

**1 Non-Migrating Tides in the Martian Atmosphere as**  
**2 Observed by MAVEN IUVS**

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3 Using the Mars Atmospheric and Volatile EvolutioN Mission (MAVEN)  
4 Imaging Ultraviolet Spectrograph (IUVS), we found periodic longitudinal  
5 variations in CO<sub>2</sub> density in the Martian atmosphere. These density varia-  
6 tions are derived from observations of the CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $B^2\Sigma^+ \rightarrow X^2\Pi$ ) emission from

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7 limb scans in the 100 – 190 km altitude range. The variations exhibit sig-  
8 nificant structure with longitudinal wavenumbers 1, 2 and 3 in an effectively  
9 constant local solar time frame, and we attribute this structure to non-migrating  
10 tides. The wave-2 component is dominated by the diurnal eastward-moving  
11 DE1 tide at the equator and the semidiurnal stationary S0 tide at the mid-  
12 latitudes. Wave-3 is dominated by the diurnal eastward-moving DE2 tide,  
13 with possibly the semidiurnal eastward-moving SE1 tide causing an ampli-  
14 tude increase at the midlatitudes. Structure in the wave-1 component can  
15 be explained by the semidiurnal westward-moving SW1 tide.

Accepted Article

## 1. Introduction

16 Diurnal solar forcing of planetary atmospheres can produce tides, global-scale oscilla-  
17 tions in density, pressure and temperature with periods which are harmonics of the solar  
18 day. Tides have been observed throughout the atmosphere, from the equatorial region  
19 [*Withers et al.*, 2003] to the high northern and southern latitudes [*Cahoy et al.*, 2007;  
20 *Withers et al.*, 2011], and from the surface [*Wilson and Hamilton*, 1996] to 160 km alti-  
21 tude [*Withers et al.*, 2003]. Numerical simulations (e.g. *Forbes et al.* [2002]) predict that  
22 these tides can extend further up to 200 km.

23 Because of the widespread occurrence of tides, and also because tides can produce  
24 significant deviations in atmospheric state variables from their equilibrium values, a com-  
25 prehensive study is critical for understanding the variability of the atmosphere and the  
26 circulation and transport processes that stem from this variability. Regions of turbulence  
27 can form from instabilities within the tidal fields, lifting suspended dust, water vapor and  
28 other atmospheric constituents into the upper atmosphere [*Zurek*, 1976]. By controlling  
29 the densities of various atmospheric constituents directly or indirectly through such in-  
30 duced transport processes, tides can strongly influence atmospheric chemistry, ultimately  
31 exerting an indirect control on atmospheric loss rates. These far-reaching effects of tides  
32 imply that no understanding of the atmosphere can be complete without an understanding  
33 of atmospheric tides.

34 Using CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> UV doublet ( $B^2\Sigma^+ \rightarrow X^2\Pi$ ) emission profiles obtained from limb scans with  
35 the Imaging Ultraviolet Spectrograph (IUVS) [*McClintock et al.*, 2014] on board the Mars  
36 Atmospheric and Volatile Evolution Mission (MAVEN) spacecraft [*Jakosky et al.*, 2015],

we investigate the variation of CO<sub>2</sub> density with latitude and longitude in a fixed local solar time (LST) frame. We observe significant spatial structure in the density variations and attribute this structure to tides.

In the next section, we provide some background information for understanding atmospheric tides and the CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> UV doublet emission. Section 3 describes the observations, while Section 4 explains the steps in the processing to obtain the CO<sub>2</sub> density. Results appear in Section 5, with some discussion on the interpretation of the observed wave structures. We conclude in Section 6.

## 2. Background

### 2.1. Atmospheric Tides

Tides describe the intrinsic oscillatory modes of the planetary atmosphere in response to the diurnal solar forcing. The latitudinal and longitudinal structure of each tide is separable from the vertical structure [Chapman and Lindzen, 1970; Forbes, 1995]. Altitudinal dependence is described by a characteristic vertical wavelength, and evanescent modes with small vertical wavelengths decay rapidly with altitude. Latitudinal variations are described by Hough functions. Longitudinal variations are represented mathematically as a series of cosines [Forbes *et al.*, 2002]:

$$\sum_s \sum_n A_{s,n} \cos[(s - n)\lambda + n\Omega t + \delta_{s,n}] \quad (1)$$

where  $s$  is the zonal wavenumber,  $\Omega$  is the planetary rotation rate,  $\lambda$  is the east longitude,  $t$  is the local solar time (LST). Tides with  $n = 1, 2$  are diurnal and semidiurnal respectively.  $A_{s,n}$  and  $\delta_{s,n}$  are the amplitude and phase of the individual tides, identified by the  $(s, n)$

55 label [*Chapman and Lindzen, 1970; Forbes, 1995*]. Solar forcing on a zonally symmetric  
 56 planet gives rise to migrating or sun-synchronous tides, characterized by  $s = n$ . Zonal  
 57 asymmetries, such as in topography, surface thermal inertia, surface albedo and dust, can  
 58 interact with the solar forcing to produce non-migrating tides, with  $s \neq n$  [*Forbes, 2004*].

59 When observed in a fixed LST reference frame, longitudinal variations due to the  $(s, n)$   
 60 tide will manifest as a wave- $|s - n|$  structure, offset by an apparent phase  $\delta'_{s,n}$  that has a  
 61 magnitude equal to  $n\Omega t + \delta_{s,n}$ :

$$A_{s,n} \cos[|s - n|\lambda + \delta'_{s,n}] \quad (2)$$

62 In such a reference frame, an observer will not be able to observe variations due to mi-  
 63 grating tides (Equation 2 reduces to a constant over all longitudes with  $s = n$ ). However,  
 64 this same observer will be able to observe longitudinal variations from non-migrating  
 65 tides, with each wave- $k$  structure being the sum of non-migrating tides with  $|s - n| = k$ .  
 66 Identification of the dominant tides behind that structure involves the comparison of the  
 67 observed amplitudes and phases, and their dependence on latitude and altitude to model  
 68 results of specific tidal modes. Such is the case for this study, and we shall henceforth  
 69 discuss only non-migrating tides.

70 Previous observations and simulations of the Martian atmosphere have found several  
 71 dominant non-migrating tides. The diurnal eastward  $(-1, 1)$  tide, also referred to as DE1,  
 72 has been inferred from wave-2 structure in surface pressure data from Viking [*Wilson and*  
 73 *Hamilton, 1996*], temperature measurements in the lower atmosphere by Thermal Emis-  
 74 sion Spectrometer (TES) [*Banfield et al., 2003; Wilson, 2000*] and the middle atmosphere

75 by Mars Climate Sounder (MCS) [Guzewich et al., 2012], upper atmosphere densities  
76 from aerobraking [Wilson, 2002; Withers et al., 2003] and atmospheric profiles inferred  
77 from observations by SPectroscopy for Investigation of Characteristics of the Atmosphere  
78 of Mars (SPICAM) [Withers et al., 2011]. Amplitudes are found to be  $\sim 20\%$  of the  
79 equilibrium value in the upper atmosphere over the tropics and the midlatitudes, de-  
80 creasing towards the poles [Withers et al., 2003, 2011]. This is consistent with numerical  
81 simulations [Bougher et al., 2004; Angelats i Coll et al., 2004; Wilson, 2002; Forbes and  
82 Miyahara, 2006], which returned amplitudes of  $10\% - 40\%$ .

83 Wave-3 structure is typically smaller than the wave-2 component, and has been at-  
84 tributed to two tides. The DE2  $(-2, 1)$  tide has been observed in TES temperature data  
85 by Wilson [2000] and Banfield et al. [2003], and in MCS data by Guzewich et al. [2012] and  
86 Moudden and Forbes [2014]. Observations of atmospheric densities [Withers et al., 2003]  
87 and electron densities [Bougher et al., 2001, 2004; Cahoy et al., 2007] at high latitudes  
88 found the semidiurnal SE1  $(-1, 2)$  tide to dominate instead. To reconcile the seemingly  
89 contradictory conclusions from the various studies, Wilson [2002] and Withers et al. [2011]  
90 suggested that DE2 is dominant at the equatorial region, while SE1 is dominant at the  
91 high latitudes. This hypothesis is later confirmed by Wolkenberg and Wilson [2014].

92 The wave-1 component is typically weaker than both wave-2 and wave-3. Due to the  
93 large observational uncertainties associated with lower signal strength, it has been difficult  
94 attributing this component to particular tides [Withers et al., 2003, 2011]. Modeling by  
95 Moudden and Forbes [2008] suggests that the diurnal stationary D0  $(0, 1)$  tide and the  
96 semidiurnal westward SW1  $(1, 2)$  tide may be significant.

## 2.2. CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> UV Doublet Emission

Often referred to as the UV doublet (UVD), the CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $B^2\Sigma^+ \rightarrow X^2\Pi$ ) electronic transition system at 289 nm provides a direct measure of CO<sub>2</sub> densities in the Martian atmosphere. CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>( $B^2\Sigma^+$ ) is generated from CO<sub>2</sub> via photoionization and photoelectron impact, and from CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>( $X^2\Pi$ ) by solar photons via fluorescent scattering [Fox, 2004]. Studies by Fox and Dalgarno [1979], Jain and Bhardwaj [2012] and Stiepen et al. [2015] have found photoionization and photoelectron impact to be the dominant mechanisms, with fluorescent scattering accounting for 1% of total UVD emission rates at  $\sim 130$  km and  $< 25\%$  at  $\sim 180$  km. This dominance of photoionization and photoelectron impact means that CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> UVD volume emission rates are effectively controlled by CO<sub>2</sub> density and the solar EUV flux. Since the solar EUV flux is uniform over the sunlit planetary disk, spatial variations in UVD intensity can be used to infer variations in the CO<sub>2</sub> density.

## 3. Observations

Data used in this study come from limb scans performed by the Imaging Ultraviolet Spectrograph (IUVS) on the MAVEN spacecraft. Details of IUVS operation and observational phases can be found in McClintock et al. [2014]. Briefly, IUVS is mounted on an Articulated Payload Platform (APP) which allows for controlled orientation of the instrument slit as it captures spectra of the planet in the FUV (110 – 190 nm) and MUV (180 – 340 nm) channels. Limb scans are taken near the periapses, with the slit pointed perpendicularly and to the right of the direction of motion [Jain et al., 2015]. A scan mirror sweeps the slit up and down, allowing IUVS to map the vertical profile of the atmosphere with an altitude resolution of  $\sim 7$  km. 12 scans are taken in this manner with

117 each periapse pass. With the slit spanned by 7 spatial bins, a total of 84 limb profiles are  
118 taken during the periapse observational phase of each orbit.

119 This study makes use of periapse limb profiles obtained with the MUV channel from  
120 Orbit 109 (start time 18 October 2014 16:05 UT) to Orbit 128 (start time 22 October  
121 07:49 UT), corresponding to a solar longitude  $L_s = 217^\circ - 219^\circ$ . No data was taken during  
122 Orbit 115, as the spacecraft stood down due to dust concerns associated with the passage  
123 of Comet Siding Spring [Schneider *et al.*, 2015]. In order to constrain our observations  
124 to a narrow range in LST for the observation of non-migrating tides, only profiles from  
125 scans 6 – 12 are used in this study. For this set of profiles, all observations are taken  
126 between 1340 – 1500 LST. With each periapse pass, the tangent latitude of the line of  
127 sight migrates southward from  $\sim 44^\circ$  to  $\sim -5^\circ$  while the tangent longitude varies by  
128  $\sim 15^\circ$ . Spacecraft altitude increases from  $\sim 190$  km at scan 6 to  $\sim 530$  km at scan 12.  
129 Between successive orbits, longitudinal coverage changes by  $\sim 67^\circ$  eastward, with every  
130 16th orbit returning to approximately the same longitude. A total of 873 profiles is used  
131 in our analysis.

#### 4. Analysis

132 Raw data are processed through the standard pipeline for IUVS periapse limb scans.  
133 After removing the detector dark current, the digital numbers are converted into physical  
134 intensities using a calibration curve based on observations of UV-bright stars, with an  
135 appropriate scaling by instrument geometric factors for extended source observations.  
136  $\text{CO}_2^+$  UVD emissions are then isolated from the calibrated spectra using a Multiple Linear  
137 Regression (MLR) algorithm. The MLR algorithm involves the scaling and fitting of

138 reference spectra for all known emissions in the MUV region [*Stevens et al.*, 2015]. In the  
 139 289 nm region, the only significant spectral features are the UVD band and a background  
 140 signal that follows the spectral shape of the Sun. This latter component is still being  
 141 investigated but is likely due to scatter by aerosols in the Martian atmosphere, possibly  
 142 with an additional contribution from instrumental stray light. In either case the spectral  
 143 shape of the UVD and the solar component differ greatly and separation is straightforward.

144 We adopt an empirical approach to determine the CO<sub>2</sub> density from the measured  
 145 intensity. The volume emission rate is parameterized as a Chapman profile and the  
 146 measured intensity is fitted to the integral of the volume emission rate along the line of  
 147 sight:

$$I = 2 \int_b^{\infty} C \sigma n_0 \exp\left(\frac{z_0 - z}{H} - \frac{\sigma n_0 H}{\mu_0} e^{(z_0 - z)/H}\right) \frac{rdz}{\sqrt{r^2 - b^2}}$$

148 where  $z$  is the altitude,  $b$  is the impact parameter measured from the center of the planet,  
 149  $r = R + z$  with  $R$  being the planetary radius,  $\sigma$  is the absorption cross-section for the UV  
 150 photon,  $n_0$  is the number density of CO<sub>2</sub> at the reference altitude  $z_0$ ,  $H$  is the atmospheric  
 151 scale height,  $\mu_0$  is the cosine of the solar zenith angle, and  $C$  is a proportionality factor  
 152 that accounts for the solar flux and any calibration factors.  $z_0$  is set to be 130 km for  
 153 ease of comparison with other studies of Martian atmospheric tides. Three parameters  
 154 are allowed to vary in the fitting process:  $C$ ,  $H$ , and  $\sigma n_0$ , which we refer to as the scaled  
 155 density. Because the fit is done over an altitude range of 100 – 190 km, it will be more  
 156 sensitive to tides with long vertical wavelengths that span a larger fraction of that window.  
 157 Figure 1 shows some fits to the MLR-derived profiles.

158 Of course, we do not expect the volume emission rate to rigorously follow a Chapman  
159 profile. The Chapman layer is used here as a convenient way to empirically characterize  
160 the emissions rather than a rigorous description of the excitation process. Nonetheless,  
161 because the Chapman layer is an approximation to the UVD emission processes, its emis-  
162 sion profile possesses the correct shape and, as shown in Figure 1, the fits based on this  
163 approach are excellent. The analytic form of this Chapman approximation allows us to  
164 easily determine the value of  $\sigma n_0$  for characterizing CO<sub>2</sub> density variations in the at-  
165 mosphere. As the fits in Figure 1 show, the scaled density controls the altitude of the  
166 emission peak, essentially the altitude of the maximum CO<sub>2</sub> photoionization rate. The  
167 Chapman profile does rigorously describe the variation of emission rate with solar zenith  
168 angle to the extent that the atmosphere can be treated as plane-parallel. Thus it satisfies  
169 our objective in providing a good measure of the relative CO<sub>2</sub> density variations in the  
170 atmosphere. In addition, the derived scaled densities will not be sensitive to the detector  
171 calibration. Although there are uncorrected flatfield effects that result in sensitivity vari-  
172 ations of  $\sim 10\%$  across the spatial bins, these will only change the value of  $C$  rather than  
173 the scaled density.

## 5. Results and Discussion

174 Figure 2 shows an overview of variations in CO<sub>2</sub> density with latitude and longitude.  
175 Because IUVS coverage returns to a similar longitude every 16th orbit, we are able to  
176 determine these variations to be persistent in a fixed LST frame, leading to our interpre-  
177 tation of the observed structures as tides. Along the equator, we observe a strong wave-2  
178 tidal component, with peaks occurring at 75°E and 225°E. The amplitude of this compo-

179 nent decreases towards higher latitude. There is also a smaller set of peaks at  $\sim 40^\circ\text{N}$ , at  
180 a different apparent phase from the equatorial component.

181 As discussed previously, identification of the dominant tides requires the decomposition  
182 of the structure into components of different wavenumbers, and subsequent analysis of  
183 the amplitudes and phases. Grouping profiles into  $10^\circ$  latitude bands, we fit sinusoids  
184 of wavenumber 1, 2 and 3 to the scaled density values. Figure 3 shows the fits between  
185  $-5^\circ\text{N}$  and  $5^\circ\text{N}$  and between  $35^\circ\text{N}$  and  $45^\circ\text{N}$ . Figure 4 shows the amplitudes  $A'$  normalized  
186 to the equilibrium values and apparent phases  $\delta'$  from the fits, with Table 1 showing the  
187 plotted values.

188 As anticipated from Figure 2, the wave-2 component has the largest average amplitude,  
189 with a peak of 29% at  $\sim 10^\circ\text{N}$ , decreasing to 6% at  $\sim 30^\circ\text{N}$ . This structure is characteristic  
190 of the DE1 tide which has been identified as the dominant mode at the equatorial region  
191 by the previous studies detailed in Section 2.1. Further confirmation of a dominant DE1  
192 tide comes from the phase, which has been found to change minimally with season from  
193 the surface to 130 km [Wilson, 2002]. After correcting for the LST, we find a phase of  
194  $253 \pm 7^\circ$  at the equator, comparable to the phase of  $286 \pm 20^\circ$  (averaged over  $-5^\circ\text{N}$  and  
195  $5^\circ\text{N}$ ) observed by Withers *et al.* [2003]. Northwards of  $\sim 30^\circ\text{N}$ , the amplitude increases  
196 slightly to 8%, with a significant decrease in apparent phase. This change in apparent  
197 phase, together with the amplitude trending in the opposite direction expected from the  
198 DE1 tide, suggest another tide becoming dominant at the higher latitudes. Modeling by  
199 Moulden and Forbes [2008] found the semidiurnal stationary S0 (0, 2) tide increasing to  
200 20% of the DE1 peak amplitude at  $\sim 40^\circ\text{N}$ , consistent with our observations. If we assume

201 that these model results remain valid over different seasons ( $L_s = 26^\circ - 92^\circ$  for *Moudden*  
202 *and Forbes* [2008]), then the amplitude increase in the wave-2 component at the higher  
203 latitudes can be explained by the S0 tide.

204 The average amplitude of the wave-3 component is slightly smaller than that for wave-  
205 2, decreasing from 18% from the equator with latitude. This latitudinal structure agrees  
206 well with previous studies such as *Bougher et al.* [2001], *Bougher et al.* [2004], *Withers*  
207 *et al.* [2003] and *Withers et al.* [2011], and points to the DE2 tide, rather than SE1  
208 which instead has a local maximum at  $\sim 20^\circ\text{N}$ . This is consistent with the observations  
209 by *Wilson* [2002] and *Withers et al.* [2011] that DE2 dominates at equatorial latitudes.  
210 Phases show only a rough correspondence however, with values of  $25 \pm 7^\circ$ ,  $54 \pm 9^\circ$  and  
211  $\sim 90^\circ$  for this study, *Withers et al.* [2003] and *Wilson* [2002] respectively. This discrepancy  
212 in phase may be due to the different seasons at which the observations for the various  
213 studies were conducted. At  $30^\circ - 40^\circ\text{N}$ , a reversal in the amplitude trend expected from  
214 DE2 together with a large change in apparent phase of  $200^\circ$  (almost a flip in the tidal  
215 structure) point to the presence of another dominant tide at the higher latitudes. The  
216 amplitude increase is consistent with SE1 becoming dominant at the higher latitudes, but  
217 a poor correspondence in phases and the constraint of observations to a single LST in this  
218 study prevent a conclusive identification.

219 While previous observational studies have detected a weak but significant wave-1 com-  
220 ponent, these studies were unable to pinpoint the dominant tides producing this wave-1  
221 signal. Our fitted wave-1 component exhibits a sharp peak at  $\sim 20^\circ\text{N}$ , which resembles  
222 the structure for the SW1 (1, 2) tide as modeled by *Moudden and Forbes* [2008]. Beneath

223 the peak, the observed amplitude also shows a general decrease towards the north, another  
224 feature consistent with the modeled SW1 tide. With the same caveat regarding poten-  
225 tially unknown seasonal dependences, we suggest that the wave-1 structure is dominated  
226 by the SW1 tide.

## 6. Conclusions

227 Examining variations in CO<sub>2</sub> scaled densities derived from fitting Chapman profiles to  
228 CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> UVD emissions from IUVS limb scans, we are able to observe significant wave-1,  
229 wave-2 and wave-3 tidal structure at 100 – 190 km altitude. Amplitudes of all three  
230 components are consistent with previous observations and modeling results. Wave-2 is  
231 dominated by DE1 at the equator, with S0 being a possible explanation for the struc-  
232 ture observed at the midlatitudes. Wave-3 structure is consistent with DE2 and SE1  
233 at the equator and midlatitudes respectively, but this cannot be confirmed by a phase  
234 comparison. Wave-1 appears to be dominated by SW1.

235 Generally, identification of tides in this study is complicated by an uncertainty that  
236 stems from a poor understanding of how tides in the upper Martian atmosphere change  
237 with the seasons. This uncertainty should not persist for long however. The dataset  
238 used in this study is but a small fraction of all limb scan data that will come from  
239 MAVEN IUVS. This study demonstrates that even with a limited dataset we are able  
240 to draw significant conclusions, and is a prelude to the science that can come from an  
241 expanding dataset as MAVEN proceeds through its mission. We will be able to investigate  
242 seasonal changes in the tidal structures, and also better characterize the vertical structure  
243 of tides with the larger volume of data. The precession of the spacecraft orbit will allow

244 us to sample densities at a different LST, to better characterize phases of the various  
245 tides, and to go beyond the restrictions of the constant LST frame and start observing  
246 migrating tides. These additional dimensions to the data will be able to provide more  
247 constraints for the validation of atmospheric models, ultimately forming the foundation  
248 for the comprehensive study we need to understand the behavior and effects of thermal  
249 tides in the Martian atmosphere.

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Accepted Article

D R A F T

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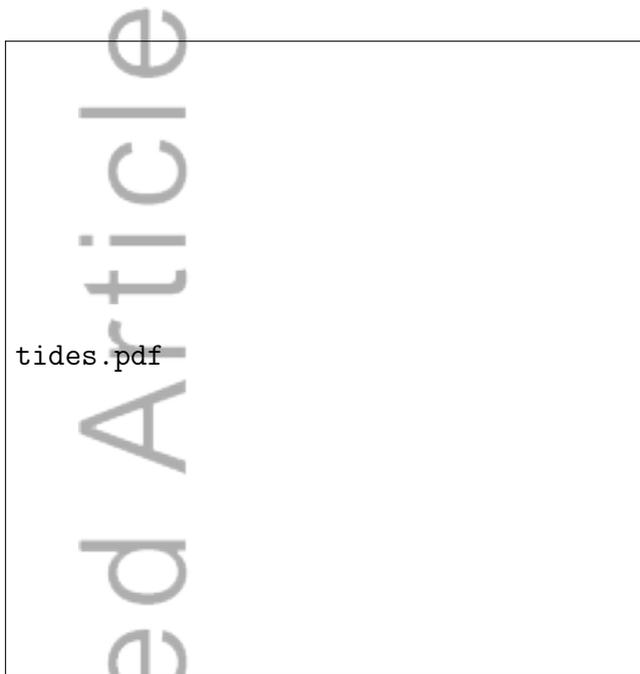
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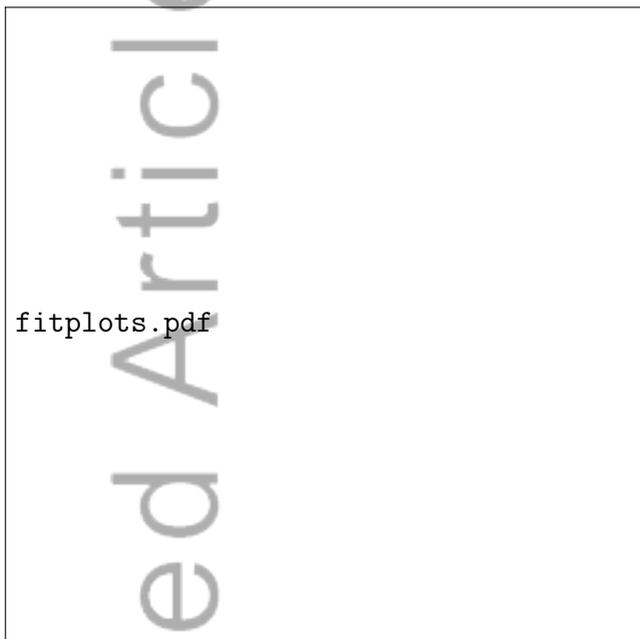
**Figure 1.** Chapman layer fits to isolated  $\text{CO}_2^+$  UVD profiles at  $\sim 10^\circ\text{N}$  and different longitudes. All profiles are from scan 10 spatial bin 4 of the respective orbits. Error bars denote  $1\sigma$  random uncertainties in the measurements. The higher density at  $221^\circ\text{E}$  gives rise to a higher altitude of the emission peak (indicated by the arrows).

**Table 1.** Fitted amplitudes  $A'_k$  normalized to zonal mean and apparent phases  $\delta'_k$  for various latitude bands for wavenumbers  $k = 1, 2, 3$ .

Latitude	$A'_1$	$\delta'_1$	$A'_2$	$\delta'_2$	$A'_3$	$\delta'_3$
$-5^\circ\text{N}$ to $5^\circ\text{N}$	$13\% \pm 2\%$	$263^\circ \pm 10^\circ$	$20\% \pm 2\%$	$253^\circ \pm 6^\circ$	$17\% \pm 3\%$	$121^\circ \pm 6^\circ$
$5^\circ\text{N}$ to $15^\circ\text{N}$	$11\% \pm 2\%$	$233^\circ \pm 13^\circ$	$29\% \pm 2\%$	$237^\circ \pm 4^\circ$	$16\% \pm 2\%$	$101^\circ \pm 6^\circ$
$15^\circ\text{N}$ to $25^\circ\text{N}$	$19\% \pm 3\%$	$289^\circ \pm 7^\circ$	$16\% \pm 2\%$	$230^\circ \pm 9^\circ$	$9\% \pm 2\%$	$92^\circ \pm 15^\circ$
$25^\circ\text{N}$ to $35^\circ\text{N}$	$7\% \pm 2\%$	$320^\circ \pm 17^\circ$	$7\% \pm 2\%$	$169^\circ \pm 14^\circ$	$7\% \pm 2\%$	$296^\circ \pm 15^\circ$
$35^\circ\text{N}$ to $45^\circ\text{N}$	$4\% \pm 1\%$	$150^\circ \pm 21^\circ$	$8\% \pm 2\%$	$143^\circ \pm 10^\circ$	$8\% \pm 2\%$	$344^\circ \pm 11^\circ$
Tides Identified	SW1		DE1, S0		DE2, SE1	



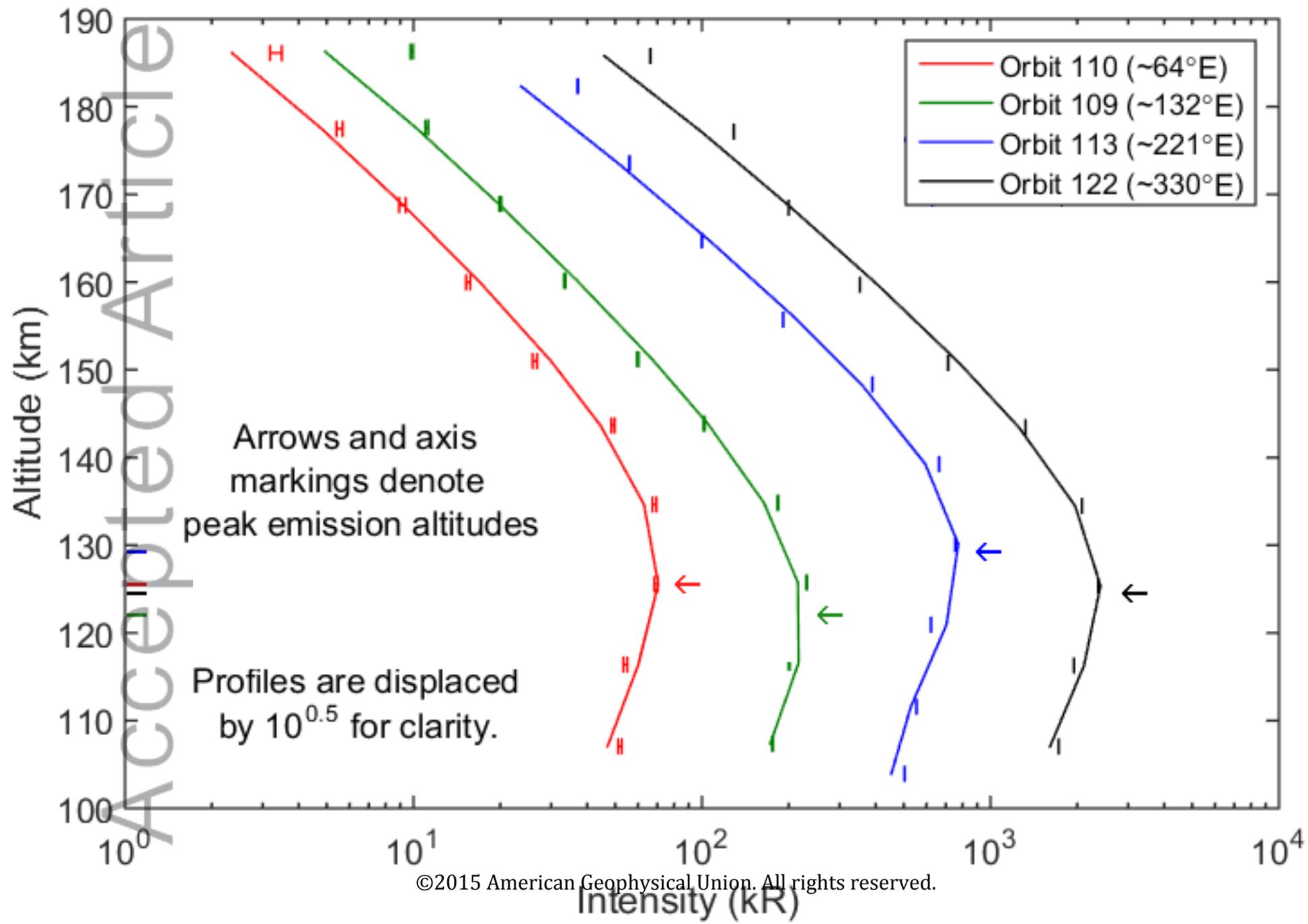
**Figure 2.** Scaled density at 130 km binned by latitude and longitude, with crosses showing the location of the individual profiles. Observations are made between 1340 – 1500 LST at  $L_s = 217^\circ - 219^\circ$ . A value of 0.1 ( $\text{km}^{-1}$ ) corresponds to a density of  $\sim 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  assuming  $\sigma \sim 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$ .

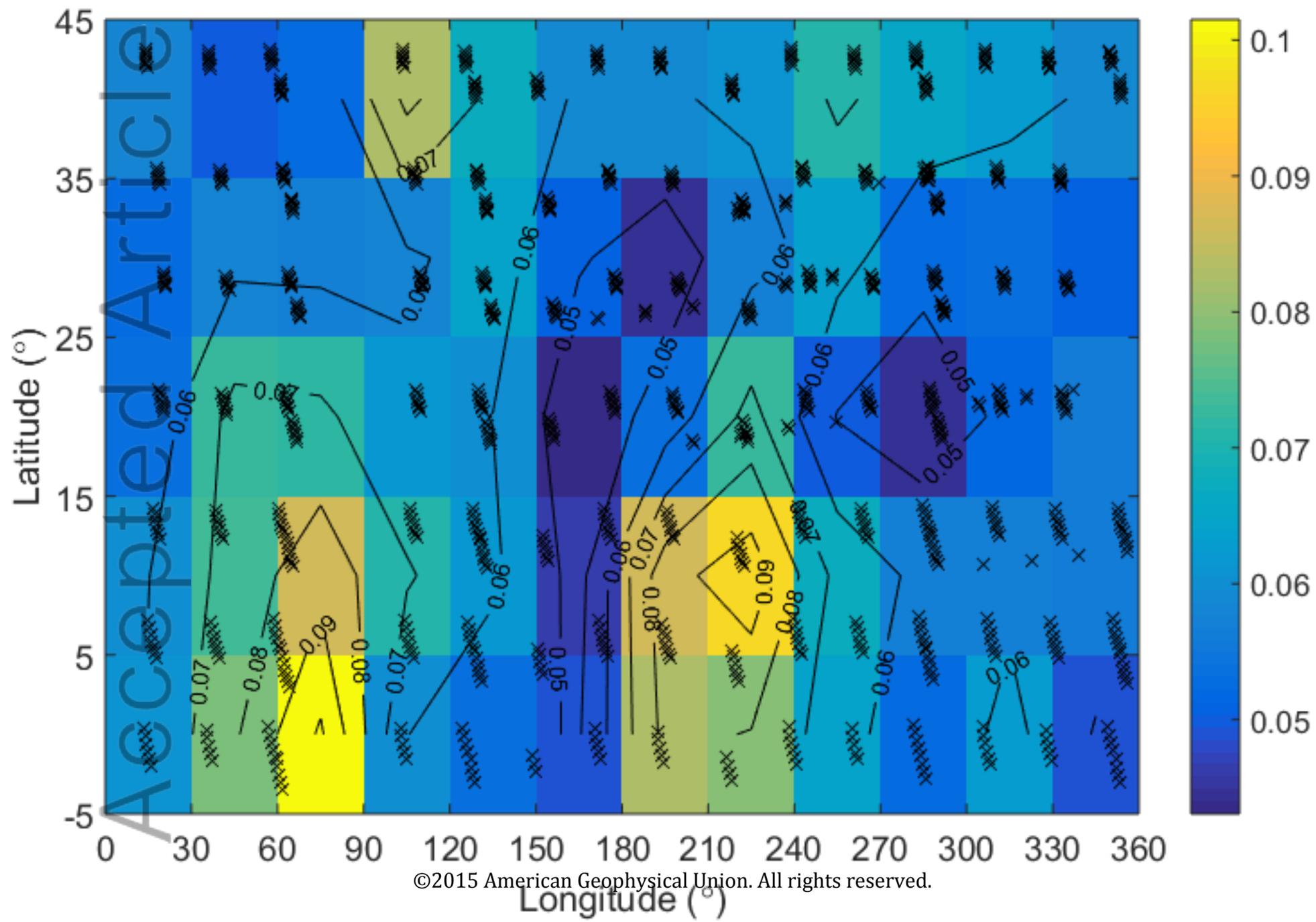


**Figure 3.** Fit to variations of scaled density at 130 km derived from profiles from  $-5^{\circ}\text{N}$  to  $5^{\circ}\text{N}$  (left) and from  $35^{\circ}\text{N}$  to  $45^{\circ}\text{N}$  (right). Error bars denote  $1\sigma$  fit uncertainties. A value of 0.1 ( $\text{km}^{-1}$ ) in scaled density corresponds to a density of  $\sim 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  assuming  $\sigma \sim 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$ .

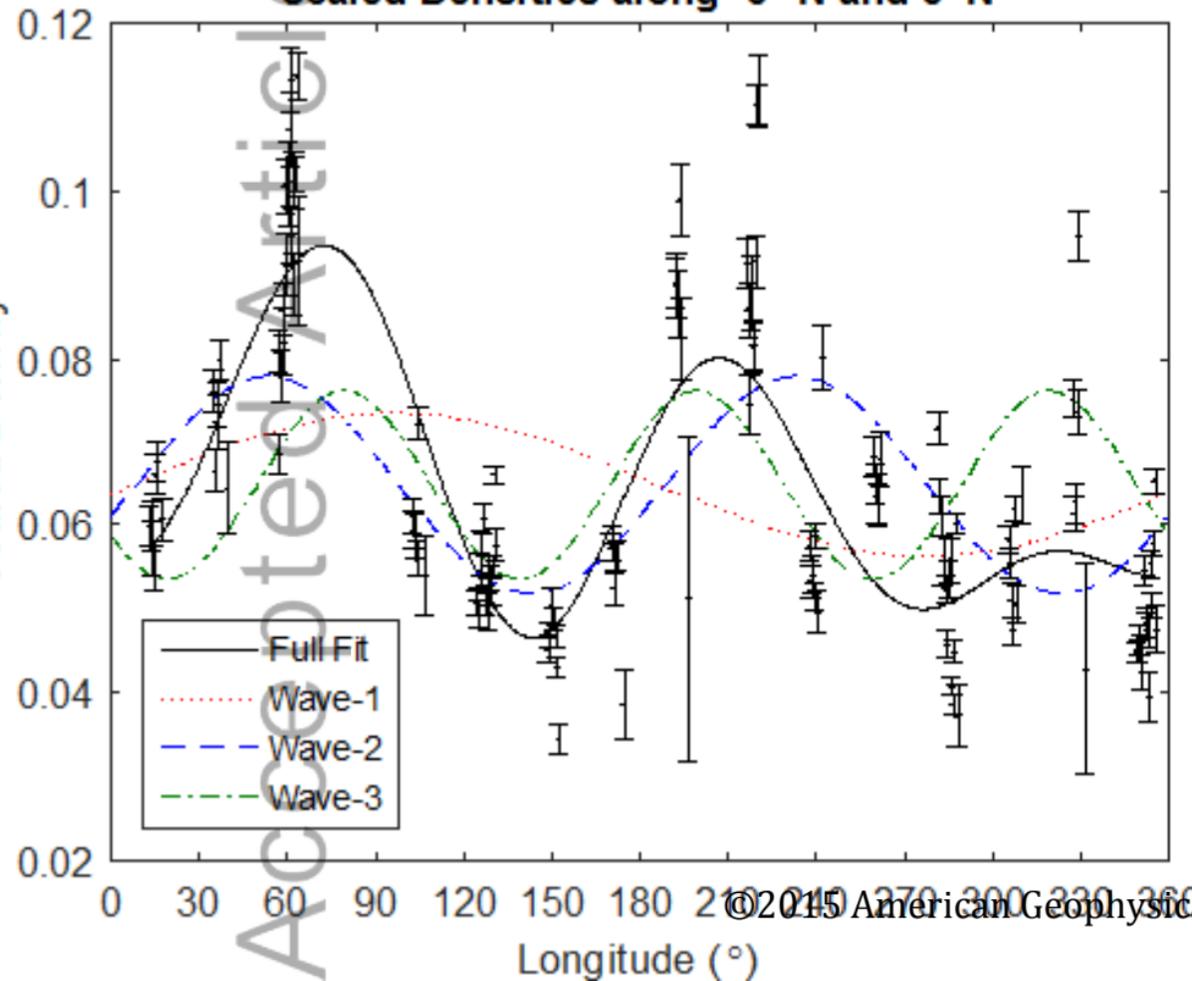


**Figure 4.** Fitted amplitudes  $A'$  and apparent phases  $\delta'$  for wave-1, wave-2 and wave-3 components for scaled densities at 130 km obtained from profiles grouped by latitude band. Error bars denote  $1\sigma$  fit uncertainties.





Scaled Densities along  $-5^{\circ}\text{N}$  and  $5^{\circ}\text{N}$



Scaled Densities along  $35^{\circ}\text{N}$  and  $45^{\circ}\text{N}$

