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1	Reconstructing the Infilling History within Robert Sharp Crater, Mars:
2	Insights from Morphology and Stratigraphy
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15	
16	Highlights (max. 85 characters, including spaces)
17	1. We produce a geologic map of Robert Sharp crater, at the dichotomy boundary.
18	2. Degradation of crater infillings into fretted terrain during Hesperian epoch.
19	3. Sedimentary or volcano-sedimentary airfall filling during Hesperian epoch.
20	4. Occurrence of late fluviolacustrine episodes possibly until the Amazonian period.

21 Abstract

22 Recent mineralogical studies suggest past aqueous activities in the 150-km-wide Robert Sharp impact crater, the western neighbor of Gale crater on Mars. Despite their mineralogical 23 similarities, Robert Sharp and Gale craters display very different morphologies. Using high-24 25 resolution orbital images, we made morphological and stratigraphical analyses, as well as age 26 determinations showing that Robert Sharp has experienced a complex geological history. This 27 includes the formation of fretted terrain and the deposition of airfall material during the early – middle Hesperian epoch. The presence of valleys, fan deltas, and numerous aqueous minerals 28 indicates fluviolacustrine episodes during the Hesperian epoch that persisted episodically until 29 the Amazonian epoch between 1.3 Ga and 500 Ma. Thus, Robert Sharp and Gale craters have 30 31 experienced contemporaneous aqueous phases possibly up to two billions years after the lacustrine environment recorded by the Curiosity rover within Gale crater. 32

33 **1 Introduction**

34 Robert Sharp impact crater is an open basin found along the Martian crustal dichotomy (Fig. 1, 133.59°E, 4.12°S). Open basins are described as valley-fed depressions with outlets on Mars 35 (Fassett and Head, 2008). Robert Sharp has a quasi-totally degraded northern rim, no apparent 36 ejecta blanket, and its floor exhibits mesas and knobs. Recent spectral analyses of the data 37 38 collected by the Compact Reconnaissance Imaging Spectrometer for Mars (CRISM, Murchie et 39 al., 2007) and the Thermal Emission Imaging System (THEMIS, Christensen et al., 2004) in 40 Robert Sharp and its surroundings show that the crater and its watershed display a varied mineralogy (e.g., Osterloo et al., 2008, 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2015; Ehlmann 41 42 and Buz, 2015). Dark sand sheets that cover the surrounding plateaus and dark dunes within the crater floor contain olivine and high-calcium pyroxene (Ehlmann and Buz, 2015). Numerous 43 chloride-rich deposits appear as light-toned materials close to clay mineral outcrops located in 44 the southwestern watershed outside the crater (Osterloo et al., 2008, 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012). 45 46 These chloride-rich deposits are detected using "Observatoire pour la Minéralogie, l'Eau, les Glaces et l'Activité" (OMEGA, Bibring et al., 2005) and THEMIS Decorrelation Stretched 47 (DCS, *Hamilton et al.*, 2007) data, and are commonly located in low-topography areas. An iron 48 chlorine hydroxide, named akaganeite (β-FeOOH, Cl), has been detected in Robert Sharp 49 (Carter et al., 2015). Akaganeite is a mineral that typically forms in acidic and saline wet 50

51 environments on Earth. Its occurrence within Robert Sharp may provide significant constraints 52 on the ancient aqueous environment in the region (*Peretyazhko et al.*, 2018). Besides the 53 detections of akaganeite and chlorides, several deposits containing Fe/Mg phyllosilicates and other aqueous mineral phases have been observed within the crater and its surroundings (*Carter* 54 et al., 2015; Ehlmann and Buz, 2015). Those latter deposits are usually detected at scarps in the 55 crater rims and on fan-shaped deposits, which are located in the western half of the crater. This 56 57 could indicate chemical interactions with near-neutral to alkaline waters, and hence supports the existence of past aqueous activity throughout the region. Interestingly, similar minerals have 58 been detected in Gale crater by the Curiosity rover (Mars Science Laboratory, MSL) (Ming et al., 59 2014, Vaniman et al., 2014). Robert Sharp and Gale craters are found in adjacent watersheds. 60

61 Robert Sharp crater is either mentioned in the Martian literature for the varied mineralogy found therein (Carter et al., 2015; Ehlmann and Buz, 2015), the presence of fretted terrains (i.e., 62 63 terrains characterized by a complicated mix of cliffs, mesas, buttes, straight-walled and sinuous canyons) at a more global scale (*Sharp*, 1973), or the fluvial processes that affected the region of 64 65 both Robert Sharp and Gale craters (Ehlmann and Buz, 2015). Nonetheless, no detailed geological mapping of the crater has been performed. Such mapping, however, is crucial to 66 67 better understand the geological history of Robert Sharp, as well as that of the watershed area. We therefore focus on constraining the hydrological and geological history of Robert Sharp 68 69 crater in relation with the regional geological context. In order to reconstruct the paleoenvironment in the region, we produced a geological map of Robert Sharp by combining a 70 morphological, stratigraphical and mineralogical study of its infilling materials (section 4.1). We 71 also performed crater counts on selected features in order to provide time constraints on the 72 73 infilling history in Robert Sharp (section 4.2). Then, we discuss the possible origin of the geologic units identified within Robert Sharp (section 5) and the mineralogy detected within the 74 75 crater (section 6). We propose a chronology of events to reasonably retrace its geological history (section 7). Finally, we consider the implications for aqueous activity and geochemical 76 environments in the region of Robert Sharp and Gale craters (section 8). 77

78 [Figure 1]

79 **2 Physiography & age**

Robert Sharp crater is located between Terra Cimmeria to the south and Elysium Planitia to the 80 north (Fig. 2a). It is very similar in size to its neighbors, Gale crater to the east $(137.8^{\circ}E, 5.4^{\circ}S)$ 81 82 and Knobel crater to the south (133.2°E, 6.7°S), with a diameter of ~150 km. The crater consists of an open basin towards the northern plains since its northern rim has been heavily breached 83 (Fig. 2a). Its original eastern rim is not exposed at the surface anymore since it appears to be 84 buried under deposits partially filling the crater and the surrounding plateau. The floor of Robert 85 Sharp is partially filled with knobs and mesas of varied sizes and shapes forming a 86 heterogeneous pattern. These landforms are characteristic of the so-called 'fretted terrain', as 87 defined by *Sharp* (1973) (see section 4.1.2). Overall, the eastern part of Robert Sharp's floor 88 raises 1.5 km higher than the western part, resulting in a west-east topographic asymmetry (Fig. 89 2b). The western rim rises up to 500 m of elevation, while the buried eastern rim is now at -100090 m of elevation. A THEMIS brightness temperature map (Fig. 2c) reveals low and high 91 temperature areas in the crater. A Thermal Emission Spectrometer (TES) dust cover index (Fig. 92 2d) shows that only the western and southwestern parts of the crater are dust-free, corresponding 93 to the higher-temperature areas in the THEMIS brightness temperature map from Fig. 2c (Ruff 94 95 and Christensen, 2002). Conversely, the low temperature areas are probably covered by dust or unconsolidated sands. 96

97 [Figure 2]

Robert Sharp crater possibly formed in the Noachian epoch, based on the presence of weakly 98 expressed valley networks incising the crater walls and the stratigraphic relationship with fretted 99 100 terrains. The basement of Robert Sharp corresponds to the middle Noachian highland unit 101 ('mNh') in *Tanaka et al.* (2014a; 2014b). Based on stratigraphical relationships, Robert Sharp is 102 inferred to be older than Gale (*Ehlmann and Buz, 2015*) which is expected to have been formed during the late Noachian - early Hesperian transition (Thomson et al., 2011; Le Deit et al., 103 2013). Thus, Robert Sharp possibly formed between the middle Noachian and the early 104 Hesperian. Robert Sharp is therefore thought to have formed before or during the decline of 105 106 large-scale fluvial activity in the northern highlands in late Noachian (e.g., Fassett and Head, 107 2008; Irwin et al., 2005), and before the formation of fretted terrains expected to be early 108 Hesperian (Irwin et al., 2004; Irwin and Watters, 2010).

109 **3 Data and methods**

110 3.1 Geological mapping

We mapped Robert Sharp (Fig. 3) and defined its geological units according to their location and 111 physical properties such as surface texture, morphology, geometry and thermal inertia. 112 Morphologic information is provided by high resolution images of the ConteXT imager (CTX, 6 113 m/pixel) (*Malin et al.*, 2007), providing a geomorphological context for higher spatial resolution 114 observations acquired by the High Resolution Imaging Science Experiment (HiRISE, 25-32 115 116 cm/pixel) (*McEwen et al.*, 2007). Brightness temperature variations between surface units are revealed by the Thermal Emission Imaging System (THEMIS, 100 m/pixel) in night-time 117 infrared data (Christensen et al., 2004; Fergason et al., 2006). The brightness temperature of 118 materials at the surface is directly correlated to their thermal inertia that provides information on 119 120 the grain size and induration of materials within the first centimeters of the surface. High thermal inertia surfaces may indicate coarse grain-sized and/or indurated rocks exposed at the surface 121 122 while low thermal inertia surfaces indicate smaller grains, poorly indurated rocks, or dust coating. 123

We used the global raster Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of the Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter (MOLA), with a horizontal accuracy of about 200 m and a vertical accuracy of around 1 m (*Smith et al., 2001*) for analyzing the stratigraphic relationships between the geological units (Fig. 4). Where available, we also used the DEM from the High Resolution Stereo Camera (HRSC, *Neukum and Jaumann, 2004; Jaumann et al., 2007*) of up to 50 m grid spacing and vertical deviations from MOLA with few meters (*Gwinner et al., 2010*).

130 [Figure 3] – [Figure 4]

131 *3.2 Age determination*

We performed crater counts on CTX images to estimate the model ages of two fan-shaped deposits, the crater floor, and a chloride-rich deposit. The crater counts were produced using the CraterTools extension for ArcGIS software (*Kneissl et al., 2011*). Absolute model ages were determined using the Craterstats software (*Michael and Neukum, 2010*), whose models are derived from the Mars production function of *Ivanov (2001)* and the chronology function of *Hartmann and Neukum (2001)*. Only impact craters with diameters greater than 70 m were considered in order to limit the effect of potential secondary craters (*Michael, 2012*) and to
further reduce effects of image resolution.

140 4 Geologic map of Robert Sharp and infilling chronology

141 4.1 Geologic mapping results

Geological units mapped in Robert Sharp (Fig. 3) are described hereafter in stratigraphic order from the oldest to the youngest. Valleys, fan-shaped deposits, and sinuous ridges are presented thereafter.

145 *4.1.1 Basement and crater wall deposits*

The basement is the oldest unit of the region and consists of "undifferentiated impact, volcanic, fluvial, and basin materials" mapped as the middle Noachian highland unit ('mNh') in the global geologic map of *Tanaka et al. (2014a; 2014b)*. This Noachian unit is thought to represent parts of the primitive crust of Mars formed by solidification of a primordial, molten surface and bombarded by large planetesimal-size objects (*Tanaka, 1986*). Crater wall deposits are seen at the foot of the southern inner rim of Robert Sharp and at the foot of an isolated basement block to the north (interpreted to be a remnant of the northern rim) (Fig. 3).

153 *4.1.2 Fretted terrain*

154 The fretted terrain consists of isolated buttes with sharp-crested or flat tops, informally named knobs and mesas, respectively. The term 'fretted terrain' is defined on the basis of their 155 156 morphology and not their lithology (*Sharp*, 1973). Their lithology can be diverse, but difficult to assess from orbit. These buttes are several hundred meters to tens of kilometers-wide and are 157 several hundreds of meters to 2 km in height. The surface of the knobs and mesas is smooth and 158 flat (Figs. 5a-c). The fretted terrain is located within the crater and is extending to the north of 159 160 the crater towards the lowlands (Fig. 2). The fretted terrain is less abundant in the western half of the crater than in the eastern half, as western mesas and knobs are relatively smaller and less 161 162 numerous, displaying a west-east asymmetry (Figs. 3 and 4).

163 [Figure 5]

164 *4.1.3 Draping units*

165 The draping deposits are observed in the eastern half of the crater and on the surrounding plateau 166 (Fig. 3). No clear contact is seen between the fretted terrains and the draping deposits. They 167 appear to dip parallel to the crater floor, and lie topographically and stratigraphically above the fretted terrains and the eastern nearby plateaus (Fig. 4). Draping deposits are divided into two 168 169 sub-units based on their respective surface texture: Dp1 (rough) and Dp2 (smooth). The Dp1 unit shows a rough surface texture (Figs. 5d-e), and covers an area of 5200 km². It is commonly 170 171 found in the center and eastern side of Robert Sharp (Fig. 3) where it embays and molds knobs and mesas (Fig. 5f). The Dp2 unit appears to be stratigraphically above the Dp1 unit (Figs. 5d-f) 172 and it has a smoother surface texture than the Dp1 unit (Fig. 5e). With an area of about 5000 173 km², the Dp2 unit extends to the plateau to the east of Robert Sharp where it appears to mantle 174 Gale's ejecta. 175

176 4.1.4 Polygonal ridges

Polygonal ridges are locally crosscutting the draping deposits and a few mesas of the fretted terrain (Fig. 3). They form networks of light-toned ridges exposed as isolated patches, randomly distributed across the draping units and the fretted terrains. They range between –1100 m and – 2130 m in elevation (Fig. 5g). Ridges are heterogeneous in size and shape, each ridge varying from one hundred of meters to several hundreds of meters in length, and several tens of meters in width (Fig. 5h). Ridges do not intersect with preferential angles within the ridge networks.

183 *4.1.5 Crater floor deposits*

The crater floor deposits are found at the bottom of Robert Sharp (Fig. 3). The crater floor deposits mostly occupy the southern and northern sections of the western half of Robert Sharp (Fig. 6a). They cover-an area of about 6660 km² and are exposed in the lower part of the crater, down to -2700 m altitude (Fig. 4). This unit embays knobs of the fretted terrain and is thus stratigraphically above and younger than the fretted terrain. Traces of akaganeite have been detected in local depressions jointly with clays and possible carbonates (*Carter et al., 2015*). The diverse mineralogy within the crater is better described in section 6.

191 [Figure 6]

192 4.1.6 Valleys, fan-shaped deposits and sinuous ridges

193 Valleys have been deeply incised into the southwestern and western walls of Robert Sharp (Figs. 194 6b-c). Most of them are several tens of kilometers long, rectilinear to slightly sinuous in 195 planview, and with poor tributary development. Only the southernmost valley (Fig. 6c) has multiple tributaries and is several hundred kilometers long, with a valley head within the 196 197 highlands north of Herschel crater (*Irwin and Howard*, 2002). Additionally, this valley appears to be interconnected by several shallow basins along its network, identified as 'intravalley 198 199 basins' in Irwin and Howard (2002). Valleys breaching Robert Sharp walls are approximately 1-200 2 km wide, and the depth is around 250 m in the western valleys and around 1 km in the southernmost valley. They have little to no tributary development along their entrenched lower 201 202 reaches inside the crater rim.

203 Well-preserved fan-shaped deposits are located at the terminus of some valleys, at the northwest (132°43'E, 3°37'S) and southwest (132°53'E, 5°7'S) of the crater (Figs. 7a–b). The northwestern 204 fan-shaped deposit (84 km²) and the southwestern one (142 km²) superpose the crater floor 205 deposits. The two deposits present flat-topped surfaces with some evidence of channelization. 206 207 Their distal margin is clearly outlined by frontal scarps at about -2400 m in elevation (Figs. 7cd). Given the lack of remnant buttes close to the fan-shaped deposits, the present frontal scarps 208 209 may be close to the primary depositional front with limited backward erosion. The longitudinal 210 profiles of the fan-shaped deposits show gently sloping tops with an average plain gradient of 211 about 1–2 degrees (3% slope) over a length of approximately 10 km, followed by steeply dipping fronts that abruptly merge into the adjacent plains. The frontal scarps have been estimated to dip 212 213 6-11 degrees (10-20% slope) on the basis of HRSC DEM data. Both deposits reach thicknesses between 100 and 300 m. This thickness is certainly not uniform over the entire fan-shaped 214 215 deposits surface and decreases towards the apex, as the fan-shaped deposits are superposed on sloping crater walls. Their surfaces are partially covered by dark materials probably derived from 216 217 the dune fields present on the southern section of the crater floor deposits. Phyllosilicates have been detected located within scarps in the fan-shaped deposits (*Ehlmann and Buz*, 2015). Their 218 219 spectral signature is identical or near identical to those found in the southern plateau alongside the chloride deposits (Osterloo et al., 2008, 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012). More details about the 220 phyllosilicates and chlorides deposits are provided in a later section (section 6). 221

222 [Figure 7]

Several sinuous ridges are observed on the crater floor deposits (Fig. 6d). They are poorly ramified and are oriented parallel to the direction of the steepest slope. The length of these ridges does not exceed 10 km long. Their width is usually of several tens of meters and varies along the ridges. The spatial resolution of MOLA and HRSC DEM topographic data do not permit to measure the height of these ridges. Measurements of the length of ridge shadows provide an approximate height of several meters.

229 4.2 Age of selected geologic units in Robert Sharp crater

230 Crater counts were performed on the fan-shaped deposits, the crater floor deposits as well as the 231 chloride-rich deposits located on the plateau south of Robert Sharp. No crater counts have been 232 done on the fretted terrain, which appears to be covered with a dusty mantle (Fig. 2c) preventing any reliable crater counts. The estimated ages of the southwestern and northwestern fan-shaped 233 deposits are about 1.43 ± 0.58 Ga and 512 ± 83 Ma, respectively (Figs. 8a–b). Crater counting in 234 the southwestern fan-shaped deposit points to a resurfacing event at ~120 Ma. This suggests a 235 236 recent episode of sediment deposition and erosion with at least one episode of fluvial reworking, or aeolian degradation. These results are consistent with those obtained by Ehlmann and Buz 237 238 (2015), and correspond to early – middle Amazonian ages.

The two fan-shaped deposits are stratigraphically above the crater floor deposits that have an estimated age of ~3 Ga, which corresponds to the late Hesperian – early Amazonian boundary (Fig. 8c). *Ehlmann and Buz (2015)* estimated an older age of ~3.6 Ga for the floor of Robert Sharp considering the floor of the whole crater (including the fretted terrain and draping deposits) without distinguishing the different infilling units in the crater.

We also performed the crater counts on a local depression exhibiting chloride-rich deposits 244 initially detected in Osterloo et al. (2008, 2010) and Ruesch et al. (2012). Those deposits are 245 located on the neighboring plateaus at the southwest of the valley entrance to Robert Sharp and 246 west of Knobel (131.94°E, 6.4°S, bottom-left corner in Fig. 3). Fig. 8d reveals that this 247 depression has an Amazonian age, about 1.12 ± 0.33 Ga, similar within uncertainties to that of 248 the southwestern fan-shaped deposit. *Ehlmann and Buz (2015)* also estimated a similar age of 1.1 249 \pm 0.3 Ga. These results suggest a synchronous formation of these chloride-rich deposits and the 250 251 southwestern fan-shaped deposit.

252 [Figure 8]

253 The two fan-shaped deposits and the chloride-basin are very small areas (84-142 km² and 36 km², respectively) that may not yield reliable, representative ages because they may not include 254 any less numerous, typically more widely-spaced larger craters that would be captured in 255 statistics covering a larger area (e.g., von der Bogert et al., 2015; Warner et al., 2015; Palucis et 256 al., 2020). As a result, the statistics obtained may reflect an artificially young age for these 257 258 surface units. Although the crater counts are subject to associated statistical limitations, we observe that the relative age of these small areas is consistent with stratigraphic relationships, 259 when existing. By putting together their superposition relationships and crater counts, the fan-260 shaped deposits and chloride-basin are younger than underlying units, further constraining their 261 262 formation to Hesperian or after (see also Ehlmann and Buz, 2015).

5 Interpretation of the geological units

264 5.1 Fretted terrain

The fretted terrain present in Robert Sharp is similar in shape and size to that commonly found 265 266 elsewhere along the crustal dichotomy, between the southern highlands and the northern lowlands. It consists of plateaus, mesas, knobs and mounds in a highly irregular configuration 267 268 separated by wide, flat-floored channels, valleys and troughs (Sharp, 1973; Carr, 1995). These landforms are commonly interpreted to result from the erosion of a thick pile of material with 269 270 weak properties that could have accumulated from sedimentary or volcano-sedimentary processes (Tanaka, 1986; Maxwell and McGill, 1988; Fassett and Head, 2007). To date, the 271 272 origin and development of the fretted terrain on Mars remains poorly understood. No mineralogical analysis has been performed yet on mesas and knobs within Robert Sharp, 273 probably due to the lack of CRISM data at high resolution and the abundance of dust in the 274 region (Fig. 2d). Due to the location of Robert Sharp, the mesas and knobs found there could be 275 part of a vast fretted terrain in Aeolis Mensae (10°N-10°S, 120°-150°E). Interestingly, 276 morphologic and thermal observations by Irwin et al. (2004) suggest that the fretted terrain in 277 Aeolis Mensae is composed of friable sedimentary materials. These materials differ 278 compositionally from the older highland materials but may resemble the sediments from the 279 younger Medusae Fossae terrains. Medusae Fossae layered materials are thought to be made of 280

friable and variably consolidated deposits, such as dust, volcanic ash (*Scott and Tanaka, 1982; Bradley et al., 2002; Mandt et al., 2008; Kerber et al., 2011*), or even ice-rich polar deposits (*Schultz and Lutz, 1988; Head and Kreslavsky, 2004*). All these proposed origins imply atmospheric transport and airfall deposition of sedimentary materials that could be responsible for deposits forming the fretted terrain.

Many different hypotheses were proposed to explain the apparent break up and removal of such 286 287 material: (1) fluvial and aeolian erosion (Breed et al., 1982; Carr, 1995; McGill, 2000; Irwin et al., 2004), (2) subsurface removal by groundwater flow (Carr, 1995; Carr, 1996), and (3) 288 faulting and tectonism (Sharp, 1973; Irwin and Watters, 2010). Breed et al. (1982) posit that 289 290 fretted terrains may result of an important aeolian deflation and mass wasting overprint on a 291 landscape initially carved by running water. More recent analyses (e.g., *Denton and Head, 2018*) tend to favor fluvial and groundwater activity as possible fretting processes. Nonetheless, further 292 293 examinations at larger scale are required to assess the relative proportions of surficial and subsurface hydrous activity (overland flow, groundwater flow, and ice melting) as mechanisms 294 295 for removal of material from the fretted terrains. Nowadays, little to no evidence of former fluvial activity coeval to the fretted terrain degradation remains in Robert Sharp floor. Therefore, 296 297 most flow paths or other evidence must have been completely masked by later significant, nonfluvial degradation. 298

299 It has been suggested that the materials forming the fretted terrain were deposited during the early Hesperian epoch, at around 3.7–3.6 Ga (Irwin et al., 2004; Irwin and Watters, 2010), hence 300 301 shortly after the impact that formed Robert Sharp basin. Fassett and Head (2007) estimated the 302 formation and erosion time of the fretted terrain to range between 100 and 300 Ma, involving an 303 erosion relatively shortly after their formation during Hesperian. Moreover, the lack of an observable central peak in Robert Sharp (unlike its neighbors: Gale and Knobel craters) could be 304 related to its older age, implying more erosion of its peak and rims, followed with more 305 deposition of the materials that were degraded into fretted terrains. 306

307 5.2 Draping deposits

The draping deposits (Dp1 and Dp2 units) are mostly found in the eastern half of Robert Sharp and on the eastern surrounding plateaus towards Gale. No volcanic candidate landforms such as 310 lavas flows with lobes or vents are observed, suggesting that the draping deposits did not form as 311 volcanic flows. Considering their location both in a depression and on plateaus, a lacustrine 312 origin seems dubious. The high elevation of the eastern plateau-would imply an extremely deep lake (~2 km deep). We found no confining topography on the eastern plateau that would enable 313 ponding to form a lake between Robert Sharp and Gale craters. Likewise, no fluvial channel, 314 sinuous ridge, or apparent cross-bedding have been observed within the draping deposits, 315 316 implying that a fluvial origin is also unlikely. The draping deposits mantle and are conformable to the basement. We therefore favor that these deposits may correspond to airfall and/or aeolian 317 material consisting of fine-grained erodible sediment, such as dust, volcanic ash, and aeolian 318 319 sand (like the fretted terrain).

320 Deposits having similar erosional aspect with relatively weak material are observed in the Medusae Formation (MFF) and may have the same origin as our draping deposits. *Ojha* 321 322 and Lewis (2018) recently suggested that such deposits could be consistent with extremely porous (low-density) material like volcanic ash deposits. The presence of such airfall material 323 324 has been predicted in Gale crater from orbital analyses, and are expected to be a major component of the 5 km-high Gale central mound, Aeolis Mons (e.g., Le Deit et al., 2013). Thus, 325 326 Robert Sharp draping deposits may share common origin with some deposits of Aeolis Mons. 327 Most sedimentary rocks in Gale are thought to have been deposited, buried, lithified, exhumed, 328 and eroded before 3.3-3.1 Ga (Grotzinger et al., 2015). Considering that the crater floor deposits that presumably postdate the draping deposits are inferred to be ~3 Ga in age (Fig. 8c), the 329 330 draping deposits in Robert Sharp may be older than 3 Ga and therefore deposited coevally with some deposits of Aeolis Mons in Gale crater. 331

332 5.3 Valleys, sinuous ridges, fan-shaped deposits, and crater floor deposits

Valleys incised along Robert Sharp's western walls are short and rectilinear, and have only few
tributaries and display theater-like valley heads. These characteristics are often considered to be
associated with valleys formed by groundwater seepage rather than surface runoff (e.g., *Sharp and Malin, 1975; Harrison and Grimm, 2005; Pelletier and Baker, 2011; Baker et al., 2015*).
Such valleys often terminate in small and pristine scarp-fronted deposits, which exhibit little or
no fan-head trenching or incision of the outer bounding scarp (e.g., *Irwin et al., 2005; Hauber et al., 2013*). *Lapotre and Lamb (2018)* argue that seepage erosion can only occur in loose or

340 weakly consolidated rock and not in competent rock like the Noachian basaltic bedrock. According to experimental observations (Howard and McLane, 1988; Marra et al., 2014), valley 341 342 formation by seepage is limited to narrow ranges in aquifer permeabilities and sediment sizes 343 that are characteristic of loose sediment. Nonetheless, a combination of groundwater and surface flows can explain the valley erosion in the basaltic basement (e.g., Lamb et al., 2006; Pelletier 344 and Baker, 2011; Amidon and Clark, 2015). As for the southernmost valley, it is longer and 345 more sinuous. This appears to be a typical example of a well-developed valley network incised 346 by runoff on Mars (Carr, 1996; Irwin and Howard, 2002). Its lower reaches could have been 347 reactivated coevally with the western valleys. The crosscutting of the western valleys into fretted 348 349 terrain suggests a brief reactivation of highland fluvial activity after the fretted terrain formed 350 (Irwin et al., 2004). This reactivation likely consisted of multiple flow episodes of similar 351 magnitudes, as inferred from the lack of trenching or incision of the front scarps of the two deltas. The relationship with the fretted terrains indicates that the incision occurred during or 352 after the early Hesperian epoch. 353

The sinuous ridges found within Robert Sharp crater (Fig. 6d) are interpreted as inverted channels, formed after inversion of the relief by differential erosion. Due to the lack of clear evidence for glacial activity in the crater it seems unlikely that these sinuous ridges are subglacial eskers. They are morphologically similar to those seen in Gale and they present a consistent downslope orientation which corroborates the idea that those features represent an older aqueous drainage pattern (e.g., *Anderson and Bell, 2010; Le Deit et al., 2013; Palucis et al., 2014*).

361 The two fan-shaped deposits have a morphology and topography characteristic of single scarped, 362 smooth, prograding deltas; with flat-topped surfaces and distal margins clearly marked by steep frontal scarps (e.g., Irwin et al., 2005; deVilliers et al., 2013). Deltas display a steep peripheral 363 364 scarp at their outer margin, a genetic distinction that contrasts with the slightly concave longitudinal profile of alluvial fans (Moore and Howard, 2005). Such deltas usually result from a 365 366 river encountering a stagnant body of water (e.g., a lake), and would imply a lacustrine episode within Robert Sharp crater. The scarp crests on the two deltas occur at the same elevation (-2400)367 368 m), consistent with ponding in the western half of the Robert Sharp basin (Fig. 7). On the basis 369 of our longitudinal profiles (Fig. 7), the front scarps are estimated to dip 6–11 degrees, consistent 370 with Gilbert-type deltas (Gilbert, 1980; Nemec, 1990). We suggest that Robert Sharp deltas may 371 resemble terrestrial shallow fan deltas (Galloway, 1976; Wescott and Ethride, 1990). On Earth 372 such deltas encroach onto low-gradient shelves with very shallow water depths near river mouths. The gently dipping part may have been the subaerial portion of the delta, while the more 373 374 inclined part corresponds to the submerged delta front. Similar deltas are found on Mars, e.g., Pancake delta within Gale crater (Palucis et al., 2016), with an arcuate shape, a fairly well 375 376 preserved delta front, and surface area of ~100 km². Considering that the floor of Robert Sharp crater lies at an elevation as low as around -2700 m, we can estimate a lake depth of about 100– 377 300 m (in agreement with the ~200 m deep paleolake predicted by Rivera-Hernández and 378 Palucis, 2019). Our crater counting predicts that both deltas have Amazonian ages, while the 379 adjacent crater floor deposits have an older age close to the late Hesperian to early Amazonian 380 381 transition (Fig. 8). The crater floor deposits are located topographically below the two deltas in Robert Sharp, and possibly stratigraphically lower (Fig. 9a). It is possible that they were 382 deposited before the deltas, and more precisely, before the last lacustrine episode associated to 383 384 the delta formation. They may correspond to draping deposits that have been buried by lacustrine 385 deposits that formed at the outlet of the deltas and were later exhumed. If the draping deposits were not completely exhumed, some of the crater floor may still be lacustrine deposits (Fig. 9b). 386

Interestingly, Robert Sharp's sinuous ridges are seen on the crater floor deposits, indicating a possible channelization coeval to (or prior) the lacustrine episode within the crater. Then, the channels could have been buried by lacustrine deposits. Finally, their exhumation and subsequent segmentation by aeolian abrasion started after the lake disappearance, and still continues nowadays.

392 5.4 Polygonal ridges

Polygonal ridges within Robert Sharp have morphologies indicating an origin by mineralization
of fractures. Such ridges are interpreted as fractures filled and cemented by minerals that were
precipitated from near-surface groundwater (e.g., *Thomson et al., 2011; Kerber et al., 2017*). *Kerber et al. (2017)* classified Robert Sharp ridges as 'Nili-type' ridges. They consist of mostly
light-toned ridges of varying thickness intersecting at a wide variety of angles, like most
polygonal ridges described in the Nili Fossae and Nilosyrtis regions (*Ebinger and Mustard, 2015; Kerber et al., 2017; Pascuzzo et al., 2019*). Similar features are seen within Gale and,

400 more precisely, were found at the basis of Aeolis Mons (Anderson and Bell, 2010; Thomson et 401 al., 2011; Siebach and Grotzinger, 2014; Kronyak et al., 2019), and in the eastern part of Gale 402 (Le Deit et al., 2013). Polygonal ridges in Robert Sharp show similarities with polygonal ridges in Gale in terms of morphology, but not in size. Gale's polygonal ridges are smaller than those in 403 404 Robert Sharp and are tens of meters long (e.g., Le Deit et al., 2013). In Gale, they have been attributed to the preferential cementation of material due to the circulation of fluids through 405 406 fracture systems (Thomson et al., 2011; Kerber et al., 2017). The morphological similarities between Gale's polygonal ridges and those identified in Robert Sharp (Nili-type ridges) suggest 407 that Gale's polygonal ridges are simply smaller versions of Nili-types. These polygonal ridges 408 are indicative of fluid circulation within the fretted terrain and the draping materials that may be 409 coeval to the late lacustrine phase in Robert Sharp crater. 410

411 **6 Robert Sharp's mineralogy**

Several mineral types have been detected in Robert Sharp crater and surroundings (Fig. 10). 412 413 Ehlmann and Buz (2015) detected Fe/Mg smectites in the southwest fan delta, the most common hydrated minerals found on Mars (*Carter et al., 2013*). Their infrared signature displays spectral 414 absorption bands at 1.4, 1.9 and 2.3 µm, which is consistent with a composition intermediate 415 between end-member smectites nontronite (Fe-rich) and saponite (Mg-rich) (Viviano-Beck et al., 416 2014; 2015). They appear in light-toned layered deposits along the delta front and at its foot 417 (Ehlmann and Buz, 2015, Figs. 10d-e). Fe/Mg clay minerals may be authigenic and have formed 418 either during the transport of sediment or within the lake itself. Alternatively, they may be 419 420 detrital and have formed upstream by near-surface weathering and were subsequently transported and deposited in the fan. This latter hypothesis is supported by the occurrence of clays exposed 421 422 along the channel incising the southern wall of the crater and on the perched plateau associated with chlorides (Osterloo et al., 2008, 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012). In addition to Fe/Mg smectites, 423 424 *Ehlmann and Buz (2015)* found Al smectites (montmorillonite, kaolinite), or possibly hydrated silica locally in the southwest delta, with typical spectral absorption bands at 1.4, 1.9 and 2.2 μ m. 425 426 Hydrated silica is commonly observed on fan deltas on Mars, and may have formed in-situ 427 through chemical alteration during surface water flow and ponding (e.g., *Carter et al., 2012;* 428 Hauber et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2019; Pineau et al., 2020). Al smectites may have formed in deltaic environments by weathering. This formation process has also been proposed for a delta
located at the dichotomy boundary in Lybia Montes (*Erkeling et al.*, 2012; 2015).

Other hydrated minerals within Robert Sharp such as akaganeite and Fe carbonates (siderite) were reported by *Carter et al.* (2015). Akaganeite (β –FeOOH, Cl) is an iron chlorine hydroxide that is associated on Earth to acidic and oxidizing conditions in a drying lake or lagoon (*Bibi et al.*, 2011). Akaganeite occurs systematically in small depressions in Robert Sharp (Figs. 10f–g), which correspond to possible late stage ponding locations. Similar deposits are found in localized topographic lows in Jezero crater and northeast Syrtis (*Dundar et al., under review*).

437 Thanks to the analysis of the CRISM multispectral data, we found mixtures of Fe/Mg smectites, 438 Al smectites (or hydrated silica), and sulfates in close proximity to the polygonal ridges lying on the draping deposits (Fig. 10h). This is likely related to mineral cementation associated with 439 diagenesis in sediments, like in Gale (Siebach and Grotzinger, 2014). Additionally, the geometry 440 and characteristics of the polygonal ridges as well as the presence of sulfates support the idea 441 442 that the ridges are formed by chemical alteration or precipitation of minerals in or along preexisting fractures. Sulfate salts can precipitate during alteration by circulating groundwater 443 (Andrews-Hanna and Lewis, 2011), as suggested in Gale crater (Grotzinger et al., 2014; 2015; 444 Siebach and Grotzinger, 2014). Other examples of filled fractured networks present in sulfate-445 bearing deposits were reported in Candor Chasma (Okubo and McEwen, 2007) and northeast 446 Syrtis Major (Ehlmann and Mustard, 2012). However, our newly detected mixtures of smectites 447 and sulfates within Robert Sharp are found in an area of the crater covered by dust (Fig. 2d) and 448 449 that is only observed through CRISM data at low spatial resolution (~200 m per pixel) and low spectral resolution (~50 nm per channel) (Murchie et al., 2007; Pelkey et al., 2007). Thus, these 450 451 detections are less robust than the previous ones obtained with CRISM data at scales of ~18 m per pixel and spectral resolutions of 6.55 nm per channel. 452

453 [Figure 10]

454 **7 Robert Sharp's geological history**

After its formation between the middle Noachian and early Hesperian epoch (Fig. 11a), Robert Sharp has experienced an infilling stage with sedimentary and/or volcano-sedimentary material during the early Hesperian (Fig. 11b). Subsequently, this material underwent a significant 458 degradation, leading to the fretted terrain formation during the early Hesperian epoch. The crater 459 floor is therefore predominantly dotted with mesas and knobs (Fig. 11c). Later, the draping 460 deposits have partially or entirely filled the crater as well as the surrounding plateaus to the east of Robert Sharp through airfall/aeolian deposition of fine-grained sediment like dust and/or 461 volcanic ash (Fig. 11d). These deposits are not found in the western floor of the crater and it is 462 difficult to determine whether they once filled the western side of the crater or not. Fluvial 463 464 activity leads to the incision of the western and southwestern walls of Robert Sharp and carried sedimentary material within the crater. Then, the fan-shaped deposits and the crater floor 465 deposits record lacustrine episodes filling the lower parts of the crater between the Hesperian and 466 early Amazonian epoch (Fig. 11e). The fretted terrain and draping deposits might have been 467 exposed over a broader area in the crater during the Hesperian epoch, and then removed by late 468 469 fluvial and aeolian degradation in the western part of the crater. The deltas and chloride-rich deposits show model ages of ~ 1 Ga to hundreds of Ma (Fig. 8), but due to the small counting 470 areas and the possibility of removal of the oldest craters, our ages may be underestimated (e.g., 471 von der Bogert et al., 2015; Warner et al., 2015; Palucis et al., 2020). However, stratigraphic 472 473 relationships were taken into account when existing, and they show that the deltas and chloridebasin are younger than the underlying materials, hence implying a formation during the 474 475 Hesperian or after. Afterwards, this activity becomes progressively more spatially localized and episodic in the Hesperian – Amazonian period, with deposition of the chloride-rich material in 476 477 local depressions and remobilization of Fe/Mg phyllosilicates in deltas. Finally, after the disappearing of the lake, the crater floor exhibits a plethora of mineral phases suggesting diverse 478 479 environmental conditions (Fig. 11f), from neutral, reducing to mildly acidic, highly saline and oxidizing conditions. 480

481 [Figure 11]

482 8 Implications of aqueous activity for the Robert Sharp and Gale craters region

Like Robert Sharp, Gale exhibits several morphologic features suggestive of fluvial, deltaic and lacustrine processes in its interior, notably the presence of well-defined valleys incising the crater from the west and south, and fan-shaped deposits resembling deltas at their termini (e.g., *Anderson and Bell, 2010; Le Deit et al., 2013; Palucis et al., 2014; 2016*). Deltas in the western half of Gale suggest a series of lake stands postdating the formation of the layered mound – 488 Aeolis Mons – in the Hesperian epoch (Le Deit et al., 2013; Grant et al., 2014; Palucis et al., 489 2016). They show evidence of late resurfacing during the Hesperian and possibly Amazonian 490 epochs (Grant et al., 2014; 2019; Palucis et al., 2014), and therefore yield ages broadly comparable to those obtained for the two deltas in Robert Sharp (Fig. 8, also in Ehlmann and 491 *Buz*, 2015). This could indicate a contemporaneous aqueous phase in both Robert Sharp and Gale 492 craters. Moreover, recent K-Ar dating of a mudstone and a sandstone in Gale performed by the 493 494 Curiosity rover yield an Amazonian (<3.0 Ga) bulk age (*Martin et al., 2017*). Large-scale fluvial activity on Mars is thought to have ceased by the early Hesperian (Irwin et al., 2005; Fassett and 495 Head, 2008), though fluvio-deltaic activity possibly continued during the early – middle 496 497 Amazonian period near the two craters (Hauber et al., 2013). By contrast, the Murray formation at the base of Aeolis Mons in Gale corresponds to lacustrine sandstones and mudstones that were 498 499 emplaced before the formation and degradation of Aeolis Mons in its current morphology (Stein et al., 2018; Stack et al., 2019). Hence, Gale underwent another, older lacustrine phase prior to 500 3.3–3.1 Ga in the Hesperian epoch (Grant et al., 2014; Grotzinger et al., 2015). The crater floor 501 deposits currently exposed in Robert Sharp crater may record a similar lacustrine phase. 502 503 However, orbital data alone do not allow to decipher the sedimentary facies and lithology of the rocks forming the crater floor deposits. 504

Orbital detection of akaganeite mixed with Fe carbonates within Robert Sharp suggests acidic, 505 506 chlorinated and oxidizing conditions during a lacustrine phase (Carter et al., 2015). Interestingly, akaganeite was detected as a minor phase in mudstone samples drilled by Curiosity rover within 507 Gale (in Yellowknife Bay, Ming et al., 2014; Vaniman et al., 2014). However, the presence of 508 Ca sulfates and magnetite and the lack of Fe sulfates within those samples indicate a quasi-509 510 neutral and poorly saline environment during this aquatic phase of Gale (Grotzinger et al., 2014; 2015). The existence of these two contrasting environmental conditions has been later supported 511 512 by recent experimental works (*Peretyazhko et al.*, 2018). Robert Sharp and Gale craters may have undergone different geochemical environments through time. 513

514 9 Conclusion

515 Our findings reveal that Robert Sharp was shaped by a variety of geological processes of 516 different nature, such as fretted terrain formation, airfall deposition, fluvial, deltaic and lacustrine 517 phase(s), and chemical precipitation. After the impact that formed the crater near the middle 518 Noachian and early Hesperian epoch (Tanaka, 1986), Robert Sharp experienced the deposition and erosion of the fretted terrain, followed by the airfall deposition draping previous formations 519 520 during the Hesperian epoch (Irwin et al., 2004; Irwin and Watters, 2010). The presence of fluvial valleys and fan deltas as well as hydrous minerals within the crater and on its watershed, 521 suggests a history of past fluviolacustrine activity throughout the region. The detection of 522 akaganeite, a mineral with very specific formation conditions (Carter et al., 2015; Peretyazhko 523 524 et al., 2018), indicates that Robert Sharp has experienced a mildly acidic, highly saline and oxidizing environment during the last alteration phase of a drying lake. The fluviolacustrine 525 phase is likely related to the aqueous activity that formed the chloride-rich deposits on the 526 neighboring plateaus (Osterloo et al., 2008, 2010, Ruesch et al., 2012), as well as the deltas. The 527 last episodes of aqueous activity may be as recent as the early - middle Amazonian period, 528 529 between 1.43 Ga and 512 Ma. As demonstrated with Robert Sharp, the region is shown to have experienced several episodes of aqueous activity well after the late Noachian – early Hesperian 530 boundary, probably extending to the middle Amazonian epoch. 531

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Figures & Captions [2-column for all figures, and color should be used online only]

Fig. 1: Robert Sharp crater as seen through a mosaic of CTX images. Frames indicate the
locations of the following figures; for the fretted terrains (yellow), draping deposits (brown),
crater floor deposits (dark green), fluvial landforms (blue) and fan-shaped deposits (light green).

Fig. 2: Location and physiography of Robert Sharp. (a) MOLA DEM showing regional context 803 804 of Robert Sharp and its two neighbors (Gale and Knobel craters) along the crustal dichotomy (isohypses every 200 m) (Smith et al., 2001). (b) MOLA DEM centered on Robert Sharp 805 (isohypses every 200 m). (c) Qualitative thermal inertia (J.m⁻².K⁻¹.s^{-1/2}, *Fergason et al.*, 2006) 806 derived from THEMIS IR night-time (100 m.px⁻¹). (d) TES dust cover index (DCI) based on the 807 emissivity value in the 1350–1400 cm⁻¹ range (maximum dust at 0.9 and minimum dust at 1.0). 808 809 The DCI is sensitive to the presence of silicate dust on the surface: orange and red colors indicate 810 areas that likely are dust covered while blue areas likely are dust-free (Ruff and Christensen, 2002). The maps (a), (b) and (d) overlap a map from THEMIS IR day-time (100 m.px⁻¹). 811

812 Fig. 3: Morphologic map of Robert Sharp units defined as described in text, based on their 813 location and physical properties such as surface texture, morphology, geometry and thermal inertia. Mesas and buttes from the fretted terrain (Ft unit, yellow), draping deposits that cover the 814 eastern part of the basin and surrounding plateau (Dp1-2 units, light and dark brown), crater 815 floor deposits that lie flat on the western and southwestern parts of the basin (Cf unit, green), two 816 817 fan-shaped deposits (Fsd unit, light blue) at the outlets of valley networks (cyan), and finally the 818 sinuous ridges exposed on the crater floor (dark blue). The criteria used to distinguish the rough from smooth draping deposits (Dp1 and Dp2 units, respectively) are based on the texture aspect 819 and brightness of the units in the CTX images (10-meter scale roughness). Locations of 820 geological cross-sections in Fig. 4 are indicated. 821

Fig. 4: Geological cross-sections derived from MOLA DEM data: (a) west to east, (b) northwest to southeast and (c) southwest to northeast sections. The units are color-coded such as in the geological map of Robert Sharp (Fig. 3).

Fig. 5: (a) – (c) Mesas and knobs corresponding to the fretted terrains described in *Irwin et al. (2004)* and *Irwin and Watters (2010)*. (d) CTX image showing the draping units. (e) Close-up
view of the contact between the Dp1 unit with a rough surface texture and the Dp2 unit with a

smoother appearance (HiRISE image, PSP_009360_1760_RED). (f) CTX image showing the
draping deposits embaying and molding knobs and mesas. (g) Distribution of polygonal ridges
(purple areas) found in Robert Sharp through a portion of CTX images. (h) Close-up view of a
network of polygonal ridges (HiRISE image, ESP_042247_1760_RED).

Fig. 6: (a) Crater floor deposits. The isohypses – every 100 meters – reveal topographic basin in
the mid-western floor of the crater. (b) – (c) Valleys found in the northwestern and southwestern
walls of the crater, respectively. (d) Sinuous ridges embedded in the crater-floor deposits within
Robert Sharp.

Fig. 7: (a) Northwestern $(132.73^{\circ}W, 3.6^{\circ}S)$ and (b) southwestern $(132.9^{\circ}W, 5.1^{\circ}S)$ fan-shaped deposits observed through CTX images. Topographic profile of (c) the northwestern and (d) the southwestern fan-shaped deposits (in light green) derived from the HRSC DEM with a vertical exaggeration of 5.6. The mean elevation at frontal scarp is about –2400 m for both deposits. Note that the morphology of both fan-shaped deposits appears broadly similar to the Pancake delta in Gale crater (*Palucis et al., 2016*).

Fig. 8: Age determination of surface units within and near Robert Sharp by crater-counting. (left) craters counted (in white) and the counting areas (in blue or green) on a mosaic of CTX images, except for (c) in a map THEMIS day-time. (right) crater size-frequency distribution that provide an inferred model age of the (a) southwestern and (b) northwestern fan-shaped deposits, (c) the crater floor deposits, and (d) the valley floor hosting the chloride-rich deposits (131°56'E, 6°25'S).

Fig. 9: (a) Simplified stratigraphic column for the main units within Robert Sharp. (b) Possible
evolution of the crater floor based on the degradation of the lacustrine deposits (exhumation of
the draping deposits).

Fig. 10: (a) Mars Orbiter Camera (MOC, 230 m.px⁻¹) map of Robert Sharp with spectral detections (color-coded) performed therein using the multispectral CRISM data. (b) MOC map of the southern perched plateau with detections in an enclosed basin: Fe/Mg smectites near chlorides (*Ruesch et al., 2012*). Chloride-rich deposits are indicated by the pink star, see also Fig. 3 (*Osterloo et al., 2008; 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012*). (c) to (h) show closer views of the spectral detections within the crater through CTX and HiRISE mages. (c) Fe/Mg smectites and Al

smectites (or hydrated silica) in delta fan (*Ehlmann and Buz, 2015*). They are observed as lighttoned layered deposits along the delta front and at its foot, white arrows in (d) and (e). (f) and (g) show two sites of akaganeite with carbonates and Fe/Mg smectites located in small local depressions (*Carter et al., 2015*). (h) shows a mixture of hydrated minerals on the draping deposits and near polygonal ridges, with examples of spectra of hydrated minerals (mixtures) detected on the draping deposits.

- **Fig. 11:** Cartoon model illustrating the timing of geological events from the formation of Robert
- 864 Sharp to the present. (*) Age inferred by *Irwin et al. (2004)* and *Irwin and Watters (2010)*.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3





Figure 5



Figure 6



Figure 7



Figure 8 (1)







Figure 9



Figure 10 (1)



Figure 10 (2)



Figure 10 (3)



Figure 11