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1 **Landscapes of polyphase glaciation: eastern Hellas Planitia, Mars**

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25 **Abstract:** The mid-latitudes of Mars host numerous ice related landforms that bear many similarities
26 to terrestrial ice masses. This collection of landforms, termed viscous flow features (VFFs), are
27 composed primarily of H₂O ice and show evidence of viscous deformation. Recent work has
28 hypothesised that VFFs are the diminishing remains of once larger ice masses, formed during one or
29 more previous ice ages, and the landscape therefore records evidence of polyphase glaciation.
30 However, debate persists concerning the former extent and volume of ice, and style of former
31 glaciations. The accompanying map (1:100,000 scale) presents a geomorphic and structural
32 assessment of a glacial landscape in eastern Hellas Planitia, Mars. Here we present a description of
33 the features identified, comprising four geomorphic units (plains, lobate debris apron, degraded glacial
34 material, and glacier-like form) and 16 structures (craters, moraine-like ridges, flow unit boundary,
35 arcuate transvers structures, longitudinal surface structures, ring-mold craters, terraces, medial-
36 moraine like ridges, raised textured areas, flow-parallel and flow-transverse lineations, crevasses and
37 crevasse traces, and ridge cluster).

38

39 **Keywords:** Mars; ice; glaciation; lobate; debris apron; glacier-like form; mid-latitude; climate change

40

41 1. Introduction

42 The mid-latitudes of Mars host numerous ice related landforms with many similarities to terrestrial ice
43 masses (e.g. Arfstrom and Hartmann, 2005; Head *et al.*, 2005; Baker *et al.*, 2010; Hubbard *et al.*,
44 2011; Souness *et al.*, 2012; Sinha and Murty, 2013). These landforms are composed primarily of H₂O
45 ice, have surface morphologies consistent with viscous deformation and have consequently become
46 known as viscous flow features, or VFFs (Milliken *et al.*, 2003; Holt *et al.*, 2008; Plaut *et al.*, 2009).
47 Recent advances in orbital and climatic modelling have supported earlier arguments that VFFs are
48 related to geologically-recent ice ages. These ice ages are proposed to occur as a consequence of
49 increased solar radiation forcing water stored in the polar caps of Mars to be transported towards
50 lower latitudes, under periods of high (>30°) obliquity (Touma and Wisdom, 1993; Head *et al.*, 2003;
51 Laskar *et al.*, 2004; Forget *et al.*, 2006).

52

53 Despite an increase in research into such non-polar ice deposits on Mars during recent decades,
54 several fundamental planetary and glaciological issues remain, of which our collective understanding

55 is still only in its infancy (see Souness and Hubbard, 2012; Hubbard *et al.*, 2014). Of particular
56 prominence is the origin and subsequent evolution of mid-latitude VFFs (e.g. Pierce and Crown, 2003;
57 Parsons *et al.*, 2011; Fastook *et al.*, 2011, Souness *et al.*, 2012; Souness and Hubbard, 2013).

58

59 Such VFFs are comprised of four distinct subtypes (see review of Souness and Hubbard, 2012): (i)
60 glacier-like forms, or GLFs (Hartmann, 2003; Hubbard *et al.*, 2011); (ii) lobate debris aprons, or LDAs
61 (Squyres, 1978; Pierce and Crown, 2003); (iii) lineated valley fill, or LVF (Squyres, 1978); and (iv)
62 concentric crater fill, or CCF (Levy *et al.*, 2010). However, VFFs commonly coalesce and interact to
63 form what Head *et al.* (2010) described as Mars' integrated glacial landsystem (Figure 1). Following
64 this model, GLFs represent the lowest-order component of this glacial landsystem, generally forming
65 in small valleys or cirque-like alcoves. Often multiple GLFs forming adjacent escarpments converge to
66 form broad, rampart-like LDAs. In turn, LDAs may converge or coalesce to form an often complex and
67 contorted surface termed LVF.

68

69 [Insert Figure 1 near here]

70

71 At present there is a growing body of evidence suggesting that mid-latitude ice deposits are the
72 remnants of a once far larger ice mass (e.g. Dickson *et al.*, 2008, 2010; Sinha and Murty, 2013;
73 Hubbard *et al.*, 2014) and the widespread identification of glacial features and landforms has led to
74 suggestions that continental scale glaciation may have occurred on Mars (e.g. Kargel *et al.*, 1995;
75 Fastook *et al.*, 2014). Reconstructing glacial environments based on their landforms and structural
76 assemblage is a powerful concept applied in terrestrial glaciology (see Hubbard and Glasser, 2005).

77 Through utilising evidence left on the landscape with observations from modern glaciers, we can
78 reconstruct the extent and dynamics of both former (glaciated) and modern (glacierised) glacial
79 environments (e.g. Kleman *et al.*, 1997; Evans and Twigg, 2002; Greenwood and Clark, 2009).

80

81 The map described herein documents the geomorphic units and structural features associated with a
82 glacial landscape in eastern Hellas Planitia, Mars. Here, we present an overview of the data and
83 methods used, and provide a description of the main units recorded on the map, which can be found
84 as supplementary content to this article.

85

86 **2. Study site and brief review of previous work**

87 **2.1 Study site**

88 Located to the east of Hellas Planitia, one of the largest impact structures on Mars, Reull Vallis is a
89 morphologically complex outflow channel system, which is comprised of Noachian (~4.65-3.7 Ga BP),
90 Hesperian (~3.7-3.0 Ga BP), and Amazonian (~3.0 Ga BP to present) materials (Tanaka and
91 Leonard, 1995; Mest and Crown, 2001). Reull Vallis has an abundant population of VFFs (e.g.;
92 Souness *et al.*, 2012), in particular LDAs, of which over 90 have been identified here (Mest and
93 Crown, 2001; Pierce and Crown, 2003). Here, we map a particularly well-developed LDA and
94 associated landforms which surround an isolated highland massif (Figure 2). The massif sits just to
95 the north of the Reull Vallis outflow channel and is centred on ~103° E, 40.6° S. The study site covers
96 an area of 2,647 km² to the west of the massif and topography ranges between ~2700 m to -650 m
97 (relative to Mars datum). The LDA extends radially up to ~26 km from the base of the massif and has
98 a maximum and minimum elevation of ~40 m and -610 m respectively, giving an overall elevation
99 difference of ~650 m. Although not investigated, the eastern portion of the massif also contains
100 several ice related landforms (Figure 2c). The appearance of these landforms share several
101 similarities with features described herein, and elsewhere on Mars (e.g. Whalley and Azizi, 2003), and
102 likely reflect a wider cold climate landsystem in Reull Vallis.

103

104 [Insert Figure 2 near here]

105

106 **2.2 Previous work**

107 Eastern Hellas Planitia is a key region in martian climate and glaciological studies. Climatic
108 simulations have revealed the region to have experienced snow accumulation when Mars' obliquity
109 exceeded 45° (Forget *et al.*, 2006). Radar data from Mars Reconnaissance Orbiters' (MRO) Shallow
110 Radar (SHARAD) has augmented these findings by detecting massive H₂O ice deposits, buried
111 beneath thin (<10 m) debris layers surrounding LDAs near Reull Vallis (Holt *et al.*, 2008).
112 Furthermore, analysis of craters and stratigraphic relationships of LDAs in the Reull Vallis region
113 indicate that LDAs are Lower Amazonian in age, and are the youngest units in the region (Mest and
114 Crown, 2001; Mest and Crown, 2014).

115
116 Investigations using high-resolution imagery have identified several lines of evidence for glacier-like
117 flow in VFFs within eastern Hellas Planitia. Using Mars Express High-Resolution Stereo Camera
118 (HRCS) images, Head *et al.* (2005) described numerous surface textures, including sinuous ridges,
119 irregular depressions and flowlines on the surface of an LDA and within crater deposits. These were
120 hypothesised as being indicative of ice-rich, glacier-like viscous flow. Hubbard *et al.* (2014) recently
121 identified surface fracturing on a GLF in eastern Hellas Planitia. These authors argued that the
122 location and geometry of the surface features are comparable to crevasses common on Earth's
123 glaciers, and as such, are a direct indication of ice flow and brittle deformation.

124

125 **3. Data, methods and software**

126 **3.1 Image sources**

127 We use both Context Camera (CTX – Malin *et al.*, 2007) and High Resolution Imaging Science
128 Experiment (HiRISE – McEwen *et al.*, 2007) imagery, acquired from the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter
129 (MRO) satellite (Table 1). CTX images have a spatial resolution of ~6 m per pixel and cover an area
130 up to 30 x 160 km (Zurek and Smrekar, 2007). CTX imagery was supplemented by HiRISE imagery
131 where available. HiRISE images have an unparalleled spatial resolution of up to ~0.25 m and cover
132 an area up to 6 x 12 km (Zurek and Smrekar, 2007). For global and regional context, we also use the
133 Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter (MOLA – Smith *et al.*, 1999) gridded digital terrain model (DTM), with a
134 typical resolution of 460 m per pixel, and the global mosaic of Thermal Emission Imaging System
135 (THEMIS – Edwards *et al.*, 2011) daytime infra-red images, with a typical resolution of 100 m per
136 pixel. All data used in this study are available through the NASA Planetary Data System (PDS).

137

138 We created a 20 m per pixel DTM using standard techniques with Integrated Software for Imagers
139 and Spectrometers (ISIS) and SOCET SET ® software packages (Kirk *et al.*, 2008) and the CTX
140 stereo image pair D15_032978_1391_XN_40S257W and D16_033400_1391_XN_40S257W. Using
141 previous methods (Kirk *et al.*, 2003; 2008; Okubo, 2010), we estimate the vertical precision of our
142 CTX stereo DTM to be 3.5 m. We then used this DTM to produce a 6 m per pixel orthorectified image,
143 which was the main data product used in this study.

144

145 [Insert Table 1 near here]

146

147 **3.2 Surface mapping**

148 All mapping and analysis was carried out in ESRI's ArcMap 10.1 Geographical Information System
149 (GIS) software. Mapping was conducted through manual inspection of the imagery. Geomorphic unit
150 and structural classifications were guided by both terrestrial and martian cryospheric literature (e.g.
151 Goodsell *et al.*, 2005; Hubbard and Glasser, 2005; Baker *et al.*, 2010; Souness and Hubbard, 2013).
152 Standard image enhancement procedures (e.g. histogram equalization, standard deviation) were
153 applied on an image-by-image basis to enhance the appearance and maximise the contrast between
154 features during digitisation.

155

156 Features mapped include a lobate debris apron, a glacier-like form, degraded glacial material,
157 crevasses, moraine-like ridges, lineations, terraces, craters, and flow units. Digitisation was carried
158 out at two main scales: (i) 1:50,000 was used for large scale features, including lobate debris apron
159 and plains; and (ii) 1:25,000 was used for less well resolved features such as crevasses, lineations,
160 and moraine-like ridges. Features which varied in size, such as craters and terraces, were mapped at
161 scales appropriate to their characteristics.

162

163 **4. Description of geomorphic units and structural features**

164 This section describes the geomorphic units and their associated structural features progressing from
165 the distal to proximal end of the glacial system as follows: (i) plains; (ii) LDA; (iii) degraded glacial
166 material; and (iv) GLF. To avoid repetition, although presented in all relevant geomorphic units, a
167 structure will only be described in the first unit where it occurs in the text.

168

169 [Insert Figure 3 near here]

170

171 **4.1 Plains**

172 Plains form the distal part of the glacial landscape, representing an area of ice-free or ice-poor terrain
173 that is texturally distinct from the surrounding ice-related surfaces. The distal plains are characterised
174 by a heavily cratered, but otherwise relatively smooth surface. There is no evidence for surface flow

175 within this unit. Identifying such areas of terrain that appear unaffected by ice flow is important when
176 looking at glacial reconstruction as it provides a clear outer boundary for active glaciation. Structures
177 observed within the plains unit are: (i) craters; and (ii) sinuous ridges.

178

179 **4.1.1 Craters**

180 Craters are identified as surface depressions caused by the impact of a hypervelocity object – usually
181 a meteoroid (Figure 3a). They are typically bowl-shaped, and quasi circular in planform, but their
182 appearance can change over time. Deformation within the substrate of the material can cause the
183 craters to distort and therefore provide an indication of local strain (e.g. Sinha and Murty, 2013). The
184 appearance or sharpness of craters may also change over time as surface processes degrade their
185 surface terrains and edges (e.g. Baker *et al.*, 2010). Craters form an essential part of planetary
186 investigation as they provide a means by which surfaces may be dated (e.g. Hartmann and Neukum,
187 2001).

188

189 **4.1.2 Sinuous ridges**

190 Sinuous ridges are identified as ridges that display both positive raised relief from their surroundings
191 and a sinuous morphology (Figure 3a). Ridges may be branched and connect to each other, or occur
192 in isolation. They often interact with craters where they appear to emanate away from, or are
193 dissected by them. These ridges are predominantly located in the northern part of the map. However,
194 one particular prominent sinuous ridge appears to be buried under the upper northern part of the LDA,
195 before emanating into the foreground in a north west direction. It is possible that these ridges are
196 subglacial in origin (i.e. similar to eskers on Earth); however, their morphology is more consistent with
197 ‘wrinkle’ and degraded ridges in the Reull Valles region, the origin of which are interpreted to be fluvial
198 or volcanic (Mest and Crown, 2001; Mest and Crown, 2014).

199

200 **4.2 Lobate debris apron (LDA)**

201 Forming the outer ice terrain, the LDA is identified as the region that extends from, and runs parallel
202 to, the base of the massif in a convex down-slope profile, and terminates in a lobate margin. The LDA
203 surface has a relatively rough appearance when compared to the smoother plains material and is
204 heavily textured with a ridge-and-trough pattern, generally aligned transverse to the unit’s inferred

205 flow direction. Towards the distal end of the LDA the observed ridge and trough pattern gives way to a
206 more lumpy texture, characterised by small, rounded, butte-like mounds, although this surface type is
207 not ubiquitous across the whole LDA. Identified within the southern part of the LDA, in the foreground
208 of the GLF, is an extensive ($\sim 90 \text{ km}^2$) area of relatively smooth terrain that contrasts with the
209 surrounding rough LDA texture. Running parallel to the northern part of the LDA are a series of
210 moraine-like ridges, which occur up to $\sim 1 \text{ km}$ beyond the current LDA limit. The LDA is the most
211 extensive ice terrain and, based on a qualitative assessment of crater density, also the oldest.

212

213 The surface morphology and convexity described above have previously been used to infer that LDAs
214 show viscous flow, and that the mechanism by which flow is achieved is a result of ice deformation
215 (e.g. Squyres, 1978; Colaprete and Jakosky, 1998; Pierce and Crown, 2003; Head *et al.*, 2005; Holt
216 *et al.*, 2008; Grindrod and Fawcett, 2011). Structures observed within the LDA unit are: (i) moraine-
217 like ridges; (ii) flow unit boundaries; (iii) arcuate transverse structures; (iv) longitudinal surface
218 structures; (v) ring-mold craters; and (vi) craters (Section 4.1.1).

219

220 *4.2.1 Moraine-like ridges*

221 Moraine-like ridges are long (10^1 km), often narrow ($10^{-2} - 10^{-1} \text{ km}$), ridges that are raised above their
222 surroundings (Figure 3b). Moraine-like ridges are identified running parallel to the terminus of VFFs,
223 commonly in an arcuate manner and are similar to terminal or ice-marginal moraines associated with
224 terrestrial glaciers (Arfstrom and Hartmann, 2005). Such moraines (and Mars' moraine-like ridges),
225 mark the former terminal position of an ice mass and are therefore indicators of ice recession, and
226 can also indicate a former boundary between a previously glaciated and currently glacierised terrain.

227 On Earth, moraines form an essential component of glacial reconstruction in both glacierised (e.g.
228 Evans and Twigg, 2002) and glaciated environments (e.g. Greenwood and Clark, 2009).

229

230 *4.2.2 Flow unit boundaries*

231 A flow unit boundary is identified as a boundary between two flow units that have distinctive velocity
232 fields with an associated discontinuity in orientation of deformation related features (Figure 3c).
233 Structures may also appear smeared along the junction (Goodsell *et al.*, 2005).

234

235 **4.2.3 Arcuate transverse structures**
236 Arcuate transverse structures are identified as linear structures with positive or negative relief that are
237 arranged roughly transverse to the apparent flow direction. These linear structures can be followed
238 down the LDA, where they become highly arcuate or deformed (Figure 3d). Arcuate transverse
239 structures can provide an indication of local flow rates and the distribution of stresses within the
240 flowing material.

241

242 **4.2.4 Longitudinal surface structures**

243 Longitudinal structures are identified as extended linear features (up to ~20 km long) that are
244 arranged roughly parallel to the apparent flow direction (Figure 3e). These structures are similar in
245 appearance and persistence to longitudinal foliation identified on terrestrial glaciers. However, there is
246 ongoing debate as to the terminology, origin and significance of these features (see Glasser and
247 Gudmundsson, 2012). This debate notwithstanding, both flow transverse and flow parallel (Section
248 4.2.3) structures can be used to elucidate local flow direction, deformation and strain history (e.g.
249 Baker *et al.*, 2010; Souness and Hubbard, 2013).

250

251 **4.2.5 Ring-mold craters**

252 In contrast to (standard) craters (Section 4.1.1), ring-mold craters are identified as an almost rimless
253 depression with an annular moat enclosing an inner circular plateau of varying morphology (Figure 3f)
254 (e.g. Kress and Head, 2008). The morphology of ring-mold craters is consistent with previous
255 laboratory experiments of impact craters forming in relatively pure ice (e.g. Kato *et al.*, 1995), and
256 show a distinctly different morphology to craters formed in ice-poor surfaces. This distinct difference in
257 morphology between ring-mold and bowl shaped craters has led to the interpretation that ring-mold
258 craters are formed in an ice-rich substrate (Kress and Head, 2008). Furthermore, ring-mold craters
259 appear to be exclusively located within VFFs, and therefore have the potential to be a diagnostic
260 indicator for the presence of subsurface ice (Kress and Head, 2008).

261

262 **4.3 Degraded glacial material**

263 Occupying the base and encroaching up the slopes of the massif is an area of homogeneous terrain
264 characterised by a texturally smoothed surface, abundant terrace structures, and a concave down-

265 slope profile. In contrast to the plains and LDA, there is little evidence of surface cratering on this
266 homogeneous terrain. Several small alcoves appear to be cut into the massif, but two larger alcoves
267 (one located towards the centre of the massif and one on the southern face) are associated with
268 structures, including raised textured areas and moraine-like ridges, similar to the adjacent GLF
269 (Section 4.4). This overall appearance suggests a deflated or degraded terrain, possibly formed
270 during the region's current state of periglaciation. Based on structural evidence within the alcoves, it
271 may also be possible that GLFs once occupied these localities, and therefore localised glaciation may
272 have previously occurred in this unit. Structures observed within this degraded glacial material unit
273 are: (i) terraces; (ii) raised textured area; (iii) medial moraine-like ridges; (iv) moraine-like ridges
274 (Section 4.2.1); and (v) craters (Section 4.1.1).

275

276 *4.3.1 Terraces*

277 Terraces are identified as an interlinked network of step-like ridges that form sub-perpendicular to
278 slope (Figure 3g). Their length, size and coherence appear highly variable, which correspondingly
279 produces a variety of patterns. Terraces cut across other structures (such as moraine- and medial
280 moraine-like ridges), suggesting that these features represent a later age of formation relative to the
281 structure across which they cut.

282

283 *4.3.2 Medial moraine-like ridges*

284 Medial moraine-like ridges, in contrast to moraine-like ridges (section 4.2.1), persist longitudinally
285 within an ice mass, rather than forming an arcuate structure demarking a limit of glaciation. Medial
286 moraines are important structures on glaciers on Earth as they can be used to identify flow pathways
287 and the deformation of debris within a glacier (e.g. Hambrey *et al.*, 1999). They are also often flow
288 unit boundaries(section 4.2.2).

289

290 *4.3.3 Raised textured area*

291 Raised textured areas are identified as areas showing a distinct lumpy surface texture that is raised
292 above the surrounding mass (Figure 3h). The occurrence of a markedly different surface texture to
293 adjacent areas suggests that there is a local change in mechanical process or material composition.

294

295 **4.4 Glacier-like form (GLF)**

296 A well pronounced GLF with clearly distinguishable outlines occupies a small, cirque-like alcove on
297 the south-western flank of the massif. The GLF has a discernible head and terminus, the latter of
298 which appears to have breached a cirque lip to the northwest of the feature. Running parallel to the
299 terminus of the breached snout is an extensive moraine-like ridge (Section 4.2.1), enclosing the GLF.
300 Within the body of the GLF are several distinct structures indicative of flow and transportation of mass
301 down-slope, including fractures and surface lineations (Hubbard *et al.*, 2014). Two large textured
302 areas are identifiable on the lower surface of the GLF, the southernmost of which is associated with a
303 cluster of ridges. Like the degraded glacial material (Section 4.3), the GLF surface has a distinct lack
304 of craters. The GLF appears to reflect a currently glacierised environment, indicative of local ice
305 accumulation and subsequent flow. Structures observed in the GLF unit are: (i) flow-parallel and flow-
306 transverse lineations; (ii) crevasses and crevasse traces; (iii) ridge cluster; (iv) moraine-like ridges
307 (Section 4.2.1); (v) raised textured area (Section 4.3.3); (vi) craters (Section 4.1.1); and (vii) ring-mold
308 craters (Section 4.2.5).

309

310 *4.4.1 Flow-parallel and flow-transverse lineations*

311 Flow-parallel and flow-transverse lineations show many similarities to the longitudinal and arcuate
312 structures found in the LDA unit (section 4.2) (Figure 3i, j). However, both flow-parallel and flow-
313 transverse lineations only show positive relief and their length is an order of magnitude smaller (up to
314 ~1 km long). Like longitudinal and arcuate surface structures, flow-parallel and flow-traverse lineations
315 can be used to elucidate local flow direction, deformation and strain history (e.g. Baker *et al.*, 2010;
316 Souness and Hubbard, 2013).

317

318 *4.4.2 Crevasse and crevasse trace*

319 Crevasses are identified as an open fracture on the GLF surface and they may cut across other
320 structures (Figure 3k). Crevassing occurs where the tensile strain rate exerted upon and within ice
321 exceeds a temperature-dependant threshold (Vaughan, 1993). Crevasses are correspondingly
322 orientated perpendicular to the direction of maximum extensional strain (Hambrey and Lawson,
323 2000). Crevasse traces are identified by distinct, often dark, lines in areas of crevassing that do not
324 have a visible opening or fracture. Crevasse traces are former crevasses, which have subsequently

325 closed, likely due to the crevasse passing through a compressive flow regime (Figure 3k) (Hambrey
326 and Lawson, 2000).

327

328 **4.4.3 Ridge cluster**

329 Identified as a collection of ridges with a sub-parallel, stacked appearance (Figure 3l). Ridges are
330 clustered towards the south west of the GLF where they merge with the raised textured area and are
331 difficult to identify individually. However, individual structures are easily identifiable to the north of the
332 feature, where ridges become well defined.

333

334 **5. Conclusions**

335 This paper presents a detailed geomorphic and structural map of glacial landforms in eastern Hellas
336 Planitia, Mars. Initial evidence suggest that the region has undergone at least two, possibly three,
337 phases of glaciation, with a wider, more extensive glacial period being recorded in the LDA, and a
338 secondary, more localised glaciation recorded in the GLF. The work presented here is part of a wider
339 ongoing project addressing the extent and dynamics of mid-latitude VFFs on Mars (e.g. Hubbard et
340 al., 2014). It also provides further evidence, and extends the spatial scale, for the hypothesis that
341 Mars has experienced multiple phases of glaciation.

342

343 **Software**

344 Image pre-processing was carried out in the freely-available Integrated Software for Imagers and
345 Spectrometers (ISIS) provided by the United States Geological Survey (USGS). Stereo DTM
346 production was carried out in the commercial software package SOCET SET ® provided by BAE
347 Systems. Image processing and mapping was carried out using ESRI ArcMap 10.1 Geographic
348 Information System (GIS). Figures and final map were produced in ESRI ArcMap 10.1. Figures were
349 subsequently exported to Adobe Illustrator v2.59 for annotation.

350

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357

358 **Map design**

359 The accompanying map was produced with the following: co-ordinate system = GCS Mars; projection
360 = Plate Carree; Datum = Mars; unit = metres; scale = 1:100,000; and paper size A1. The detailed
361 inset map has the same information as above, but has a scale of 1:35,000.

362

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1 **Table 1:** List of imagery used in mapping

Instrument	Scene ID	Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	Resolution (m)	Scene Centre	
				Lat. (°)	Long. (°)
CTX	D15_032978_1391_XN_40S257W	09/08/2013	6	-40.92	102.58
CTX	D16_033400_1391_XN_40S257W	11/09/2013	6	-40.94	102.59
HiRISE	PSP_004272_1390_RED	25/06/2007	0.25	-40.50	102.45
HiRISE	ESP_011669_1390_RED	21/01/2009	0.50	-40.88	102.50
HiRISE	ESP_019462_1390_RED	20/09/2010	0.25	-40.76	102.37
HiRISE	ESP_033400_1390_RED	11/11/2013	0.25	-40.84	102.62
HiRISE	ESP_033901_1390_RED	20/10/2013	0.25	-40.86	102.74
HiRISE	ESP_035391_1390_RED	13/02/2014	0.50	-40.49	102.56

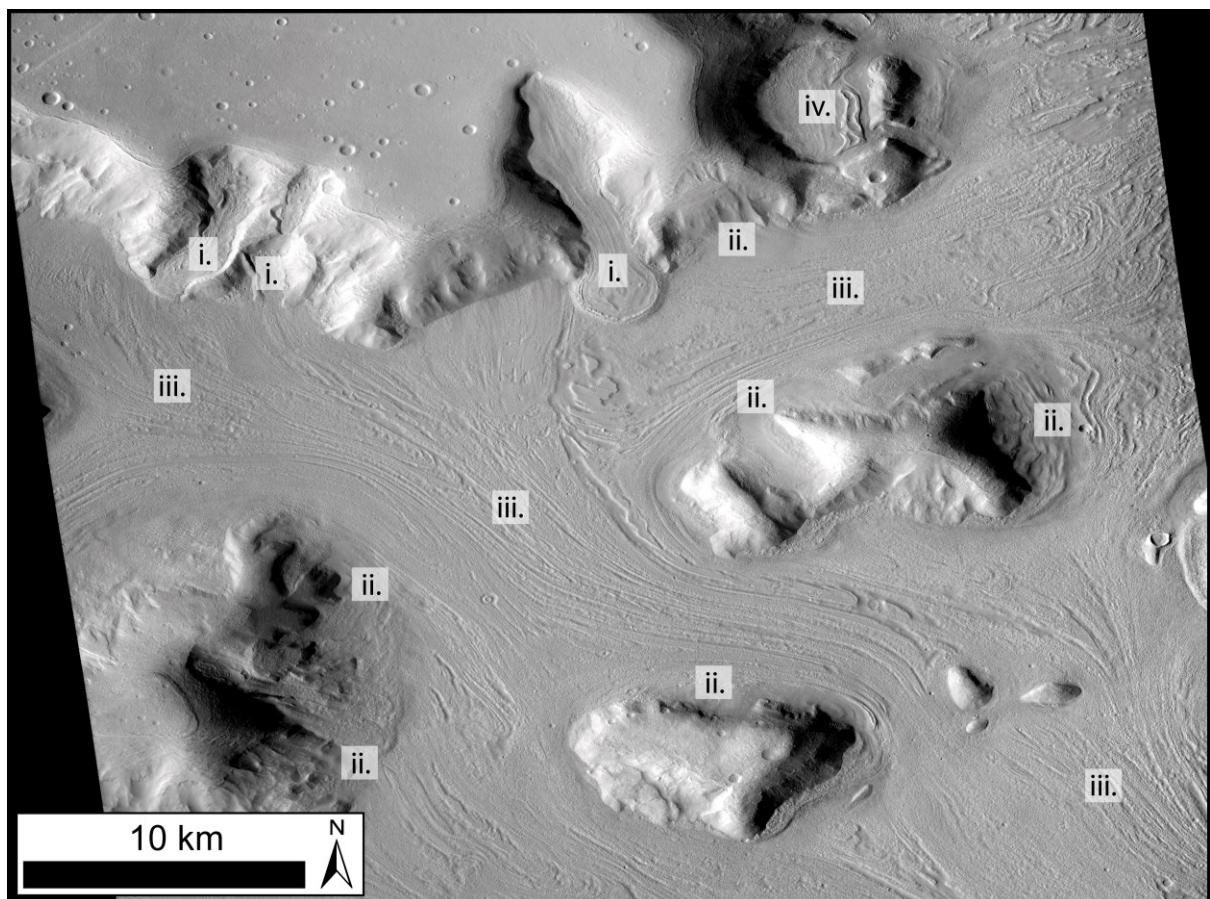
2

1 **Figure 1:** Example of an integrated glacial landsystem as described by Head *et al.*, 2010. Each
2 component of the landsystem is labelled as follows: (i) GLFs; (ii) LDAs; (iii) LVFs; and (iv) CCF. The
3 valley floor shows a complex, heavily distorted surface, typical of the integrated glacial landsystem.
4 This scene is a subset of CTX image G02_018857_2226_XI_42N309W (centred 42.62° N, 50.51° E).
5

6 **Figure 2:** Location and expansion of massif studied herein. (a) Global context indicating massifs
7 location to the east of Hellas impact basin, illustrated as a MOLA elevation transparency overlain on a
8 THEMIS-IR day mosaic. (b) Regional context of the Reull Vallis region as seen in THEMIS-IR day
9 mosaic. The region is characterised by large outflow channel systems and abundant montane
10 outcrops. Reull Vallis runs directly below the massif and portions of the Dao, Niger, and Harmakhis
11 Vallis are also identifiable along the western part of the image (orientated NE-SW). (c) CTX mosaic of
12 massif investigated. The LDA can be clearly seen encircling the massif. The area mapped in this
13 study is identified by the red box and represents the DTM extent (section 3.1). Black dots indicate
14 central location of features identified in Figure 3. Mosaic comprised from subset of CTX images
15 D13_03226_1393_XI_40S256W; G16_024552_1394_XI_40S257W;
16 D10_031066_1393_XI_40S257W; and P16_007397_1382_XN_41S257W.
17

18 **Figure 3:** Feature identification in CTX and HiRISE imagery, as discussed in the main text. Images
19 orientated north up. (a) Craters and sinuous ridge. (b) Moraine-like ridge surrounding LDA. (c) Flow
20 unit boundary - arcuate structures can be seen deforming along the flow unit boundary in the centre of
21 the image. (d) Arcuate transverse ridges. (e) Longitudinal surface structure. (f) Well-formed ring-mold
22 crater. (g) Terraces and medial moraine-like ridges – terraces appear to cut across the two medial
23 moraine-like ridges, which run longitudinally from the top centre to bottom centre of the image. (h)
24 Raised textured area – visible on the western and central portion of the image is a lumpy, raised
25 surface texture that clearly contrasts the smoother terrain to the east. (i) Flow-parallel lineations. (j)
26 Flow-transverse lineations. (k) Crevasses (open fracture) and crevasse traces (closed fracture). (l)
27 ridge cluster. Images used: a, c, d, f -ESP_035391_1390_RED; b - PSP_004272_1390_RED; e, g -
28 D15_032978_1391_XN_40S257W orthorectified image (see Section 3.1); and h, i, j, k, l -
29 ESP_033400_1390_RED.
30

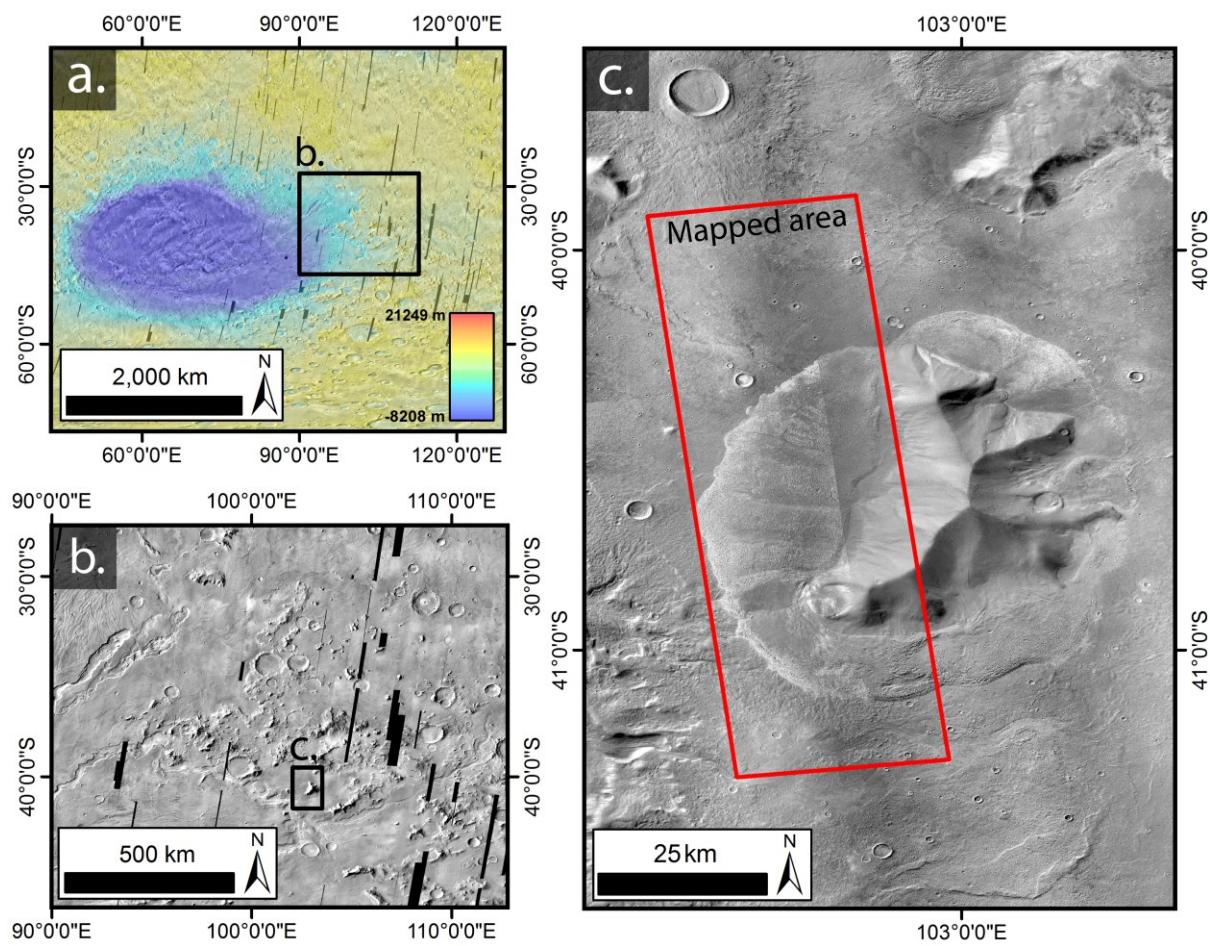
1 Figure 1.



2

3

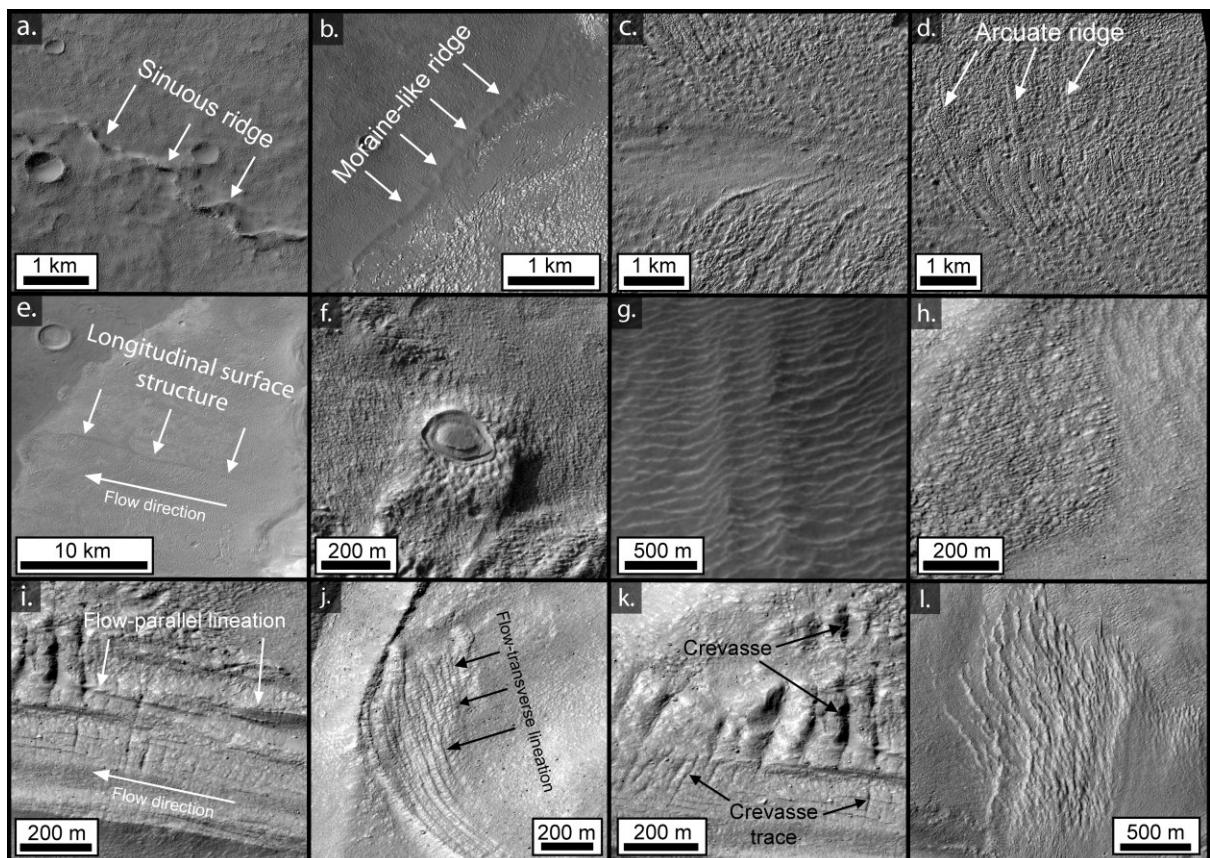
1 Figure 2.



2

3

1 Figure 3.



2

3