

# Valles Marineris: A Place Full of Answers

O. Kromuszczyńska, M. Makowska and K. Dębniak

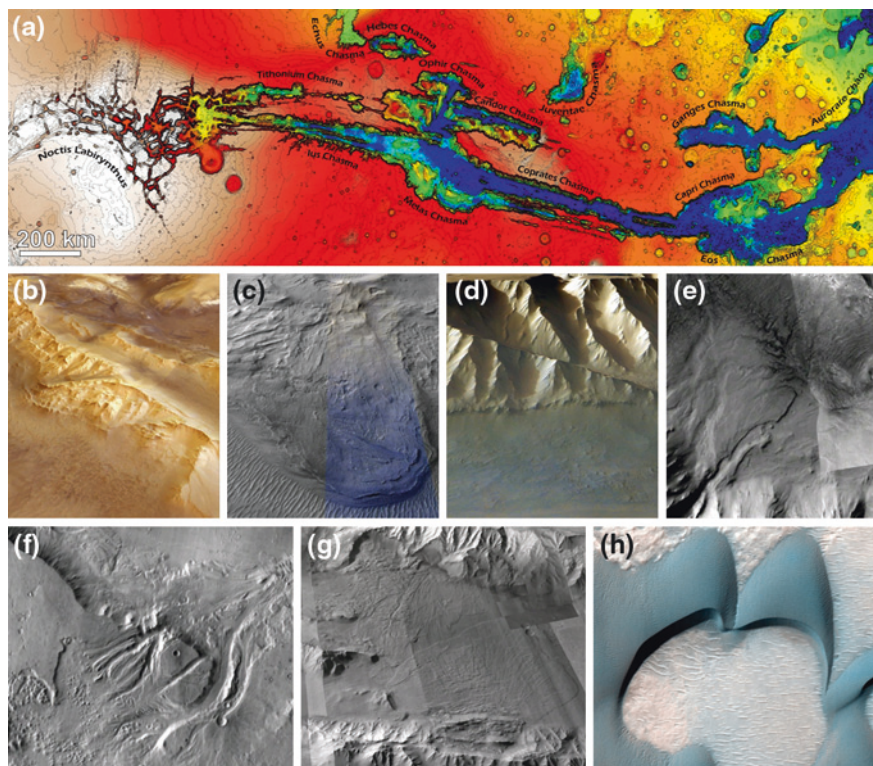
**Abstract** Valles Marineris (VM), a great canyon complex on Mars, the largest in Solar System, is an object of our research reported in this paper. There are three major aims of our work. (1) The first purpose is to create a multilayered map of the VM region using ArcGIS software and ISIS Planetary Image Processing Software. It will be the first detailed and complex synthesis of this canyon system. The second part of our investigation consists of two approaches to understand a phenomenon called Deep-Seated Gravitational Spreading (DSGS)—a slope deformation mechanism. (2) Observations and interpretations of DSGS features in Valles Marineris in comparison to terrestrial ones are one way to gain knowledge about this phenomenon. (3) Another method of the DSGS studies is to create a numerical model in the Martian and terrestrial conditions. Preliminary results show that the main factors causing DSGS are the slope angle and the angle of internal friction. The size of DSGS features on Mars is at least one order of magnitude larger than the terrestrial equivalents. The height of fault offsets in the Martian example varies from 50 to 1,000 m, while on Earth it rarely exceeds 25 m.

## 1 Introduction

One of the most spectacular places on Mars is Valles Marineris (VM; Fig. 1a)—the largest canyon complex in the Solar System. It is located in the equatorial region of the planet, covering a surface area of 650 by 2,000 km (Sharp 1973; Blasius et al. 1977; Schultz and Lin 2001; Peulvast et al. 2001), and characterized by depths exceeding 10 km.

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**Fig. 1** Valles Marineris and effects of numerous processes occurring in the canyon complex, **a** VM general view; **b** faults, tectonic processes, **c** rock glacier, **d** trimline, mark maximum glacier elevation, **e** river system, **f** outflow channels, fluvial processes, **g** landslides, mass wasting processes, and **h** dunes, eolian processes

The VM size, which is a reflection of a geological process variety occurring in the area, constitutes the canyon system as an object of interest for scientists. Owing to the complex presence in the Martian crust, it is possible to study past and current processes taking place in the region, because the canyon system allows human investigation to penetrate for several kilometers into the planet subsurface. The walls and floor of the canyons are a perfect record of the geological history of Mars, and carry information about its internal structure.

Despite many local interpretations of the VM origin and development prepared by other researches, a detailed regional map for the entire system does not still exist. A map presenting VM as an entirety—as a structure with a documented geological history, occurring processes and features produced by these processes, is needed. For that reason we make an effort in the first part of our investigation to create this desired cartographic paper.

To investigate the processes occurring on another planet, one has to assume that they act similarly to those known on Earth. Therefore, it is important to find on Earth

and Mars similar structures in order to explain the mechanisms of their formation. One of the phenomena occurring in the VM is a deep-seated gravitational spreading—a mass movement, involving gravitational propagation of topographic ridges, caused by the slope instability. The analogue for this phenomenon has been found in the Polish and Slovakian Tatra Mountains. In the second part of our studies we compare the effects of this phenomenon on Earth and Mars and conduct its numerical modeling.

## 2 Geological History of Valles Marineris

The Martian history started 4.6 billion years ago (Ga) and has been divided into three major periods on the basis of stratigraphic relationships and the impact crater density (Scott and Tanaka 1986; Greeley and Guest 1987; Tanaka and Scott 1987). Noachian is the oldest period, and it dates terrains created before 3.7 Ga. The middle part of the history, between 3.7 and 3.0 Ga, is called Hesperian, whereas the youngest is the Amazonian Period (3.0 Ga—present). The most probable genesis of Valles Marineris took place during the earliest times of the Mars development (Tanaka et al. 2012).

Valles Marineris is known for humanity for over 40 years. Between 1962 and 1973, Mariners, the American robotic interplanetary probes, were sent into interplanetary space to investigate terrestrial planets—Mercury, Venus, and Mars. The canyon name originates from the Mariner 9 mission, during which the first photography of Valles Marineris was taken in 1971, revealing the structure (Hartman 2003). Despite the fact that through all these years VM has been the target in numerous investigations and studies (for example: Dohm et al. 2009; Peulvast and Masson 1993; Williams et al. 2003; Quantin et al. 2004), there are still a lot of questions regarding its origin and development, lacking in clear answers. A number of hypotheses about the VM genesis has been created. It is associated with salt tectonics by some researchers (Montgomery et al. 2009), whereas others proposed collapse as a way to initiate surface fracturing (Rodriguez et al. 2006; McKenzie and Nimmo 1999). Mantle plume development related to central uplift has also been proposed (Dohm et al. 2009). The largest group of scientists seems to favor rifting induced by dike emplacement (Tanaka and Golombek 1989) as a process responsible for the VM creation. It is certain that processes related to the Valles Marineris origin and evolution are complex and enigmatic.

Valles Marineris situated in the Tharsis Plateau region, south of the Martian equator, is the most spectacular structure in the Solar System. It is a trough complex with the wall height up to 11 km and the length exceeding 4,000 km, covering an area of  $650 \times 2,000$  km (Carr and Head 2010). Valles Marineris is composed of interconnected, elongated, deep depressions called chasmata (singular: chasma), from the west: Tithonium and Ius, Ophir, Candor, Melas, Coprates, Eos, Capri, Ganges which constitute the main part of the structure (Mège and Bourgeois 2011; Peulvast et al. 2001). In contrary, three chasmata (Echus, Hebes, and Juventae) are localized hundreds of kilometers north of the main system, separated by plateau—they are the deepest depressions in Valles Marineris (Scott and Tanaka 1986). The system continues westward into Noctis Labyrinthus, a structure of

tectonic origin composed of grabens (Warner et al. 2012). Ius Chasma is located in the western part of Valles Marineris and directly connected to Noctis Labyrinthus. The chasma is characterized by a simple axial shape, composed of two parallel grabens separated by the Geryon Montes ridge. Walls of the canyon are layered and 8–11 km deep (Bibring and Erard 2001). Tithonium Chasma, located north of Ius Chasma, reveals similarity in shape to Ius Chasma and is also connected to Noctis Labyrinthus. The canyon south walls are structured in a spur-and-gully morphology, whereas north walls are eroded. The Tithonium Chasma depth is similar to the depth described in Ius Chasma (Quantin et al. 2004). Ius Chasma is connected to Melas Chasma, a huge canyon of irregular shape, situated in the central part of Valles Marineris. This chasma is considered as a potential area of paleolakes due to the dense valley networks in the highlands surrounding the canyon (Metz et al. 2009). Well-developed spurs and gullies, as well as triangular faces morphstructures are observed on the canyon walls (Dromart et al. 2007). Melas Chasma is linked on the northern border with Candor Chasma, i.e. by a residual part of plateau which is slowly converted into a narrow ridge separated in the middle part. Interior Layered Deposits (ILDs) can be distinguished on the Candor Chasma floor (Michalski and Niles 2011). ILDs are formed by sedimentary (Nedell et al. 1987; Malin and Edgett 2000; Rossi et al. 2007) or volcanic (Chapman and Tanaka 2001; Hynek et al. 2002) processes in the early Martian history and they are characterized by the presence of hydrated sulfate minerals and finely crystalline ferric oxides (Murchie et al. 2009). The eastern part of Valles Marineris is occupied by Coprates Chasma, adjacent from the west to Melas Chasma. The canyon shape is similar to Ius Chasma, i.e., elongated and composed of two parallel grabens separated by a massif. Spur-and-gully morphology and layers can be observed on the southern walls of the massif. In addition, the massif is compositionally and structurally similar to the chasma walls (Beyer and McEwen 2005).

Owing to the incredible canyon depth, it is possible to observe complexity of geological processes inside, like: aeolian, fluvial, mass wasting, periglacial, and tectonic. Current aeolian activity is the most dynamic process on Mars. Numerous depositional and erosional landforms, like dunes, ripples, yardangs, wind tails, and dust devils are present (Fig. 1h) (Silvestro et al. 2011). Aeolian processes play the main role in the landscape changing by removal and redeposit of the material. However, Mars was a much more dynamic planet in the past, and evidences of ancient fluvial erosion on the Martian surface, manifested in the form of valley networks (Fig. 1e) and outflow channels (Fig. 1f) can be found (Fasset and Head III 2005). Mass wasting processes can be also observed on the Martian surface, including landslides as the most common phenomenon. The spectacular landslides are found in Coprates Chasma (Fig. 1g) (Quantin et al. 2004). In addition, periglacial landforms, like polygon patterns, stone circles, and collapsed pits, are common in Valles Marineris (Fig. 1c, d) (Johnsson et al. 2012). Moreover, very intensive tectonic processes creating faults, uphill-facing scarps, and double crests were present in the early Martian history, but tectonic structures observed today are mostly remnants of the original features driven by the gravity (Fig. 1b) (Rossi et al. 2008).

## 2.1 *Creating a Map*

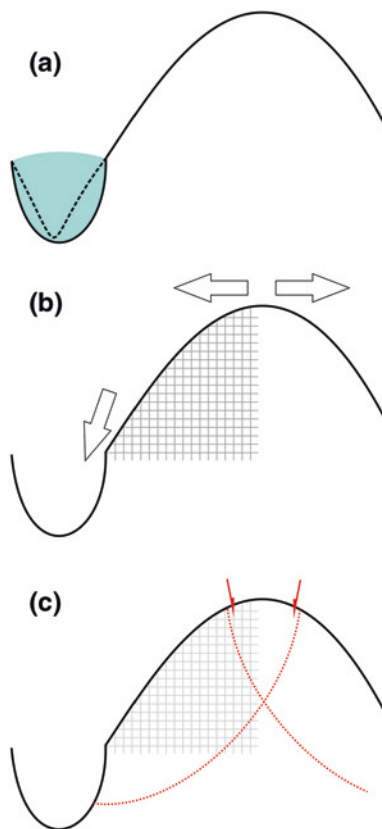
The discussion on the geological history is still open. There is an enormous amount of data, letting us better understand the geological processes occurred on Mars. However the knowledge of this subject is not sufficient. Many investigations have been performed in the VM area, but their spatial and topical variety makes past and present conditions in the canyon system hard to understand. The planetological exploration of VM has reached the point where synthesis and correlation of previous works has to be done. The summary can become a framework for the new insight in the canyon history, and at the same time the answer for most significant questions of tectonic, fluvial, glacial, and climatic processes occurred in the VM region. The synthesis will be composed of a multilayered GIS map, which is based on data obtained from several Martian missions: Mars Global Surveyor (1996–2006; MGS), Mars Odyssey (2001–present; MO), Mars Express (2003–2014; MEx), and Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (2005–2010; MRO). The datasets from these missions (MGS–MOLA, MO–THEMIS night IR, MEx–HRSC and MRO–CTX visible, HiRISE) will be used to create mosaic necessary to impose other thematic layers. The basic layer for the map production consists of CTX images processed and merged into a mosaic by USGS ISIS Planetary Image Processing Software. Several description layers and one interpretation layer will be created using ArcGIS software.

## 3 Deep-Seated Gravitational Spreading

Deep-Seated Gravitational Spreading (DSGS), also called Deep-Seated Gravitational Slope Deformations (for instance: Bachmann et al. 2009) or Sackung (for instance: Zischinsky 1966) is a very slow deformation of topographic ridges with diagnostic features such as crestal grabens, indicating ridge-top splitting, and uphill-facing normal faults scarps on ridge flanks (Mège and Bourgeois 2011; Beck 1968; Savage and Varnes 1987; Hutchinson 1988; Agliardi et al. 2001; Kinakin and Stead 2005). This phenomenon is observed in formerly glaciated mountains all over the Earth, in many different lithologies and geochemical characteristics (Bachmann et al. 2009; Zischinsky 1966; Hippolyte et al. 2006; Jarman 2006; Kobayashi 1956; Reitner and Linner 2009). Uphill-facing normal faults scarps and crestal grabens were also found on walls and internal ridges of VM (Mège and Bourgeois 2011; Kromuszczyńska et al. 2012; Bourgeois et al. 2011), indicating that DSGS also occurred in this Martian structure.

DSGS is one of mass wasting processes, which triggering factors remain still unclear, but most frequent explanation of the onset of DSGS is glacial debutressing following removal of mountain glaciers (Mège and Bourgeois 2011; Jarman 2006; Pánek et al. 2011; McCalpin and Irvine 1995; Ballantyne 2002; Agliardi et al. 2009; Hippolyte et al. 2009; Kellerer-Pirklbauer et al. 2010). Mountain valleys are changed by glaciers from V-shaped to U-shaped, causing removal of the

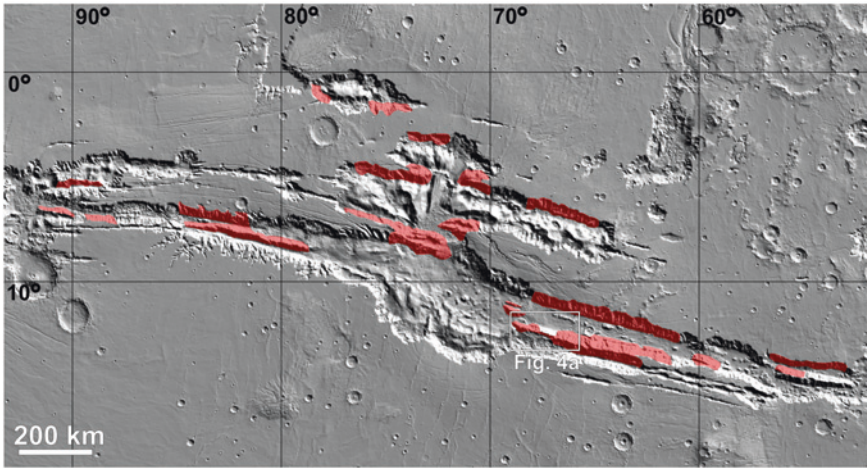
**Fig. 2** Schematic occurrence of the DSGS phenomenon; description in the text



rock mass from slope toes (Fig. 2a, b). During glaciation and later deglaciation, the climate favors fracturing and damage of rocks constituting a slope (Fig. 2b). After a glacier removal, without a support from slope toes, the slope becomes unstable in the lower part and a large shearing stress is produced. The remaining mass of rocks in the upper part of the slope is too large (Fig. 2b), so it is pulled down by the gravity. The consequence is an extensive stress formation in the top of the slope, and the subsequent normal faults appearance (Fig. 2c). Eventually, uphill-facing scarps and crestal grabens are produced. The shearing stress in slope toes causes basal slope bulging.

### **3.1 DSGS Observations in Valles Marineris (Mars) and Tatra Mountains (Earth)**

In order to compare the scale of DSGS on Mars and Earth, the deformations must be quantified. Vertical offset of uphill-facing normal fault scarps, as diagnostic features of DSGS, were used for the quantification and comparison.



**Fig. 3** Location of major DSGS sites in VM and Fig. 4a

Observations on Mars are done using the appropriate orbital datasets (especially Mars Odyssey/Themis, MRO/CTX, MRO/HiRISE, and MGS/MOLA from NASA, and Mars Express/HRSC from ESA).

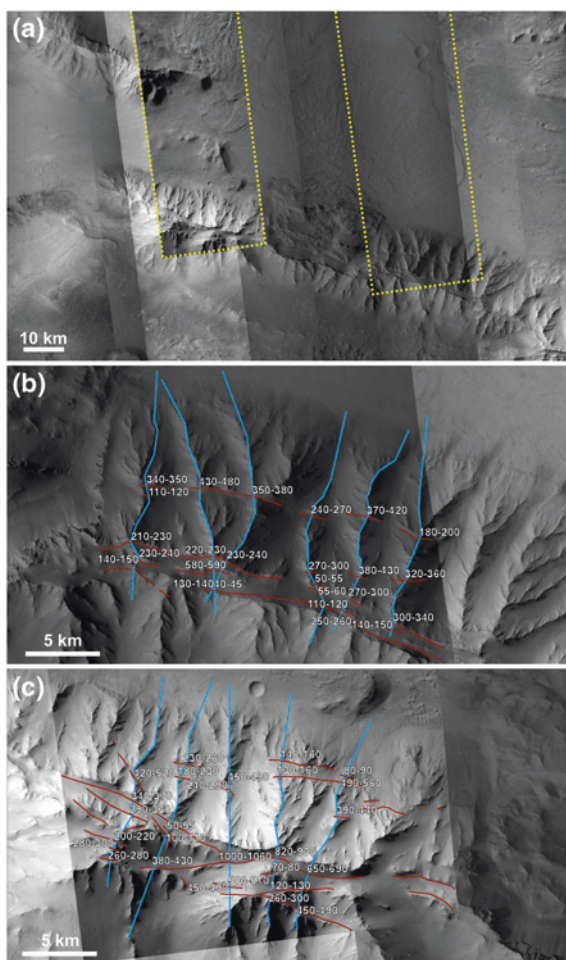
DSGS has been identified in many places in VM (Fig. 3). Uphill-facing scarps cut across the primary spur-and-gully morphology of chasmata walls, as well as slopes of internal ridges.

An example of the DSGS occurrence in VM is a topographic ridge in Coprates Chasma (Fig. 4a). Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) obtained from the MRO/CTX image correlation allowed to determine the vertical offset of uphill-facing faults located on the Coprates Chasma central topographic ridge. Two DEMs from Coprates Chasma orientated North–South were examined. The DEMs are located on Eastern and Western side of the enormous landslide formed by the ridge collapse (Fig. 4a). The DEMs' grid spacing is 30 m and the estimated vertical accuracy is 15 m.

The DEMs cover only the northern slope of the ridge, so this area has become the study site. Eleven profiles were created and analyzed. Uphill-facing normal fault scarps within DEMs were mapped and height of their offsets was measured. The height and geometry of scarps, both visible on profiles obtained from DEMs, do not represent the initial state of the fault. Both characteristics have been changed by erosional and accumulative processes. However, fault offsets can be retrieved on the basis of assumptions involving an angle of inclination of the fault surface (fault dip angle). The typical dip angle of many normal faults in extensional regime on Earth is 60–70° (Gudmundsson 1992; Acocella et al. 2003); therefore, assumed dip angles are also in this range.

The profile analyses of normal fault vertical offsets on the Coprates northern slope revealed two conclusions: (1) the fault offset in the eastern part of Coprates

**Fig. 4** **a** Investigated ridge in Coprates Chasma, *yellow lines* boundaries of DEMs, **b** values of vertical offsets of normal faults in East part of investigated area, *blue lines* profiles, *red lines* mapped faults, and **c** values of vertical offsets of normal faults in West part of investigated area, *blue lines* profiles, *red lines* mapped faults

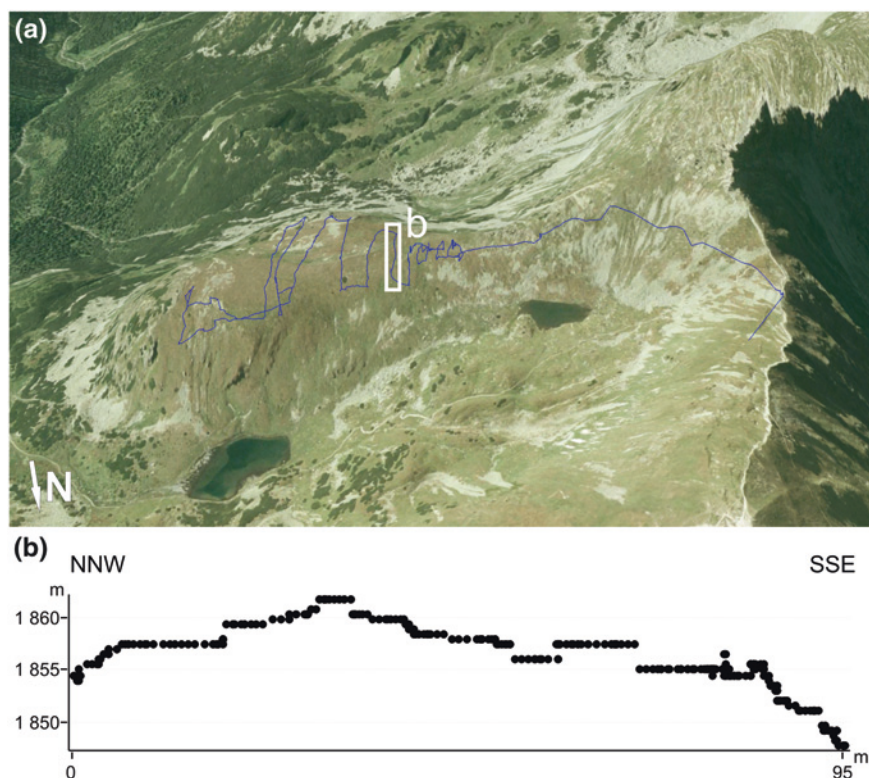


ridge is ranged between 40 and 830 m, with the average value of  $\sim 280$  m (Fig. 4b) and (2) the Western part is characterized by a fault offset in a rage between 50 and 1,000 m, and the average value  $\sim 320$  m (Fig. 4c).

The historic and most famous terrestrial examples of DSGS have been found in the Tatra Mountains (Drecki and Zyszkowska 2008; Jahn 1964; Mahr 1977; Nemcok 1972; Nemčok and Baliak 1977). These examples were taken under consideration during this research.

In order to quantify deformations in the Tatra Mountains we conducted field work, including: accurate measurements of the length, width, and depth of fault scarps, identification of the type of failure initiation mode (shear/tensile), and examination of their distribution along ridge slope.

Length, width, and depth were measured using the Wide Area Differential GPS technique (WADGPS), an improved differential GPS technique requiring a single



**Fig. 5** **a** Location of investigation site and profiles path in Ostrý Roháč area, **b** example of profile from Ostrý Roháč area

device having the Wide Area Augmentation System capability. Garmin GPSmap 62 s was used. For short distances and for double check of GPS results, a classical retractable tape measurement or/and a laser tape were performed. The laser tape is a Makita 60 m LD060P, of 1.5 mm accuracy for the investigated distances.

One of the sites studied in the Tatra Mountains is a ridge located east of Ostrý Roháč (Fig. 5a), close to the Polish–Slovakian border. DSGS appears as uphill-facing normal faults at the top of the topographic ridge. The ridge-top and slopes are intensely deformed, some scarps are up to 5–10 m high (Fig. 5b), indicating that DSGS has been extremely active in that location since the last glaciation.

The Tatra Mountains' investigations succeeded in the conclusion that vertical offsets of terrestrial normal faults created by DSGS rarely exceed 15–25 m, with mean values in the range of 5–12 m. It is consistent with the literature studies (see supplementary table in Mège and Bourgeois 2011). Although the Martian DSGS examples share many common features with the ones in the Tatra Mountains, there is a significant difference in terms of size of both terrestrial and Martian DSGS.

**Table 1** Values of the slope inclination and the angle of internal friction

|                                                     | Slope inclination [ $^{\circ}$ ] $\alpha$ |    |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|----|
|                                                     | 45                                        | 45 |
| Angle of internal friction [ $^{\circ}$ ] $\varphi$ | 40                                        | 40 |
|                                                     | 30                                        | 30 |
|                                                     | 20                                        | 20 |
|                                                     | 10                                        | 10 |

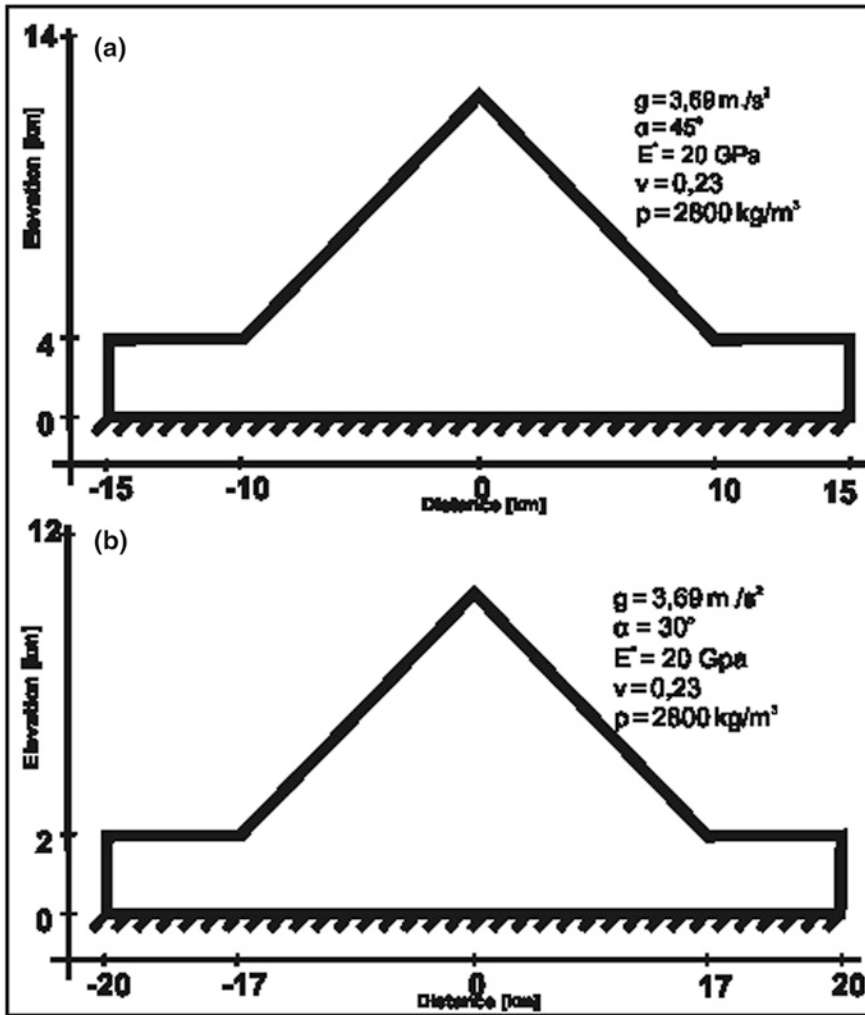
### 3.2 DSGS Numerical Modeling

The triggering mechanism of DSGS is still not well understood. Any conventional methods to specify the details of that process are not sufficient to determine them. In order to gain profound knowledge about an influence of such factors as erosional activity of glaciers, regional isostatic activity, and presence of layered deposits on triggering mechanism, a preliminary modelling were conducted.

2D modeling of a DSGS process is performed using the finite element code ADELI (Hassani 1994), software devoted to solve quasi-static termo-mechanical behavior of the lithosphere at geological time scales (Savage et al. 2007). Experiments are performed using the idea of objective derivative. Space is discretized by using linear elements and the time estimation is obtained from the finite method based on the Dynamic Relaxation Method (Savage et al. 2007). The shape and size of the model (Fig. 6) were selected according to the results of physical and numerical modeling of massif fracturing during a Deep-Seated Gravitational Slope Deformation (Bachmann et al. 2009).

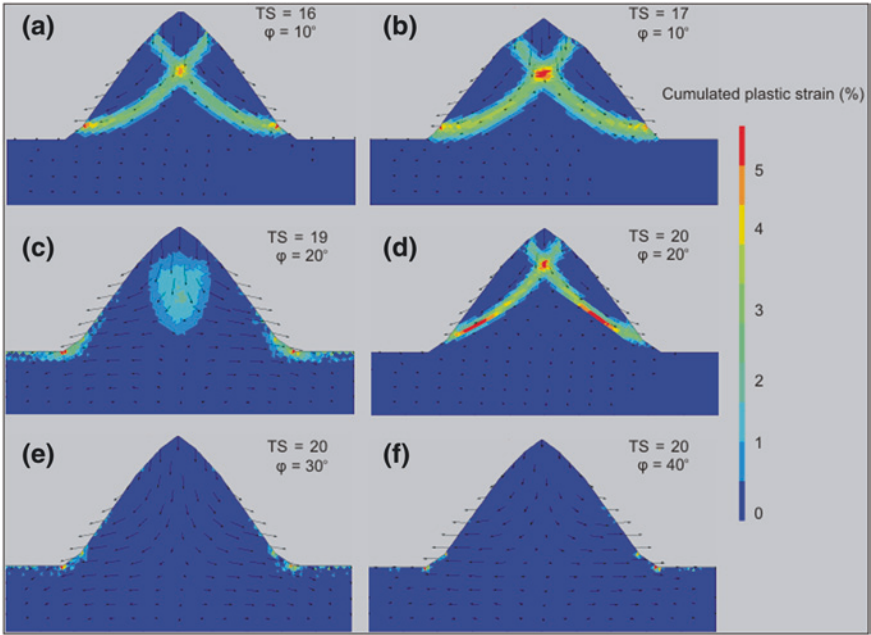
The boundary conditions are imposed at horizontal border of the model; vertical borders are not fixed (Fig. 6). The model provides 20 time-steps, corresponding to one million years. At the beginning, the model is elastically equilibrated under the Martian gravity (Bouissou et al. 2012). The parameter value of deformation modulus  $E^* = 20$  GPa was used according to the experimental data (Schultz 1995). The value of deformation modulus is related to Geomechanics Rock Mass Rating (RMR) (Bieniawski 1978) of rock mass, system based on measurable parameters of the rock mass (uniaxial compressive strength, discontinuity characteristics, rock quality designation RQD). The deformation modulus of the rock mass is smaller than the corresponding Young's modulus for intact rock due to the influence of discontinuities in the rock mass weakening. The Poisson ratio ( $\nu$ ) and density ( $\rho$ ) are 0.23 (Chemenda et al. 2009) and  $2,800 \text{ kg/m}^3$  (Merrien-Soukatchoff et al. 2001), respectively. The cohesion value obtained from RocLab, a free software for analysis of rock mass strength, was constant,  $c = 8.4 \text{ MPa}$  (Rocscience 2007). The internal friction angle and slope inclination were variable (Table 1).

Results were displayed using xadeli software. Arrows shown in Figs. 7 and 8 indicate the displacement direction. Outcome for the slope angle  $= 45^{\circ}$  and very low angle of internal friction  $= 10^{\circ}$  (Fig. 7a, b) show that plastic strain accumulation occurs inside the model and evolves with time until the complete collapse at the time-step 20. The generated failure surface is curved with a very steep dip angle.

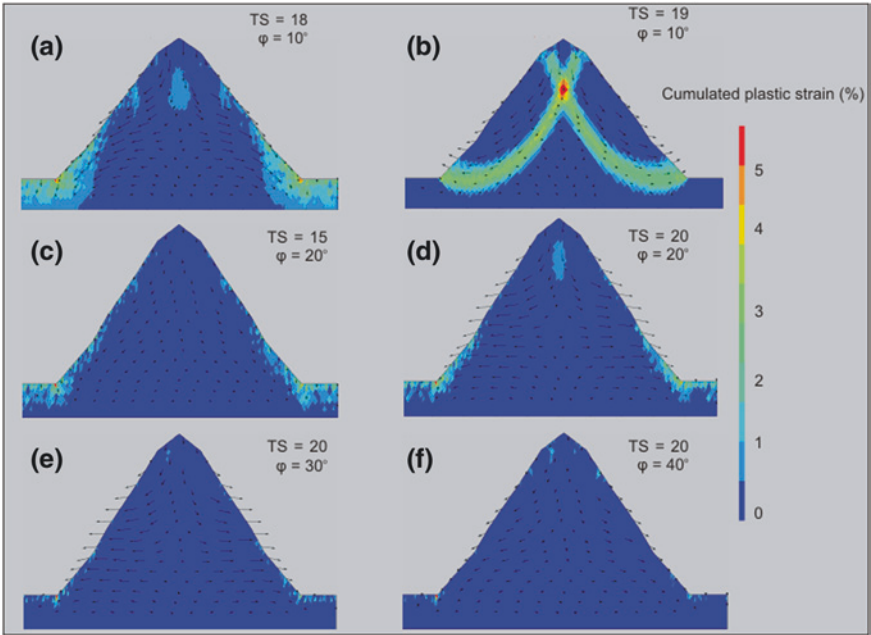


**Fig. 6** Shape of the model, boundary condition and mechanical characteristic of the numerical model.  $g$  gravity acceleration, slope inclination,  $E^*$  deformation modulus,  $\nu$  Poisson ratio,  $\rho$  density, **a** slope inclination  $45^\circ$ , **b** slope inclination  $30^\circ$

The angle of internal friction was changed to  $20^\circ$  (Fig. 7c, d). Similar results were obtained, but it was possible to reach the time-step 20 without collapse. The plastic deformation was evolving slowly. Results from the experiment with a very high angle of internal friction of  $30^\circ$  and  $40^\circ$  (Fig. 7e, f), as predicted, do not generate failure surface and plastic strain were cumulated at the toe of the slope. The second experiment was conducted by setting the angle of slope inclination  $\alpha = 30^\circ$  (Fig. 8). Results with  $\alpha = 30^\circ$  and the angle of internal friction  $\varphi = 10^\circ$  show analogous effects as obtained for the  $45^\circ$  slope inclination and the same value of internal friction angle (Fig. 8a, b).



**Fig. 7** Stages of the failure with the slope inclination of 45°. *TS* time-step,  $\varphi$  angle of internal friction



**Fig. 8** Stages of the failure with the slope inclination of 30°. *TS* time-step,  $\varphi$  angle of internal friction

The failure occurred at the time-step 19 and the system collapsed during the next time-step. The plastic strain accumulation occurs inside the model, generating a similarly curved failure surface. Different results were obtained due to the implementation of the  $20^\circ$  angle of internal friction (Fig. 8c, d). It can be observed that at the time-step 19 a small accumulation of plastic strain appears inside the model near the crest of the ridge without any well-developed failure surface. In the case of the internal friction angle of  $30^\circ$  and  $40^\circ$ , an insignificant plastic deformation is observed at the toe of the slope (Fig. 8e, f).

The preliminary studies of the DSGS mechanism using 2-D finite element code ADELI were conducted in this paper. The results show that the main factors in slope stability are the slope angle and the angle of internal friction. Another significant factor is a proper shape of the initial slope.

## 4 Conclusions

The most spectacular Martian canyon complex, Valles Marineris, is a unique structure in the entire Solar System. No other place can give us such a detailed and precise access into the planet's interior and its history. Nowhere else, full profiles up to 11 km can be found. Mars is a planet of terrestrial type and many processes and phenomena which occurred there in the past and are ongoing today are very similar to those on Earth. All information obtained from VM can be used to answer many questions, not only about the Red Planet, but also about the past, present, and future of Earth. One of common phenomena is Deep-Seated Gravitational Spreading whose diagnostic features are present on Mars and Earth. In both cases it has been interpreted to be a postglacial process. The size of DSGS features on Mars is at least one order of magnitude larger than the terrestrial equivalents. The height of fault offsets in the Martian example varies from 50 to 1,000 m, while on Earth it rarely exceeds 25 m. The difference of size between Martian and terrestrial DSGS features is due to topographic gradient which is one order of magnitude higher on Mars than on Earth. Numerical modeling results determine the angle of slope and the angle of internal friction as the main factors responsible for slope deformations by DSGS. The future model shape will be more constrained by using the limit analysis method.

The greatest problem with the enormous quantity of data hidden in VM is the lack of access to it. The topography of canyon system prevents rovers operating on Mars to get inside, so all the data currently available for us are datasets from satellites. Most of them (i.a. CTX, HiRISE, HRSC, MOLA, and THEMIS datasets) will be incorporated to produce first detailed map of the VM region and the interpretation of its geological history.

We hope that future Martian exploration missions will allow to get the access inside the VM canyon complex and obtain surficial data from the through floor and walls. That will certainly bring answers to a great number of questions about the Martian history and evolution.

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