

Water loss during the Mars Year 34 C Storm

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Abstract

Lower atmosphere variations in the martian water vapour and hydrogen abundance during the Mars Year (MY) 34 C storm from $L_S=326.1^*$ - 333.5^* and their associated effect on hydrogen escape are investigated using a multi-spacecraft assimilation of atmospheric retrievals into a Martian global circulation model. Elevation of the hygropause and associated increase in middle atmosphere hydrogen at the peak of the MY 34 C storm led to a hydrogen escape rate of around $1.4 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, meaning the MY 34 C storm enhanced water loss rates on Mars to levels observed during global-scale dust storms.

The water loss rate during the MY 34 C storm (a loss of 15% of the total annual water loss during only 5% of the year) was three times stronger than the weak MY 30 C storm assimilation, demonstrating that interannual variations in C storm strength must be considered when calculating the integrated loss of water on Mars.

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Key Points:

- Hydrogen escape during the C storm time period displays large interannual variations
- Modelled hydrogen escape rates during the Mars Year 34 C storm were equivalent to global dust storm escape rates
- Robust estimates of integrated water loss on Mars must consider variations in C storm strength

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Abstract

Lower atmosphere variations in the martian water vapour and hydrogen abundance during the Mars Year (MY) 34 C storm from $L_S = 326.1^\circ$ – 333.5° and their associated effect on hydrogen escape are investigated using a multi-spacecraft assimilation of atmospheric retrievals into a Martian global circulation model. Elevation of the hygropause and associated increase in middle atmosphere hydrogen at the peak of the MY 34 C storm led to a hydrogen escape rate of around $1.4 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, meaning the MY 34 C storm enhanced water loss rates on Mars to levels observed during global-scale dust storms. The water loss rate during the MY 34 C storm (a loss of 15% of the total annual water loss during only 5% of the year) was three times stronger than the weak MY 30 C storm assimilation, demonstrating that interannual variations in C storm strength must be considered when calculating the integrated loss of water on Mars.

Plain Language Summary

We investigate variations in the amount of water vapour and hydrogen in the martian atmosphere during the Mars Year (MY) 34 C storm (a late northern winter regional dust storm) by combining a three-dimensional numerical model with observations of several atmospheric properties (temperature, water and dust content) retrieved by multiple spacecraft. This method provides the most accurate replication of the evolving atmosphere. The dusty conditions during the MY 34 C storm led to a greater abundance of water vapour and hydrogen above 80 km. The increased abundance of hydrogen in the upper atmosphere has an important impact on the amount of water that can escape Mars' atmosphere, with tracking of the water loss through time providing a more robust calculation of the integrated loss of water throughout Mars' history (that is currently not well constrained) and better insight into planetary evolution. We also compare our results to a similarly timed but less dusty C storm during MY 30 which did not show a similar increase in hydrogen, indicating water loss during this event each year is highly variable. These variations therefore must be taken into account when calculating the loss of water that has occurred on Mars throughout time.

1 Introduction

The past climate of Mars is now generally considered to have been much wetter than the present (Carr & Head, 2010; Ehlmann & Edwards, 2014, and references therein). The precise value of increased water abundance in the early martian atmosphere is still however largely unconstrained, in part due to the lack of observations quantifying the rates of water loss from the atmosphere over time. Observations from the SPICAM (Spectroscopy for the Investigation of the Characteristics of the Atmosphere of Mars) instrument on Mars Express (Chaffin et al., 2014), the Hubble Space Telescope (Clarke et al., 2014) and more recently by the MAVEN/IUVS (Mars Atmosphere and Volatile Evolution Imaging Ultraviolet Spectrograph instrument (Chaffin et al., 2021) have advanced our knowledge on the unexpected variability of martian hydrogen escape; but upper atmosphere observations alone are unable to diagnose effectively the global scale evolution of the complex water cycle and associated transport processes. To understand how much water has been lost to space over time and how much it varies seasonally requires an understanding of the processes by which hydrogen escape is coupled to the lower atmosphere water cycle. Recent 1-D modelling efforts indicate that atmospheric escape of hydrogen is increased with the introduction of high-altitude water (Chaffin et al., 2017; Krasnopolsky, 2019). Based on this work, the paradigm of martian atmospheric water loss is shifting focus to high-altitude water being the dominant pathway over diffusive transport of molecular hydrogen from the lower atmosphere (Anderson & Hord, 1971; Parkinson & Hunten, 1972; McElroy & Donahue, 1972; Krasnopolsky, 2002). Efforts to calculate integrated water loss over time have been conducted most recently by Jakosky et al. (2018)

with an extrapolation back in time of recent MAVEN/IUVS observations. The calculated value however is sensitive to multiple currently unknown factors, including the extent to which the seasonal water and dust cycles can affect the composition of the upper atmosphere and therefore the escape rate of hydrogen.

Advances in modelling techniques and the number of observations now available from several spacecraft currently in orbit around Mars allow for a more complete investigation of the processes driving hydrogen escape. The ability to combine observations with a global circulation model (GCM) through data assimilation techniques (Lewis et al., 2007, 2016; Holmes et al., 2018, 2019, 2020; Streeter et al., 2020) is a critical step in providing the most realistic global atmospheric state. While providing a detailed exploration of the parameter space, Chaffin et al. (2017) note that future modelling efforts should look into the response of the atmosphere to realistic variability in upper atmospheric water, of which data assimilation provides the most effective tool for investigation. Previous modelling studies have investigated vertical transport of water during the MY 28 and MY 34 global dust storms (Shaposhnikov et al., 2019; Neary et al., 2020), but neither were constrained directly by observations. In this investigation we focus on the the MY 34, where MY follows the designation of Clancy et al. (2000), regional dust storm that occurred from $L_S = 320.6^\circ - 336.5^\circ$, hereafter called the C storm based on classification by Kass et al. (2016).

Vertical profiles of water vapour have been retrieved from the Nadir and Occultation for MArs Discovery (NOMAD) and Atmospheric Chemistry Suite (ACS) instruments on the ExoMars Trace Gas Orbiter (TGO) during the initiation and decay of the MY 34 C storm (Aoki et al., 2019; Fedorova et al., 2020). Observations of water could not be made at the time of peak activity observed by MAVEN/IUVS during the time period that covers the MY 34 C storm, a key gap in understanding of lower atmosphere water/hydrogen activity. During the time period of the MY 34 C storm unobserved by ExoMars TGO, however, we can still constrain model simulations of the water/hydrogen activity using observations of the temperature and dust distribution from the Mars Climate Sounder (MCS) aboard the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (MRO) spacecraft (Kleinböhl et al., 2017) that cover the entire MY 34 C storm time period, a powerful advantage of multi-spacecraft data assimilation. This multi-spacecraft assimilation can then be analysed and compared to upper atmosphere Lyman alpha brightness measurements (a proxy for hydrogen escape) from MAVEN/IUVS that display an increase in the Lyman alpha brightness (Chaffin et al., 2021) during the MY 34 C storm. If the hydrogen escape flux calculated from a simulation of the atmosphere constrained by observations matches the observed Lyman alpha brightness trends, we will have provided a more complete picture of the processes that lead to variations in hydrogen escape.

In this study we investigate the global distribution of lower atmosphere water and hydrogen and coupling to the upper atmosphere using data assimilation covering the time period leading up to and during the MY 34 C storm. The data combined with the Open University modelling group Mars GCM includes observations of water vapour from NOMAD and ACS (that constrain the initial global distribution of water), temperature profiles from ACS and MCS and dust column from MCS. The results are also compared to an assimilation during the MY 30 C storm to identify interannual variations in hydrogen escape.

2 Methods

This section details the GCM and observational data used for this study, followed by a description of the different simulations conducted to investigate water and hydrogen abundance and spatial variations during the MY 34 C storm.

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2.1 Model and data assimilation

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For the global simulations, we use the Open University (OU) modelling group Mars GCM, hereafter MGCM, which has been developed in a collaboration between the Laboratoire de Météorologie Dynamique (LMD), the OU, the University of Oxford and the Instituto de Astrofísica de Andalucía. This model combines physical parameterisations (Forget et al., 1999) of multiple processes (such as radiative transfer, surface processes and subgrid-scale dynamics) and a photochemical module (Lefèvre et al., 2004, 2008) shared with the LMD Mars GCM, that are coupled to a spectral dynamical core and semi-Lagrangian advection scheme (Newman et al., 2002) to transport tracers. Tracers such as water vapour and hydrogen are transported by the semi-Lagrangian advection scheme with mass conservation (Priestley, 1993). The advection scheme uses wind fields updated by the dynamical core to determine the transport of each chemical species at each model grid point every 15 minutes.

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The MGCM includes several sub-models that encompass modelling of the planetary boundary layer and water and dust cycles. A thermal plume model is used to better represent turbulent structures in the planetary boundary layer (Colaïtis et al., 2013). Regarding the martian water cycle, the most recent cloud microphysics package is included (Navarro et al., 2014) which also accounts for the effects of radiatively active water ice clouds. A ‘semi-interactive’ two-moment scheme is used to freely transport dust in the model (Madeleine et al., 2011), although the dust column optical depth at each grid point is scaled to match the observed dust distribution maps created by Montabone et al. (2015), updated to include MY 34 in Montabone et al. (2020), using an interpolation of numerous sets of observations from orbiters and landers. The model is truncated at wavenumber 31 resulting in a 5° longitude-latitude grid for physical variables, with 70 vertical levels extending to an altitude of ~ 100 km (chosen to provide a set of pressure levels that correspond roughly to every 2 km for the majority of the middle atmosphere).

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To perform the multi-spacecraft data assimilation, we use the Analysis Correction (AC) scheme (Lorenç et al., 1991) with necessary parameters adapted to martian conditions (Lewis & Read, 1995). The AC scheme is a form of successive corrections in which analysis steps are interleaved with each model dynamical time step and increments (observation - model) are first calculated and incorporated in a vertical assimilation step and then spread horizontally to other model grid points (Lewis et al., 2007). The AC scheme has previously been used for multiple studies covering thermal tides (Lewis & Barker, 2005), the dust cycle (Montabone et al., 2005, 2006), surface warming during the MY 34 global dust storm (Streeter et al., 2020) and several chemical cycles including water (Steele, Lewis, Patel, Montmessin, et al., 2014; Steele, Lewis, & Patel, 2014), ozone (Holmes et al., 2018) and carbon monoxide (Holmes et al., 2019). The AC scheme has also been utilised to create the Open access to Mars Assimilated Remote Soundings (OpenMARS) dataset (Holmes et al., 2020), a publicly available global record of martian weather from 1999 to 2015.

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2.2 Temperature and water vapour profiles

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The temperature profiles used in this study are from the MCS and ACS instruments on the MRO and ExoMars TGO spacecraft respectively, with version 5.3.2 MCS temperature profiles used (Kleinböhl et al., 2020) and the ACS temperature profiles described in Fedorova et al. (2020). The differing orbits of the MRO and ExoMars TGO spacecraft mean that while MCS temperature profiles are available at 5 km vertical resolution in 12 strips of data per sol and at local times of 3 a.m. and 3 p.m. away from the poles, the ACS temperature profiles span a much wider range of local times related to the terminator, with good agreement between both datasets when coincident measurements occur (Fedorova et al., 2020). Therefore, combining both datasets through data assimila-

169 tion provides more complete constraints on the diurnal temperature variations than possible
 170 when using either dataset alone. For the assimilation of temperature profiles from
 171 both the MCS and ACS instruments, we use the same method that has been used previously
 172 for studies that included Thermal Emission Spectrometer data (Steele, Lewis,
 173 Patel, Montmessin, et al., 2014) or MCS data (Steele, Lewis, & Patel, 2014; Holmes et
 174 al., 2019; Streeter et al., 2020) and compared the model to retrievals in the form of layer
 175 thicknesses (Lewis et al., 2007).

176 Water vapour profiles are assimilated from both NOMAD and ACS instruments
 177 on the ExoMars TGO spacecraft, described in Aoki et al. (2019) and Fedorova et al. (2020)
 178 respectively, that are retrieved from solar occultation measurements and therefore re-
 179 stricted to the terminator. The water vapour profiles have a vertical resolution of 1 to
 180 3 km and can span altitudes from 5 to 100 km depending on atmospheric conditions at
 181 the time of observation. For the assimilation of water vapour profiles, a similar method
 182 to the assimilation of MCS ice opacity detailed in Steele, Lewis, and Patel (2014) is used.
 183 Water vapour number density in each profile are converted from observation levels to model
 184 levels (assuming the number density varies linearly with the natural log of pressure). Back-
 185 ground vertical correlations are approximated using the same Gaussian function and pa-
 186 rameter values in Steele, Lewis, and Patel (2014), chosen to allow spreading of data to
 187 at most two model levels outside the bounds of the vertical profile coverage, since wa-
 188 ter vapour can rapidly vary based on local saturation conditions. Regarding water vapour,
 189 there are three sources of information; NOMAD data, ACS data and the model forecast,
 190 that are analysed by the assimilation scheme to provide the best fit atmospheric state
 191 of water vapour. This provides a more robust investigation than pure model studies that
 192 simply compare to observed water, by ensuring that multiple parameters (i.e. water vapour,
 193 dust opacity, temperature) are all realistically constrained and physically consistent at
 194 the same time.

195 **2.3 Simulations**

196 The primary simulation conducted for this study is an assimilation of temperature
 197 and water vapour profiles covering the MY 34 C storm. Initial conditions were obtained
 198 from a 10 year model spin-up of the water cycle, with the dust mass and mixing num-
 199 ber ratios in each layer scaled to the MY 34 dust scenario (Montabone et al., 2020) for
 200 the final year. The simulation is initiated at $L_S = 270^\circ$ MY 34 during the decay stage
 201 of the MY 34 global dust storm (Kass et al., 2020) to provide an assimilation spin-up of
 202 82 sols before the C storm initiates, with results displayed covering the time period of
 203 $L_S = 315^\circ$ – 345° MY 34 to focus on the impact of the C storm on the lower atmosphere
 204 water and hydrogen distribution.

205 To investigate whether the exceptional dust circumstances in MY 34 were repre-
 206 sentative of hydrogen loss during a standard Mars year, for sections 4 and 5 we perform
 207 a simulation that assimilates MCS temperature profiles from MY 30 to provide a com-
 208 parison with another MY. This particular Mars year was chosen as it had good cover-
 209 age of temperature observations and a similar initiation time of the C storm, albeit with
 210 much less dust present (Montabone et al., 2015; Kass et al., 2016), allowing us to inves-
 211 tigate the extreme cases expected during the C storm period (the MY 34 C storm is amongst
 212 the strongest of this type of event whereas the MY 30 C storm is close to the minimum).
 213 This simulation has identical initial conditions to the primary simulation (the interan-
 214 nual variability in water at this time of year is small (Smith, 2004)) but from $L_S = 310^\circ$
 215 the simulation switches to assimilate MY 30 temperature profiles and the dust column
 216 is scaled to match the MY 30 dust scenario (Montabone et al., 2015) with no water vapour
 217 profiles assimilated.

218 3 Water distribution during the C storm

219 The water vapour vertical distribution from the C storm time period in MY 34 is
 220 shown in Figure 1. ACS observations assimilated before the ExoMars TGO observational
 221 gap and NOMAD observations after the gap are predominantly located at latitudes be-
 222 tween 30°S–45°S and 60°S–90°S respectively, and the water vapour abundance in the
 223 assimilation are in good agreement with those presented in Chaffin et al. (2021). The
 224 distribution shown in the simulated global water vapour distribution and the ExoMars
 225 TGO observations are not directly comparable because the NOMAD and ACS retrievals
 226 are plotted for specific observation occurrences whereas the assimilated water vapour dis-
 227 tribution shown is a time-zonal-mean. At the initiation of the C storm ($L_S = 320.6^\circ$)
 228 the hygropause (defined as where the water vapour volume mixing ratio drops below 70 ppmv)
 229 is at an altitude of around 50 km for the majority of latitudes, with a sharp drop-off north-
 230 ward of 60°N as a result of northern winter conditions. During the peak of the MY 34
 231 C storm (Figure 1b), the hygropause altitude at southern latitudes increases to 80 km
 232 and is comparable to the hygropause altitude reported during the MY 28 global dust storm
 233 through indirect measurements (Heavens et al., 2018) and more directly through inves-
 234 tigation of water vapour profiles retrieved by the SPICAM instrument (Montmessin et
 235 al., 2017).

236 The increase in high-altitude water abundance coincides broadly with the ExoMars
 237 TGO gap in observations ($L_S = 326.1^\circ$ – 333.5°) and covers all latitudes albeit with vary-
 238 ing levels in peak abundance. Even if NOMAD/ACS were able to continue observing,
 239 orbital constraints mean that the instruments can only capture a glimpse of the com-
 240 plex spatial structures apparent throughout the global atmosphere at this time due to
 241 the latitudinal sampling of the solar occultations. While it is unfortunate that there are
 242 no water vapour retrievals to constrain the lower atmosphere during the peak of the MY 34
 243 C storm, the initial conditions for this time period come from an assimilation of water
 244 vapour profiles and during the peak the dynamics of the atmosphere remain constrained
 245 through continued assimilation of MCS temperature profiles and dust column, a huge
 246 benefit of multi-spacecraft assimilation over a model-only GCM simulation.

247 The results found in Figure 1 can largely be explained through the mean merid-
 248 ional circulation patterns that occur during the MY 34 C storm. The time periods are
 249 so as to reasonably cover the initiation, peak and decay of the C storm and the assim-
 250 ilation before, during and after the gap in water vapour profile data from NOMAD and
 251 ACS. The majority of water vapour in the atmosphere is located over the southern pole
 252 after perihelion, and the subsolar point is moving away from the south pole and towards
 253 the northern hemisphere. At the onset of the C storm (Fig. 1a), the anti-clockwise cell
 254 situated over southern high latitudes is relatively weak, with a more dominant clockwise
 255 cell covering 30°S–60°N, and no water vapour in excess of 20 ppmv above 80 km altitude.
 256 This is in contrast to the expanded water vapour distribution during the peak of the C
 257 storm shown in Fig. 1b, with high-altitude water vapour exceeding 70 ppmv across all
 258 latitudes above 70 km. During this time period (i.e. in the ExoMars TGO observation
 259 gap and during peak brightness in MAVEN/IUVS observations), the subsolar point has
 260 shifted northward and the strength of both the anti-clockwise and clockwise cell have
 261 been increased due to the heating of the increased atmospheric dust. The meridional cells
 262 have expanded, with the anti-clockwise cell from 30°S–75°S in particularly strengthened.

263 The strengthened cells during the C storm provide an influx of water vapour to higher
 264 altitudes and also to more northerly latitudes throughout the lower atmosphere through
 265 the dusty deep convection mechanism (Heavens et al., 2018, 2019). The upwelling branch
 266 of circulation that separates the anti-clockwise and clockwise cells at this time is located
 267 at around 35°S, and so high-altitude water abundance is higher at nearby latitudes. Above
 268 around 65 km, the increased latitudinal extent of the clockwise cell results in water vapour
 269 in excess of 80 ppmv reaching the majority of the northern hemisphere. After the decay
 270 of the C storm (Fig. 1c), the water distribution reverts to a similar pattern to before the

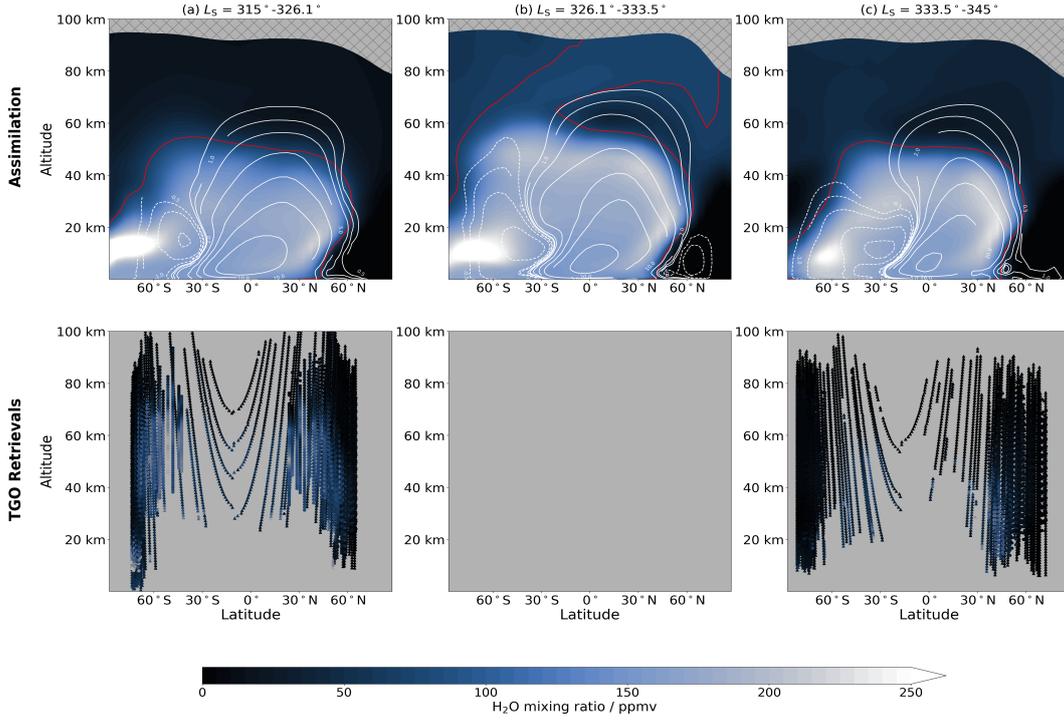


Figure 1. Zonal mean of the water vapour vertical profile (top) and ExoMars TGO retrievals of water vapour (bottom) covering (a) $L_S = 315^\circ\text{--}326.1^\circ$ (C storm initiation), (b) $L_S = 326.1^\circ\text{--}333.5^\circ$ (C storm peak) and (c) $L_S = 333.5^\circ\text{--}345^\circ$ MY 34 (C storm decay). The (solid,dashed) white contours indicate (clockwise,anti-clockwise) mean meridional circulation in 10^8 kg s^{-1} . The red contour is representative of the hygropause (70 ppmv water vapour).

271 C storm (Fig. 1a), although the subsolar point and hence upwelling branch of circulation
 272 are shifting further northward before transitioning from a cross-hemispheric clock-
 273 wise cell towards split cells in each hemisphere by northern spring equinox.

274 Chaffin et al. (2017) indicated high-altitude water vapour as a possible explana-
 275 tion for seasonally variable rates in the loss of hydrogen from the upper atmosphere of
 276 Mars. The water vapour that reaches high altitudes produces hydrogen through photodis-
 277 sociation, providing a direct source for increased hydrogen and enhanced escape. Our
 278 simulations include the LMD photochemical module (Lefèvre et al., 2004, 2008) and hence
 279 hydrogen is also simulated, with its spatial distribution (Lefèvre et al., 2004, 2008) and
 280 hence hydrogen is also simulated, with its spatial distribution (Lefèvre et al., 2004, 2008)
 281 and additionally by the NOMAD/ACS water vapour profiles (when avail-
 282 able) and the MCS temperature profiles throughout the assimilation. The following re-
 283 sults sections investigate the high-altitude hydrogen distribution, followed by a calcu-
 284 lation of the hydrogen escape through coupling our lower atmosphere assimilation with
 285 the 1-D modelling work of Chaffin et al. (2017) that has recently been updated and adapted
 286 by Cangi et al. (2020) to investigate D/H fractionation and water loss. Through this lower-
 287 upper atmosphere coupling, we can estimate the hydrogen loss rate expected during the
 288 C storm time period across the entire globe, rather than in a region or at a specific point
 289 such as is the case with observations alone. Modelling without constraints imposed by
 290 available retrievals can deviate from the true state of the atmosphere, but using data as-
 291 similation we can provide robust estimates of the hydrogen escape rate across the globe.

4 Hydrogen distribution during the C storm

Figure 2b,d shows zonally averaged hydrogen abundance at 80 km and the column dust optical depth during the C storm time period of MY 34. Before the C storm time period, hydrogen levels are maximum around the southern polar region associated with Mars moving away from the perihelion season. During peak MY 34 C storm activity, hydrogen levels reached 45 ppmv, with hydrogen abundance increased across all latitudes compared to the low abundance at $L_S = 322.5^\circ$ during the C storm initiation (Figure 2d).

To determine whether the high-altitude hydrogen abundance during the MY 34 C storm is representative of a typical Mars year (the C storm in MY 34 was a particularly strong dust event) and hence can be used as a basis for the extrapolation of hydrogen escape during C storm events under the present obliquity configuration, the results need to be compared against another Mars year to identify if the C storm response is the same. Figure 2a,c shows zonally averaged hydrogen abundance at 80 km and the column dust optical depth during the C storm time period of MY 30 (Figure 2a,c). As previously stated, the MY 30 assimilation has initial conditions at $L_S = 310^\circ$ identical to the MY 34 simulation and the only difference being that MCS temperature profiles and dust column observations are assimilated from MY 30.

Before the initiation of the C storm, hydrogen abundance and distribution in the MY 30 simulation (Figure 2a) is largely similar to the MY 34 simulation displayed in Figure 2b, indicating any increase in hydrogen found associated with the C storm can be decoupled from the seasonal trends on Mars that occur each Mars year. During the time period of the weaker C storm in MY 30, hydrogen abundance peaks at values of 15 ppmv meaning that hydrogen abundance during the MY 34 C storm were up to a factor of 3 times higher, and increased further during the decay phase of the C storm.

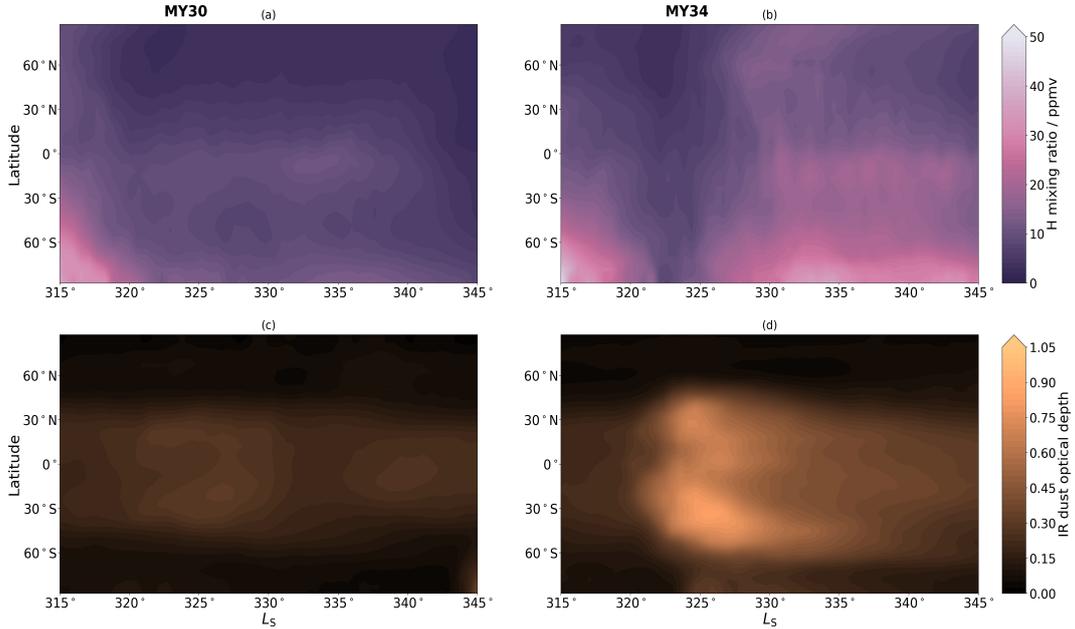


Figure 2. Zonally averaged hydrogen volume mixing ratio at 80 km (top) and IR dust optical depth (bottom) for $L_S = 315^\circ$ – 345° in MY 30 (a,c) and MY 34 (b,d).

These results indicate that weaker C storm events do not have a similar effect on upper atmosphere hydrogen abundance as stronger C storm events such as the MY 34 C storm. Therefore differences in the strength of C storm events, that lead to differen-

318 tial heating and expansion or contraction of the water vapour distribution, are likely to
 319 lead to annual variations in the hydrogen escape from Mars during the C storm time pe-
 320 riod. This hypothesis will be investigated in the next section.

321 5 Hydrogen escape during the C storm

322 Number densities at 80 km for each simulated chemical species in the lower atmo-
 323 sphere global assimilation are provided as initial lower boundary conditions for the 1-
 324 D photochemical model that spans the altitude range from 80 km to 200 km, with the
 325 top altitude representing the exobase at which the hydrogen escape flux can be calcu-
 326 lated. A fixed temperature profile is used that is consistent with upper atmosphere sim-
 327 ulations in the Mars Climate Database version 5.3 (Millour et al., 2018) during the in-
 328 vestigated time period. Chemical number densities at 80 km are updated daily from the
 329 global assimilation to mimic the lower atmosphere variations simulated for MY 34 and
 330 MY 30.

331 Figure 3 displays the MAVEN retrievals of Lyman alpha brightness during the MY 34
 332 C storm and the hydrogen escape flux calculated during the C storm time period for both
 333 the MY 34 and MY 30 assimilation, with the hydrogen escape flux calculated across the
 334 globe on a 30° by 25° longitude-latitude grid. The sampling was chosen to attempt to
 335 represent global variations in hydrogen escape that are likely to occur but are not ex-
 336 plicitly modelled as the 1-D model implementation results in a lack of horizontal trans-
 337 port above 80 km. The time required for transport from the lower to upper atmosphere
 338 is expected to be shorter in a fully 3-D simulation rather than the current coupled 3-D
 339 lower atmosphere and 1-D upper atmosphere set-up and so the calculated rates can be
 340 interpreted as a lower bound on the hydrogen escape rate. For the study of hydrogen
 341 escape over longer timescales (e.g. annual and multi-annual) it would be beneficial to
 342 run a 3-D simulation throughout the entire atmosphere, but this is beyond the scope of
 343 the current study. In the initiation phase of the MY 34 C storm, the hydrogen escape
 344 flux across the globe range from $4 - 6 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ depending on the exact spatial
 345 location, consistent with present day escape rates at nominal conditions (Chaufray et
 346 al., 2008; Chaffin et al., 2014). Once the hydrogen variations at 80 km during the MY 34
 347 C storm have propagated to higher altitudes, the hydrogen escape flux increases to a peak
 348 of around $1.2 - 1.8 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, a value that falls within the derived $1 - 5 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$
 349 during a previous global dust storm from SPICAM measurements (Chaffin et al., 2014;
 350 Heavens et al., 2018). This means that strong regional dust storms can enhance water
 351 loss rates on Mars to those levels observed during global-scale dust storms. Under the
 352 assumption that the hydrogen escape flux is at a nominal value of $3 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for
 353 the remainder of a Mars Year, the conditons during the MY 34 C storm time period would
 354 contribute a loss of 15% of the total annual water loss during only 5% of the year.

355 The time period over which the hydrogen escape flux increases and general trend
 356 is consistent with the MAVEN/IUVS Lyman alpha observations in Figure 3a, with a sim-
 357 ilar week lag from the lower atmosphere expansion of water vapour as a result of the C
 358 storm. The decrease in hydrogen escape flux from around $L_S = 332^\circ$ onwards is also con-
 359 sistent with the reduction in Lyman alpha brightness observed by MAVEN/IUVS.

360 While the hydrogen escape flux calculated during the MY 34 C storm shows a dis-
 361 tinct increase, the MY 30 assimilation is in stark contrast with similar hydrogen escape
 362 rates of $4 - 6 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ across the globe at the initiation of the MY 30 C storm
 363 followed by a steady decline in hydrogen escape as the MY 30 C storm progresses and
 364 decays. These results indicate that C storm strength and associated variations in hydro-
 365 gen escape need to be taken into account when extrapolating loss of water back in time.

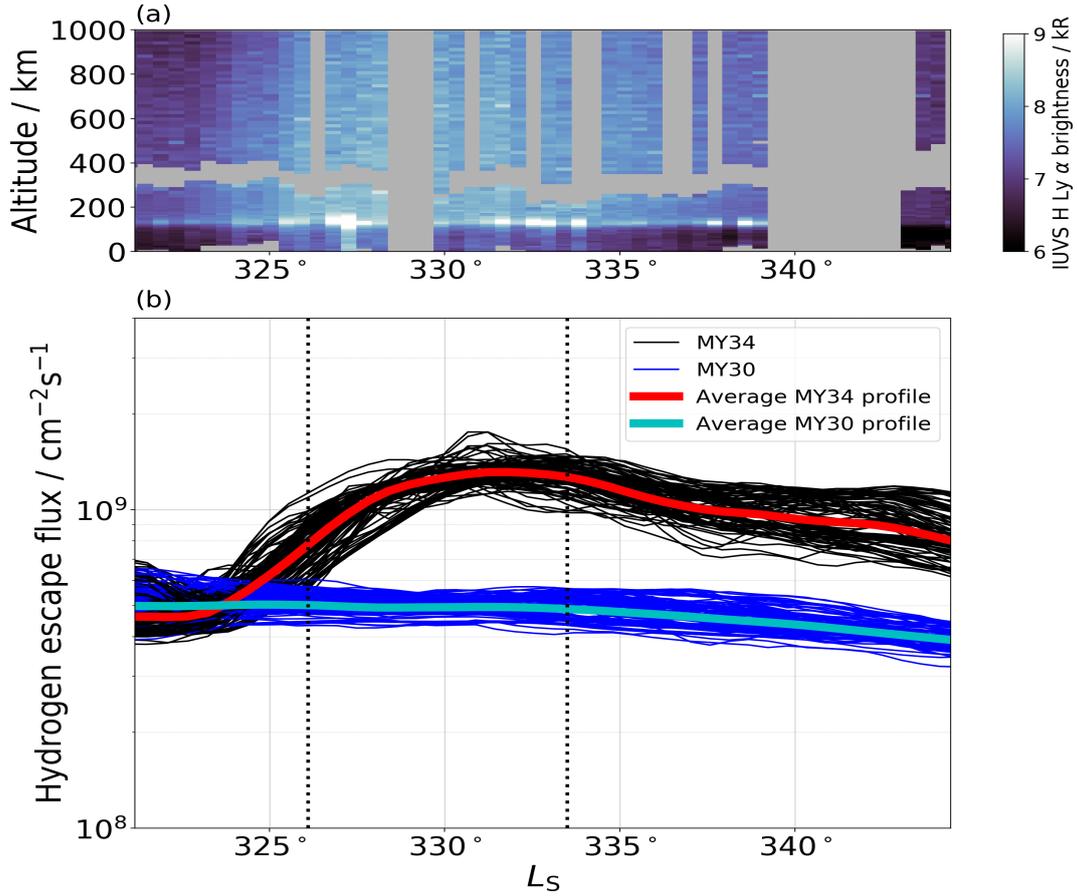


Figure 3. (a) MAVEN/IUVS retrievals of Lyman alpha brightness (Chaffin et al., 2021), a proxy for hydrogen abundance and (b) simulated hydrogen escape flux at 200 km for $L_S = 321^\circ - 344^\circ$ in MY 34 (red) and MY 30 (blue). Each individual black/blue line represents a different spatial point on a 30° by 25° longitude-latitude grid. The hydrogen escape flux from globally averaged chemical number densities in MY 34 (MY 30) is displayed in red (cyan). The vertical dotted lines at $L_S = 326.1^\circ$ and $L_S = 333.5^\circ$ indicate the start and end of the gap in ExoMars TGO retrievals.

6 Conclusions

A multi-spacecraft assimilation of ExoMars TGO and Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter retrievals into the OU modelling group GCM has been performed to investigate the lower atmosphere distribution of water vapour and hydrogen during the MY 34 C storm. These 4-D simulations have then been coupled to an upper atmosphere 1-D photochemical model to calculate global hydrogen escape rates associated with the MY 34 C storm, a particularly intense regional dust event.

The inclusion of MCS and ACS temperature profiles and for the first time water vapour profiles from NOMAD and ACS in the assimilation process provides the best possible representation of the actual temperature structure and circulation of the lower atmosphere during the MY 34 C storm and associated evolution of water vapour (and hydrogen). During the peak of the MY 34 C storm the dynamical structure was constrained by continuing MCS observations.

Water vapour retrievals from ExoMars TGO were unavailable during the peak hydrogen activity and elevation of the hygropause altitude associated with the MY 34 C storm that caused an expansion of the lower atmosphere and increased abundance of water vapour above 80 km during $L_S = 326.1^\circ\text{--}333.5^\circ$. The increase in water vapour during this time period led to an associated increase in hydrogen abundance, which after propagating to the exobase led to an increase in the globally averaged hydrogen escape rate from $4.6 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ before the MY 34 C storm to around $1.4 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at its peak, which means strong regional dust storms can enhance water loss rates on Mars to those levels observed during global-scale dust storms. A MY 30 C storm assimilation showed no associated increase in the hydrogen escape flux, indicating the influence of the MY 34 C storm was particularly intense, and that the hydrogen escape rates for any given C storm can be highly variable. These results indicate that interannual variations in the C storm strength need to be taken into account to provide a robust estimate of the integrated loss of water that has occurred on Mars.

7 Data Availability Statement

The simulation data used in this study are publicly available via the Open Research Data Online (ORDO) data repository at the following DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21954/ou.rd.13622699>.

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