

Geophysical Research Letters



RESEARCH LETTER

10.1029/2021GL092436

Key Points:

- The formation mechanism that produced chaotic terrains and floor-fractured craters could be piecemeal caldera collapse
- The analog experimental models showed that H₂O did not necessarily have a primary role in the collapse of chaotic terrains
- The faults due to piecemeal caldera collapse are consistent with the faults' geometry in chaotic terrains and floor-fractured craters

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Citation:

Luzzi, E., Rossi, A. P., Massironi, M., Pozzobon, R., Corti, G., & Maestrelli, D. (2021). Caldera collapse as the trigger of Chaos and fractured craters on the Moon and Mars. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 48, e2021GL092436. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GL092436>

Received 6 JAN 2021

Accepted 9 MAY 2021

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Caldera Collapse as the Trigger of Chaos and Fractured Craters on the Moon and Mars

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Abstract Chaotic terrains are broad regions on Mars characterized by the disruption of the basaltic bedrock into polygonal blocks separated by deep fractures. To date, the proposed genetic scenarios often involve the occurrence of subsurface ice or liquid H₂O. Nevertheless, similar features also occur within some craters on the Moon, namely floor-fractured craters (FFCs), where water ice reservoirs are not present. We propose a new formation mechanism for Martian chaotic terrains as well as for lunar and Martian FFCs. The proposed mechanism does not require a major role of water but multiple cycles of inflation and deflation of a buried magma chamber. This process results in a particular type of caldera collapse, called the piecemeal (or chaotic) caldera collapse. A series of analog experiments show both geometrical and quantitative correspondence with natural case studies: Arsinoes Chaos (Mars), an unnamed FFC (Mars), and Komarov crater (FFC on the Moon).

Plain Language Summary The formation mechanism of peculiar chaotic terrains on Mars remains at the center of a long debate. To date, the most supported theories involve a primary role of water, either liquid or ice. Our experiments' goal was to demonstrate whether or not it was possible to reproduce the characteristic polygonal fractures of chaotic terrains through a volcano-tectonic process that does not require an interaction with water. We found very strong resemblances between our experiments' results and the morphology of chaotic terrains. The latter can also be compared to floor-fractured craters, which also occur on the Moon, and are believed to be formed by volcano-tectonic processes as well.

1. Introduction

1.1. Chaotic Terrains

Chaotic terrains are broad regions on Mars, often depressed and bordered by scarps, where the bedrock is characterized by large irregular mesas arranged chaotically (Sharp, 1973). Toward the inner part of the chaos, the mesas evolve into more and more eroded knobs. In some areas, hydrated minerals were found in the overlying light-toned layered deposits (Baioni & Tramontana, 2015; Glotch & Christensen, 2005; Lichtenberg et al., 2010; Massé et al., 2008; Sefton-Nash et al., 2012). Several formation mechanisms were proposed in literature to explain the collapse that generated the disruption of the bedrock in flat-topped blocks: they include groundwater overpressure within a confined aquifer (Andrews-Hanna & Phillips, 2007; Carr, 1979; Harrison & Grimm, 2009; Rodriguez et al., 2005; Warner et al., 2011), melting of a buried icy lake (Manker & Johnson, 1982; Roda et al., 2014; Zegers et al., 2010), interactions between magma and ice or water (Chapman & Tanaka, 2002; Head & Wilson, 2007; Leask et al., 2006; Meresse et al., 2008; Wilson & Head, 2002), intrusion of magmatic bodies and consequent inflation (Korteniemi et al., 2006), and instability of a large amount of underground clathrates (Hoffman, 2000; Kargel et al., 2007).

Nevertheless, when we invoke processes involving liquid water we have to consider that some chaotic terrains are not associated with outflow channels nor with any fluvial evidence (both erosional and depositional) and, equally importantly, that similar features also occur in the absence of water in floor-fractured craters (FFCs) on the Moon. In addition, there are no known analogs for such collapse-related features driven by subsurface ice or water action on Earth. Instead, around and within the chaotic terrains, a variety of volcano-tectonic features are predominant (Luzzi, Rossi, Carli, et al., 2020) such as pit chains (Mége et al., 2000; Tanaka, 1997) (Figure 1b), fissure vents associated with lava flows (Jaeger et al., 2010;

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Leone, 2014; Leverington, 2011), pitted cones (Meresse et al., 2008), and y-shaped conjunctions of fissures/grabens (Leone, 2014; Mège et al., 2003) (Figure 1b) possibly linked to inflation/deflation of shallow intrusions.

Pit chains have been considered as the result of dilational normal faulting (Ferrill et al., 2011; Wyrick et al., 2004), karst dissolution (Spencer & Fanale, 1990), extensional fractures (Tanaka & Golombek, 1989), collapsed buried conduits, particularly in the cases of sinuous patterns (Sauro et al., 2020), events of explosive activity due to magma-water interactions (Head & Wilson, 2007), and dyke intrusions (Cushing et al., 2015; Mège & Masson, 1996; Mège et al., 2000; Montési, 2001; Pozzobon et al., 2015; Scott & Wilson, 2002; Wilson & Head, 2002).

Pit chains are frequently coalescent and often associated with volcanic grabens (*sensu* Scott & Wilson, 2002). According to Mège et al. (2003), individual rift zones would form above elongated magma chambers: in the case of limited deflation, the surface expression of the dilatant deformation would result in pit chains; in the case of stronger deflation, the deformation would be enough to produce volcanic grabens.

1.2. Floor-Fractured Craters

The FFCs on the Moon strongly resemble chaotic terrains and share the same polygonal fractures; they are thought to be due to the emplacement of sub-volcanic magmatic intrusions through complex plumbing systems of dykes and sills (Head & Wilson, 2017; Jozwiak et al., 2012, 2015; Michaut et al., 2020). According to Wilson and Head (2018), after the emplacement of a laccolith, inflation would produce the stress responsible for fracturing and uplifting the overlying crater floor mainly at its edges. Accordingly, on the Moon, inflation caused by magmatic bodies has been already invoked for the formation of polygonal fractures. This hypothesis is also supported by gravity data: positive Bouguer anomalies were found in correspondence of FFCs, and interpreted as due to dense magma beneath the crater (Jozwiak et al., 2015, 2017; Thorey et al., 2015). Bamberg et al. (2014) described and mapped the global distribution of FFCs on Mars, recognizing two different groups: one related to fluvial activity and one where fluvial evidence is missing in contrast

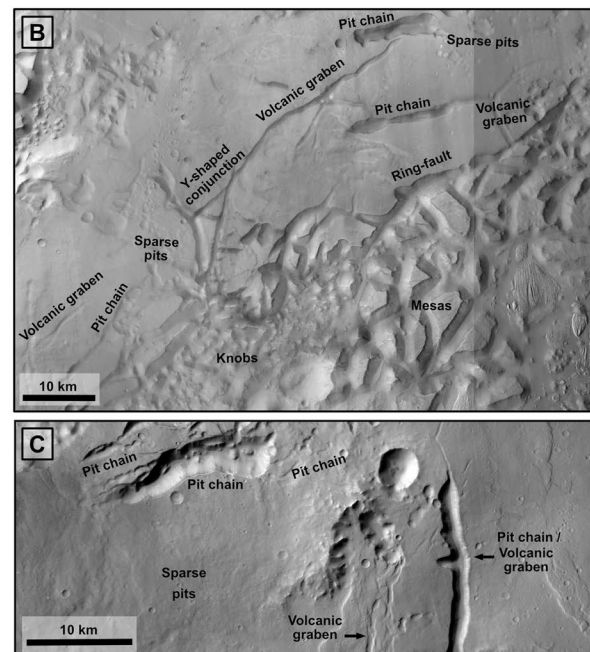
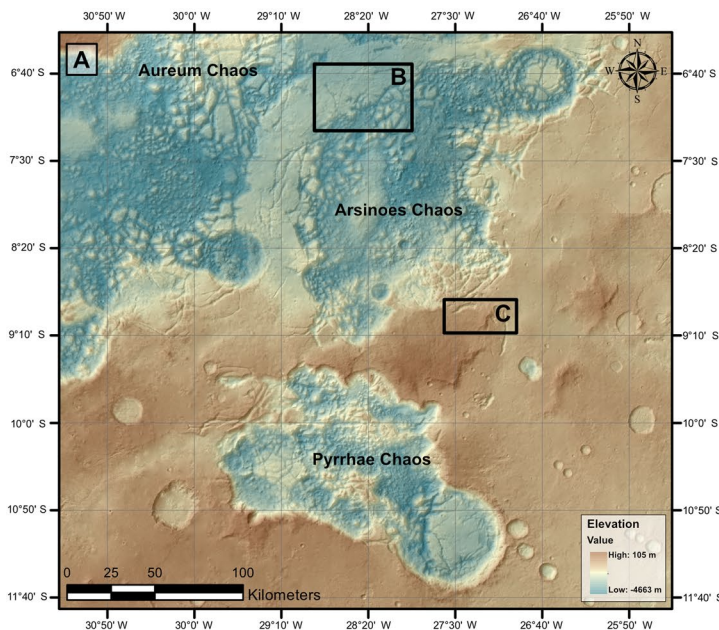


Figure 1. (a) Colored blend of the Digital Elevation Model (DEM) derived from the Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter (MOLA) and the High-Resolution Stereo Camera (HRSC) (200 m/pixel) overlaid with transparency a Context Camera (CTX) mosaic (6 m/pixel) for the location of Arsinoes Chaos, our analog case of study. (b)–(c) Examples of the recurrent volcano-tectonic features occurring in Arsinoes Chaos: volcanic grabens (*sensu* Scott & Wilson, 2002), pit chains, and sparse pits. The characteristic morphology of chaotic terrains is also shown (ring-fault, mesas, and knobs). CTX mosaic.

with a widespread occurrence of volcano-tectonic features. The second group has been interpreted by the authors as due to intrusive volcanism, similar to what has been proposed for the Moon.

For this work, we focused our attention on an unnamed FFC on Mars, south of Aram Chaos (0.1°S, 337.2°E), and the lunar FFC Komarov crater (24.5°N, 152.2°E). Komarov crater is a class 2 FFC, occurring in correspondence of Mare Moscoviense, where the predicted crust thickness has been proposed as spanning from 1 to 20 km (Wieczorek et al., 2013). Due to the thin crust, Morota et al. (2009) suggest that in this region, magma could have smoothly ascended from the mantle. Therefore, we consider Komarov crater as the best case scenario of magmatic activity in correspondence of FFCs. In fact, it exhibits distinctly the radial and concentric fractures characteristic of FFCs.

Walwer et al. (2021) conducted a study of correlation between floor uplift and the total fracture length within FFCs, assessing that the variability of this correlation seems to be due to the different overpressures in the intrusive bodies below the craters. In particular, the authors demonstrated that craters overlying a thinner crust suffer of a larger overpressure. Furthermore, they propose that the magma storage in the lunar crust could be ascribed to vertical dykes ascending from the crust-mantle interface. These results emphasize the fact that Komarov crater, with its thin crust below the crater and therefore large overpressure, might be one of the best sample lunar FFCs to test our hypothesis.

1.3. Piecemeal Caldera Collapse

The occurrence of widespread volcano-tectonic structures and the peculiar morphology of chaotic terrains and FFCs consisting of irregular polygonal blocks within depressed areas recall a process known as “piecemeal” or “chaotic” caldera collapse (Branney & Kokelaar, 1994; Moore & Kokelaar, 1998; Roche et al., 2000; Scandone, 1990; Troll et al., 2002; Walter & Troll, 2001), generated by multiple cycles of inflation and deflation of a buried magma chamber. Unlike the classic “piston collapse” where a coherent block collapses bounded by a ring fault which maintains the piston and the caldera floor undissected, in piecemeal caldera collapse, the subsidence causes the disruption of the piston, and the consequent dissection of the caldera floor into irregular blocks (Lipman & Lipman, 1997; Roche et al., 2000). Branney and Kokelaar (1994) specify that the classification of piecemeal caldera includes both calderas with block-faulted floors and calderas where the polygonal blocks on the floor are missing because they have been turned into mega- and mesobreccia.

The existence of collapsed calderas on Mars in areas where volcanic edifices are not found was already proposed by Michalski and Bleacher (2013), who discussed the possibility that many depressions thought to be craters on Mars are instead the result of supervolcano collapses.

Furthermore, Leone (2014) and Leverington (2011) argued that magmatic processes are the simplest to explain many structural features occurring in Valles Marineris and within chaotic terrains such as pit chains, grabens, and lava-draped channels showing bifurcations.

In this work, we want to quantitatively constrain the processes leading to the formation of the polygonal blocks and the scarps that characterize chaotic terrains and FFCs.

We take Arsinoes Chaos (7.7°S, 332.1°E) as a case study for the development of chaotic terrains (Figure 1a). Arsinoes Chaos is a closed basin characterized by a sharp rim; therefore, in this area, it was easier to model a hypothetical analog magma chamber, as most of the other known chaotic terrains are more irregular and coalescent.

2. Materials and Methods

We tested the effect of repeated inflation-deflation cycles of a magma chamber on the resulting superficial pattern of deformation, by using a series of analog models with a setup similar to that illustrated in Walter and Troll (2001) and Troll et al. (2002). Specifically, our setup consisted of an elastic latex membrane fixed to a Plexiglas base able to expand when inflated with a magma analog. The membrane was pre-inflated to reach 1 cm in height during model building up so that a successive phase of deflation induced collapse. After pre-inflation, a layer of sand was poured on the membrane and flattened to obtain a uniform model

surface before deformation. This layer, intended to mimic the Martian and lunar overburden with a brittle behavior, was simulated by using K-feldspar sand. The sand (Colorobbia FS 900) has a density (ρ) of 706 kg m^{-3} , a cohesion (c) of $\approx 45 \text{ Pa}$ and an angle of internal friction (ϕ) of 62° , calculated according to the procedure described by Montanari et al. (2017). Its fine grain size ($< 40 \mu\text{m}$) allowed a good detection of small fractures and faults developed on the model surface. An analog magma material was then inflated using a stepper motor piston, allowing for a constant injection velocity. Magma was simulated with Polyglycerine-3 (PG3) (Montanari et al., 2017).

We built up an experimental series composed of 10 models (for more information on the choice of the experiments see Text S1). Two similar setups were built: a “circular membrane” setup (here named setup S1) was designed to obtain a reference model, comparable with the setup of Walter and Troll (2001) and Troll et al. (2002). The latex membrane was designed with a diameter of 9 cm and pre-inflated to 1 cm in height (corresponding to 15 ml of pre-injected analog magma), on top of which a 0.5 cm thick overburden was layered. A second setup (setup S2) was designed to reproduce the plan view geometry of Arsinoes Chaos (i.e., having an irregular elliptical shape) with a major and a minor axis respectively of 9 and 5 cm and an overburden 0.6 cm thick. All other parameters were kept identical to setup S1.

A first cycle of inflation was started by injecting 20 ml of analog magma, then during the deflation, 20 ml of magma were withdrawn, and a second cycle was repeated by intruding 30 ml and withdrawing 40 ml. Tests with further cycles were also made but were proven to simply reactivate existing structures; therefore, we examined the models after two cycles.

In order to guarantee a correct comparison with the natural prototype, models were correctly scaled (Table S1) (King Hubbert, 1937; Ramberg, 1981; Weijermars & Schmeling, 1986). Geometrical scaling of lengths was set so that 1 cm in the model corresponds to 20 km in Arsinoes Chaos and 10 km in FFCs. This implies a model to nature length ratio l^* (where $l^* = l_m/l_n$) equal to 5×10^{-7} for Arsinoes and $l^* = 10^{-6}$ for the lunar FFC. The density scaling ratio $\rho^* = 0.271$ was calculated assuming a bulk crustal density of $\approx 2,600 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ both for Mars and the Moon (e.g., Byrne et al., 2015; Wiczorek et al., 2013). The correct scaling of forces was obtained by considering the different gravities on Mars ($g \approx 3.71 \text{ m/s}^2$) and on the Moon ($g \approx 1.62 \text{ m/s}^2$), implying a gravity scaling ratio g^* of 2.64 and 6.05, respectively. This allowed the calculation of the stress scaling ratio $\sigma^* = \rho^* g^* l^*$ which is $\approx 3.58 \times 10^{-7}$ for Mars and 1.64×10^{-6} for the Moon. A correct dynamic scaling implies that the stress scaling ratio is equal to the ratio between material cohesion and natural rock cohesion ($\sigma^* = c^* = c_m/c_n$). From this, considering a material cohesion (c_m) of 45 Pa, we calculated a range of cohesion for natural rocks on Mars and Moon of 27.4×10^6 – $12.5 \times 10^7 \text{ Pa}$, which is consistent with natural values (e.g., Byrne et al., 2015). Finally, our models only reproduced and considered the brittle deformation (which is strain rate independent), and therefore, the kinematic scaling of velocities was not necessary.

The stereophotogrammetry to produce Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) of the experiment was performed using Agisoft Metashape, where point cloud-based DEMs were computed.

The imagery used in this work consists of Context Camera (CTX) images (resolution of 6 m/pixel) collected by the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (Malin et al., 2007), which were processed into a global mosaic and made public by the Murray lab (Dickson et al., 2018). The DEM used for the measurements is a blend between the Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter (MOLA) (Smith et al., 1999) data and the High-Resolution Stereo Camera (HRSC) (Neukum & Jaumann, 2004) data, with a resolution of 200 meters/pixel.

The image of the Moon is cropped from the Lunar Reconnaissance Orbiter Camera (LROC) (Robinson et al., 2010) Wide Angle Camera (WAC) Global Morphology Mosaic (resolution of 100 m/pixel) provided by the USGS. The DEM used for the measurements of the lunar FFC is a merged product of the Lunar Orbiter Laser Altimeter (Smith et al., 2010) and the SELENOlogical and Engineering Explorer (SELENE) (Ohtake et al., 2008) Kaguya data sets (resolution of 59 m/pixel).

3. Experiments and Implications

In order to test the piecemeal caldera collapse as a formation mechanism for chaotic terrains and FFCs, we set up a series of analog experiments to be compared to Arsinoes Chaos, the unnamed FFC on Mars and Komarov crater on the Moon. We present the results of two experiments, exemplificative of the behavior of

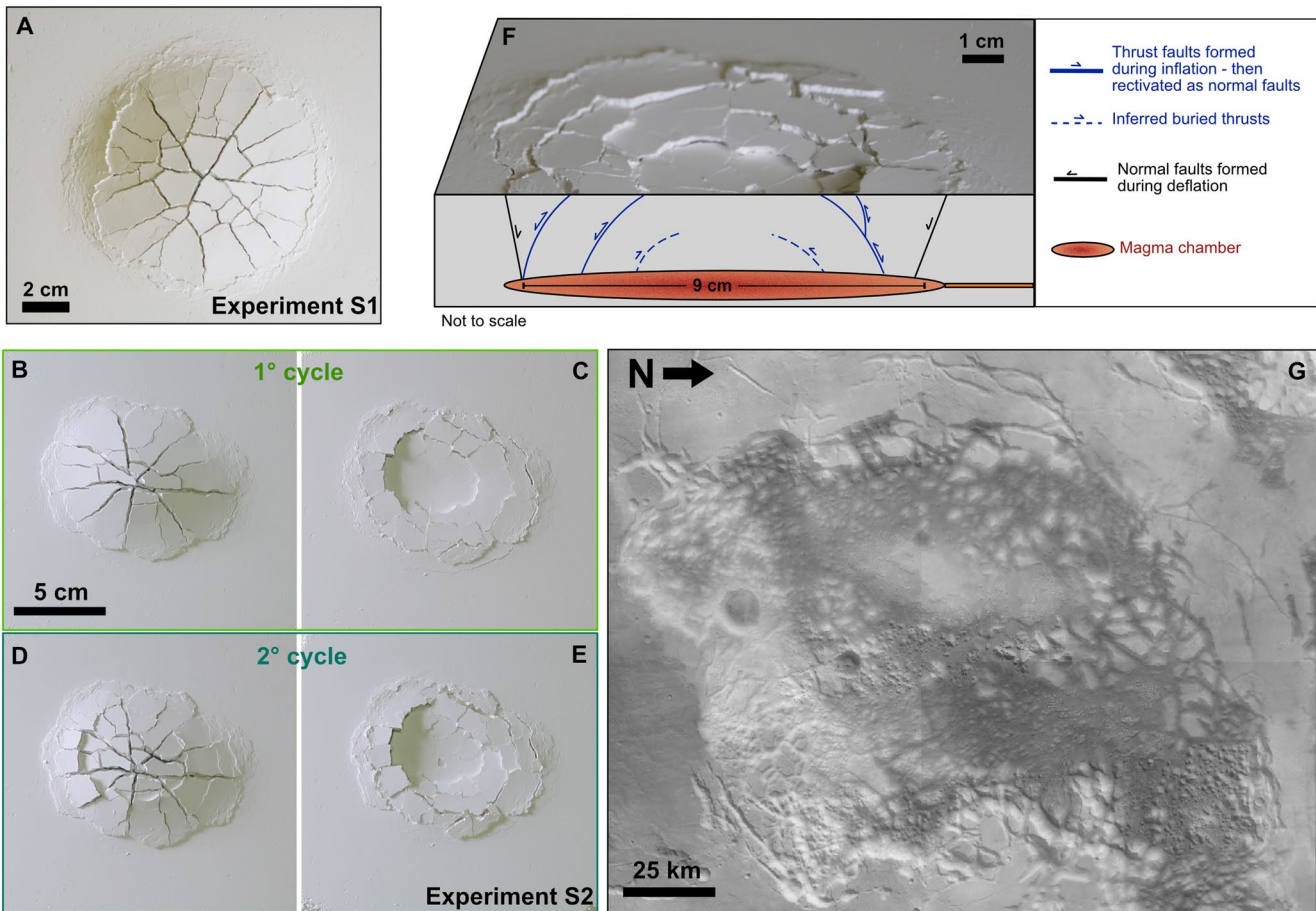


Figure 2. The results of the experiments are shown and compared to the morphology in Arsinoes Chaos. (a) Setup S1 at the end of the first intrusion. (b) Setup S2, elliptic magma chamber, first cycle, first inflation. Concentric thrusts are formed almost directly overlying the perimeter of the magma chamber, radial faults radiate from the top of the inflated mound. (c) First cycle, first deflation, setup S2. The concentric thrusts are re-activated as normal faults, new concentric faults are also formed. The caldera shows an irregular elliptical shape. The intersection between radial and concentric faults creates the polygonal blocks. (d) Second cycle, second inflation, setup S2. New concentric and radial faults are formed. (e) Second cycle, second deflation, setup S2. The floor collapsed further than at the end of the first cycle. (f) Interpretative cross-section of (e). Note that the thrusts formed during the first intrusion are then reactivated as normal faults during the magma withdrawal. Not to scale. (g) Digital Elevation Model superimposed in semi-transparency over the Context Camera mosaic, showing the morphology of Arsinoes Chaos, as disrupted polygonal blocks.

setup S1 (magma chamber with circular geometry reflecting the FFC natural cases on Mars and the Moon; Figure 2a) and setup S2 (magma chamber with irregular elliptical shape reproducing the geometry of Arsinoes Chaos' rim; Figure 2g).

In both the experiments, during the first inflation the bulging starts developing and the first structures formed are radial dilational faults and concentric thrusts bordering the periphery of the buried magma chamber (Figure 2b). During the first deflation (Figure 2c), at the end of the withdrawing, the bulge is collapsed, the thrusts are reactivated as normal faults and the outermost concentric normal faults are identified as the ring fault system as defined by Acocella (2007), while other concentric faults combined with the previously formed radial faults produce the peculiar polygonal geometries bounding the angular blocks. At the second inflation (Figure 2d) more radial dilational faults are produced and the bulge presents a collapsed top. The cycles end with the second deflation (Figure 2e), during which the ring fault undergoes a major subsidence, new radial and concentric structures form, and the pre-existing are enhanced.

The structures formed during the piecemeal collapse fit with the geometries identified on chaotic terrains and FFCs. The qualitative comparisons are shown in Figure 3. The circular setup S1 generated a circular caldera consistent with the FFCs, with radial and concentric faults, polygonal blocks and a caldera floor

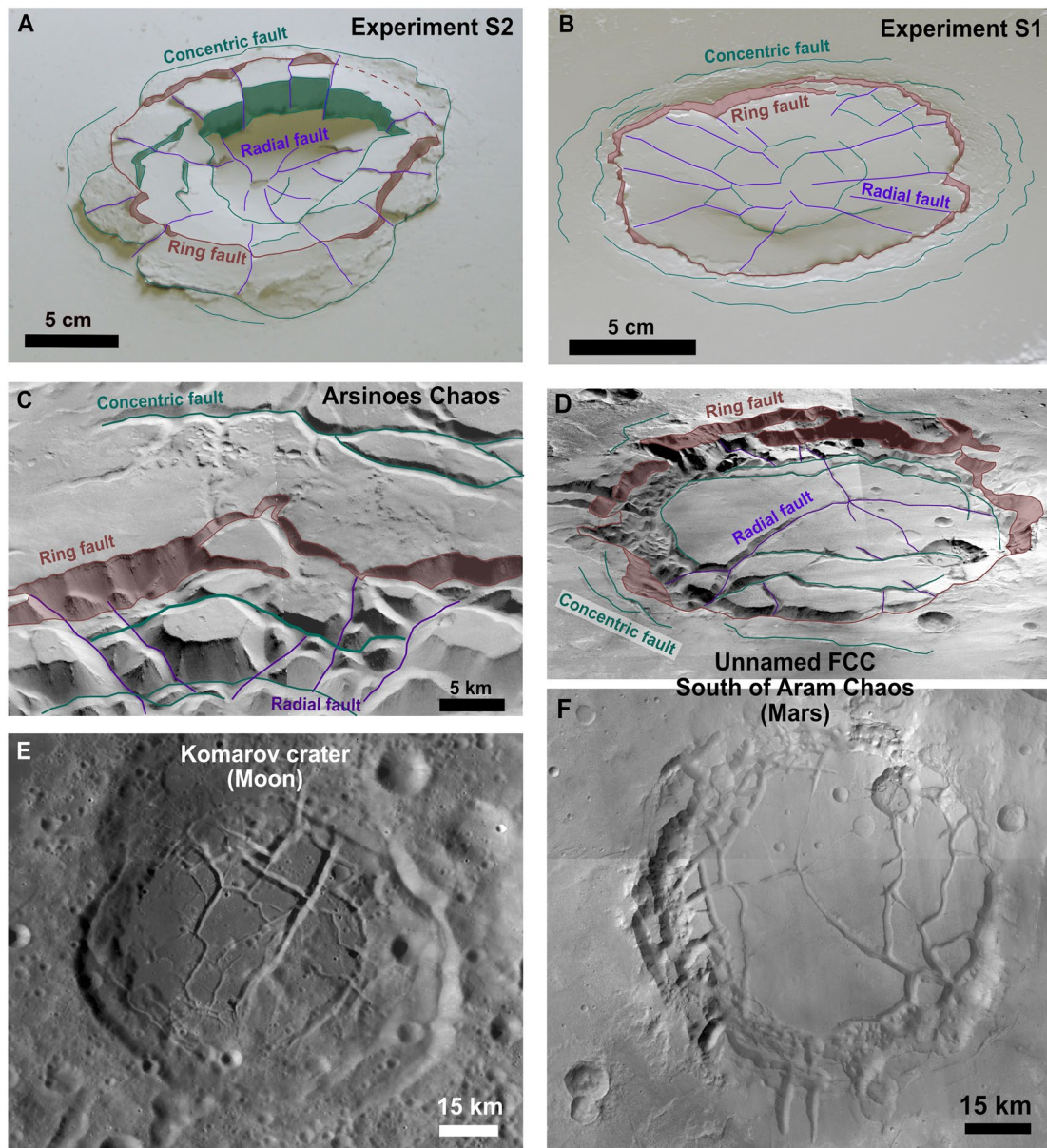


Figure 3. Comparison of the structures formed within the setup S2 experiment (a) and the structures occurring in Arsinoes Chaos (c) (Context Camera [CTX] mosaic and blended Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter and the High-Resolution Stereo Camera [MOLA-HRSC] Digital Elevation Model [DEM]). The complexity in the natural case on Mars is augmented by millions of years of erosion and by the occurrence of sedimentary infillings in the central part of the chaos, but both radial and concentric faults (purple and green) are still visible as well as the pronounced ring fault (brick red). Setup S1 (b) can be correlated with the unnamed floor-fractured crater (FFC) south of Aram Chaos (d) and (f) (CTX mosaic). (e) On the Moon, the FFC shares structures comparable to the setup S1 (Lunar Reconnaissance Orbiter Camera Wide Angle Camera Global Morphology Mosaic, 100 m/pixel).

bordered by the ring fault. The setup S2 formed an elongated caldera consistent with the more irregular basin of Arsinoes Chaos and in this case the structures formed during the experiment also fit very well with the natural case.

The measurements performed on the structures of the experiments and the comparison with the natural cases are reported in Table 1. The results indicate that the extent of the ring fault is consistent for all the experiments and natural cases, and so are the angles between the fractures that border the polygonal blocks and the subsidence along the ring fault. In particular, the consistency of the angles (Text S2 and Figure S1)

Table 1

Comparison Between the Experiment's Geometries and the Natural Cases (Arsinoes Chaos, Mars; Unnamed FFC, Mars; Komarov Crater, Moon)

Scaled parameters (1:10)	Experiment S1 (after first cycle)	Experiment S1 (after second cycle)	Unnamed FFC (Mars)	Komarov crater (Moon)
Magma chamber perimeter	28.6 cm (286 km)	28.6 cm (286 km)	?	?
Magma chamber depth	0.5 cm (5 km)	0.5 cm (5 km)	?	?
Radial faults (max length)	4.2 cm (42 km)	4.6 cm (46 km)	40 km	51 km
Radial faults (average length)	3 cm (30 km)	3 cm (30 km)	20 km	30 km
Ring fault perimeter	30 cm (300 km)	30 cm (300 km)	240 km	280 km
Ring fault subsidence	0.35 cm (3.5 km)	0.45 cm (4.5 km)	1–2 km	1–3 km
Concentric periphery faults (max length)	8.2 cm (82 km)	8.2 cm (82 km)	34 km	53 km
Concentric periphery faults (average length)	3 cm (30 km)	7.6 cm (76 km)	32 km	45.5 km
Average angle between fractures	-	95°	95°	95°
Scaled parameters (1:20)	Experiment S2 (after first cycle)	Experiment S2 (after second cycle)	Arsinoes Chaos (Mars)	
Magma chamber perimeter	46 cm (920 km)	46 cm (920 km)	?	
Magma chamber depth	0.6 cm (12 km)	0.6 cm (12 km)	?	
Radial faults (max length)	3.2 cm (64 km)	4.6 cm (92 km)	40 km	
Radial faults (average length)	2.5 cm (50 km)	3.6 cm (72 km)	27 km	
Ring fault perimeter	27 cm (540 km)	27 cm (540 km)	593 km	
Ring fault subsidence	0.05 cm (1 km)	0.15 cm (3 km)	1–4 km	
Concentric periphery faults (max length)	6.3 cm (160 km)	6.3 cm (160 km)	87 km	
Concentric periphery faults (average length)	4 cm (80 km)	4.7 cm (94 km)	60.5 km	
Average angle between fractures	-	97°	95°	

Abbreviation: FFC, floor-fractured crater.

between the fractures assumes a crucial importance since it is not affected by unknown variables (especially by gravity) but purely reflects the process that generated a given stress field.

The main difference between the measures on the experiments and those on the natural cases consists of the length of radial and concentric faults, the scaled faults length in the experiment being generally larger than the natural case. Nevertheless, in the natural cases the geological setting has been modified, eroded, and covered by new deposits, over millions or billions of years; hence, it is reasonable to assume that at the time of their formation the faults could have had a larger extent and could have been hidden afterward, overprinted by subsequent events. On the other hand, the scarp of the ring fault might have suffered scarp retreat processes, hence the ring fault might have been slightly smaller at the formation time with respect to the current extent.

In general, the results of our experiment fit very well with the morphology characterizing FFCs and chaotic terrains. The generation of polygonal angular blocks within a depressed caldera and the abundance of concentric and radial faults are indeed consistent (Figures 3a and 3b), as well as the occurrence of a caldera floor where other deposits could be unconformably deposited in a subsequent sedimentary environment. Our interpretation may extend to other chaotic terrains and other floor-fractured craters on the Moon and Mars. Further work will be focused on investigating the effect of different crustal thicknesses beneath the collapses and depth of the magma source. Especially for lunar FFCs, several constraints need to be considered for the broader applicability of these results, since Komarov crater represents a best case scenario due to its previously described characteristics.

We were not able to test the unconfined setting because reproducing an unconfined experimental setup is a particularly complex task. In fact, the analog experiments are confined by their nature. Nonetheless, we

provide two possible explanations for the irregularity and coalescence of unconfined chaotic terrains: (a) the coalescence might have been caused by subsequent events that overprinted the pre-existing structures related to the caldera collapse, while at the time of the collapse all the chaotic terrains were confined; (b) the coalescence might have been caused by the proximity of multiple magma chambers. In fact, the occurrence of widespread pit chains, volcanic grabens, pitted cones, and basaltic mineralogies suggest the past presence of a magmatic province in the area; therefore, it could be plausible that multiple magma chambers were distributed in the region.

As for the FFCs, based on these preliminary results we cannot exclude that only one cycle of inflation and subsequent deflation (related to cooling processes) occurred, as agreed by the majority of the scientific community. We propose two cycles of inflation and deflation because (a) the results of our experiments show consistency; (b) it is more likely that during a 200 Ma volcanic activity (estimated by Morota et al., 2009) multiple events occurred, especially in craters overlying a thin crust as in Komarov crater, where Walwer et al. (2021) predicted a large overpressure of the magmatic body underneath the crater. Future work will be focused on assessing whether this formation mechanism can be held responsible with a major degree of certainty for the fracturing of FFCs or not.

4. Conclusions

Our analog experiment demonstrated that piecemeal caldera collapses can generate all the structural features occurring within confined chaotic terrains: a bordering normal ring fault, as well as the radial and concentric faults intersecting each other bordering polygonal angular blocks. We, thus, demonstrated that the occurrence of liquid water or ice is not essential to cause collapse and chaotic terrains. This would also explain the lack of outflow channel or any fluvial evidence in some chaotic terrains such as Arsinoes Chaos, as well as the resemblance between chaotic terrains and floor-fractured craters on the Moon, where water is not present and where laccolith-induced inflation was already proposed as a formation mechanism.

We do not exclude that on Mars, water (either liquid or ice) could have been present at the time of the caldera formation and might have augmented the intensity of the collapse and induced phreatomagmatic explosions (e.g., Kortenienmi et al., 2006), but it seems not to have been the main driver.

Our results bring new insight into the formation mechanisms that generated chaotic terrains and FFCs, which are not always so chaotic as they might appear at a first glance, and call into question the involvement of water in the collapse history leading to their formation on Mars.

Data Availability Statement

The data used in this work are stored in a repository following the FAIR principles (Luzzi, Rossi, Massironi, et al., 2020).

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge support and funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under grant agreement N°776276 (PLANMAP). The authors want to express our appreciation to Dr. Jack Wright for improving the language quality of the manuscript, and to the reviewers for their constructive comments.

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