

MARTIAN GEOLOGY

Radar evidence of subglacial liquid water on Mars

R. Orosei^{1*}, S. E. Lauro², E. Pettinelli², A. Cicchetti³, M. Coradini⁴, B. Cosciotti², F. Di Paolo¹, E. Flamini⁴, E. Mattei⁵, M. Pajola⁵, F. Soldovieri⁶, M. Cartacci³, F. Cassenti⁷, A. Frigeri³, S. Giuppi³, R. Martuffi⁷, A. Masdea⁸, G. Mitri⁹, C. Nenna¹⁰, R. Noschese⁹, M. Restano¹¹, R. Seu⁷

The presence of liquid water at the base of the martian polar caps has long been suspected but not observed. We surveyed the Planum Australe region using the MARSIS (Mars Advanced Radar for Subsurface and Ionosphere Sounding) instrument, a low-frequency radar on the Mars Express spacecraft. Radar profiles collected between May 2012 and December 2015 contain evidence of liquid water trapped below the ice of the South Polar Layered Deposits. Anomalous bright subsurface reflections are evident within a well-defined, 20-kilometer-wide zone centered at 193°E, 81°S, which is surrounded by much less reflective areas. Quantitative analysis of the radar signals shows that this bright feature has high relative dielectric permittivity (>15), matching that of water-bearing materials. We interpret this feature as a stable body of liquid water on Mars.

The presence of liquid water at the base of the martian polar caps was first hypothesized more than 30 years ago (1) and has been inconclusively debated ever since. Radio echo sounding (RES) is a suitable technique to resolve this dispute, because low-frequency radars have been used extensively and successfully to detect liquid water at the bottom of terrestrial polar ice sheets. An interface between ice and water, or alternatively between ice and water-saturated sediments, produces bright radar reflections (2, 3). The Mars Advanced Radar for Subsurface and Ionosphere Sounding (MARSIS) instrument on the Mars Express spacecraft (4) is used to perform RES experiments (5). MARSIS has surveyed the martian subsurface for more than 12 years in search of evidence of liquid water (6). Strong basal echoes have been reported in an area close to the thickest part of the South Polar Layered Deposits (SPLD), Mars' southern ice cap (7). These features were interpreted as due to the propagation of the radar signals through a very cold layer of pure water ice having negligible attenuation (7). Anomalous bright reflections were subsequently detected in other areas of the SPLD (8).

On Earth, the interpretation of radar data collected above the polar ice sheets is usually based on the combination of qualitative (the morphology of the bedrock) and quantitative (the reflected radar peak power) analyses (3, 9). The MARSIS design, particularly the very large footprint (~3 to 5 km), does not provide high spatial resolution, strongly limiting its ability to discriminate the presence of subglacial water bodies from the shape of the basal topography (10). Therefore, an unambiguous detection of liquid water at the base of the polar deposit requires a quantitative estimation of the relative dielectric permittivity (hereafter, permittivity) of the basal material, which determines the radar echo strength.

Between 29 May 2012 and 27 December 2015, MARSIS surveyed a 200-km-wide area of Planum Australe, centered at 193°E, 81°S (Fig. 1), which roughly corresponds to a previous study area (8). This area does not exhibit any peculiar characteristics, either in topographic data from the Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter (MOLA) (Fig. 1A) (11, 12) or in the available orbital imagery (Fig. 1B) (13). It is topographically flat, composed of water ice with 10 to 20% admixed dust (14, 15), and seasonally covered by a very thin layer of CO₂ ice that does not exceed 1 m in thickness (16, 17). In the same location, higher-frequency radar observations performed by the Shallow Radar instrument on the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (18) revealed barely any internal layering in the SPLD and did not detect any basal echo (fig. S1), in marked contrast with findings for the North Polar Layer Deposits and other regions of the SPLD (19).

A total of 29 radar profiles were acquired using the onboard unprocessed data mode (5) by transmitting closely spaced radio pulses centered at either 3 and 4 MHz or 4 and 5 MHz (table S1). Observations were performed when the spacecraft was on the night side of Mars to minimize ionospheric dispersion of the signal. Figure 2A shows an example of a MARSIS radargram collected in the area, where the sharp surface reflection is followed by several secondary reflections produced by the interfaces between layers within the SPLD. The last of these echoes represents the reflection between the ice-rich SPLD and the underlying material (hereafter, basal material). In most of the investigated area, the basal reflection is weak and diffuse, but in some locations, it is very sharp and has a greater intensity (bright reflections) than the surrounding areas and the surface (Fig. 2B). Where the observations from multiple orbits overlap, the data acquired at the same frequency have consistent values of both surface and subsurface echo power (fig. S2).

The two-way pulse travel time between the surface and basal echoes can be used to estimate the depth of the subsurface reflector and map the basal topography. Assuming an average signal velocity of 170 m/μs within the SPLD, close to that of water ice (20), the depth of the basal reflector is about 1.5 km below the surface. The large size of the MARSIS footprint and the diffuse nature of basal echoes outside the bright reflectors prevent a detailed reconstruction of the basal topography, but a regional slope from west to east is recognizable (Fig. 3A). The subsurface area where the bright reflections are concentrated is topographically flat and surrounded by higher ground, except on its eastern side, where there is a depression.

The permittivity, which provides constraints on the composition of the basal material, can in principle be retrieved from the power of the reflected signal at the base of the SPLD. Unfortunately, the radiated power of the MARSIS antenna is unknown because it could not be calibrated on the ground (owing to the instrument's large dimensions), and thus the intensity of the reflected echoes can only be considered in terms of relative quantities. It is common to normalize the intensity of the subsurface echo to the surface value (21)—i.e., to compute the ratio between basal and surface echo power. Such a procedure has the advantage of also compensating for any ionospheric attenuation of the signal. Following this approach, we normalized the subsurface echo power to the median of the surface power computed along each orbit; we found that all normalized profiles at a given frequency yield consistent values of the basal echo power (fig. S3). Figure 3B shows a regional map of basal echo power after normalization; bright reflections are localized around 193°E, 81°S in all intersecting orbits, outlining a well-defined, 20-km-wide subsurface anomaly.

To compute the basal permittivity, we also require information about the dielectric properties of the SPLD, which depend on the composition and temperature of the deposits. Because the exact ratio between water ice and

¹Istituto di Radioastronomia, Istituto Nazionale di Astrofisica, Via Piero Gobetti 101, 40129 Bologna, Italy. ²Dipartimento di Matematica e Fisica, Università degli Studi Roma Tre, Via della Vasca Navale 84, 00146 Roma, Italy. ³Istituto di Astrofisica e Planetologia Spaziali, Istituto Nazionale di Astrofisica, Via del Fosso del Cavaliere 100, 00133 Roma, Italy. ⁴Agenzia Spaziale Italiana, Via del Politecnico, 00133 Roma, Italy. ⁵Osservatorio Astronomico di Padova, Istituto Nazionale di Astrofisica, Vicolo Osservatorio 5, 35122 Padova, Italy. ⁶Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Istituto per il Rilevamento Elettromagnetico dell'Ambiente, Via Diocleziano 328, 80124 Napoli, Italy. ⁷Dipartimento di Ingegneria dell'Informazione, Elettronica e Telecomunicazioni, Università degli Studi di Roma "La Sapienza," Via Eudossiana 18, 00184 Roma, Italy. ⁸E.P. Elettronica Progetti, Via Traspontina 25, 00040 Ariccia (RM), Italy. ⁹International Research School of Planetary Sciences, Università degli Studi "Gabriele d'Annunzio," Viale Pindaro 42, 65127 Pescara (PE), Italy. ¹⁰Danfoss Drives, Romstrasse 2 - Via Roma 2, 39014 Burgstall - Postal (BZ), Italy. ¹¹Serco, c/o ESA Centre for Earth Observation, Largo Galileo Galilei 1, 00044 Frascati (RM), Italy.

*Corresponding author. Email: roberto.oroisei@inaf.it

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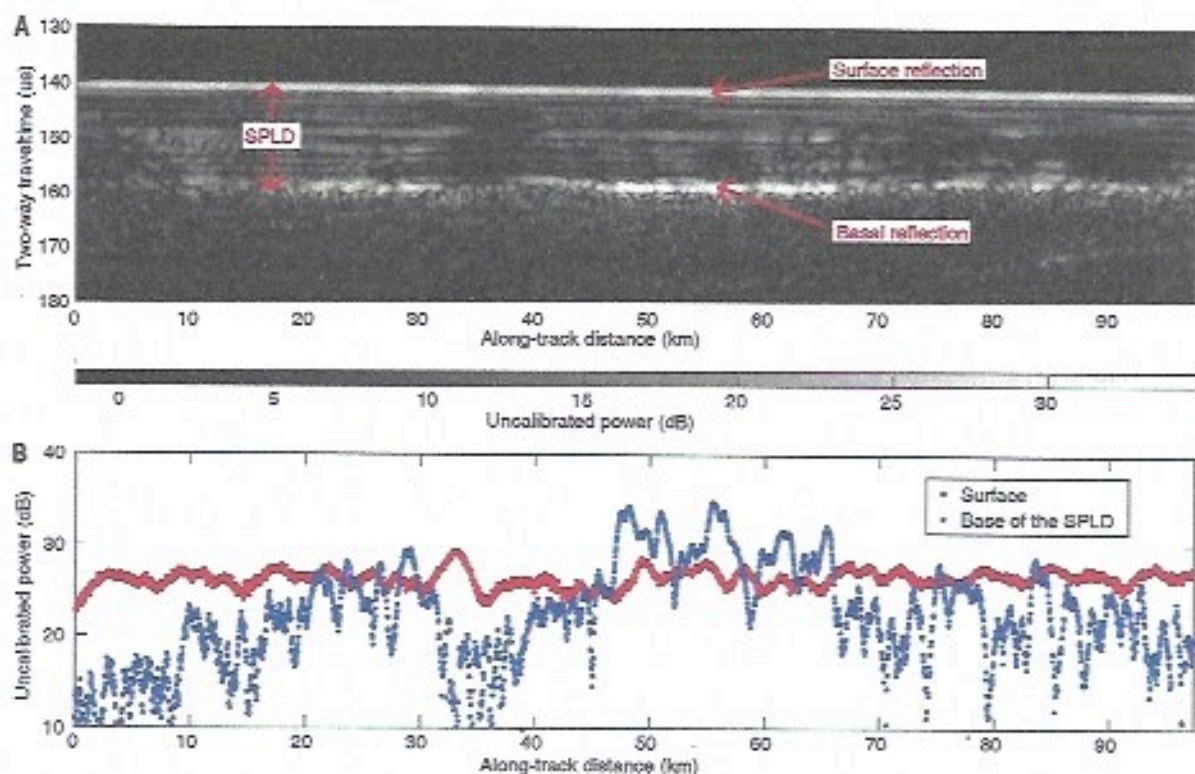


Fig. 2. Radar data collected by MARSIS. (A) Radargram for MARSIS orbit 10737, whose ground track is shown in Fig. 1B. A radargram is a two-dimensional color-coded section made of a sequence of echoes in which the horizontal axis is the distance along the ground track of the spacecraft, the vertical axis represents the two-way travel time of the echo (from a reference altitude of 25 km above the reference datum), and brightness is a function of echo power. The continuous bright line in the topmost part of the radargram is the echo from the surface interface, whereas the bottom

reflector at about 160 μ s corresponds to the SPLD/basal material interface. Strong basal reflections can be seen at some locations, where the basal interface is also planar and parallel to the surface. (B) Plot of surface and basal echo power for the radargram in (A). Red dots, surface echo power; blue dots, subsurface echo power. The horizontal scale is along-track distance, as in (A), and the vertical scale is uncalibrated power in decibels. The basal echo between 45 and 65 km along track is stronger than the surface echo even after attenuation within the SPLD.

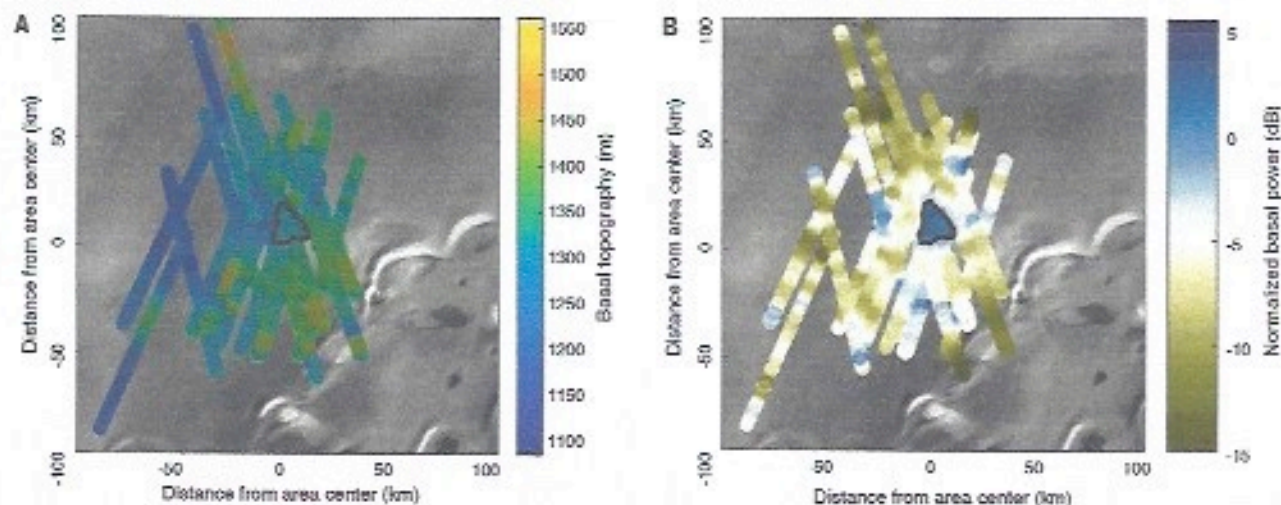


Fig. 3. Maps of basal topography and reflected echo power. (A) Color-coded map of the topography at the base of the SPLD, computed with respect to the reference datum. The black outline outlines the area in which bright basal reflections are concentrated. (B) Color-coded map of normalized basal echo power at 4 MHz. The large blue area (positive

values of the normalized basal echo power) outlined in black corresponds to the main bright area; the map also shows other, smaller bright spots that have a limited number of overlapping profiles. Both panels are superimposed on the infrared image shown in Fig. 1B, and the value at each point is the median of all radar footprints crossing that point.

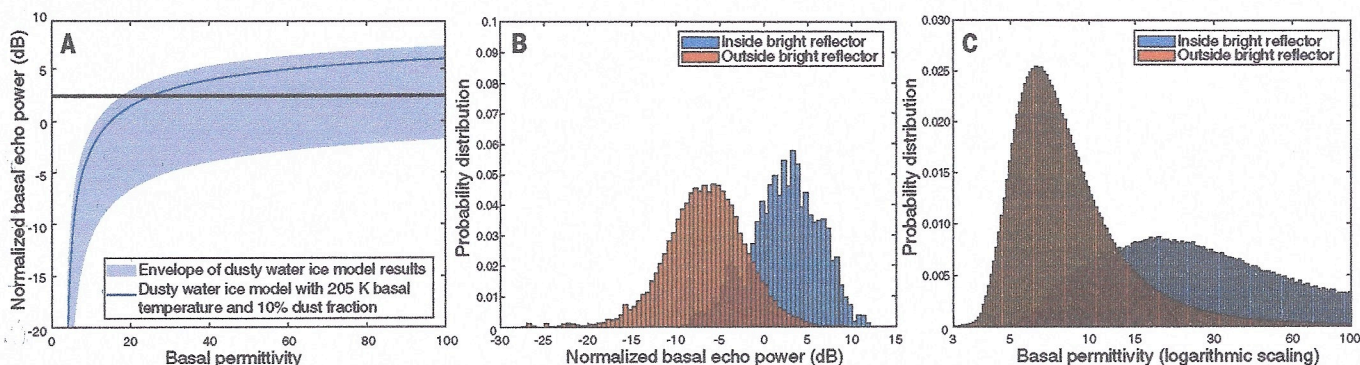


Fig. 4. Results of the simulation and retrieved permittivities. (A) Output of the electromagnetic simulations computed at 4 MHz (figs. S4 and S6). The blue shaded area is the envelope of all curves incorporating different amounts of H₂O ice and dust along with various basal temperatures for the SPLD. The blue line is the curve for a single model (basal temperature of 205 K and 10% dust content), shown for illustration, and the black horizontal line is the median normalized basal echo power at 4 MHz from the observations. (B) Normalized basal echo power distributions

inside (blue) and outside (brown) the bright reflection area, indicating two distinct populations of values. These distributions, together with the chart in (A), are used to compute the basal permittivity; for example, the intersection between the blue curve and the black line gives a basal permittivity value of 24. (C) Basal permittivity distributions inside (blue) and outside (brown) the bright reflection area. The nonlinear relationship between the normalized basal echo power and the permittivity produces an asymmetry (skewness) in the distributions of the values.

Atendió mi llamada y me dio un buen comentario!

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

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Materials and Methods
Supplementary Text
Figs. S1 to S6
Table S1
References (36–53)

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