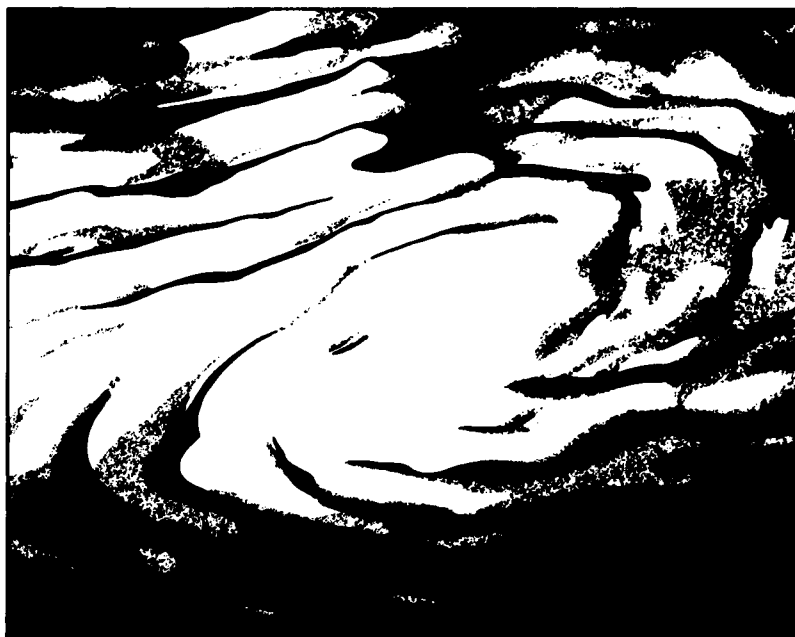


SCIENTIFIC RESULTS OF THE NASA-SPONSORED STUDY PROJECT ON MARS: EVOLUTION OF ITS CLIMATE AND ATMOSPHERE



MECA

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SCIENTIFIC RESULTS OF THE NASA-SPONSORED STUDY PROJECT
ON
MARS: EVOLUTION OF ITS CLIMATE AND ATMOSPHERE

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Project Summary

The principal scientific finding of the MECA study project is that Mars had a substantially "wetter" early history than previously thought. This realization is derived from several lines of evidence, including various geological arguments and geochemical models based on the composition of the SNC meteorites (which many investigators believe may be samples of Mars).

The research suggests that Mars has outgassed the equivalent of a global ocean of water 0.5–1.0 km deep. Previous estimates, based on the low measured abundance of atmospheric rare gas, suggested an inventory as small as 10–100 m. The discrepancy between these estimates is resolved if consideration is given to the various loss processes that may have affected the early atmosphere, such as hydrodynamic escape and atmospheric erosion by large impacts.

Where does the surviving water reside? The only visible reservoirs are the martian polar caps and atmosphere, but their combined inventories fall far short of the suspected total. The "missing" water may be stored within the impact-generated regolith. Geologically reasonable estimates of the regolith's total pore volume indicate that it may be sufficient to store a global ocean of water as much as 1.5 km deep.

The presence of integrated networks of small valleys throughout the planet's ancient cratered terrain suggests that the early martian climate may have differed markedly from that of today. Calculations indicate that an atmosphere of 1–5 bars of carbon dioxide would raise temperatures high enough to permit the flow of liquid water over the martian surface. Such conditions may have characterized the first half billion years of the planet's climatic history, only to end as weathering processes depleted the atmospheric inventory of carbon dioxide faster than it could be replenished by global volcanism. If the early climate of Mars was indeed warm and wet, it clearly reopens the possibility that the planet may have evolved indigenous life.

The diurnal, seasonal, and longer-term cycles of atmospheric water, carbon dioxide, and dust were also addressed during the MECA project. Evidence of the cyclical nature of the martian climate is visible in the layered stratigraphy of the perennial polar caps. This record is believed to reflect obliquity-driven changes in the formation of the seasonal carbon dioxide frost caps and the intensity of global dust storms. Complicating our understanding of this process is the recent discovery that the albedo of the seasonal caps is insolation dependent, a behavior that appears to explain why the current southern seasonal cap is able to survive throughout the southern summer.

As an experiment in the management of a complex scientific program, MECA must be considered a success. Of particular note were the various MECA workshops, which brought together scientists of diverse backgrounds to discuss issues of common interest. The cross-discipline education and cooperative efforts that resulted from these meetings were major factors in the success of the program. Because many important issues in Mars climate research remain unresolved, we strongly recommended that a mechanism be established to continue this program of focused workshops. Given the success of this approach, we believe that the investigation of other complex problems in planetary science would benefit from the MECA model of science management.

Science Report

INTRODUCTION

Mars has long fascinated scientists and the public. As a result, it has been the target of a number of ambitious spacecraft missions, the most recent being that of Vikings 1 and 2 in 1976. Following an initial period of intensive study, it became clear by the late 1970s that the Viking data could still yield important clues about the nature and evolution of Mars. In recognition of this potential, NASA established the Mars Data Analysis Program (MDAP) in 1979 to coordinate the funding and direction of Mars research. The first major investigation supported by MDAP was a focused three-year study project on the origin and evolution of martian volatiles. The project, entitled "Mars: Evolution of its Climate and Atmosphere" (MECA), was initiated in 1984 under the direction of the Lunar and Planetary Institute.

In many respects, MECA was an experiment in science management. It combined elements of both a project approach and an approach involving research by independent investigators. From the project perspective, specific goals and objectives were defined, with administrative and logistical support provided through a central organization, the Lunar and Planetary Institute. However, investigators were funded individually and operated independently within the context of the study. To insure broad-based involvement, participation in the study project was open to all investigators who had research interests in the volatile and climate history of Mars, regardless of funding source.

At the first meeting of the project, held in the spring of 1984, a science steering committee was elected and general guidelines for the project were defined. Three broad areas of study were identified: (1) the bulk chemical composition and outgassing history of Mars, (2) surface processes and climate history, and (3) seasonal cycles. Within each area key questions were identified to provide a focus for research. A program of workshops was then organized to provide cohesion to the project and ensure that the project's objectives would be addressed (Table 1). The results and ideas stimulated by this approach opened avenues of research that were unforeseen at the project's outset.

In this report, we review the scientific highlights of the MECA study project and discuss some of the important issues in martian climate research that remain unresolved.

TABLE 1. MECA workshops.

Name of Workshop	Date
Water on Mars	December 1984
Dust on Mars I	February 1985
Clouds on Mars I	April 1985
Evolution of the Martian Atmosphere	August 1985
Dust on Mars II	February 1986
Special Session on Martian Geomorphology and Its Relation to Subsurface Volatiles at LPSC XVII	March 1986
MECA Symposium on Mars: The Evolution of Its Climate and Atmosphere	July 1986
Atmospheric H ₂ O Observations of the Earth and Mars	September 1986
Clouds on Mars II	June 1987
Polar Processes on Mars	May 1988
Dust on Mars III	September 1988

WATER ON MARS

The principal conclusion of the MECA study project is that Mars had a substantially "wetter" history than previously thought. Although this conclusion is not accepted by all investigators, strong evidence has been rallied from several independent lines of study, including various geological arguments and geochemical considerations.

Geological Evidence for Abundant Water

With an atmospheric surface pressure of 6.1 mbar and a mean equatorial temperature of 220 K, the present martian climate precludes the stable flow of liquid water on the surface. However, there is evidence that a far different climate may have existed in the past. Integrated networks of small valleys, which resemble terrestrial runoff channels, dissect the planet's ancient (~4 b.y. old) heavily cratered terrain, an indication that the early climate may have differed markedly from that of today.

As discussed by Carr (1986), the clearest evidence of past water is provided by the outflow channels, which are broad, scoured depressions hundreds of kilometers long that

exhibit braided and streamlined forms within their beds. Most outflow channels originate within the cratered highlands just north of the great equatorial canyon system of Valles Marineris. The channels emerge abruptly from areas of collapsed and disrupted terrain, the apparent result of a massive and catastrophic release of groundwater. Carr estimates that the volume of water required to carve the channels was equivalent to a global ocean some 50 m deep. Channel ages, inferred from the density of superposed craters, indicate several episodes of flooding; the oldest postdate most of the valley networks, while the youngest apparently formed within the last 1 to 2 b.y.

There is little evidence of the fate of the water that eroded the channels. Initial examination of Mariner 9 and Viking images failed to reveal any indication of catchment areas. Their absence was attributed to the rapid vaporization of flood waters under conditions of low atmospheric pressure. However, the assumption that the flood waters were short-lived has been challenged recently by the discovery of possible remnants of ancient shorelines and sedimentary deposits in the low-lying northern plains. The evidence, derived from analysis of Viking images, suggests that large lakes and possibly even a shallow sea may have developed at the confluence of the major channels (Jöns, 1984; Scott and Tanaka, 1986; Parker *et al.*, 1987; Greeley and Guest, 1987).

Ancient shorelines and sedimentary deposits are not the only evidence that sizable bodies of water may have once existed on Mars. Horizontal, layered deposits up to 5 km thick are found in several branches of Valles Marineris. McCauley (1978) argued that these deposits are lake sediments that accumulated during an early epoch. Nedell *et al.* (1987) developed this idea further, suggesting that the lakes were formed when extensive groundwater seepage filled several of the enclosed canyons.

Given the evidence of past water and the desiccated appearance of Mars today, the question arises: Where has all the water gone? Spacecraft measurements of the hydrogen escape flux from the martian atmosphere (Anderson and Hord, 1971) and kinetic theory calculations (Walker, 1977) indicate that Mars has lost ~3 m of water by photodissociation and exospheric escape over the course of its geological history. Thus, most of the planet's initial inventory of water should still reside in one of three reservoirs: the atmosphere, the perennial polar caps, or the regolith. The inventories of the first two reservoirs are readily assessed. Data obtained by the Viking Mars Atmospheric Water Detectors (MAWD) revealed that if all the water vapor present in the martian atmosphere were

to condense on the surface it would form a global layer only 15 microns thick (Farmer *et al.*, 1977). Similarly, the dimensions of the perennial polar caps are consistent with a quantity of water no greater than a global ocean several tens of meters deep. The total size of these two reservoirs falls significantly short of the planetary inventory inferred from the abundant geomorphic evidence of past fluvial and periglacial activity (Carr, 1986). This evidence suggests that a considerable amount of water now resides within the regolith.

How much water can the martian regolith hold? As on the Moon, the intense bombardment phase of early martian geologic history is thought to have resulted in the production of a blocky, porous megaregolith that extends to considerable depth (Fanale, 1976; Carr, 1979). Studies of the seismic characteristics of the lunar crust suggest that it is brecciated to a depth of about 20 km. Gravitationally scaling this result to Mars suggests that the martian crust may retain significant porosity to a depth of 10 km and may possess a total pore volume sufficient to store a global layer of water 0.5–1.5 km deep (Clifford, 1987a).

The possibility that the regolith represents a sizable volatile reservoir is supported by a long list of martian landforms whose morphology has been attributed to the presence of subsurface water (Rossbacher and Judson, 1981; Carr, 1986). Many of these features resemble cold-climate features found on Earth; however, in other instances the morphologies appear unique to Mars. Of particular interest are rampart craters. Unlike craters found on the Moon, Mercury, and other bodies of the solar system, the ejecta surrounding many martian craters appears to have been emplaced in part as a ground-hugging fluidized flow. This fluidized appearance has led many investigators to conclude that rampart crater ejecta morphology originates from an impact into a water- or ice-rich crust (Carr *et al.*, 1977; Gault and Greeley, 1978; Mouginis-Mark, 1987); however, laboratory cratering experiments indicate that interactions with the atmosphere may also play a role (Schultz and Gault, 1979). If the water impact interpretation is correct, then the number and distribution of rampart craters indicates that the inventory of subsurface water on Mars, at the time of impact, was substantial.

Geological estimates of the amount of water that Mars has degassed have varied over a wide range. By mapping the extent and thickness of the planet's volcanic units, Greeley (1987) has estimated that about 46 m of water may have been released by volcanism alone, given lava volatile contents comparable to Earth's. Carr (1986) has taken a different approach. Based on his estimate of the

volume of water required to erode the outflow channels and the likely extent of its original source area, he estimates a global inventory of water in excess of 500 m, assuming the source region was representative of the rest of the planet.

Mars Volatile Inventory: Geochemical Considerations

Most early attempts at estimating the volatile inventory of Mars were based on comparisons of the relative abundance of various atmospheric constituents (e.g., the noble gases, carbon, and nitrogen) with the corresponding values found on Earth. These comparisons were made in the belief that they provided an accurate indication of the relative extent of outgassing that Mars had experienced. However, the inventory of water predicted by these models was invariably small (100 m or less) and clearly at odds with the geological evidence. This conflict may at last be reconciled as a result of knowledge gained from an unlikely source: the Shergotty, Nakhla, and Chassigny (SNC) meteorites.

The SNCs are a group of eight stony meteorites that share at least two unique characteristics: a remarkably youthful crystallization age (~ 1.3 b.y.) and an embedded gas component that provides persuasive evidence of their origin. Based on age alone, the SNCs have attracted considerable attention, for they are half as old as the next youngest extraterrestrial sample found to date. Such recent crystallization requires a parent body that was geologically active for far longer than might be reasonably expected of the Moon or any asteroid. This consideration narrows the field of dynamically reasonable candidates to just one: Mars (Wasson and Wetherill, 1979; Wood and Ashwal, 1981).

Virtual confirmation that Mars is the parent body of the SNC meteorites has come from the analysis of gas trapped within their shock-induced melt. The gas has an isotopic composition that is strikingly similar to the atmospheric samples analyzed by the Viking Landers (Bogard, 1982; Pepin, 1987). This similarity extends to an observed enrichment in ^{15}N , a compositional characteristic that is otherwise unique to Mars (Becker and Pepin, 1984).

As probable samples of Mars, the SNCs provide clues to the planet's bulk composition and geochemical history (Dreibus and Wanke, 1985; McSween, 1985). When normalized to the abundances of such refractory elements as Si and La, the SNC meteorites are found to be several times richer in the moderately volatile elements (e.g., Na, K, and Br) than is generally inferred for Earth (Dreibus

and Wanke, 1985). This finding provides further support for the belief that Mars is a volatile-rich planet.

Although a high volatile inventory appears difficult to reconcile with the low measured abundance of atmospheric rare gas, the discrepancy is readily explained if the martian atmosphere experienced a substantial mass loss early in its history. There are at least three processes by which such a loss may have occurred: hydrodynamic escape, atmospheric erosion by energetic impacts, and loss via the solar wind.

Hydrodynamic escape, or the rapid thermally-driven loss of hydrogen from a planetary atmosphere, was probably most effective during the first few hundred million years of solar system history, when the atmospheres of the terrestrial planets may have still possessed a significant solar component and when the sun's ultraviolet output was 1–2 orders of magnitude greater than it is today. One consequence of a vigorous flow of escaping hydrogen would be the enhanced loss of other light atmospheric constituents. As a result, an atmosphere that has undergone this process should exhibit a noticeable mass-fractionation of the lighter species; this is precisely what is observed in the present-day noble gas pattern of Mars (Hunten *et al.*, 1987; Pepin, 1987).

At least two other processes may have contributed to the depletion of a dense early atmosphere. Calculations by Watkins and Lewis (1985) suggest that large impacts may have blasted a significant portion of the early atmosphere off into space. This process would have been particularly effective during the heavy bombardment period, when large impacting bodies were still prevalent in the solar system. The depletion of the atmosphere was probably further enhanced by the interaction of the solar wind with the martian ionosphere. Particle velocities within the resulting plasma flow likely exceeded the 5 km s^{-1} escape velocity of Mars. Calculations indicate that this process alone could have reduced a dense early atmosphere to its present state in as little as a billion years (Perez-de-Tejada, 1987).

Thus, lines of geological evidence and geochemical models based on the composition of the SNC meteorites suggest that a substantial amount of water was present on Mars throughout much of its early history. The apparent discrepancy between this large inventory and the low measured abundance of atmospheric rare gas is readily explained if consideration is given to the various loss processes that are likely to have affected the early atmosphere.

EVOLUTION OF THE CLIMATE

There are at least two schools of thought regarding the climatic conditions that prevailed on Mars at the time of valley network formation. The first is based on the idea that the networks resulted from precipitation and surface runoff (e.g., Masursky *et al.*, 1977), a model that requires atmospheric pressures and surface temperatures far higher than those of today. Such conditions are possible if Mars had an early "greenhouse" environment. Estimates of the amount of carbon dioxide necessary to maintain surface temperatures above freezing range from 1 to 5 bars (Postawko and Kuhn, 1986; Kasting, 1987). Although this is two to three orders of magnitude greater than the present atmosphere, it is well within current estimates of the planet's total volatile budget (Pepin, 1986).

For the atmospheric inventory of carbon dioxide to decline from an initial value of several bars to its present level of 6.1 mbar implies a significant depletion process. Although atmospheric erosion may have played a role, an alternative explanation is that atmospheric carbon dioxide reacted with the regolith and liquid water to form carbonate rocks (Kahn, 1985; Pollack *et al.*, 1987). The further development of the regolith by repeated impacts and weathering would have created an additional sink via adsorption (Fanale *et al.*, 1986). These processes may have ultimately modified the climate to the point where liquid water was no longer stable at the surface. Proponents of this model suggest that this transition occurred about 4 b.y. ago, marking the end of valley network formation.

The second school of thought suggests that the early climate did not differ substantially from that of today. Advocates of this view find no compelling reason to invoke a warmer, wetter period to explain the origin of the valley networks. Rather, they cite evidence that the primary mechanism of small valley formation was groundwater sapping (Pieri, 1980; Brakenridge *et al.*, 1985; Baker and Partridge, 1986), a process that does not require that liquid water exist in equilibrium with the atmosphere. If this analysis is correct, then small valleys could develop even under current climatic conditions (Carr, 1983; Brakenridge *et al.*, 1985).

Yet if the early climate were similar to the present one, why are valley networks found almost exclusively in the oldest terrains? Several explanations are possible. First, it has been observed that many small valleys originate on or near the rims of large craters. This association led Brakenridge *et al.* (1985) to suggest a genetic relationship whereby the impact melt produced during the formation

of large craters resulted in the establishment of local hydrothermal systems within the surrounding ice-rich crust; the discharge from these systems then formed the valleys. Because only large impacts would have produced sufficient melt to establish the necessary hydrothermal activity, the decline in valley network formation might then simply reflect a decline in the number of large impactors.

Another possibility has been proposed by Jakosky and Carr (1985). They note that prior to the formation of the Tharsis volcanic complex, the obliquity of Mars periodically reached values as high as 45°. During these times, large quantities of water ice may have sublimated from the perennial polar caps. As the resulting vapor was transported toward the equator, cold nighttime temperatures could have led to saturation and snowfall at low latitudes, creating a snowpack that grew until the obliquity once again declined. Clow (1987) has shown that the absorption of sunlight within such a snowpack could lead to transient melting, even at pressures and temperatures only slightly in excess of those of today. The meltwater so produced may have then eroded the valleys.

An interesting aspect of this proposal is that it is self-terminating. With the formation of Tharsis, the maximum obliquity of Mars declined to 35°, a figure too small to generate the high polar sublimation rates and low-latitude snowpack ascribed to the pre-Tharsis climate. Although the exact timing is not well constrained, present estimates indicate that the age of the Tharsis complex is about 3.5 b.y.

Finally, recent geological mapping by Masursky *et al.* (1987) indicates that some small valleys may be considerably younger than previously thought, although it is unclear whether these valleys are volcanic or fluvial in origin. If subsequent investigation establishes that the valleys are indeed fluvial, then either our understanding of the middle course of martian climatic history, or the process involved in valley network formation, will likely need revision.

Geomorphic Evidence of the Current Climate

Although there is considerable uncertainty regarding the conditions that characterized the early martian climate, there is little debate that Mars has been cold throughout its recent history. Climatic models indicate that surface temperatures have probably not varied significantly from the current average of 220 K at the equator and 160 K at the poles. Atmospheric surface pressures have probably also been low, with obliquity-driven polar insolation changes causing oscillations between 0.1 to 15 mbar, a variation that reflects differences in the amount of carbon dioxide

adsorbed in the regolith and stored as ice in the seasonal polar caps (Fanale *et al.*, 1982).

An important characteristic of the current climate is that between the latitudes of $\pm 35^\circ$, mean annual temperatures exceed the frost point. Consequently, ground ice in this region is unstable and will eventually sublime away (Clifford and Hillel, 1983; Fanale *et al.*, 1986). The vapor that results from the sublimation of equatorial ground ice is ultimately cold trapped at higher latitudes, thus enriching the ground ice content of the temperate and polar regolith.

Evidence that the distribution of ground ice conforms to this theoretical expectation has been presented by Squyres and Carr (1986). They note that while crater rims, scarps, and ridges are all sharply defined at equatorial latitudes, these features exhibit more rounded and subdued profiles closer to the poles. Squyres and Carr propose that this "softened" appearance is the result of ice-enhanced creep, and they further note that the absence of softened terrain near the equator is consistent with the theoretical prediction that this latitude band is ice free.

THE SEASONAL CYCLES OF CARBON DIOXIDE, WATER, AND DUST

The rotational axis of Mars is currently inclined by 25° ; thus the planet experiences seasonal change. In late fall, the reduction in insolation at high latitudes is sufficient to cause carbon dioxide to condense from the atmosphere. Surface pressure variations monitored by the Viking Landers indicate that as much as a fifth of the planet's atmosphere freezes out during winter, forming a seasonal polar cap that extends toward the equator as far as 40° latitude. By midspring, the measured rise in surface pressure indicates that virtually all of the carbon dioxide has returned to the atmosphere.

Because northern winter occurs very near perihelion, the seasonal cycle of carbon dioxide is not symmetric between the poles. As a consequence of its shorter season, the northern carbon dioxide cap is smaller than its southern counterpart. In addition, while the northern seasonal cap disappears entirely during summer, a remnant of the southern seasonal cap persists throughout the year. This year-round survival of carbon dioxide has been attributed to a polar cap albedo that is significantly higher in southern spring than observed during the equivalent season in the north (Paige and Ingersoll, 1985). A possible explanation for this disparity is that major dust storms on Mars occur at a time when the northern cap is forming, making it

inherently dustier than its southern counterpart. However, the Viking mission found that global dust storms did not occur every year, and that the seasonal variation of atmospheric pressure showed little variability. This insensitivity of the carbon dioxide cycle to atmospheric dustiness may be related to the greater insolation of southern spring, which may cause dust grains entrained in the seasonal deposit to become hot and sink into the frost, producing a dramatic increase in the seasonal cap's surficial reflectivity (Paige and Kieffer, 1986).

There is a clear link between the seasonal cycle of carbon dioxide and the corresponding cycles for dust and water. When the seasonal cap sublimates in southern spring, the high mass flow from the cap and the sharp temperature contrast across the cap boundary often results in the generation of local dust storms. Closer to perihelion, larger storms frequently occur at the subsolar point. The actual manner in which dust is initially raised by these storms is unknown, but several mechanisms have been proposed. These mechanisms include impact ejection of dust particles by saltating sand grains, the entrainment of dust clumps or aggregates by low-speed surface winds, and dust fountaining due to the rapid desorption of carbon dioxide (Huguenin *et al.*, 1986) or water (Greeley and Leach, 1979) from the regolith. Dust devils, discovered recently on Viking Orbiter images by Thomas and Gierasch (1985), may be another mechanism for raising dust into the atmosphere.

Perihelion dust storms frequently grow to global proportions. Two examples of this occurred during the first year observed by the Viking mission. However, while global dust storms may dominate the planet one year, they can be absent the next. This interannual variability may be linked to the dust cycle itself. For example, the transport of dust into the northern hemisphere during the winter of one year may ultimately weaken the Hadley circulation in the following year (Haberle, 1986).

Pollack *et al.* (1979) have suggested that the fate of atmospheric dust is intimately tied to the formation of the seasonal polar caps. They propose that airborne dust particles serve as nucleation centers for the condensation of water ice. As either hemisphere enters the fall season, the suspended particles receive an additional coating of frozen carbon dioxide. This coating of carbon dioxide makes the particles heavy enough to precipitate from the atmosphere, contributing to the formation of the seasonal polar caps. In the spring, the carbon dioxide sublimates away; however, at high latitudes, it leaves behind a residual deposit of water ice and dust that adds to the perennial caps. Insolation changes, due to axial precession and periodic

variations in obliquity and orbital eccentricity, may alter the mixing ratio of ice to dust in the annual depositional layer. Such a scenario appears to explain the origin of the numerous horizontal layers that comprise the stratigraphy of both caps (Toon *et al.*, 1980). This model of polar deposition has a potential problem, however. As noted by Jakosky and Martin (1987), Viking infrared observations, made at times of peak dust storm activity, indicate that the temperature of the polar atmosphere above the lowermost scale height often exceeds the frost point of carbon dioxide. Clearly, such an observation is difficult to reconcile with the condensation mechanism of Pollack *et al.* (1979). As a result, the process of polar deposition remains an active area of theoretical investigation.

Mariner 9 radio occultation data indicates that the polar deposits may be anywhere from 1–6 km thick (Dzurisin and Blasius, 1975). If the larger estimates are accurate, calculations suggest that the deposits may be thick enough to undergo geothermal melting at their base (Clifford, 1987b). In the north the deposits cover an area ~ 1000 km across, while in the south they have a diameter of approximately 1500 km. Because few craters with diameters greater than 300 m are visible within the deposits, they are believed to be relatively young ($\sim 10^8$ years; Plaut *et al.*, 1988). Interestingly, elsewhere on the planet there are a number of older, but morphologically similar, deposits. Though they now appear devoid of ice, Schultz and Lutz (1988) have argued that these deposits may be evidence that the location of the poles has migrated over time due to changes in the planet's moment of inertia. Such changes may have resulted from the filling of impact basins by flood basalts and the development of the Tharsis volcanic complex.

Models of the martian atmospheric circulation have been constructed to study the transport processes involved in the formation of the polar deposits. Since much of the redistribution of dust is thought to occur during northern winter, most of the research has focused on the circulation at this time of year. Constraining the models are Viking observations showing a substantial warming of the polar atmosphere during the second global dust storm of 1977 (Martin and Kieffer, 1979). The fact that the warming occurs well into the polar night indicates that it must be due to atmospheric dynamics, although the precise mechanism remains unclear. Early calculations with an inviscid zonally symmetric model were unable to reproduce the warming (Haberle *et al.*, 1982). More recently, however, Magalhaes (1987) and Barnes and Hollingsworth (1987) have been able to reproduce some of its features, although the mechanisms

they invoke are fundamentally different. Magalhaes, for example, retains zonal symmetry but invokes viscous mixing, while Barnes and Hollingsworth employ a planetary wave mechanism similar to that involved in the sudden warming of the Earth's stratosphere.

In each of these approaches, suspended dust particles play a key role by altering the thermal drive for atmospheric motions. Pollack *et al.* (1987) have begun to investigate this interaction with the aid of a general circulation model. Their first results show that the presence of atmospheric dust has a substantial effect: strengthening and expanding the Hadley circulation, enhancing the thermal tides, and changing the character of the midlatitude storms. One interesting result of their calculations is the steady increase in low-level winds (at the latitudes where dust storms originate) as the total dust in the atmosphere increases. However, if wind speeds continue to increase, what stops the dust-raising process? One possibility is that by increasing the atmospheric stability, dust in the atmosphere suppresses the turbulence that mixes momentum down to the surface. Calculations with a boundary layer model tailored for Mars have shown this to be the case, suggesting that a direct reduction in wind speeds is not necessary to shut off the dust-raising process (Haberle, 1987).

Water, like dust and carbon dioxide, is cycled seasonally between its reservoirs. Measurements from both Earth-based instruments and the Viking MAWD experiment have shown that the distribution of atmospheric water vapor varies both seasonally and latitudinally. This variability is thought to result from a combination of atmospheric transport and exchange with surface and subsurface reservoirs (Jakosky, 1985). The most likely reservoirs are surface ice deposits and water adsorbed within the regolith. However, because of their similar response to solar insolation and because of the uncertain role of atmospheric transport, the relative contributions of these two sources are difficult to determine.

Nevertheless, it is known that the residual north polar cap is composed of water ice and that it acts as a source of vapor during the summer (Kieffer *et al.*, 1976; Farmer *et al.*, 1976). However, is the residual cap the only source of water at this season? Recent modeling calculations by Haberle and Jakosky (1987) suggest that it is not. If it were, then the resulting vapor would have to be transported to lower latitudes rather quickly; otherwise, the polar regions would be saturated and covered with clouds, a condition that is not observed. Furthermore, calculations show that the high latitude circulation is too weak to move water

very far from the cap. Other sources of water must therefore exist.

On an annual and zonally averaged basis, there is a gradient in atmospheric water vapor abundance from north to south. The cause of this asymmetry has been the subject of some debate. *Jakosky* (1983) has argued that the gradient is a reflection of the different composition of the remnant caps and that it implies a net north-to-south transport. However, asymmetries in global circulation patterns due to dust storms (*Davies*, 1981) or the seasonal mass flux of carbon dioxide to and from the caps (*James*, 1986) can also set up a gradient in water vapor with no net transport. Thus, the mass balance of the caps remains an open issue.

SUMMARY

The view of Mars that has evolved during the MECA study project is far different from that which existed shortly after the Viking mission. Mars is now recognized as a wetter and more complicated planet than previously thought; however, many questions about its evolution still remain:

How much water did Mars inherit from the solar nebula, and how much of this was ultimately outgassed? Was there an additional late-stage input from comets and meteorites? What was the primordial composition of the atmosphere and to what extent was it affected by hydrodynamic escape and impact erosion? What conditions gave rise to the valley networks? How much confidence is there in the identification of various martian landforms as indicators of subsurface volatiles? What variables affect the current annual cycles of carbon dioxide, water, and dust? How have these cycles varied with time? These are just a few of the many questions that investigators have only begun to address.

Some answers may be provided by the further analysis of data already in hand; this is the approach of the three-year study project that succeeds MECA, entitled "Mars: Evolution of Volcanism, Tectonism, and Volatiles." New data anticipated from Mars Observer (the next U.S. Mars mission, scheduled for launch in 1992) will be of critical importance. But ultimately our ability to answer many of the outstanding questions concerning the martian climate is contingent on the missions that follow Mars Observer. These will likely include rover investigations of the polar layered terrains, canyons, volcanos, outflow channels, and valley networks; the establishment of a global meteorological network to monitor the present climate; seismic and electrical investigations to determine the current state and distribution of subsurface volatiles; and the return of

samples to Earth to allow researchers to bring to bear the full spectrum of modern analytical techniques to the investigation of martian mineralogy, geochemistry, and volatiles.

As an experiment in the management of a major science program, MECA must be viewed as a success. Besides meeting its scientific goals, the study project clearly demonstrated the benefits of an interdisciplinary approach to the investigation of a complex and multifaceted topic. The success of this strategy was particularly evident during the study project's various workshops, where terrestrial and planetary scientists were often brought together from seemingly disparate fields. Yet out of these meetings came discussions and collaborations that often produced significant advances in our understanding of the martian atmosphere and climate. The fruit of this effort is likely to benefit Mars research for many years to come.

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Appendix 1. Origin of MECA

The Mars Data Analysis Program (MDAP) was initiated in FY-79 to provide support for the post-Viking analysis of Mars data. It was recognized by the scientific community that the amount of high-quality data acquired during the Primary and Extended Viking Mission (from June 1976 to August 1980) constituted a national resource, but that adequate support for continued analysis was not available from the existing Research and Analysis Program.

TABLE A1. *Ad hoc* Mars Science Working Group, assembled March 11, 1982 to define science goals for a Mars data analysis program.

Members	Affiliation
R. Greeley, Chairman	Arizona State University
J. Boyce, ex officio	NASA Headquarters
M. Malin	Arizona State University
R. Batson	U.S. Geological Survey
S. Saunders	Jet Propulsion Laboratory
S. Squyres	Cornell University
E. Shoemaker	U.S. Geological Survey
L. Wilkening	University of Arizona
V. Baker	University of Arizona
M. Carr	U.S. Geological Survey
J. Pollack	NASA Ames Research Center
A. Albee	Jet Propulsion Laboratory
F. Fanale	University of Hawaii
D. Wilhelms	U.S. Geological Survey
D. Wise	University of Massachusetts
H. Kieffer	U.S. Geological Survey

An *ad hoc* Mars Working Group (Table A1) of planetary scientists met in 1981 and defined the key science questions for Mars that could be addressed with the available data. Representatives of the working group then met with NASA administrators and presented their findings. Four major scientific questions were identified for continued study of Mars:

1. What is the volatile history of Mars?
2. What is the climatic history of Mars and how have lithosphere/atmosphere/hydrosphere interactions affected the evolution of the martian surface?

3. What is the volcano-tectonic history of Mars?
4. What are the major components of the atmospheric circulation and what processes are responsible for major atmospheric phenomena?

Because of limited resources, the restructured Mars Data Analysis Program was unable to support research to address all of these questions concurrently. Rather, the approach was to address problems dealing with atmosphere and climate first, and to defer the volcanic-tectonic research topics to a later time.

A Space Science and Applications Notice entitled "The Volatile Evolution and Climate History of Mars" was released May 25, 1983. Proposals were received and reviewed later that year. As stated in the notice:

Plans for administering this study involve not only focusing the effort [science], but also introducing a novel method of coordinating the individual research tasks which are selected. The approach involves the establishment of a working group consisting of all investigators whose proposals are accepted and, through occasional meetings of the group, the coordination of the research efforts.

The organized approach is not intended to coerce any of the participants to redirect their research, but rather to take advantage of the collective wisdom of the participants to guide the study, to identify important areas of research not addressed by proposals, and to encourage voluntary responses to the identified needs.

Thus, in addition to having scientific goals, the program was also an experiment in science management that, in many respects, combined elements of a mission-oriented project while retaining the principal investigator's individual goals and responsibilities.

An organizational meeting of funded investigators and associates was held in March 1984 to refine the science objectives and to decide how to move forward on the three-year program. A steering committee was elected (Table A2) and science questions were posed around three issues for Mars: (1) seasonal cycles, (2) surface processes/climate history, and (3) bulk chemical composition and outgassing history (Table A3).

TABLE A2. MECA Science Steering Committee.

Member	Affiliation	Area
Ronald Greeley	Arizona State University	Chairperson
Michael Carr	U.S. Geological Survey	Surface Processes
Fraser Fanale	University of Hawaii	Climate Change
Robert Haberle	NASA Ames Research Center	Seasonal Cycles
Robert Pepin	University of Minnesota	Bulk Chemistry
Peter Schultz	Lunar and Planetary Institute	Project Scientist (to 1984)
Stephen Clifford	Lunar and Planetary Institute	Project Scientist (1984 to 1988)
Joseph Boyce	NASA Headquarters	Ex Officio
Kevin Burke	Lunar and Planetary Institute	Ex Officio
Pam Jones	Lunar and Planetary Institute	Project Administrator

It was decided that the study project [named "Mars: Evolution of Its Climate and Atmosphere" (MECA)] would be open to all investigators who had a potential contribution, regardless of funding. A letter of invitation was mailed to more than 3500 individuals on the LPI distribution list. Eventual membership for the project grew to about 130 (see Appendix 2). Newsletters were issued regularly to keep the study group, NASA, and the community abreast of MECA activities. Figure A1 shows the relationship among NASA, the Working Group, and the Lunar and Planetary Institute.

The scientific program of MECA was conducted through a series of symposia, special sessions, and workshops. For each of these activities, an organizing committee was formed to develop the program, solicit participants, and prepare summaries of the program. All activities were supported through LPI for logistics, including mailing and preparation of abstract volumes and technical reports.

TABLE A3. Major MECA study questions.

Season Cycles

- What are the physical processes that control the present seasonal cycles of dust, water, and carbon dioxide?
- How do the seasonal cycles change from year to year?
- How can models of the seasonal cycles be extended to long-term variations?

Surface Processes and Climate History

- What are the causative agents of climate change on Mars?
- How have the abundances of surface volatiles changed with time?
- What are the major volatile reservoirs, and how have they changed with time?
- What has been the climatic history of Mars and how has it been affected by the agents, abundances, and reservoirs?
- What observations and modeling will help resolve the above questions?

Bulk Chemical Composition and Outgassing History

- What is the range of possible absolute and relative abundances of the initial Mars volatile inventory?
- What evidence exists that the planet has undergone significant oxidation? Is the oxidation only on the surface? Are there plans to try to measure martian atmospheric D/H? Has the composition of degassed volatiles changed with styles of volcanism in time and space (inputs from climate history/ surface morphology)?
- What does the present atmosphere tell us about integrated outgassing modified by "loss processes" to the regolith and to space over martian geologic time? Implications of isotopic signatures ($^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$, $^{129}\text{Xe}/^{132}\text{Xe}$, $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{36}\text{Ar}$)?

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Appendix 3. MECA Bibliography

What follows is a compilation of papers and abstracts authored by participants in the MECA program during the period 1984–1988. Notably absent from this listing are abstracts from the last two MECA workshops: Polar Processes on Mars (to be issued as a NASA Technical Memorandum) and Dust on Mars III (to be published as an LPI Technical Report), neither of which had gone to press by the time this summary was ready for publication. While every effort has been made to ensure that this bibliography is otherwise complete, a few abstracts and papers have undoubtedly slipped through the cracks. This possibility should be kept in mind when using the bibliography for research purposes.

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Symbol notation: "†" MECA Principal Investigator, "*" Member MECA Study Group.

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