

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

**The Mars Ultraviolet Dayglow Variability:
SPICAM Observations and Comparison with airglow model**

C. Cox⁽¹⁾, J.-C. Gérard⁽¹⁾, B. Hubert⁽¹⁾, J.-L. Bertaux⁽²⁾, S.W. Bougher⁽³⁾

(1) Laboratoire de Physique Atmosphérique et Planétaire, Université de Liège, Liège,
Belgium

(2) LATMOS, Verrières-le-Buisson, France

and

Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, Université de Versailles-Saint-Quentin, France

(3) Department of Atmospheric, Oceanic and Space Sciences, University of Michigan,
Ann Arbor, USA

To be submitted for publication to Journal of Geophysical Research

September 2009

Abstract

26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

Dayglow ultraviolet emissions of the CO Cameron bands and the CO₂⁺ doublet in the Martian atmosphere have been observed with the SPICAM spectrometer on board the Mars Express spacecraft. A large amount of limb profiles has been obtained which makes it possible to analyze variability of the brightness as well as of the altitude of the emission peak. Focusing on one specific season (Ls=[90,180]°), we find that the average CO peak brightness is equal to 118 ± 33 kR, with an average peak altitude of 121.1 ± 6.5 km. Similarly the CO₂⁺ emission shows a mean brightness of 21.6 ± 7.2 kR with a peak located at 119.1 ± 7.0 km. We show that the brightness intensity of the airglows is mainly controlled by the solar zenith angle and by solar activity. Moreover, during Martian summer of year 2005, an increase of the airglow peak altitude has been observed between Ls = 120° and 180°. We demonstrate that this variation is due to a change in the thermospheric local CO₂ density, in agreements with observations performed by stellar occultation. Using a Monte-Carlo one-dimensional model, we also show that the main features of the emission profiles can be reproduced for the considered set of data. However, we find it necessary to scale the calculated intensities by a fixed factor.

43 **1. Introduction**

44

45 Cameron CO and CO₂⁺ doublet emissions are well known features of the Mars dayside
46 airglow. They were first observed by *Barth et al.* [1971] during the Mariner 6 mission and
47 have been studied so far with different instruments, on board various spacecraft. A list of
48 previous observations is given in Table 1. The CO Cameron bands range from 170 nm to 270
49 nm and correspond to transitions of CO molecules excited in the (a³Π) state to the ground
50 state. Processes believed to contribute to the production of CO (a³Π) molecules are listed in
51 Table 2. The CO₂⁺ doublet emission is observed at 298 nm and 299 nm and corresponds to the
52 CO₂⁺ (B²Σ → X²Σ) transition. It is produced by mechanisms presented in Table 3 with their
53 corresponding references. The molecules in the excited state deexcite to the ground state
54 while emitting photons in the ultraviolet wavelength domain. From the processes listed in
55 Table 2 and 3 and results of earlier studies, it follows that these emissions are mainly
56 controlled by the CO₂ density and by photoelectrons as well as solar photon flux impacting
57 the upper atmosphere of Mars. Once the emissions processes are identified, the study of these
58 emissions can provide useful information about the Martian major constituent, namely CO₂.
59 This can be quantified using models that calculates the various sources of excitation,
60 depending on several input quantities such as solar zenith angle, solar longitude, latitude and
61 solar activity.

62

63 Observations used in this study have been performed with the Spectroscopy for Investigation
64 of Characteristics of the Atmosphere of Mars (SPICAM) instrument, on board the Mars
65 Express (MEX) spacecraft. SPICAM is composed of an ultraviolet and an infrared
66 spectrometer. Its ultraviolet domain ranges from 118 nm to 320 nm which includes many
67 spectral features of the Mars dayglow such as the CO (a³Π – X¹Σ⁺) Cameron bands [*Barth et*

68 *al.*, 1971, 1972; *Stewart et al.*, 1972; *Fox and Dalgarno*, 1979; *Conway*, 1981; *Leblanc et al.*,
69 2006], the CO₂⁺ (B²Σ⁺ - X²Π) doublet [*Barth et al.*, 1971, 1972; *Stewart et al.*, 1972; *Fox and*
70 *Dalgarno*, 1979; *Witasse*, 2000; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006], the OII 130.6 nm triplet [*Barth et al.*,
71 1971; *Strickland et al.*, 1973; *Feldman et al.*, 2000; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006], the OI 135.6 nm
72 doublet [*Barth et al.*, 1971; *Strickland et al.*, 1972; *Fox and Dalgarno*, 1979; *Feldman et al.*,
73 2000; *Witasse*, 2000; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006] and OI 297.2 nm [*Barth et al.*, 1971, 1972; *Fox*
74 *and Dalgarno*, 1979; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006], the CO (A¹Π - X¹Σ⁺) fourth positive bands [*Barth*
75 *et al.*, 1971; *Gutcheke and Zipf*, 1973; *Fox and Dalgarno*, 1979, 1981; *Feldman et al.*, 2000;
76 *Leblanc et al.*, 2006], the 156.1 nm and 165.7 nm emissions of CI [*Barth et al.*, 1971, 1972;
77 *Fox and Dalgarno*, 1979; *Feldman et al.*, 2000; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006], the HI 121.6 nm
78 Lyman-α emission [*Anderson and Hord*, 1971; *Barth et al.*, 1971, 1972; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006],
79 the NI 120.0 nm emission [*Feldman et al.*, 2000; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006] and the CO⁺ (B²Σ⁺ -
80 X²Σ⁺) emission [*Stewart et al.*, 1972; *Conway*, 1981; *Leblanc et al.*, 2006].

81

82 Some of these emissions can hardly be quantitatively analyzed using SPICAM observations
83 because their signal to noise ratio is too low. However, the CO Cameron and the CO₂⁺ doublet
84 emissions may be investigated in detail and compared with model calculations.

85 **2. Observations**

86

87 SPICAM dayglow observations extend over several Martian seasons and a wide range of
88 solar zenith angles. The spacecraft follows a nearly polar eccentric orbit of 6.72h period with
89 pericenter and apocenter located at 298 km and 10,107 km respectively. The orbital plane
90 precesses and leads to different pointing configurations. Dayglow observations are performed
91 in the tangential “grazing” limb mode where the line of sight crosses the atmosphere twice
92 [Bertaux *et al.*, 2006]. This mode allows to maximize the time of observation of the
93 atmosphere, which is typically 20 minutes and is appropriate to avoid solar reflection on the
94 limb haze. Each second, five spectra are recorded by the instrument, corresponding to five
95 adjacent parts of the CCD called “spatial bins”. The integration period is of 640 msec and the
96 remaining time is used to average the spectra of each part of the CCD and to read out the
97 signal. The position and size of each read part of the CCD are fixed by preselected parameters
98 called “bin” and “first read line”. The bin parameter determines the number of spectra
99 averaged in each part of the CCD and the first read line controls the beginning of the overall
100 read portion. Depending on these two parameters, the signal is either diffracted through a
101 small (50 μm) or a large (500 μm) slit, providing spectral resolutions of 1.5 nm and 6 nm
102 respectively. Five different but close altitudes, latitudes, local times and thus, solar zenith
103 angles, are observed at the tangent point along the line of sight, corresponding to each spatial
104 bin. The combination of the bin parameter (ranging from 2 to 32), the pixel field of view of
105 0.7 arcmin and the distance from the spacecraft to the tangent point leads to a vertical spatial
106 resolution of a few kilometers or less.

107

108 Since the beginning of the mission, hundreds of dayglow observations have been performed.

109 However, a part of these data is not usable for quantitative analysis. This limitation is caused

110 by several factors. First, the line of sight sometimes crosses the limb at altitudes where solar
111 photons are reflected by the haze, leading to the CCD saturation; second, from Medium Term
112 Plan (MTP) #23 (13 February 2006), onward, an anomalous high frequency signal randomly
113 appears, finally, stray light sometimes appears as a broad peak centered at 250 nm [*Bertaux et*
114 *al.*, 2006, Figure 17] and is due to solar light scattering inside the instrument. After all the
115 database had been sorted, we have selected a total of 46 orbits presenting suitable dayglow
116 observations. Selected observations are then processed by removing the dark current
117 component, and subtracting offset and background signal. These steps are performed using
118 technological observations obtained with a null signal amplification and using exactly the
119 same observation parameters (bin, first read line, integration time). The absolute calibration is
120 then performed using well-known hot star spectra, following the formula presented in *Cox et*
121 *al.* [2008].

122

123 For this analysis, we have chosen to use only data collected with the small slit to get sufficient
124 spectral resolution and because the large slit sometimes presents saturated signals or excessive
125 stray light. The spatial bins are then summed to form one single observation per orbit,
126 therefore presenting two limb profiles (one for egress, one for ingress) as was illustrated by
127 *Gérard et al.*, [2008, figure 1] in the case of SPICAV observations for Venus Express. We
128 have then integrated each spectrum over their respective wavelength domain. As was
129 discussed by *Simon et al.* [2009], the spectral interval of the Cameron bands also contains
130 weaker CO fourth positive bands ($A^1\Pi-X^1\Sigma^+$). Direct integration over the range of Cameron
131 band emission range leads to observed intensities overestimated by $\approx 15\%$. Therefore, our
132 calculated intensities for the Cameron bands are obtained by correcting the integrated
133 intensity in this domain for this additional contribution. As it is illustrated in Figure 1, in order
134 to limit the effect of seasonal variations, we also restricted our study to the analysis of one

135 specific season determined by solar longitudes ranging from 90° to 180° and included in Mars
136 year #27 dust season (see *McDunn et al.* [2009, Figure 2] for more details). Therefore, this
137 reduces our dataset to 33 orbits instead of the 46 initial ones. To obtain smooth limb profiles,
138 we have applied a spatial low-pass filter to remove the statistical noise from the observations
139 and to better determine the peak altitudes and brightness intensities. A typical limb profile
140 extracted from orbit 1267 (12 January 2005) is shown in Figure 2 where we also plotted the
141 raw profile in 5 km altitude bins. It shows both the CO Cameron and the CO_2^+ profiles, which
142 present peak intensities of 115.2 kR and 19.7 kR at altitudes of 125.5 km and 124.5 km
143 respectively. Adopting the same methodology for the selected orbits, we constructed
144 histogram distributions of peak altitudes and brightness for both CO Cameron and CO_2^+
145 doublet emissions. These plots are presented in Figure 3 (a,c,e,g). The comparison with
146 modelled profiles will be discussed later. The characteristics of the distributions are given in
147 Table 4 where one notes that the average peak altitudes of CO_2^+ and CO Cameron are very
148 close, with the Cameron emission peak statistically located 2.0 km above the CO_2^+ doublet
149 airglow. The brightness of the CO Cameron emission is about five times higher than the CO_2^+
150 emission. We also note that the distributions are widespread over a large range of values, with
151 standard deviations as large as 28 % for CO Cameron peak brightness. This variability
152 reflects the way into which different physical processes come into play to control the
153 emissions intensities and their peak altitudes. In order to find the different contributions of
154 each of them, we now present a series of figures explaining the details of the different
155 mechanisms that can modify the brightness of emissions as well as their peak altitudes.

156

157 We first examine in Figure 4 how the CO Cameron bands and CO_2^+ doublet emissions are
158 linked together. We first focus on Figures 4a and 4b, presenting respectively the brightness of
159 CO versus CO_2^+ and the altitude of the CO versus the CO_2^+ emission. It is apparent that the

160 CO and CO₂⁺ brightness are highly correlated, with a linear correlation coefficient r of 0.98
161 and a mean ratio of 4.7 between the two intensities. This result is not unexpected since the CO
162 (a³Π) and CO₂⁺ (B²Σ⁺) states are both mainly produced by processes involving CO₂ as the
163 target molecule [Barth *et al.*, 1971]. Although they are not identical, we also notice that the
164 peak altitudes co-vary. Using MARINER 9 data, Stewart *et al.* [1972] found that the ratio
165 between brightness intensities of these emissions was equal to 4.2, which is quite close to the
166 value deduced from the SPICAM observations. Therefore, as these two emissions behave
167 similarly, we will now mainly concentrate on plots for the CO Cameron emission.

168

169 The behavior of the CO Cameron intensities was discussed in Leblanc *et al.* [2006]. They
170 presented the variation of the peak intensity versus the solar zenith angle at the tangent point
171 of the line of sight. As these intensities have now been corrected from the CO 4P bands
172 emission, they are shown again in Figure 5a. We find again a quasi-linear dependence, as the
173 solar flux penetrates less deep into the atmosphere at large zenith angles. This behavior is
174 expected for a Chapman layer [Hantsch and Bauer, 1990] with the expression

$$175 \quad I \propto \sqrt{\cos(SZA)} \quad (1)$$

176 which describes a clear dependence within the solar zenith angle.

177

178 Another aspect of the intensity variations can be described by the F10.7 solar flux index
179 dependence. Since the index is measured from Earth, we first adapted the values to account
180 for the angle formed by Earth, Sun and Mars. Figure 6 shows the observed peak intensity
181 versus the F10.7 index corrected for the seasonal variation of the Sun-Mars distance. The data
182 set is split into three sets of solar zenith angle ranging from 0° to 35° (red curve), 35° to 55°
183 (green curve) and 55° to 90° (blue curve). The plots show only a weak relationship between
184 peak intensities and solar activity. We also note that the trend is globally the same for

185 different ranges of solar zenith angles. If we further examine the relationship between the
 186 brightness intensities and the F10.7 index for low solar zenith angles, the following linear
 187 expression is obtained:

$$188 \quad I_{limb} = 0.82 F10.7 + 74.9 \quad (2)$$

189 where I_{limb} is the peak brightness intensity recorded in limb mode and expressed in
 190 kilorayleighs (kR). During the Mariner 9 mission, *Stewart et al.* [1972] derived a similar
 191 formula for the subsolar point in the Martian atmosphere:

$$192 \quad I_{zen} = 0.0620 F10.7 + 4.588 \quad (3)$$

193 where I_{zen} is the zenith brightness intensity expressed in kR. If we assume that the local
 194 emission rate of CO Cameron can be approximately modelled by a Chapman function:

$$195 \quad I(z) = I_m \exp\left(1 - \frac{z - z_m}{H} - \exp\left(-\frac{z - z_m}{H}\right)\right) \quad (4)$$

196 where I_m , z_m and H are respectively the peak emission rate, the peak altitude and the topside
 197 scale height of the CO Cameron emission, and $I(z)$ is the emission rate at the z altitude, the
 198 relations between I_{zen} , I_{limb} , and I_m may be written:

$$199 \quad I_{zen} = \int_0^{\infty} I(z) dz = H I_m e (1 - \exp(-\exp(z_m / H))) \approx H I_m e \quad (5)$$

200 and

$$201 \quad I_{limb} = \begin{cases} 23.2 I_{zen} & \text{for } H = 14.0 \text{ km (SPICAM observations)} \\ 20.5 I_{zen} & \text{for } H = 17.8 \text{ km (MARINER 9 observations)} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

202 The relations (6) have been deduced numerically by integrating (4) along a line of sight. They
 203 do not depend on z_m if it is kept in a reasonable range ($z_{average} \pm 30$ km). Using (6), we can
 204 thus reformulate expression (2) as

$$205 \quad I_{zen} = 0.034 F10.7 + 3.125 \quad (7)$$

206 which is within a factor of 2 of the relation found with MARINER 9. We note that the season
 207 during which the observations were made with SPICAM and MARINER 9 are different.

208 MARINER 9 observed the airglow near $L_s = 312^\circ$ whereas SPICAM collected observations
 209 for L_s ranging from 90° to 180° (for our selected dataset) with a mean L_s of 134.6° . This
 210 difference of solar longitudes (for a given F10.7 index) generates a variation of solar flux due
 211 to the changing sun-Mars distance given by

$$212 \quad \alpha = \left(\frac{1 + e \cos(L_{S_{SPI}} - 90)}{1 + e \cos(L_{S_{MAR}} - 90)} \right)^2 \quad (8)$$

213 $L_{S_{SPI}}$ and $L_{S_{MAR}}$ are respectively the mean solar longitudes where SPICAM and MARINER 9
 214 observations have been performed; α is the ratio of the derived solar flux incident to the
 215 Martian atmosphere and e is the orbit eccentricity of Mars. Using values of $L_{S_{SPI}} = 134.6^\circ$ and
 216 $L_{S_{MAR}} = 312^\circ$, we find $\alpha = 1.31$, and we derive the formula for I_{zen} adapted to the Mariner 9
 217 conditions:

$$218 \quad I_{zen} = 0.044 F_{10.7} + 4.093 \quad (9)$$

219 Comparing with expression (3), we deduce that these intensities are within a mean factor of
 220 1.27 of those derived by *Stewart et al.* [1972]. This result largely reduces the discrepancies
 221 pointed out by *Leblanc et al.* [2006].

222

223 We now focus on the peak altitudes of the two emissions. Figure 7a shows the peak altitude as
 224 a function of the season (represented by the solar longitude L_s). A very clear trend is
 225 apparent, showing higher peak altitudes as solar longitude increases. The change in peak
 226 altitudes of the CO Cameron profiles clearly reflects a change in the CO_2 density at the
 227 altitude where emissions appear. The mean local times corresponding to the L_s values in the
 228 ranges 90° - 135° and 135° - 180° are quite close with 1506 LT for the first range and 1411LT
 229 for the second one, whereas mean latitudes are 3.9° and 50.9° respectively. As it was
 230 discussed in *Hantsch and Bauer* [1990], a dependence of the peak altitudes with the solar
 231 zenith angle is expected. Therefore, we need to discriminate between a latitudinal or a season

232 effect for this increase of the peak altitude. A recent work of *Forget et al.* [2008]
233 demonstrated that the CO₂ density at 130 km is directly dependent on the amount of dust
234 contained into the Mars atmosphere. The CO₂ density was increased by a large factor from Ls
235 = 90° to Ls = 180°, for all domains of latitudes or local times. We have also investigated a
236 possible effect of solar zenith angle on the peak altitude and we found that for a restricted
237 range of solar zenith angles from 45° to 60°, the increase of the peak altitude as a function of
238 the solar longitude was still reproduced. These points are shown in red in Figure 7a. With the
239 help of the model described further in the text, we found that the calculated increase of peak
240 altitude for a fixed neutral atmospheric model is only 3.5 km when the solar zenith angle
241 varies from 45° to 60°. This clearly argues that the main factor controlling the altitude of the
242 emission layer is the CO₂ density profile that may exhibit major changes within the season
243 considered. Therefore, Figure 7a mostly reflects the variation in local CO₂ density and
244 demonstrates that the CO Cameron (or CO₂⁺ doublet) airglow can be a very good indicator of
245 density changes in its region of emission.

246 **3. Comparison with model calculations**

247

248 The airglow model used for comparison with the observations was described by *Shematovich*
 249 *et al.* [2008] and simulates airglow emissions on Mars and Venus [*Gérard et al.*, 2008]. The
 250 photoelectron energy spectrum is based on an approach using the Direct Simulation Monte
 251 Carlo method where energy degradation directly integrates physical processes. In the Martian
 252 atmosphere, photoelectrons are mainly produced by photoionization of CO₂, N₂, CO and O.
 253 They lose their energy by collisions with the ambient gas. In ionization collisions, newly
 254 energetic electrons are created and can play a similar role. Their pitch angle and energy are
 255 calculated using an integral form of the formula of *Green and Sawada* [1972], and
 256 appropriate cross sections for the different impacted species. Following elastic collisions, new
 257 pitch angles are directly assigned to photoelectrons using expressions described in *Porter and*
 258 *Jump* [1978] and *Porter et al.* [1987] for angular scattering of electrons. Finally, inelastic
 259 collisions are treated using forward scattering approximation. The kinetics and transport of
 260 such electrons are described by the kinetic Boltzmann equation, explaining their loss in excess
 261 kinetic energy in collision with the ambient gas:

262

263
$$\vec{v} \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{r}} f_e + \vec{s} \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{v}} f_e = Q_{e,photo}(\vec{v}) + Q_{e,secondary}(\vec{v}) + \sum_{M=O,CO,N_2,CO_2} J(f_e, f_M)$$

264

265 where $f_e(\vec{r}, \vec{v})$ and $f_M(\vec{r}, \vec{v})$ are the velocity distribution functions respectively for electrons
 266 and for species of the ambient gas. The left member of this equation accounts for the transport
 267 of electrons inside the Martian gravitational field s . $Q_{e,photo}$ and $Q_{e,secondary}$ are respectively the
 268 production rate of primary and of secondary electrons. J is the elastic and inelastic scattering
 269 term for electron collisions with atmospheric species. Details about the method can be found

270 in the earlier work by *Shematovich et al.* [1994, 2008], *Bisikalo et al.* [1995], and *Gérard et*
271 *al.* [2000]. In order to avoid boundary effects, the limits of the model have been fixed to
272 altitudes of 75 km and 250 km.

273

274 Input parameters of the model are the local solar zenith angle, the neutral density profiles
275 determined by latitude, local time and season (described by the solar longitude parameter) and
276 the detailed solar flux. The neutral densities are extracted from the Mars Thermospheric
277 General Circulation Model (MTGCM) of *Bougher et al.* [2006, 2009]. More precisely, neutral
278 species profiles are chosen from a set of 48 MTGCM outputs in such a way that the
279 corresponding parameters are as close as possible to the parameters of the observations. The
280 input fluxes are obtained using SOLAR2000 v2.27 empirical model which provides, for a
281 given date, solar intensities in a wavelength domain ranging from 1.86 nm to 105 nm
282 [*Tobiska, 2004*].

283

284 Figure 8 illustrates the different processes calculated by the model as a function of altitude for
285 the simulation of observation retrieved from orbit 1267. Figures 8a and 8b show the processes
286 producing respectively the CO Cameron emission and the CO₂⁺ doublet. For the CO Cameron
287 emission, we note that the process #2 (electron impact dissociation of CO₂) dominates the
288 other sources by more than a factor 2 whereas it is the process #5 (photo-ionization of CO₂)
289 that is mainly involved in the CO₂⁺ doublet emission. This result was already reported by
290 *Leblanc et al.* [2006] and *Simon et al.* [2009] who discussed the different processes leading to
291 airglow emission. The emission rates caused by each process in the other observations have
292 been analyzed and tend to show the same relative importance as in Figures 8a and 8b.

293

294 In order to investigate the observed variability, we simulated each observed profile of CO
295 Cameron and CO₂⁺ doublet with the model. Therefore, the code was run for the conditions
296 corresponding to each of the 33 individual limb profiles. The volume emission rates of the CO
297 Cameron and CO₂⁺ bands were calculated and integrated along the line of sight to simulate
298 the observed limb profiles. The altitude of the airglow maximum and the corresponding peak
299 value was then obtained for comparison with the observations.

300

301 In Figure 9, we have plotted the intensity of CO and CO₂⁺ peak brightness obtained from the
302 observations versus the CO and CO₂⁺ modelled ones. It is apparent that our model
303 overestimates the CO Cameron intensity on the average by about 74 % and the CO₂⁺ doublet
304 by 41 %. These differences can be a consequence of different factors, i) a general bias in the
305 SOLAR2000 intensities used as inputs to our model, ii) a problem of relative calibration or
306 noise subtraction, iii) uncertainties in the cross sections in the airglow code. The first source
307 can be excluded since a bias factor has never been reported for SOLAR2000 in the past. In the
308 same way, a calibration or a noise subtraction error can also be eliminated as we know the
309 magnitude of such errors: the uncertainty on the relative calibration [Leblanc *et al.*, 2006] is
310 15% and errors presented in Figure 2 (taking noise subtraction into account) are smaller than
311 the differences between data and model. As it has been shown previously, such a difference
312 cannot be produced by an inadequate CO₂ profile as it principally acts on the altitude of the
313 emission peak and not on the airglow maximum intensities. The electron impact cross section
314 for the excitation of the Cameron system proposed by Itikawa [2002] has been determined
315 within a factor of 2 [Avakayan *et al.*, 1998]. In addition, the photoionization cross section of
316 CO₂ is known within 25% [Avakayan *et al.*, 1998]. These uncertainties can be a source of
317 discrepancy between the SPICAM data and our airglow modeling. In a similar way, Simon *et*
318 *al.* [2008], had to reduce their calculated intensities to match the observed brightness. They

319 also attributed this difference to the cross section uncertainties. In order to compare more
320 easily the observations with the model results, and emphasize the observed variability rather
321 than the absolute intensities, we have empirically divided all modelled intensities in figures
322 4c, 4d, 5b, 6b and 7b by the corresponding correction factors.

323

324 The model results are presented together with the observations in Figures 2 to 7. In Figure 2,
325 the observed peak altitude values are very well reproduced. The discrepancy in the brightness
326 between the modelled limb profiles (represented in blue) intensity and the data is however
327 apparent. This difference can also be noticed in the distribution function presented in Figure
328 3b and 3d. Concerning the variability of the peak brightness, both distribution histograms of
329 CO Cameron and CO₂⁺ doublet are fairly well reproduced by the airglow model coupled with
330 MTGCM neutral density outputs. Nonetheless, the modelled peak altitude distributions differ
331 from the data distributions. This difference will be analyzed further below. In figure 4c, it is
332 seen that the linear proportionality between the CO₂⁺ doublet and the CO Cameron emissions
333 brightness is well reproduced. Similarly, in Figure 4d, the altitude difference between the two
334 airglow layers is also simulated. This suggests the different processes coming into play in the
335 airglow formation and calculated by the model are well estimated. In Figure 5b, we note that
336 the variation of the peak intensities with respect to solar zenith angle is also fairly well
337 reproduced. The model is thus able to efficiently simulate the variations with solar zenith
338 angle and the drop of intensity observed in regions further away from the subsolar point.
339 Figure 6b illustrates the simulated dependence on solar activity as defined by the F10.7 solar
340 flux index used as a proxy of solar EUV flux for Mars. The correlation observed between the
341 peak intensities and the F10.7 index is predicted by the model. Since processes 1, 4 and 6 are
342 directly controlled by the incoming solar flux, this correlation in our model was expected and
343 is a response to the changing amount of ionizing solar flux.

344

345 We directly note in Figure 7b that the general increase of the peak altitude is also simulated
346 by the model. However, the peak altitudes for Ls ranging from 90° to 135° are overestimated
347 by 5 km. We have shown that the altitude of the airglow peak reflects the CO₂ density profile;
348 we conclude that this discrepancy stems from differences between the actual CO₂ columns
349 and the profile used in the model. Note also that the region of discrepancy includes equatorial
350 latitudes whereas the right portion of Figure 7b contains data collected for a mean latitude of
351 50.9°N. As was demonstrated by *Forget et al.* [2008], the increase in CO₂ density at 130 km
352 was very sharp during this season and these variations can hardly be reproduced by averaged
353 GCM simulations [*Forget et al.*, 2008, Figure 11]. Furthermore, simulations for the same
354 MEX/SPICAM sampling period (Ls = 90 to 135) by *McDunn et al.* [2009] using the Mars
355 Thermospheric General Circulation Model (MTGCM) show over-predicted CO₂ densities at
356 130 km (see their Figure 7), regardless of the empirical horizontal dust distribution
357 prescribed. This feature is similar to that of *Forget et al.* [2008]. Improper vertical dust
358 distributions may be responsible for these discrepancies in both models. As a result, over-
359 estimated dayglow peak altitudes are simulated in this study for Ls = 90 to 135. However, we
360 note in the histograms presented in Figure 3 and in Table 4 that the mean values of peak
361 altitudes are well estimated within 2-3 km, which is approximately equal to the model vertical
362 resolution.

363 **Conclusion**

364

365 The CO Cameron and CO₂⁺ doublet emissions in the Martian atmosphere are highly variable.
366 Restricting our study to one specific season (Ls = 90° to 180°), we have found that the
367 distribution of peak brightness is very widespread, with a standard deviation of about 30%.
368 The altitudes of the peak emission vary in a 25 km range for both emissions, with a standard
369 deviation of 7 km. We have shown that this variability is controlled by several parameters.
370 The solar zenith angle directly influences the brightness intensity. Solar activity represented
371 by the F10.7 index also controls the intensity of both emissions to some extent. We have also
372 shown that the relationship we derived between the F10.7 index and the peak brightness of
373 limb profiles is in good agreement with the previous results deduced with MARINER 9
374 observations by *Stewart et al* [1972]. Moreover, the altitude of the emission peaks is shown to
375 increase between Ls = 90 and Ls = 180. We interpret the increase as a consequence of the
376 changing CO₂ profile which introduces a seasonal dependence, especially during this
377 particular year of observation. Consequently, the dayglows analyzed in this paper can be
378 suitable tracers for the monitoring of the CO₂ density on the day side of the planet.

379

380 Each individual profile has been compared with the result of a model calculation based on the
381 airglow code developed by *Shematovich et al.* [2008]. We find that our calculations
382 overestimate the CO brightness intensity by a factor of 1.74 and the CO₂⁺ emission intensity
383 by a factor of 1.41. However, these factors remain constant as the solar zenith angle or the
384 F10.7 index change, implying that the model is able to efficiently reproduce the brightness
385 variation within these parameters, and indicating that they are the physical sources of the
386 brightness variability. These discrepancies may stem from uncertainties on the electron
387 impact cross section of CO (a³Π) which is only known within a factor of 2. Similarly the

388 photoionization cross section of CO₂ is known with an estimate of 25%, which provides a
389 possible explanation for the overestimate of the CO₂ doublet intensity. We also note that the
390 model was unable to correctly simulate the mean observed altitude peak value for Ls values
391 ranging from 90° to 135°. Since the altitude of the airglow layer is principally controlled by
392 the CO₂ density profile at the location of the airglow emission, more realistic GCM CO₂
393 profiles will enable the airglow code to better reproduce the observed altitude variability.
394 Improvements in the prescription of vertical dust distributions in GCMs may thus be required.

395 **Acknowledgments**

396

397 The authors thank the SPICAM and the MEX teams. J.-C. Gérard is supported by the Belgian
398 Fund for Scientific Research (FNRS). S. W. Bougher is supported by the NASA Mars Data
399 Analysis Program (Grant # NNX07A084G). This work was funded by the PRODEX program
400 of the European Space Agency (ESA) managed with the help of the Belgian Space Policy
401 Office and by IISN grant 4.4508.06.

402 **References**

403

404 Anderson, D. E., Jr., and C. W. Hord (1971), Mariner 6 and 7 Ultraviolet Spectrometer
405 Experiment: Analysis of Hydrogen Lyman-Alpha Data, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *76*(28), 6666–6673,
406 doi:10.1029/JA076i028p06666.

407

408 Barth, C. A., C.W. Hord, J. B. Pearce, K. K. Kelly, G. P. Anderson, and A. I. Stewart (1971),
409 Mariner 6 and 7 Ultraviolet Spectrometer Experiment: Upper atmosphere data, *J. Geophys.*
410 *Res.*, *76*, 2213– 2227, doi:10.1029/JA076i010p02213.

411

412 Barth, C. A., A. I. Stewart, C. W. Hord, and A. L. Lane (1972), Mariner 9 Ultraviolet
413 Spectrometer Experiment: Mars airglow spectroscopy and variations in Lyman Alpha, *Icarus*,
414 *17*, 457– 462, doi:10.1016/0019-1035(72)90011-5.

415

416 Bertaux, J.-L., et al. (2006), SPICAM on Mars Express: Observing modes and overview of
417 UV spectrometer data and scientific results, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *111*, E10S90,
418 doi:10.1029/2006JE002690.

419

420 Bisikalo, D. V., V. I. Shematovich, and J.-C. Gérard (1995), A kinetic model of the formation
421 of the hot oxygen geocorona: 2. Influence of O⁺ ion precipitation, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *100*,
422 3715–3720, doi:10.1029/94JA03196.

423

424 Bougher, S. W., R. G. Roble, E. C. Ridley, and R. E. Dickinson (1990), The Mars
425 thermosphere: 2. General circulation with coupled dynamics and composition, *J. Geophys.*
426 *Res.*, *95*, 14,811 – 14,827, doi:10.1029/JB095iB09p14811.

427

428 Bougher, S. W., S. Engel, R. G. Roble, and B. Foster (1999), Comparative terrestrial planet
429 thermospheres: 2. Solar cycle variation of global structure and winds at equinox, *J. Geophys.*
430 *Res.*, *104*, 16,591– 16,611, doi:10.1029/1998JE001019.

431

432 Bougher, S. W., S. Engel, R. G. Roble, and B. Foster (2000), Comparative terrestrial planet
433 thermospheres: 3. Solar cycle variation of global structure and winds at solstices, *J. Geophys.*
434 *Res.*, *105*, 17,669– 17,692, doi:10.1029/1999JE001232.

435

436 Bougher, S. W., S. Engel, D. P. Hinson, and J. R. Murphy (2004), MGS Radio Science
437 electron density profiles: Interannual variability and implications for the Martian neutral
438 atmosphere, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *109*, E03010, doi:10.1029/2003JE002154.

439

440 Bougher, S. W., J. M. Bell, J. R. Murphy, M. A. Lopez-Valverde, and P. G. Withers (2006a),
441 Polar warming in the Mars thermosphere: Seasonal variations owing to changing insolation
442 and dust distributions, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *33*, L02203, doi:10.1029/2005GL024059.

443

444 Bougher, S. W., J. R. Murphy, J. M. Bell, and R. W. Zurek (2006b), Prediction of the
445 structure of the Martian upper atmosphere for the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (MRO)
446 mission, *The International Journal of Mars Science and Exploration*, *Mars 2*, 10-20,
447 doi:10.1555/mars.2006.0002.

448

449 Bougher, S. W., T. M. McDunn, K. A. Zoldak, and J. M. Forbes (2009), Solar Cycle
450 Variability of Mars Dayside Exospheric Temperatures: Model Evaluation of Underlying
451 Thermal Balances, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *36*, L05201, doi:10.1029/2008GL036376.

452

453 Conway, R. R. (1981), Spectroscopy of the Cameron bands in the Mars airglow, *J. Geophys.*
454 *Res.*, *86*, 4767– 4775, doi:10.1029/JA086iA06p04767.

455

456 Cox, C., A. Saglam, J.-C. Gérard, J.-L. Bertaux, F. González-Galindo, F. Leblanc, and A.
457 Reberac (2008), Distribution of the ultraviolet nitric oxide Martian night airglow:
458 Observations from Mars Express and comparisons with a one-dimensional model, *J. Geophys.*
459 *Res.*, *113*, E08012, doi:10.1029/2007JE003037.

460

461 Feldman, P. D., E. B. Burgh, S. T. Durrance, and A. F. Davidsen (2000), Far-ultraviolet
462 spectroscopy of Venus and Mars at 4A resolution with the Hopkins Ultraviolet Telescope on
463 Astro-2, *Astrophys. J.*, *538*, 395– 400, doi:10.1086/309125.

464

465 Forget, F., F. Montmessin, J.-L. Bertaux, F. González-Galindo, S. Lebonnois, E. Quémerais,
466 A. Reberac, E. Dimarellis, and M. A. López-Valverde (2009), Density and temperatures of
467 the upper Martian atmosphere measured by stellar occultations with Mars Express SPICAM,
468 *J. Geophys. Res.*, *114*, E01004, doi:10.1029/2008JE003086.

469

470 Fox, J. L., and A. Dalgarno (1979), Ionization, luminosity, and heating of the upper
471 atmosphere of Mars, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *84*, 7315– 7333, doi:10.1029/JA084iA12p07315.

472

473 Fox, J. L., and A. Dalgarno (1981), Ionization, luminosity, and heating of the upper
474 atmosphere of Venus, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *86*(A2), 629– 639, doi:10.1029/JA086iA02p00629.

475

476 Fox, J. L. (2004), CO₂⁺ dissociative recombination: A source of thermal and nonthermal C on
477 Mars, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *109*, A08306, doi:10.1029/2004JA010514.
478

479 Gérard, J.-C., B. Hubert, D. V. Bisikalo, and V. I. Shematovich (2000), A model of the
480 Lyman- α line profile in the proton aurora, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *105*, 15,795– 15,805,
481 doi:10.1029/1999JA002002.
482

483 Gérard, J.-C., C. Cox, A. Saglam, J.-L. Bertaux, E. Villard, and C. Nehmé (2008a), Limb
484 observations of the ultraviolet nitric oxide nightglow with SPICAV on board Venus Express,
485 *J. Geophys. Res.*, *113*, E00B03, doi:10.1029/2008JE003078.
486

487 Gérard, J.-C., B. Hubert, V. I. Shematovich, D. V. Bisikalo, and G. R. Gladstone (2008b), The
488 Venus ultraviolet oxygen dayglow and aurora: Model comparison with observations, *Planet.*
489 *Space Sci.*, *56*, 3-4, 543-552, doi:10.1016/j.pss.2007.11.008.
490

491 Green, A. E. S., and T. Sawada (1972), Ionization cross sections and secondary electron
492 distributions, *J. Atmos. Terr. Phys.*, *34*, 1719–1728, doi:10.1016/0021-9169(72)90031-1.
493

494 Gutchek, R. A., and E. C. Zipf (1973), Excitation of the CO fourth positive system by the
495 dissociative recombination of CO₂⁺ ions, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *78*, 5429– 5436,
496 doi:10.1029/JA078i025p05429.
497

498 Hanson, W. B., S. Sanatani, and D. R. Zuccaro (1977), The Martian Ionosphere as Observed
499 by the Viking Retarding Potential Analyzers, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *82*(28), 4351–4363,
500 doi:10.1029/JS082i028p04351.

501

502 Hantsch, M. H., and S. J. Bauer (1990), Solar control of the Mars ionosphere, *Planet. Space*
503 *Sci.*, 38, 539– 542, doi:10.1016/0032-0633(90)90146-H.

504

505 Huebner, W. F., J. J. Keady, and S. P. Lyon (1992), Solar photo rates for planetary
506 atmospheres and atmospheric pollutants, *Astrophysics and Space Science*, 195, 1-289.

507

508 Itikawa, Y. (2002), Cross sections for electron collisions with carbon dioxide, *J. Phys. Chem.*
509 *Ref. Data*, 31(3), 749– 767, doi:10.1063/1.1481879.

510

511 Lawrence G. M. (1972), Photodissociation of CO₂ to produce CO(a³Π), *J. Chem. Phys.*, 56,
512 3435, doi:10.1063/1.1677717.

513

514 Leblanc, F., J. Y. Chaufray, J. Lilensten, O. Witasse, and J.-L. Bertaux (2006), Martian
515 dayglow as seen by the SPICAM UV spectrograph on Mars Express, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 111,
516 E09S11, doi:10.1029/2005JE002664.

517

518 McDunn, T., S. W. Bougher, J. Murphy, M. D. Smith, F. Forget, J.-L. Bertaux, and F.
519 Montmessin (2009), Simulating the Density and Thermal Structure of the Middle Atmosphere
520 (~80-130 km) of Mars Using the MGCM-MTGCM: A Comparison with MEX-SPICAM
521 Observations, *Icarus*, in press.

522

523 Padial, N., G. Csanak, B. V. McKoy, and P. W. Langhoff (1981), Photoexcitation and
524 ionization in carbon dioxide – Theoretical studies in the separated-channel static-exchange
525 approximation, *Phys. Rev. A*, 23, 218-235, doi:10.1103/PhysRevA.23.218.

526

527 Porter, H. S., and F. W. Jump (1978), Analytic total and angular elastic electron impact cross
528 sections for planetary atmospheres, *Computer Science Corp. Report CSC/TM-6017*, Goddard
529 Space Flight Cent., Greenbelt, Md.

530

531 Porter, H. S., F. Varosi, and H. G. Mayr (1987), Iterative solution of the multistream electron
532 transport equation: 1. Comparison with laboratory beam injection experiments, *J. Geophys.*
533 *Res.*, *92*, 5933–5959, doi:10.1029/JA092iA06p05933.

534

535 Rosati, R. E., R. Johnsen, and M. F. Golde (2003), Absolute yields of CO ($a^3\Sigma^+$, $d^3\Delta_i$, $e^3\Sigma^-$) +
536 O from the dissociative recombination of CO_2^+ ions with electrons, *J. Chem. Phys.*, *119*,
537 11630, doi:10.1063/1.1623480.

538

539 Seiersen, K. A., A. Al-Khalili, O. Heber, M. J. Jensen, I. B. Nielsen, H. B. Pedersen, C. P.
540 Safvan, and L. H. Andersen (2003), Dissociative recombination of the cation and dication of
541 CO_2 , *Phys. Rev. A*, *68*(2), 022708, doi:10.1103/PhysRevA.68.022708.

542

543 Shematovich, V. I., D. V. Bisikalo, and J.-C. Gérard (1994), A kinetic model of the formation
544 of the hot oxygen geocorona: 1. Quiet geomagnetic conditions, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *99*, 23,217–
545 23,228, doi:10.1029/94JA01769.

546

547 Shematovich, V. I., D. V. Bisikalo, J.-C. Gérard, C. Cox, S. W. Bougher, and F. Leblanc
548 (2008), Monte Carlo model of electron transport for the calculation of Mars dayglow
549 emissions, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *113*, E02011, doi:10.1029/2007JE002938.

550

551 Shirai, T., T. Tabata, and H. Tawara (2001), Analytic cross sections for electron collisions
552 with CO, CO₂, and H₂O relevant to edge plasma impurities, *Atomic Data and Nuclear Data*
553 *Tables*, 79(1), 143-184, doi:10.1006/adnd.2001.0866.

554

555 Simon, C., O. Witasse, F. Leblanc, G. Gronoff, and J.-L. Bertaux (2009), Dayglow on Mars :
556 Kinetic modelling with SPICAM UV limb data, *Planet. Space Sci.*,
557 doi:10.1016/j.pss.2008.08.012.

558

559 Skrzykowski, M. P., T. Gougousi, R. Johnsen, and M. F. Golde (1998), Measurements of the
560 absolute yield of CO (a³Π) + O products in the dissociative recombination of CO₂⁺ ions with
561 electrons, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 108, 8400-8407, doi:10.1063/1.476267.

562

563 Stewart, A. I. (1972), Mariner 6 and 7 Ultraviolet Spectrometer Experiment: Implications of
564 CO₂⁺, CO and O airglow, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 77(1), 54–68, doi:10.1029/JA077i001p00054.

565

566 Stewart, A. I., C. A. Barth, C. W. Hord, and A. L. Lane (1972), Mariner 9 ultraviolet
567 spectrometer experiment: structure of Mars's upper atmosphere, *Icarus*, 17, 469,
568 doi:10.1016/0019-1035(72)90012-7.

569

570 Stewart, A. I., and W. B. Hanson (1982), Mars upper atmosphere: mean and variations, the
571 Mars reference atmosphere, *Adv. Space Res.*, 2(2).

572

573 Strickland, D. J., G. E. Thomas, and P. R. Sparks (1972), Mariner 6 and 7 Ultraviolet
574 Spectrometer Experiment: Analysis of the OI 1304– 1356–A emissions, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 77,
575 4052– 4068, doi:10.1029/JA077i022p04052.

576

577 Strickland, D. J., G. E. Thomas, and P. R. Sparks (1973), Mariner 9 Ultraviolet Spectrometer
578 Experiment: Mars atomic oxygen 1304 –A emissions, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 78, 4547– 4559,
579 doi:10.1029/JA078i022p04547.

580

581 Tobiska, W. K. (2004), SOLAR2000 irradiances for climate change, aeronomy and space
582 system engineering, *Adv. Space. Res.*, 34, 1736–1746, doi:10.1016/j.asr.2003.06.032.

583 **Tables**

584

585

Table 1. Observations of the Martian UV dayglow

| Mission | Year | Instrument | Observations | References |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Mariner 6 and 7 | 1969 | UVS | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Barth et al. [1971]</i> |
| Mariner 6 and 7 | 1969 | UVS | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Stewart [1972]</i> |
| Mariner 9 | 1971 | UVS | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Stewart et al. [1972]</i> |
| Mariner 6 and 7 | 1969 | UVS | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Strickland et al. [1972]</i> |
| Mariner 9 | 1971 | UVS | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Strickland et al. [1973]</i> |
| Astro-2 | 1995 | HUT | Earth orbiting spacecraft | <i>Feldman et al. [2000]</i> |
| Mars Express | 2003 | SPICAM | Mars orbiting spacecraft | <i>Leblanc et al. [2006]</i> |

586 Note: The year provided in the second column is the date when scientific data began to be

587 collected.

588
589

Table 2. CO* production processes for CO Cameron bands and references for cross sections and rate coefficients

| # | Reactions | References |
|---|---|--|
| 1 | $CO + e^- \rightarrow CO^* + e^-$ | <i>Shirai et al.</i> [2001] |
| 2 | $CO_2 + e^- \rightarrow CO^* + O^* + e^-$ | <i>Shirai et al.</i> [2001] |
| 3 | $CO_2 + h\nu \rightarrow CO^* + O^*$ | <i>Lawrence</i> [1972] |
| 4 | $CO_2^+ + e^- \rightarrow CO^* + O$ | <i>Fox</i> [2004], <i>Hanson et al.</i> [1977], <i>Seiersen et al.</i> [2003], <i>Skrzypkowski et al.</i> [1998], <i>Rosati et al.</i> [2003] |

590 Note: The photoionization and photoabsorption cross section data and branching ratios for
591 CO₂, CO, O and N₂ were taken from the “Photo Cross Sections and Rate Coefficients” data
592 base by W. Huebner and R. Link [*Huebner et al.*, 1992] (<http://amop.space.swri.edu/>).

593 #3: The cross section for this process was calculated as the total CO₂ photoabsorption cross
594 section multiplied by the branching ratio taken from *Lawrence* [1972].

595 #4: To evaluate the contribution of CO₂⁺ dissociative recombination as a source of CO
596 Cameron bands, we use the results from Fox’s [2004] study where densities of CO₂⁺ and
597 electrons were calculated for low solar activity. The electron temperature was taken from
598 *Hanson et al.* [1977], the rate coefficient from *Seiersen et al.* [2003] and the branching ratios
599 of dissociative recombination of CO₂⁺ to the state a³Σ were adopted from *Skrzypkowski et al.*
600 [1998] and *Rosati et al.* [2003].

601 **Table 3. CO₂⁺* production reactions for CO₂⁺ doublet emission and references for cross sections and rate**
 602 **coefficients**

| # | Reactions | References |
|---|--|-----------------------------|
| 5 | $CO_2 + h\nu \rightarrow (CO_2^+)^* + e^-$ | <i>Padial et al.</i> [1981] |
| 6 | $CO_2 + e^- \rightarrow (CO_2^+)^* + 2e^-$ | <i>Itikawa</i> [2002] |

603 Note: The photoionization and photoabsorption cross section data and branching ratios for
 604 CO₂, CO, O and N₂ were taken from the “Photo Cross Sections and Rate Coefficients” data
 605 base by W. Huebner and R. Link [*Huebner et al.*, 1992] (<http://amop.space.swri.edu/>).
 606 #5: The cross section for this process was calculated as the total CO₂ photoionization cross
 607 section multiplied by the branching ratio taken from *Padial et al.* [1981].

608

Table 4. Distribution characteristics of observations and modelling

| | CO Cameron | | CO ₂ ⁺ Doublet | |
|---------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | Average peak intensity | Average peak altitude | Average peak intensity | Average peak altitude |
| Observations* | 118 ± 33 kR | 121.1 ± 6.5 km | 21.6 ± 7.2 kR | 119.1 ± 7.0 km |
| Model* | 205 ± 59 kR | 124.1 ± 3.9 km | 31.0 ± 8.5 kR | 122.3 ± 4.3 km |

609

* The uncertainties listed for observations and model correspond to one standard deviation.

610 **Figure captions**

611

612 Figure 1:

613 Solar zenith angle coverage of the airglow observations across the different seasons
614 (represented by solar longitude). Top and bottom plots correspond to the northern and
615 southern hemispheres respectively. The filled area represents the season on which our
616 analysis is focused.

617

618 Figure 2:

619 Typical limb profiles of airglow emissions observed during orbit 1267 (Lat=54°N, SZA=52°,
620 Ls=143°). The observed CO Cameron and CO₂⁺ doublet limb brightness has been binned into
621 5 km cells and are represented by black diamonds. Red dashed curves correspond to the
622 respective profiles plus or minus one standard deviation. The blue curves were calculated with
623 the dayglow model for the same observational conditions as the observations.

624

625 Figure 3:

626 Data distribution histograms. a: CO peak brightness (data). b: CO peak brightness (model). c:
627 CO₂⁺ peak brightness (data). d: CO₂⁺ peak brightness (model). e: CO peak altitude (data). f:
628 CO peak altitude (model). g: CO₂⁺ peak altitude (data). h: CO₂⁺ peak altitude (model). The
629 vertical lines indicate the mean values.

630

631 Figure 4:

632 a: Ratio between the observed CO and CO₂⁺ peak brightness of the limb profiles. The linear
633 regression ratio is equal to 4.7 and the correlation coefficient is 0.98.

634 b: Ratio between the observed CO and CO₂⁺ peak altitudes of the limb profiles. The mean
635 difference of altitude is equal to 2.4 km and the linear correlation coefficient is 0.98.

636 c: Ratio between modelled CO and CO₂⁺ peak brightness of the limb profiles. The mean ratio
637 is equal to 0.15 and the linear regression coefficient is 1.00.

638 d: Ratio between modelled CO and CO₂⁺ peak altitudes of the limb profiles. The difference of
639 altitude is equal to 1.7 km and the regression coefficient is 0.98.

640

641 Figure 5:

642 Variation of CO Cameron bands peak brightness as a function of solar zenith angle. Each
643 observation is represented by a diamond. a: observed values. b: modeled values. The trends
644 on both plots are clearly noticeable with correlation coefficients close to unity.

645

646 Figure 6:

647 Variation of CO Cameron bands peak brightness as a function of the F10.7 cm solar flux
648 estimated at Mars distance. Each observation is represented by a diamond. Red, green and
649 blue curves correspond to solar zenith angles ranging from 0° to 35°, from 35° to 55° and
650 from 55° to 90° respectively. a: observed values. b: modelled values. The trends on both plots
651 are clearly noticeable although they are more significant in plot b.

652

653 Figure 7:

654 Variation of CO Cameron bands peak altitude as a function of solar longitude. Each
655 observation is represented by a diamond. a: Observed values, the red points represent data for
656 solar zenith angle ranging from 45° to 60°. b: Modelled values.

657

658 Figure 8:

659 a: Emission rates as a function of altitude for the CO Cameron emission. The different
660 processes are listed in Table 2.

661 b: Emission rates as a function of altitude for the CO₂⁺ Doublet emission. The different
662 processes are listed in Table 3.

663

664

665 Figure 9:

666 a: Ratio between modelled and observed CO Cameron bands peak brightness. The mean
667 intensity ratio is equal to 1.74, which implies that our model systematically overestimates the
668 brightness of the CO Cameron emission (see text).

669 b: Ratio between modelled and observed CO₂⁺ doublet peak brightness. The mean intensity
670 ratio is equal to 1.41 (see text).

671 c: Modelled CO Cameron peak altitudes versus the observed values.

672 d: Modelled CO₂⁺ doublet peak altitudes versus the observed values.

Figures

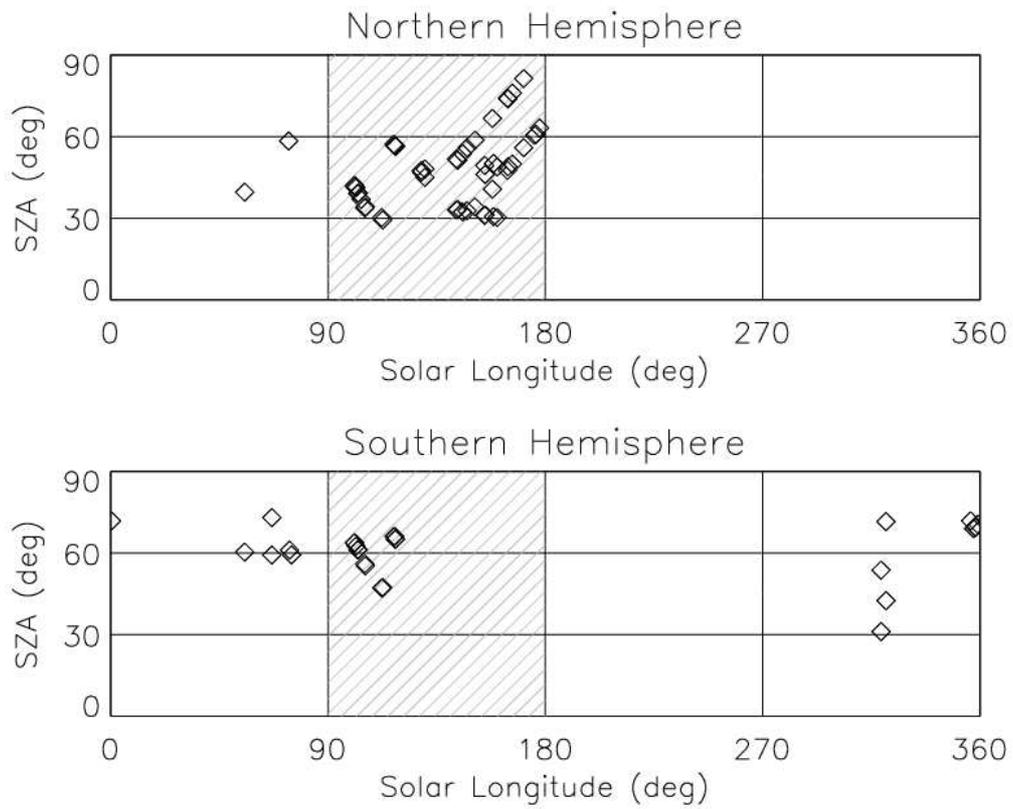


Figure 1

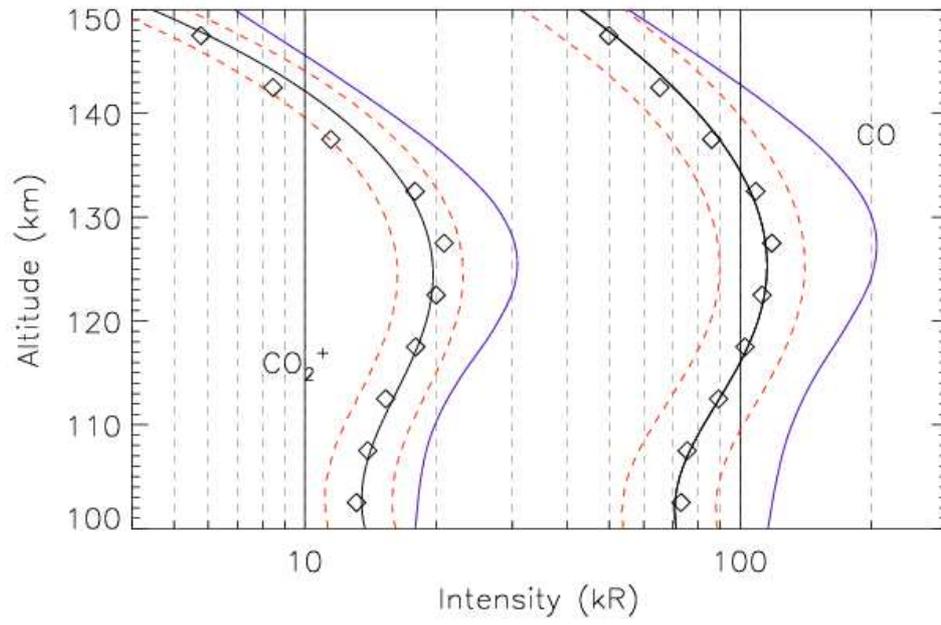


Figure 2

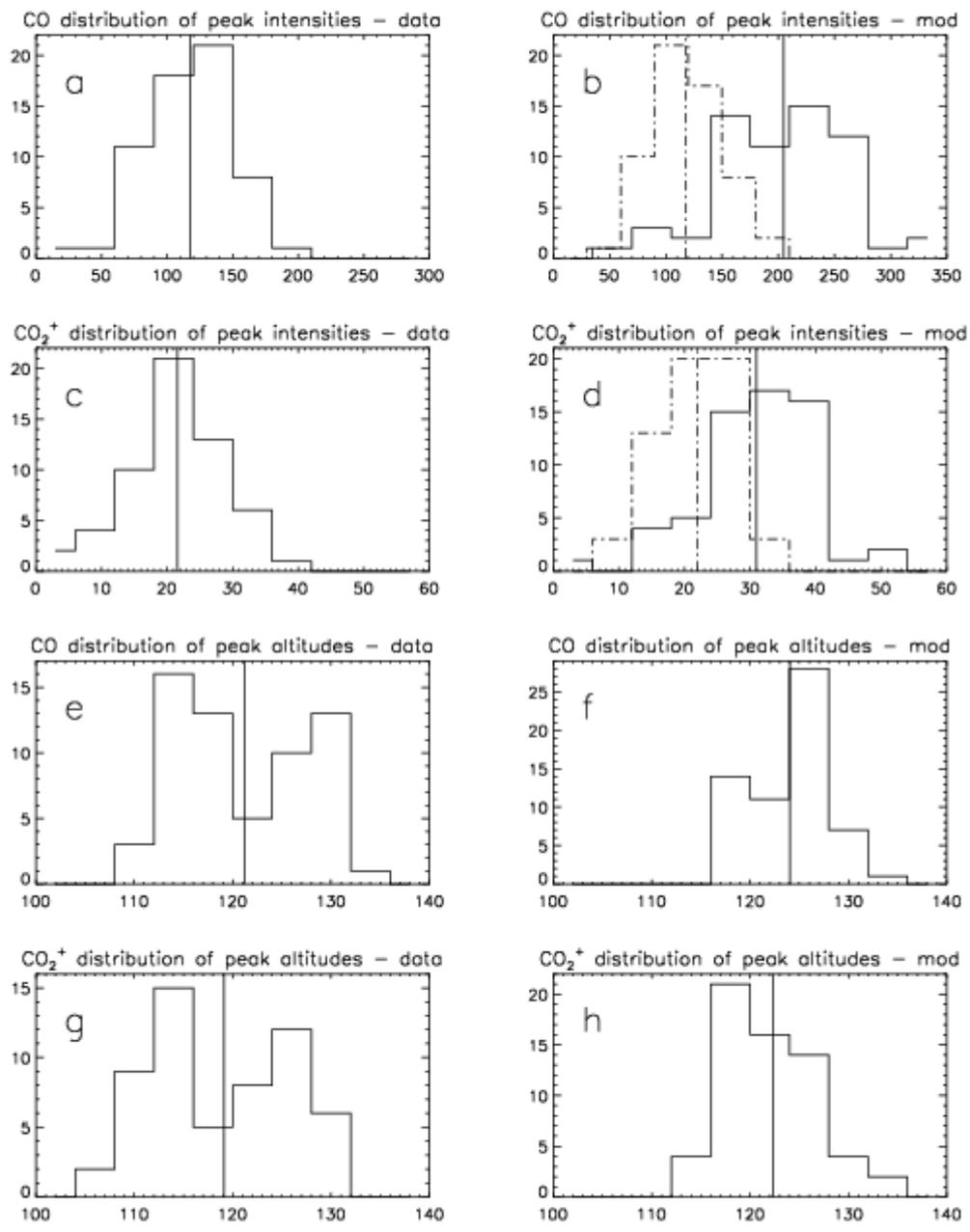


Figure 3

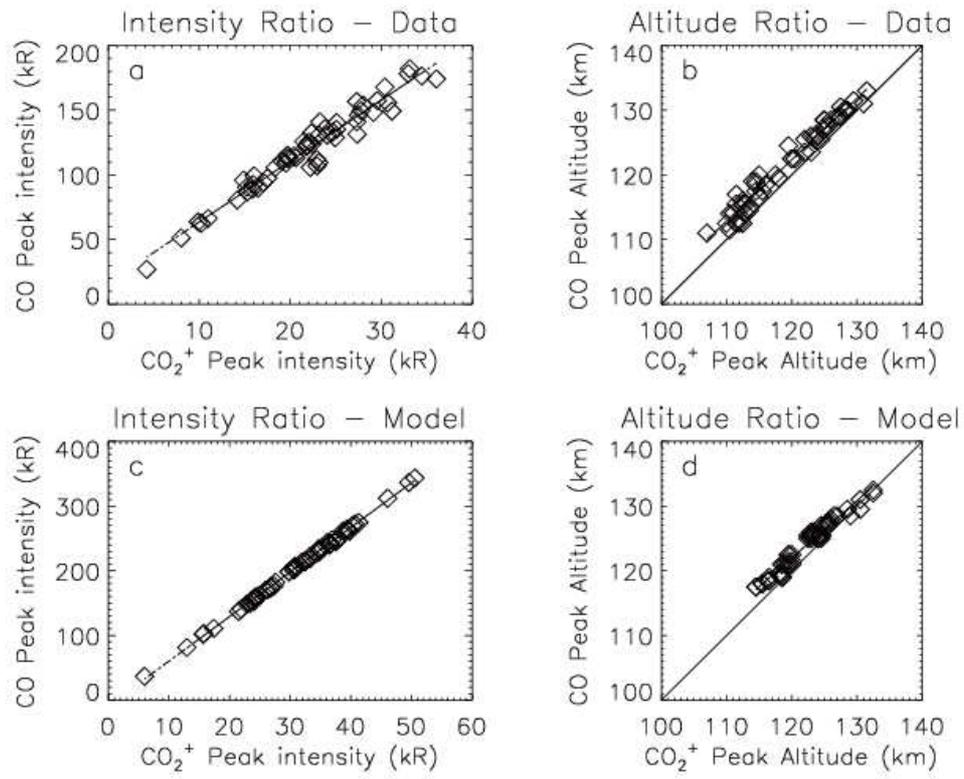


Figure 4

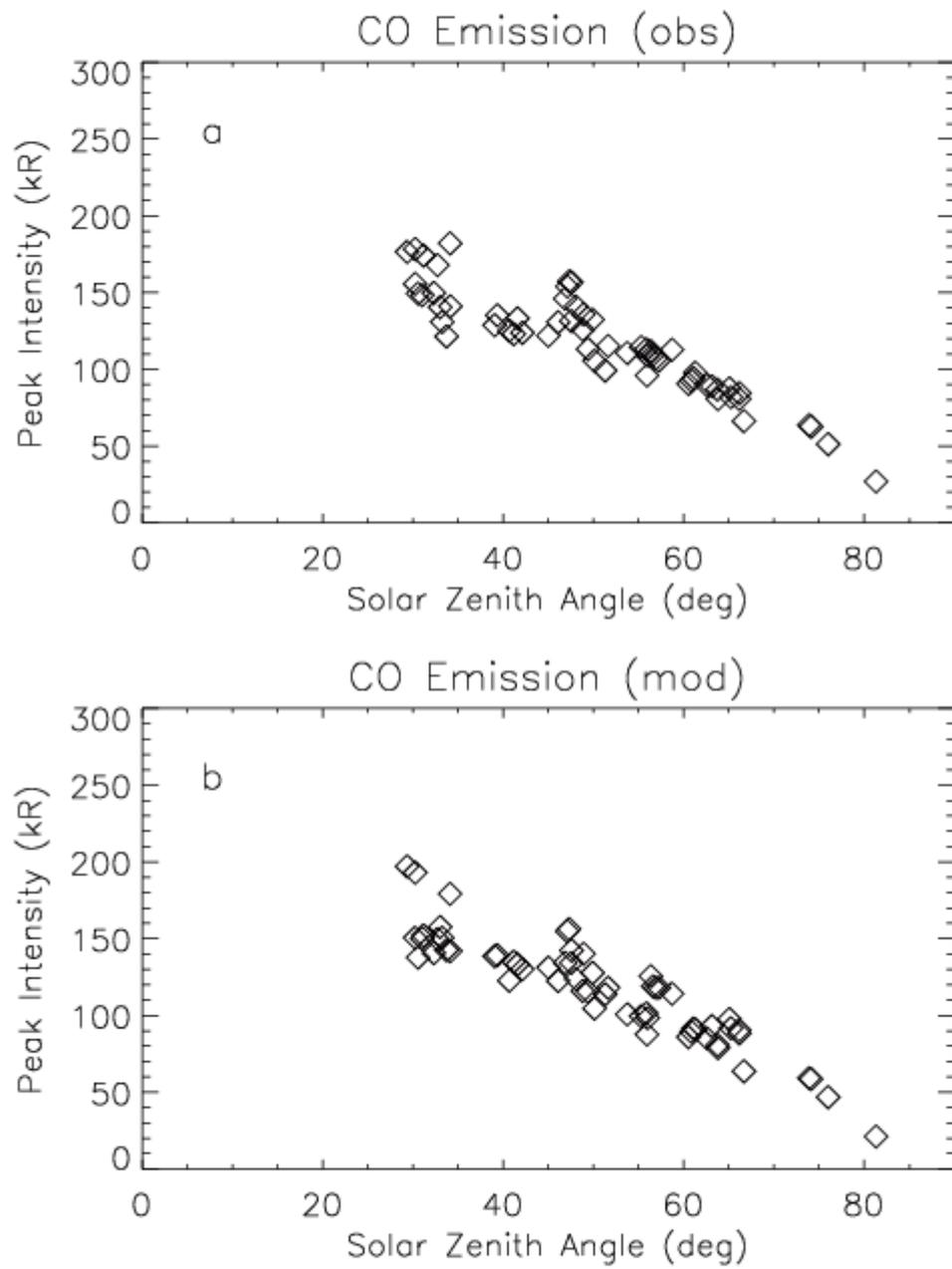


Figure 5

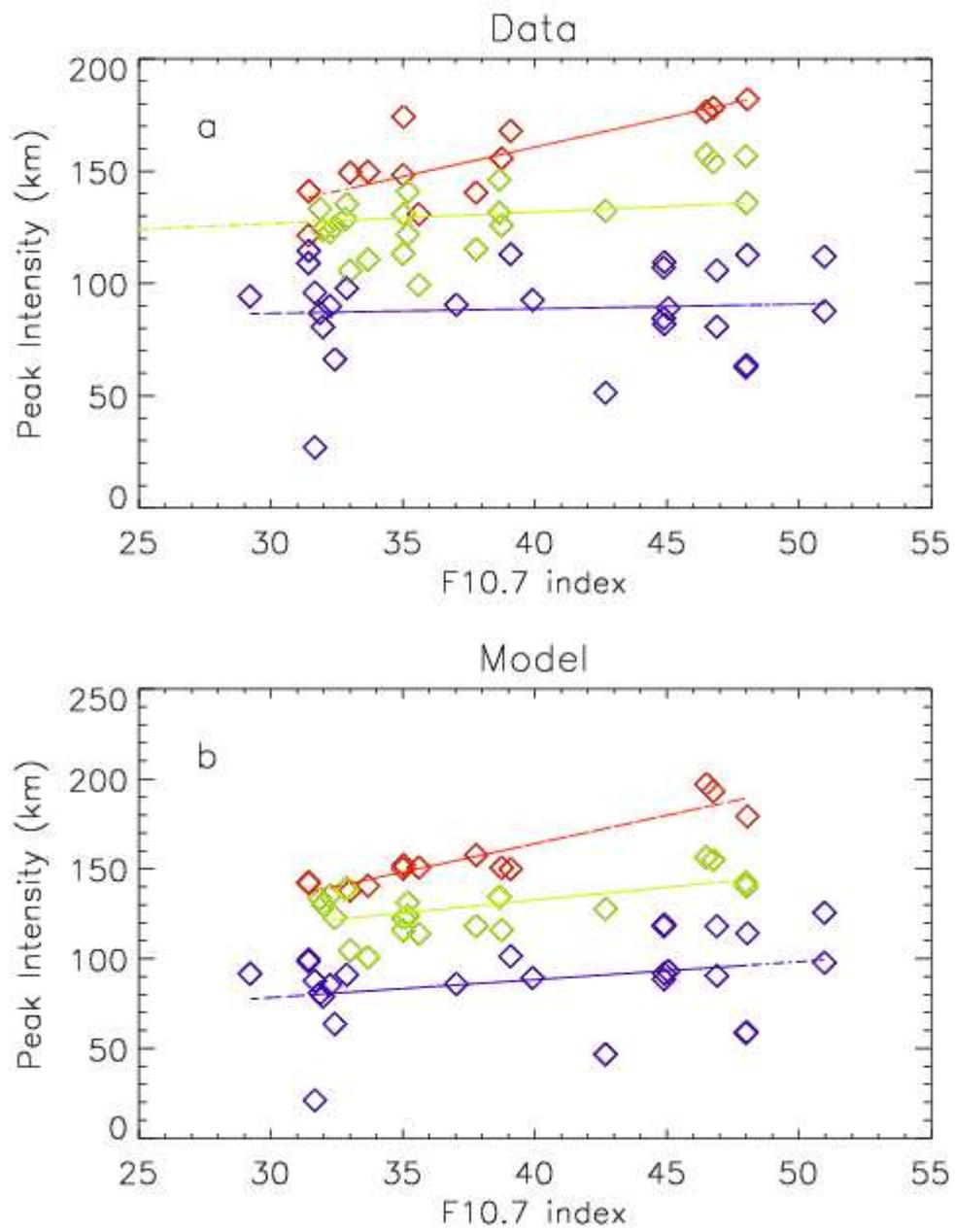


Figure 6

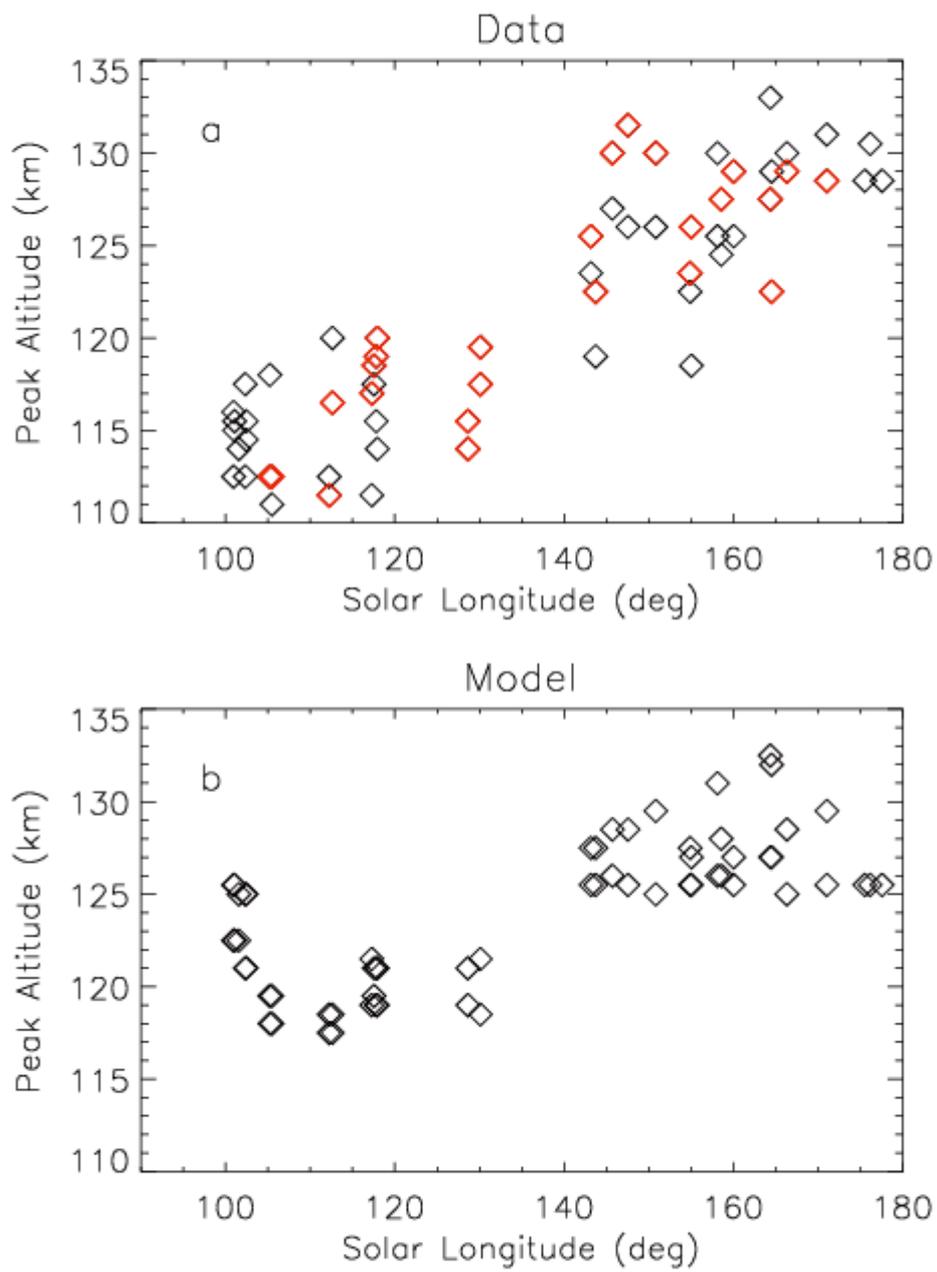


Figure 7

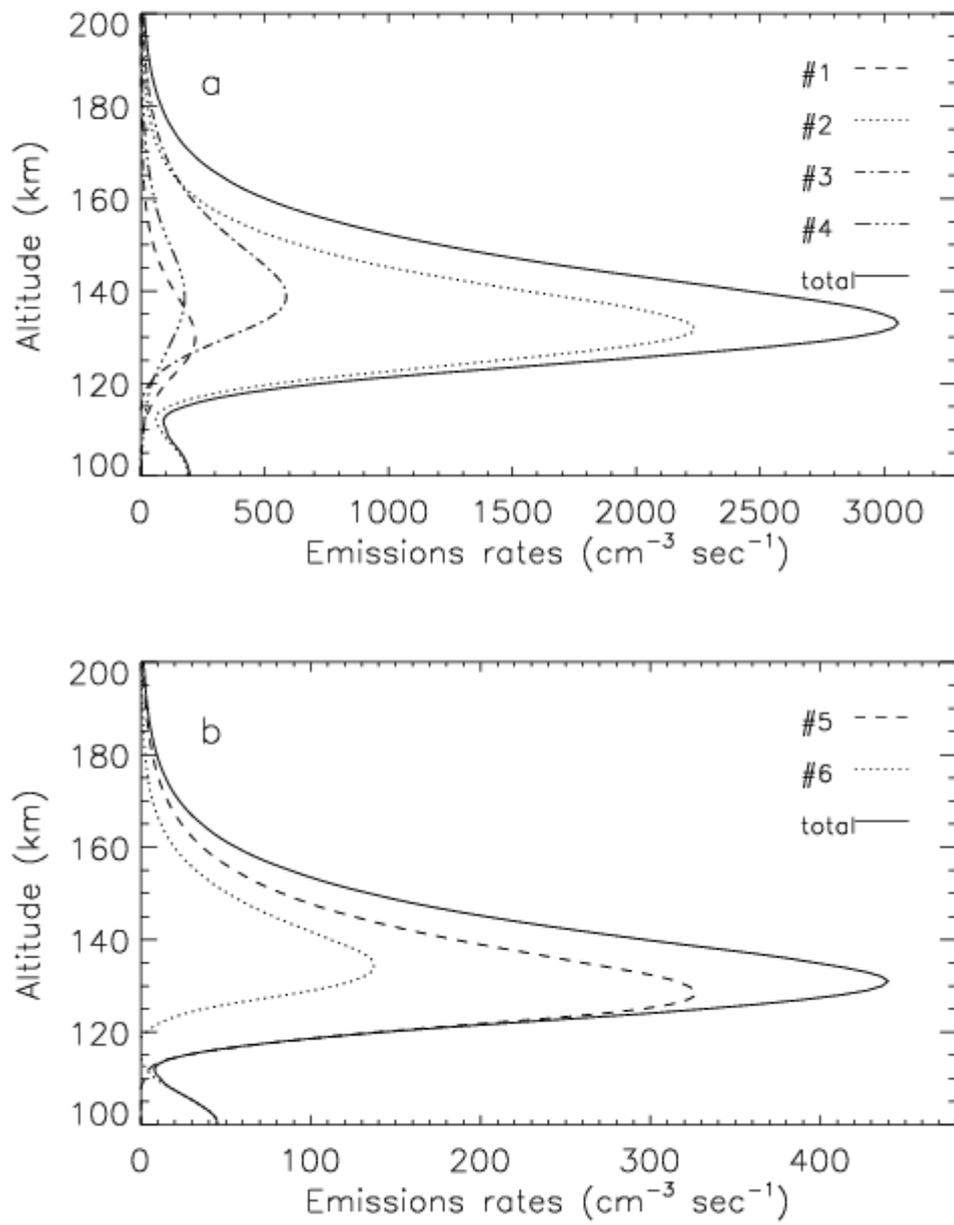


Figure 8

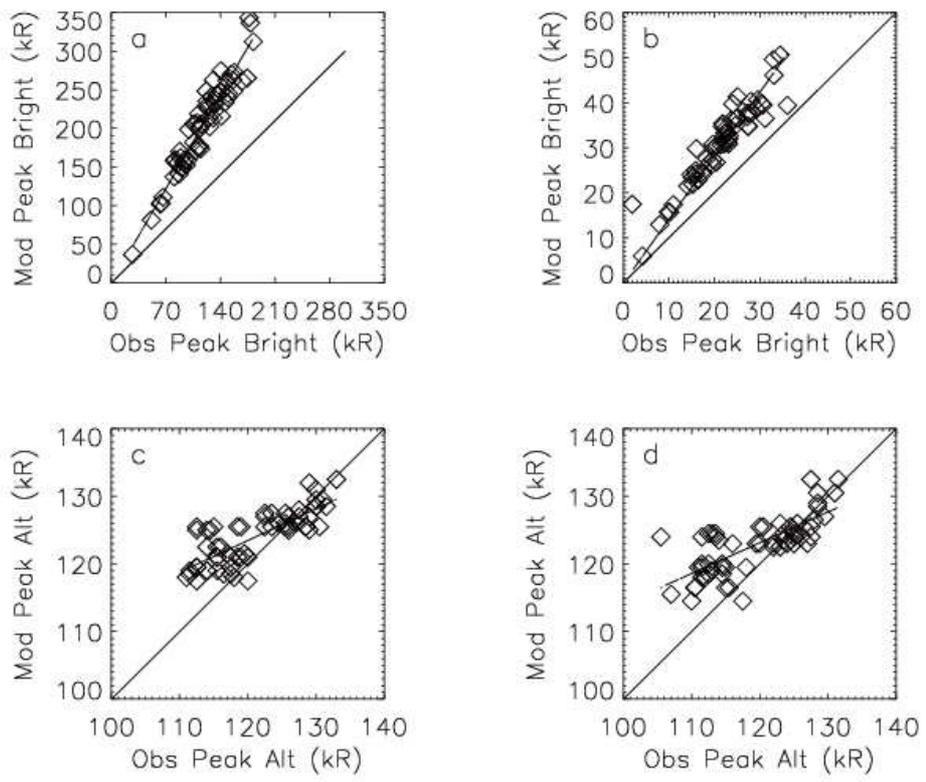


Figure 9