

9 PAPER 4

1 Comparison of geomorphological field- and 2D InSAR mapping of the
2 periglacial landscape at Nordnesfjellet, Northern Norway

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19 **Abstract**

20 The ability to continuously monitor the dynamic response of periglacial landforms in
21 a climate change context is of increasing scientific interest. Satellite radar
22 interferometry provides information on surface displacement that can be related to
23 periglacial processes. Here we present a comparison of 2D surface displacement rates
24 and geomorphological mapping at periglacial landform-scale from the mountain
25 Nordnesfjellet in Northern Norway. 2D InSAR results stem from a 2009-2014
26 TerraSAR-X dataset from ascending and descending orbits, decomposed into
27 horizontal displacement vectors along a W-E plane, vertical displacement vectors and
28 combined displacement velocity. Geomorphological mapping was carried out on
29 aerial imagery and validated in the field. Detailed landform and sediment type
30 mapping revealed an altitudinal distribution with high-elevation, weathered bedrock
31 blockfields, surrounded primarily by slightly, to non-vegetated solifluction landforms.
32 Below, an active rockslide and associated rockfall deposits are located on the steep
33 east-facing side of the study area, whereas glacial tills dominate on the gentler
34 western side. We could show that 2D InSAR correctly depicts displacement rates that
35 can be associated with typical deformation patterns for flat-lying or inclined

36 landforms, within and below the regional permafrost limit, for both wet and dry areas.
37 Using substantial time series of both field and InSAR observations, future monitoring
38 of periglacial landscapes in a changing climate becomes feasible.

39

40 **Keywords:** 2D InSAR, periglacial landforms, permafrost, geomorphological mapping,
41 remote sensing

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44 **1. Introduction**

45 Mountainous landscapes in periglacial environments are highly sensitive to climate
46 change (e.g. Etzelmüller, 2013). Haeberli (2013) identified two slope stability
47 problems in mountains underlain by permafrost: accelerated creep of perennially
48 frozen talus/debris with high ice contents on moderately steep slopes and decreasing
49 stability of steep, frozen rock walls. In both cases, high permafrost temperatures and /
50 or the shift of the altitudinal limit of permafrost occurrence are critical. Periglacial
51 mountain landscapes exhibit a variety of landforms under changing topographical and
52 environmental conditions. Moreover, different periglacial landforms contain various
53 amounts of ground ice. A change in environmental factors and a thawing or potential
54 degradation of particularly ice-rich sediments can lead to substantial landscape
55 change, with impacts on infrastructure from a geohazard perspective, as well as on
56 ecosystems (Brown et al., 2008).

57 The Nordnesfjellet mountain in Northern Norway is located in the sporadic
58 permafrost zone (Gisnås et al., 2016) with an altitudinal permafrost limit of around
59 600 m a.s.l. (Blikra & Christiansen, 2014). It is surrounded by a high-relief fjord
60 landscape where most hillsides are covered by colluvium from rockfall and to some
61 degree snow avalanche activity. The higher plateaus have wide extensive weathered
62 materials, blockfields and glacial till with periglacial activity (Tolgensbakk and
63 Sollid, 1988). Little is known about the detailed landform variability and their level of
64 activity in the periglacial landscape. Geomorphological studies of periglacial
65 landscapes traditionally rely on detailed field mapping and process monitoring of the
66 individual landform activity, including their deformation rates (Harris et al., 2009).
67 Such measurements provide a better process understanding and are usually based on
68 point observational data, which can be extrapolated to landscape-scale, using for
69 example geostatistical modeling (e.g. Hjort and Luoto, 2013; Hjort et al., 2014). To

70 enable the analysis of large, remote areas, remote sensing data are required.
71 Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) is such a new innovative method
72 that can provide landscape-scale surface deformation. Kenyi and Kaufmann (2003)
73 and Strozzi et al. (2004) were among the first to use InSAR for permafrost related
74 ground displacement measurements over large areas. Since then, InSAR was used to
75 measure permafrost related ground displacement at Herschel Island, Canada (Short et
76 al., 2011), the Tibetan Plateau, China (Chen et al., 2013) and Northern Alaska Liu et
77 al. (2010) and Liu et al. (2012). The InSAR datasets were mostly used as stand-alone
78 datasets for the detection and inventory of moving objects, the evolution of
79 permafrost degradation and associated ground surface sinking. However, Shur et al.
80 (2005) used the acquired displacement rates to drive a model of active layer
81 development, showing that thaw settlement was due to melting of the transient layer.
82 In this study, we use satellite-borne 2D InSAR to quantify periglacial landform
83 specific displacement rates. We achieve this by comparing mapped periglacial
84 landforms at the Nordnesfjellet mountain in Northern Norway with a multi-geometry
85 TerraSAR-X dataset from 2009-2014. We discuss possibilities and limitations in
86 using InSAR as a tool for geomorphological mapping and monitoring of periglacial
87 landform dynamics and the state of the mountain geomorphology at Nordnesfjellet.

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90 **2. Study area**

91 The roughly 8-km² large study area is centered over the Jettan rockslide at
92 Nordnesfjellet mountain in Northern Norway (Figure 1a). From the study area's
93 highest point at 900 m a.s.l., the entire west-facing hillside, where the rockslide is
94 located, is included in the analysis. To the east, the study area extends down to an
95 elevation of about 500 m a.s.l. in its northeastern corner (Figure 1a). The delineation
96 of the study area is the result of the coverage of available aerial images, digital terrain
97 models, and long-term SAR datasets. Mean annual air temperature is slightly above
98 freezing at 700 m a.s.l., with annual amounts of precipitation at around 300 mm
99 (MET, 2017). The regional climatic tree line is presently at 250 m a.s.l., characterized
100 largely by birch trees. The bedrock in the area consists of well-foliated gneisses and
101 intercalated marble and schists overlain by Quaternary sediments with Holocene
102 periglacial reworking by diverse slope and weathering processes (Braathen et al.,
103 2004).

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107 **3. Methods**

108 *3.1 Geomorphological mapping*

109 Geomorphological mapping was based on photogrammetric aerial image
110 interpretation and field verification. We used the ‘Stereo Analyst’ toolset of ArcGIS
111 10 on a 3D monitor to do the geomorphological mapping of the study area. Aerial
112 image stereo pairs (0.4 m spatial resolution) and a DEM (10 m spatial resolution)
113 were acquired from the Norwegian Mapping Authority.

114 First, we determined the most prominent periglacial landforms and slope processes
115 and mapped them at a scale of 1:10 000, focusing on landforms and sediments. We
116 then validated the photogrammetric interpretations in the field in June 2013, clarifying
117 uncertainties in the digital interpretation. Nomenclature and landform codes are
118 according to the code list used by the Geological Survey of Norway (NGU).

119

120 *3.2 InSAR data and processing*

121 We produced InSAR data from snow free scenes (roughly June–October) in the
122 period 2009–2014 using TerraSAR-X Stripmap Mode radar satellite data. For each
123 geometry (ascending/descending orbits), approximately 160 combinations of SAR
124 scenes (or interferograms) were selected. To minimize temporal decorrelation and to
125 be able to capture fast moving objects, we used a maximum interval between scenes
126 (or temporal baseline) of 55 days and removed low coherence interferograms from
127 early spring and late autumn because of a snow-covered surface. The mean annual
128 velocity of each pixel for the ascending and descending datasets was computed by
129 weighted averaging (stacking) of all interferograms from the entire period (Price and
130 Sandwell, 1998). By doing so, displacement measurements from the snow-free
131 seasons were used to retrieve mean annual velocities, assuming the same velocity for
132 the snow-free and snow-covered periods of each year.

133 The InSAR ascending and descending datasets were then calibrated relative to a point
134 of known velocity. Here we used a 3 x 3 pixel area covering a GNSS station outside
135 the Jettan rockslide. The calibrated InSAR datasets were compared to the GNSS
136 station data, using the mean difference between both datasets to recalibrate the InSAR
137 dataset once more. After the calibration procedure, the resulting magnitude of

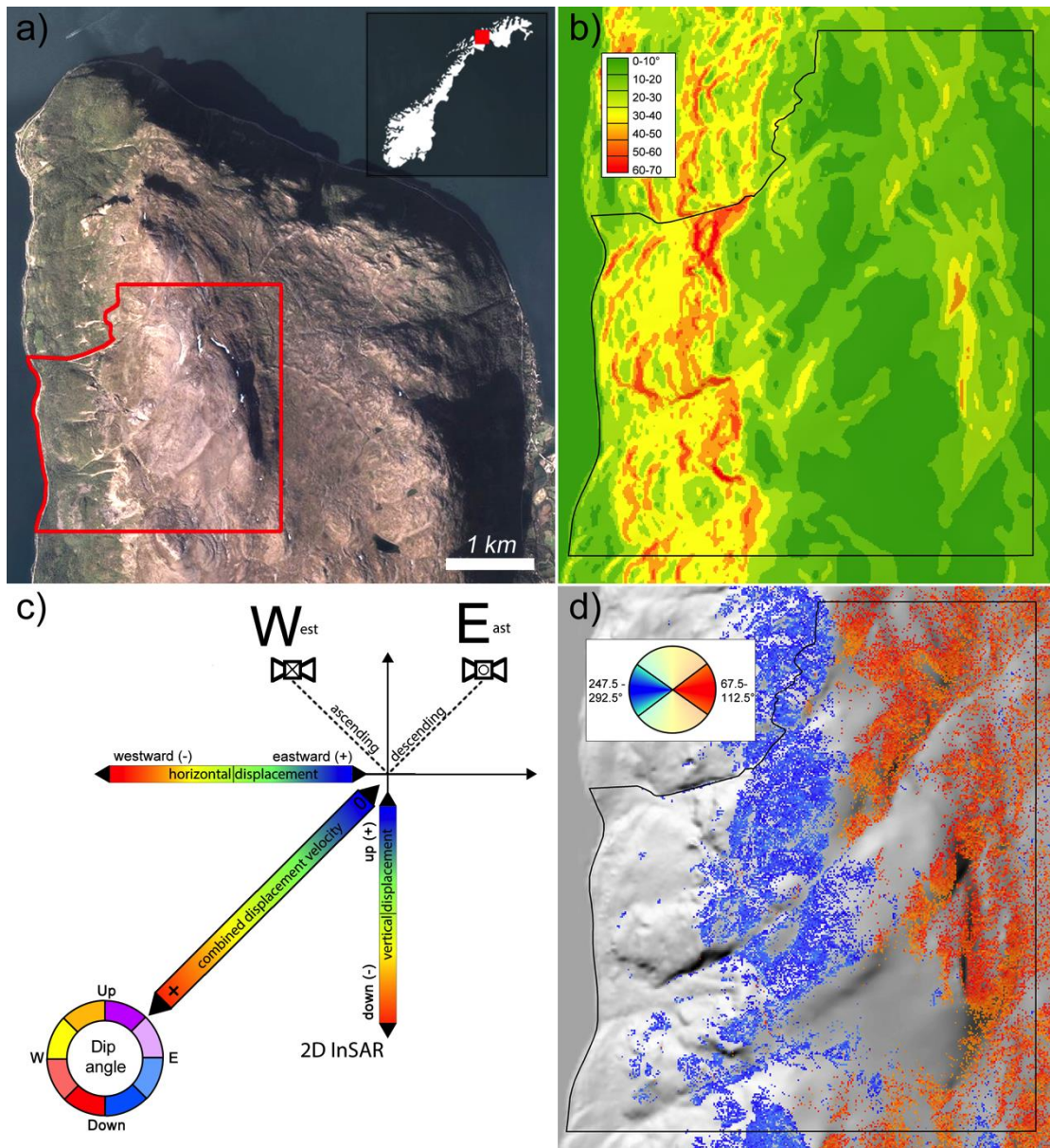
138 displacement was consistent with the data from 6 of the GNSS network's stations
139 covered by InSAR data, thus considered as reliable for interpretation of displacement
140 patterns (Eriksen et al., 2017).

141

142 *3.3 Decomposition into 2D InSAR*

143 The InSAR method is only sensitive to displacement along the radar line-of-sight
144 (LOS). At Nordnesfjellet, the LOS is 78/45 and 283/53 (azimuth/dip), respectively for
145 the ascending and the descending orbit geometries. The radar is not capable of
146 detecting any displacement orthogonal to the LOS-vector. Relating InSAR
147 displacement maps to surface displacements can be difficult, especially when surface
148 displacements are close to the blind plane, defined by the two LOS vectors. The 2D
149 InSAR method combines ascending and descending InSAR datasets into a 2D
150 displacement vector surface, increasing the interpretability (Figure 1c). Thus, vectors
151 in the east-west plane can be calculated and decomposed into horizontal and vertical
152 components (Eriksen et al., 2017). Nevertheless, since the sensor is side looking and
153 orbits are almost north - south, 2D InSAR is not capable of detecting northward or
154 southward deformation. In order to minimize errors due to underestimation in the
155 north-south direction, we used a relatively conservative mask, selecting only pixels
156 within +/- 22.5° aspect in the east and west directions (Figure 1d). As a result, 33.6 %
157 of the study area was covered by 2D InSAR results, masking out northerly and
158 southerly aspects predominantly found on the high-lying plateaus. There is moreover
159 almost no coverage on the lower west-facing slopes where forested areas decorrelate
160 the InSAR signal. The final geocoded InSAR results are mean velocity maps over the
161 period 2009–2014 expressed in mm/yr with 10 m pixel spacing. All processing steps
162 were performed with the Norut GSAR software (Larsen et al., 2005).

163



164
 165 Figure 1: a) Aerial image showing the Nordnesfjellet mountain peninsula in Northern Norway with the study area
 166 marked in red. b) Slope angle map with 10° increments. c) West-east cross-section with 2D InSAR horizontal,
 167 vertical and combined displacement velocity from decomposition of InSAR data from ascending and descending
 168 satellite orbit observed along the instruments line-of-sight (LOS) vectors. Color scales show displacement rates
 169 and aspect of displacement in maps and figures. d) Study area map showing selected areas in aspects $67.5\text{--}112.5^\circ$
 170 and $247.5\text{--}292.5^\circ$.

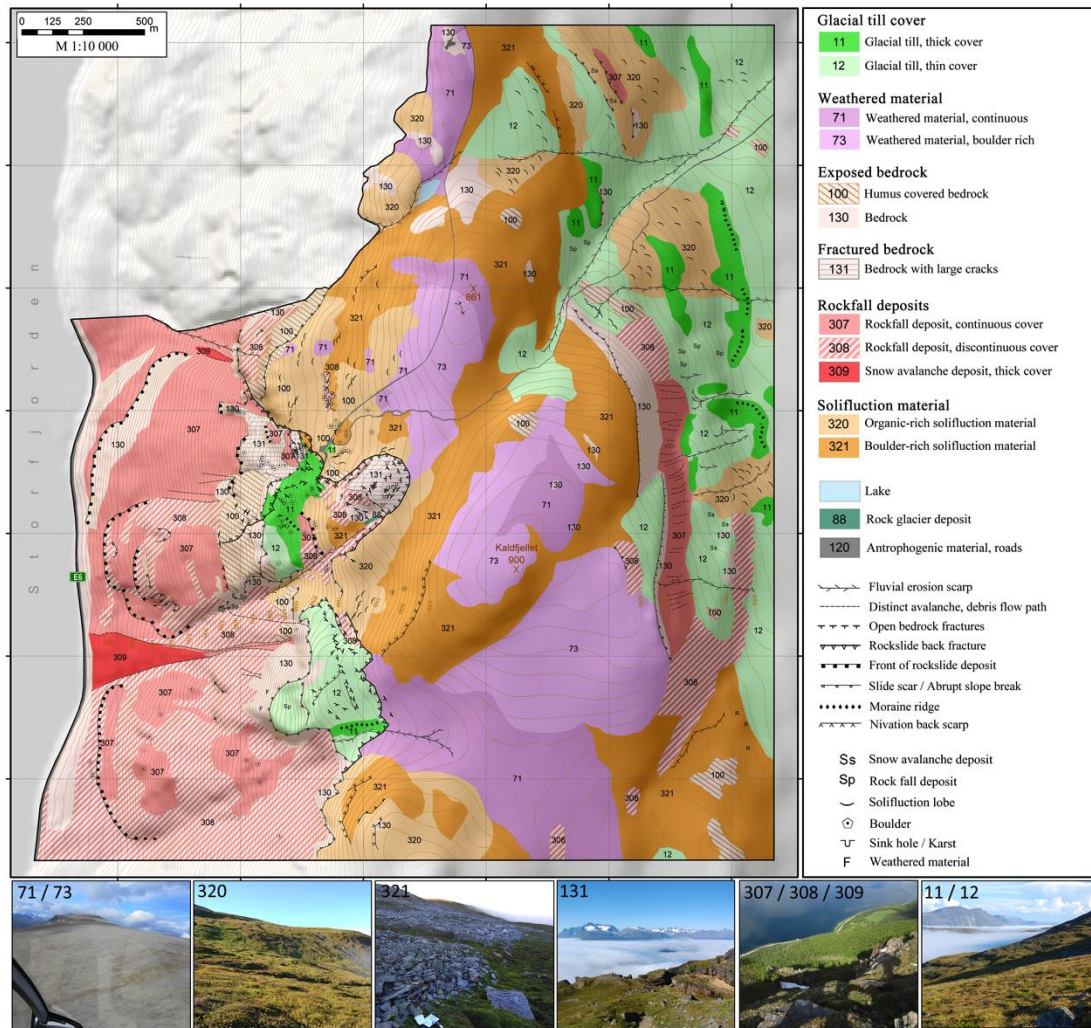
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173 4. Results

174 4.1 Periglacial landform variability at Nordnesfjellet

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177 Figure 2: Geomorphological map in scale 1:10000 of the Nordnesfjellet study area. Both periglacial sediments and
 178 landforms are shown, colored and coded as described in the legend. For further analysis we classified the identified
 179 periglacial landforms into six geomorphological classes. Pictures (coded accordingly) show various landforms
 180 mapped.

181

182 The overall distribution of periglacial landforms in the study area is largely governed
 183 by aspect, slope angle, and elevation as topographic parameters, and landscape-scale
 184 permafrost occurrence (Figure 2). The highest, flat to low-inclined plateau areas
 185 located above the regional permafrost limit (ca. 600 m a.s.l.) are vegetation free,
 186 relatively dry, and covered by continuous (dark purple, code 71) and boulder rich
 187 (light purple, code 73) weathered material. These areas covered in weathered material
 188 are on average 7° steep, located at elevations above 655 m a.s.l. (Figure 3). Here,
 189 daily and seasonal heave and thaw settlement, and associated periglacial sorting take
 190 place.

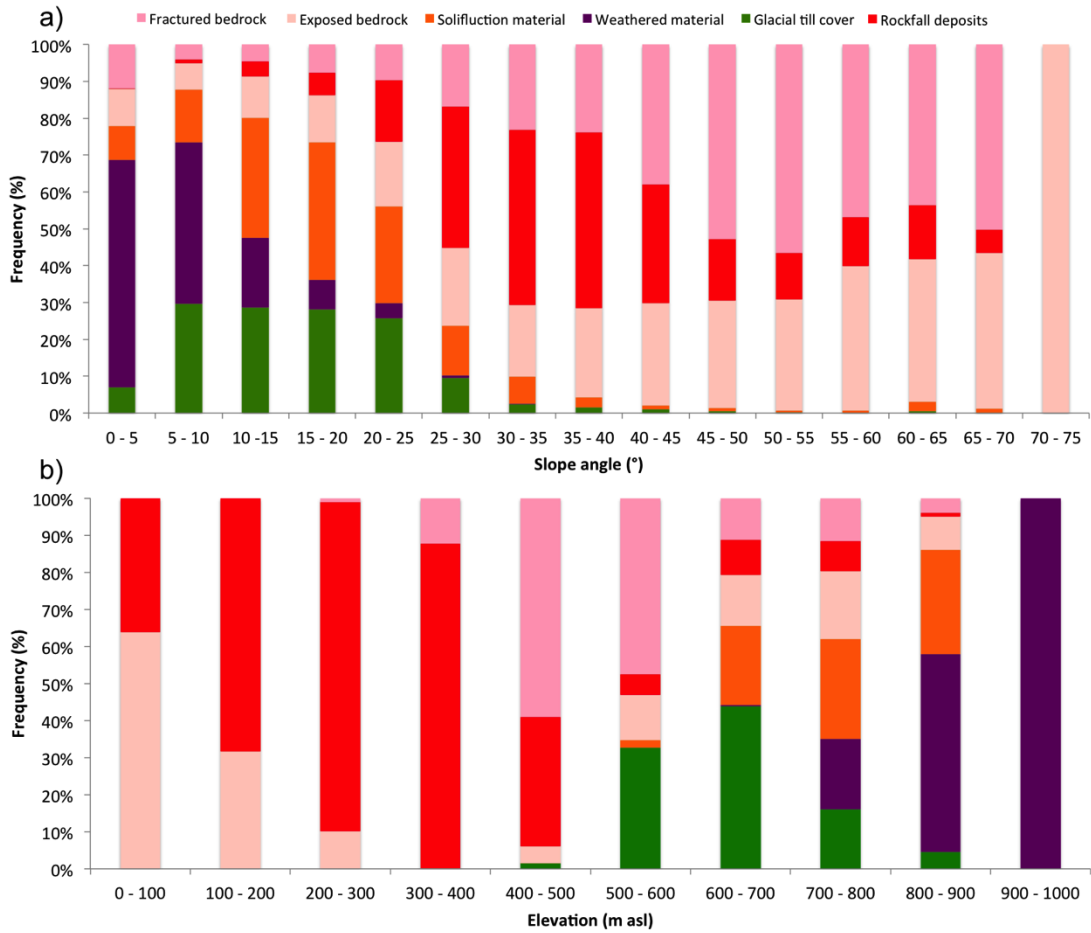
191 The high-lying plateaus are surrounded by areas that are fully vegetated and covered
192 in organic-rich solifluction material (light orange, code 320), as well as sparsely
193 vegetated, boulder rich solifluction material (dark orange, code 321) (Figure 2). These
194 areas covered in solifluction material are found in an elevation band between 480–900
195 m a.s.l. at the boarder of regional permafrost, with slope angles averaging 15°.
196 Outliers can be found towards steeper terrain, especially for the boulder-rich
197 solifluction lobes and sheets (Figure 3).

198 Decreasing further in elevation, the dominantly west and east-facing hillside of the
199 study area are significantly different in periglacial landform occurrence, slope angle
200 and elevations covered. The west-facing hillside is dominated by the active Jettan
201 rockslide (fractured bedrock, light purple, code 131) and rockfall deposits (light red,
202 codes 307 and 308) (Figure 2). Former, referred to as areas with fractured bedrock,
203 cover areas from 270–805 m a.s.l. with slope angles of up to 70° and a median of 39°.
204 The associated rockfall deposit covered slopes extending to sea level, with a median
205 slope angle of 34°. These areas appear to be active, evident from loose rocks, perched
206 boulders, and broken trees.

207 The east-facing hillside on the other hand is covered by Younger Dryas moraines
208 (thick glacial till cover, code 11 in dark green) and thinly glacial till covered areas in
209 between (light green, code 12) (Figure 2). These glacial till covered areas are
210 characterized by low-inclined terrain (average of 13°) in elevations between 490–850
211 m a.s.l. (Figure 3).

212 In terms of areal coverage, solifluction material covers 31.5 % of the study area,
213 followed by areas covered in rockfall deposits with 23.8 % and weathered material-
214 covered areas with 18.7 %. Exposed bedrock areas cover 7.1 % while the fractured
215 bedrock areas of the Jettan rockslide cover 2.7 % of the total study area (Figure 4).

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Figure 3: Histograms of pixel frequency per a) slope angles and b) elevations covered by the six geomorphological classes.

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221 4.2 2D InSAR landscape-scale combined displacement velocities

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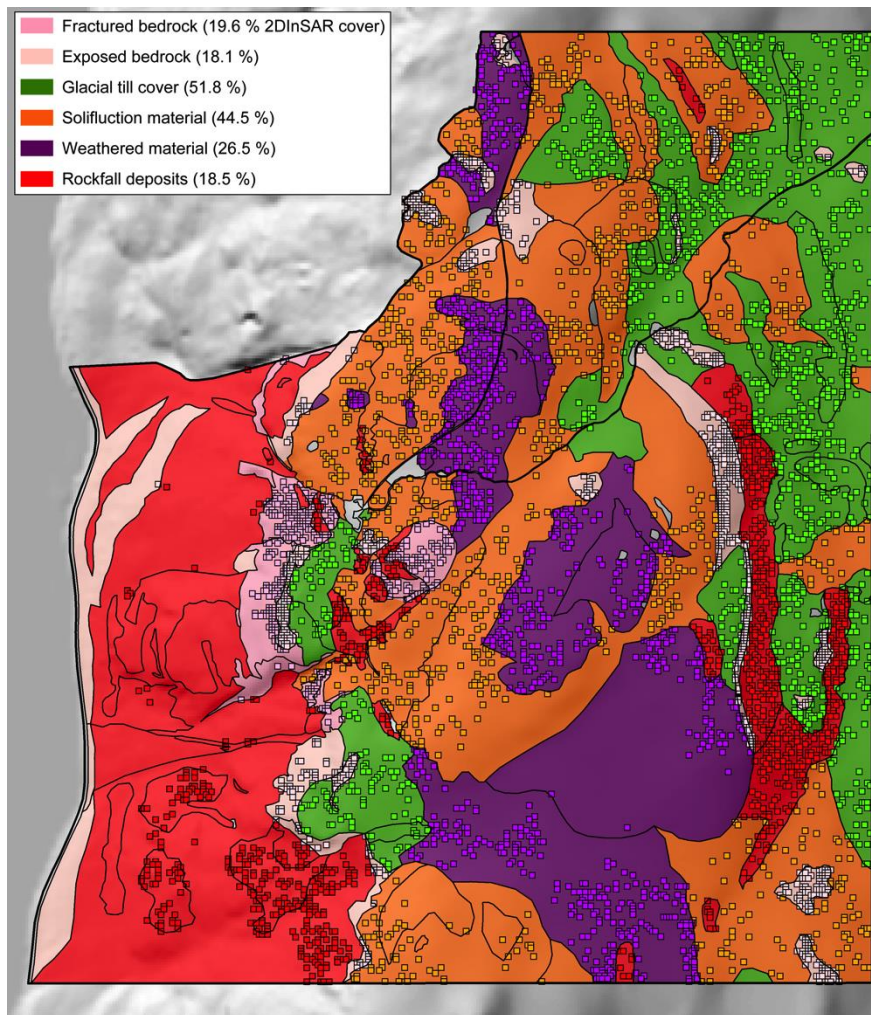
The six aggregated geomorphological classes are different in spatial extent as we masked out aspects diverging more than 22.5 degrees from east and west. Moreover, the distribution of 2D InSAR pixels per geomorphological classes is also highly variable (Figure 4). We therefore randomly selected 1000 pixels per class for further 2D InSAR analysis and comparison with the geomorphological mapping.

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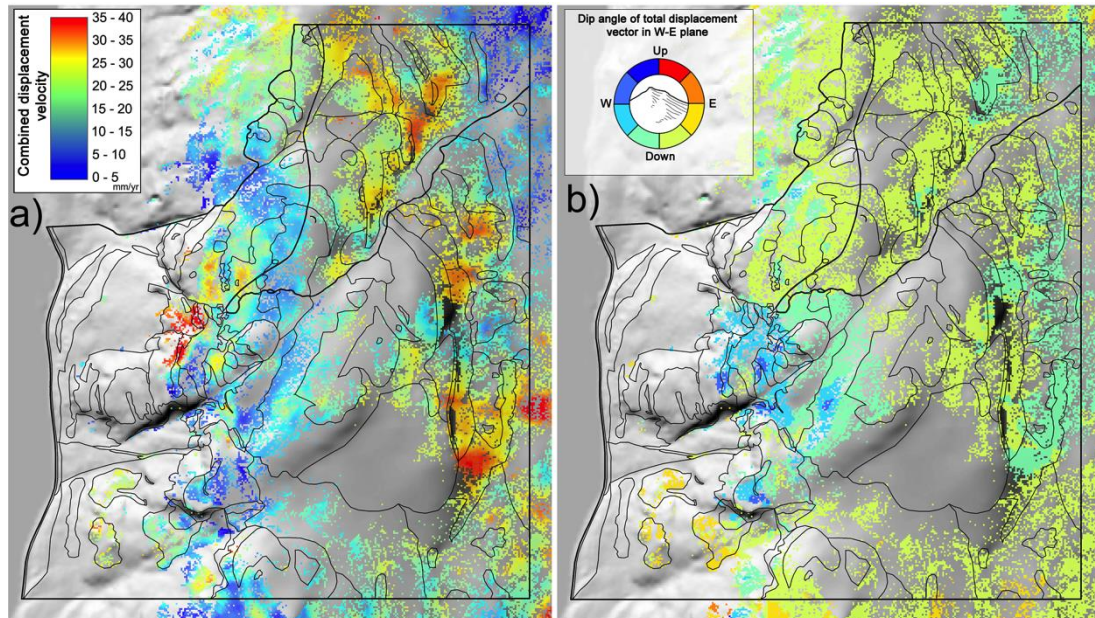
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228 Figure 4: Map of the study area showing all six geomorphological classes with the percentage of pixels covered by
 229 2D InSAR data. As a result of differential 2D InSAR data coverage, 1000 random pixels per class (visualized by
 230 colored squares) were chosen for further analysis.

231

232 The study area experienced an average combined displacement velocity of 10–15
 233 mm/yr with downward dip angles, indicating an overall settlement of the landscape
 234 (Figure 5). High horizontal westward components characterized the active Jettan
 235 rockslide. The displacements were mainly downward but areas with upward trends
 236 were also detected. These heterogeneous displacement patterns may indicate a
 237 complex fault geometry at depth (Eriksen et al., 2017). The rockslide area exhibited
 238 furthermore the highest combined displacement velocities together with areas that
 239 were mapped as rockfall deposits and solifluction material on the east-facing slopes of
 240 the study area (Figure 2, Figure 5). Especially solifluction landforms beneath steep
 241 slopes experienced a steady moisture source, which can result in high solifluction
 242 rates. Lower than average combined displacement velocities were visible on high-

243 elevation west-facing slopes covered by weathered material and solifluction material
244 (Figure 2, Figure 5). These areas were low-inclined to flat and likely dry, thus only
245 minor frost heave and settlement could occur.
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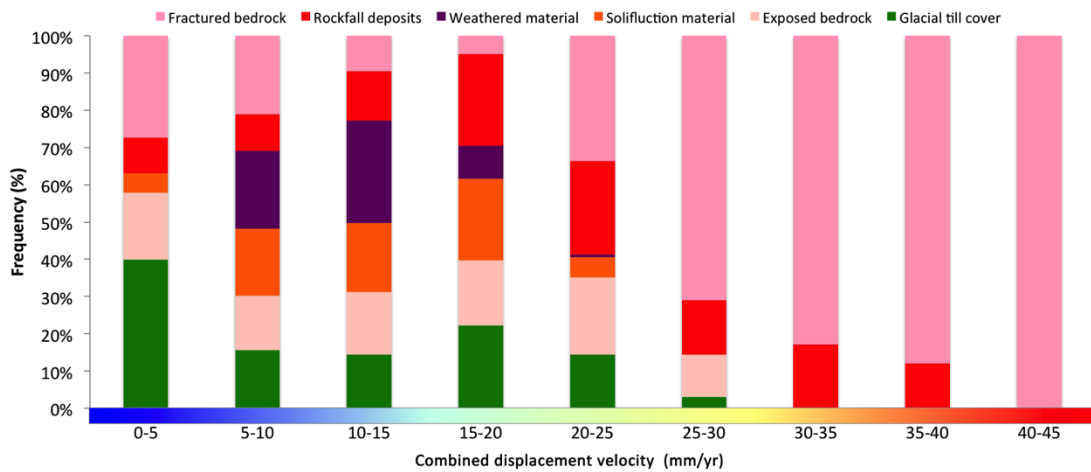


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248 Figure 5: a) Map of 2D InSAR combined displacement velocities. Rates are in mm/yr (2009–2014). b) Dip angle
249 of 2D displacement vectors in west-east plane. The thick black lines outline the different periglacial landforms,
250 mapped in Figure 2.

251

252 4.3 2D InSAR landform-scale displacement velocities

253 High-lying areas covered in glacial till, weathered material and solifluction material,
254 as well as exposed bedrock areas experienced the lowest average combined
255 displacement velocities ranging between 0–30 mm/yr (Figure 6). The higher ranges in
256 combined displacement velocities were mainly measured from rockfall deposits and
257 fractured bedrock areas, which are driven by gravitational processes.
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Figure 6: Histograms of pixel frequency per combined displacement velocity range of 5 mm increments for the six geomorphological classes.

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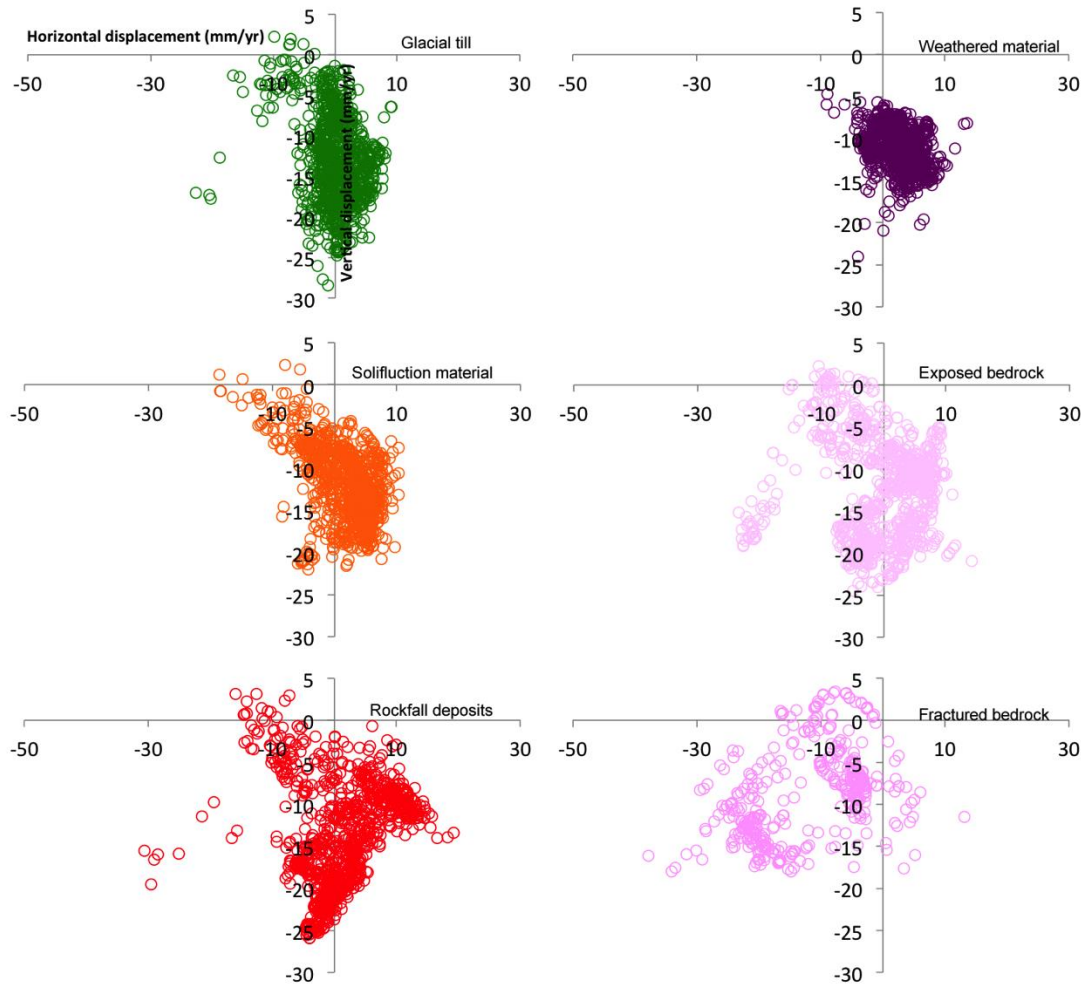
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Combined displacement velocities can be divided into horizontal and vertical displacement vectors (Figure 1c), which we present for each of the six geomorphological classes in Figure 7. The total net surface lowering visible also in Figure 5 is shown in a dominating vertical downward displacement in all classes. Weathered material-covered areas experienced no upward movement, while all other classes experienced areas with minor uplift as well. Skewness of the horizontal component towards west or east was mostly a function of the occurrence of a geomorphological class in the study area. This is evident from glacial till covered areas mostly occurring on the east-facing side, while fractured bedrock areas were mostly found on the west-facing side of the study area (Figure 2). Areas covered in weathered material had the lowest inter-class standard deviation for horizontal and vertical displacement with 2.4 and 3 mm/yr respectively, as this class was rather homogeneously distributed in elevation and slope angle. Rockfall deposits and fractured bedrock areas were found at wider elevation bands and slope angles, experiencing thus horizontal and vertical displacement rates with large standard deviations of up to 9 mm/yr (Figure 7).



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281 Figure 7: Scatterplots showing horizontal and vertical displacement rates of 1000 randomly chosen pixels within
 282 each of the six geomorphological classes.

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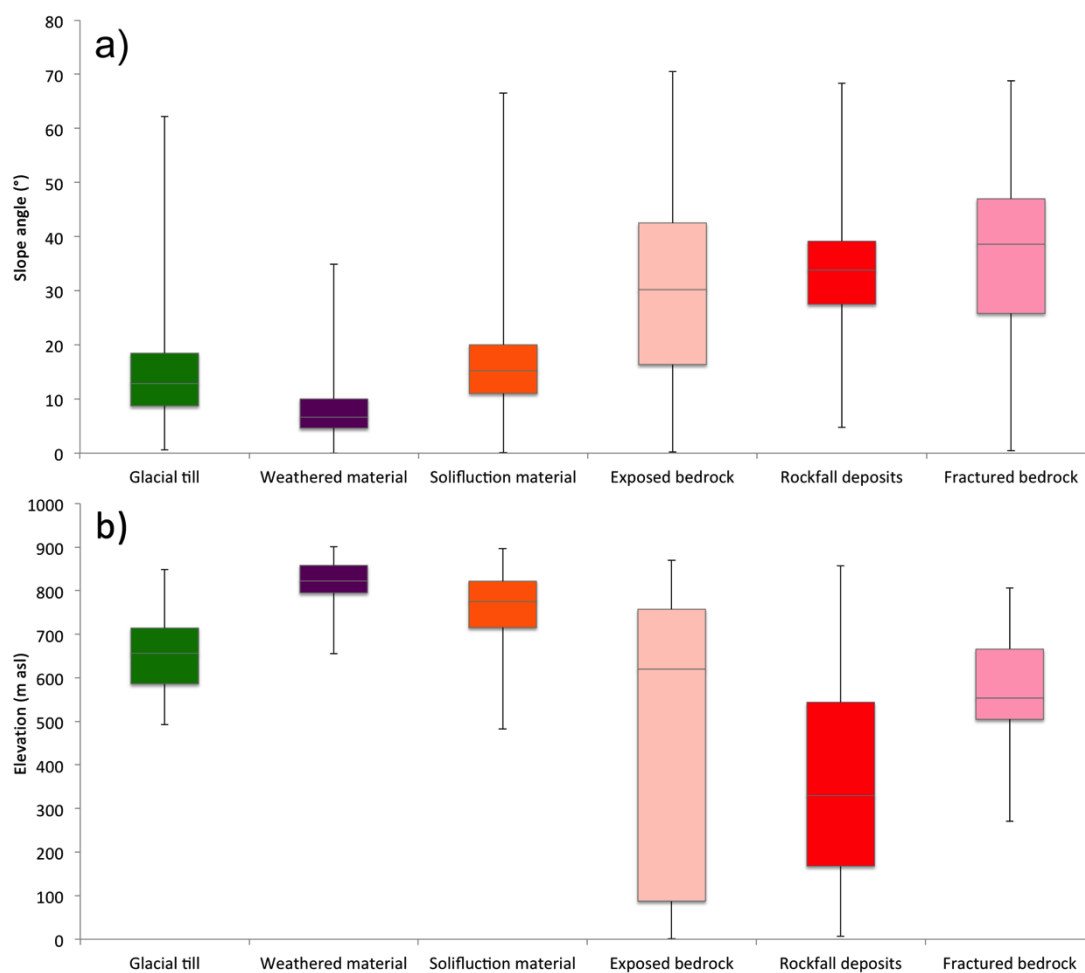
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285 5. Discussion

286 5.1 Quantitative geomorphological interpretation of 2D InSAR results

287 Periglacial landforms are influenced by topographical and meteorological factors at
 288 different scales. Topographical factors including slope angle and elevation act on a
 289 landscape-scale, largely controlling the occurrence and activity level of periglacial
 290 landforms. The study area can be roughly divided into two parts: Flat areas to gentle
 291 slopes at elevations above the regional permafrost limit, and steep slopes with fast
 292 downslope displacement rates at lower elevations. Comparing each geomorphological
 293 class in terms of their slope angle and elevation distribution, they can be divided into
 294 flat to low-inclined high elevation landforms (glacial till, weathered material and
 295 solifluction material) and steep, low elevation landforms (exposed bedrock, rockfall

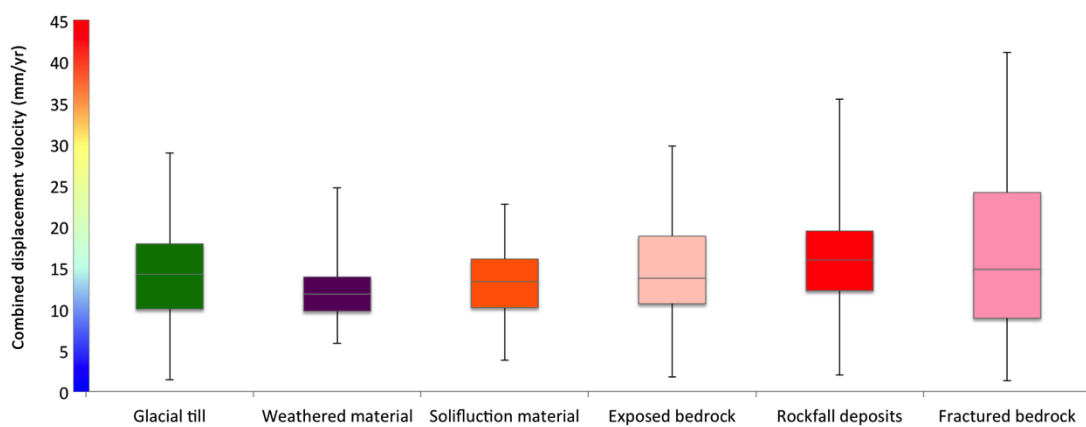
296 deposits and fractured bedrock) (Figure 8). Areas covered in glacial till, weathered
 297 material and solifluction material exhibited median slope angles between 7–15°, while
 298 areas covered in rockfall deposits and different bedrock areas had median slope angles
 299 between 30–40°. The median elevation for the latter group was 554 m, roughly 200 m
 300 lower than for the high elevation landforms and thus presumably also below the
 301 regional permafrost limit. Considering the interquartile range of each
 302 geomorphological class, the high elevation group had a three times smaller
 303 interquartile range compared to the low elevation group. The interquartile range in
 304 slope angles was two times smaller for the high elevation group than for the low
 305 elevation group.
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307
 308 Figure 8: Boxplots showing median, interquartile range and min / max outliers of a) slope angle and b) elevation
 309 for all six geomorphological classes.

310
 311 The presence of permafrost, a prerequisite for active periglacial landscapes can only
 312 indirectly be observed using remote sensing (e.g. Kääb et al., 2005). Using InSAR,

313 the state of activity and process speeds both within periglacial landforms and between
 314 them can be measured and quantified. From Figure 5 it is evident that surface
 315 deformation took place, resulting in an overall net lowering of the surface. However,
 316 it became also evident from Figure 6 and Figure 7 that 2D InSAR displacement rates
 317 were not significantly different between geomorphological classes. This is especially
 318 true for the class-specific median combined displacement velocities, which ranged
 319 between 11.8 mm/yr for areas covered in weathered material and 15.9 mm/yr for
 320 rockfall deposits (Figure 9). Only maximum outliers and the interquartile range of
 321 each geomorphological class held differentiating information.
 322 Maximum outliers of combined displacement velocity were presented in Figure 3.
 323 The interquartile range is a measure of entropy within the geomorphological classes,
 324 hinting towards larger variability in combined displacement velocities in the three
 325 low-elevation classes (Figure 8). The other three high-lying classes showed low
 326 standard deviations in combined displacement velocities in line with their more
 327 homogenous distribution in elevation and slope angle (Figure 8).
 328



329
 330 Figure 9: Boxplots showing median, interquartile range and min / max outliers of combined displacement
 331 velocities for all six geomorphological classes.

332
 333 *5.2 Qualitative geomorphological interpretation of 2D InSAR results*

334 Mountainous areas in polar regions carry landform evidence from intense glaciations
 335 such as rock walls and glacial till deposits. Morphodynamic processes in the
 336 mountains are comparable to other landscapes. However, intensity and rates are
 337 higher because of the steep terrain providing energy for erosion and sediment
 338 transport. Furthermore, denudation is also high because of low temperatures and

339 increases precipitation (Barsch and Caine, 1982). Caine (1974) identified different
340 controlling factors, responses and levels of activity in the periglacial mountain
341 sediment cascade, of which the coarse debris system and the fine clastic sediment
342 system exist at Nordnesfjellet:

343 The coarse debris system is effective in debris transport and incorporates rockfall,
344 snow avalanche activity and slope failures such as rockslides. The geomorphological
345 work of snow avalanches is of minor importance at Nordnesfjellet, we have thus
346 classified the entire colluvium as rockfall deposits. These deposits need a large source
347 area of rock fall to develop, thus they are mostly found on the lower parts of the steep
348 west-facing mountain side beneath the active Jettan rockslide. 2D InSAR correctly
349 identified high combined displacement velocity with a downslope dip angle that
350 characterize the rockfall deposits, and fractured bedrock areas which are all part of the
351 Jettan rockslide. Here, displacement patterns and rates showed a larger variability,
352 which are explained in detailed by Eriksen et al. (2017). Many studies have shown the
353 great variability of talus accumulation and movement in space and time (summarized
354 by Barsch and Caine, 1984) and the variability of the displacement rates might be a
355 proof of this.

356 The fine sediment system includes besides bedrock weathering also the mass wasting
357 processes of alpine slopes. This system mostly responds to the freezing and thawing
358 of the ground, the distribution of snow, and the amount of precipitation. Thus, in
359 wetter sites, mass wasting by frost creep and solifluction are greater. Areas covered in
360 weathered material are commonly referred to as blockfields (Ballantyne, 1998).
361 Blockfields are high elevation, dry areas, mainly subject to annual frost heave and
362 thaw settlement, with the rate of vertical displacement being largely influenced by
363 active layer thickness. At Nordnesfjellet, shallow borehole data from 908 m a.s.l..
364 indicate a mean annual ground temperature just below 0°C, and an active layer
365 thickness beyond 2.5 m (Harris et al., 2009). 2D InSAR data showed overall
366 consistent minor downward displacement of the blockfield areas.

367 The solifluction landforms occurring below the blockfields on mostly low-inclined
368 wet surfaces typically are the most widespread landforms in periglacial landscapes
369 (Matsuoka, 2001). The solifluction sheets and lobes showed 2D InSAR displacement
370 rates typical for solifluction in a discontinuous permafrost zone. 2D InSAR further
371 correctly indicated a combination of vertical and horizontal components that is
372 inherent for solifluction, depicted by westward and eastward displacement rates,

373 according to the solifluction landforms exposure to aspect. Solifluction landforms
374 stretch below the discontinuous permafrost limit, also observed by Hjort et al. (2014)
375 in the Nordnes area. Presumably primarily one-sided, diurnal frost and needle ice
376 creep account for these low-lying solifluction features (Harris et al., 2008; Matsuoka,
377 2001). Annual surface velocities, according to a review by Matsuoka (2001) in areas
378 with frequent diurnal freeze-thaw cycles, as well as a warm, discontinuous permafrost
379 zone are in the range of 10–15 cm. This is in accordance with the 2D InSAR
380 measurements from the study area.

381 The location of areas covered in glacial till is topographically controlled by the upper
382 limit of the last glaciation during the Younger Dryas (Kverndal and Sollid, 1993)
383 causing deposition of a thin glacial till cover, as well as clearly visible moraines.
384 These landforms showed only minor deformation rates in the 2D InSAR maps, typical
385 for fine-grained, dry surfaces that lie below the regional permafrost limit.

386

387 *5.3 Potential and limitations using 2D InSAR*

388 Combining InSAR surface displacements from ascending and descending geometries
389 provides a powerful tool to study surface displacement patterns at periglacial
390 landscape-scale. We can explain the landform-scale displacement patterns and rates
391 with our geomorphological process knowledge. However, we fall short in classifying
392 the periglacial landscape into geomorphological classes using the 2D InSAR dataset.
393 This is because of displacement rates overlapping significantly within and between
394 classes, which makes the identification of threshold values impossible. Moreover,
395 topographical and meteorological factors need to be considered as well when
396 analyzing the distribution of periglacial landforms. Finally, the classification of
397 geomorphological classes is based on aerial image interpretation, which is subject to
398 certain bias and uncertainty in drawing the borders between each class.

399 There are certainly limiting factors in using InSAR as a study tool for periglacial
400 landscape activity, which are intrinsic to the method. As previously explained, the
401 polar orbits of SAR satellites reduce sensitivity for detecting northward/southward
402 displacements. In addition, the sensor's wavelength and the temporal baseline of the
403 interferograms control the range of velocities than can be measured. By selecting
404 interferograms only from the snow free season, we expect the 2D InSAR data to
405 contain a larger component from thaw than from freeze. Furthermore, mean annual
406 vertical displacements are likely overestimated and can thus induce too steep dip

407 angles. These effects are likely enhanced in the upper regions of the study area, which
408 are underlain by permafrost.

409 From this study, it appears thus that exploitation of remote sensed deformation
410 measurements for a quantitative classification of geomorphological processes at
411 landscape-scale has a potential, but cannot be used as a standalone method. One
412 possible way to utilize the 2D InSAR displacement rates would be to use them
413 together with other environmental variables as a complementary input layer into
414 statistically-based geomorphological distribution models (e.g. Etzelmüller et al.,
415 2001; Hjort and Luoto, 2013).

416

417 **6. Conclusion**

418 From the comparison of a 2D InSAR dataset from TerraSAR-X data (2009–2014)
419 with geomorphological mapping of the periglacial landscape of Nordnesfjellet
420 mountain in Northern Norway, it is evident that the landscape is highly active. 2D
421 InSAR depicts various displacement patterns and rates of six geomorphological
422 classes that belong to either the coarse or the fine debris system of the sediment
423 cascade of this cold mountain environment. High surface displacement rates belong to
424 steep low-elevation terrain covered in rock fall colluvium and fractured bedrock
425 associated with the Jettan rockslide. Lower surface displacement rates belong to low-
426 inclined, high elevation permafrost areas covered in weathered material, undergoing
427 solifluction. However, landform-specific displacement rates could not be clearly
428 depicted, which suggests that 2D InSAR results has a limited value as a standalone
429 dataset for large-scale geomorphological mapping of remote areas. Together with
430 topographical and environmental factors, 2D InSAR results might be treated as an
431 additional data layer for geostatistical modeling of a landscape. With the improved
432 availability of SAR data, such methods can then be applied to large and remote
433 periglacial mountain areas worldwide.

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