

# JGR Planets

## COMMENTARY

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### Key Points:

- A new model predicts small windblown ripples should grow to be meter-scale on Mars
- That model cannot explain some observations that appear to be more consistent with an aerodynamic origin for large Martian ripples
- Answering remaining questions on large-ripple formation will require new observations, both in situ and from wind-tunnel experiments

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## An Evolving Understanding of Enigmatic Large Ripples on Mars

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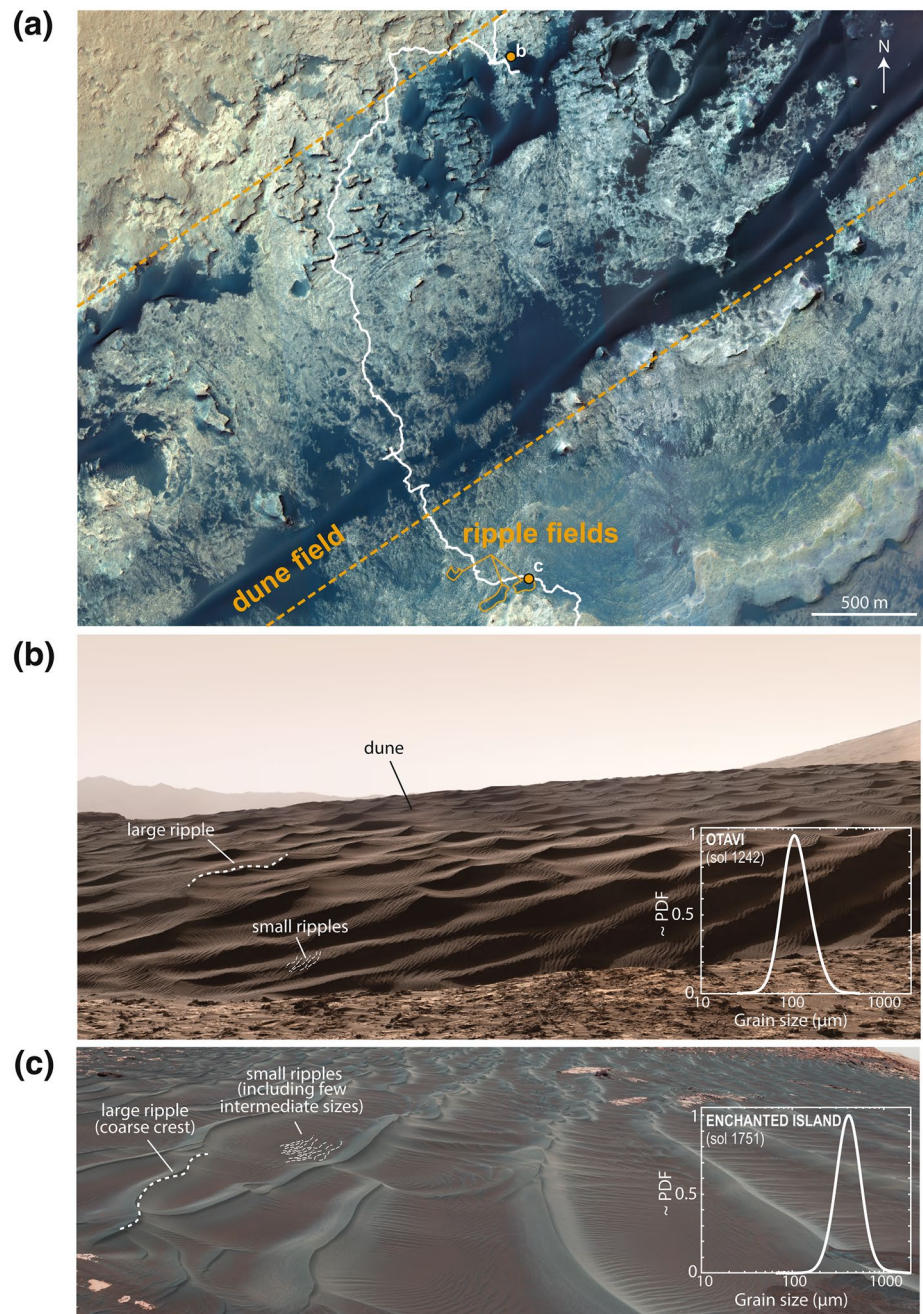
**Abstract** Two scales of ripples form in fine sand on Mars. The larger ripples were proposed to have an equilibrium size set by an aerodynamic process, making them larger under thinner atmospheres and distinct from smaller impact ripples. Sullivan et al. (2020, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JE006485>) show that large ripples can develop in a numerical model due to Mars' low atmospheric pressure. Although their proposed growth-limiting mechanism is consistent with an aerodynamic process, they argue that the ripples in their model are simply large versions of impact ripples, not a separate class of ripples. Here, we explore this debate by synthesizing recent advances in large-ripple formation (including initiation and subsequent evolution to equilibrium). Although significant knowledge gaps remain, it is clear that large Martian ripples in well sorted sand are larger under thinner atmospheres, and thus remain a powerful paleoclimate indicator.

**Plain Language Summary** Earth's sandy deserts host small ripples and large dunes, but Mars' dune fields also host a third type of sedimentary pattern—large ripples with meter-scale spacings. The large ripples were previously proposed to be distinct from small Earth-like ripples, and their size was suggested to result from the low atmospheric pressure on Mars. In contrast, Sullivan et al. (2020, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JE006485>) show that, in a numerical model, small ripples can grow large on Mars. Here, we explore this debate by synthesizing recent advances in large-ripple formation. While significant knowledge gaps remain, it is clear that large Martian ripples in well sorted sand are larger under thinner atmospheres, and thus remain a powerful tool to probe Mars' ancient climate.

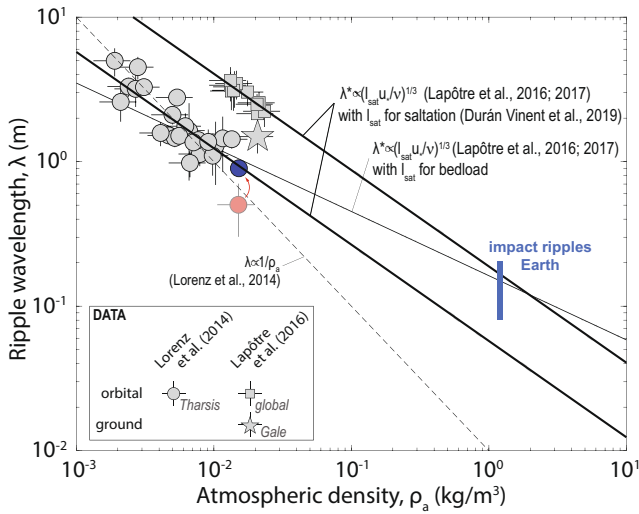
In December 2015, the Curiosity rover made tantalizing observations of windblown bedforms as it arrived near the first dune field ever visited on another planet (Figure 1a; Bridges & Ehlmann, 2017; Lapôtre & Rampe, 2018). In particular, puzzling ripples with consistent meter-scale wavelengths, found both on top of dunes and outside of the dune field in isolated ripple fields (Figure 1a), caught the attention of scientists and space enthusiasts alike. These large Martian ripples are far larger than the more familiar decimeter-wavelength wind ripples found on Earth. Such large ripples were known to be widespread on Mars from orbital imagery (Bridges et al., 2012b) and some had even been seen from the ground with the Mars Exploration Rovers (e.g., Greeley et al., 2004; Sullivan et al., 2005, 2008). However, Curiosity's observations were unique; this was the first time that large ripples were seen to form concurrently with small, decimeter-scale ripples, which are too small to be seen from orbit, and large sand dunes.

Three coexisting scales of bedforms challenged existing models for ripple formation, which were developed to match observations on Earth of a single scale of small ripples forming on larger sand dunes. Prior to Curiosity's observations, the large Martian ripples were thought to be equivalent to small terrestrial *impact ripples*—formed by a particle impact-driven instability—but were larger on Mars because sand grains experience longer saltation trajectories as a result of the lower gravitational acceleration and thin atmosphere (e.g., Almeida et al., 2008; Durán Vinent et al., 2014). However, Curiosity revealed that the large ripples are not simply larger versions of the small ripples; they in fact coexist with the small ripples.

Lapôtre et al. (2016), Ewing et al. (2017), and Baker et al. (2018a) established that small and large ripples were active simultaneously, as shown by the absence of reworking of their respective crest lines and direct observations of the timing of their migration (from the ground and from orbit). On Earth, large ripples can form in poorly sorted sand (called *coarse-grained ripples*, *megaripples*, or sometimes *granule ripples*; these terms are used descriptively here, without implications for the transport modes of different



**Figure 1.** (a) HiRISE color mosaic showing Curiosity's traverse (white line) throughout the Bagnold Dune Field (bounded by dashed orange lines) and around ripple fields outside of the dune field (solid orange lines). Orange circles indicate the locations of panels b and c. (b) Mastcam mosaic of Namib Dune (sol 1,192) on Mars, showing two distinct populations of ripples (credit: NASA/JPL-Caltech/MSSS/Thomas Appéré). Inset: Kernel density of grain sizes measured at the Otavi target (sol 1,242; Weitz et al., 2018). (c) Mastcam mosaic of transverse coarse-grained ripples at the Enchanted Island site (sol 1,752) within a sand patch. Few coarse-grained ripples with wavelengths in the ~20–80-cm range are present near the image center (Lapôtre et al., 2018). There, color differences between crest and troughs are very clear, even without significant color stretching. Inset: Kernel density of grain sizes measured at the Enchanted Island target, a coarse-grained ripple crest (sol 1,751; Weitz et al., 2018).



**Figure 2.** Wavelength of large Martian ripples as a function of atmospheric density (adapted from Figure S10 in Lapôte et al., 2016). Red circle is a data point from Lorenz et al. (2014) indicating a mean ripple wavelength  $\sim 2$  HiRISE pixels across; blue circle is our rough estimate of minimum ripple size upon inspection of the same image.

grain-size fractions) where a coarser grain population armors the crest of large ripples (e.g., Figures 3 and 7 of Sullivan et al. [2020] and Figure 1 of Lorenz [2020]). The Martian ripples, however, were found in well sorted fine sand (e.g., Ehlmann et al., 2017; Ewing et al., 2017; Lapôte et al., 2016; Sullivan & Kok, 2017; Weitz et al., 2018). Lapôte et al. (2016) and Ewing et al. (2017) showed that both large ripples and small ripples in well sorted sand had relatively uniform and distinct size distributions and lacked bedforms in the  $\sim 20$ – $80$  cm range, suggesting that the two scales of ripples had different equilibrium sizes. They postulated that the two scales of ripples require different mechanisms to set their distinct equilibrium sizes.

Some large Martian ripples have sinuous crests and highly asymmetric profiles with grainfall and grainflow (avalanche)-dominated slip faces, and exert a strong topographic control on the local wind field as evidenced by deflection of small ripples (Figure 1b; Lapôte et al., 2016). Because these characteristics are more similar to current ripples formed in flowing water, as compared to ballistically formed impact ripples, Lapôte et al. (2016) hypothesized that the equilibrium size of large Martian ripples may be controlled by an aerodynamic mechanism, where wind drag at the ripple crest is important in limiting its size, and they used the term *wind-drag ripples*.

Since the work of Lorenz et al. (2014) who compiled the wavelength of ripples spanning 23 km of elevation range in the Tharsis region, it was known that the wavelength of large ripples on Mars is larger with decreasing atmospheric pressure. In addition to the Lorenz et al. (2014) data set, Lapôte et al. (2016) compiled the wavelength of large Martian ripples globally, where they are found in association with dark-sand dunes. They showed that the wavelength of large Martian ripples,  $\lambda$ , follows roughly the same relationship with atmospheric density as what is expected of current ripples forming under water on Earth (Figure 2)—that is, that  $\lambda^* = \frac{\lambda u_*}{\nu}$  (with  $u_*$  the wind shear velocity and  $\nu$  the kinematic viscosity of the atmosphere) is proportional to  $\chi^{1/3}$ , where  $\chi = \text{Re}_p \sqrt{\tau_*}$  with  $\text{Re}_p$  the particle Reynolds number and  $\tau_*$  the Shields number. Lapôte et al. (2017a) further noted that  $\chi$ , which they called the Yalin number, is also proportional to a Reynolds number,  $\frac{l_{\text{sat}} u_*}{\nu}$ , where the length scale,  $l_{\text{sat}} \propto \sqrt{\frac{u_*^2 d}{Rg}}$ , is a proposed typical saturation length scale for bedload transport (e.g., Charru et al., 2013; also similar to Durán Vinent et al., 2019), with  $d$  the grain diameter,  $g$  the acceleration of gravity, and  $R = \frac{(\rho_s - \rho)}{\rho}$  the specific submerged density of sediment (where  $\rho_s$  and  $\rho$  are the sediment and fluid densities, respectively).

Lapôte et al. (2016) used the term “wind drag” generically to hypothesize that the kinematic viscosity of the wind plays an important role in limiting the equilibrium size of large Martian ripples (Figure 2); they did not detail the exact growth-limiting mechanism. This terminology is admittedly confusing (and has led to confusion in Sullivan et al. [2020]) because Bagnold (1941) also used the term “wind-drag ripples”, but his intention was to describe ripples that emerged under sediment transport that was primarily driven by wind drag rather than particle impacts (see also Wilson, 1972; Yizhaq et al., 2020). However, because of the low atmospheric pressure on Mars, there is little doubt that saltation-driven impacts control the continuation, and perhaps even the onset (Sullivan et al., 2017), of sediment transport on Mars—not wind drag (Sullivan & Kok, 2017). This apparent contradiction led Sullivan et al. (2020) to conclude that large ripples cannot be wind-drag ripples because sediment transport on Mars is controlled by particle-impact-driven processes. However, despite the perhaps unfortunate commonality of descriptors—impact and wind drag—the processes that determine sediment initial motion and ripple initiation can be independent from the processes

that determine ripple size. To be clear, we agree with Sullivan et al. (2020) that large ripples cannot be wind-drag ripples per Bagnold's usage of the term. Although this point was not explicitly stated in Lapôtre et al. (2016), it was implicitly clear through the use of the impact threshold velocity (Kok, 2010) in their scaling relationship for ripple size rather than the fluid threshold. Regardless of whether initial sediment motion occurs by wind-drag or impact processes, the explanation for Curiosity's observation of two scales of coexisting ripples remains a matter of debate.

To address this controversy, Sullivan et al. (2020) combined sediment mass balance with inputs from a particle saltation model (Kok & Renno, 2009) to simulate the time evolution of an initially flat bed seeded with small topographic defects to trigger ripple formation. They did not implement a growth-limiting mechanism in their model, such that modeled ripples grew indefinitely, which precluded a comparison to the wavelengths of ripples observed on Mars and to the scaling analysis of Lapôtre et al. (2016). To demonstrate that the model is able to reproduce the coexistence of multiple scales of ripples, Sullivan et al. (2020) seeded their ripple profile a second time with small topographic defects once large ripples had already evolved; the defects developed a second generation of small ripples that piggy-backed onto the now larger first-generation ripples. Because, under their model, large ripples can readily grow from small impact-generated ripples, Sullivan et al. (2020) argued that large Martian ripples are the same as the small impact ripples, they just had more time to grow. However, while the model can produce two scales of growing ripples, the ripples did not reach an equilibrium size. Rather, their relative scales were determined precisely by the imposed timing of seeding the profile with defects. For example, for a continuous defect-seeding of the evolving profile, as would be the case in nature, one might expect the model to produce a full continuum of ripple sizes. Their results are in contrast to rover and orbiter observations on Mars that show that both the small and large ripples stay approximately the same size as they migrate in well sorted sand (e.g., Ewing et al., 2017; Vaz et al., 2017, Figure 1b). Thus, the question of why Mars hosts two distinct coexisting scales of ripples in well sorted sand remains unanswered.

Instead of implicating separate mechanisms that set the size of the small and large ripples, Sullivan et al. (2020) speculate, but did not model, that two scales would inherently arise because fetch is insufficient for small ripples to grow between two consecutive large-ripple crests. This hypothesis remains untested. Given the observed wavelengths and migration rate of small (e.g., Baker et al., 2018a) and large (e.g., Bridges et al., 2012a) ripples, it is at least geometrically possible that several ripples with >40 cm wavelengths could fit between two consecutive large-ripple crests; but these intermediate ripples have not been observed in fine sand on Mars (Lapôtre et al., 2016; Ewing et al., 2017). Such "gap" ripples do exist, as shown by Sullivan et al. (2020) and Lorenz (2020), but only where there is a population of coarser grains concentrating at ripple crests. Although there likely is a continuum of processes that genetically relate the large ripples found in fine dune sand and those with coarse-grained crests found in ripple fields (Figure 1a; Lapôtre et al., 2018), small and large ripples were both formed in fine sand within the dune field observed by Curiosity, where a coarse-grained cap did not exist (e.g., Ewing et al., 2017; Weitz et al., 2018).

Sullivan et al. (2020) note that color differences between the crests and bulk of coarse-grained ripples, found in ripple fields outside of the dune field in Gale crater (Figure 1a), correlate with measured grain size (e.g., Figure 1c), and argue that this correlation indicates that a coarser population must also exist at the crests of ripples migrating onto the dunes (Figure 1b), where subtle color differences can also be seen from highly stretched Mastcam images. Sullivan et al. (2020) discard a direct measurement of fine sand that had been performed over a large-ripple crest on top of a dune because it was made near the lateral tip of a large-ripple crest near the crests of small ripples (Figure A3D in Sullivan et al., 2020), and may thus have been more representative of the small ripple crests than of the large ripple itself. However, many more grain-size measurements have now been performed and reported (Weitz et al., 2018), corroborating that dune sand is relatively well sorted and finer than medium sand at large ripple crests (e.g., Kibnas, Flume Ridge, Waweig, Ripogenus, Avery Peak targets; Weitz et al., 2018). The coarser fraction mantling the crests of large ripples in ripple fields (as shown by Sullivan et al., 2020) was also observed to concentrate at the upwind edge of the dune field (e.g., Barby target; Weitz et al., 2018), consistent with lags commonly observed at the edge of terrestrial dune fields (Ewing et al., 2017), where coarser grains cannot move upstoss due to the effect of adverse slopes on sand flux (e.g., Iversen & Rasmussen, 1999; Tsoar et al., 1996). Migrating "megaripples,"

interpreted as coarse-grained ripples by Silvestro et al. (2020), stop migrating when approaching the stoss slope of active dunes, confirming that coarser fractions cannot be transported upstoss into dune fields.

It seems more likely that the subtle color differences between ripple crests and bulk sand on top of dunes, reflect compositional differences rather than sharp grain-size contrasts as are observed in ripple fields (Figure 1c). All compositional measurements performed over windblown sands to date, including within the dune field investigated by Curiosity, revealed mineral sorting (e.g., Achilles et al., 2017; Cousin et al., 2017; Ehlmann et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2017, 2018; Lapôtre et al., 2017b; O'Connell-Cooper et al., 2017, 2018; Rampe et al., 2018), with large-ripple crests being enriched in mafic phases (explaining their bluer hue). A good question then is whether compositional sorting over dunes—with denser mafic grains concentrating at ripple crests—could have an equivalent effect to coarse grains in ripple fields. It seems unlikely; for a given grain size and given typical basaltic mineral densities, mafic grains could only weigh  $\sim 1.15$  times more than bulk sand, at most, whereas for a given composition,  $350\ \mu\text{m}$  grains are  $\sim 12.7$  times heavier than  $150\ \mu\text{m}$  grains.

In contrast with the model of Sullivan et al. (2020), Durán Vinent et al. (2019) proposed two aerodynamic mechanisms to explain both the initiation and equilibrium size of large Martian ripples. Under their model, the minimum wavelength of ripples is dictated by the condition that any spatial shift between the locations of maximum bed stress and the ripple crest must exceed the saturation length. The largest achievable wavelength, in turn, would be dictated by an aerodynamic response in the inner boundary layer (e.g., Abrams & Hanratty, 1985; Charru et al., 2013; Frederick & Hanratty, 1988) that shifts the location of maximum bed shear stress from upwind to downwind of the ripple crest. Importantly, only the scaling relationship of Lapôtre et al. (2016) and model of Durán Vinent et al. (2019) can quantitatively explain the equilibrium wavelength of large ripples. Moreover, these theories also can explain the absence of large ripples on Earth in fine sand, as putative drag ripples are expected to be of similar size as terrestrial impact ripples under terrestrial atmospheric pressure (Figure 2).

Although their model did not create equilibrium ripples, Sullivan et al. (2020) speculated that wind drag may play a role in limiting ripple growth. Bagnold (1941) hypothesized that impact ripples on Earth grow in size until they become just tall enough to intersect wind speeds capable of entraining grains past ripple crests through longer transport trajectories, preventing any further growth. Manukyan and Prigozhin (2009) also recognized that an increased probability of entrainment of the grains at the crest may contribute to the saturation of ripple growth, and successfully modeled the evolution of equilibrium impact ripples. Building on these hypotheses, Sullivan et al. (2020) argued that, owing to the thinner atmosphere on Mars, dynamic wind pressure at the crests of smaller ripples is low, allowing for grains to accumulate there. Intuitively, this growth-limiting mechanism might lead to equilibrium ripple heights that covary with atmospheric density—as is observed in the data and is predicted by the scaling relationship of Lapôtre et al. (2016). Further supporting the latter speculation, recent Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulations also demonstrated that higher wind kinematic viscosities decrease turbulence within the boundary layer along a range of ripple sizes, such that lower atmospheric densities translate into lower shear stresses at ripple crests, possibly allowing them to grow larger and longer (Siminovich et al., 2019; Yizhaq et al., 2021).

Lapôtre et al. (2017a) noted that the Lapôtre et al. (2016) formulation of  $\chi$  is well suited for bedload transport (i.e., where grain motion is dominated by rolling, sliding, and short nonballistic hopping—most similar to the *creep* population in the eolian literature), as might be appropriate in some places on Mars where eolian transport is thought to be of relatively low energy (Baker et al., 2018a, 2018b; Lapôtre et al., 2018; Sullivan & Kok, 2017). Like Lapôtre et al. (2016), Durán Vinent et al. (2019) also mathematically related the stability of large Martian ripples to  $\chi$  but using a formulation of the saturation length that scales with the average hop length of saltation trajectories ( $l_{\text{sat}} = \frac{\rho_s u_t^2}{g(\rho_s - \rho)}$ , where  $u_t$  is the impact threshold shear velocity).

Using  $l_{\text{sat}}$  for saltation from Durán Vinent et al. (2019) in the scaling relationship of Lapôtre et al. (2016) reveals a good fit to the data (Figure 2;  $\lambda^* \approx 600 \left( \frac{l_{\text{sat}} u_*}{\nu} \right)^{1/3}$  for the global compilation of large ripples in dark sand). When using  $l_{\text{sat}}$  for saltation, large ripple wavelength is predicted to scale with  $\left( \frac{u_t}{u_*} \right)^{2/3}$ , such that

$$\lambda \sim (2.6 - 4.1) \left( \frac{u_i}{u_*} \right)^{2/3} \text{ for typical values of atmospheric density at rover landing sites } (\sim 0.01\text{--}0.02 \text{ kg/m}^3).$$

The effect of shear velocity on ripple size is thus negligible when wind speeds are close to the impact threshold, as is thought to be largely the case on Mars (e.g., Sullivan & Kok, 2017). Importantly, this formulation of saturation length is quantitatively consistent with observations and reconciles the discrepancies noted by Sullivan et al. (2020) between likely wind speeds and reconstructed  $u_*$  from bedform wavelengths.

As shown in Lap tre et al. (2016; Figure S10) and also noted by Sullivan et al. (2020) and Lorenz (2020), the Lap tre et al. (2016) scaling relationship more robustly fits data collected by Lorenz et al. (2014) from Tharsis than data collected by Lap tre et al. (2016) from dark-sand dunes globally (Figure 2). Tharsis ripples appear different than ripples observed over dark-sand dunes, being overall less sharp and of higher albedo. Weaker winds on Tharsis, for example, could promote near-bed transport and the accumulation of dust between transport events, whereas more active ripples found in dune fields would be dominated by saltation. Differences could also result from measurement bias; Lorenz et al. (2014) reported a mean wavelength of 0.5 m at their lowermost measurement elevation; however, the corresponding HiRISE image has a ground sample distance of 28.3 cm/pix (projected pixel scale of 25 cm/pix; HiRISE repository, [https://hirise.lpl.arizona.edu/ESP\\_011928\\_2025](https://hirise.lpl.arizona.edu/ESP_011928_2025)) such that resolving objects less than  $\sim 85$  cm across is challenging. In a cursory reinspection of the image, we found few linear features less than 3 pixels across and noted an abundance of ripples with wavelengths  $> \sim 90$  cm. For the sake of argument, we note that changing this single data point to 90 cm (Figure 2) would strengthen the comparison of the Lap tre et al. (2016) scaling relation, using the saturation-length formulation of Dur n Vinent et al. (2019), to the data of Lorenz et al. (2014). The mechanistic relation is indistinguishable from the  $\lambda \propto 1/\rho$  correlation proposed by Lorenz et al. (2014) and Lorenz (2020) under Mars-like pressures.

Despite some disagreements outlined here, the community is converging toward an aerodynamic control on the equilibrium wavelength of large ripples (Lap tre et al., 2016), whether ripple size is limited by longer grain trajectories at ripple crests (Sullivan et al., 2020) or a shift in the boundary layer dynamics (Dur n Vinent et al., 2019). However, the mechanics that allow two scales of ripples to form simultaneously in well sorted fine sand remain unclear. If the large ripples are impact ripples with an aerodynamically controlled equilibrium size, as proposed by Sullivan et al. (2020), it is then unclear what mechanism prevents intermediate ripples to form in well sorted sand. A single ripple growth-limiting mechanism cannot simultaneously explain two distinct equilibrium ripple sizes in monodisperse sand. The model of Dur n Vinent et al. (2019) offers a new aerodynamic mechanism to explain the equilibrium wavelength of large ripples that does not rely on coarse grains, and is consistent with the observations and scaling analysis of Lap tre et al. (2016), but they did not address the equilibrium size of small ripples fully mechanistically. If the large ripple sizes are limited by the aerodynamic mechanism of Dur n Vinent et al. (2019), then perhaps the small ripples are simply impact ripples as envisioned by Sullivan et al. (2020), but are limited to a similar scale as terrestrial wind ripples despite the lower atmospheric pressure on Mars. This idea is consistent with low-pressure wind tunnel experiments performed by Miller et al. (1987) that showed that a population of small ripples had a stable size under a wide range of atmospheric pressures, without significant changes in wavelength, whereas a second population of ripples grew in size with decreasing atmospheric pressure. Similarly, recent low-pressure wind-tunnel experiments also have demonstrated the characteristic wavelength of small impact ripples do not change substantially as atmospheric pressure is changed from terrestrial to Martian values (Andreotti et al., 2021; Claudin et al., 2020).

In addition to numerical modeling, further progress toward understanding the formation of large Martian ripples will require more observations and measurements of grain characteristics, their modes of transport, and the wind shear velocities associated with ripple creation, either in situ with landed spacecraft operating in an active dune field or through low-pressure wind-tunnel experiments on Earth. Such a mechanistic approach will be required to fully understand the mystery of large Martian ripples (and possibly, of other bedforms under low-density atmospheres; e.g., Jia et al., 2017). However, it is clear that some ripples forming in well sorted sand under a thin Martian atmosphere are larger than ripples found under a thicker terrestrial atmosphere (Lap tre et al., 2016). Importantly, even on Mars today, ripples forming at higher elevation, where atmospheric density is lower, tend to have longer wavelengths than those forming at lower elevations, where atmospheric density is higher (Lap tre et al., 2016; Lorenz et al., 2014). The latter

statement is purely empirical and agnostic to formation (initiation and evolution) processes. As a result, and contrary to what was suggested by Lorenz (2020), the presence of relatively thick well sorted sandstones with co-occurring dune and meter-scale ripple cross-stratification remains an important proxy for a thin paleoatmosphere, and an important tool to unravel when Mars lost its thicker atmosphere to become the cold and dry desert planet we know today.

## Data Availability Statement

No new data are presented in this manuscript.

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