

Responses to Reviewer 1

Specific comment 1:

A deeper discussion of grain-size sensitive deformation mechanisms may be appropriate. For example, the different nature of the distribution of GND's near grain boundaries is an interesting and important observation. One interpretation of this observation is that there is a heterogenous distribution in the magnitude and orientation of stress near grain boundaries. In other words, the presence of grain boundaries may enhance deformation, which would lead to a grain-size sensitive rheological behaviour such as described by Goldsby and Kohlstedt (2001). A grain-size sensitive rheological behaviour may operate at the higher strain conditions where weakening (increasing strain rate with time) is observed. Although it is possible that the weakening is entirely due to the alignment of grains with favourable orientation to operate easy slip at larger shear strain (i.e. geometric softening).

Response :

In the conditions prevailing in the experiments presented in this article, that are, plurimilimetric grains, rather low stresses, and temperatures very close to T_m , the grain-size sensitive regime is not concerned. This assumption is corroborated by previous experiments under axial compression using similar microstructures and pressure and temperature conditions, which do not show any grain size dependence (Schulson and Duval, 2009, Montagnat et al., 2015) Indeed, the GSS regime prevails in areas of very small, micron-sized grains, and under conditions where strain accommodation mechanisms such as dynamic recrystallization are inefficient (because diffusion at the characteristic length scales of the system is too slow, see for instance the recent work of Bourcier et al. 2013 on halite). Grain boundary sliding has been observed in ice with large grains at faster strain-rates of about 10^{-5} s^{-1} (Weiss and Schulson 2000), but it occurred just prior to cracking and was accompanied by a large amount of decohesion that we do not observe in the present experiments.

The analysis of the microstructure clearly indicates that in the torsion experiments presented here, dynamic recrystallization mechanisms (especially grain boundary migration) are very efficient, since we are close to T_m . Efficient dynamic recrystallization relaxes the local stress and strain heterogeneities, which are caused by the viscoplastic anisotropy of the ice crystals and, as expected are stronger in the vicinity of boundaries between differently oriented grains, well before grain boundary sliding occurs.

The development of strong heterogeneity in the strain and stress field controlling the onset of the dynamic recrystallization observed in the present experiments is a direct consequence of deformation mostly produced by highly anisotropic dislocation motions within the crystals. The early onset of and widespread occurrence of dynamic recrystallization in our samples is an evidence of deformation mainly accommodated by dislocation motions. Indeed, the development of strong heterogeneity in the strain and stress field, which controls the dynamic recrystallization, is a direct consequence of deformation mostly produced by highly anisotropic dislocation motions within the crystals. Grain boundary sliding, if associated with effective accommodation of local strain incompatibility by diffusion creep or even by dislocation glide, should produce a much more homogeneous microstructure than the one we observed. In the present experiments, the strain distribution within the grains is heterogeneous, as a consequence of stress and strain heterogeneities, in particular when neighboring grains have contrasted behaviors due to different crystallographic orientations. On the other hand, there is no clear evidence for stress concentrations at triple junctions or at irregularities of the grain boundaries, which are expected in the case of grain boundary sliding.

In summary, although grain boundary migration is certainly important as a strain accommodation process, all observations points to deformation mainly accommodated by intragranular dislocation motions, which is grain-size independent. Grain boundary migration is certainly affected by the gradient in dislocation density characterized in the present work. This gradient result probably in a characteristic length scale for formation of nuclei, as discussed in the article. However, this length scale is independent of the size of the deformed grains. Thus, we consider that a lengthy discussion of the grain-size sensitive regime is out of the scope of this article.

Concerning the mechanical data, as pointed by the reviewer and shown in a large number of previous experiments studying tertiary creep (e.g., Bouchez and Duval, 1982; Jacka and Jun 1994), the texture-related weakening may easily explain the onset of tertiary creep, during which a constant grain size is observed owing to the balance between nucleation and grain growth by boundary migration.

References:

[1] E. M. Schulson and P. Duval. Creep and Fracture of Ice. Cambridge University Press, 2009.

[1] Montagnat, M., T. Chauve, F. Barou, A. Tommasi, B. Beausir, and C. Fressengeas. 2015. "Analysis of Dynamic Recrystallization of Ice from EBSD Orientation Mapping." *Frontiers in Earth Sciences*. <http://www.gm.univ-montp2.fr/PERSO/tommasi/publications.html>.

[2] Bourcier, M., M. Bornert, A. Dimanov, E. Hérpré, and J. L. Raphanel. 2013. “Multiscale Experimental Investigation of Crystal Plasticity and Grain Boundary Sliding in Synthetic Halite Using Digital Image Correlation.” *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth* 118 (2): 511–26. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrb.50065>.

[3] Weiss, J., and E. M. Schulson. 2000. “Grain-Boundary Sliding and Crack Nucleation in Ice.” *Philosophical Magazine A* 80 (2): 279–300. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01418610008212053>

[4] Bouchez, J. l., and Paul Duval. 1982. “The Fabric of Polycrystalline Ice Deformed in Simple Shear: Experiments in Torsion, Natural Deformation and Geometrical Interpretation.” *Textures and Microstructures*, 5: 171–90. <https://doi.org/10.1155/TSM.5.171>.

[5] T. H. Jacka and L. Jun. The steady-state crystal size of deforming ice. *Ann. Glaciol.*, 20:13–18, 1994.

Specific comment 2:

A stress exponent of 3 is used to estimate the stress at the outside radius of the samples. Although probably appropriate for this study, it would be better to have a stronger justification for this selection. For example, if a grain-size sensitive mechanism is operation at higher strain (smaller grain size) conditions, a lower value of stress exponent may be more appropriate. Additionally, values of n of 4 have been observed in ice deforming by dislocation creep (e.g., Durham et al., 1983). A stronger justification for using $n=3$ would place more confidence in your calculated values of stress and make future comparison of this work more straightforward.

Response :

The value of 3 for the stress exponent was chosen considering that most of our experiments are close to the secondary creep conditions. From previous work (a good review can be found in Shulson and Duval 2009), it was shown that during secondary creep (in fact at the minimum creep rate), the stress exponent for coarse-grained polycrystalline ice is close to 3. These studies also show that during tertiary creep this exponent increase, reaching a value close to 4. These early data is corroborated by recent work of Treverrow et al. (2012) presenting results from compression and shear tests, which observed stress exponents between 2.9 and 3.1 for the secondary creep, and of 3.5 for tertiary creep. Reference to this study has been added in the new version of the paper to justify the choice of the value of 3.

Modified text (P.4 L.28)

“Since most of the present experiments recorded secondary creep conditions (Fig. 1), stress exponent of $n = 3$ was chosen based on results from Duval et al. (1983) and more recent work from Treverrow et al. (2012) that observed stress exponents between 2.9 and 3.1 during the secondary creep regime, and of 3.5 for tertiary creep in compression and shear tests.

References:

[1] Schulson, Erland M., and Paul Duval. 2009. *Creep and Fracture of Ice*. 1 edition. Cambridge, UK ; New York: Cambridge University Press.

[2] Treverrow, A., et al., *Journal of Glaciology* 58, no. 208 (ed 2012): 301–14. <https://doi.org/10.3189/2012JoG11J149>.

Specific comment 3:

A discussion of some more of the recent work on the controls of ice CPO at low strain conditions would help strengthen some of the arguments in this manuscript. For example, Qi et al. (2017, JGR), discussed the importance of stress on controlling the nature of CPO in ice, and noted the importance of grain boundary migration at low stress and lattice rotation at high stress. Although those experiments were carried out at different conditions and using a different deformation geometry, they may provide some insight into the various conditions at which the texture with the M2 maxima are important.

Response :

In the revised version of the manuscript, we include a comparison with both the work of Qi et al. (2017) and the more recent study of Qi et al. (2019). This comparison is interesting, since their experimental conditions are very different from the present ones: grain sizes are smaller, strain rates are faster, and stresses are higher. The confinement pressure (10 MPa in Qi et al. 2017) might also have some impact on the recrystallization mechanisms and texture evolution. Qi et al. 2017 presents results for axial compression. Studies in a similar highly anisotropic material, olivine, clearly indicate that the effect of recrystallization on the texture evolution is much more marked in simple shear (cf. review in Signorelli & Tommasi 2015). Thus we also compare our data

to the very recent Qi et al. (2019) study, which presents data obtained in direct simple shear, which can be more easily compared to the present study, although some shortening normal to the shear plane (transpression) usually takes place in this configuration, as recognized by Qi et al. (2019). As stated in the revised version of the ms. the results of the three studies share many common points.

References :

[1] Signorelli, Javier, and Andréa Tommasi. 2015. "Modeling the Effect of Subgrain Rotation Recrystallization on the Evolution of Olivine Crystal Preferred Orientations in Simple Shear." *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 430 (November): 356–66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2015.08.018>.

Specific comment 4:

Sample TGI0.012 was deformed to very low strain and its data are missing from Figure 1. How certain are you that this small amount of plastic strain was imposed on the sample? The grain size of TSGI0.012 appears smaller than the unstrained sample, which suggests at least some plastic deformation occurred. Was a correction made for the compliance of the rig? Was there any evidence of elastic strain?

Response :

About the elastic compliance of the rig, previous work on ice single crystals had shown that the strain measurement of the torsion apparatus used here is accurate even at very low strain (Montagnat et al. 2006, Chevy et al. 2010). Although small, this sample (TGI0.012) was affected by viscoplastic strain, not only by elastic deformation. Indeed, given the value of the shear modulus for ice, the elastic deformation is really small. At the maximum shear stress of 0.6MPa, the shear modulus of 3.5 GPa leads to γ_{elastic} of about $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$. In addition, although subtle, the change in the texture relatively to the undeformed sample suggests that it experimented a small amount of viscoplastic strain.

As for the variation in grain size, different samples were used for each test, and owing to the sample growth procedure, a slight difference in initial grain size can occur. The difference between the grain size of the "undeformed" microstructure shown in the paper for illustration, and the one of the TGI0.012 is in the range of usual variation due to the preparation procedure. In any case, the very small strain that affected this sample did not trigger significant changes in the microstructure and in the texture. By consequence, this sample does not play a major role on the conclusions of the present study. It gives nevertheless a control on the very first stages of the deformation.

References:

[1] M. Montagnat, J. Weiss, J. Chevy, P. Duval, H. Brunjail, P. Bastie, and J. Gil Sevillano. The heterogeneous nature of slip in ice single crystals deformed under torsion. *Philosophical Magazine*, 86(27):4259–4270, 2006.
[2] J. Chevy, C. Fressengeas, M. Lebyodkin, V. Taupin, P. Bastie, and P. Duval. Characterizing short-range vs. long-range spatial correlations in dislocation distributions. *Acta Materialia*, 58(5):1837 – 1849, 2010.

Technical Corrections

We thank the Reviewer for the detailed correction of the manuscript. The updated version of the manuscript has been corrected accordingly, a response to a specific comment is given hereafter otherwise.

p2 ligne 3 : "compression and extension are the dominant deformation mechanisms" – this is a bit awkward as most people discuss deformation mechanisms as related to flow behaviour, e.g., dislocation creep, diffusion creep, etc. It may be more clear to replace "deformation mechanisms" with "deformation geometries".

R : done

Line 6: remove "s" from "orientations" R : done

Line 10: remove "olivine" R : done

Line 23: replace "in return" with "consequently" R : done

Line 27: add "rate" after "strain" ? R : done

Lines 28 – Page 3, line 2 – The statements made in this paragraph are a bit debatable. I am not sure if ice is a great analogue for mantle rocks. Hundreds (if not thousands) of high temperature experiments have been carried out to study the flow behaviour and microstructural characteristics of mantle rocks. Ice is significantly more anisotropic, in a viscous sense, than olivine and other mantle material.

Response :

CPOs obtained under simple shear for ice and some minerals such as olivine or quartz are similar: in all cases the main slip system rotates into parallelism with the macroscopic strain much faster than the reorientation of the finite strain ellipsoid and the CPO reaches a stable position and intensity at rather low shear strains (2-5). By consequence, similar explanations (related to recrystallization) were proposed (see for instance Wenk et al. 1997, 1999 and Signorelli and Tommasi 2015). In terms of viscoplastic anisotropy, both ice and olivine do not possess enough available slip systems for accommodating a general deformation - in particular shortening or extension parallel to the [100], [010], and [001] axes in olivine and parallel to [0001] in ice (see for instance Castelnau et al. 2008). Comparing the intensity of anisotropy of the two materials is not straightforward. Ice has a higher symmetry (hexagonal): slip is only easy in the basal plane, but it shows with no anisotropy within this plane. Olivine is orthorhombic: it has more slip planes, but only two slip directions in these planes. In conclusion, both are extremely anisotropic materials. This leads to strain compatibility problems and stress concentrations in the polycrystal, which, at high homologous temperature, are resolved by recrystallization.

References:

- [1] H. R. Wenk, G. Canova, Y. Bréchet, and L. Flandin. A deformation-based model for recrystallization of anisotropic materials. *Acta. Mater.*, 45(8):3283–3296, 1997.
- [1] H. R. Wenk and C. Tomé. Modeling dynamic recrystallization of olivine aggregates deformed in simple shear. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 104(B11):25,513–25,527, 1999.
- [3] Signorelli, J. and Tommasi, A.: Modeling the effect of subgrain rotation recrystallization on the evolution of olivine crystal preferred orientations in simple shear, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 430, 356–366, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2015.08.018>, 2015
- [4] O. Castelnau, D. K. Blackman, R. A. Lebensohn, and P. Ponte-Castaneda. Micromechanical modeling of the viscoplastic behavior of olivine. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 113:B09202, 2008.

Page 3: line 10: remove “has” R : done

Line 28: add “either” before “not” R : done

Line 29: remove space after “mechanisms” R : done

Page 4 Line 6: replace “packing evenly” with “evenly packing” R : done

Line 17: replace “control visually” with “allow for observation of” R : done

Page 5 Line 18: replace “does” with “do” R : done

Line 31: replace “identify” with “identified” R : done

Page 6 Line 20: replace “reminded” with “noted” R : done

Page 7

Line 1: here you say the noise was too large to distinguish any primary creep hardening in TGI0.012

R : See response to Line 5-6

Line1: add space after at end of sentence R : done

Line 5-6: Can you say for certain the TGI0.012 stayed in the primary creep regime? The strain was very small and the data for that experiment is not presented in Figure 1

Response : This is an assumption, the text in the updated version of the manuscript has been modified to reflect the reviewer comment.

Line 21: add “essentially” before “random” R : done

Line26-27: Did TGI0.012 really achieve the strain indicated? How did you account for compliance and elastic deformation of the sample?

Response : Considering the value of the shear modulus for ice, elastic deformation is really small and cannot be measured by our sensor. Taking the max shear stress of 0.6MPa, the shear modulus of 3.5 GPa leads to γ_{el} of about $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

Page 8

Figure 1: missing data for TGI0.012

R : Data for TGI0.012 is too short in timescale to be practical to show in figure 1.

Figure 1 caption: replace “experiments” with “experiments”, or change this sentence unless you add data for TGI0.012 to the figure. Replace “The blank part of the curve corresponds to” with “the blank parts of some of the curves correspond to”. Remove “represented”. R : done

Page 9

Line 10: add “(by $\gamma = 0.2$) R : done

Page 10

Figure 3: This is a nice plot but the large gap between gamma 1 and 2 suggests that maybe it is worthwhile mapping an axial section of TG11.96? This would allow you to calculate the J-index at all strains by mapping from the center (almost unstrained) to the outside (almost gamma=2) of the sample.

R : One axial section was measured with EBSD, but due to the coarse grain size, it was impossible to fractionate the section in different segments with 'supposed' constant finite shear strains and still have a high enough number of measurements to obtain representative estimates of the CPO intensity. We could not therefore use radial sections to estimate the CPO evolution with increasing strain.

Line 1: replace "develops" with "develop" R : done

Line 9: remove sentence about spatial resolution, that is already in the methods section R : done

Page 12

Figure 5: what is represented by the pole figures? c-axes? R : Text has been added to the caption :

Pole figures representing c-axis orientations are reported at the top right.

Line 2: add "dislocations" after "those" R : done

Line 9: add "investigated" after "strain" R : done

Page 13

Line 3: replace "identify" with "identified" R : done

Line 5: replace "kinds" with "types" R : done

Line 16: remove " t " R : done

Page 17

Line 15: replace "these study" with "those studies" R : done

Page 19

Line 7: Replace "advices" with "advice" R : done

Response to Reviewer 2

Scientific Discussion 1.a:

The <11-20> and <10-10> in the high strain sample ($\gamma=1.96$) are not randomly distributed within the girdle. The <11-20> and <10-10> both have broad maxima, parallel to the shear direction, of $\sim 4x$ m.u.d. and $\sim 3x$ m.u.d. respectively. These compare to minima within the girdle of $\sim 2x$ m.u.d.

This level of <a> and <m> alignment is comparable to that shown for the highest shear strain data at -5C in fig 4 of (Qi et al., 2018). Additionally the ratio to the <c> axis maximum ($\max \langle a \rangle \sim \max \langle c \rangle / \gamma$ where γ is between 2 and 4) is very similar to the highest shear strain data at -5C and all data at -20C and -30C in fig 4 of (Qi et al., 2018). The alignment of <a> and <m> orientations is important. This might provide a cool tool for assessing shear directions in the analysis of naturally deformed ice so it needs to be documented. <a> and <m> being co-aligned matches our data and is intriguing. At present I do not have a coherent explanation for this. I'd be interested to hear your views on this.

Response :

Our data presents indeed a preferred orientation of <a> and <m> directions within the girdle, as reported by Qi et al. (2018), instead of being randomly distributed within the girdle. We edited the figure 4 to adapt the ODF intensity to make the distribution easier to see, and added the following description in the manuscript:

Added Text (pp.11 L.11):

For the high shear strain sample at $\gamma_{\max}=1.96$, the <10 $\bar{1}$ 0> and <11 $\bar{2}$ 0> axes (<a> and <m> axis) form a girdle, which tends to align in the shear plane. Within this girdle, there is a preferred orientation of both <a> and <m> directions toward the shear direction. The present CPO is similar to those formed in direct shear experiments (Qi et al., 2019). It is consistent with equivalent contribution of the three <a> axes in accommodating shear on the (0001) plane.

Scientific Discussion 1.b:

You have not commented on the shape of the M1 and M2 maxima. In virtually all experimentally sheared polycrystalline ice samples these maxima are elongated in a direction perpendicular to the shear direction (see discussion in (Qi et al., 2018) and in our response to a Maurine Montagnat comment on this in the discussion section). Sometimes the elongated maxima (both M1 and M2) are actually each double maxima, with the profile plane as a mirror plane. The vast majority of naturally sheared ice samples do not have elongated maxima, the contours of the maxima match small circle distributions (e.g. (Hudleston, 1977)). This point of difference between experiment and nature is important and as such it is important that the shape of the M1 and M2 maxima from experiments is described.

The high strain ($\gamma=1.96$) M1 is clearly elongated in the direction perpendicular to shear. I have superposed small circles, with their cone axes on the primitive, on the figure above to emphasise this point. M1 in the lower strain experiments is not so clearly elongated. In the annealed experiment the contours match the small circles, and it looks like this is the case for the lower strain experiments. In our experiments (Qi et al., 2018) elongation increases with shear strain.

M2 in the $\gamma=0.42$ experiment is elongated, with a double maximum (labeled above max1, max2), with the profile plane as a mirror plane. The $\gamma=0.42$ experiment may also show this but I can't tell from the figure. Interestingly M2 in the annealed sample does not look elongated. This could be an important point. Does annealing remove the cluster elongation? One of the reasons we adopted a different reference frame in (Qi et al., 2018), with the pole to shear plane in the middle of the stereonet, is that it makes it easier to see cluster shapes, as shown below in a re-analysis of the (Bouchez and Duval, 1982) data. The highest and lowest strain samples in these data have elongated M1, the medium strain sample does not.

Response :

The reviewer pointed out an aspect of our results that was understated in the initial version of the ms. We included the following text in the manuscript:

Added Text (pp.11 L.16):

Some elongation of the distribution of the M1 and M2 submaxima towards the Z direction (Figure 4.b), which is the normal to the shear direction in the shear plane, is visible in our results. This elongation is best expressed for the M1 maximum in the highest strain sample TG1.96, for which pole figures for <0001> <10 $\bar{1}$ 0> and <11 $\bar{2}$ 0> lattice vectors are now represented in two perpendicular reference frame in figure 4.b for better readability. Similar elongated distributions of <c> axes have been reported in direct shear experiments by Qi et al. (2019). Some elongation of the M1 maximum is also observed in the highest shear strain sample ($\gamma = 2$) of Bouchez and Duval (1982) as well as in other shear experiments in Li et al. (2000), Wilson and Peternell (2012) and Budd et al. (2013). However, most naturally sheared ice samples do not have elongated <c> maxima (Hudleston, 1977).

Scientific Discussion 1.c:

I think you need to be a little more precise in description of the symmetry of the M1, M2 maxima pair with respect to the finite elongation direction. I think this is a cool observation and potentially of some value, but the symmetry is far from perfect. Below I have plotted up some traces for M1 and M2 (red lines), with angles measured from the top of the stereonet. The green line has equal angles to the two red traces. Superficially this green line is close to the finite extension direction (ED), but if I plot the expected M2 trace (yellow line) assuming it has the same angle to ED as M1 (and adjusting ED for for M1 not being at 0 degrees in the two lowest strains) then the observed M2 is anticlockwise of the yellow line for the three lowest strain, most markedly for the annealed sample. The symmetry you describe is approximate.

Another way of looking at this is to plot the angle between M1 and M2 against shear strain. Below is a modified version of fig 8 from (Qi et al., 2018) with the addition of your data (big red dots) and a line (pink) that predicts the position of M2 if it has the same angle to the finite extension direction as M1. This is quite an interesting addition to the plot as very broadly the red data points (high T experiments: not just yours) do follow the path of the pink line, but at slightly lower angles? Is M2 at high T and low shear strain (≈ 2) related to the orientation of the finite strain ellipsoid?

Response:

The reviewer was right in noticing that the symmetry is not perfect. We included in figure 2.b the directions and angles of the M1 and M2 submaxima, along with the phi angle, for ease comparison with results from Qi et al. (2019). We also reported in the manuscript that the symmetry between M1 and M2 relative to the finite extension direction was not perfect. M2 maxima are at larger angles to the finite extension direction (ED) than what would be expected for a perfect symmetry. Nevertheless, the residual M2 angle relatively to the perfect symmetrical direction with M1 is rather small (between 1 and 3°), except for the annealed sample TGI0.71, which has an angle of 17°. This deviation could be due to annealing processes and is now discussed in a bit more details in the discussion of the new manuscript.

Since the number of experiments performed in the present study is too small for a statistical analysis, we prefer not to discuss this point into more detail in the current manuscript. We refer therefore the interested reader to the discussion in Qi et al. (2019) paper for more details on this point. We would be happy in any case to share our data, if the reviewer was willing to use it to complete his data set, as exemplified in the figure presented in the review.

Added Text (pp.10 L.1):

“Nevertheless the symmetry between M1 and M2 around the finite extension direction is not perfect. The angle between M2 and ED is generally larger than the angle between M1 and ED by 1 to 3°. The exception is the annealed sample TGI0.71, where the difference between the two is 17.4°, with M2 closer to ED than it should have been for a perfect symmetry. This change may be due to a post-deformation CPO evolution, due to grain growth during annealing. A small lag in the reorientation of the M2 submaximum relative to the M1 submaximum is also observed in other simple shear experiments (Bouchez and Duval, 1982; Qi et al., 2019). The limited number of experiments performed in the present study precludes a statistical analysis of this behavior. The evolution of the angle between M1 and M2 (φ) with increasing shear strain is, nevertheless, discussed in more detail in Qi et al. (2019), which present a comparison between observations in ice shear experiments results at different temperatures and numerical modeling.

Added Text (pp.17 L.17):

“Furthermore we report an offset angle between the M1 and M2 submaxima of 17.4° greater than what would be expected for a perfect symmetry to the finite extension direction. Other experiments, which didn't undergo annealing show a difference in angle of only 1-3° with the perfect symmetry. In the TGI0.71 annealed sample, M2 is much closer to M1, as would be expected for a higher finite shear strain. This could be interpreted as a sign of preferential growth of bulging nuclei with orientation closer to M1 than the bulk CPO of the sample before annealing.”

Scientific Discussion 2

The description/ documentation of the experimental set up needs to be improved. Please provide some key diagrams that show the experimental set up. Torsion is an important deformation kinematic and the torsion experiments you show here and the classic work of (Bouchez and Duval, 1982) represent significant contributions to our understanding of ice with direct application to polar ice sheets and glaciers. I believe that torsion is an important deformation kinematic to explore more fully in the future. The picture in (Duval, 1976) and the words in (Bouchez and Duval, 1982), (Duval, 1976) and presented here are insufficient for someone to reproduce the experimental set up. It would be great if you could present (maybe in supplementary information) some diagrams that show the mechanics of the deformation apparatus. There is one particular aspect that I think is of paramount importance. I think that this apparatus is constrained to deliver simple shear, with no shortening or extension normal to the shear plane. If this is the case I presume that the “platens”, that deliver the torque, are fixed so that they cannot move normal to the shear plane. This is important so that we can be clear which experiments are simple shear only, and which comprise simple shear with a component of shortening (or extension). This is not necessarily the same as having zero normal stress on the shear plane. (Li et al., 2000) (a key paper that is not cited in your work) point out that direct shear experiments using a “Jacka” rig, with the normal load set as zero still experience shortening/ extension normal to the shear plane (and that the magnitude depends on sample geometry). Furthermore they suggest that an experiment with fixed platens will generate shear plane normal stresses of 0.1 to 0.2MPa. In my view a constrained (by fixed platens) simple shear experiment is great - it’s a clear kinematic end member. We do need to be absolutely clear about the experimental kinematics and the implications the kinematics have for stress, rheology and microstructure. What are the kinematics and dynamics of naturally deforming ice systems is yet another matter. I can imagine some scenarios (e.g. ice stream margins) where perfect simple shear may occur and others (e.g. basal zones) where shear with shortening parallel to the shear plane occurs.

Response:

We added a scheme of the experimental setup in the supplementary material. The presented experiment is indeed a simple shear setup with fixed plates. The reviewer is right, the “platens”, that deliver the torque, are fixed so that they cannot move normal to the shear plane. Furthermore, the sample is held horizontally. Therefore, no extension or compression component of stress are delivered.

Added text : (pp.4 L.18):

The design of the torsion apparatus does not allow for displacements parallel to the rotation axis; the imposed deformation is therefore perfect simple shear. During the experiments, the evolution of the CPO under these fixed-end boundary conditions might produce axial stresses (Swift, 1947). The latter cannot be measured in the present apparatus, but polycrystal plasticity models indicate that these axial stresses may attain values similar to those of the shear stresses when the CPO is oblique to the imposed shear (Castelnau et al., 1996). A more precise description of the apparatus is provided in Supplementary.

Scientific Discussion 3

The mechanical data are a bit puzzling. The focus of this paper is the microstructure, and I don’t think the questions about the mechanical data affects substantially the microstructural observations and interpretations, but I would like to see a bit more analysis of the data. The key problem for me is that the applied shear stress should be the dominant control of the shear strain rate (whether secondary, tertiary or at a ~ given strain in transient creep), given that your temperature and starting materials were nominally the same for all experiments. A shear stress of 0.6MPa vs 0.50.5MPa should give a ~ doubling of strain rate (for n between 3 and 4). The secondary creep rate for TG10.42 (0.6MPa) is slower than that for TG10.71 (0.5MPa) and faster than TG10.2 (also 0.5MPa). In the text this is attributed to “variability of grain size and textures”. This could be true, but it needs to be unpicked in a bit more detail.

The method used to fabricate the starting material sounds the same as that we use (except that we do not anneal) as described in (Stern et al., 1997). We have looked at >10 samples of starting materials made by the same methods in four different labs (Otago, MIT, UPenn, UCL) and all have very very similar grain size distributions, mean grain size and random CPO; an example is in fig 1a in (Qi et al., 2017). I cannot see that the annealing will affect the CPO and annealing at consistent T and time should give the same grain size distribution. Do you have initial grain size data from more than one sample? We can estimate what grain size differences would be needed to explain the variations in secondary creep rate. The ratio of secondary creep rates of the two samples deformed at 0.5MPa is about 2 (estimated from slopes on fig: would be good to provide an enlargement of secondary creep region, as you have done for primary creep region).

Using the grain size exponent (-1.4) from (Goldsby, 2006; Goldsby and Kohlstedt, 2001) this would require the relative mean grain sizes of the two samples to be ~ 1.7. (e.g 1.5mm and 0.9mm). This grain size exponent may be a bit large. A more conservative estimate (related to similar starting materials) comes from using the peak stress (= secondary creep) data in (Qi et al., 2017), fig 3. This gives an ~ grain size exponent of -0.8, requiring a grain size ratio of ~2.3 (e.g 1.5mm and 0.65mm) to explain the strain rate differences at 0.5MPa. I am pretty sure that

your original grain sizes do not vary by a factor of ~2, so grain size is unlikely to provide an explanation for the variability in mechanical data.

Although it seems likely that your bulk CPO is random in all starting materials, it is worth considering whether the sample cross section contains enough grains to give the mechanical properties of a random CPO. This was clearly an issue for us deforming 1 inch diameter samples with a ~5mm grain size (Craw et al., 2018): in this case a cross section may contain only 10 or 20 grains and the peak stress (= secondary minimum) data do not have a systematic relationship to strain rate. In your case there should be ~ 500 grains in a 35mm diameter cross-section so I would have thought this effect is unlikely to be significant.

It seems unlikely to me that the variations in strain rate relate to variability in the starting material. In this case it's worth looking back at the experimental set up. How is stress transferred from the rotational drive platens (this needs describing- see point 2) to the sample? Is there a possibility that there is some slippage (frictional loss) or other parameter that varies from one sample to the next so that the torque is not all transferred to shear stress on the sample?

We have been a bit fast in proposing that initial grain size and texture could be at the origin of the difference in mechanical response between our different tests. In fact, although some slight variations of those two parameters are expected to occur from sample to sample, they are probably too small to justify the measured differences in strain rate. Unfortunately the starting CPO and grain size distribution was not measured for each sample. Nevertheless, we thank the reviewer for the comment on the number of grain limitation. Indeed, with a starting grain size of 0.7 mm we can expect 45-50 grains in diameter in our samples (and not 500). If we talk in terms of radii (were the gradient in shear is applied, the picture gets even worse, with only 23-25 grains. This could indeed have as strong influence on the strain rate which could explain the difference we see here.

We included in the new version of the manuscript a note to use these curves with cautions because of the points discussed above.

Added text (pp.7 L.19):

The significant variations observed in strain rate evolution with time between the different runs cannot be attributed to a variation in initial grain size, CPOs or in the applied torque alone (Table 1), but rather to coarse-grained microstructure of the samples, which resulted in less than 25 per radii. The strain/time curves presented in figure 1 are therefore useful to characterize each run creep regime independently, but should be used with care in comparison between different samples or with other experiments.

Scientific Discussion 4

*The **discussion of modeling** is rather black and white and superficial. Numerical models and physical experiments all have limiting boundary conditions. All models and experiments show us something and none match nature, primarily because we cannot access natural conditions and have uncertainties about natural boundary conditions. Linking physical experiments to numerical models is important as we have much more control on the boundary conditions in both cases: so we learn more about our understanding of processes. However the crucial thing for both experiments and models is that we are clear about what we learn from them. I think having a model that is able to simulate fully CPO and microstructure evolution at high strains is still a way off. All steps on the way to achieving this are valuable and a discussion that implicates that one model is right and another wrong is inappropriate: in demean what we learn from the models.*

I agree that the Etchecopar model as used in (Bouchez and Duval, 1982) matches quite well your data and most of the "hot" shear data (see the red symbols in M1-M2 angle vs shear strain graph posted earlier: Etchecopar model also plotted on this as hollow black squares). The problem is that these are the only data it fits, so if this model is applicable it tells us only part of the story. The model does not predict the drop off to single maxima by shear strain of 2 in (Li et al., 2000); maybe this is a kinematic difference between simple shear and simple shear plus some strain normal to shear. The model does not match the minimal "colder" data we have, most particularly the -30 data from (Qi et al., 2018). The FFT model (Lebensohn, 2001) gives a remarkable match to experimental observations of intragranular deformation at low strain (Grennerat et al., 2012; Lebensohn et al., 2009). This is the code used to simulate shear deformation in the models by (Llorens et al., 2016; Llorens et al., 2017). The fact that the same model works well at low strain and less well at high strain tells us something. The bulk CPOs in Lloren's models do not have double maxima, but the double maxima are there when only the high strain rate data are used (see Llorens, 2017 fig 5i) and the angle between maxima in the deformation only models evolves in a way that matches the -30 experimental data we have (Qi et al., 2018). Addition of recrystallization into the model changes the result, although not in a way that gives a really clear match to observations. There is no real conclusion here apart from this: both models and experiments are important. Probably most important is to design experiments that enable clear boundary condition matches to numerical models. That is the really beautiful thing

about the columnar ice work at low strain e.g. (Grennerat et al., 2012). At high strain and in shear matching of model and experimental boundary conditions is rather harder.

This response also takes into account the remark by Griera, Bons & Llorens,

We made use of the Etchecopar model just to highlight the likely role of subgrain boundaries in the process of accommodating basal glide of dislocations during simple shear of ice. To our point of view, this model can only explain that strain incompatibility accommodation processes are required to obtain the strong single maximum observed in the laboratory and in the field (Hudleston et al. 1977). We will be clearer about that in the text.

Considering FFT homogenization schemes as the one used by Llorens et al. (2017) and the one that we used in Grennerat et al. (2012) or self-consistent viscoplastic models (Castelnau et al. 1996), they stand on strain being produced by the activity of slip systems only. For ice, the only slip system for which there is experimental evidence of easy activation is the basal system. However, the basal slip system cannot, alone, produce a general type of deformation. Thus for maintaining strain compatibility, these homogenization approaches require the activation of the non-basal systems, namely, prismatic and pyramidal systems. Activation of these systems induces specific rotations of the crystals. This is the main reason why, unless extra mechanisms (which mimic the role of dynamic recrystallization in helping to enforce strain compatibility) are added to these models, such as in Wenk et al. (1999) or Signorelli and Tommasi (2015), the crystals never reach the stable position observed experimentally or in naturally deformed samples, in which the main slip system is parallel with the imposed macroscopic. Models, which do not include any strain compatibility relaxation process, as Llorens et al. (2017) produce a strong clustering of c-axes, similar in intensity to the one observed experimentally or in the field, but offset from the normal to the shear plane.

We do not pretend that polycrystal plasticity models are not useful. We just discuss that, by construction, the vertical single maximum cannot be reproduced in a model where deformation is fully accommodated by dislocation glide. In the experiments, other mechanisms do come into play. By consequence, yes, the comparison is very helpful to quantify the role of these mechanisms. The text has been modified to be more clear about this point. We also noticed a mistake. The reference about simple shear modeling of ice in simple shear is Castelnau et al; 1996, JGR. It has been modified in the text.

Added text: (pp.18 L15):

Pioneering work on 2D modeling of polycrystalline aggregates under simple shear by Etchecopar (1977) was able to reproduce the sub-maxima M1 and M2. This was simply done by considering a single slip system (basal slip system for ice) and adding an accommodation process by allowing cells to subdivide (polygonization) and undergo rigid body rotation. The very good agreement of this simplistic model with evolution of textures observed experimentally for ice under shear was emphasized by Bouchez and Duval (1982), who hypothesized that the polygonization processes in ice would be formation of GNDs and kink-bands. In our results few kink bands were observed, but the prevalence of GNDs at most finite shear strains suggests that Bouchez and Duval (1982) supposition is reasonable. Although Etchecopar (1977) is too simplistic to pretend reproducing every shear-induced textures in ice, it was useful to raise the likely role of polygonization as an efficient accommodation mechanism for solving strain incompatibility problems.

Modeling of shear in ice has been done by mean-field approaches as in (Castelnau et al., 1996) or more recently by full-field modeling as in (Llorens et al., 2016). Both works reproduced the formation of a strong single maximum texture from shear strain of about 0.4 and above. Nevertheless, neither orientation of this single maximum normal to the shear plane, nor the existence of two submaxima observed at lower strains in the field or experimentally are correctly reproduced. The fact that the single submaxima prescribed is inclined from the tangent to the shear plane is significant, and stands from the fact that these homogenization techniques require the activation of non-basal slip systems. The activation of secondary slip systems, whose contribution to strain has never been proven experimentally, induces a geometrical rotation of the crystal, that is responsible for the modeled inclination of the clustered CPO compared to the vertical. The activity of these secondary slip systems relative to the basal ones is controlled by a parameter that is arbitrarily defined (it has been defined in comparison to experimental observations in Castelnau et al. (1997), using the mean-field VPSC approach, and values different than the one chosen in the previously cited studies were obtained). The higher is non-basal activity, the softer is the mechanical response of the crystal to accommodate the imposed conditions. The geometrical constraint of crystal rotation under shear, owing to the activity of non-basal slip systems, can be artificially relaxed, such as in Wenk and Tomé (1999), by forcing the growth of selected grains, or as in Signorelli and Tommasi (2015), by an association of polygonization and local (within a grain) relaxation of the strain compatibility constraints.

By comparing these various modeling approaches, and their inclusion of recrystallization mechanisms, it appears that accommodation mechanisms, other than non-basal slip systems, must come into play to explain recrystallization induced shear textures in ice. Although we consider that fast grain boundary migration might be an efficient strain accommodation mechanisms, we suggest here that an efficient additional contribution to the texture reorientation, at the high homologous temperatures of our experimental studies (and the ones of Bouchez and Duval (1982) or Qi et al. (2017, 2019)), might well be nucleation assisted by polygonisation (or sub-grain boundary rotation).

Clarity of writing

The bulk of the text is well-written. The clarity of the writing is not as good in the discussion and not good at all in the conclusions.

The discussion would benefit from some shortening and restructuring. The discussion starts with a reminder of the key observational data and I think it would be very helpful to the reader if you added a schematic diagram to highlight these key observations. This would then give a clear framework for ongoing discussion.

The conclusions needs to have clear statements on what are the new factual observations and what are the interpretations of those observations.

Response :

We edited the discussion and conclusion to enhance the clarity. We have included bullet points in the conclusion

The abstract should be a concise summary of the new findings and some short statement about importance. The abstract contains an extended statement of background that is better placed in the introduction (it is in fact already in the introduction).

Response :

We feel that a very short background in the abstract can be relevant for some readers not coming from an Earth Science or glaciology background. To shorten it we edited the abstract to remove the background statement on modeling.

I would go for a simpler title: “Evolution in polycrystalline ice microstructure during progressive high temperature shear” ????

Response :

We thanks the reviewer for this suggestion and we changed the title to :

“Recrystallization processes, microstructure and texture evolution in polycrystalline ice during high temperature simple shear”

Technical/ terminological/ picky things

5. It would be great if you could show full grain size distributions (frequency plots). You are correct that the mean is not a great scalar to represent recrystallized grain size statistics. Grain size distributions could be represented as an extra row in figs 2 and 4 (it would be nice to compare the AITA and EBSD measures- I don't expect them to be the same: see (Cross et al., 2017))

Response:

During the analysis of the data we found that due to the small number of experimental runs (3 with $\gamma_{max} > 0.2$ without annealing) made in this study the comparison of grain size frequency plots was not providing enough clear information to be included in the main manuscript. We have added the grain size frequency plots for both AITA and EBSD as supplementary material.

6. Please put the number of grains that correspond to each pole figure on figs 2 and 4 or in a table. This is important in comparing data sets.

Response: We have included the number of segmented grains in figure 2 and 4.

7. If you can, show point stereonets as well as contoured nets. The contoureing hides a lot of information.

Response:

We added point stereonets in supplementary materials and kept the contoured ones in the main manuscript to maintain the readability of figures 2 and 4.

8. The statement on page 2, line 26 states that the “texture can increase shear strain rate (word “rate” missing) by a factor of... “. There is a clear correlative relationship of weakening and CPO but a causative relationship is not established. Weakening in ice from secondary to tertiary creep correlates with development of a CPO. It is intuitive that the CPO developed in shear facilitates further shear. However similar weakening occurs in cold axial shortening where the CPO (cluster of c-axes parallel to shortening) would intuitively make further axial shortening harder e.g. -30 experiments right hand column of fig 3 in (Craw et al., 2018), mechanical data in fig 10. Other changes correlate with weakening, most particularly grain size changes (as documented in your paper and elsewhere). In the geological literature grain size reduction is often thought of as the main cause of weakening. In reality CPO, grain size and other microstructural parameters all change in correlation to change in mechanical behavior. It is unlikely that the mechanical evolution is caused by changes to just one of these sample parameters.

Response:

We agree with the reviewer and have changed the text accordingly to underline that weakening does correlate with the evolution CPO as well as other factors like the grain size.

9. I don't think that Kamb's idea that CPO is independent of T , strain rate or stress is confirmed (P3, L11). The data in (Qi et al., 2018) show that in shear the CPO changes with T . (Qi et al., 2017) show that in axial shortening CPO is sensitive to stress or strain rate (the two cannot be separated). It is reasonable that the stress/ rate effect will also apply in shear. Using Huddleston's data in comparison to experiments is complex as both T and rate change. The lower rate has a similar effect to deforming hotter.

Response:

Kamb (1972) states on his simple shear results on pp.233 :

"Texture is sensitive to temperature, whereas fabric is not: recrystallization gives a distinctly coarser texture at the melting point than at temperatures only a few degrees below, whereas the fabrics developed under the two conditions are nearly the same."

With the "texture" corresponding to the geoscience definition of grain shape and spatial relationships of grains, and "fabric" to CPO.

We agree with the reviewer nonetheless that this conclusion is based on a small amount of results and on a limited temperature range (0 to -4°C in Kamb's work) and we rephrased this part of the text to address this point and refer to Qi et al. (2017,2019) work that shows a temperature and stress dependence of the CPO in both uniaxial and direct shear experiments.

Added text (pp.3 L7):

Most of the knowledge on the microscopic processes occurring in polycrystalline ice under simple shear deformation is still mostly limited to deformation results from data published over 30 years ago (Kamb, 1959, 1972; Duval, 1981; Bouchez and Duval, 1982; Burg et al., 1986). The tools and methods used in these studies to analyze the CPO were often manual and highly dependent on the operator experience. Electron Back-Scattered Diffraction (EBSD) and Automatic Ice CPO Analyzer (AITA) can now provide high spatial and angular resolution quantitative data, enabling a global and statistical study of the processes accommodating strain at the micro-scale. Recent experiments (Qi et al., 2017, 2019) using these new characterization techniques have shed new light in some aspects of the question. They have, for instance, disproven the hypothesis by Kamb (1972) that CPO evolution in ice mainly depends on the finite shear strain and is not sensitive to temperature, strain rate, or stress. Indeed, Qi et al. (2017) that showed that during axial compression the final CPO is sensitive to stress or strain rate, and by Qi et al. (2019) which showed that the rate of evolution of the CPO in simple shear is sensitive to temperature.

10. The statement on page 5, line 8 is incorrect. Cryo EBSD of ice is not (in general) limited to samples of ~10 by 20mm. In terms of published data there is a map in (Prior et al., 2015) (fig 12) of 80 by 30mm, the data in (Wongpan et al., 2018) has maps up to 40 by 40mm etc. Most of the CPO data we publish from experimental samples come from 25.4 by 40mm samples, our shear data CPOs in (Qi et al., 2018) are from elliptical shear surfaces of 25 by ~ 30mm. For natural samples we routinely work on samples of ~60 by 40mm and with suitable cold stage modifications I don't see why 100 by 50mm is not achievable. EBSD maps with the same dimensions as your AITA maps are possible now. If the Montpellier machine has a sample size limitation and this limitation is important to the paper, then link the limitation to that instrument, otherwise just delete the statement about size limitation. I guess if it the Montpellier machine does have a limitation it must be to do with cold stage tethering (gas pipes) or camera position limiting WD, as the sub-stage is designed for very large stages/samples (Seward et al., 2002).

Response:

The reviewer is right and we changed the text accordingly.

11. Please provide enough information for the reader to understand how surface sublimation is managed. What I mean by this is; how is frost removed from the sample. There will be a frost layer on the sample surface as it goes into the SEM that would prevent EBSD (needs only ~ 10-20nm to do this). The two main ways of removing the frost are to heat the stage (Iliescu et al., 2004; Weikusat et al., 2011) or to cycle through pressure (Prior et al., 2015). I recall Andrea Tommasi telling me that the sample is just put in the SEM and it works. In this case I infer that the sublimation to remove the frost occurs on the down pressure cycle and that the sample is warm enough when put in the SEM to give a path through PT space where the sample goes into the vapour field (see fig7 in (Prior et al., 2015). In this case it would be useful to know the sample temperature on insertion and the pressure sequence: do you go to high vacuum then to controlled gas pressure or directly to controlled gas pressure?

Response:

We use a different technique for surface preparation than the ones described by the reviewer, where we carefully remove the initial frost by carefully shaving the surface of the sample using microtome blades at -60°C before rapidly putting the sample in the SEM. We do not cycle in pressure or temperature and we never observed any issue with either sublimation or frost if we keep the sample below the sublimation temperature, which is at -60.6°C

at 1 Pa. We feel that we provided already all the details in the manuscript and also in other manuscripts like Montagnat et al. (2015).

References:

Montagnat, M., T. Chauve, F. Barou, A. Tommasi, B. Beausir, and C. Fressengeas. 2015. "Analysis of Dynamic Recrystallization of Ice from EBSD Orientation Mapping." *Frontiers in Earth Sciences*. <http://www.gm.univ-montp2.fr/PERSO/tommasi/publications.html>.

12. Please say in figure captions if pole figures are equal area or equal angle. I think they are equal area from the shapes of maxima (the projection affects shape analysis of maxima).

Response:

We changed the captions in figure 2 and 4 accordingly.

13. It would be really cool to see a radial section of the sample: to see how microstructure changes with strain in a single sample (e.g. see (King et al., 2011). I'm not suggesting this is needed for this paper- just something cool to do.

Response:

This response is similar to the one given to reviewer 1.

One axial section was measured with EBSD, but due to the coarse grain size discussed above, it was impossible to fractionate the section in different segments with 'supposed' constant finite shear strains and still have a high enough number of measurements to obtain representative estimates of the CPO intensity. Therefore, we could not use radial sections to estimate the CPO evolution with increasing strain.

14. There are a few key references on experimental shear of ice that are missing and should be cited. These include (Budd et al., 2013; Li et al., 2000; Wilson and Peterzell, 2012).

Response:

We included these in the revised version of the manuscript.

Added text (pp.3 L.2):

"A similar evolution was observed in more recent shear experiments on artificial ice polycrystals by Li et al. (2000) and Budd et al. (2013), as well as by Wilson and Peterzell (2012) which analyzed the influence of the initial CPO and the importance of recrystallization processes on the CPO evolution. "

15. There are several published papers that show a lack of CPO change in rocks during annealing. Some of these should be cited.(Augenstein and Burg, 2011; Heilbronner and Tullis, 2002; Ree and Park, 1997). I know there are others in calcite and olivine but can't find them just now.

Response:

We thank the reviewer and included these in the revised version of the manuscript.

16. Throughout this paper the term "texture" is used with the meaning common in metallurgy and materials science. There is a very small community of geoscientists who use "texture" in this way and no glaciologists that I know of. For the vast majority of the geoscience community "texture" means the spatial relationships of phases and grains and their internal structures. To most geoscientists, texture is what you would see down a microscope (in a petrographic examination for example) and is broadly synonymous with the term microstructure. The terms "crystallographic preferred orientation" (CPO: which you use in the intro) or "lattice preferred orientation" (LPO) are much better as they are explicit. If you want this paper to have wider readership/ uptake, remove the word texture throughout and replace with CPO. It is also worth (in the intro) relating this terminology to the word "fabric" and/or the acronym "COF" (crystal orientation fabric) as commonly used in glaciology. I avoid using the term fabric (except in explanations of how terminology matches up) as metallurgists use this term to mean microstructure.

Response:

We agree with the reviewer and replaced texture by CPO in the entire manuscript.

17. It is not really clear what are the observations you use to constrain the dimensions of the bulging nucleus.

Response:

We use the similarity in the microstructures observed in the present experiments with those described in Chauve et al. (2017) to suggest that bulging associated with formation of low angle grain boundaries may be an efficient

nucleation mechanism. The increase in the c-axis component in the WBV of the low angle boundaries in the first 100 μm from the grain boundary is an indicator of the presence of sub-grain boundary loops with c-component GNDs, which as described in Chauve et al. (2017) play an essential role in closing the bulges. Thus the width we extrapolate for a maximum bulging nucleus of 100 μm , which is controlled by the length scale over which the stresses are high enough to activate the hard non-basal slip systems and close bulging grains.

18. I don't follow the discussion related to nucleation in the section where the annealing is discussed. Grain size increases during the annealing so nucleation is unnecessary. If you are talking about relationships that might be relevant to nucleation prior to the annealing then this needs to be made clear.

Response:

We do not suggest that nucleation necessary occurs during annealing. We just highlight the fact that grain boundary migration during annealing does not drastically modify the texture. Therefore, new grains present prior to annealing, with low defect density and greater chance to grow through GBM, must have had orientations close to M1 and M2. This suggest bulging as the dominant mechanism for nucleation at the conditions of our experiments, as it tends to create grains with a closer orientation to the parent grain.

We rephrase this section to make our point clearer.

Added text : (pp.17 L.15)

“This suggest bulging as the dominant mechanism for nucleation at the conditions of our experiments (prior to annealing), as it tends to create grains with a closer orientation to the parent grains. Furthermore we report an offset angle between the M1 and M2 submaxima of 17.4° greater than what would be expected for a perfect symmetry to the finite extension direction. Other experiments, which didn't undergo annealing show a difference in angle of only 1-3° with the perfect symetry. In the TGI0.71 annealed sample, M2 is much closer to M1, as would be expected for a higher finite shear strain. This could be interpreted as a sign of preferential growth of bulging nuclei with orientation closer to M1 than the bulk CPO of the sample before annealing

”

19. Bulges cut off by rotation of a subgrain boundary was first suggested (described from see through experiments) by Janos Urai (I think). You should reference (Urai et al., 1986).

Response:

We included this reference in the discussion (pp.17 L. 33) of the revised version of the manuscript.

20. Spontaneous (random) nucleation? I have a problem with this - it is a bit of magic with no physically realistic explanation.

Response:

Spontaneous random nucleation was first hypothesized by Duval et al. (2012), who proposed that the energy for nucleation is provided by internal stress field associated with dislocations pile-ups. CPO data corroborating the existence of this process as a secondary nucleation mechanism, the dominant one being the association of bulging and subgrain rotation, were presented by Chauve et al. (2017).

*21. The conditions of your experiments are not close to those in cold glaciers and ice streams (page 18, line 5). Your **slowest** transient strain rate is $2.7\text{E}-7\text{s}^{-1}$ which corresponds to a 100m thick shear zone having a velocity difference across it of 850m/yr. The tertiary strain rate in your high strain experiment corresponds to $\sim 2700\text{m/yr}$ difference across a 100m shear zone. I'm not so familiar with temperate glaciers but such shear rates do not exist in polar ice sheet systems eg (Bons et al., 2018; Rignot et al., 2011). Even fast ice stream shear margins max out below $1\text{E}-9\text{s}^{-1}$ (Bindschadler et al., 1996; Jackson, 1999; Jackson and Kamb, 1997). The strain rate has a significant effect on the microstructure and the CPO (Hirth and Tullis, 1992; Qi et al., 2017; Tullis, 1972): increasing strain rate has a comparable effect to decreasing temperature. It is not possible to do an experiment to significant strain at natural conditions. Instead experiments need to provide scaling relationships that allow us to predict the effects of T, strain rate (stress) etc on rheology and CPO/microstructure (with the complication that there are feebacks where CPO/microstructure affect the rheology).*

Response:

We thank the reviewer for this useful comment and changed the sentence in the revised version of the manuscript as:

Changed text (pp.19. L.28)

“The experiments, performed at high temperature, up to shear strains of 2, favored dynamic recrystallization observed in natural conditions with slower strain rates such as cold glaciers, ice streams, and some deep ice core areas.”