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Supporting Information for

**Advancing our Understanding of Martian Proton Aurora through a
Coordinated Multi-Model Comparison Campaign**

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36

37 **Introduction**

38 Herein we provide supplemental materials regarding the models used in the study,
39 cross sections used in the models, and additional information regarding the
40 locations of MAVEN and MAVEN/IUVS for observations taken during the orbit of
41 interest. In the Supplementary Text section, we present detailed descriptions of
42 each of the four proton/hydrogen precipitation models used in the study.
43 Descriptions are written by each modeling team and appropriate references are
44 given at the end of each section. In the Supplementary Figures section, we present
45 S1) maps showing the locations of the MAVEN spacecraft during the orbit used in
46 this study (including comparative locations of strong crustal fields), S2) ephemeris
47 data for the MAVEN/IUVS instrument while acquiring the periapsis limb scan data
48 used in this study, S3) relevant profiles used for the coronal thermal H background
49 subtraction method described in the text, and S4) preliminary results comparing the
50 assumption of monodirectional incident particle movement versus isotropic. Lastly,
51 we include a Supplementary Table with details regarding cross sections used by
52 each model and relevant references.

53

54 **Text S1.**

55 **Kallio 3-D Monte Carlo Model Description**

56 *(i) General introduction: nature of the model, brief history of its development, and*
57 *general references*

58 The Kallio model is described in detail in *Kallio and Barabash, 2000* and *2001*.
59 The model is a 3-D Monte Carlo (MC) model where the incident particle, either H^+ or H ,
60 collides with neutral particles after which the velocity of the particle is changed. The
61 model contains 6 elastic and 24 inelastic processes but, in this study, only the processes
62 mentioned in the main text of this paper were used.

63 The model uses a Cartesian coordinate system both for the positions and velocities
64 of the precipitating particles. In the coordinate system the x-axis points from the center of
65 Mars toward the Sun.

66

67 *(ii) Inputs, processes included (with relevant cross section references), and outputs*

68 The model inputs are neutral atom densities, energy dependent total cross-sections
69 (CS), the differential scattering cross-sections (DSCS), the number of precipitating
70 particles (N_H), and the initial positions ($\mathbf{r}_{\text{particle}}(t=0)$) and velocities ($\mathbf{v}_{\text{particle}}(t=0)$) of the
71 precipitating particles -- in the present case hydrogen atoms (H).

72 The total cross sections are given in *Kallio and Barabash, 2001* (Table 1 and Fig.
73 3) and the DSCS scattering angle distribution in *Kallio and Barabash, 2000* (Fig. 1,
74 “nominal”) and *2001* (Fig. 2). Total cross sections give the probability that a collision

75 occurs. Random numbers are used to model if a collision occurs, and which collision
 76 process occurs. If a collision happens, then the DSCS determines the new velocity of the
 77 incident particle after collision. The value of the scattering angle is obtained by using a
 78 new random variable.

79

80 *(iii) Implementation and technical aspects: assumptions and constraints, domain of*
 81 *applicability and grid description, spatial resolution and timesteps, number of particles,*
 82 *overall performance, etc.*

83 In the simulation, particles are injected into the upper atmosphere at the point $[x, y,$
 84 $z] = [260 \text{ km} + R_{\text{Mars}}, 0, 0]$, where the radius of the Mars, R_{Mars} , was in the simulation
 85 3393 km. The velocity of the particles in the analysis presented in this paper was a
 86 constant $\mathbf{v} = [v_x, v_y, v_z] = [-400, 0, 0]$ km/s, i.e., a beam of particles initially moving
 87 exactly along the Sun-Mars line.

88 The model saves the position and the velocity of the particle if it has a Ly- α
 89 collision process. The Ly- α volume production rate was derived from the saved positions
 90 of Ly- α processes by collecting the number of the Ly- α collision processes ($d\#_k^{\text{hf}}$) at a
 91 given altitude (h) range: $dh_k \equiv h_{k+1} - h_k$. Then in Step 1 runs the Ly- α volume of the
 92 emission was derived by using a 1-D approximation, i.e., assuming that the area of the
 93 emission perpendicular to the x-axis (dA_{hf}) is equal to the initial area in the solar wind
 94 (dA_{sw}) through which the precipitating particles initially came, $dA_{\text{hf}} = dA_{\text{sw}}$. Note that the
 95 inaccuracy caused by the 1-D approximation, $dA_{\text{hf}} = dA_{\text{sw}}$, is small because the horizontal
 96 movement of the colliding particles in the atmosphere is small compared with the radius
 97 of the planet. Therefore, the volume (dV_k) from which the emission came within dh_k in
 98 Step 1 runs was assumed to be $dV_k = dh_k \times dA_{\text{sw}}$. In Step 2 runs the volume dV_k was
 99 derived without any approximations from the space angle and the altitude range.

100 The altitude dependent Ly- α volume emission rate

$$101 \quad q_k^{\text{hf}} = d\#_k^{\text{hf}} / (dt \times dV_k) = d\#_k^{\text{hf}} / (dt \times dh_k \times dA_{\text{hf}}), \quad (1)$$

102 which, as mentioned above, was in Step 1 runs derived by approximating $dA_{\text{hf}} = dA_{\text{sw}}$

$$103 \quad q_k^{\text{hf}} = d\#_k^{\text{hf}} / (dt \times dh_k \times dA_{\text{sw}}), \quad (2)$$

104 is finally obtained from the particle flux of the precipitating H particles (j_{H}), the number
 105 of the particles used in the MC simulation (N_{H}) and the time (dt) which takes N_{H} particles
 106 to go through the area dA_{sw} : $N_{\text{H}} = j_{\text{H}} dt \times dA_{\text{sw}}$. This gives $dt \times dA_{\text{sw}} = N_{\text{H}} / j_{\text{H}}$ and Eq (2)
 107 gets the form

$$108 \quad q_k^{\text{hf}} = d\#_k^{\text{hf}} / (dt \times dV_k) = j_{\text{H}} [d\#_k^{\text{hf}} / (dh_k \times N_{\text{H}})]. \quad (3)$$

109 In the analyzed simulation N_{H} was 5000 and 100,000 in Step 1 and Step 2 runs,
 110 respectively. As can be seen in Eq. (3) the particle flux j_{H} is just a scaling factor and in
 111 this paper, it was $10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. In the plots presented in this paper the Ly- α emission
 112 altitude profiles were derived in 1 km altitude bins, i.e., $dh_k = 1 \text{ km}$. This provided a
 113 relatively good compromise between modest statistical fluctuations and the accurate
 114 determination of the peak emission value and altitude.

115

116 *(iv) Strengths and applications most suited for the model*

117 The largest uncertainty for the obtained Ly- α volume emission rate q_k^{hf} is related to
 118 the uncertainty of the total cross-sections used and the differential scattering cross
 119 sections between H and H^+ particles and CO_2 molecules. In the simulation many of these

120 H/H⁺ collisions with CO₂ are modeled with H/H⁺ collisions with O₂ and N₂ which was
121 published in the literature (see *Kallio and Barabash*, 2001, Table 1, for details).

122 As described in *Kallio and Barabash*, 2000 and 2001, functional forms of the
123 adopted DSCS are modeled following *Noël and Prölss* (1993). The used DSCS (see
124 *Kallio and Barabash*, 2000, Fig. 1a, the “nominal” DCSC and *Kallio and Barabash*,
125 2001, Fig. 2) is a fit to the data of H – O₂ collisions from *Newmann et al.*, 1986, Table 4.

126

127 It is worth noting that although the statistical fluctuations in the derived emission
128 altitude profiles could be reduced by using a larger number of precipitating particles in
129 the 1 km altitude binning used, the statistical fluctuations are relatively modest already
130 for the number of particles used.

131 It is also worth noting that the MC model used can be automatically used in future
132 more complicated situations than done in this paper. In this study the precipitating
133 particles formed a monoenergetic beam. However, the velocity distribution function can
134 be more complicated; for example, a Maxwellian velocity distribution function, or the
135 velocities can be read from a file. Moreover, the atmospheric density profile, $n(\mathbf{r})$ can be
136 2-D, say $n(\mathbf{r}) = n(\text{SZA}, h)$. In such a case the MC model can be used to derive altitude
137 profiles at a given SZA (see *Kallio and Barabash*, 2001, for details). The atmospheric
138 density can also be 3-D, i.e., $n(\mathbf{r}) = n(x, y, z)$, which would result in the 3-D Ly- α
139 emission rates. In the simulation the particle flux and their velocity distribution can also
140 have latitude-longitude dependence (see *Kallio and Janhunen*, 2001, for details).

141

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166

167 **Text S2.**

168 **Jolitz 3-D Monte Carlo Model Description (Name: "ASPEN")**

169 ASPEN (Atmospheric Scattering of Protons, Electrons, and Neutrals) is a 3-D
170 Monte Carlo test particle simulation. This model was initially developed to predict
171 atmospheric ionization rates at Mars by solar energetic particles, which have higher
172 energies than the ENAs studied in this paper [Jolitz *et al.*, 2017] and has since been used
173 to predict precipitating SEP electron fluxes at Mars [Jolitz *et al.*, 2021]. The simulation
174 solves the Lorentz force equations for energetic particle motion and uses a Monte Carlo
175 approach to predict collisions and resulting energy loss in the atmosphere. Since
176 magnetic fields were set to zero for this study, the transport equations reduced to ballistic
177 motion.

178 The collisional energy degradation algorithm used in ASPEN was originally
179 developed and described in Lillis *et al.* [2008] for an electron precipitation model. It is
180 very similar to the Kallio model in approach. Stochastic collisions were modeled by
181 inverting the relation between intensity, density, and absorption cross-section for a
182 particle beam incident on a medium of scatterers (colloquially known as Beer's law) to
183 dynamically calculate a probability distribution function that is combined with a random
184 number to predict variable distances between collisions. This probability distribution
185 function is calculated for each individual particle and depends on the position, path, and
186 energy through the planetary atmosphere. Similarly, whenever a collision occurs, the type
187 of collision is predicted probabilistically using the relative cross-section of each possible
188 collisional process and the particle energy is decremented by the corresponding energy
189 loss. As a particle loses energy, the relative cross-sections of each process change. For
190 example, a 2 keV proton colliding with a carbon dioxide molecule has a roughly 70%
191 likelihood of capturing an electron, but the likelihood for the same process when the
192 proton is 20 eV is only 20%.

193 This model is highly dependent on the choice of cross-sections. For the
194 application in this study, the selected cross-sections for hydrogen and proton impact on
195 carbon dioxide are described in Jolitz *et al.* [2017], with one exception. The cross-
196 sections for proton- and hydrogen-impact excitation was replaced with Lyman-alpha
197 emission cross-sections. Unfortunately, experimental measurements of the Lyman-alpha
198 emission cross-section from proton and hydrogen atom impact on carbon dioxide is
199 limited. As of the time of this paper's writing, only one set of measurements exist for
200 1-25 keV protons and hydrogen atoms [Birely and McNeal, 1972]. The cross-section for
201 emission by protons and hydrogen atoms below 1 keV is unknown. In order to
202 approximate emission from particles at these energies, ASPEN uses a cross-section
203 calculated by scaling the corresponding emission cross-sections from impact on
204 molecular oxygen. ASPEN also accounts for the fact that proton-induced Lyman-alpha

205 emission can only occur in addition to a charge exchange collision, since Lyman-alpha
206 can only be emitted by a hydrogen atom.

207 Since ASPEN is a 3-D Monte Carlo simulation, predicting an accurate emission
208 rate requires appropriate choice of initial conditions and a large volume of simulated
209 particles. For Step 1, we simulated 10,000 particles incident on the subsolar point from an
210 altitude of 600 km and calculated the emission rate by binning all Lyman-alpha emitting
211 collisions as a function of altitude and multiplying by the incident flux. For Step 2, we
212 simulated 10,000 particles uniformly distributed in space on a plane perpendicular to the
213 direction of solar wind flow. Each particle represents a fraction of the assumed incident
214 flux. The emission rate was then calculated by weighing the total number of emissions
215 binned by altitude, solar zenith angle, and the fraction of flux associated with each
216 simulated particle.

217

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 257

258 **Text S3.**

259 **Bisikalo/Shematovich *et al.* 1-D Monte Carlo Model Description**

260 The Bisikalo/Shematovich *et al.* model is a 1-D kinetic Monte Carlo model. The
 261 model considers three primary processes: 1) precipitation of high-energy hydrogen atoms
 262 and protons that lose their kinetic energy in the elastic and inelastic collisions, 2)
 263 ionization of target atmospheric molecules/atoms, and 3) charge transfer and electron
 264 capture collisions with the major atmospheric constituents (i.e., CO₂, N₂, and O).
 265 Secondary fast hydrogen atoms and protons carry enough kinetic energy to cycle through
 266 the collisional channels mentioned above and result in a growing set of translationally
 267 and internally excited atmospheric atoms and/or molecules.
 268 To study the precipitation of high-energy H/H⁺ flux into the planetary atmosphere, we
 269 solve the kinetic Boltzmann equations (Shematovich *et al.*, 2011) for H⁺ and H, including
 270 the collision term:

$$\mathbf{v} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}} f_{H/H^+} + \left(\mathbf{g} + \frac{e}{m_{H^+}} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{v}} f_{H/H^+} = Q_{H/H^+}(\mathbf{v}) + \sum_{M=O, N_2, CO_2} J_{mt}(f_{H/H^+}, f_M). \quad (1)$$

271 Equation (1) is written in the standard form for the velocity distribution functions
 272 $f_{H/H^+}(r,v)$, and $f_M(r,v)$ for hydrogen atoms and protons (Gérard *et al.*, 2000). The source
 273 term Q_{H/H^+} describes the production rate of secondary H/H⁺ particles and the elastic
 274 and inelastic collisional terms J_{mt} for H/H⁺ describe the energy and momentum transfer to
 275 the ambient atmospheric gas which is characterized by local Maxwellian velocity
 276 distribution functions. Our kinetic Monte Carlo model (Gérard *et al.*, 2000; Shematovich
 277 *et al.*, 2011) is used to solve kinetic equation (1). The model is 1-D in geometric space
 278 and 3-D in velocity space. Nevertheless, the 3-D trajectories of H/H⁺ are calculated in the
 279 code with final projection on radial direction. In the current version of the MC model
 280 (Shematovich *et al.*, 2019) an arbitrary structure of the induced magnetic field of Mars is
 281 included; that is, all three components of the magnetic field $\mathbf{B} = \{B_x, B_y, B_z\}$, were taken
 282 into account. The details of the model implementation and statistics control with the
 283 variance below 10% can be found in (Shematovich *et al.*, 2019).

284
 285 The essence of the kinetic Monte Carlo model is accounting of all possible
 286 collisions in the atmospheric region studied. Therefore, statistics for all collisional
 287 processes are accumulated during the numerical realization of the kinetic model of the
 288 proton aurora. It provides a good basis for the evaluation of the Ly- α source functions as
 289 keeping of all excitation processes and their spatial characteristics makes it possible to
 290 determine the statistical distribution of the emitted Ly- α photons.

291 The energy deposition rate of H/H⁺ flux is determined by the cross sections of the
 292 collisions with the ambient gas. The energy lost by the H/H⁺ in a collision is determined
 293 by the scattering angle χ

294
$$\Delta E \sim E \times (1 - \cos\chi),$$

295 where E is the initial energy of the impacting proton or hydrogen atom. It is apparent that
296 the energy loss for collisions in forward direction (for $\chi < 90^\circ$) at small scattering angles
297 χ is less than that for larger scattering angles. A key aspect of this kinetic MC model is
298 the probabilistic treatment of the scattering angle distribution, which influences both the
299 energy degradation rate and the angular redistribution of the precipitating protons and
300 hydrogen atoms (Bisikalo et al., 2018; Shematovich et al., 2019). The kinetic model
301 utilizes both total and differential cross sections when calculating the post-collision
302 velocities for high-energy precipitating H/H⁺ and atmospheric particles. In the model, the
303 most recent measurements or calculations of the required cross sections were adopted.
304 The cross sections and scattering angle distributions for H/H⁺ collisions with CO₂ are
305 taken from Nakai et al. (1987) for charge exchange and stripping collisions, from Haider
306 et al. (2002) for ionization, Lyman alpha and Balmer alpha excitation, and from Lindsay
307 et al. (2005) for scattering angle distributions. The elastic and other inelastic collisions
308 cross sections for H/H⁺ collisions with CO₂ are assumed to be the same as for O₂ (see,
309 for details, Gérard et al. (2000)). The region under study is limited by the lower
310 boundary, which is placed at 80 km, where H/H⁺ particles are efficiently thermalized. The
311 upper boundary is set at 500 km, where measurements or calculations of the precipitating
312 fluxes of protons or hydrogen atoms are used as a boundary condition. Both table and/or
313 analytic (Maxwellian and/or kappa-distribution) functions representing the energy spectra
314 as well as the pitch-angle (monodirectional, isotropic, or limited by cone) distributions of
315 precipitating particles could be used at the upper boundary. Detailed description of all
316 modeled numerical aspects used for this kinetic MC model study could be found in recent
317 papers (Bisikalo *et al.*, 2018; Shematovich *et al.*, 2019).

318
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344

345 **Text S4.**

346 **Gronoff *et al.* 1-D Kinetic Model Description (Name: “Aeroplanets”)**

347 *A. Introduction*

348 The *Aeroplanets* model (Gronoff *et al.*, 2012a; Gronoff *et al.*, 2012b; Simon
349 Wedlund *et al.* 2011) is a 1-D kinetic transport model computing the ionization and
350 excitation of atmospheric species by photon, electron, proton, and cosmic ray impacts,
351 including the effect of secondary particles (photoelectrons, secondary electrons and
352 protoelectrons). It is based on the Trans* model series, initially developed for the Earth
353 (Lilensten *et al.*, 1999; Lummerzheim and Lilensten 1994; Simon *et al.*, 2007 as Trans4),
354 and subsequently adapted to Venus (Gronoff *et al.*, 2007, 2008), Mars (Witasse *et al.*,
355 2002, 2003; Simon *et al.*, 2009; Nicholson *et al.*, 2009), Titan (Gronoff, Lilensten, and
356 Modolo 2009; Gronoff *et al.*, 2009a, 2009b), etc., and including several other modules
357 such as a fluid model. *Aeroplanets* constitutes an improvement in modularity and
358 adaptability over Trans4, with every separate module having the option of being turned
359 off to study one specific aspect of particle precipitation in the atmosphere of planets.

360 The proton transport module is based on the work of Galand *et al.* (1997, 1998),
361 Simon (2006) and Simon *et al.* (2007) for Earth, who solved semi-analytically the
362 coupled proton-hydrogen dissipative kinetic transport equation for protons and hydrogen
363 atoms charge-changing with neutral gas M:

364 $H^+ + M \rightarrow H + M^+$ *Electron capture*, σ_{10} $H + M \rightarrow H^+ + M +$
365 e^- *Electron loss/stripping*, σ_{01} .

366 It naturally includes angular redistributions due to magnetic mirror effects and to
367 collisions (Galand *et al.*, 1998)

368

369 *B. Inputs and outputs*

370 Inputs to the *Aeroplanets* model include cross sections, the vertical profile of atmosphere
371 composition (*i.e.*, composition at different altitudes), and the precipitating fluxes of
372 particles such H and H⁺ at the top of the atmosphere. Outputs include the vertical profile
373 of H and H⁺ differential energy fluxes, and the vertical profile of the production rate of
374 excited and ionized species and electrons, including emissions. The produced
375 photoelectrons can be plugged into the main *Aeroplanets* electron model as an external
376 and additional source of ionization in the atmosphere.

377 Cross sections in *Aeroplanets* are taken from the latest version of the
378 ATMOCIAAD cross section and reaction rate database compiled and developed by Simon
379 Wedlund *et al.* (2011), Gronoff *et al.* (2012a) and Gronoff *et al.* (2020), and freely
380 available in Gronoff *et al.* (2021) In ATMOCIAAD, experimental and theoretical cross

381 sections as well as their uncertainties are collected. Many proton-hydrogen impact cross
 382 sections have been discussed in the seminal works of Avakyan *et al.* (1998) and, in a
 383 lesser degree, of Nakai *et al.* (1987); they contain a critical review of processes for
 384 photons, e^- , H, H^+ colliding with various gases of aeronomic interest and have been fully
 385 integrated into ATMOCIAAD.

386 Specifically, the proton transport code uses the following energy-dependent cross
 387 sections, process by process:

- 388 • **Elastic.** Parameterisations of Kozelov and Ivanov (1992) originally valid for (H^+ ,
 389 H) collisions with N_2 , and assumed to be the same for CO_2 because of the lack of
 390 any recent measurements. The parameters are available in their Tables 1 and 2.
- 391 • **Ionization.** For H^+ , Rudd *et al.* (1983) for high energies, extended at $E < 5$ keV by
 392 (Avakyan *et al.*, 1998). For H atoms, cross sections are based on Basu *et al.* (1987)
 393 for N_2 and on Avakyan *et al.* (1998) for the rescaling factor.
- 394 • **Electron capture ($H^+ \rightarrow H$).** Kusakabe *et al.* (2000) for 0.2-4 keV protons, review
 395 by Avakyan *et al.* (1998) based on all other available data for higher energies
 396 (Desesquelles, Do Cao, and Dufay 1966; Barnett and Gilbody 1968; Toburen,
 397 Nakai, and Langley 1968; McNeal 1970; Rudd *et al.*, 1983 for 5 – 150 keV). Note
 398 that recent sub-keV measurements have been made by Werbowy and Pranszke
 399 (2016) for CO and CO_2 , although these are not yet implemented in the
 400 ATMOCIAAD.
- 401 • **Electron loss ($H \rightarrow H^+$).** Smith *et al.*, (1976) between 0.25 – 5 keV, review by
 402 Avakyan *et al.*, (1998) using N_2 σ_{01} cross sections (Green and Peterson 1968) based
 403 on all other available data for higher energies.
- 404 • **Ly- α H($2p$) and H($2s$) states.** For both H^+ and H collisions, exciting state H($2p$)
 405 (Birely and McNeal 1972) corrected by factor 0.9 presumably because of
 406 observation angle issues as per the recommendation of Avakyan *et al.* (1998). For
 407 both impactors creating state H($2s$), factor 1.35 on the measurements of (Birely and
 408 McNeal 1972) is applied.

409 Although ATMOCIAAD is an extensive collection of cross sections, there is still a rather
 410 poor characterization of cross sections at low energies (typically in the sub-keV range).

411

412 Regarding differential cross sections, Aeroplanets uses phase functions that are
 413 convolved with the energy-dependent cross sections above. For the particular cases
 414 computed for Step 1 of the present study, the following is used: for the two charge-
 415 transfer (10 and 01) and elastic cross sections, the screened Rutherford function is used,
 416 equal to that of the electrons with a screening parameter ϵ of 10^{-3} (this is the same as in
 417 Galand *et al.*, 1997, 1998 and Simon 2006, Simon *et al.*, 2007 for Earth's atmosphere):

$$418 \quad \xi(\cos\vartheta) = \frac{4\epsilon(1 + \epsilon)}{(1 + 2\epsilon - \cos\vartheta)^2}$$

419

420 with $\vartheta = \mu\mu' + \sqrt{1 - \mu'^2}\sqrt{1 - \mu^2}\cos(\phi - \phi')$. μ and μ' are the cosine of the pitch
 421 angles before and after the collision, whereas ϕ and ϕ' are the azimuthal angles before
 422 and after the collision. For ionization, forward scattering is assumed following Galand *et*
 423 *al.*, (1998) for the Earth case.

424 Because of the seamless implementation of ATMOCIAAD as input to Aeroplanets,
 425 other available sets of cross sections may be used. It is possible to estimate the

426 uncertainties from the cross sections using a Monte-Carlo approach as described in
427 (Gronoff *et al.*, 2012a; Gronoff *et al.*, 2012b). The outputs of the proton-transport model
428 are the ionization and dissociation rates (including excited states productions), the
429 proton/H induced electron flux (which can be used in the electron model), and the
430 proton/H fluxes at the different altitudes.

431

432 *C. Implementation*

433 The solution of the dissipative coupled Boltzmann H/H⁺ equation is based on the seminal
434 work of Galand *et al.*, (1997, 1998), later developed and adapted as a module into
435 Aeroplanets following Simon *et al.*, (2007). It is based on the idea that dissipative forces
436 responsible for angular redistributions (due to elastic scattering) can be introduced in the
437 force term of the generalized Boltzmann equation (Galand *et al.*, 1997). Rearranging the
438 energy/angle terms of the H⁺/H coupled system of equations leads to a linear system of
439 equations parametrized by a large sparse square matrix *A* containing the energy
440 degradation without angular redistributions of the incoming particle, for each altitude *z*
441 so that:

$$442 \quad \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} = A\Phi + B$$

443 $\Phi = (\phi_{H^+} \ \phi_H)$ is the vector-flux of protons and hydrogen precipitating particles and *B*,
444 the angular degradation term, is thus the term coupling downward and upward fluxes.
445 Moreover, the mirror mode term can be switched on or off depending on the planet's
446 configuration. The equation can be solved by calculating the exponential of matrix *A* for
447 a typical grid of 100 energies and 10 angles, both of which can be increased by the user
448 for better resolution.

449 In order to achieve such a feat of simplification for a complex system of equations, the
450 following assumptions are made in the case of the Mars code: (i) plane parallel geometry,
451 with the atmosphere stratified horizontally, and the pitch angle of the particles can be
452 imposed, (ii) external forces neglected, (iii) steady-state fluxes, (iv) continuous slowing
453 down approximation assumed because of the low energetic losses by the precipitating
454 particles compared to the incident energy of the particles.

455

456 *D. Strengths and applications*

457 Aeroplanets is better qualified for the fast computation of the proton precipitation from a
458 measured spectra near the planet, and for the fast computation of the whole effect of that
459 precipitation thanks to its coupling with a secondary electron transport model. The
460 analytic computation approach and assumed geometry prevent the computation within
461 very complex magnetic topologies (which are best handled by Monte-Carlo models) but
462 is well suited for handling large sets of initial angles and energies.

463

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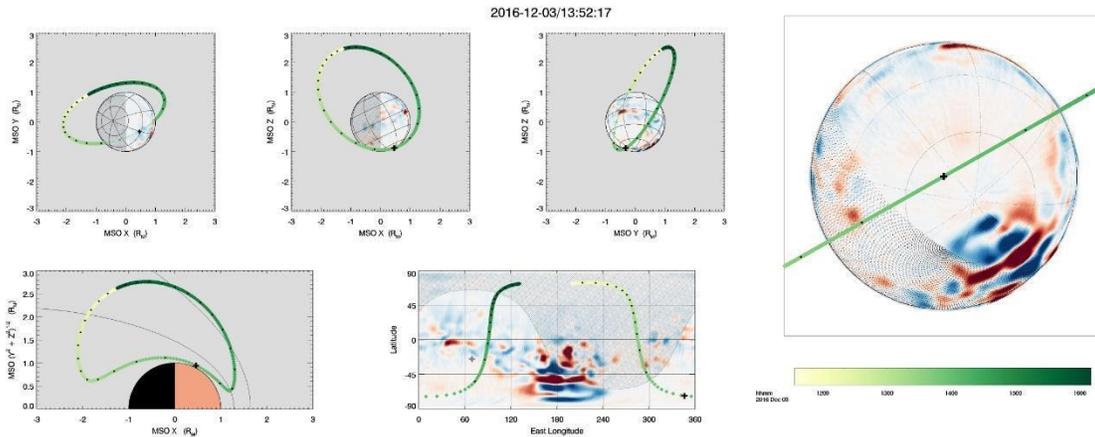
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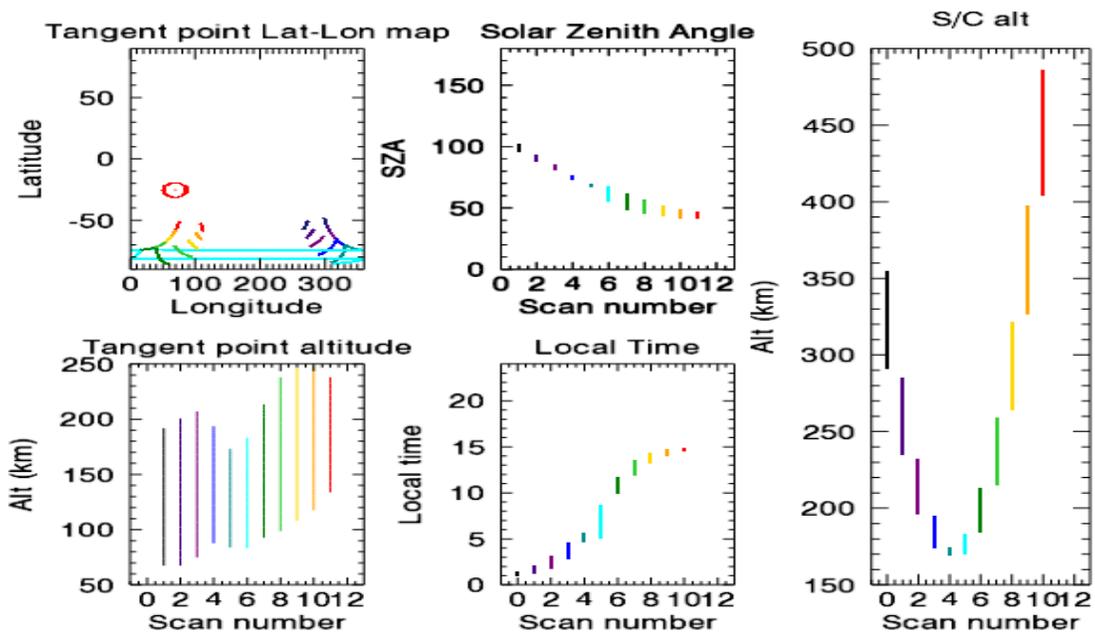
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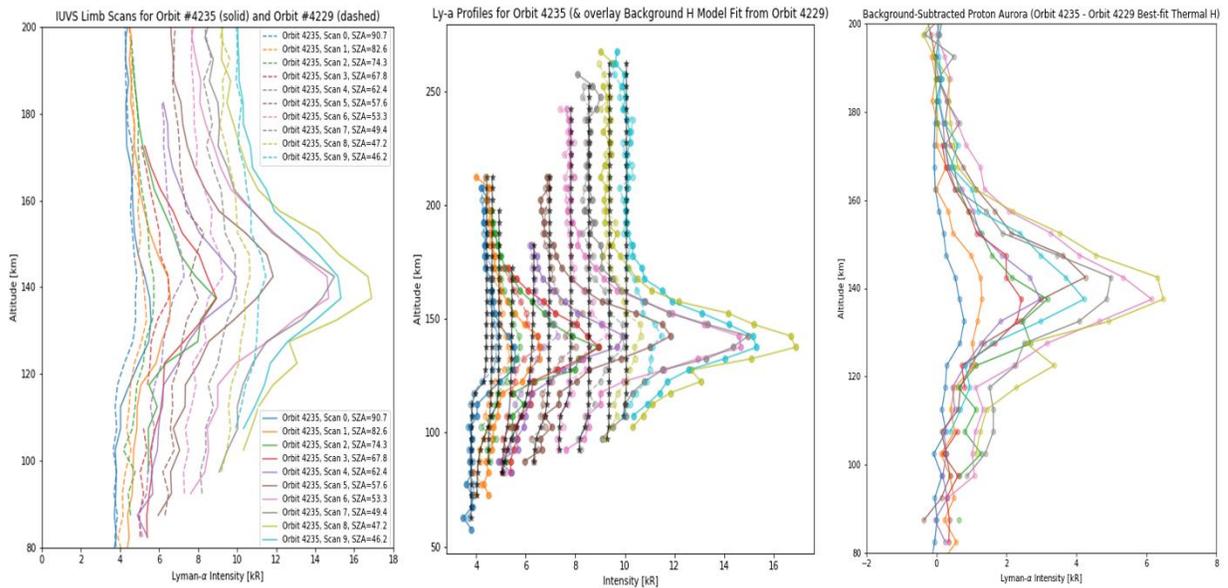
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589 **Figure S1.** MAVEN spacecraft orbit information showing the locations of the
 590 spacecraft during Orbit 4235. The red/blue colors represent the magnitude and
 591 orientation of the crustal magnetic fields (see MAVEN PDS or Science Data Center
 592 website for more information). Note that the location of the periapsis is in the
 593 southern hemisphere and does not pass over any strong crustal magnetic fields.
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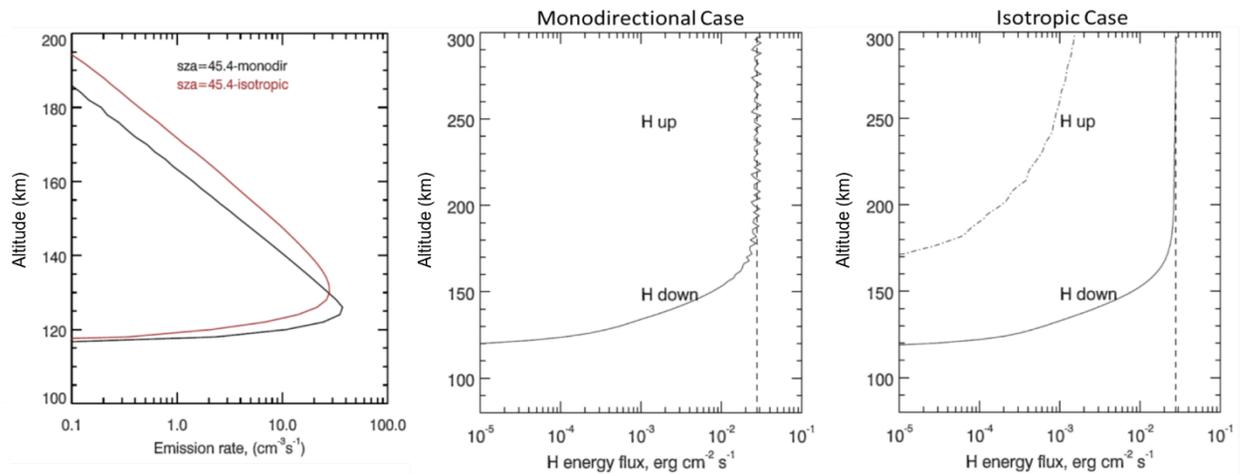
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596 **Figure S2.** MAVEN/IUVS information showing ephemeris data for the IUVS limb
 597 scans during Orbit #4235 periapsis. Note that the location of periapsis is primarily
 598 on the dayside of the planet (with the exception of a few limb scan observations
 599 near the terminator) in the southern hemisphere and does not pass over any strong
 600 crustal magnetic fields. Different limb scans are marked by different colors within
 601 the orbit.
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Figure S3. Altitude-intensity profiles and estimated heuristic thermal H background used for the background subtraction method described in this study. **Left:** IUVS Ly- α profiles for the orbit used in the data-model comparison (#4235), and a nearby orbit with little/less proton aurora activity (#4229) used to create the best-fit heuristic background coronal H profiles for each limb scan; peak profile SZAs for each scan in the two orbits are provided in the legend. **Middle:** Heuristic background thermal H profiles estimated from orbit #4229 (black profiles) overlain on Ly- α profiles for corresponding SZA limb scans in orbit #4235. **Right:** Final background-subtracted profiles that represent the contribution from only H-ENAs in the IUVS proton aurora observation in this orbit (*i.e.*, removing the background contribution from coronal thermal H).



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Figure S4. Example comparison of assuming monodirectional movement of the incident particle population in the atmosphere versus isotropic (simulation results from the Bisikalo/Shematovich *et al.* model). **Left:** Comparison proton aurora profiles using each assumption; **Middle:** Simulated H energy flux in the downward and upward (zero in this case) directions using a monodirectional assumption; **Right:** Simulated H energy flux in the downward and upward directions using an isotropic assumption. The simulated proton aurora profile using the isotropic assumption has a higher peak altitude and smaller VER due to the larger upward H population. The models in this study assume monodirectional particle movement, which could in turn lead to some of the observed discrepancies between the data and the models in Step 2 of the campaign. We note that neither of these two extreme assumptions (*i.e.*, purely monodirectional or purely isotropic incident particle movement) is a probable physical occurrence, and the actual particle precipitation pattern is somewhere between these two limiting cases.

Cross Section (CS) Processes:	Elastic		Charge Exchange/ e ⁻ Capture		e ⁻ Stripping		Ionization		Lyman-α		Lyman-β &/or Lyman-γ		Balmer-α		Excitation of CO ₂		Differential Scattering Cross Sections (DSCS)		
	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	H-CO ₂	H ⁺ -CO ₂	
Jolitz:	Newman+ 1986 [for H/H ⁺ - N ₂]			Barnett+ 1977	Nakai+ 1987		Van Zyl+, 1978 [for H - O ₂] McNeal, 1970 [rescaling]	Rudd+ 1985	Van Zyl & Neumann [for H - O ₂] Birely & McNeal, 1971 [rescaling]	Avakyan+ 1998 [for H ⁺ - O ₂] Birely & McNeal, 1971 [rescaling]									Newman+ 1986 Noel and Pröls, 1993 [for H/H ⁺ - O ₂]
Kallio:	Newman+ 1986 [for H/H ⁺ - N ₂]			Rees, 1989 [for H ⁺ - O ₂]	Van Zyl+, 1978 [for H - O ₂]		Van Zyl+, 1978 [for H - O ₂]	Rudd+ 1985	Van Zyl & Neumann, 1988 [for H/H ⁺ - O ₂]										Newman+ 1986 Noel and Pröls, 1993 [for H/H ⁺ - O ₂]
Bisikalo/ Shematovich et al.:	Porter+ 1976			Nakai+ 1987 [for H - O ₂ and rescaled]	Nakai+ 1987 [for H - O ₂ and rescaled]		Haider+ 2002 [for H - O ₂ and rescaled]		Haider+ 2002 [for H - O ₂ and rescaled]										Lindsay+ 2005 [for H/H ⁺ - O ₂ and rescaled]
Gronoff et al.:	Kozelov & Ivanov, 1992 [for H/H ⁺ - N ₂]			Kusakabe+ 2000 Avakyan+ 1998	Smith+ 1976 Avakyan+ 1998 [for H - N ₂]		Basu+ 1987 [for H - N ₂] Avakyan+ 1998 [rescaling]	Rudd+ 1983 Avakyan+ 1998	Birely & McNeal, 1972 [rescaled as per Avakyan+ 1998]										Avakyan+ 1998 Basu+ 1987 [Calculated from pitch angle using Rutherford-type collision functions]

Table S1. List of cross sections (CS) that each model in this study may include. The five overlapping CS processes of each modeling team are shown in green, along with relevant references for those CS processes and Differential Scattering Cross Sections (DSCS). Bins marked with an “X” represent additional CS processes that can be included in models.