* 240, 1767-1771. [2] Krasnopolsky V. A. et al. (1997) *JGR* 102, 6525-6534. [3] Bjoraker G. L. et al. (1989) *BAAS* 21, 991. [4] Krasnopolsky V. A. et al. (1998) *Science* 280, 1576-1580. [5] Krasnopolsky V. A. and Feldman P. D. (2001) *Science* 294, 1914-1917. [6] Krasnopolsky V. A. and Feldman P. D. (2002) *Icarus* 160, 86-94. [7] Krasnopolsky V. A. (2002) *JGR* 107, E12, 10.1029/2001JE001809. [8] Yung Y. L. et al. (1988) *Icarus* 76, 146-159. [9] Cheng B. M. et al. (1999) *GRL* 26, 3657-3660. [10] Fouchet T. and Lellouch E. (2000) *Icarus* 144, 114-123. [11] Krasnopolsky V. A. (2000) *Icarus* 148, 597-602. [12] Jakosky B. M. (1990) *JGR* 95, 1475-1480. [13] Smith D. E. et al. (1999) *Science* 284, 1495-1503. [14] Head J. W. (2001) *JGR* 106, 10075-10080. [15] Leshin L. A. (2000) *GRL* 27, 2017-2020. [16] Zahnle K. et al. (1990) *Icarus* 84, 502-527. [17] Krasnopolsky V. A. et al. (1994) *Icarus* 109, 337-351. [18] Krasnopolsky V. A. and Gladstone G. R. (1996) *JGR* 101, 15765-15772. [19] Barabash S. et al. (1995) *JGR* 100, 21307-213016. [20] Greeley R. (1987) *Science* 236, 1653-1654. [21] Brecht S. H. (1997) *JGR* 102, 11287-11294. [22] Jakosky B. M. and Farmer C. B. (1982) *JGR* 87, 2999-3019. [23] Smith M. D. (2002) *JGR* 107, E11, 10.1029/2001JE001522. [24] Espenak F. et al. (1991) *Icarus* 92, 252-262. [25] Clancy R. T. et al. (1996) *JGR* 101, 12777-12783. [26] Clancy R. T. et al. (1999) *Icarus* 138, 49-63. [27] Clancy R. T. and Nair H. (1996) *JGR* 101, 12785-12790. [28] Krasnopolsky V. A. (1997) *JGR* 102, 13313-13320. [29] Krasnopolsky V. A. and Bjoraker G. L. (2000) *JGR* 105, 20179-20188. [30] Krasnopolsky V. A. (2003) *Icarus* (submitted). [31] Novak R. et al. (2002) *Icarus* 158, 14-23. [32] Rosenqvist J. et al. (1992) *Icarus* 98, 254-270. [33] Lellouch E. et al. (1991) *PSS* 39, 219-224. [34] Billebaud F. et al. (1998) *AA* 333, 1092-1099. [35] Encrenaz T. et al. (1991) *Ann. Geo.* 9, 797-803. [36] Krasnopolsky V. A. (2003) *JGR* 108, E2, 10.1029/2002JE001926. [37] Haberle R. M. et al. (1993) *JGR* 98, 3093-3123. [38] Encrenaz T. et al. (2002) *AA* 396, 1037-1044.