

Are breaking waves, bores, surges and jumps the same flow?

by

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Abstract

The flow structure in the aerated region of the roller generated by breaking waves remains a great challenge to study, with large quantities of entrained air and turbulence interactions making it very difficult to investigate in details. A number of analogies were proposed between breaking waves in deep or shallow water, tidal bores and hydraulic jumps. Many numerical models used to simulate waves in the surf zone do not implicitly simulate the breaking process of the waves, but are required to parameterise the wave-breaking effects, thus relying on experimental data. Analogies are also assumed to quantify the roller dynamics and the energy dissipation. The scope of this paper is to review the different analogies proposed in the literature and to discuss current practices. A thorough survey is offered and a discussion is developed aimed at improving the use of possible breaking proxies. The most recent data are revisited and scrutinised for the use of most advanced numerical models to reduce the surf zone hydrodynamics. In particular, the roller dynamics and geometrical characteristics are discussed. An open discussion is proposed to explore the actual practices and propose perspectives based on the most appropriate analogy, namely the tidal bore.

Keywords: Breaking waves, Breaking bores, Hydraulic jumps, Air bubble entrainment, Flow singularity, Tidal bores.

1. INTRODUCTION

Surface wave breaking, occurring in the open ocean or the coastal zone, is a complex and challenging two-phase flow phenomenon which plays an important role in numerous processes, including air-sea transfer of gas, momentum and energy, and in a number of technical applications such as acoustic underwater communications and optical properties of the water column. The major visible feature during wave breaking is the large quantities of air entrained in the form of bubble clouds and whitecaps, generally coined surface foam (Figures 1 and 2). The generation of bubble clouds has been shown to induce energy dissipation and turbulent mixing, to contribute to heat exchange and enhance gas transfer (Hwung et al., 1992; Wanninkhof et al., 2009). Bubble clouds have been shown to influence climate and intensification of tropical cyclones (Véron, 2015), and cause the ocean ambient noise (Prosperetti, 1988). The breakup and evolution of entrained air into numerous bubbles is a source of acoustic noise, which is important for naval hydrodynamics. The hydrodynamic performance of ships is influenced by the wake modified by the air entrainment, and the sound generated by the bubble clouds render the ships subject to detection. In hydraulic engineering, large spillways are often protected from cavitation damage by controlling aeration (Russell and Sheehan, 1974; Falvey 1990).

Many numerical models (e.g. Boussinesq equations) used to study waves in the surf zone do not implicitly simulate the breaking process of the waves (Christensen et al., 2002). The wave-breaking effects have to be parameterised by incorporating additional terms in the mass and momentum equations (e.g. Musumeci et al. 2005; Cienfuegos et al., 2010; Bjørkavåg and Kalisch, 2011; Tissier et al., 2012, Kazolea et., 2014). The challenge is to take the breaking process into account to ensure an accurate description of the surf zone, including the wave height decay and the setup development. The main consideration is to dissipate energy when wave breaking is likely to occur. Svendsen (1984a, 1984b) proposed the roller concept, in the form of a volume of water carried shoreward with the wave. Local roller thickness and mean front slope of the breaker were used to quantify part of the local momentum deficit. But the vertical surface roller of the breaking wave is only considered to play an important part in the momentum and energy conservation. However, the energy flux and dissipation during wave breaking remain difficult to quantify. Most recent modelling attempts are still struggling with the lack of physical knowledge of the finest details of the breaking processes, which makes the task of parameterising breaking effects very difficult since no universal scaling laws for physical variables have been proposed so far. Physical parameters, such as the height and length of the roller, have to be quantified and criteria have to be defined with critical bounded values to estimate where the waves break and stop breaking. Thus models still need calibration and further improvements (Brocchini, 2013).

The turbulent flow dynamics in bubble clouds is a very challenging numerical problem. Esmaeeli and Tryggvason (1996) studied direct numerical simulations of buoyant bubbles in a two-dimensional periodic domain. They simulated 144 and 324 bubbles, showing that the work done by the buoyant bubbles increased the energy of flow structures much larger than the bubbles. But 3D direct modeling of air bubble entrainment and evolution at the scale of the surf zone is computationally unaffordable. Another way of tackling dispersed two-phase flows is using a continuum-mechanical

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approach (Drew, 1983). Two-fluid models are used to model the polydisperse two-fluid bubbly flow based on mixture theory (Carrica et al. 1999; Moraga et al., 2008, Shi et al., 2010; Ma et al. 2011; Derakhti & Kirby, 2014). A first attempt to use a continuum type model for studying bubbly flow under surface breaking waves was made by Shi et al. (2010). They proposed a physically-based numerical model for prediction of air bubble population in a surf zone-scale domain. The air entrainment was formulated by connecting the shear production at air–water interface and the bubble number density with the bubble size spectra as observed by Deane and Stokes (2002). The model was initially fed with the entrained bubbles and used to simulate the evolution of the bubble plumes. This approach requires much less spatial and temporal resolution than needed to capture detailed air entrainment process in DNS simulations. The model results revealed that bubbles larger than 1 mm provide a major contribution to void fraction, while smaller bubbles contribute significantly to the cumulative interfacial area of the bubble cloud but do not contribute much to the total volume of air. Discrepancies between observations and model behaviour were nevertheless reported. Based on the works of Ma et al. (2011), Derakhti and Kirby (2014) used an Eulerian–Eulerian polydisperse two-fluid model in an LES framework. Detailed overviews on methods and models for CFD of multiphase flows can be found in textbooks (Drew and Passman, 1999; Crowe et al. 2011). More information about turbulence modelling in the framework of multiphase flows is given by Labourasse et al. (2007) and Bombardelli (2012). Smoothed-particle hydrodynamics (SPH) is also a mesh-free method which can be used to describe accurately the 3D surf zone hydrodynamics, as recently shown by Farahani and Dalrymple (2014) who investigated some novel coherent turbulent vortical structures under broken solitary waves. The state-of-the-art is detailed by Gomez-Gesteira et al. (2010) and Violeau and Rogers (2016), who detailed a number of examples in which SPH simulations have been successfully used in fluid flow research and hydraulic engineering.

Numerical models still rely on experimental data. Detailed information on the temporal and spatial variations of the void fraction fields beneath breaking waves is required. Instantaneous void fraction and interfacial velocity data are critically needed to calibrate and improve numerical models of the two-phase flow generated beneath plunging and spilling breaking waves. Models for air-entrainment are critically dependent upon accurate estimates of the surface area affected by wave breaking. Controlled laboratory experiments and accurate measurements of void fraction and bubble size distributions beneath plunging and spilling breakers are still very challenging. When a wave breaks, the tip forms a liquid jet which impinges on the front face of the wave and creates an air cavity which breaks into bubbles. The characterisation of the bubble sizes resulting from the cavity collapse has to be measured and the trajectories of these entrained bubbles are also critical information. The initial stages of the breaking of a wave generated a large amount of bubbles production and to the distribution at greater depths. The bubble clouds will then form, grow and decay during the propagation of the turbulent air/water mixing region forming the bore, the temporal variations of all bubble cloud dimensions reflecting this evolution. The large volumes of air in bubbles rapidly evolve into a distribution of bubble sizes which interacts with liquid turbulence and organised motions.

The motion of bubbles relative to the liquid causes velocity fluctuations in the water column and increases the energy of liquid motion at the scales comparable with the bubble diameter (Derakhti and Kirby, 2014). Bubble plume kinematics and dynamics, and the structure of the turbulent bubbly flow under breaking waves constitute critical information to be taken into account for an accurate description of the wave breaking process (Melville 1996). While the former can be studied experimentally, the liquid–bubble interactions, i.e. the effects of dispersed bubbles on organised and turbulent motions, are still poorly understood.

When looking at a bore, whereas it has been generated by a stationary hydraulic jump, a surface wave breaking on the ocean or in the surf zone, or a tidal bore propagating upstream a river, the question is: are we looking at the same flow? Is there only one bore structure, or are there variations depending on the initial conditions leading to its occurrence and behaviour? To what extent can we compare the bores and use the quantities through similarity? It is the aim of this contribution to contribute to the transfer of knowledge from detailed measurements realised in hydraulic jumps and tidal bores, to the wave breaking investigation. The first part of the article is dedicated to the identification of the knowledge gaps encountered when attempting to simulate numerically the hydrodynamics of breaking waves and a review of the various analogies which have been proposed in the literature. The next part reports on the state-of-the-art of the studies focusing on the void fraction and velocity analysis under breaking waves, tidal bores and hydraulic jumps. Based on this survey, we attempt to identify and assess the quantities which can be considered for possible analogies. The most recent data are revisited and scrutinised for the use of most advanced numerical models to educe the surf zone hydrodynamics, highly influenced by the wave breaking process. An open discussion is proposed to explore the actual practises and propose perspectives based on the most appropriate analogy, namely the tidal bore.

2. KNOWLEDGE GAPS FOR THE MODELLING OF THE SURF ZONE HYDRODYNAMICS

2.2 Current state of practice in numerical modelling and limitations

Most numerical models only consider macro-scale roller properties. The roller formation and propagation have been

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shown to be a highly unsteady process, with air entrainment and turbulence generation. The most advanced models, which are generally used to simulate non-linear wave transformations in coastal areas, are based either on the Non-linear Shallow Water equations (NSW), the Boussinesq-type equations (BT), or some form of hybrid model. Extensive developments and break-through progress have been made recently for a large variety of coastal engineering applications (e.g. Tissier, 2012; Bacigaluppi et al., 2014; Brocchini, 2013; Kazolea, 2014). A key feature, the breaking process, is however not explicitly simulated and missing in these models. Several approaches and parametrisations have thus been proposed to introduce wave breaking in NSW and BT models.. Any such approach requires the quantification of energy dissipation, dynamically activated when wave breaking is likely to occur. Some physically based criteria have to be able to activate or deactivate these extra terms and simple expressions are generally favoured. Simple quantities include geometrical aspects of the roller, including heights, lengths and angles, easily extracted from any visual observations in laboratory and in the field, All these quantities cannot be estimated from a single experiment. Instead a composite set of data and practices have been elaborated though time by looking at various analogue flows, and some variations have been proposed in order to fill the gaps.

Practically, most numerical models need to evaluate:

1. a Froude number Fr characteristic of wave breaking, of when it occurs and stops (with Fr varying with water depth). Currently, an accepted value for the transition between non breaking and breaking waves has been identified in Froude number range between 1.3 and 1.6 (Okamoto and Basco, 2006). This is based upon the analogy with non-breaking undular hydraulic jump and bore (Favre, 1935; Treske, 1994; Chanson and Montes, 1995, Lennon and Hill 2006, Chanson and Koch 2008);
2. the roller height h_r , derived from momentum considerations (see Appendix II);
3. the roller length L_r , determined empirically. A common parameterisation is $L_r = 2.91 \times h_r$ (Haller and Catalan, 2009), although the re-analysis of large-scale experiments suggests $L_r/h_r \approx 1$ to 8 (Figure 5). In Figure 5, steady breaker, stationary hydraulic jump and tidal bore data are compared;
4. the mean front slope angle ϕ (Schäffer et al., 1993), typically between 8° to 30° for the termination and initiation of the breaking event respectively;
5. the roller celerity (or celerity of the breaking wave);
6. the energy dissipation in the roller region;
7. the bubble size distributions, often improperly estimated based upon Hinze's (1955) model developed in the case of a single droplet under non-coalescing conditions (!).

To estimate most of these quantities, flow analogies have been considered, but some limitations are clearly identified and some modifications, based on new experimental data analysis, are proposed in the following sections.

2.2 Flow analogies or not?

A number of analogies were proposed between breaking waves, bores and jumps (Appendix I). Appendix I lists a number of early seminal references and Figure 1 presents definition sketches. The steady breaker configuration was proposed as a simplification of the spilling breaker (Banner and Phillips 1974, Banner and Melville 1976). Important results were obtained (Duncan 1981, Banner and Peregrine 1993, Cointe and Tulin 1994, Lin and Rockwell 1995, Dabiri and Gharib 1997), but there is still on-going argument about the validity of this analogy (Kiger & Duncan 2012). Further links were developed between breaking waves and steady flow configurations. These encompassed comparisons between plunging breakers and plunging jets (Cipriano and Blanchard 1981, Hubbard et al. 1987, Chanson and Cumming 1994, Oguz et al. 1995, Chanson et al. 2002,2006, Salter et al. 2014), between spilling breakers and stationary hydraulic jumps (Longuet-Higgins 1973, Peregrine and Svendsen 1978, Madsen 1981, Brocchini et al. 2001a,b), and between spilling breakers and translating hydraulic jumps (also called positive surges or tidal bores) (Longuet-Higgins 1973, Peregrine and Svendsen 1978, Brocchini and Peregrine 2001b). In parallel, there have been numerous discussions about the similarities and differences between stationary and translating hydraulic jumps (e.g. Darcy and Bazin 1865, Stoker 1957, Tricker 1965, Lighthill 1978), although the open channel hydraulic literature develops the same integral approach for both types (Henderson 1966, Lighthill 1978, Chanson 2004, 2012).

To date, the mechanistic connections between these flows are not well understood and have not always been successful. Wave-plunging jet conditions appear to produce a qualitatively different type of impact, with almost no penetration into the oncoming flow and a pronounced splash that cascades multiple times down the face of the wave. What is better characterised however, is the volume of air trapped by the initial contact of the jet with the wave face, which has been numerically simulated, and its shape has been successfully modelled, at least for a limited set of conditions (e.g. Lubin and Glockner 2015). However, the processes that follow the initial contact are only known qualitatively for the majority of the breaking conditions, and thus still require further study in order to acquire improved physical understanding. Furthermore, wave breaking is a combination of transient processes which evolve within the breaking duration making adequate physical understanding a challenging proposition. Overall, "*In studying any turbulent flow it is very helpful if it can be shown to be similar to other well known flows*" (Peregrine and Svendsen,1978). Below, a number of seminal flow configurations are explored and the relevance of flow comparisons is discussed.

3. VOID FRACTION KINEMATICS

3.1 Breaking waves

Führboter (1970) discussed the correlation between the turbulence generated in the surf zone and the amount of air entrained during the breaking of the waves, as well as the sudden reduction of wave height and energy. He highlighted the importance to study quantitatively the air entrainment process for a detailed comprehension of the surf zone physics. Vagle and Farmer (1992) and recently Anguelova and Huq (2012) reviewed the different techniques used to quantify the void fraction under breaking waves. Both works concluded that combined techniques were the best approach. Indeed, the higher the concentrations of bubbles within bubble clouds, the more difficult it is to count and measure individual bubbles.

Some studies have been conducted in field while others have been completed in physical wave tanks. Thorpe (1982) studied wind-waves breaking and speculated that wind speed, salinity, and temperature were major factors, possibly responsible for existing discrepancies that arised when comparing data from different sources. Monahan (1993) proposed the terms Alpha-plume (high void fraction, short lifespan), Beta-plume, and Gamma-plume (low void fraction, long lifespan) to describe the evolution of a bubble cloud, from its formation to its disappearance (e. g. dissolution, degassing and advection). Most field studies confirmed that the Alpha-plumes consist of high void fractions (10% or more) with large bubble sizes (radii ranging from tens of micrometers to millimeters). At the other end of the process, the Gamma-plume were observed to be very low void fraction between 10^{-5} to 10^{-8} and containing bubbles with radii on the order of $O(10-100)\mu\text{m}$. The lifetime of a whole bubble cloud may be about a hundred of seconds. The bubble clouds are also generally confined to the first few meters of the water column. For example, Lamarre & Melville (1992) compared field and laboratory void fraction measurements obtained with an impedance probe, and showed large void fraction values at shallow locations while lower void fraction values were found deeper. Deane (1997) used acoustic and optical measurements of individual breaking waves in the surf zone, off La Jolla Shores beach, California. Total void fractions of 0.3–0.4 were measured, consisting of bubbles with radius greater than 1 mm. Stokes and Dean (1999) observed that the time scale for the generation of clouds of submillimetric bubbles was on the order of about 90 ms. Dahl & Jessup (1995) found comparable quantities in deep-ocean studies. Gemmrich and Farmer (1999) measured void fraction values (e.g. 10^{-2} at 0.25 m below the free-surface), associated with low penetrating breaking events (spilling breakers), while they speculated that higher values of void fractions found deeper would be associated with more energetic violent events (plunging breakers). Interestingly Gemmrich (2010) found higher turbulence levels within the wave crest region of the breaking waves, suggesting that the bubble fragmentation process is mainly driven by turbulence. Most studies reported that void fraction changes significantly during the lifetime of the bubble cloud, from high void fractions in the first seconds of the breaking event to residual void fractions persisting for long times. Most field studies consisted in wind-waves breaking observations, with only few events giving data susceptible to be accurately analysed.

A lot of studies investigated the hydrodynamics in the surf zone, especially the general mechanisms involved during the breaking process (Peregrine, 1983), the generation of turbulence (Battjes, 1988), and sediment transport. When waves break, the flow suddenly exhibits a violent transition from irrotational to rotational motion over the entire water column. Two main types of breaker types have been studied: (1) the spilling breakers, where white foam, consisting of a turbulent air/water mixture, appears at the wave crest and spills down the front face of the propagating wave; and (2) the plunging breakers, where the front face of the steepening wave overturns and impacts the forward face of the wave. These two breaker types have been shown to have similar initial motions, but with different length scales (Basco, 1985). When approaching a beach, the waves change form due to the decrease in water depth. The forward face of the wave steepens and the wave becomes asymmetric. Once the front face becomes almost vertical, a jet of liquid is projected from the crest of the wave. The tongue of water thrown from the crest develops and free falls down forward into a characteristic overturning motion, and eventually hits the water at the plunge point. Depending on the position of the plunge point, different breaker types can be observed. If the plunge point is located very near to the crest of the wave, the resulting splash is directed down the wave leading to a spilling breaker. Otherwise, if the jet is ejected farther towards the lower part of the face of the steepening wave, the wave becomes a plunging breaker. The plunging jet encloses an air pocket when it finally hits the wave face at the plunge point. The jet re-enters the water after impact, forcing up a second jet, called splash-up. The early works of Miller (1976), Basco (1985), Jansen (1986) and Bonmarin (1989) were dedicated to qualitative description of the dynamics of the breaking process, the air entrainment and the evolution of the large-scale geometric properties of bubble plumes. The overturning process, subsequent overturning motion and plunging jet impact were described, resulting in the identification and tracking of breaker vortices trajectories. Some information about the evolution (size, shape and position) of the bubble plumes were also detailed. The jet-splash cycles, occurring several times in a single breaker, have been shown to be responsible for the generation of a sequence of large-scale vortices with a horizontal axis of rotation, some of these eddies have been shown to be co-rotating vortices and some counter-rotating vortices depending on the splash-up mechanism (Miller, 1976; Bonmarin,

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1989). Nadaoka et al. (1989) detailed the flow field under a turbulent bore propagating towards the shoreline, resulting from a spilling breaking wave. Large-scale horizontal eddies are present in the bore front, while behind the wave crest the flow structure changes rapidly into obliquely downward stretched three-dimensional (3D) eddies, so-called 'obliquely descending eddies'. Lin and Hwung (1992), Govender et al. (2002) and Kimmoun and Branger (2007) also described the large motions of aerated regions under plunging breaking waves, with splash-ups and vortical structures. Miller (1976) measured the average bubble concentration in plunging and spilling breakers and indicated a larger bubble density presence in plunging breakers (about 31% in the late stage compared to 19% for spilling breakers); these results were in agreement with earlier descriptions from Miller (1972). Lamarre and Melville (1991) concluded that a large portion of the mechanical energy of the wave was lost in entraining the bubble clouds. High values of void fractions (up to 100 %) were found next to the free-surface, and void fractions of at least 20% were observed for up to half a wave period after the breaking occurrence. They later confirmed that air entrainment was closely related with the energy dissipation of the breaking wave (Lamarre and Melville, 1994). Several other works provided more comprehensive laboratory measurements of the void fraction in breaking waves, detailing the vertical and horizontal distributions of void fraction. Cox and Shin (2003) measured the void fraction in the aerated region at a point using a capacitance probe, and observed peak ensemble-averaged void fractions in the range of 15–20%. Surprisingly, they measured higher void fractions under the spilling breakers than under the plunging breakers. The temporal variation of void fraction, above and below the still water level, was analysed using three breaker types (spilling, spilling/plunging and plunging). The temporal variation of void fraction above the still water normalized by the wave period and average void fraction appears to be remarkably self-similar (independently of the breaker type). Hwung et al. (1992) found a deeper penetration of air bubbles under plunging breaking waves and higher void fractions (18%), compared to the spilling breaking waves (12%). Similarly Hoque and Aoki (2005), using a conductivity probe, measured maximum void fractions of 20% and 16% beneath plunging and spilling breakers, respectively. Mori et al. (2007, 2008) obtained void fractions of 19% beneath spilling breaking waves and 24% beneath plunging breaking waves, using dual-tip resistivity void probe. Interestingly they also studied scale effects according to Froude similarity and using two different scaled experiments. Void fractions were affected by the geometric scale, with larger quantities being found in the larger experiment, while the bubble size spectra proved to be nearly independent. Kimmoun and Branger (2007) estimated the evolution of void fractions using particle image velocimetry images and velocity measurements. They reported large void fractions of up to 88% in the first splash-up location, decreasing slowly when the breaking wave propagates towards the shore, with values between 20 and 30%. Much lower void fractions were found in other studies. Kalvoda et al. (2003) investigated the geometric and kinematic characteristics of large air bubbles clouds produced by spilling breaking wind waves. They observed that the lifetime of the bubble cloud was about 1.4 times the wave period, with bubbles diameters in the range of 1.0–10 mm. They found a void fraction of about 0.4%. Leifer et al. (2006) reported void fractions between 0.2% and 2.3% beneath breaking wind waves, using a video system to characterise the bubble clouds. Blenkinsopp and Chaplin (2007) studied plunging, spilling/plunging and spilling breaking waves. They calculated integral properties of the bubble clouds and splash-ups, such as areas and volumes of air entrained, trajectories of centroids and energy dissipation, and showed remarkable similarity between plunging and spilling breakers. Their data indicated that the evolution of the bubble clouds was subjected to scale effect. Rojas and Loewen (2010) detailed the void fraction evolution in spilling and breaking breakers. They observed that beneath plunging breaking breakers, the mean void fraction ranged between 1.2 to 37%, while beneath spilling breaking waves, the mean void fraction ranged between 17 to 29%. They found that "*an energetic spilling breaker may entrain approximately the same volume of air as a steeper, larger-amplitude plunging breaker*". They identified and tracked successive bubble clouds, detailed the void fractions at each step of the breaking events, and found that, beneath the spilling breaker, the celerity of the bubble cloud compared with the phase speed. Beneath the plunging breaker, the celerity of the air cavity was about 70% of the phase speed. This has to be compared to the celerity of the bubble cloud entrained by the propagating splash-up which has been measured to be about 90% of the phase speed. Blenkinsopp and Chaplin (2007) and Rojas and Loewen (2010) found that the volume of air entrained by the splash-up, observed during a plunging breaking event, was greater than the volume of air entrained by the initial plunging jet (about 60% more). More recently Anguelova and Huq (2012) used an imaging technique to quantify the phase dependent void fraction, and measured values reaching 80–99% at the wave crest phase and decreasing to 20-30% at the trough phase. Lim et al. (2015) confirmed these results in the case of a plunging breaker. They showed that the distribution of the turbulent intensities matched the vorticity and void fraction fields. Nevertheless, some differences could be observed in the experimental results for the peak values of void fraction, indicating a strong temporal and spatial variability in the unsteady breaking waves (Lim et al., 2015). The difference in the locations of the measurements and the method used to generate the breaking could also be responsible for the discrepancies. Some authors indicated that the mean void fraction could be modelled by a linear function of time followed by an exponential decay. Hoque and Aoki (2005) found that the void fraction distribution followed the analytical solution of an advection equation. This is not surprising as there is a general consensus about in void fractions contours in the breaking waves, shapes and general kinematics of the aerated regions. However, some differences can also be noted. Lamarre and Melville (1991) found that that the temporal variation of the normalized void fraction in deep water breakers could be fitted by a power law $t^{-2.3}$, while

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Rojas and Loewen (2010) found the decay of void fraction followed a power law $t^{-2.6}$. Lim et al. (2015) reported similar findings. Cox and Shin (2003) found a linear growth followed by exponential decay, but with a different rate, which could be attributed to the shallow-water conditions used in their works.

3.2 Tidal bores

Undular tidal bores are observed for Froude numbers less than 1.3 to 1.4, and breaking tidal bores with a marked roller are seen for Froude numbers large than 1.4 to 1.6 (Koch and Chanson 2008, Chanson 2010a). Velocity measurements in breaking tidal bores were performed using particle image velocimetry and acoustic Doppler velocimetry with most data obtained in the clear-water column below the aerated roller region and for Froude numbers less than 2.5 (Hornung et al. 1995, Koch and Chanson 2009, Chanson 2010b, Docherty and Chanson 2012). The data indicated a sharp deceleration of the flow associated with the bore passage, as well as large fluctuations of all velocity components during and shortly after the bore roller passage (Koch and Chanson 2009, Leng and Chanson 2015a).

Air-water flow measurements in tidal bores are rare. Leng and Chanson (2015a) highlighted some distinctive air bubble entrainment at the toe of the roller. Their data showed a substantial number of bubbles with millimetre sizes: i.e., between 1 and 5 mm, with larger bubbles detected at higher vertical elevations in a more intermittent manner. The same data set showed that the toe perimeter shape fluctuated rapidly with transverse distance and time, and large fluctuations in bore celerity were observed. That is, the celerity of the roller toe fluctuated rapidly with both time and transverse distance, although in a quasi-two-dimensional manner on average (Leng and Chanson 2015b). Yet both laboratory and field observations hinted to the existence of large-scale three-dimensional bubbly structures (Leng and Chanson 2015a, Chanson 2016, Leng and Chanson 2016).

3.3 Hydraulic jumps

A hydraulic jump is the sudden and rapid transition from a supercritical to subcritical flow, characterised by the development of large-scale turbulence, surface waves and spray, energy dissipation and air entrainment (Figures 1 and 2). Undular hydraulic jumps, observed for Froude numbers less than 2 to 3, are not discussed herein. The breaking jump is a turbulent shear flow (Rouse et al. 1959, Rajaratnam 1965, Hoyt and Sellin 1989), and vorticity is advected in the air-water shear zone. The first successful air-water flow measurements were conducted by Rajaratnam (1962). Using hot film anemometry, Resch and Leutheusser (1972) and Babb and Aus (1981) measured distributions of Reynolds stresses and turbulence intensity in hydraulic jump rollers. High-quality data were obtained using dual-tip phase-detection probes, allowing significant improvements on the characterisation of the air-water flow field inside the jump roller. Most studies were conducted for inflow Froude numbers greater than 5 (Chanson and Brattberg 2000, Chanson 2010c, Wang and Chanson 2015). Relatively Fewer studies investigated hydraulic jumps with lower Froude numbers (Murzyn et al. 2005, Chachereau and Chanson 2011). Other research works also used flow visualization techniques (Mossa and Tolve 1998, Leandro et al. 2012).

All experimental investigations in breaking jumps showed some intense air entrainment, with singular air entrapment at the roller toe and interfacial aeration across the roller free-surface (Wang and Chanson 2015). Air is entrapped at the discontinuity between the impinging flow and the roller: i.e., the roller toe (Fig. 1 & 2). The roller toe perimeter is a line source of air bubbles, as well as a line source of vorticity (Hornung et al. 1995, Chanson 1997). In the shear region downstream of the roller toe, the local maximum in void fraction C_{\max} decays longitudinally in a quasi-exponential manner (Chanson and Brattberg 200, Murzyn et al. 2005). A key feature is the developing shear layer and the recirculation region above. The turbulent shear flow is somehow analogous to a wall jet although basic differences between ideal wall jet and hydraulic jumps include the effect of longitudinal pressure gradient $\partial P/\partial x < 0$, conservation of mass, and the natural forcing which is likely to enhance the two-dimensionality and periodicity of coherent structures (Katz et al., 1992). In the jump, the maximum velocity V_{\max} decays longitudinally as $x^{-1/2}$ (Chanson and Brattberg 2000, Murzyn and Chanson 2009, Chanson 2010c).

Figure 3 presents some typical air-water flow measurements in hydraulic jumps with breaking roller. Figure 3A shows longitudinal variations in vertical distributions of void fraction and interfacial velocity in the roller, where C is the time-averaged void fraction, V is the interfacial velocity, x is the longitudinal distance from the roller toe, L_r is the roller length, z is the vertical elevation, and d_i and V_i are the inflow depth and velocity respectively. Overall the measurements highlighted two distinct air-water flow regions: (1) the air-water shear layer, and (2) the upper free-surface region above. The shear layer is characterised by strong interactions between the entrained air bubbles and turbulent coherent structures, associated with a local maximum in void fraction, bubble count rate and longitudinal velocity. In the shear layer, the distributions of void fractions follow an analytical solution of the advection-diffusion equation for air bubbles assuming singular air entrapment at the roller toe:

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$$C = \frac{q_{\text{air}}}{\sqrt{4 \times \pi \times D \times x'}} \times \left(\exp \left(-\frac{(z'-1)^2}{4 \times D} \right) + \exp \left(-\frac{(z'+1)^2}{4 \times D} \right) \right) \quad (1)$$

where $x' = x/d_1$, $z' = z/d_1$, D is a dimensionless diffusion coefficient, $q = V_1 \times d_1$, and q_{air} is the entrained air flow rate per unit width. D and q_{air}/q are derived from best data fit. In the upper free-surface region above, the void fraction increases monotonically with increasing distance from the bed from a local minimum up to unity, following an analytical solution of the advection-diffusion equation for interfacial aeration/de-aeration:

$$C = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{1}{2} \times \sqrt{\frac{V_1 \times x}{D_t}} \times \frac{z - Z_{50}}{x} \right) \right) \quad (2)$$

where D_t is a diffusion coefficient, Z_{50} is the elevation where $C = 0.5$ and erf is the Error function. Both equations (1) and (2) are compared with experimental data in Figure 3B, with solid lines and dashed lines respectively. The interfacial velocity distribution presents a self-similar profile close to that of wall jet:

$$\frac{V - V_{\text{recirc}}}{V_{\text{max}} - V_{\text{recirc}}} = \exp \left(-0.88 \times \left(\frac{z - z_{V_{\text{max}}}}{z_{0.5}} \right)^2 \right) \quad z_{V_{\text{max}}} < z \quad (3)$$

where V_{max} is the maximum velocity in the shear region, V_{recirc} is the negative recirculation velocity, $z_{0.5}$ is the elevation where $V = (V_{\text{max}} + V_{\text{recirc}})/2$ and $z_{V_{\text{max}}}$ is the elevation where $V = V_{\text{max}}$. Equation (3) is compared with experimental data in Figure 3C. Note the negative time-averaged recirculation velocity, with $V_{\text{recirc}}/V_{\text{max}} \sim -0.4$ to -0.6 on average (Chanson 2010c, Zhang et al. 2013) (Fig. 3C). Further observations include the integral turbulent length scale L_t characterising the size of large turbulent eddies advecting the bubbles in the hydraulic jump roller (Chanson 2007, Wang et al. 2014). Typical results highlight the relationship between integral turbulent length scale and inflow depth, with on average $L_t/d_1 \sim 0.5$. Moreover, several studies were dedicated to the analysis of the clustering process in a hydraulic jump (Gualtieri and Chanson, 2010), focussed on the interaction between air bubbles and turbulence, and confirming the influence of the bubble clustering on the surrounding flow field whereby hydrodynamic interactions and enhanced velocity fluctuations can play an important role.

4. DISCUSSION

Based on the previous section, we propose a discussion on limitations, disagreements and obstacles which have to be overcome to improve the knowledge of the turbulent air-water dynamics encountered in breaking waves and bores. We focus on the flow aeration and bubble sizes distribution in the water column, water salinity and the definition of the Froude number.

4.1 Flow aeration and bubble sizes

Very few detailed studies on air entrainment induced by breaking waves exist (section 3.1). A number of issues remain and definitive conclusions have not yet been drawn. Wave conditions and characteristics are not easily comparable. For example, some studies were centred on deep-water breaking waves while others focused on depth-limited conditions, some breaking waves were mechanically generated, others were wind-waves. Further the metrology (optical, acoustic, laser, conductivity BIV, PIV, video, photographs) and experimental apparatus (single or double probes, measurements locations, assumptions for analysis, mixture density estimations for wave characteristics, etc.) often suffered from limitations and inaccuracies (e.g. Cartellier and Achard 1991, Cox and Shin 2003, Chanson 2005). Phase-detection needle probes are intrusive point measurements, while BIV or PIV are non-intrusive but remain inaccurate when operated in highly aerated turbulent flows (bubble clustering, shape changes, light reflection, image processing technique and analysis). Sampling rate is another issue when trying to characterise turbulent bubbly flow properties. A number of studies thus used combined techniques to ensure a certain level of confidence in their measurements.

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Several findings may be highlighted. All authors reported that the energy of the waves was dissipated during the early stages of the breaking events, due to the splash-up kinematics, turbulence generation and air entrainment process. The kinetic energy was found to decay as t^{-1} , both experimentally (Rapp and Melville, 1990; Lamarre and Melville, 1991, 1992; Melville et al. 2002; Drazen et al., 2008) and numerically (Chen et al., 1999; Lubin et al., 2006; Iafrati, 2009, 2011; Lakehal and Liovic, 2011, Lubin and Glockner, 2015). The same decay rate was observed for all breaker types (spilling, weak plunging and plunging) (Melville et al. 2002, Lubin and Glockner 2015), while similar integral properties in terms void fraction were comparable for different types of breaking waves (Cox and Shin, 2003; Blenkinsopp and Chaplin, 2007). Locations of air entrainment in the roller can be identified at the toe of the advancing roller, and on the whole interface of the roller, where multiple splashes are observed (Miller, 1976; Bonmarin, 1989; Nadaoka et al., 1989; Lin and Hwung, 1992; Rojen and Loewen, 2010; Lim et al., 2015). Large coherent eddies play a significant role in turbulent production due to the large velocity gradients and contribute to shear in the mean flow and fluctuations.

The highest velocities and turbulence intensities are found in the front part of the wave crest, at the toe of the wave roller and in the shear regions. In both spilling and plunging waves, the propagation of the roller to the shore line is associated with higher levels of turbulence (Govender et al., 2002). The breaking bore is widely recognized as being the primary source of turbulence under breaking waves. The void fraction appeared to be correlated with the flow turbulence and turbulent kinetic energy (Cox and Shin 2003, Mori et al. 2007), but experimental results have not yet proved that the turbulent properties are enhanced by high concentrations of bubbles, and vice and versa. Indeed, the relations between void fraction and bubble size distributions, and between void fraction and turbulence, remain unclear: "*the entrained bulk of air and bubbles generate turbulence which breaks coarser bubbles into finer ones in this phase*" (Mori et al. 2008). Gemmrich (2010) speculated that the bubble fragmentation process is mainly driven by turbulence. But the bubble dynamics might also be a major source of turbulence in the surrounding fluid.

Altogether breaking waves can produce large millimetre bubbles, although smaller bubbles may be found in the breaking region (Table 1). Table 1 summarises a few detailed observations. Larger bubbles are mainly present in the roller region, while much smaller bubbles with large residence times may be found deeper. Bubble populations under breaking waves are very inhomogeneous in time and space. Bubbles can be observed to split under several breakup mechanisms, including turbulent induced breakup, shear-driven breakup resonant oscillation and tip-streaming (Clift 1978, Taylor 1934, Chanson 2009). The dynamics of a bubble under unsteady perturbations is affected by the balance between forces acting on the bubble, but the residence time of the bubble in the turbulent flow field should also be taken into account (Chanson 1997, Galinat et al. 2007). A large amount of bubbles are generated and broken in the shear zones, where velocity gradients play a great role in the breakup process. Current breakup models are unable to quantify accurately the breakup rate and bubble size distributions in a complete unsteady turbulent flow with high void fractions, partly because the two-phase flow mixture beneath breaking waves is a highly unsteady process, never reaching an equilibrium. As an illustration, Figure 4 presents the normalized probability distribution functions of bubble radii beneath a plunging seawater jet, at three vertical elevations. In Figure 4, each histogram column represents the probability of bubble radius in 0.25 mm increments: that is, the probability of a bubble radius from 1.0 to 1.25 mm is represented by the column labelled 1.0. The last column (i.e. .5) indicates the probability of bubble radii large than 5 mm. The data showed a broad spectrum of bubble sizes at all elevations, from less than 0.25 mm more than 5 mm (Fig. 4). The bubble radius distributions showed a preponderance of small bubble sizes relative to the mean: the mode was between 0 and 0.5 mm, although the mean radius was about 1.5 to 2.3 mm (Table 1). If equilibrium exists, the 'equilibrium' bubble size distribution is dictated by all the events taking place in the flow, in particular by the relative rates of bubble breakup and bubble coalescence, the bubble-turbulence interactions and the bubble clustering.

4.2 Water solution: freshwater, saltwater or seawater?

A number of studies tested the influence of salinity on the air bubble entrainment, although there is no agreement between most published results. A majority of such studies tested experimentally saltwater solutions, typically by gradually adding salt to freshwater: i.e., synthetic seawater (Cartmill and Su 1993, Loewen et al. 1996, Bowyer 2001, Salter et al. 2014) (Also Table 1). Differences have been attributed to some form of inhibited coalescence process in saltwater. Controlled experiments with genuine seawater are rare (e.g. Chanson et al. 2006, Blenkinsopp and Chaplin 2011, Callaghan et al. 2014). In strongly aerated regions (void fractions > 2%), the results showed differences between freshwater, saltwater (synthetic seawater) and genuine seawater in terms of void fraction and bubble sizes. Despite differences in trends, an overall conclusion was that large amount of air bubbles were entrained in all solutions, and the majority of bubbles in the aerated flow region had radii on the order of a millimetre (Figure 4).

It must be stressed however that the rare data were obtained with different geometric scales. In air-water flows, experimental results demonstrated that scale effects may be significant (Rao and Kobus 1971, Wood 1991, Chanson 1997, 2013, Chanson and Gualtieri, 2008), in particular in terms of bubble numbers and sizes. In turn, small scale experiments are more sensitive to changes in water salinity, and this may bias the findings.

Table 1 - Summary of bubble size observations

Flow topology	Description	Equivalent bubble radius (mm)	Reference
Breaking waves	Open ocean (Figure 14)	0.8 – 1	Bowyer (2001)
	Open ocean (Figure 6) Laboratory focused waves paddle (10 cm plunging) (Figure 4)	1	Dean and Stokes (2002)
	Open ocean	0.7	Stokes et al. (2002)
	Laboratory Wind + paddle (~ 12 cm breaking height) Fresh (but not clean) water	1 – 1.7	Leifer et al. (2006)
	Laboratory focused waves paddle (~ 20 cm plunging) Fresh water	1.5	Rojas and Loewen (2007)
	Laboratory wave paddle sloping beach spilling – plunging (12.6 – 16.5 cm mid-scale / 5.0 – 6.5 small-scale)	2.01 (mid-scale) – 4.28 (small-scale)	Mori et al. (2007)
	Laboratory wave paddle submerged reef spilling – plunging (9.5 cm) Tap water	1.7 – 2.4	Blenkinsopp and Chaplin (2010)
Plunging jet	Circular plunging jet ($\varnothing = 25, 12.5$ & 6.85 mm) Tap water (Table 3)	4.7 ($\varnothing = 25$ mm) 2.2 – 3.7 ($\varnothing = 12.5$ mm) 1.7 – 2 ($\varnothing = 6.85$ mm)	Chanson et al. (2004)
	Circular plunging jet ($\varnothing = 12.5$ mm) Tap water, saltwater, seawater (Table 5)	2.2 – 3.1 (tap water) 2.3 – 3.3 (saltwater) 1.5 – 2.3 (seawater)	Chanson et al. (2006)

4.3 Froude number and definition

The definition of the Froude number is of paramount importance, because it is used to detect the breaking event onset and termination during the evolution of the waves in the surf zone. It is also the critical parameter allowing scaling of the data, assuming analogies between hydraulic jumps, tidal bores and rollers due to breaking waves. Table 2 regroups a number of definitions. Several criteria have been used in the past to detect the inception of wave breaking. Wave steepness, based on Stokes' limiting wave height, has been widely used as an proxy for wave breaking. The occurrence of breaking has also been related to the energy content in the waves, to the acceleration of the free-surface, or to the prescription of a limiting value to the fluid velocity at the crest of the wave prior to breaking (horizontal fluid velocity: Peregrine, 1983 (see Fig. 2); Wang et al., 1995; vertical fluid velocity: Kennedy et al., 2000). However consensus and agreement has not been reached for the establishment of a simple, accurate and universal valid criterion. This is in part because wave breaking is a highly complicated process involving highly non-linear effects including varying bathymetries, currents, and wind (not taken into account in any study). An improvement in the quest has been the use of a Relative Trough Froude Number (RTFN, Okamoto and Basco, 2006), based on the analogy with a moving hydraulic jump in a one-dimensional open channel flow. The Froude number can be obtained, as detailed in Table 2, by the mean of the Π -theorem, momentum considerations (Appendix II) and by simple construction considering the quantities available. A discussion is provided in Appendix II, since consistency and physical adequacy are key features of this study. It is also important to consider the quantities available in the various sources of data (Table 2, third column).

The strength of a breaking roller and the rate of energy dissipation in the roller are directly linked to the Froude number (Bresse 1868, Bakhmeteff 1932). This is detailed in Appendix II. The roller length L_r increases monotonically with increasing Froude number, as illustrated in Figure 6A. For stationary hydraulic jumps, very detailed experimental measurements yielded:

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$$\frac{L_r}{d_1} = 6 \times (Fr - 1) \quad (4)$$

where d_1 is the upstream depth and $Fr = (U+V_1)/(g \times d_1)^{1/2}$ (see symbol definition in Figure 1). Equation (4) is compared to stationary hydraulic jump and tidal bore data in Figure 6A. Practically another relevant quantity is the length of the aerated region L_{air} . Typical experimental observations are reported in Figure 6B, suggesting that the aeration region length may be about 1.5 to 2 times longer than the roller itself.

Table 2 - Froude number definitions in breaking waves, bores, surges and jumps

Froude number definition	Reference	Quantities	Comment
$Fr = (U+V_1)/(g \times d_1)^{1/2}$	Bazin (1865), Boussinesq (1877)	Implies the knowledge of the current condition V_1 and d_1 flowing adversely the roller, together with the celerity of the roller toe U .	Classical definition, satisfying the mass and momentum conservation equations, in a rectangular horizontal channel.
$Fr = (U+V_1)/(g \times A_1/B_1)^{1/2}$	Chanson (2012)	Implies further the knowledge of the initial cross-section area A_1 and free-surface width B_1 .	Application of mass and momentum conservation equations for an irregular-shaped channel.
$Fr = (c_{crest} - u_{trough}) / c_{trough}$	Okamoto and Basco (2006)	Velocity of the crest, trough and depth averaged velocity in the trough region	Can be applied to deep water breaking waves
$Fr = (((2 \times d_2/d_1 + 1)^2 - 1) / 8)^{1/2}$	Tissier et al. (2012)	Water heights upstream and downstream the jump.	Not accurate enough (Bacigaluppi et al., 2014)
$Fr = (1 + 3/2 \times H_r/d_1 + 1/2 \times (H_r/d_1)^2)^{1/2}$	Tonelli and Petti (2009)	Same as the previous definition, but written as a function of the roller height and water depth in front of the roller.	Not accurate enough (Bacigaluppi et al., 2014)
$Fr = u_s / c_b$	Bacigaluppi et al. (2014) Cheng and Wang (2015)	u_s is the free surface velocity at the crest of the wave, and c_b the wave celerity	Implies calibration. $Fr = 0.75$ to 1 found to be the value when waves start breaking (Bacigaluppi et al. 2014, Cheng and Wang 2015). Problem: based on the idea that wave breaking occurs when the free surface velocity exceeds the wave celerity (which is not true for spilling, and true for the celerity inside the crest for plunging).

Another measure for the roller strength is the height of the roller h_r . Indeed the height of the roller increases with increasing Froude number. Basic momentum considerations show a unique relationship between roller height and Froude number for $Fr > 2$ (Appendix II):

$$\frac{h_r}{d_1} = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(\sqrt{1 + 8 \times Fr^2} - 3 \right) \quad Fr > 2 \quad (5)$$

For $Fr < 2$, physical observations in tidal bores showed that the surface immediately upstream of the roller was curved upwards and the roller height was less than the difference in conjugate depths (Fig. 7). This is illustrated in Figure 7, by comparing experimental data and Equation (5). For breaking bore (i.e. $1.4 < Fr < 2$), the roller height data were best correlated by

$$\frac{h_r}{d_1} = 1.59 \times (Fr - 1.16)^{0.94} \quad 1.4 < Fr < 2 \quad (6)$$

The mean slope of the breaking roller can be obtained $\tan\phi = h_r/L_r$. When the height of the breaker h_r is lower than the difference in conjugate depths (d_2-d_1), the front face of the breaking wave may not be fully saturated. Importantly the evolution of the roller is highly unsteady and depends on the evolution of many parameters, including the variation of the bathymetry or the current for example. Hence some simplistic parameters such as the roller height might not characterise accurately the breaking wave roller.

5. HOW CAN BETTER FLOW ANALOGIES HELP?

This study clearly shows that more work needs to be done to elucidate the physics of the unsteady motion of a breaking roller. The metrology is clearly an issue to get accurate and reliable physical measurements in this rapidly-varied aerated turbulent flow. The scale effects are also a point to be addressed, with a close look at the differences due to the water salinity (tap water, saltwater, seawater). Some practice, such as the use of the Hinze's (1955) scale, are also believed to be misleading, as the theory was originally developed under assumptions not valid in the case of breaking waves. The analogy between hydraulic jumps, breaking tidal bores and breaking waves may be more appropriate in order to deduce quantities aimed at a modelling effort.

A stationary hydraulic jump is the sudden transition from a high-velocity free-surface flow impinging into a slower open channel flow. The rapid transition, called the roller, is characterised by spray and splashing with a highly fluctuating free-surface, together with highly-aerated turbulent flow structures within, and a large amount of energy dissipation takes place (Bakhmeteff 1932). The application of the energy principle across the roller gives an expression of the energy dissipation. For a smooth horizontal rectangular channel and assuming hydrostatic pressure upstream and downstream of the roller, the rate of energy dissipation is (Bresse, 1868, Bakhmeteff 1912):

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E_1} = \frac{\left(\sqrt{1+8 \times Fr^2} - 3\right)^3}{16 \times \left(\sqrt{1+8 \times Fr^2} - 1\right) \times \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \times Fr^2\right)} \quad (7)$$

where E_1 is the upstream total energy: $E_1 = d_1 + (V_1)^2/(2 \times g)$. The rate of energy dissipation may exceed 70% for $Fr > 9$ (Henderson 1966, Chanson 2004). However a non-breaking undular jump is observed at low Froude numbers. The transition from a stationary undular jump into a jump with a marked breaking roller takes place with the progressive apparition of characteristic three-dimensional flow features with increasing Froude numbers, including cross-waves and cockscomb roller (Montes 1995, Chanson 1995, Ohtsu et al. 2001). A hydraulic jump with a fully-developed breaking roller is observed only for Froude numbers greater than 2 to 4 (Ryabenko 1990, Chanson 2009). Thus a stationary jump might not be truly representative of a spilling breaker, typically observed for $Fr < 2$.

It is believed that a more relevant analogy is the tidal breaking bore, as seen in Figure 2B. A breaking bore with a quasi-two-dimensional roller is observed for Froude numbers greater than 1.4 to 1.6 (Koch and Chanson 2008, Leng and Chanson 2015b), although localised form of breaking might appear for Froude numbers above 1.3 to 1.4, including shock waves upstream of and limited breaking at the first wave crest (Treske 1994, Chanson 2010a). In the field, tidal bores are typically observed for Froude numbers less than 2.5, as shown in Table 3. As a further illustration, the Froude number was estimated to be about 2 for the bore seen in Figure 2B2. Based upon basic energy considerations, the power dissipated in the bore roller may be estimated as (Appendix II):

$$P_d = \rho \times g^{3/2} \times d_1^{5/2} \times L \times Fr \times \frac{\left(\sqrt{1+8 \times Fr^2} - 3\right)^3}{16 \times \left(\sqrt{1+8 \times Fr^2} - 1\right)} \quad (8)$$

where P_d is in Watts, L is the transverse length of the bore roller and where $E_1 = d_1 + (V_1 + U)^2/(2 \times g)$ for a tidal bore. For the tidal bore seen in Figure 2B2, the power dissipated was about: $P_d \approx 160$ MW. When a tidal bore propagates upstream in a sloping channel, experimental observations showed a complex transformation of a bore into a stationary hydraulic jump (Chanson 1996, 2011). In laboratory, the transformation could last from 5 to 10 minutes up to more than 20 minutes. At full scale, the duration of the process would be much longer, based upon a Froude similitude scaling, but the physical process remains poorly understood.

Table 3 - Detailed field observations of tidal bores

Reference	River / Estuary	Date	Bore type	d_1 (m)	V_1 (m/s)	U (m/s)	Fr
Wolanski et al. (2004)	Daly	2/07/2003	Undular	<i>1.50</i>	0.15	4.7	1.04
Simpson et al. 2004	Dee	6/09/2003	Breaking	0.72	<i>0.15</i>	4.1	1.79
Chanson et al. (2011)	Garonne	10/09/2010	Undular	1.77	0.33	4.5	1.30
		11/09/2010	Undular	1.81	0.30	4.2	1.20
Mouaze et al. (2010)	Sélune	24/09/2010	Breaking	0.38	0.86	2.0	2.35
		25/09/2010	Breaking	0.33	0.59	2.0	2.48
Reungoat et al. (2014)	Garonne	7/06/2012 am	Undular	2.72	0.68	3.8	1.02
		7/06/2012 pm	Undular	2.65	0.59	4.6	1.19
Furgerot et al. (2013)	Sée	7/05/2012	Undular	0.90	0.40	3.2	1.39
Reungoat et al. (2015)	Garonne	13/10/2013	Undular	2.05	0.26	4.3	1.27
Leng and Chanson (2015b)	Qiantang	6/09/2013	Breaking	1	--	3.6	2.1
Chanson (2016)	Qiantang	12/10/2014	Breaking	2 to 2.5	--	4.5	2.00

Notes: *Italic data*: rough estimate; (--): data not available.

Even if the external forces generating the final roller are different in the flows considered in this study, the general aspect of the turbulent aerated bores seem visually similar in terms of lengths scales, intensities and aeration. Indeed, looking at the general hydrodynamic features of the flows presented in the literature, the roller region results in a sequence of splash-ups, inducing large-scale horizontal vortices. Considering the description of the splashing hydrodynamics in breaking waves (e.g. Miller, 1976; Bonmarin, 1989; Lim et al., 2015), the roller region is roughly composed of 3 to 4 large horizontal vortices, which is consistent with experimental observations in tidal bores for $Fr < 2$. All the experimental studies, whatever the flow, indicated the capacity of successive splash-ups to entrain large quantities of air. The co-existence between the large-scale clockwise vortices and some smaller counter-clockwise vortices, generated by backward splashing and impingement occurring in between co-rotative vortices pairs, is reported in all the observations. These large eddies are responsible for the turbulent fluctuations of the shape of the rollers. All the observations indicated that both air entrainment, turbulent shear and vorticity are generated along the surface of the rollers and in the toe region. The total air volume is less important than the number of bubbles and their actual size distributions in the roller region. The study of the highly fluctuating dynamics of the roller region should then bring fruitful insight in the dynamics of the flow. The temporal evolution of this region is highly required to get a better description of the variation of the roller height and energy dissipation, as a function of time.

The quantification of some parameters may be improved and some physical description can be highlighted, using the most appropriate analogy (roller / tidal bore) rather than the one typically used (roller / hydraulic jump). The roller length and height have been found to be fairly similar between hydraulic jumps and tidal bores (Fig. 6), even comparing laboratory and field studies, thus free of scale effects. Considering the tidal bore analogy and the corresponding observations presented in Figure 5, the length of the roller should be considered within $1.5 < L_r/h_r < 5$. The transition between breaking and non-breaking waves would take place for $Fr > 1.3$, as observed in tidal bores. It was shown that the same limit value was inaccurately attributed to the transition between undular and breaking hydraulic jumps, but most recent studies proved it to be for $Fr > 2$ in stationary jumps. It is also interesting to notice that the celerity of the bore region considered in tidal bores is the celerity of the toe (Leng and Chanson 2015a,b), and not the celerity of the crest as used in modelling studies. The celerity of a tidal bore is found to be different from the celerity of a solitary wave. In a wave current problem, the Froude number represents the ratio between the velocity of a wave travelling and that of the current. The definition of the Froude number, as given for tidal bores in Table 2, should then be useful for breaking waves studies. It is similar to the estimation based on the Relative Trough Froude Number concept (Okamoto and Basco, 2006; D'Alessandro, and Tomasicchio, 2008), and should be appropriate since it would be suitable for any type of analogy (deep and shallow water breaking waves). It is noted that the celerity of the crest, considered by Okamoto and Basco (2006) should be replaced by the celerity of the toe, c_{trough} being V_1 with the current notation.

This study also presents some acknowledged limitations. The current work cannot provide any definition of a criterion for breaking onset. Experimental studies do not focus on the initiation and evolution of the breaking region in tidal bores or hydraulic jumps. Estimations of the wave velocity during breaking can lead to substantial discrepancies (Peregrine, 1983) and remains a challenge. A steepening wave can propagate for a long distance before clearly breaking and developing a roller; so the crest kinematics still need to be elucidated in complex situations (3D, current, turbulence, wind, etc.). The transient evolution of the roller is crucial for future studies (Leng and Chanson 2015b). Future interests should also encompass bubble size distribution and dynamics, two-phase gas-liquid turbulence and

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vorticity generation in the roller region. Interestingly, tidal bore is itself also a great example of highly non-linear phenomenon, as the free-surface evolution of the undulations observed in rivers and laboratories do not show any accordance with classical wave theories (cnoidal, solitary, Stokes). Analogies are complicated both ways...

6. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we analysed and discussed the different analogies proposed in the literature to model the breaking process of the waves in the surf zone. Numerical models not only need experimental data for rigorous and extensive validations, but also for development. Even the most up-to-date and accurate numerical models are still limited by empirical aspects. So a better knowledge of the temporal and spatial evolution of the aerated region under breaking waves is crucial.

The quantities which are needed for most numerical models are a characteristic Froude number to detect the breaking process occurrence, the geometrical and dynamical characteristics of the roller (height, length, mean front slope angle, celerity), the energy dissipation and the bubble size distribution. Two features are reported to be of great importance in all experimental studies: the bubble size distribution and the bubble cloud void fraction, the latter being highly dependent on the accurate quantification of the number of bubbles. But this aspect of the flow remains a technical challenge for both the numerical models and experimental techniques. A number of issues remain and definitive conclusions cannot be drawn. The actual best practices have been discussed and better estimations have been proposed based on recent experimental data sets. We showed in particular that measurements, performed in tidal bores will lead to improve the description of the bubble plumes. The authors believe that the unsteady evolution of a decelerating tidal bore, showing transition between a tidal bore to a stationary hydraulic jump (Chanson 2011), could bring intriguing insights into the processes involved in the highly non-linear problem of breaking waves.

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APPENDIX I. BREAKING WAVES, BORES, SURGES AND JUMPS: FLOW ANALOGIES IN THE LITERATURE

Analogy Spilling breaker and steady breakers	Banner and Phillips (1974, 1976), Duncan (1981, 2001), Banner and Peregrine (1993) Cointe and Tulin (1994) Lin and Rockwell (1995) Dabiri and Gharib (1997)
Analogy Breaking wave and Plunging jet	Cipriano and Blanchard (1981) Hubbard et al. (1987) Chanson and Cummings (1994) Oguz et al. (1995) Chanson et al. (2002, 2006) Salter et al. (2014)
Analogy Spilling breaker and Hydraulic jump	Longuet-Higgins (1973) Peregrine and Svendsen (1978) Madsen (1981) Brocchini and Peregrine (2001a, b)
Analogy Spilling breaker and Bore/Positive surge	Longuet-Higgins (1973) Peregrine and Svendsen (1978) Brocchini and Peregrine (2001b)
Analogy Breaking bore/positive surge and Hydraulic jumps	ALL Hydraulics Textbooks, dealing with open channel flows, as well as: Darcy and Bazin (1865) Stoker (1957) Tricker (1965) Henderson (1966) Lighthill (1978) Chanson (,2004, 2012)
Other analogies - Spilling breaker and density current	Longuet-Higgins and Turner (1974)

APPENDIX II. BASIC MOMENTUM AND ENERGY CONSIDERATIONS FOR BORES AND JUMPS

A bore is an abrupt rise in water depth (Fig. 1) and its front may be analysed as a hydraulic jump in translation (Tricker 1965, Lighthill 1978, Chanson 2012). In a system of reference in translation with the bore front, the integral form of the continuity and momentum equations gives a relationship between the cross-section area upstream and downstream of the roller, A_1 and A_2 respectively, and the upstream Froude number Fr_1 (Leng and Chanson 2015a)

$$Fr_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{A_2}{A_1} \times \frac{B_1}{B} \times \left(\left(2 - \frac{B'}{B} \right) + \frac{B'}{B} \times \frac{A_2}{A_1} \right) + \frac{A_2}{A_2 - A_1} \times \frac{F_{fric} - W \times \sin\theta}{\rho \times g \times \frac{A_1^2}{B}} \quad (A1)$$

where Fr_1 is the bore Froude number: $Fr = (U+V_1)/(g \times A_1/B_1)^{1/2}$, V is the cross-sectional averaged velocity positive downstream as shown in Figure 1, U is the bore celerity positive upstream, the channel cross-sectional area A measured perpendicular to the flow direction, ρ is the water density, g is the gravity acceleration, F_{fric} is the friction force, W is the weight force, θ the angle between the bed slope and horizontal, and the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the flow conditions immediately before and after the bore roller respectively (Fig. 1). In Equation (A1), B and B' are characteristic widths functions of the bathymetry:

$$B = \frac{A_2 - A_1}{d_2 - d_1} \quad (A2)$$

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$$B' = \frac{\int_{A_1}^{A_2} \rho \times g \times (d_2 - z) \times dA}{\frac{1}{2} \times \rho \times g \times (d_2 - d_1)^2} \quad (A3)$$

with d the flow depth (Fig. 1B). For a smooth rectangular horizontal channel, Equation (A1) yields to the Bélanger equation:

$$\frac{d_2}{d_1} = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(\sqrt{1 + 8 \times Fr_1^2} - 1 \right) \quad \text{Smooth horizontal rectangular channel (A4)}$$

where d_1 and d_2 are respectively the upstream and downstream flow depth, and Fr_1 simplifies into: $Fr_1 = (U+V_1)/(g \times d_1)^{1/2}$ (Fig. 1). First presented in 1841 (Bélanger 1841, Chanson 2009b), Equation (A4) is inappropriate in an irregular channel (Chanson 2012). The roller height h_r is in first approximation: $h_r = d_2 - d_1$ and Equation (A4) may be rewritten as:

$$Fr_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times \left(\frac{d_2 - d_1}{d_1} \right)^2 + \frac{3}{2} \frac{d_2 - d_1}{d_1} \quad \text{Smooth horizontal rectangular channel (A5)}$$

Note that the above development (Eq. (A1), (A4) & (A5)) assumes implicitly that the bore celerity is uniform and the roller shape two-dimensional. Field and laboratory observations suggested that these assumptions are simplistic (Leng and Chanson 2015a).

The application of the energy principle across the bore roller gives an expression of the energy dissipation (Bresse, 1868, Bakhmeteff 1912):

$$\Delta E = d_1 + \frac{(V_1 + U)^2}{2 \times g} - \left(d_2 + \frac{(V_2 + U)^2}{2 \times g} \right) \quad (A6)$$

assuming hydrostatic pressure upstream and downstream. For a smooth horizontal rectangular channel, the rate of energy dissipation becomes (Bakhmeteff 1932):

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E_1} = \frac{\left(\sqrt{1 + 8 \times Fr_1^2} - 3 \right)^3}{16 \times \left(\sqrt{1 + 8 \times Fr_1^2} - 1 \right) \times \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \times Fr_1^2 \right)} \quad (A7)$$

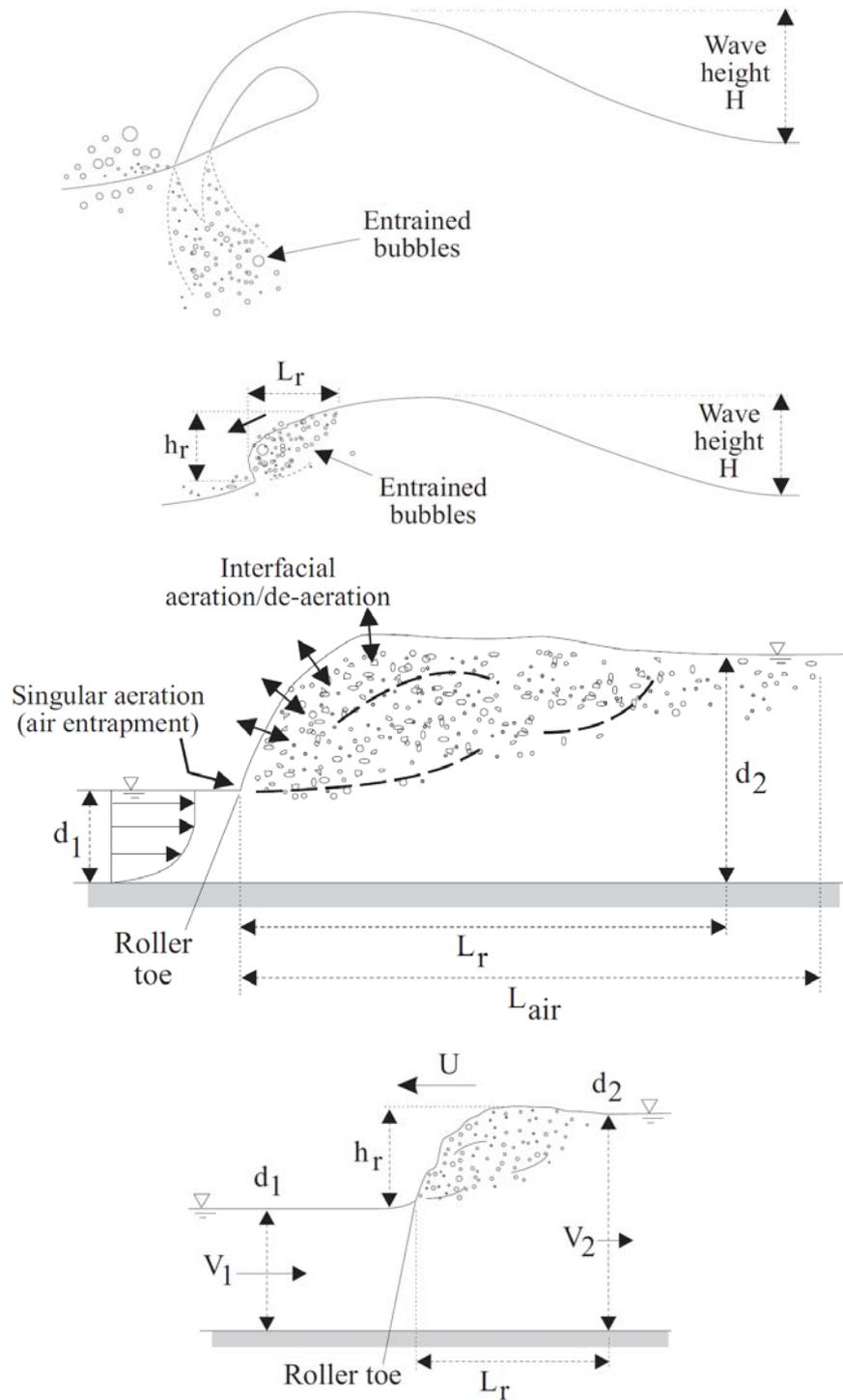
where $E_1 = d_1 + (V_1 + U)^2 / (2 \times g)$. The rate of energy dissipation ranges from 0 for $Fr_1 = 1$ to more than 70% for $Fr_1 > 9$ (Henderson 1966, Chanson 2004). The power dissipated in the bore is:

$$P_d = \rho \times g \times (V_1 + U) \times d_1 \times L \times \Delta E \quad (A7)$$

where L is the transverse length of the bore roller.

In the above equations, the solution for a stationary hydraulic jump is obtained for $U = 0$.

Fig. 1 - Sketches of breaking waves, bore, roller and hydraulic jump



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Fig.2 - Air entrainment in breaking waves, bores and jumps

(A) Breaking waves

(A1) Plunging breaking off Main Beach, North Stradbroke Island (Australia) on 19 April 2014 - Shutter speed: 1/400 s



(A2) Spilling breaker off Pointe du Grand Minou (Brest, France) on 18 March 2004 - Shutter speed: 1/800 s



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(B) Breaking tidal bore of the Qiantang River (China) on 11 October 2014

(B1) Bore approaching the old seawall at Xinchang at 12:50



(B2) Bore roller propagating (from left to right) parallel to the seawall at Qilimiao at 13:20 - The roller height was about 2.5 m to 3 m, the bore celerity 4 m/s to 5 m/s and $Fr \sim 2$ - Shutter speed: 1/6,400 s



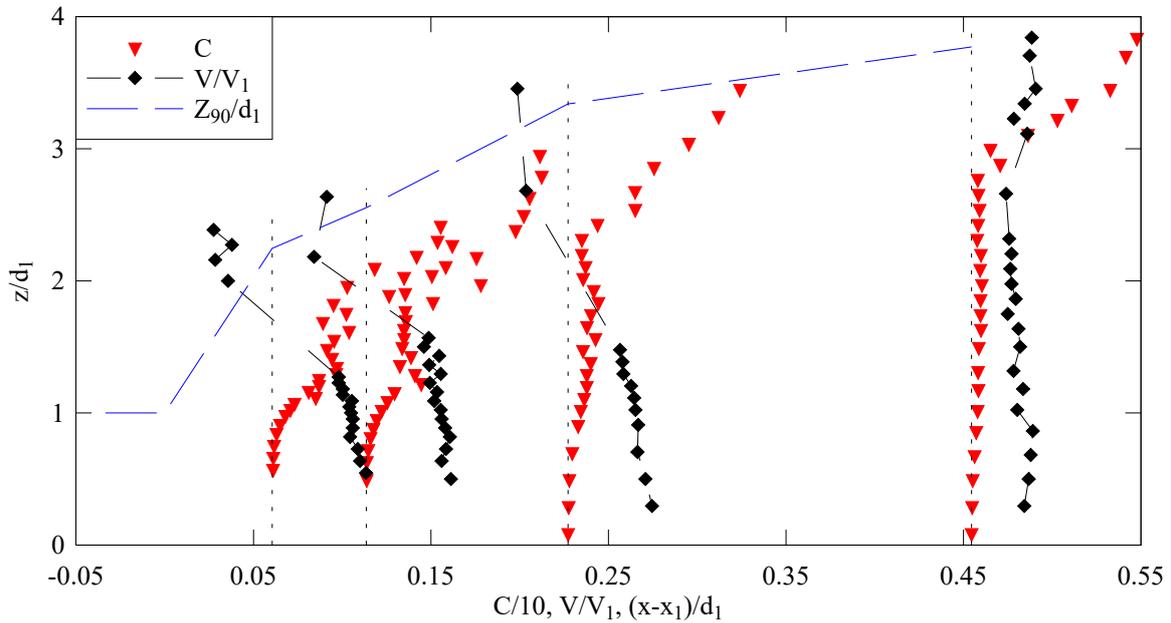
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(C) Hydraulic jump roller (steady flow direction from right to left): $Fr = 7.5$, $Re = 1.4 \times 10^5$, $d_1 = 0.03$ m, shutter speed: $1/1,000$ s

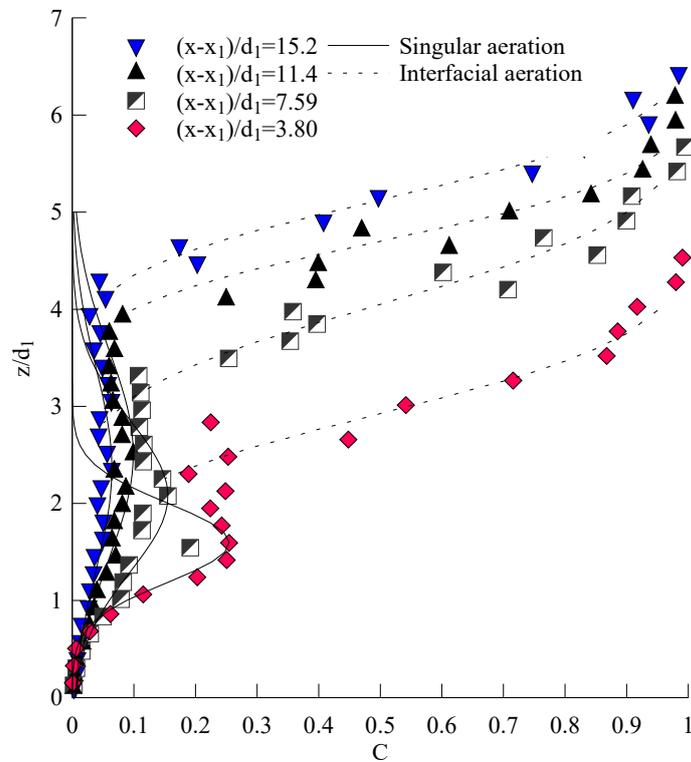


Fig. 3 - Air bubble entrainment in a hydraulic jump with a marked roller

(A) Longitudinal variations of vertical distributions of void fraction and interfacial velocity- Data set: Chachereau and Chanson (2011), $d_1 = 0.044$ m, $Fr = 3.1$, $Re = 8.9 \times 10^4$



(B) Vertical distributions of void fraction - Data set: Chachereau and Chanson (2011), $d_1 = 0.0395$ m, $Fr = 5.1$, $Re = 1.3 \times 10^5$



(C) Vertical distributions of interfacial velocity in the roller - Data set: Chanson (2010), $d_1 = 0.018$ m, $Fr = 9.2$, $Re = 6.9 \times 10^4$

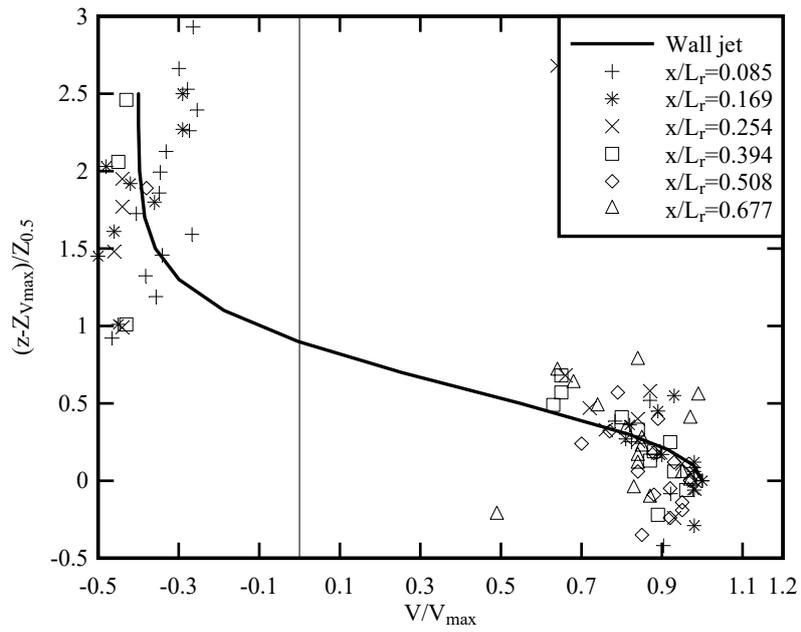


Fig. 4 - Pseudo-bubble radius distributions in seawater generated by a vertical circular plunging jet, at 10, 15 and 25 mm beneath the free-surface - Data set: Chanson et al. (2006), jet diameter: 12.5 mm, impact velocity: 3.1 m/s, water solution: Pacific Ocean seawater off Japan coastline - All bubble sizes were recorded in air-water regions with void fractions greater than 2%.

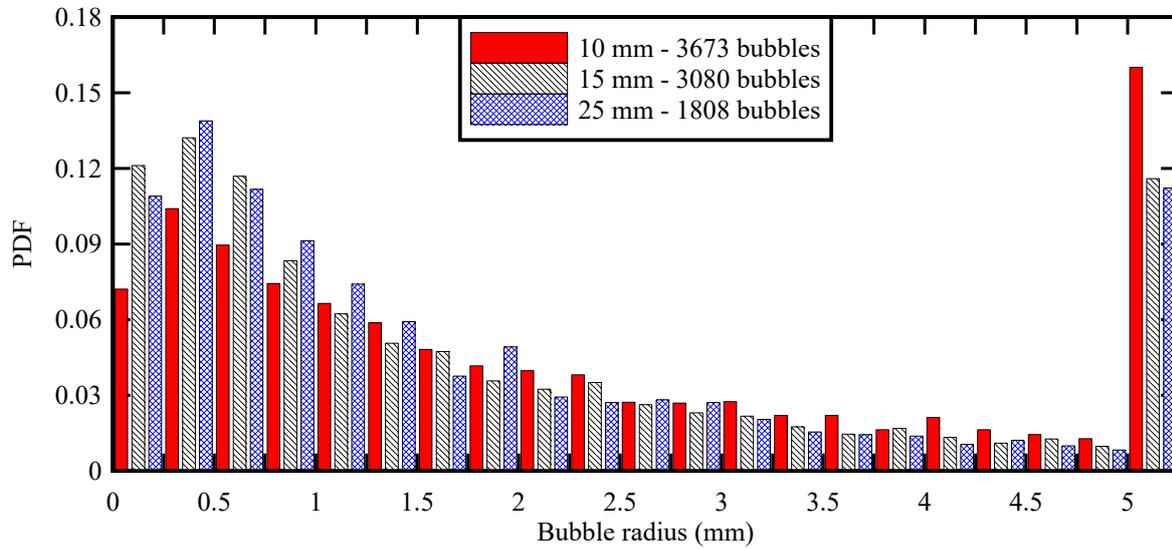


Fig. 5 - Probability distributions functions of roller aspect ratio L_r/h_r - Re-analysis of large-scale wave breaking experiments (Coakley et al., 2001; Haller and Catalan, 2009), stationary hydraulic jump data (Murzyn et al. 2007, Kucukali and Chanson 2008, Murzyn and Chanson 2009, Wang et al. 2015, Wang and Chanson 2015), and tidal bore data (Mouazé et al. 2010, Chanson and Toi 2015)

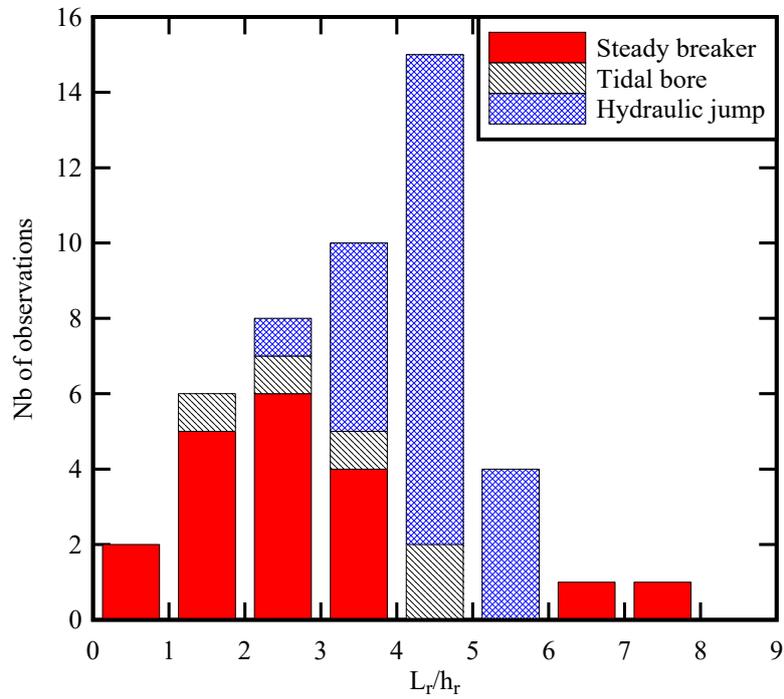
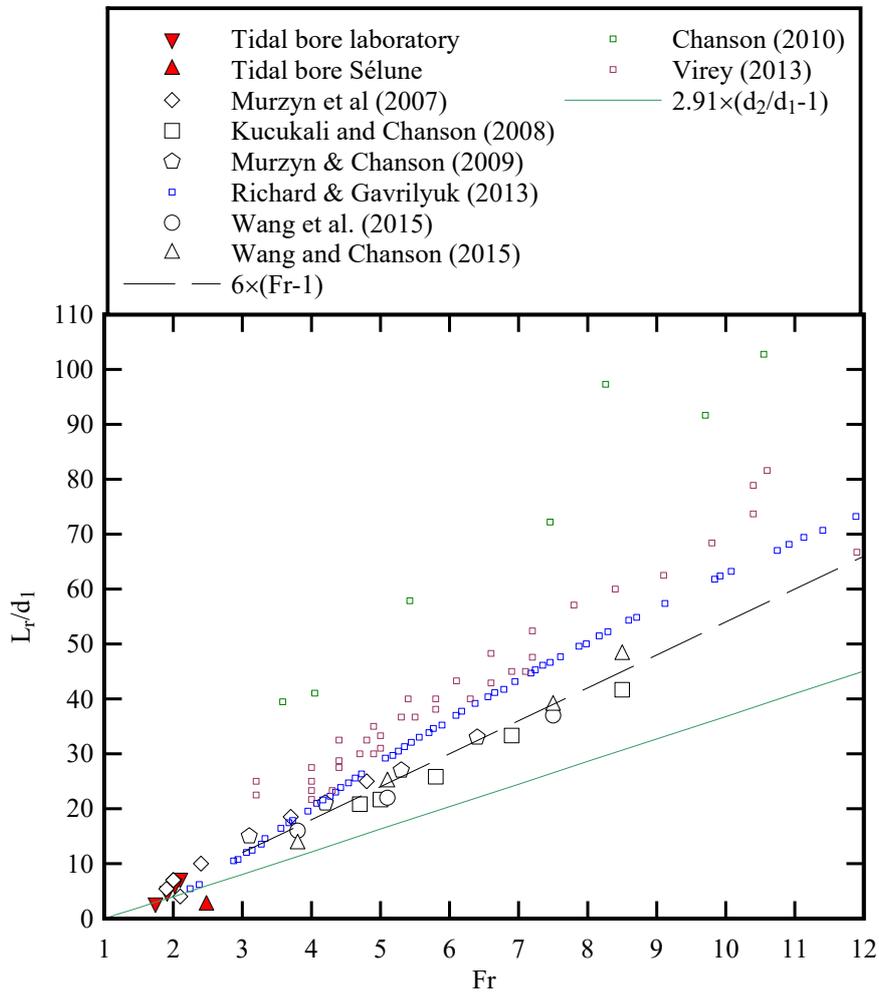


Fig. 6 - Roller length and aeration length in breaking hydraulic jumps and tidal bores as functions of the Froude number ($Fr = (V_1+U)/(g \times d_1)^{1/2}$)

(A) Roller length in breaking hydraulic jumps and tidal bores - Most data are hydraulic jump data unless indicated in the legend; tidal bore data by Chanson and Toi (2015)



(B) Aeration region length in hydraulic jumps

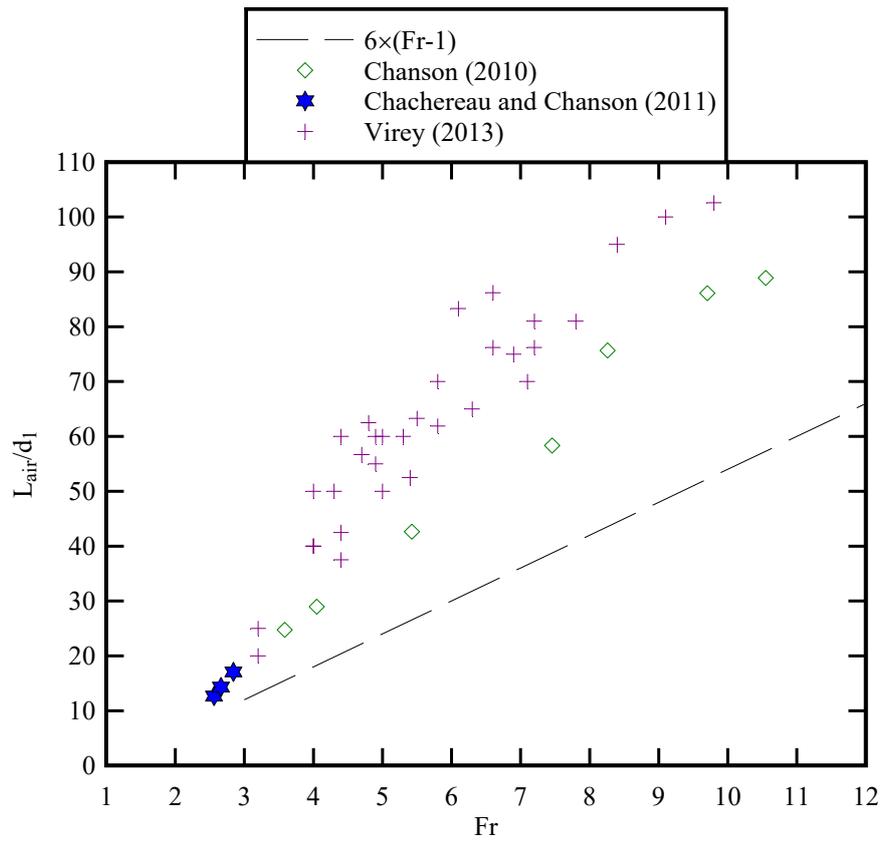


Fig. 7 - Roller height in breaking tidal bores as function of the Froude number ($Fr = (V_1+U)/(g \times d_1)^{1/2}$) - Comparison between breaking tidal bore data and Equation (5) (black solid line) and Equation (6) (red dashed line)

