

The influence of magnetic field topology and orientation on the 1 distribution of thermal electrons in the Martian magnetotail 2

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Abstract

Thermal (<1 eV) electron density measurements, derived from the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution's (MAVEN) Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) instrument, are analyzed to produce the first statistical study of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. Coincident measurements of the local magnetic field are used to demonstrate that close to Mars, the thermal electron population is most likely to be observed at a cylindrical distance of ~ 1.1 Mars radii (R_m) from the central tail region during times when the magnetic field flares inward toward the central tail, compared to ~ 1.3 R_m during times when the magnetic field flares outward away from the central tail. Similar patterns are observed further down the magnetotail with greater variability. Thermal electron densities are highly variable throughout the magnetotail; average densities are typically ~ 20 - 50 /cc within the optical shadow of Mars and can peak at ~ 100 /cc just outside of the optical shadow. Standard deviations of 100% are observed for average densities measured throughout the tail. Analysis of the local magnetic field topology suggests that thermal electrons observed within the optical shadow of Mars are likely sourced from the nightside ionosphere, whereas electrons observed just outside of the optical shadow are likely sourced from the dayside ionosphere. Finally, thermal electrons within the optical shadow of Mars are up to 20% more likely to be observed when the strongest crustal magnetic fields point sunward than when they point tailward.

The influence of magnetic field topology and orientation on the distribution of thermal electrons in the Martian magnetotail

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Key Points:

- The local magnetic topology and flaring direction play an important role in determining the thermal electron structure in the magnetotail
- Thermal electrons are most likely to be observed just outside of the optical shadow in the magnetotail, at peak likelihoods of ~35%
- The likelihood of observing thermal electrons does not appear to be influenced by the location of the strongest crustal magnetic fields

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Abstract

Thermal (<1 eV) electron density measurements, derived from the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution's (MAVEN) Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) instrument are analyzed to produce the first statistical study of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. Coincident measurements of the local magnetic field are used to demonstrate that close to Mars, the thermal electron population is most likely to be observed at a cylindrical distance of ~ 1.1 Mars radii (R_M) from the central tail region during times when the magnetic field flares inward, compared to $\sim 1.3 R_M$ during times when the magnetic field flares outward. Similar patterns are observed further down the magnetotail with greater variability. Thermal electron densities are highly variable throughout the magnetotail; average densities are typically ~ 20 - 50 cm^{-3} within the optical shadow of Mars and can peak at ~ 100 cm^{-3} just outside of the optical shadow. Standard deviations of 100% are observed for average densities measured throughout the tail. Analysis of the local magnetic field topology suggests that thermal electrons observed within the optical shadow of Mars are likely sourced from the nightside ionosphere, whereas electrons observed just outside of the optical shadow are likely sourced from the dayside ionosphere. Finally, the location of the strongest crustal magnetic fields with respect to the Sun appears to only slightly affect the likelihood, location and mean densities at which thermal electrons are observed in the magnetotail region.

1 Introduction

Mars lacks an intrinsic dipole magnetic field and the interaction between the planet's atmosphere, ionosphere and extended exosphere results in the formation of a partially induced magnetosphere that acts to stand off and deflect the supersonic solar wind flow around the planetary obstacle [Luhmann *et al.*, 1991; Brain *et al.*, 2003; Bertucci *et al.*, 2011]. The interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) drapes about the planet's dayside, leading to a formation of a flared "wake" behind the planet, similar to Venus, comets, and other unmagnetized bodies (e.g. Vaisberg and Smirnov 1986; Luhmann *et al.* 1991; Zakharov 1992; Israelevich *et al.* 1994). Analysis of the structure and dynamics of the magnetotail region inform us of the interaction between the planet and the supersonic solar wind. Planetary ions have also been observed traveling tailward within the wake [Lundin and Dubinin, 1992], and thus understanding magnetotail dynamics is essential to understanding the global structure of the induced Martian magnetosphere and ion loss to space.

Early Mars orbiters, such as the Phobos spacecraft, demonstrated that the Martian tail is a two-lobe structure whose polarity and orientation depends on the upstream solar wind orientation [Yeroshenko *et al.*, 1990], similar to the Venusian magnetotail [Vaisberg and Smirnov, 1986]. Data from the Mariner 4, Mars 2, 3, 5, Phobos and Mars Global Surveyor (MGS) spacecraft missions show the shape and extent of the Martian magnetotail is highly variable (e.g. Slavin *et al.* 1991; Vignes *et al.* 2000), and the flaring angle of the tail depends on the upstream solar wind pressure [Zhang *et al.*, 1994].

Later spacecraft, including MGS, Mars Express (MEX) and the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile EvolutionN (MAVEN) mission, have enhanced these early observations, demonstrating that a current sheet separates both tail lobes, as expected for an induced magnetotail produced by the draping of the IMF about the dayside of the planet [Ferguson *et al.*, 2005].

Halekas *et al.* 2006 have also shown that MGS current sheet crossings at 400 km altitude occur everywhere except over the strong Martian crustal magnetic fields, and such crossings occur at locations that vary with Mars season and upstream IMF orientation. The magnetotail region has been observed to be at times highly dynamic. Evidence of magnetic reconnection occurring in the tail region has been reported using both MGS and MAVEN data (e.g. DiBraccio *et al.* 2015; Halekas *et al.* 2009; Eastwood *et al.* 2012; Harada *et al.* 2015a), while the repetitive loading and unloading of magnetic flux in the magnetotail region is akin to sub-storm activity within intrinsic magnetospheres (e.g. DiBraccio *et al.* 2015).

67 *DiBraccio et al.* 2018 also demonstrated that the magnetotail lobes typically exhibit a 45
68 degree twist relative to upstream IMF orientations, a characteristic thought to be strongly
69 influenced by dayside reconnection between the draped IMF and planetary crustal magnetic
70 fields. *Xu et al.* 2020 compared the tail topology determined from magnetohydrodynamic
71 simulations to that inferred from MAVEN data and how each topology responds to the up-
72 stream IMF orientation. Their results support the hypothesis that magnetic reconnection be-
73 tween crustal magnetic sources and the solar wind is responsible for the observed twist in
74 Mars's tail lobes.

75 Planetary ions have been observed in the magnetotail by multiple spacecraft, and have
76 been used to infer the existence of various plasma acceleration mechanisms and subsequent
77 plasma outflow from Mars. Ion data from the Analyzer of Space Plasmas and Energetic
78 Atoms (ASPERA) instruments on Phobos 2 and MEX show highly variable O⁺ fluxes, par-
79 ticularly in the central tail region, and these fluxes are likely driven by a variety of ion ac-
80 celeration mechanisms; some of which are similar to those that exist in the terrestrial magne-
81 totail [*Lundin et al.*, 1989; *Kallio et al.*, 1995; *Lundin and Barabash*, 2004; *Fedorov et al.*,
82 2006; *Lundin et al.*, 2008]. Magnetic field and suprathermal electron measurements from
83 the MGS spacecraft show that detached magnetic structures intermittently exist in the Mar-
84 tian tail region and contain planetary plasma. Such structures are thought to be caused by
85 the stretching of crustal magnetic fields via their interaction with the solar wind in the tail
86 region, until magnetic reconnection occurs, detaching part of the crustal field, which is then
87 convected down the tail region [*Brain et al.*, 2010].

88 Initial MAVEN estimates of planetary ion escape rates for ions with energies > 25 eV
89 from Mars generally agree with earlier studies, demonstrating that tailward ion escape in
90 the magnetotail region can contribute significantly to the total escaping flux from the planet
91 [*Brain et al.*, 2015]. MAVEN observations of enhanced ionospheric electron temperatures
92 above the exobase region suggest that ambi-polar electric fields can be an important ion ac-
93 celeration mechanism at Mars, providing up to ~1 eV of energy to planetary ions [*Xu et al.*,
94 2018a; *Collinson et al.*, 2019; *Akbari et al.*, 2019]. Such energy represents a significant
95 amount (~ 50% for O⁺) of the total needed for these heavy ions to overcome Mars' relatively
96 weak gravitational potential and drive ion outflow on open magnetic field lines that connect
97 the ionosphere to the solar wind. Numerical simulations have explicitly shown that ion out-
98 flow can be significantly enhanced by such ambi-polar electric fields at Mars [*Ergun et al.*,
99 2016]. Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) modelling of the Martian magnetosphere, for exam-
100 ple, has shown that such field lines exist in abundance in the magnetotail region [*Ma et al.*,
101 2002, 2004; *Fang et al.*, 2018].

102 The instrument limitations and difficulties associated with observing low energy ions
103 at just above escape energy (a few eVs at Mars) mean that detailed studies of this low energy
104 ion escape component were not possible before the arrival of MAVEN at Mars [*Inui et al.*,
105 2018]. MAVEN entered Mars orbit in September 2015 and carries two instruments capable
106 of measuring low energy thermal plasma: the SupraThermal And Thermal Ion Composi-
107 tion (STATIC) instrument - an electrostatic top hat analyzer with time of flight capabilities
108 [*McFadden et al.*, 2015]; and the Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) instrument - consisting
109 of two Langmuir Probes that perform current-voltage sweeps [*Andersson et al.*, 2015]. This
110 study focuses on data from the LPW measurements, from which the local thermal (<1 eV)
111 electron density and temperature are derived. We provide, to our knowledge, the first statisti-
112 cal analysis of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. We demonstrate
113 that the location at which thermal electrons are observed within the magnetotail is highly de-
114 pendent upon the orientation of the local magnetic field and whether it connects to the day or
115 night side ionosphere. Section 2 describes the dataset and analysis methods utilized in this
116 study; results are presented in Section 3 and discussed in 4. We conclude in Section 5.

2 Data and Methodology

2.1 Instruments

The MAVEN spacecraft entered into an elliptical orbit about Mars in September 2014 [Jakosky *et al.*, 2015]. The orbit precesses such that MAVEN samples all local times, longitudes, and latitudes. The rate of orbital precession results in coverage of the Martian magnetotail roughly every 3-4 months, for about one month each time. The data used in this study are taken from such “tail seasons.” Data from several instruments were utilized in this study. These include the Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) [Andersson *et al.*, 2015], Magnetometer (MAG) [Connerney *et al.*, 2015], and Solar Wind Electron Analyzer (SWEA) [Mitchell *et al.*, 2016].

LPW consists of two Langmuir probes, each mounted on the end of ~7m booms and separated by an angular distance of 110 degrees. The instrument can operate as both a Langmuir probe (“when in LP mode”) or as an electric field instrument (“when in waves mode”). During LP mode, the Langmuir Probes measure (alternating in time) the current-voltage (I-V) characteristics of the local plasma environment. The density and temperature of local thermal (< 1eV) electrons and the spacecraft potential are derived from the I-V curve by using an enhanced fitting method [Ergun *et al.*, 2015]. During waves mode, the instrument measures—as a time series—the potential difference between the two sensors, from which electric field power spectra are derived [Andersson *et al.*, 2015; Fowler *et al.*, 2017]. Only data obtained from LPW’s LP mode were used in this study.

The LPW instrument is designed to measure thermal (<1 eV), high density (>1000’s cm^{-3}) dayside ionospheric plasma. However, there are times when the local thermal electron density is low (\sim 15 cm^{-3}) and the electron temperature is relatively high (approaching 1 eV or larger). During such conditions the LPW instrument is operating beyond its design specifications and at times may not be capable of measuring a significant current. The derived thermal electron density can subsequently be zero, and this limitation (during very low density conditions) should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this study.

The local three-dimensional magnetic field vector is measured by the MAG instrument at a sampling rate of 32 Hz. The instrument consists of two fluxgate magnetometers which allow for hardware redundancy, calibration, and removal of the spacecraft generated magnetic fields. The magnetic field is measured to an accuracy of about 0.01 nT [Connerney *et al.*, 2015].

The SWEA instrument is an electrostatic top-hat analyzer that measures electron fluxes within the 3 eV to 5 keV energy range. The instrument has a field of view of $360^\circ \times 120^\circ$ provided by electrostatic deflectors and an energy resolution ($\Delta E/E$) of 17% [Mitchell *et al.*, 2016]. SWEA operates at a cadence of 2-4 seconds. As described in section 2.2, SWEA shape parameters were used to determine magnetic field topology.

In this study, the data were analyzed in the Mars Solar Orbital (MSO) coordinate system, where the x-axis points from Mars to the Sun, the y-axis is anti-parallel to Mars’ instantaneous orbital velocity, and the z-axis completes the right-handed coordinate system.

2.2 Methodology

The goal of this study is to investigate the effects of the local magnetic field topology on the spatial distribution of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. To this end, we analyze MAVEN data from periods when the spacecraft was present in the magnetotail region between 01-01-2015 to 12-31-2019.

Every LPW observation for which the I-V curve fitting technique detected a thermal electron density in the magnetotail was binned according to its observed location within the magnetotail region and the associated local magnetic field orientation and topology—this is

165 further described below. The magnetotail region was defined as all post-terminator locations
 166 (X (MSO) < 0) with altitudes greater than 600 km. All LPW I-V sweep measurements were
 167 then binned into two spatial regions of the tail—called regions X1 and X2—and separated by
 168 their associated local magnetic field orientation and topology. Region X1 enclosed $-1.5 R_M$
 169 $< X < 0 R_M$ and region X2 enclosed $-3 R_M < X < -1.5 R_M$, where $R_M = 1$ Mars radius (3396
 170 km). Splitting the tail region into two regions provides the opportunity to observe the evo-
 171 lution of the spatial distribution of thermal plasma down the tail. However, spatial coverage
 172 at this time in the MAVEN mission means the tail region could not be split into additional
 173 regions while maintaining adequate sample numbers.

174 Data were also analyzed with respect to the parameter ρ , the cylindrical distance of
 175 MAVEN from the center of the tail region, defined as $\rho = \sqrt{Y^2 + Z^2}$, in the MSO coordinate
 176 system. To first order, $\rho < 1$ lies within the planet’s optical shadow and $\rho > 1$ lies outside the
 177 optical shadow (ignoring atmospheric effects). These constraints ensured MAVEN was sam-
 178 pling the magnetotail region and not the nightside ionosphere, which is typically observed
 179 below altitudes of 600 km (e.g. *Fowler et al. 2015*). A cartoon diagram showing regions X1
 180 and X2, and ρ is shown in Figure 1.

181 Two distinct datasets were utilized in this study. The first are dubbed “measurement
 182 points” which represent all measurements made by LPW regardless of whether sufficiently
 183 large currents were observed such that a density could be derived from the measured I-V
 184 curve or not. The second, “derived data points,” represent measurements from which den-
 185 sities were derivable, corresponding to times when the thermal electron density was larger
 186 than $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Dividing the number of derived data points by the number of measurement
 187 points provides a percentage of how often a density can be derived from the measured I-V
 188 curves. The 4-year-long dataset consisted of 10^5 measurement points in the tail region. Of
 189 these 10^5 measurement points, $\sim 6 \times 10^4$ are derived data points. Since LPW is sensitive
 190 down to densities of a $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, we may lack measurements of the lowest densities.

191 Furthermore, each MAG and SWEA measurement were paired to a corresponding
 192 LPW measurement in time. Both MAG and SWEA operate at significantly faster cadences
 193 than LPW at high altitudes within the magnetotail region (128 s, compared to 2 s for SWEA
 194 and 32 s^{-1} for MAG).

195 Suprathermal electron energies and pitch-angle distributions measured by SWEA allow
 196 for the inference of magnetic topology based on three principles. First, the presence of a loss
 197 cone in one or both field-aligned directions indicates a magnetic field line intersects the colli-
 198 sional atmosphere once or twice. Thus, the field line is considered open or closed (e.g. *Brain*
 199 *et al. 2007*; *Xu et al. 2018b*; *Weber et al. 2017*). Second, ionospheric photoelectrons are ob-
 200 served in one or both field-aligned directions. This implies one or both footpoints of a field
 201 line are embedded in the dayside ionosphere, corresponding to either open or closed field
 202 topology (e.g. *Xu et al. 2017*). Finally, strong depletion of suprathermal electron flux, called
 203 “suprathermal electron voids,” signifies closed field lines with both footpoints intersecting
 204 the nightside ionosphere (e.g. *Mitchell et al. 2001*; *Steckiewicz et al. 2015*). Note, magnetic
 205 topology or footpoint(s) of a field line is defined with respect to the suprathermal electron
 206 exobase ($\sim 160 \text{ km}$, *Xu et al. 2016*). If none of the above is observed, then the field line is
 207 draped. The methodology of identifying photoelectrons and loss cones through MAVEN
 208 data are described in further detail in *Xu et al. [2017]* and *Weber et al. [2017]*, respectively.
 209 This study infers thermal electron origin (dayside versus nightside ionosphere) based on the
 210 magnetic topology identification method described by [*Xu et al., 2016, 2019*].

211 2.3 Example Data

212 Example MAVEN data are shown as a time series in Figure 2. The time series data
 213 span a period of 6 hours, which includes two periapsis passes at $\sim 15:00$ and $19:30$ UTC.
 214 These periapsis passes are located on the dayside of the planet and are characterized by typ-
 215 ical peak electron densities $\leq 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Figure 2B). Apoapsis occurs just after $17:00$ UTC

216 in the magnetotail region. MAVEN crosses into the planet’s optical shadow between 16:00
 217 and 17:30, as enclosed by the two vertical solid blue lines. The effect of the optical shadow is
 218 observed as a reduction of photoelectron-current in the LPW I-V sweeps (negative voltages,
 219 panel A) and a reduction of SWEA suprathermal electron flux (due to negative spacecraft
 220 potentials within the optical shadow, energies less than ~ 20 eV, panel D).

221 MAVEN crosses the magnetotail current sheet at about 17:00, as indicated by the
 222 change in sign of the magnetic field’s B_X component (panel C) (e.g. *DiBraccio et al.* 2015).
 223 Thermal ionospheric electrons are observed in the magnetotail region, as shown in panel
 224 B. The vertical dashed green lines mark an altitude of 600 km, the minimum altitude above
 225 which data were analyzed in this study. At high altitudes, the LPW data are measured at
 226 lower time cadences. This results in fewer I-V sweeps and density measurements at higher
 227 altitudes, as shown in panels A and B.

228 2.4 Removal of LPW Photoelectron signatures from LPW Densities

229 During LP operation mode, the Langmuir Probe sensor measures electrical current
 230 from a variety of sources, including thermal electrons, ions and photoelectrons emitted by
 231 the sensor when in sunlight. In sunlit conditions, the photoelectron current emitted by the
 232 LPW sensors can dominate the collected current, when the local thermal electron density
 233 is small. This results in a “background” derived thermal electron density of ~ 10 cm $^{-3}$. An
 234 example of this background density influenced by photoelectrons is shown in Figure 3 (A).
 235 The panel shows the number of LPW measurement points as functions of radial distance (ρ)
 236 from the center of the tail and their respective derived densities. Radial distances less than
 237 1 denote measurements made within Mars’ optical shadow, while measurements made at
 238 radial distances greater than 1 are made in sunlight. Within the optical shadow region (ρ
 239 < 1), an “artificial cutoff” at densities below $10^{0.5}$ cm $^{-3}$ demonstrates the lower measurement
 240 limit of the LPW instrument, when photo electrons are not present. Outside of the optical
 241 shadow ($\rho > 1$), there is a clear “background” of measured densities at ~ 10 cm $^{-3}$, which are
 242 a result of photoelectron currents dominating the collected current. The LPW instrument
 243 team previously investigated such cases in detail (not shown here) and confirmed that the
 244 photoelectron “background current” is equivalent to a density of about 10 cm $^{-3}$.

245 We correct the LPW thermal electron densities for this background photoelectron cur-
 246 rent before performing the analysis in Section 2.2. Derived densities measured in sunlight (ρ
 247 $> 1 R_M$) have 10 cm $^{-3}$ subtracted from their derived values, and the results of this correc-
 248 tion are shown in Figure 3 (B). The format is the same as for panel (A). For radial distances
 249 greater than 1, the transition to density values below 10 cm $^{-3}$ is now much smoother, indicat-
 250 ing that this background correction is successful.

251 3 Results

252 This study analyzes the spatial distribution of thermal electrons with respect to the flar-
 253 ing angle of the magnetic field and the magnetic field topology, in the magnetotail region.
 254 The flaring angle of the magnetic field was calculated based upon the relative angle between
 255 the local magnetic field vector and the anti-solar vector (-X) in the three-dimensional MSO
 256 coordinate system. The dashed red line and solid blue line in Figure 1 depict outward and
 257 inward flaring field, respectively (as projected onto the two-dimensional plane).

258 When combined with LPW density measurements, the flaring angle and topology pro-
 259 vide insight into the origin of the electrons measured on the field line, i.e. the nightside vs
 260 the dayside ionosphere. This study utilizes three primary magnetic field orientations: closed,
 261 open and draped, as described in section 2.2.

262 In addition to the magnetic field topology in the tail region, the effect of the Martian
 263 crustal magnetic field (e.g. *Acuna et al.* 1999) on the distribution of the thermal electrons

264 in the tail was also investigated. The location of the region which contains the strongest
 265 field (e.g. planetary longitudes of 180 degrees in the southern hemisphere - see *Acuna et al.*
 266 1999) with respect to the tail was analyzed when the thermal electron population was ob-
 267 served. To achieve this, the planetary longitude at which the sub-solar point is located at each
 268 MAVEN data point was calculated. Sub-solar longitude values close to 0 degrees indicate
 269 the strongest crustal fields are pointing sunward and sub-solar longitudes close to 180 de-
 270 grees indicate they are pointing tailward. Similarly, intermediate sub-solar longitude values
 271 of 90 degrees and 270 degrees, signify the strongest crustal fields are located at dawn and
 272 dusk, respectively.

273 Derived data points and measurement points were further binned based on sub-solar
 274 longitude into four sub-solar longitude bins ($0^\circ \pm 45^\circ$, $90^\circ \pm 45^\circ$, $180^\circ \pm 45^\circ$ and $270^\circ \pm$
 275 45°), corresponding to strong crustal fields located at midnight, dawn, noon, and dusk. This
 276 was done regardless of whether the measurements belong to region X1 or X2 to ensure ade-
 277 quate sampling statistics.

278 **3.1 Statistics and the Influence of the Magnetic Field Flaring Angle**

279 **3.1.1 Region X1: $-1.5 < X < 0$**

280 The statistics of the data and measurement points in region X1 of this study are pre-
 281 sented in Figure 4. Plotted against ρ , panel (A) shows the number of derived data points,
 282 panel (B) shows the number of measurement points, panel (C) shows the percent likelihood
 283 of observing a density, i.e. panel (A) divided by panel (B), and panel (D) shows the mean
 284 densities for times when densities are observed, i.e. panel (A). The solid blue line indicates
 285 an inward flaring field and the dashed red line indicates an outward flaring field.

286 LPW sampled the tail up to 10^4 times during the observed time interval, depending
 287 on ρ , and the largest number of data points are made for $\rho > 1$. A significant number of de-
 288 rived data points are still observed in the central tail region (Figure 4A), and the likelihood of
 289 LPW observing thermal electrons is roughly constant at $\sim 30\%$ for $0.5 < \rho < 1$ (Figure 4C).
 290 Thermal electrons are most likely to be observed near the optical shadow ($\rho \sim 1$), and this
 291 likelihood then decreases with increasing ρ .

292 Figure 4D shows mean electron density (when electrons are observed, i.e. Figure 4A)
 293 peaks at $\sim 100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ just outside of the optical shadow, $\rho \sim 1.2$. Densities within the opti-
 294 cal shadow ($\rho < 1$) are typically a few 10^2 's to 50 cm^{-3} . The error bars in panel (D) show the
 295 standard deviation of each bin's measurements; they demonstrate high measurement variabil-
 296 ity, with standard deviations of $\sim 100\%$ in most bins. Standard deviations were calculated by
 297 calculating the standard deviation of all the measurements in each ρ bin.

298 The red and blue lines in Figure 4 show that the magnetic field orientation does not
 299 significantly affect the likelihood of LPW observing electrons in region X1 (4C), nor does it
 300 affect the observed average densities in each bin (4D).

301 **3.1.2 Region X2: $-3 < X < -1.5$**

302 The statistics for region X2 are shown in Figure 5, which shows distinct differences
 303 to region X1. The likelihood of observing thermal electrons is roughly constant for $\rho < 1$,
 304 compared to a decreasing likelihood for $\rho < 0.5$ in region X1. Average densities are typically
 305 smaller in X2 than X1 (not exceeding $\sim 30 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on average), and are roughly constant as ρ
 306 increases.

307 In general, a greater number measurement and derived data points occur when the field
 308 flares outward, suggesting that (as expected) the field tends to be in an outward flaring con-
 309 figuration more often than an inward one, particularly at greater distance down the tail (i.e.
 310 region X2). Within $\rho < 1$, densities are more likely to be observed when the magnetic field

311 flares inward (blue line, Figure 5C), though this difference is small, $\sim 10\%$, between outward
312 and inward flaring fields.

313 **3.2 The Influence of Magnetic Field Topology**

314 Figures 6-7 show the likelihood of MAVEN observing thermal electrons as functions
315 of the magnetic field flaring direction and magnetic topology. Note that the sum of all panels
316 for a given ρ is less than one hundred percent because the SWEA analysis routine cannot
317 always reliably determine the topology. These “unknown” topologies were excluded in this
318 section of analysis.

319 **3.2.1 Region X1: $-1.5 < X < 0$**

320 The flaring direction and topology of the magnetic field influences the location where
321 thermal electrons are observed, as shown in Figure 6. Panels A-C show that thermal elec-
322 trons on an outward flaring field are most likely to be observed at the largest values of ρ , re-
323 gardless of field topology. For inward pointing, open and closed field lines (panels A and B),
324 electrons are most likely observed at and just past the optical shadow ($\rho \sim 1-1.2$), observed at
325 a peak of $\sim 25\%$ of the time. Electrons on open, inward pointing field lines are observed more
326 frequently for $\rho < 1$ (panel 6A). Electrons are most consistently observed on outward draped
327 field lines at the largest values of ρ (panel 6C), although they are also observed for a signifi-
328 cant fraction of the time on an inward pointing, draped field for $\rho < 1$.

329 The magnetic field flaring angle and source region for observed thermal electrons (e.g.
330 day or nightside ionosphere) also strongly influence where such electrons are observed, as
331 shown in Figure 7. Electrons observed on open field lines originating from the dayside iono-
332 sphere (panel A) are most likely to be observed at $\rho > \sim 1$, particularly when the field is flared
333 outward. In contrast, electrons sourced from the nightside ionosphere (panel B) are most
334 likely to be observed at $\rho < 1$. Electrons observed on closed field lines (panel C) demonstrate
335 similar patterns to those on open field lines (panel A). Electrons on an inward pointing field
336 are most likely to be observed just past the optical shadow at $\rho = 1-1.2$, while electrons on an
337 outward flaring field are observed at equal likelihood for all large values of ρ . Electrons ob-
338 served on closed field lines originating from the nightside ionosphere (panel D) show similar
339 behavior to panel B, albeit at much smaller likelihoods of observation.

340 **3.2.2 Region X2: $-3 < X < -1.5$**

341 Figure 8 demonstrates that the flaring direction of the magnetic field can significantly
342 influence where thermal electrons are observed on open field lines in region X2. Panel A
343 shows that electrons are observed with $\sim 30-40\%$ likelihood at $\rho > \sim 0.8$ when the field flares
344 outward, compared to a peak of $\sim 20\%$ at the center of the tail when the field flares inward.
345 Electrons are less likely to be observed on closed field lines in general in region X2 com-
346 pared to X1 (Figure 8B versus 6B), which is perhaps not unexpected given that region X2
347 lies further downtail away from the closed crustal magnetic fields whose influences are stronger
348 closer to the planet. The presence of outward flared field in region X2 still leads to a greater
349 likelihood of observation at higher ρ . Electrons observed on draped field lines in region X2
350 (Figure 8C) are observed at similar likelihoods (as a function of ρ) to region X1 (Figure 6C).

351 Investigating the source regions for thermal electrons observed in region X2 further
352 demonstrates the clear impact that the magnetic field flaring direction has on the likelihood
353 of observing these electrons. Figure 9 A and B show that thermal electrons are more likely
354 to be observed at large ρ when the field flares outward, for field lines connected to the day or
355 nightside ionosphere. Inward field connected to the nightside ionosphere (panel B) clearly
356 influences where thermal electrons are likely to be observed, with electrons most likely to be
357 observed in the central tail region, similar to region X1. Figure 9C and D again show that
358 electrons are not often observed on closed field lines in region X2 ($\sim < 10\%$ of the time).

359 When such conditions exist, electrons are more likely to be observed at larger ρ when on
360 outward flared field.

361 3.3 The Influence of Strong Crustal Magnetic Fields

362 The influence of the location of the strongest crustal magnetic fields on the likelihood
363 of observing thermal electrons in the magnetotail is shown in Figure 10. For simplicity, we
364 define the strongest crustal fields simply as those located at 180 degrees planetary longitude
365 in the southern hemisphere (e.g. *Acuna et al.* 1999). Panel (A) shows the likelihood of LPW
366 observing thermal electrons, while panel (B) shows the mean densities observed; both as a
367 function of ρ . The green (yellow) line denotes when the strongest crustal fields are located at
368 a sub solar longitude of 0 (180) degrees - pointing sunward (tailward) on the day (night) side
369 of the planet. The gray lines denote sub solar longitudes of 90 or 270 degrees, i.e. dawn or
370 dusk. Data are combined for regions X1 and X2 to ensure adequate sampling statistics.

371 The location of the strongest crustal fields does not appear to drastically alter the loca-
372 tion, likelihood nor mean densities at which thermal electrons are observed in the magneto-
373 tail. Panel (A) shows that for all crustal field locations, thermal electrons are most likely to
374 be observed just outside of the optical shadow, for ρ between $\sim 1R_M$ and $1.3R_M$. The panel
375 shows that when the strongest crustal fields are located on the dayside (green line), electrons
376 are observed at slightly greater likelihoods outside of the optical shadow ($\rho > 1$), but con-
377 versely at lesser likelihoods for $\rho < 1$. These differences in likelihood are however small, usu-
378 ally less than 5%. The average thermal electron densities observed as a function of ρ (panel
379 B) are also similar for each crustal field location. Large variations are again observed within
380 each bin, similar to Figures 4D and 5D.

381 4 Discussion

382 The LPW observations analyzed in this study show that thermal electrons are observed
383 with relatively high frequency in the magnetotail region of Mars: with typical likelihoods of
384 $\sim 40\%$ in region X1 close to Mars, and likelihoods of $\sim 20\%$ further down the tail in region
385 X2. These thermal electrons originate from the planetary ionosphere, and their presence in
386 the magnetotail is suggestive that they may be contributing to ionospheric escape. The like-
387 lihood of LPW observing thermal electrons within the Martian magnetotail varies as a func-
388 tion of both distance down the tail, and cylindrical distance from the center of tail. Figure 4
389 shows that closer to the planet in region X1, thermal electrons are most likely to be observed
390 just outside of the optical shadow, at ρ values $\sim 1R_M - 1.3R_M$. Magnetic field topology in-
391 formation in Figure 6 shows that electrons observed just past the optical shadow are equally
392 likely to be on open or closed magnetic field lines close to the planet. In contrast, thermal
393 electrons are most likely to be observed inside of the optical shadow in region X2 ($\rho < 1$)
394 (Figure 5).

395 Within the optical shadow region (ρ values < 1), thermal electrons are observed at
396 roughly constant likelihood as a function of ρ for both tail regions, although thermal elec-
397 trons are roughly twice as likely to be observed in region X1 compared to X2 (Figures 4 and
398 5). Additionally, electron densities are on average factors of $\sim 2-5$ larger in region X1 com-
399 pared to region X2, depending upon the ρ values being considered. One possible explanation
400 for these differences is that as thermal electrons move tailward, they can be energized to ener-
401 gies greater than ~ 1 eV, and subsequently cannot be measured by the LPW instrument. Var-
402 ious ion acceleration mechanisms are known to act in the Martian magnetotail (for example,
403 ambi-polar fields [*Collinson et al.*, 2015; *Ergun*, 2016; *Xu et al.*, 2018b], JxB forces [*Halekas*
404 *et al.*, 2017], and magnetic reconnection [*Harada et al.*, 2015b; *Harada*, 2017]). It is not un-
405 likely that a range of mechanisms also exist that accelerate electrons in the tail region. Such
406 suprathermal electrons can be measured by the SWEA instrument on board MAVEN, and we
407 leave it to future work to examine the specific electron acceleration mechanisms active within
408 the magnetotail region at Mars.

409 The local magnetic field direction plays an important role influencing where thermal
 410 electrons are likely to be observed, regardless of distance down the tail. When the local mag-
 411 netic field flares outward compared to inward (red vs blue lines, Figures 4-9), thermal elec-
 412 trons are more likely to be observed at large values of ρ (>1) for all magnetic field topolo-
 413 gies. This behavior can be explained by the fact that the magnetotail plasma environment is
 414 collisionless and electron motion is subsequently dominated by the local magnetic field di-
 415 rection.

416 The ionospheric source regions that the local magnetic fields connect to also play an
 417 important role in driving the spatial distribution of observed thermal electrons. When ther-
 418 mal electrons are observed on open or closed magnetic field lines, they are sourced primarily
 419 from the dayside ionosphere when observed outside of the optical shadow ($\rho >1$), while they
 420 are sourced primarily from the nightside ionosphere within the optical shadow ($\rho <1$). This
 421 behavior is observed in regions X1 and X2 (Figures 7 and 9). Such a dependence on source
 422 region demonstrates that open and closed magnetic fields anchored in the dayside ionosphere
 423 “drape” across the terminator into the magnetotail region, such that ionospheric thermal elec-
 424 trons are able travel along these fields lines into the magnetotail region. This behavior likely
 425 explains why the largest thermal electron densities are observed at $\rho \sim 1-1.3$. This region
 426 is where the magnetic field is most likely to be connected to the dayside ionosphere, where
 427 ionospheric densities are large. Open and closed magnetic fields anchored to the nightside
 428 ionosphere extend tailward within the shadow of the planet, leading to the observed spatial
 429 distributions of thermal electrons. These interpretations are consistent with magnetohydro-
 430 dynamic (MHD) simulations of the Martian magnetosphere (e.g. *Fang et al.* 2018) and its
 431 magnetic environment.

432 Interestingly, and somewhat surprisingly, the locations of the strongest crustal magnetic
 433 fields do not appear to strongly influence the spatial distribution nor average densities of ther-
 434 mal electrons in the magnetotail region. It is well known that the strongest crustal fields in-
 435 fluence the structure and density of the ionosphere at low altitudes (e.g. *Withers et al.* 2005;
 436 *Andrews et al.* 2015). A possible explanation for the lack of clear crustal field influence in
 437 this study is that the crustal field strengths are significantly reduced at the altitudes studied
 438 here (greater than 600 km), and effects are either negligible, or are “smeared” out over the
 439 larger volume of the magnetotail region, compared to the lower ionosphere.

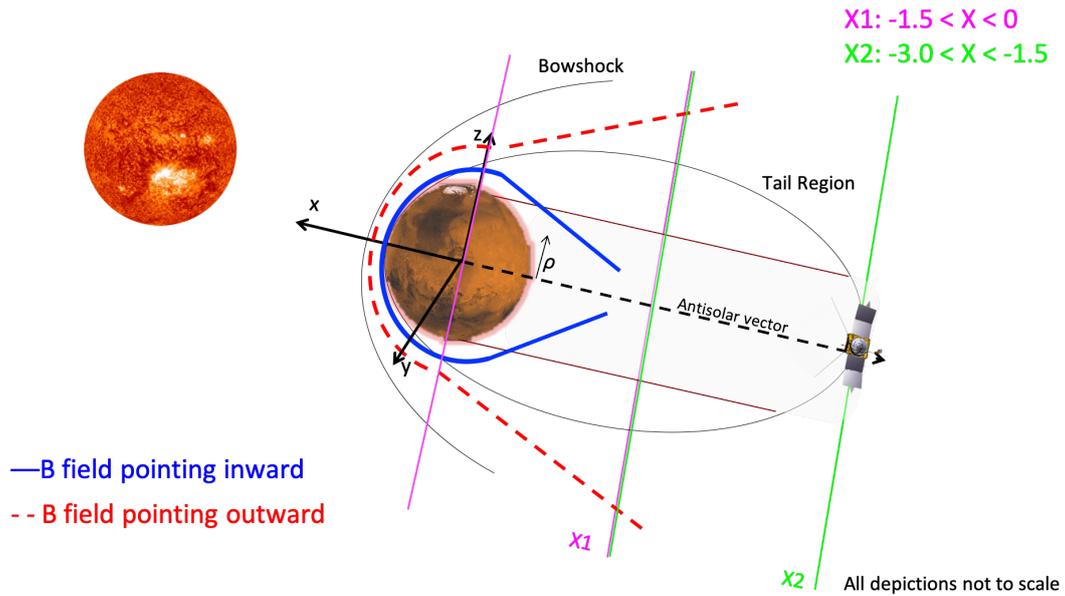
440 An important caveat to bear in mind when considering the interpretations and implica-
 441 tions of this study is that the LPW instrument is only sensitive to electron populations with
 442 densities greater than about 15 cm^{-3} and temperatures less than about 1 eV. As such, the very
 443 lowest density populations may not be included here. Furthermore, the LPW instrument is
 444 not capable of determining the bulk flow direction of measured thermal electrons; therefore,
 445 we cannot produce an estimate of thermal electron escape rates without assuming a flow di-
 446 rection and speed.

447 5 Conclusions

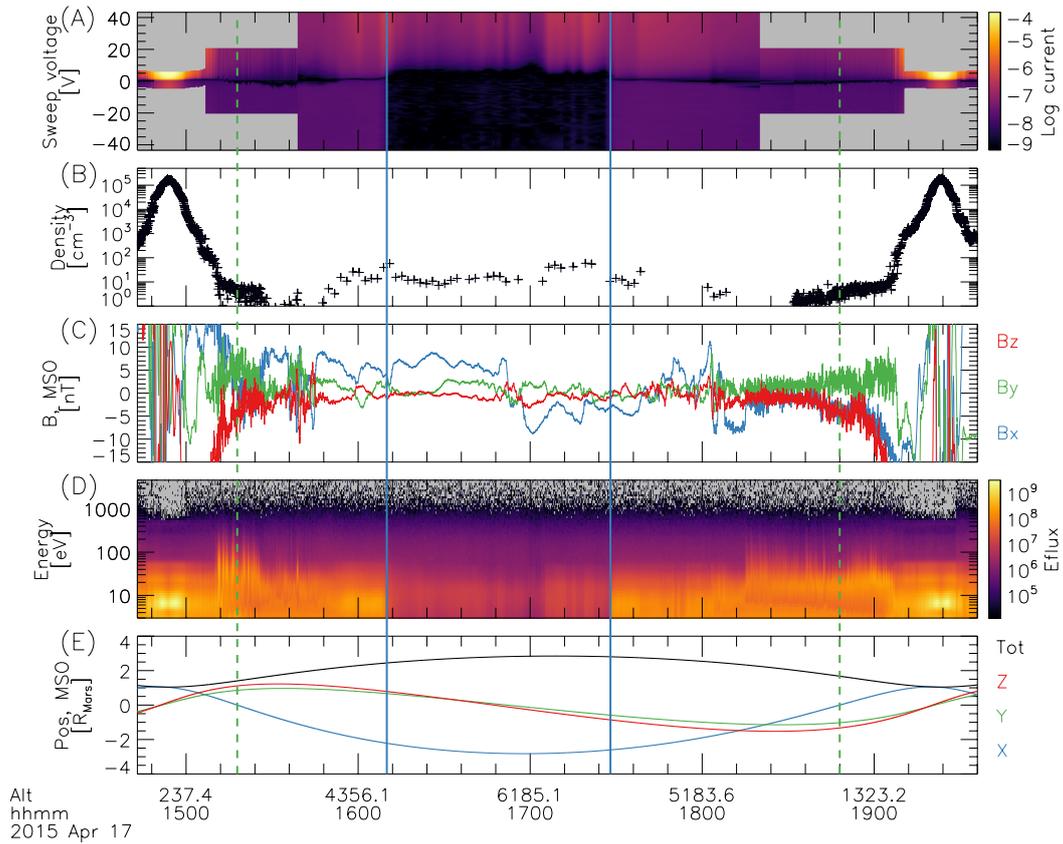
448 This study presents the first detailed analysis of the spatial distribution of thermal (<1
 449 eV) electrons in the Martian magnetotail as observed by the Langmuir Probes and Waves in-
 450 strument on the MAVEN spacecraft. The thermal nature of the observed electrons means
 451 that they are sourced from the planetary ionosphere. The presented analysis yields insight
 452 into the thermal plasma structure of the Martian magnetotail region and electron source re-
 453 gions.

454 The spatial distribution of observed thermal electrons varies with both distance down
 455 the tail and cylindrical distance from the center of the tail. We have shown that the local
 456 magnetic field flaring direction plays an important role in driving the spatial distribution,
 457 with thermal electrons more likely to be observed at greater cylindrical distances for out-
 458 ward flaring field. Additionally, we have shown that the ionospheric regions to which the

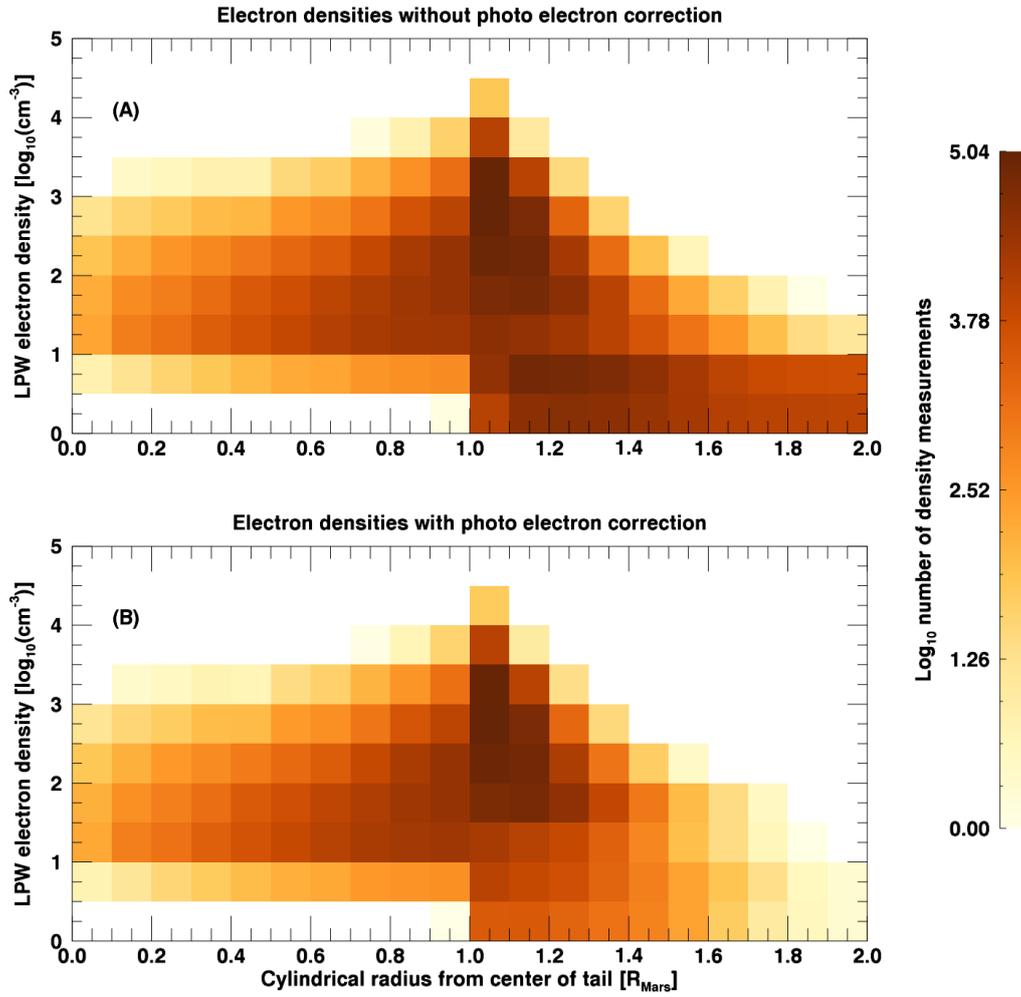
459 local magnetic field connects to also drives the spatial distribution of thermal electrons in the
 460 magnetotail. Broadly speaking, thermal electrons observed within the optical shadow behind
 461 Mars are typically sourced from the nightside ionosphere, while thermal electrons observed
 462 outside of the optical shadow region tend to be sourced from the dayside ionosphere. The lo-
 463 cations of the strongest crustal magnetic fields (i.e. sunward or tailward pointing) do not ap-
 464 pear to significantly influence the distribution of thermal electrons, a somewhat unexpected
 465 result that may be related to the relatively high altitude range covered by this study. The ob-
 466 servations presented here demonstrate the importance of the magnetic field in structuring the
 467 plasma environment of the Martian magnetotail, a characteristic that is likely applicable to
 468 other unmagnetized bodies such as Venus and comets.



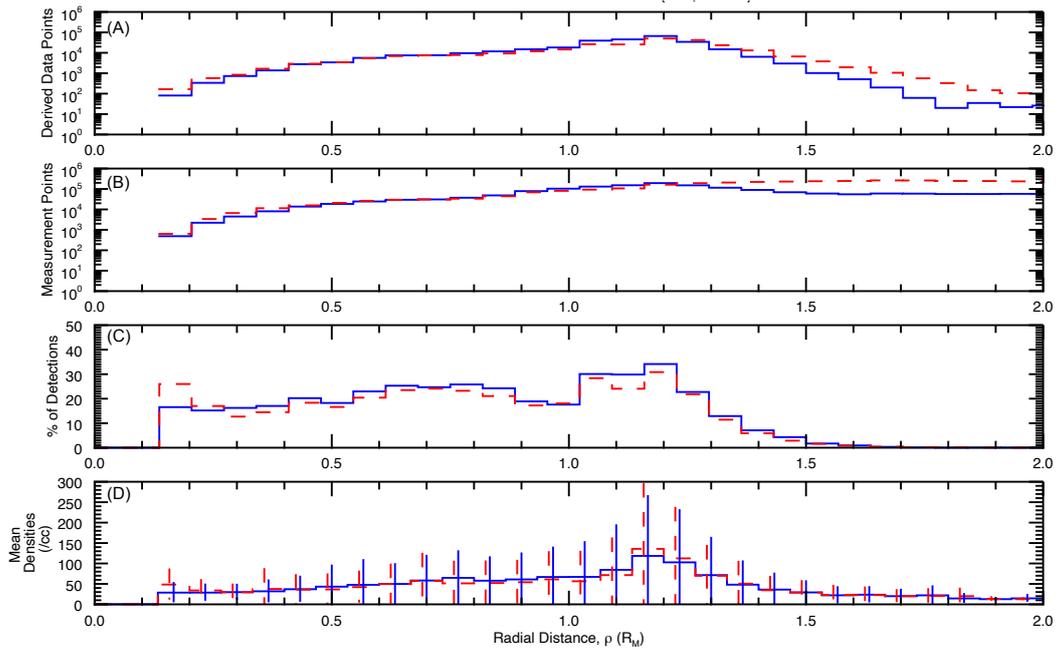
469 **Figure 1.** Cartoon depicting the tail region. ρ is the cylindrical distance from the center of the tail, defined
 470 as $\rho = \sqrt{Y^2 + Z^2}$ in the MSO coordinate system. The relative angle between the magnetic field vector and the
 471 anti-solar vector determines the flare orientation, as described in sections 2.2 and 3.



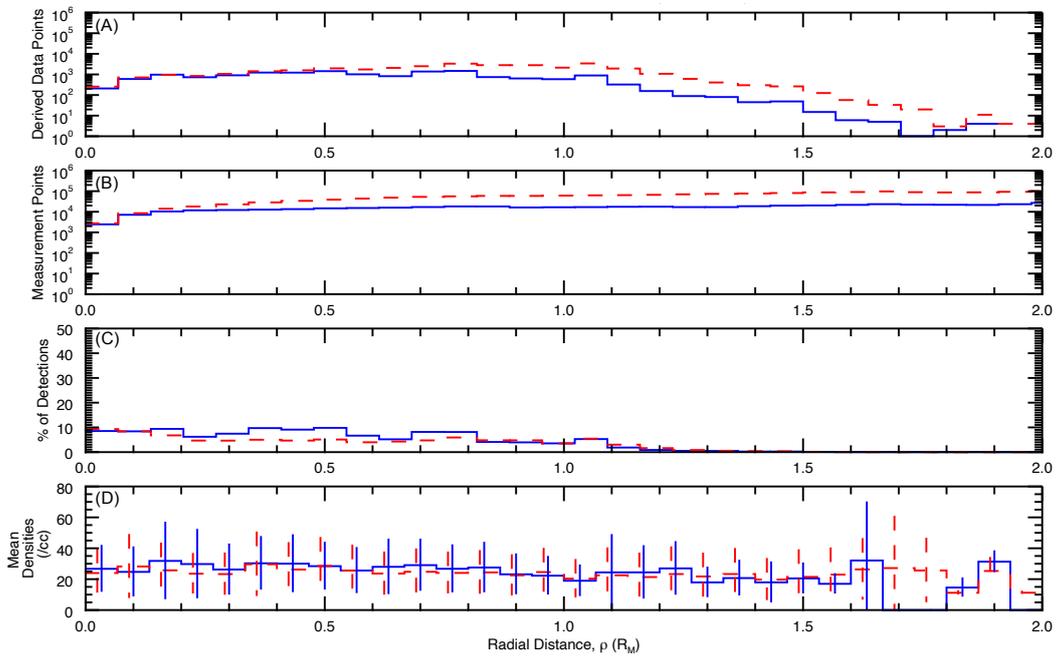
472 **Figure 2.** One MAVEN orbit while the spacecraft was present in the tail region. The top panel (A) shows
 473 LPW I-V sweeps with voltage on the Y-axis and the log of the absolute value current in the Z-axis, thermal
 474 electron densities derived from the I-V sweeps are in panel (B). The 3D MAG data in the MSO frame (C).
 475 SWEA suprathermal electron spectrum (D). MAVEN position and altitude (black line) in the MSO frame;
 476 altitudes values (km) printed underneath (E). The dashed green lines mark altitudes of 600 km and the solid
 477 blue lines enclose the optical shadow, which extends to $\rho \sim 1$.



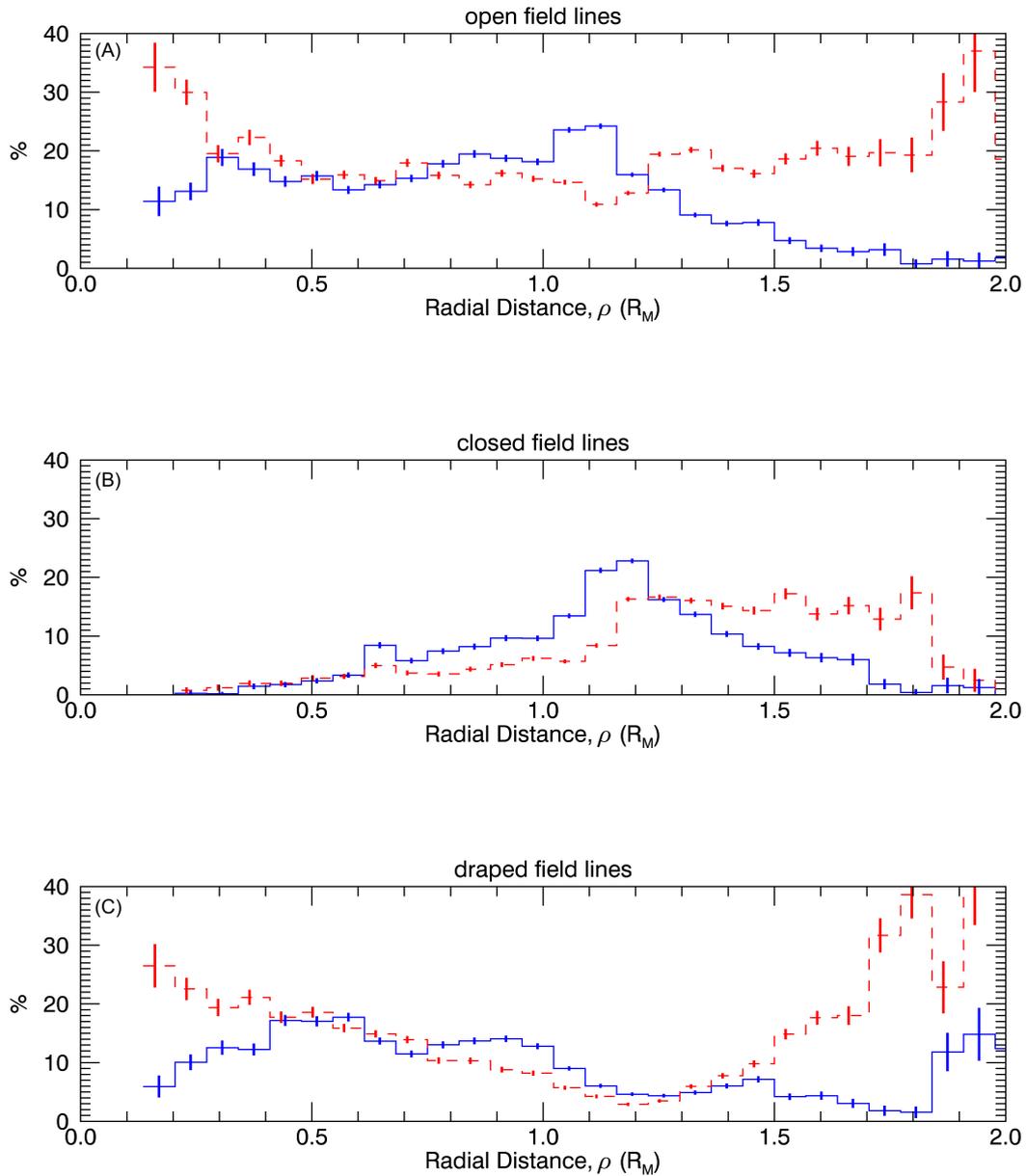
478 **Figure 3.** The number of LPW derived data points as a function of radial distance (ρ) from the center of the
 479 tail and their respective derived densities. Panel (A) shows the measurement points without the photoelectron
 480 correction and panel (B) shows the measurement points with the 10cm^3 photoelectron current correction
 481 applied.



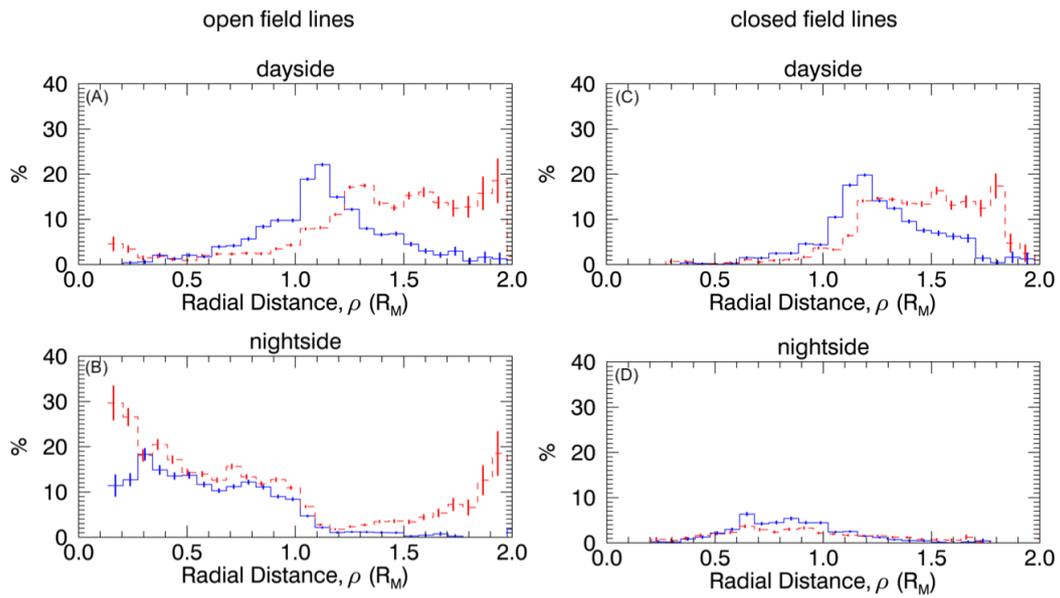
482 **Figure 4.** The number of derived data points (A) and measurement points (B), the likelihood of observing a
 483 density– (panel (A) / panel (B)), (C) and the mean densities (D) for all ρ in **region X1**. The blue line indicates
 484 the magnetic field flares inward and the dashed red line indicates the field flares outward. Error bars on (D)
 485 are the standard deviations of each bin.



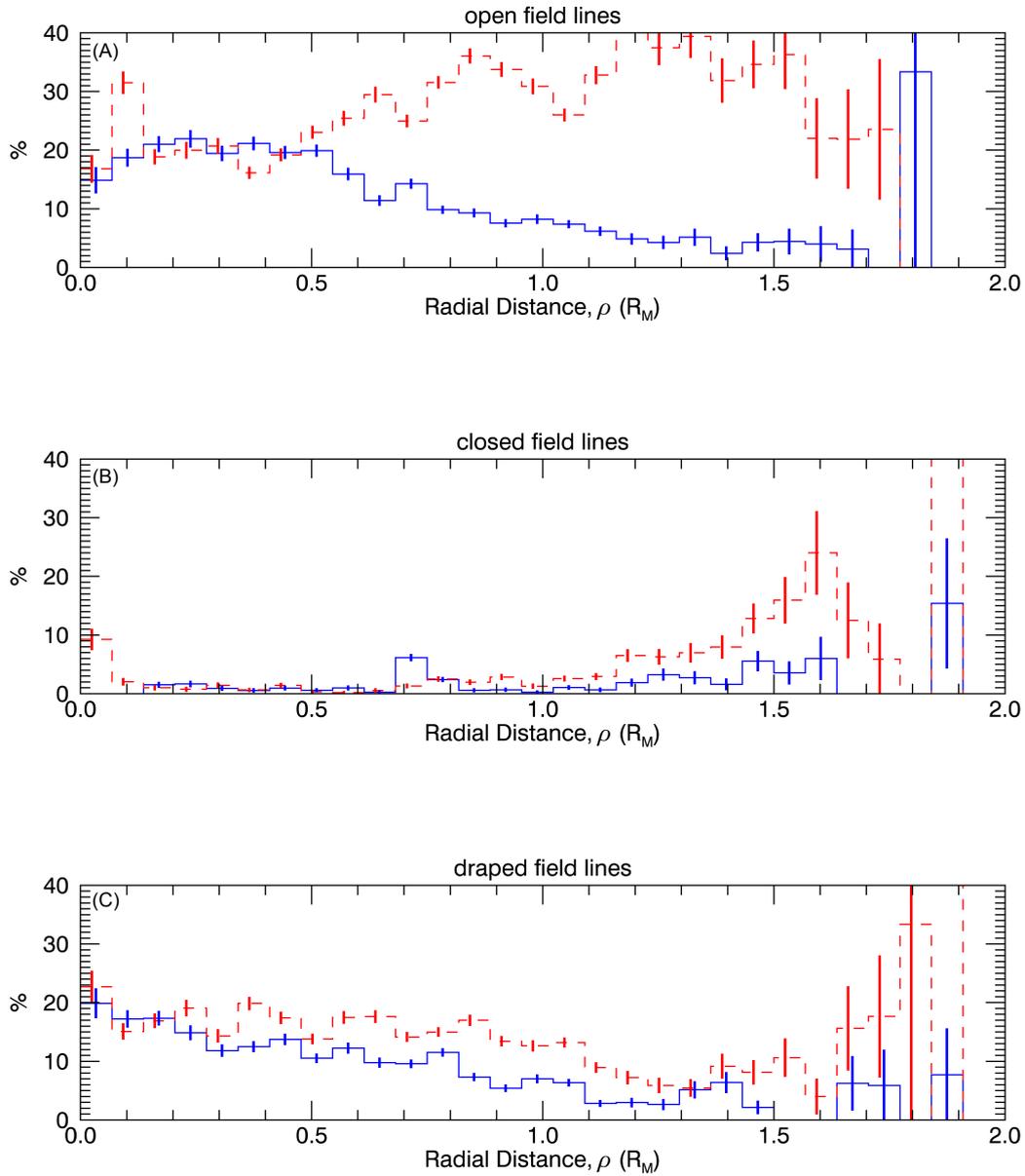
486 **Figure 5.** The number of derived data points (A) and measurement points (B), the likelihood of observing
 487 a density– (panel (A) / panel (B)), (C), and the mean densities (D) for all ρ in **region X2**. The blue line indi-
 488 cates the magnetic field flares inward and the dashed red line indicates the field flares outward. Error bars on
 489 (d) are the standard deviations of each bin.



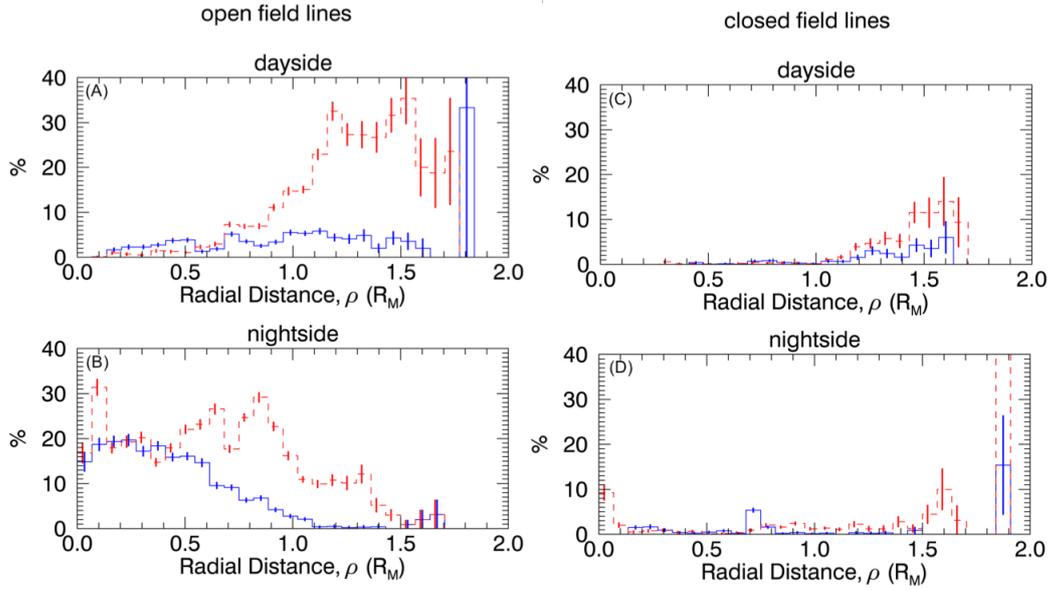
490 **Figure 6.** The likelihood of observing electrons on open (A), closed (B), and draped (C) field lines in
 491 **region X1.** Red lines indicate the magnetic field lines flare outward and blue lines indicate the field flares
 492 inward. Error bars represent the counting uncertainties in each bin (i.e. \sqrt{N} , where N is the number of mea-
 493 surements in each bin).



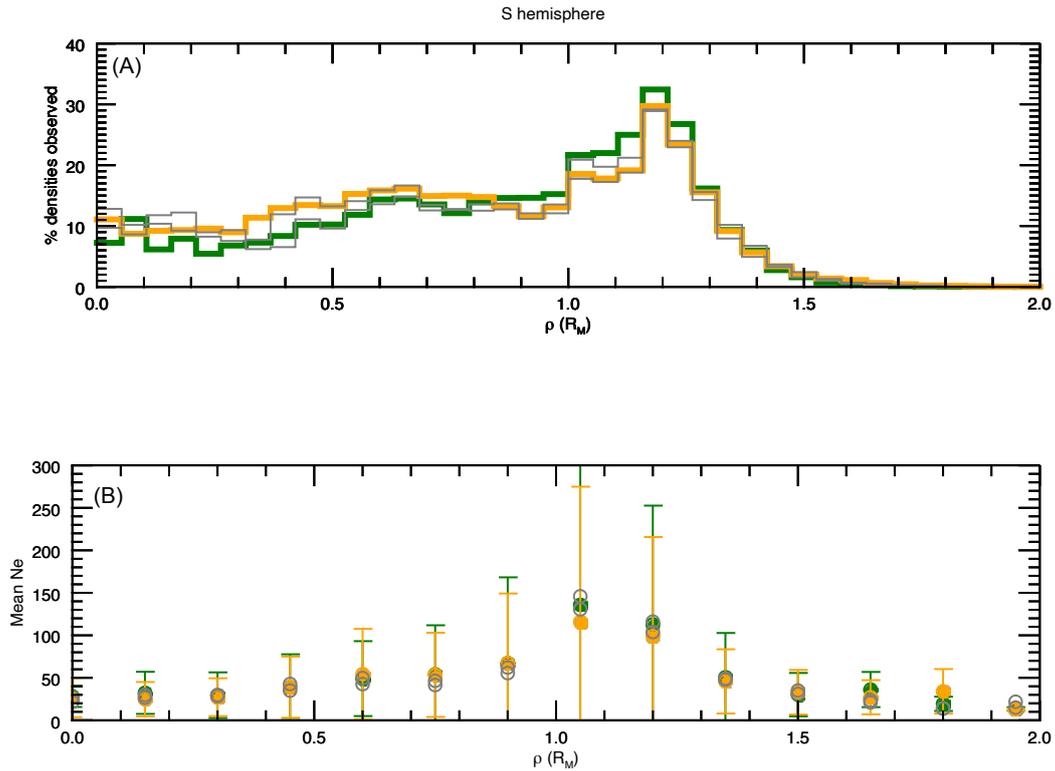
494 **Figure 7.** The likelihood of observing electrons on open and closed field lines in region X1 that are con-
 495 nected to the dayside (A and C) and nightside (B and D) of Mars in **region X1**. Red lines indicate the mag-
 496 netic field lines flare outward and blue lines indicate the field flares inward. Error bars represent the counting
 497 errors in each bin.



498 **Figure 8.** The likelihood of observing electrons on open (A), closed (B), and draped (C) field lines in
 499 **region X2.** Red lines indicate the magnetic field lines flare outward and blue lines indicate the field flares
 500 inward. Error bars represent the counting errors in each bin.



501 **Figure 9.** The likelihood of observing electrons on open and closed field lines in region X2 that are con-
 502 nected to the dayside (A and C) and nightside (B and D). Red lines indicate the magnetic field lines flare
 503 outward and blue lines indicate the field flares inward. Error bars are the counting errors in each bin.



504 **Figure 10.** The likelihood of observing thermal electrons in the southern hemisphere tail region ($Z_{MSO} < 0$) based on the location of the strongest crustal fields (A). Yellow lines and dots correspond to the strongest
 505 crustal fields pointing tailward (subsolar longitude = 180°), green corresponds to the strongest crustal fields
 506 pointing sunward (subsolar longitude = 0°), and gray corresponds to dawn and dusk-ward orientation of the
 507 crustal fields. Mean densities are presented for each crustal field orientation (B).
 508

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1 **The influence of magnetic field topology and orientation on the**
2 **distribution of thermal electrons in the Martian magnetotail**

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8 **Key Points:**

- 9 • The local magnetic topology, flaring angle, and location of the crustal fields influence
10 the thermal electron structure in the magnetotail
11 • Close to the planet, thermal electrons are most likely observed just outside the optical
12 shadow in the magnetotail, peaking at ~35%
13 • Thermal electrons are 10-20% more likely to be observed, in the central tail, when the
14 strongest crustal fields point sunward than tailward

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Abstract

Thermal (<1 eV) electron density measurements, derived from the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution's (MAVEN) Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) instrument, are analyzed to produce the first statistical study of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. Coincident measurements of the local magnetic field are used to demonstrate that close to Mars, the thermal electron population is most likely to be observed at a cylindrical distance of ~ 1.1 Mars radii (R_M) from the central tail region during times when the magnetic field flares inward toward the central tail, compared to $\sim 1.3 R_M$ during times when the magnetic field flares outward away from the central tail. Similar patterns are observed further down the magnetotail with greater variability. Thermal electron densities are highly variable throughout the magnetotail; average densities are typically ~ 20 - 50 cm^{-3} within the optical shadow of Mars and can peak at ~ 100 cm^{-3} just outside of the optical shadow. Standard deviations of 100% are observed for average densities measured throughout the tail. Analysis of the local magnetic field topology suggests that thermal electrons observed within the optical shadow of Mars are likely sourced from the nightside ionosphere, whereas electrons observed just outside of the optical shadow are likely sourced from the dayside ionosphere. Finally, thermal electrons within the optical shadow of Mars are up to 20% more likely to be observed when the strongest crustal magnetic fields point sunward than when they point tailward.

1 Introduction

Mars lacks an intrinsic dipole magnetic field and the interaction between the planet's atmosphere and solar wind results in the formation of a partially induced magnetosphere that acts to stand off and deflect the supersonic solar wind flow around the planetary obstacle [Luhmann *et al.*, 1991; Brain *et al.*, 2003; Bertucci *et al.*, 2011]. The interplanetary magnetic field (IMF) drapes about the planet's dayside, leading to a formation of a flared "wake" behind the planet, similar to Venus, comets, and other unmagnetized bodies (e.g. Vaisberg and Smirnov 1986; Luhmann *et al.* 1991; Zakharov 1992; Israelevich *et al.* 1994). Analysis of the structure and dynamics of the magnetotail region inform us of the interaction between the planet and the supersonic solar wind. Planetary ions have also been observed traveling tailward within the wake [Lundin and Dubinin, 1992], and thus understanding magnetotail dynamics is essential to understanding the global structure of the induced Martian magnetosphere and ion loss to space.

Early Mars orbiters, such as the Phobos spacecraft, demonstrated that the Martian tail is a two-lobe structure whose polarity and orientation depends on the upstream solar wind orientation [Yeroshenko *et al.*, 1990], similar to the Venusian magnetotail [Vaisberg and Smirnov, 1986]. Data from the Mariner 4, Mars 2, 3, 5, Phobos and Mars Global Surveyor (MGS) spacecraft missions show the shape and extent of the Martian magnetotail is highly variable (e.g. Slavin *et al.* 1991; Vignes *et al.* 2000), and the flaring angle of the tail depends on the upstream solar wind pressure [Zhang *et al.*, 1994].

Later spacecraft, including MGS, Mars Express (MEX) and the Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution (MAVEN) mission, have enhanced these early observations, demonstrating that a current sheet separates both tail lobes, as expected for an induced magnetotail produced by the draping of the IMF about the dayside of the planet [Ferguson *et al.*, 2005].

Halekas *et al.* 2006 have also shown that MGS global current sheet crossings at 400 km altitude occur everywhere (including the dayside) except over the strong Martian crustal magnetic fields. Such crossings occur at locations that vary with Mars season and upstream IMF orientation. The magnetotail region has been observed to be at times highly dynamic. Evidence of magnetic reconnection occurring in the tail region has been reported using both MGS and MAVEN data (e.g. DiBraccio *et al.* 2015; Halekas *et al.* 2009; Eastwood *et al.* 2012; Harada *et al.* 2015a), while the repetitive loading and unloading of magnetic flux in

65 the magnetotail region is akin to sub-storm activity within intrinsic magnetospheres (e.g. *Di-*
66 *Braccio et al.* 2015). *DiBraccio et al.* 2018 also demonstrated that the magnetotail lobes typ-
67 ically exhibit a 45 degree twist relative to upstream IMF orientations, a characteristic thought
68 to be strongly influenced by dayside reconnection between the draped IMF and planetary
69 crustal magnetic fields. *Xu et al.* 2020 compared the tail topology determined from mag-
70 netohydrodynamic (MHD) simulations to that inferred from MAVEN data and how each
71 topology responds to the upstream IMF orientation. Their results support the hypothesis that
72 magnetic reconnection between crustal magnetic sources and the solar wind is responsible
73 for the observed twist in Mars's tail lobes.

74 Planetary ions have been observed in the magnetotail by multiple spacecraft, and have
75 been used to infer the existence of various plasma acceleration mechanisms and subsequent
76 plasma outflow from Mars. Ion data from the Analyzer of Space Plasmas and Energetic
77 Atoms (ASPERA) instruments on Phobos 2 and MEX show highly variable O⁺ fluxes, par-
78 ticularly in the central tail region, and these fluxes are likely driven by a variety of ion ac-
79 celeration mechanisms. Some processes are similar to those that exist in the terrestrial magne-
80 totail and others are different [*Lundin et al.*, 1989; *Kallio et al.*, 1995; *Lundin and Barabash*,
81 2004; *Fedorov et al.*, 2006; *Lundin et al.*, 2008]. Magnetic field and suprathermal electron
82 measurements from the MGS spacecraft show that detached magnetic structures intermit-
83 tently exist in the Martian tail region and contain planetary plasma. Such structures are thought
84 to be caused by the stretching of crustal magnetic fields via their interaction with the solar
85 wind in the tail region, until magnetic reconnection occurs, detaching part of the crustal field,
86 which is then convected down the tail region [*Brain et al.*, 2010].

87 Initial MAVEN estimates of planetary ion escape rates for ions with energies > 25 eV
88 from Mars generally agree with earlier studies, demonstrating that tailward ion escape in
89 the magnetotail region can contribute significantly to the total escaping flux from the planet
90 [*Brain et al.*, 2015; *Dong et al.*, 2015]. MAVEN observations of enhanced ionospheric elec-
91 tron temperatures above the exobase region suggest that ambi-polar electric fields can be an
92 important ion acceleration mechanism at Mars, providing up to ~1 eV of energy to planetary
93 ions [*Xu et al.*, 2018a; *Collinson et al.*, 2019; *Akbari et al.*, 2019]. Such energy is close to the
94 escape energy for heavy ions to overcome Mars' relatively weak gravitational potential and
95 drive ion outflow on open magnetic field lines that connect the ionosphere to the solar wind.
96 Numerical simulations have explicitly shown that ion outflow can be significantly enhanced
97 by such ambi-polar electric fields at Mars [*Ergun et al.*, 2016]. MHD modelling of the Mar-
98 tian magnetosphere, for example, has shown that draped field lines exist in abundance in the
99 magnetotail region [*Ma et al.*, 2002, 2004; *Fang et al.*, 2018].

100 Instrument limitations make it difficult to study the thermal (< few eV energy) plasma
101 environment in the Martian magnetotail with electrostatic analyzers. The arrival of the MAVEN
102 spacecraft at Mars in September 2014 [*Jakosky et al.*, 2015] presented an additional method
103 to observe the planet's low energy thermal plasma environment, in the form of the Langmuir
104 Probe and Waves (LPW) instrument. LPW measurements enable a derivation of the local,
105 thermal (<1 eV) electron density, and this study presents, to our knowledge, the first statisti-
106 cal analysis of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. We demonstrate
107 that the location at which thermal electrons are observed within the magnetotail is highly
108 dependent upon the orientation of the local magnetic field, whether it connects to the day
109 or night side ionosphere, and the location of the strongest crustal fields. Section 2 describes
110 the dataset and analysis methods utilized in this study; results are presented in Section 3 and
111 discussed in 4. We conclude in Section 5.

2 Data and Methodology

2.1 Instruments

The MAVEN spacecraft entered into an elliptical orbit about Mars in September 2014 [Jakosky *et al.*, 2015]. The orbit precesses such that MAVEN samples all local times, longitudes, and latitudes. The rate of orbital precession results in coverage of the Martian magnetotail roughly every 3-4 months, for about one month each time. The data used in this study are taken from such “tail seasons.” Data from several instruments were utilized in this study. These include the Langmuir Probe and Waves (LPW) [Andersson *et al.*, 2015], Magnetometer (MAG) [Connerney *et al.*, 2015], and Solar Wind Electron Analyzer (SWEA) [Mitchell *et al.*, 2016].

LPW consists of two Langmuir probes, each mounted on the end of ~7m booms and separated by an angular distance of 110 degrees. The instrument can operate as a Langmuir probe (“when in LP mode”) or as an electric field instrument (“when in waves mode”). During LP mode, the Langmuir Probes measure (alternating in time) the current and voltage (I-V) characteristics of the local plasma environment. The density and temperature of local thermal (< 1eV) electrons and the spacecraft potential are derived from the I-V curve by using an enhanced fitting method [Ergun *et al.*, 2015]. During waves mode, the instrument measures—as a time series—the potential difference between the two sensors, from which electric field power spectra are derived [Andersson *et al.*, 2015; Fowler *et al.*, 2017]. Only data obtained from LPW’s LP mode were used in this study.

The LPW instrument is designed to measure thermal (<0.1 eV), high density (>1000’s cm^{-3}) dayside ionospheric plasma. However, there are times when the local thermal electron density is low ($\lesssim 15\text{cm}^{-3}$) and the electron temperature is relatively high (approaching 1 eV or larger). During such conditions the LPW instrument is operating beyond its design specifications and at times may not be capable of measuring a significant thermal electron current. Additionally, if the probe and/or spacecraft are sunlit, photoelectron currents can dominate the thermal electron current, when the thermal electron density is below 10-15 cm^{-3} . Consequently, when the thermal electron density is below $\sim 15\text{cm}^{-3}$, derived thermal electron densities can be close to or equal to zero, and have large uncertainties associated with them. These limitations should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this study.

The local three-dimensional magnetic field vector is measured by the MAG instrument at a sampling rate of 32 Hz. The instrument consists of two fluxgate magnetometers which allow for hardware redundancy, calibration, and removal of the spacecraft generated magnetic fields. The magnetic field is measured to an accuracy of about 0.01 nT [Connerney *et al.*, 2015].

The SWEA instrument is an electrostatic top-hat analyzer that measures electron fluxes within the 3 eV to 5 keV energy range. The instrument has a field of view of $360^\circ \times 120^\circ$ provided by electrostatic deflectors and an energy resolution ($\Delta E/E$) of 17% [Mitchell *et al.*, 2016]. SWEA operates at a cadence of 2-4 seconds. As described in section 2.2, SWEA shape parameters were used to determine magnetic field topology.

In this study, the data were analyzed in the Mars Solar Orbital (MSO) coordinate system, where the x-axis points from Mars to the Sun, the y-axis is anti-parallel to Mars’ instantaneous orbital velocity, and the z-axis completes the right-handed coordinate system.

2.2 Methodology

The goal of this study is to investigate the effects of the local magnetic field topology on the spatial distribution of the thermal electron population in the Martian magnetotail. To this end, we analyze MAVEN data from periods when the spacecraft was present in the magnetotail region between 01-01-2015 to 12-31-2019.

Every LPW observation for which the I-V curve fitting technique detected a thermal electron density in the magnetotail was binned according to its observed location within the magnetotail region and the associated local magnetic field orientation and topology. This is further described below. The magnetotail region was defined as all post-terminator locations (X (MSO) < 0) with altitudes greater than 600 km. All LPW I-V sweep measurements were then binned into two spatial regions of the tail—called regions X1 and X2—and separated by their associated local magnetic field orientation and topology. Region X1 enclosed $-1.5R_M < X < 0R_M$ and region X2 enclosed $-3R_M < X < -1.5R_M$, where $R_M = 1$ Mars radius (3396 km). Splitting the tail region into two regions provides the opportunity to observe the evolution of the spatial distribution of thermal plasma down the tail. However, spatial coverage at this time in the MAVEN mission means the tail region could not be split into additional regions while maintaining adequate sample numbers.

Data were also analyzed with respect to the parameter ρ , the cylindrical distance of MAVEN from the center of the tail region, defined as $\rho = \sqrt{Y^2 + Z^2}$, in the MSO coordinate system. To first order, $\rho < 1$ lies within the planet's optical shadow and $\rho > 1$ lies outside the optical shadow (ignoring atmospheric effects). These constraints ensured MAVEN was sampling the magnetotail region and not the nightside ionosphere, which is typically observed below altitudes of 600 km (e.g. *Fowler et al. 2015*). A cartoon diagram showing regions X1 and X2, and ρ is shown in Figure 1.

Two distinct datasets were utilized in this study. The first are dubbed “measurement points” which represent all measurements made by LPW regardless of whether sufficiently large currents were observed such that a density could be derived from the measured I-V curve or not. The second, “derived data points,” represent measurements from which densities were derivable, corresponding to times when the thermal electron density was larger than $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Dividing the number of derived data points by the number of measurement points provides a percentage of how often a density can be derived from the measured I-V curves. The 4-year-long dataset consisted of 10^5 measurement points in the tail region. Of these 10^5 measurement points, $\sim 6 \times 10^4$ are derived data points. Since LPW is sensitive down to densities of $\sim 15 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, we may lack measurements of the lowest densities.

Furthermore, each MAG and SWEA measurement were paired to a corresponding LPW measurement in time. Both MAG and SWEA operate at significantly faster cadences than LPW at high altitudes within the magnetotail region (128 s, compared to 2 s for SWEA and 32 s^{-1} for MAG).

The flaring angle of the magnetic field was calculated based upon the relative angle between the local magnetic field vector and the anti-solar vector ($-X$) in the three-dimensional MSO coordinate system. The dashed red line and solid blue line in Figure 1 depict outward and inward flaring field, respectively (as projected onto the two-dimensional plane). When combined with LPW density measurements, the flaring angle and topology provide insight into the origin of the electrons measured on the field line, i.e. the nightside vs the dayside ionosphere. This study utilizes three primary magnetic field orientations: closed, open and draped.

Suprathermal electron energies and pitch-angle distributions measured by SWEA allow for the inference of magnetic topology based on three principles. First, the presence of a loss cone in one or both field-aligned directions indicates a magnetic field line intersects the collisional atmosphere once or twice. Thus, the field line is considered open or closed (e.g. *Brain et al. 2007; Xu et al. 2018b; Weber et al. 2017*). Second, ionospheric photoelectrons are observed in one or both field-aligned directions. This implies one or both footpoints of a field line are embedded in the dayside ionosphere, corresponding to either open or closed field topology (e.g. *Xu et al. 2017*). Finally, strong depletion of suprathermal electron flux, called “suprathermal electron voids,” signifies closed field lines with both footpoints intersecting the nightside ionosphere (e.g. *Mitchell et al. 2001; Steckiewicz et al. 2015*). Note, magnetic topology or footpoint(s) of a field line is defined with respect to the suprathermal electron

212 exobase (~ 160 km, *Xu et al.* 2016). If none of the above is observed, then the field line is
 213 draped. The methodology of identifying photoelectrons and loss cones through MAVEN
 214 data are described in further detail in *Xu et al.* [2017] and *Weber et al.* [2017], respectively.
 215 This study infers thermal electron origin (dayside versus nightside ionosphere) based on the
 216 magnetic topology identification method described by *Xu et al.* [2016, 2019].

217 In addition to the magnetic field topology in the tail region, the effect of the Martian
 218 crustal magnetic fields (e.g. *Acuna et al.* 1999) on the distribution of the thermal electrons in
 219 the tail was also investigated. The location of the region which contains the strongest fields
 220 (e.g. planetary longitudes of 180 degrees—*Acuna et al.* 1999) with respect to the sub-solar
 221 point was analyzed when the thermal electron population was observed. These “relative sub-
 222 solar longitudes” are the difference between the position of the strongest crustal fields and the
 223 sub-solar point. Relative sub-solar longitude values close to 0 degrees indicate the strongest
 224 crustal fields are pointing sunward and values close to 180 degrees indicate they are pointing
 225 tailward. Similarly, intermediate relative sub-solar longitude values of 90 degrees and 270
 226 degrees, signify the strongest crustal fields are located at dawn and dusk, respectively.

227 Derived data points and measurement points were further binned based on relative sub-
 228 solar longitude bins ($0^\circ \pm 45^\circ$, $90^\circ \pm 45^\circ$, $180^\circ \pm 45^\circ$ and $270^\circ \pm 45^\circ$), corresponding to
 229 strong crustal fields located at noon, dawn, midnight, and dusk. This was done regardless of
 230 whether the measurements belong to region X1 or X2 to ensure adequate sampling statistics.

231 **2.3 Example Data**

232 Example MAVEN data are shown as a time series in Figure 2. The time series data
 233 span a period of 6 hours, which includes two periapsis passes at $\sim 15:00$ and $19:30$ UTC.
 234 These periapsis passes are located on the dayside of the planet and are characterized by typ-
 235 ical peak electron densities $\leq 10^5$ cm $^{-3}$ (Figure 2B). Apoapsis occurs just after $17:00$ UTC
 236 in the magnetotail region. MAVEN crosses into the planet’s optical shadow between $16:00$
 237 and $17:30$, as enclosed by the two vertical solid blue lines. The effect of the optical shadow is
 238 observed as a reduction of photoelectron-current in the LPW I-V sweeps (negative voltages,
 239 panel A) and a reduction of SWEA suprathermal electron flux (due to negative spacecraft
 240 potentials within the optical shadow, energies less than ~ 20 eV, panel D).

241 MAVEN crosses the magnetotail current sheet at about $17:00$, as indicated by the
 242 change in sign of the magnetic field’s B_X component (panel C; e.g. *DiBraccio et al.* 2015).
 243 Thermal ionospheric electrons are observed in the magnetotail region, as shown in panel
 244 B. The vertical dashed green lines mark an altitude of 600 km, the minimum altitude above
 245 which data were analyzed in this study. At high altitudes, the LPW data are measured at
 246 lower time cadences. This results in fewer I-V sweeps and density measurements at higher
 247 altitudes, as shown in panels A and B.

248 **2.4 Removal of LPW Photoelectron signatures from LPW Densities**

249 During LP operation mode, the Langmuir Probe sensor measures electrical current
 250 from a variety of sources, including thermal electrons, ions and photoelectrons emitted by
 251 the sensor when in sunlight. In sunlit conditions, the photoelectron current emitted by the
 252 LPW sensors can dominate the collected current, when the local thermal electron density
 253 is small. This results in a “background” derived thermal electron density of ~ 10 cm $^{-3}$. An
 254 example of this background density influenced by photoelectrons is shown in Figure 3 (A).
 255 The panel shows the number of LPW measurement points as functions of radial distance (ρ)
 256 from the center of the tail and their respective derived densities. Radial distances less than 1
 257 R_M denote measurements made within Mars’ optical shadow, while measurements made at
 258 radial distances greater than 1 are made in sunlight. Within the optical shadow region ($\rho <$
 259 1), an “artificial cutoff” at densities below $10^{0.5}$ cm $^{-3}$ demonstrates the lower measurement
 260 limit of the LPW instrument, when photoelectrons are not present. Outside of the optical

shadow ($\rho > 1$), there is a clear “background” of measured densities at $\sim 10 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, which are a result of photoelectron currents dominating the collected current. The LPW instrument team previously investigated such cases in detail (not shown here) and confirmed that the photoelectron “background current” is equivalent to a density of about 10 cm^{-3} .

We correct the LPW thermal electron densities for this background photoelectron current before performing the analysis mentioned in Section 2.2. Derived densities measured in sunlight ($\rho > 1R_M$) have 10 cm^{-3} subtracted from their derived values, and the results of this correction are shown in Figure 3 (B). The format is the same as for panel A. For radial distances greater than 1, the transition to density values below 10 cm^{-3} is now much smoother, indicating that this background correction is successful. We note here that the photo electron current correction of 10 cm^{-3} is only significant when derived thermal electron densities are less than $\sim 50 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. As shown in Figure 2, the majority of derived density values are greater than 100 cm^{-3} , and this correction is negligible for most data points.

3 Results

3.1 Statistics and the Influence of the Magnetic Field Flaring Angle

3.1.1 Region X1: $-1.5 < X < 0$

The statistics of the data and measurement points in region X1 of this study are presented in Figure 4. Plotted against ρ , panel A shows the number of derived data points, panel B shows the number of measurement points, panel C shows the percent likelihood of observing a density, i.e. panel A divided by panel B, and panel D shows the mean densities for times when densities are observed, i.e. panel A. The solid blue line indicates an inward flaring field and the dashed red line indicates an outward flaring field.

The LPW observations analyzed in this study show that thermal electrons are observed with relatively high frequency in the magnetotail region of Mars, with typical likelihoods of $\sim 30\%$ in region X1 close to Mars, $0.5 < \rho < 1$, (Figure 4C). Thermal electrons are most likely to be observed just outside the optical shadow (ρ slightly greater than $1 R_M$), and this likelihood then decreases with increasing ρ . The near imperceptible error bars in 4C represent the counting errors (i.e. \sqrt{N} , where N is the number of derived data points).

Figure 4D shows mean electron density (when electrons are observed, i.e. Figure 4 A) peaks at $\sim 100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ just outside of the optical shadow, $\rho \sim 1.2$. Densities within the optical shadow ($\rho < 1$) are typically a few 10 's to 50 cm^{-3} . The error bars in panel D show the standard deviation of each bin's measurements. They demonstrate high measurement variability, with standard deviations of $\sim 100\%$ in most bins.

The red and blue lines in Figure 4 show that the magnetic field orientation does not significantly affect the likelihood of LPW observing electrons in region X1 (panel C), nor does it affect the observed average densities in each bin (panel D).

3.1.2 Region X2: $-3 < X < -1.5$

The statistics for region X2 are shown in Figure 5, which shows distinct differences to region X1. The likelihood of observing thermal electrons is roughly constant for $\rho < 1$, compared to a decreased likelihood for $\rho < 0.5$ in region X1. Average densities are typically smaller in X2 than X1 (not exceeding $\sim 30 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ on average), and are roughly constant as ρ increases.

In general, a greater number of measurement and derived data points occur when the field flares outward, suggesting that (as expected) the field tends to be in an outward flaring configuration more often than an inward one, particularly at greater distance down the tail (i.e. region X2). Within $\rho < 1$, densities are more likely to be observed when the magnetic

field flares inward (blue line, Figure 5C), though this difference is small, $\sim 10\%$, between outward and inward flaring fields.

3.2 The Influence of Magnetic Field Topology

Figure 6 shows the likelihood of MAVEN observing thermal electrons as functions of the magnetic field flaring direction and magnetic topology. We considered measurement points on each specific topology as a fraction of measurement points on all topologies. We divide the instances when a thermal electron is observed on a specific topology by the sum of all measurement points for all topologies to make these calculations. Note that the sum of all panels for a given ρ is less than one hundred percent because the SWEA analysis routine cannot always reliably determine the topology. These “unknown” topologies were excluded in this section of analysis.

3.2.1 Region X1: $-1.5 < X < 0$

Magnetic field topology information in Figure 6 A-D shows that electrons observed just past the optical shadow are approximately equally likely to be on open or closed magnetic field lines in region X1. Panels A-C show that thermal electrons on an outward flaring field are typically most likely to be observed at the largest values of ρ , regardless of magnetic field topology. An interesting caveat to this includes panels 6 B and G, where for $\rho < 1$, electrons are most likely to be observed in the central tail even for an outward flaring field. The cause of this is not immediately clear, but the observations in panels 6 B and 6 G suggest that an outward flaring magnetic field has a greater influence on thermal electrons in region X2 compared to X1, whereas the blue and red lines show similar behavior for $\rho < 1$.

For an inward pointing field originating from the dayside, open and closed field lines (panels A and C), electrons are most likely observed at and just past the optical shadow ($\rho \sim 1-1.2$), observed at a peak of $\sim 25\%$ of the time. Electrons on open, inward pointing field lines are observed more frequently for $\rho < 1$ than electrons on open, outward pointing field lines (panel 6A). Electrons are most consistently observed on outward draped field lines at the largest values of ρ (panel 6 E), although they are also observed for a significant fraction of the time on an inward pointing, draped field for $\rho < 1$.

The magnetic field flaring angle and source region for observed thermal electrons (e.g. day or nightside ionosphere) also strongly influence where such electrons are observed, as shown in Figure 6 A - D. Electrons observed on open field lines originating from the dayside ionosphere (panel A) are most likely to be observed at $\rho \gtrsim 1$, particularly when the field is flared outward. In contrast, electrons sourced from the nightside ionosphere (panel B) are most likely to be observed at $\rho < 1$. Dayside originating electrons observed on closed field lines (panel C) demonstrate similar patterns to those on open field lines (panel A). The dayside electrons on inward pointing field are most likely to be observed just past the optical shadow at $\rho = 1 - 1.2$, while those on an outward flaring field are observed at equal likelihood for all large values of ρ . Electrons observed on closed field lines originating from the nightside ionosphere (panel D) are more likely to be attached to an inward pointing field than outward pointing field.

3.2.2 Region X2: $-3 < X < -1.5$

Thermal electrons are most likely to be observed inside of the optical shadow in region X2 ($\rho < 1$), as shown in Figure 5 C. Panels F - I of Figure 6 demonstrate that the flaring direction of the magnetic field can significantly influence where thermal electrons are observed in region X2. Panel F shows that electrons are observed with $\sim 30-40\%$ likelihood at $\rho \gtrsim 1.5$ when the field flares outward, compared to a peak of $\sim 5\%$ at the center of the tail when the field flares inward. Electrons are less likely to be observed on closed field lines in general in region X2 compared to X1 (Figure 6 H and I versus Figure 6 C and D). This is perhaps not

355 unexpected given that region X2 lies further down-tail away from the closed crustal magnetic
 356 fields whose influences are stronger closer to the planet. The effect of an outward flared field
 357 is observed for $\rho \gtrsim 1$, but the inward and outward flaring directions do not seem to influence
 358 the spatial distribution of thermal electrons for $\rho < 1$. The presence of an outward flared
 359 field in region X2 still leads to a greater likelihood of observation at higher ρ .

360 Electrons observed on draped field lines in region X2 (Figure 6 J) are observed at similar
 361 likelihoods (as a function of ρ) to region X1 (Figure 6 E). On draped field lines, thermal
 362 electrons are most likely to be observed at small or large values of ρ (panels E and J)
 363 for both regions. It is not immediately clear why the likelihood of observing thermal elec-
 364 trons on draped field increases at the smallest values of rho in panels 6 E and 6 J. Compar-
 365 ison with global MHD simulations of the Martian magnetosphere may provide answers to
 366 this, although such a study is outside the scope of this work. In general, thermal electrons are
 367 roughly half as likely to be observed in region X2 compared to X1 (Figures 4 and 5).

368 Investigating the source regions for thermal electrons observed in region X2 further
 369 demonstrates the clear impact that the magnetic field flaring direction has on the likelihood
 370 of observing these electrons. Figure 6 panels F-I show that thermal electrons are typically
 371 more likely to be observed at large ρ when the field flares outward, for field lines connected
 372 to the day or nightside ionosphere when compared to thermal electrons in X1. Inward point-
 373 ing field connected to the nightside ionosphere (Figure 6 G) clearly influences where thermal
 374 electrons are likely to be observed, with electrons most likely to be observed in the central
 375 tail region, similar to region X1. Figure 6 H and I show that electrons are not often observed
 376 on closed field lines in region X2 ($\lesssim 15\%$ of the time). When such conditions exist, electrons
 377 are more likely to be observed at larger ρ when on outward flared field.

378 3.3 The Influence of Strong Crustal Magnetic Fields

379 The influence of the location of the strongest crustal magnetic fields on the likelihood
 380 of observing thermal electrons in the magnetotail is shown in Figure 7. For simplicity, we
 381 define the strongest crustal fields as those located at 180 degrees planetary longitude (e.g.
 382 *Acuna et al. 1999*). The parameter "relative sub-solar longitude" is defined as the longitude
 383 difference between the location of the strongest crustal fields (180 degrees planetary longi-
 384 tude) and the sub-solar point. When the relative sub-solar longitude equals 0 (180) degrees,
 385 the strongest crustal fields are on the dayside (nightside) of Mars pointing sunward (tail-
 386 ward). Values of 90 and 270 degrees denote dawn and dusk locations (90 ± 45 and 270 ± 45
 387 degrees, respectively). Figure 7 A shows the likelihood of LPW observing thermal electrons,
 388 while 7 B shows the median densities observed; both as a function of ρ . The green (yellow)
 389 line denotes when the relative sub-solar longitude equals 0 ± 45 degrees (180 ± 45 degrees).
 390 The gray lines denote dawn and dusk locations. Data are combined for regions X1 and X2 to
 391 ensure adequate sampling statistics.

392 The location of the strongest crustal fields drastically alters the location and likelihood
 393 of observing thermal electrons, despite showing similar median densities. The peak likeli-
 394 hood of observation occurs at $\rho \sim 1.2R_M$ for each relative sub-solar longitude bin; however,
 395 the distributions vary significantly. When the strongest crustal fields point sunward (0 de-
 396 grees, green line in Figure 7A), LPW observes a thermal electron density 10-20% more often
 397 than when the strongest crustal fields point tailward (180 degrees, yellow line in Figure 7 A),
 398 within the optical shadow for $\rho < 1.2R_M$. Beyond $\rho \sim 1.2R_M$, thermal electrons are $\sim 5\%$
 399 more likely to be observed when the strongest crustal fields point sunward compared to when
 400 they point tailward.

401 4 Discussion

402 Thermal electron densities are on average factors of ~ 2 -5 larger in region X1 com-
 403 pared to region X2, depending upon the ρ values being considered. These electrons originate

404 from the planetary ionosphere, and their presence in the magnetotail is suggestive that they
405 may be contributing to ionospheric escape. One possible explanation for the differences be-
406 tween the two regions is that, as thermal electrons move tailward, they can be accelerated to
407 energies greater than ~ 1 eV, and subsequently cannot be measured by the LPW instrument.
408 Various ion acceleration mechanisms are known to act in the Martian magnetotail (for exam-
409 ple, ambi-polar fields [Collinson *et al.*, 2015; Ergun, 2016; Xu *et al.*, 2018b], $J \times B$ forces
410 [Halekas *et al.*, 2017], and magnetic reconnection [Harada *et al.*, 2015b; Harada, 2017]).
411 It is not unlikely that a range of mechanisms also exist that accelerate electrons in the tail
412 region. Such suprathermal electrons can be measured by the SWEA instrument on board
413 MAVEN, and we leave it to future work to examine the specific electron acceleration mecha-
414 nisms active within the magnetotail region at Mars.

415 The local magnetic field direction plays an important role in influencing where thermal
416 electrons are likely to be observed, regardless of distance down the tail. When the local mag-
417 netic field flares outward compared to inward (red vs blue lines, Figure 6), thermal electrons
418 are typically more likely to be observed at $\rho > 1$ for all magnetic field topologies. This be-
419 havior can be explained by the fact that the magnetotail plasma environment is collisionless
420 and electron motion is subsequently dominated by the local magnetic field direction.

421 The ionospheric source regions to which the local magnetic fields connect also play an
422 important role in driving the spatial distribution of observed thermal electrons. When ther-
423 mal electrons are observed on open or closed magnetic field lines, they are sourced primarily
424 from the dayside ionosphere when observed outside of the optical shadow ($\rho > 1$), while
425 they are sourced primarily from the nightside ionosphere when observed within the optical
426 shadow ($\rho < 1$). This behavior is observed in regions X1 and X2 (Figure 6 A-D and F-I).
427 Such a dependence on source region demonstrates that open and closed magnetic fields an-
428 chored in the dayside ionosphere “drape” across the terminator into the magnetotail region,
429 such that ionospheric thermal electrons are able travel along these field lines into the mag-
430 netotail region. This behavior likely explains why the largest thermal electron densities are
431 observed at $\rho \sim 1.2$. This region is where the magnetic field is most likely to be connected
432 to the dayside ionosphere, where ionospheric densities are large. Open and closed magnetic
433 fields anchored to the nightside ionosphere extend tailward within the shadow of the planet,
434 leading to the observed spatial distributions of thermal electrons. These interpretations are
435 consistent with MHD simulations of the Martian magnetosphere (e.g. Fang *et al.* 2018) and
436 its magnetic environment.

437 The locations of the strongest crustal magnetic fields drastically affect the spatial dis-
438 tribution of thermal electrons in the magnetotail region. Since the strongest crustal fields
439 influence the structure and density of the topside ionosphere [Andrews *et al.*, 2015], this re-
440 sult is expected. Thermal electrons are less likely to be observed in the tail region (within
441 the optical shadow) when the strongest crustal fields are also located on the nightside. Such
442 conditions suggest that the crustal fields may act to “trap” ionospheric thermal electrons at
443 lower altitudes there. Thermal electrons are also more likely to be observed at $\rho > 1$ when
444 the strongest crustal fields are on the dayside. This configuration likely “puffs up” the day-
445 side ionosphere (as observed by Flynn *et al.* 2017 and Matta *et al.* 2015), resulting in draped
446 and dayside open magnetic fields draping about the terminator region at higher altitudes, as
447 observed in Figure 7 A.

448 An important caveat to bear in mind when considering the interpretations and implica-
449 tions of this study is that the LPW instrument is only sensitive to electron populations with
450 densities greater than about 15 cm^{-3} and temperatures less than about 1 eV. As such, the very
451 lowest density populations may not be included here. Furthermore, the LPW instrument is
452 not capable of determining the bulk flow direction of measured thermal electrons; therefore,
453 we cannot produce an estimate of thermal electron escape rates without assuming a flow di-
454 rection and speed, which is beyond the scope of this study.

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5 Conclusions

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This study presents the first detailed analysis of the spatial distribution of thermal (<1 eV) electrons in the Martian magnetotail as observed by the Langmuir Probes and Waves instrument on the MAVEN spacecraft. The thermal nature of the observed electrons means that they are sourced from the planetary ionosphere. The presented analysis yields insight into the thermal plasma structure of the Martian magnetotail region and electron source regions.

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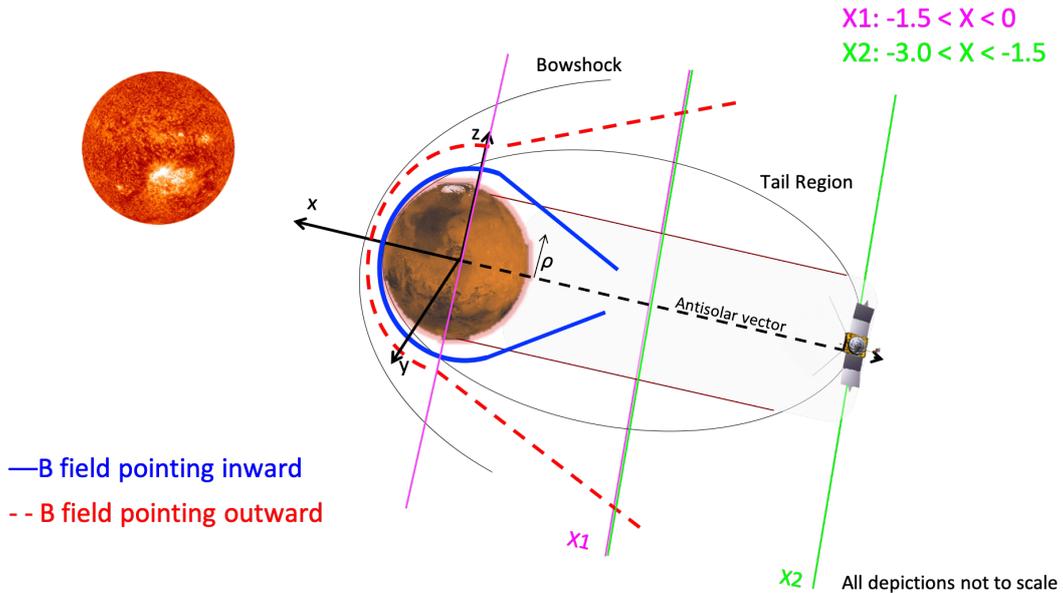
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The spatial distribution of observed thermal electrons varies with both distance down the tail and cylindrical distance from the center of the tail. We have shown that the local magnetic field flaring direction plays an important role in driving the spatial distribution, with thermal electrons more likely to be observed at greater cylindrical distances for outward flaring field. Additionally, we have shown that the ionospheric regions to which the local magnetic field connects also drive the spatial distribution of thermal electrons in the magnetotail. Broadly speaking, thermal electrons observed within the optical shadow behind Mars are typically sourced from the nightside ionosphere, while thermal electrons observed outside of the optical shadow region tend to be sourced from the dayside ionosphere. When the strongest crustal fields point sunward, thermal electrons are much more likely to be observed in the tail region than when they point tailward. The observations presented here demonstrate the importance of the magnetic field in structuring the plasma environment of the Martian magnetotail, a characteristic that is likely applicable to other unmagnetized bodies such as Venus and comets.

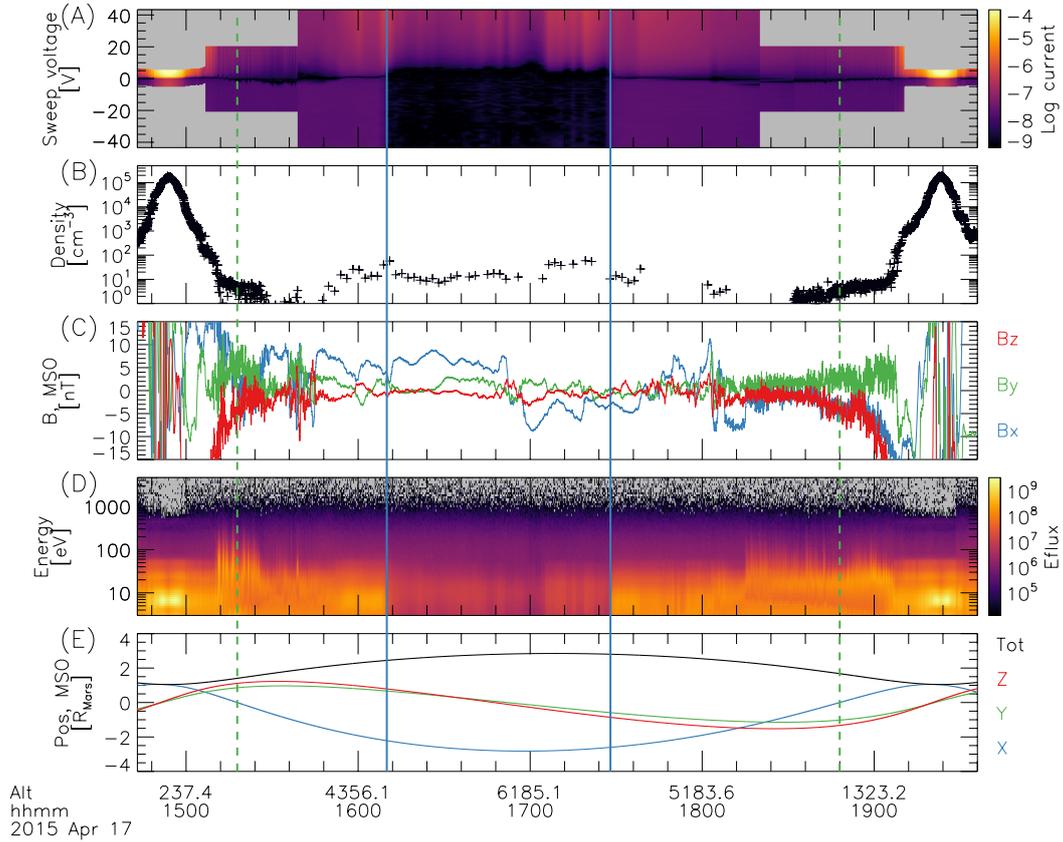


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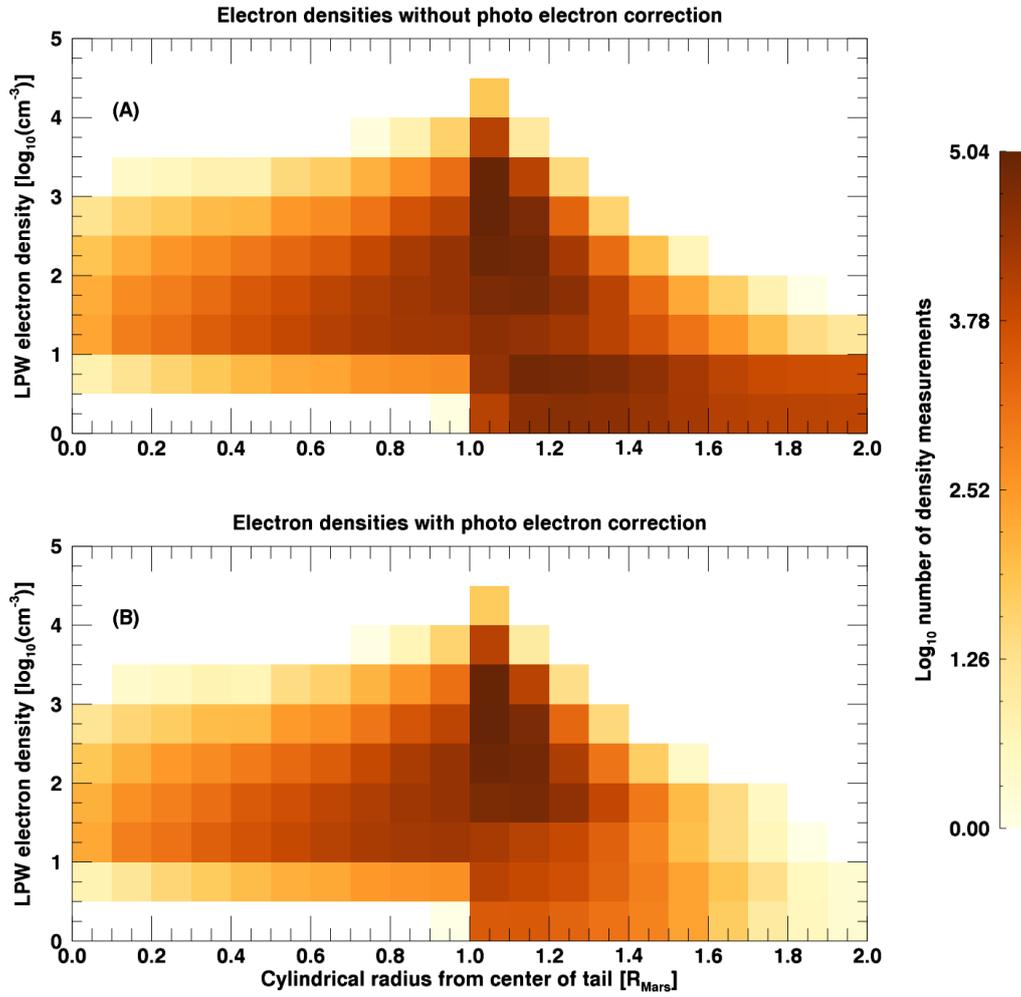
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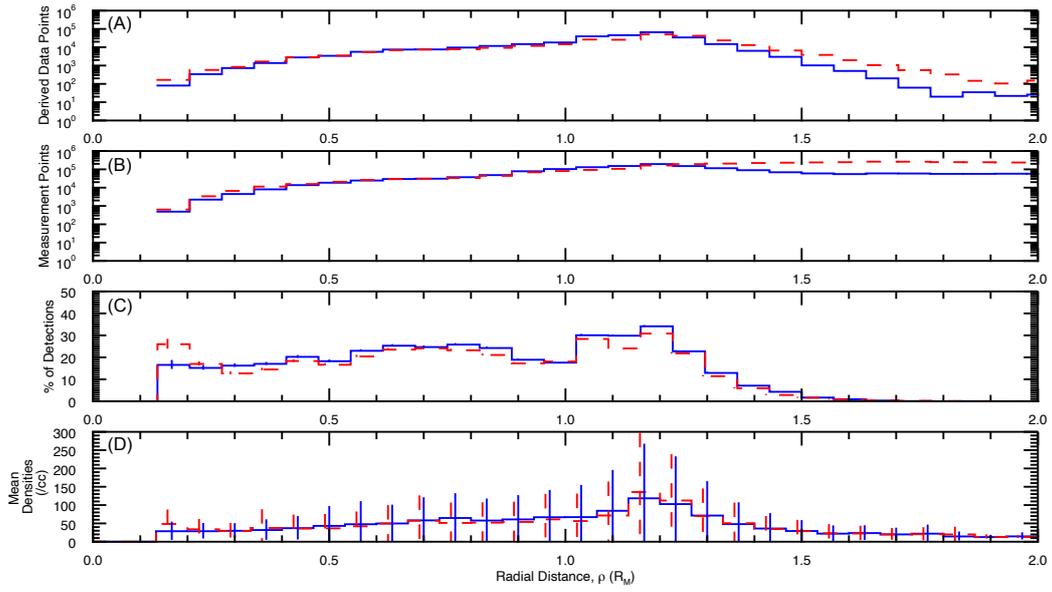
Figure 1. Cartoon depicting the tail region. The cylindrical distance from the center of the tail is given by $\rho = \sqrt{Y^2 + Z^2}$ in the MSO coordinate system. The relative angle between the magnetic field vector and the anti-solar vector determines the flare orientation, as described in section 2.2.



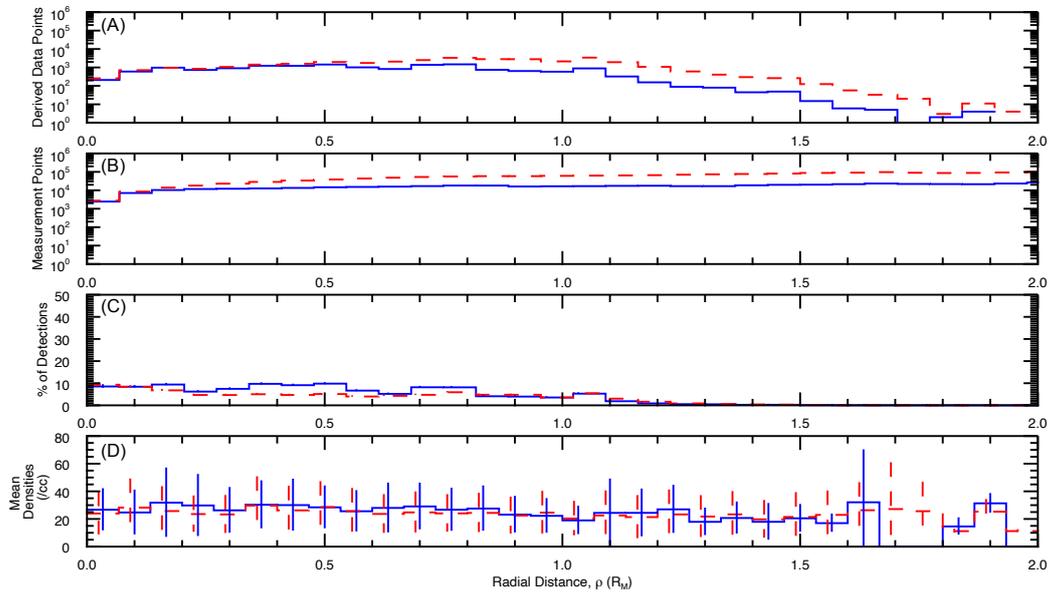
479 **Figure 2.** One MAVEN orbit while the spacecraft was present in the tail region. The top panel (A) shows
 480 LPW I-V sweeps with voltage on the Y-axis and the log of the absolute value of the current as color. Log
 481 current has units of $\log_{10}(A)$. Thermal electron densities derived from the I-V sweeps are in panel B. The 3D
 482 MAG data in the MSO frame are in panel C. The SWEA suprathermal electron spectrum is shown in panel D,
 483 where “Eflux” has units of $\frac{eV}{eV s sr cm^2}$. Panel E shows MAVEN position and altitude (black line) in the MSO
 484 frame; altitude values (km) are printed underneath. The dashed green lines mark altitudes of 600 km and the
 485 solid blue lines enclose the optical shadow, which extends to $\rho \sim 1$.



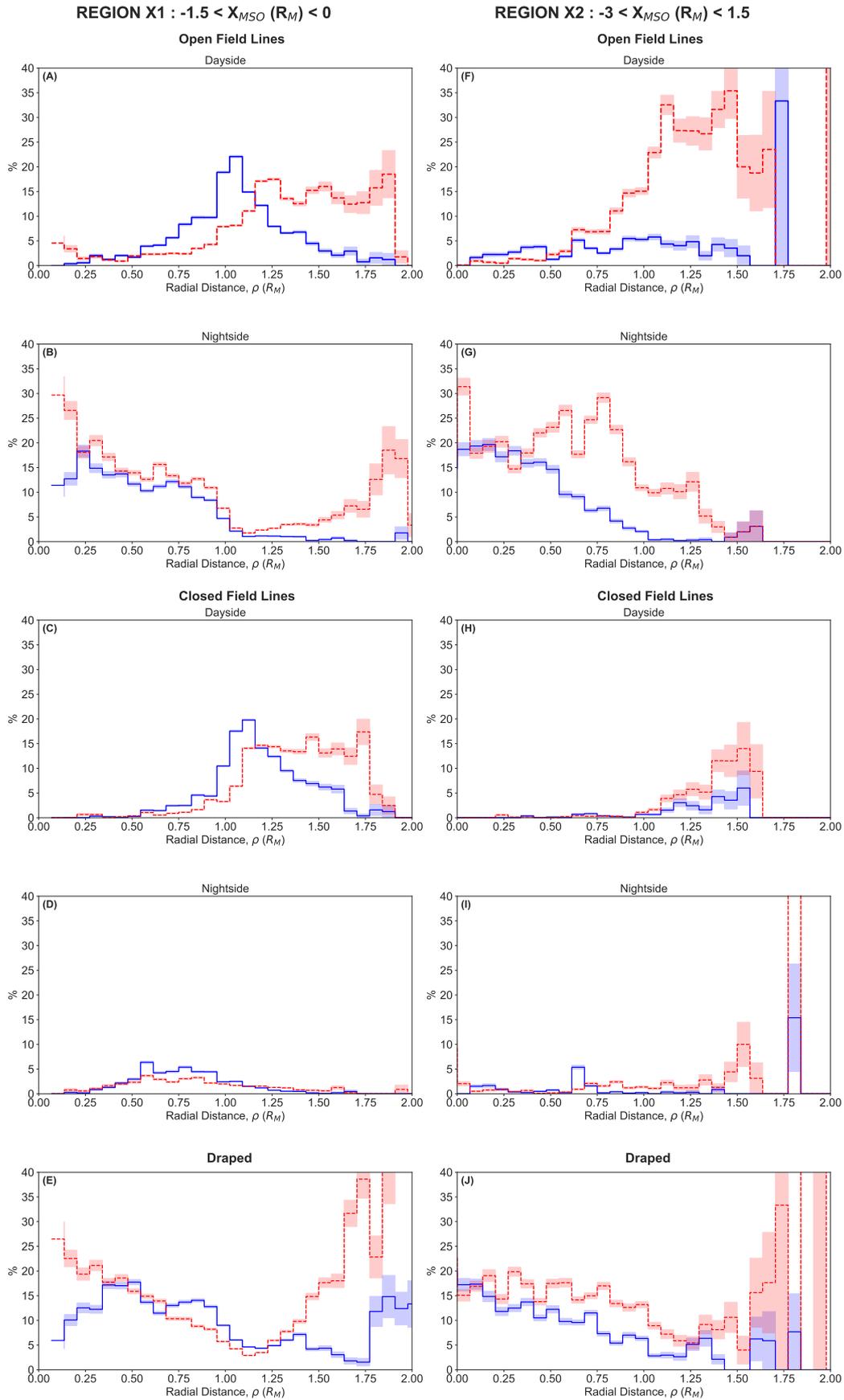
486 **Figure 3.** The number of LPW derived data points as a function of radial distance (ρ) from the center of the
 487 tail and their respective derived densities. Panel A shows the measurement points without the photoelectron
 488 correction and panel B shows the measurement points with the 10 cm^{-3} photoelectron current correction
 489 applied.



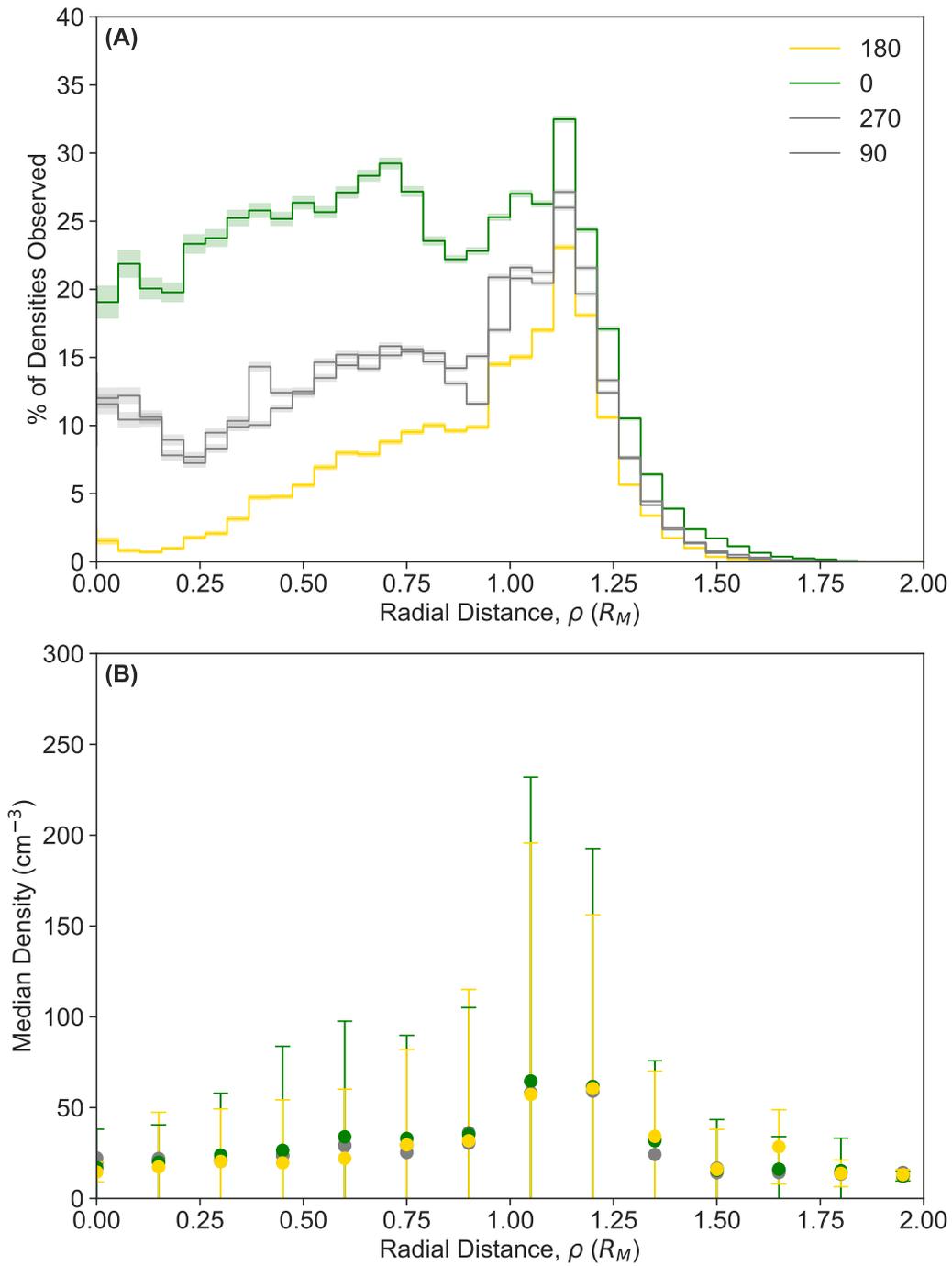
490 **Figure 4.** The number of derived data points (A), the number of measurement points (B); the likelihood of
 491 observing a density, (panel A / panel B), (C); and the mean densities (D) for all ρ in **region X1**. The blue line
 492 indicates the magnetic field flares inward and the dashed red line indicates the field flares outward. Error bars
 493 in C are counting errors and error bars in D are the standard deviations of each bin.



494 **Figure 5.** The number of derived data points (A), the number of measurement points (B); the likelihood of
 495 observing a density, (panel A / panel B), (C); and the mean densities (D) for all ρ in **region X2**. The blue line
 496 indicates the magnetic field flares inward and the dashed red line indicates the field flares outward. Error bars
 497 in C are counting errors and error bars in D are the standard deviations of each bin.



498 **Figure 6.** The likelihood of observing electrons in both regions for multiple magnetic field configurations.
 499 In **region X1** the likelihood of observing electrons in open (A,B), closed (C,D), and draped (E) field lines
 500 is shown. In **region X2** the likelihood of observing electrons in open (F,G), closed (H,I), and draped (J)
 501 field lines is shown. The red lines indicate the magnetic field lines flare outward and blue lines indicate the field
 502 flares inward. Error bars (shaded regions) represent the counting errors in each bin.



503 **Figure 7.** The likelihood of observing thermal electrons based on the location of the strongest crustal fields
 504 relative to the sub-solar point (A). The yellow line and dots correspond to the strongest crustal fields pointing
 505 tailward (180°), green line and dots corresponds to the strongest crustal fields pointing sunward (0°), and
 506 gray corresponds to dawn and dusk-ward orientation of the crustal fields. Median densities are presented for
 507 each crustal field orientation (B).

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