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# Self-aeration on large dam spillways during major floods

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## ABSTRACT

In a spillway chute flow, the upstream flow is typically non-aerated and the flow becomes self-aerated when the turbulent stresses acting next to the water surface exceeds the combined resistance of gravity and surface tension. The inception region of air entrainment is a rapidly-varied region characterised by the transition from a monophase water to two-phase air–water flow. In this contribution, field observations were conducted at large dam spillways during major flood events, with a focus on prototype data for discharges between  $100 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and  $6,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and Reynolds numbers between  $2.6 \times 10^6$  to  $1.1 \times 10^8$ . The onset of self-aeration was a complicated three-dimensional transient process, and the dimensionless location of the inception region was a function of the Reynolds number. Surface velocities obtained with an optical technique showed that the streamwise surface velocities were close to theoretical estimates, and the streamwise surface turbulent intensities in excess of 100 %, consistent with self-aerated measurements in laboratory. The current findings yield a couple of seminal questions: (a) what do we know about prototype spillway operation during major floods? (b) how large the Reynolds number of a prototype flow needs to be truly representative of large dam spillway self-aerated flows during major flood events?

## 1. Presentation

Dams and reservoirs constitute an efficient means to provide the society with both water security and flood protection (ICOLD, 1984). The dams are equipped with a spillway system designed to pass safely the flood waters during large rainfall events and major floods (USBR, 1965, Novak et al., 1996). Free-surface spillways with un-controlled crest are the "safest" design (Cassidy and Elder, 1984). In a freesurface chute flow, the upstream region is typically a non-aerated flow while some strong air-water mix occurs when the turbulent shear stress acting next to the free-surface exceeds the combined resistance of gravity and surface tension (Ervine and Falvey, 1987, Chanson, 2009). At the upstream end of a spillway, the flow is relatively rapidly accelerated and a turbulent boundary layer develops along the channel invert. On flat chutes, the onset region of self-aeration presents a transition from smooth to rough interface with free-surface instabilities (Michels and Lovely, 1953, Chanson, 1997) (Fig. 1A). It is thought that the inception of air entrainment is caused by a combination of longitudinal vortices' breakdown and of gravity waves produced by roughness and irregularities at the channel boundaries (Levi, 1965,1967, Anwar, 1994). On steep chutes, the inception of air entrainment is observed when the outer edge of the developing turbulent boundary layer starts interacting with the water surface (Rao and Rajaratnam,

1961, Hino, 1961). The interactions between the free-surface and boundary layer turbulence are very energetic and strong air-water ejections may be observed (Chanson, 2013,2022, Zabaleta and Bombardelli, 2020) (Fig. 1B & 1C). Despite some key differences, the two theories do not exclude each other, and this was discussed by Toro et al. (2017) and Chanson (2022). Typical examples of self-aeration processes are presented in Fig. 1, with a series of prototype chute operations illustrated with high-shutter speed photographs.

The performances of spillways are often investigated in physical and laboratory models, and the upscaling can be challenging (Elder 1984a, Kolkman, 1984). Hydraulic models can be un-necessarily expensive and unsatisfactory, whether a physical or numerical approach is selected. Late Professor Pavel Novak and his co-workers stressed that *"Field* (prototype) measurements are of paramount importance, and are really the only way to confirm the validity of the conclusions drawn from the modelling process" (Novak et al., 2010,p. 581). With large dam spillways, the spillway is designed for extreme events, i.e. major floods, but the personal experience and quantitative observations of their performance under these severe conditions is limited.

This contribution aims to discuss the inception processes of air entrainment in prototype dam spillways operating during major floods, with a focus on flow conditions for discharges between  $100 \text{ m}^3$ /s and 6,000 m<sup>3</sup>/s and Reynolds numbers between  $2.6 \times 10^6$  to  $1.1 \times 10^8$ . The

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prototype observations were undertaken a three sites in eastern Australia. Some key features of the onset of self-aeration are described and detailed observations of surface velocity fields are discussed.

## 2. Field observations at prototype spillways

The prototype observations were conducted at three large dam spillways in eastern Australia, between 2010 and 2022 (Fig. 2). The three structures were the Paradise Dam, the Hinze Dam, and the Chinchilla Weir (Table 1). Table 1 summarises the spillway flow conditions during the observations, including the Reynolds number Re being defined in terms of the equivalent pipe diameter. All the three hydraulic structures are listed as large dams by the Australian committee on large dams (ANCOLD) and the international committee on large dams (ICOLD).

The Paradise dam is a roller compacted concrete (RCC) structure located along the Burnett River and equipped with a 315 m wide primary stepped spillway and an un-controlled ogee crest. The final chute slope is  $\theta = 57.38^{\circ}$  (i.e. 1V:0.64H) and the steps are 0.62 m high. Photographic observations were undertaken from the right bank of the Burnett River in 2010 and 2013 (Fig. 3A).

The Hinze dam spillway is a steep stepped chute, followed by an energy dissipator located about 35 m below the chute crest. The final chute slope is  $\theta = 51.3^{\circ}$  (1V:0.8H) with 1.5 m high steps (Fig. 3B). The low section is designed to contain the 1:100 AEP flood event and it is 12.25 m wide (Chanson, 2022). Photographic and cinematographic



(A) High-shutter speed photograph of flat smooth chute spillway: Chinchilla weir, 15 December 2021, Q = 141 m<sup>3</sup>/s, Re =  $2.7 \times 10^6$  to  $4.6 \times 10^6$ , shutter speed: 1/2,000 s



(B) High-shutter speed photograph of steep spillway chute: Hinze dam on 29 January 2013, Q

 $= 202 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ , Re  $= 6.7 \times 10^7$ , shutter speed: 1/8,000 s

Fig. 1. Self-aeration in free-surface chute flows on prototype spillways.



- (C) High-shutter speed photograph of steep spillway chute: Hinze dam on 4 March 2022, Q =
- $111 \text{ m}^{3}/\text{s}$ , Re =  $3.6 \times 10^{7}$ , shutter speed: 1/2,000 s

Fig. 1. (continued).



Fig. 2. Sketch of the location of the three large dam spillway.

records were conducted from two reinforced concrete platforms, located downstream of the spillway and directly above the chute crest, between 2010 and 2022.

The Chinchilla Weir is located on the Condamine River. The structure is a 14 m high earthfill embankment, with an overflow spillway channel. The chute consists of a broad crest, followed by a 60.6 m long smooth converging channel with a constant slope  $\theta = 11.3^{\circ}$  (1V:5H) (Fig. 3C). The chute convergence ratio is 2.18 m/m. The overflow chute is made of concrete slabs (Turnbull and McKay, 1974). The observations were performed from the right bank and from downstream, facing the left spillway bay in 2021 (Chanson and Apelt, 2022,2023).

Visual, photographic and cinematographic data were collected during a number of major flood events (Table 1). The observations were documented using dSLR cameras Pentax<sup>TM</sup> K-7, Pentax<sup>TM</sup> K-01 and

Pentax<sup>TM</sup> K-3 with sensor resolutions ranging from 12 Mpx to 24 Mpx. These were complemented by records using digital cameras Casio<sup>TM</sup> EX10 Exilim and Sony<sup>TM</sup> RC100VA, and an Apple<sup>TM</sup> iPhone XI. The dSLR cameras were equipped with several full-frame prime lenses producing photographs and movies with negligible barrel distortion, and two zoom lenses. The latters were used mostly for qualitative and limited quantitative observations. The dSLR camera movies were recorded in high definition (1920 × 1080 px) at 30 fps and 60 fps, while the movies with the Casio<sup>TM</sup> and Sony<sup>TM</sup> cameras were recorded at 120 fps and 100 fps.

The analyses of free-surface features, including air–water structures, were performed based upon high-shutter speed photographs and movies. All the tracking and measurements of free-surface features were undertaken manually to maximise the quality control, owing to the

#### Table 1

Prototype spillway observations in eastern Australia (Present study).

Spillway	Chute design	θ (°)	Date	Q (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	q (m²/s)	Re	Comments
Paradise dam	Stepped	57.4	30/12/2010	5,965	18.9	$7.5 imes10^7$	
			5/03/2013	2,316	7.4	$2.9 imes10^7$	
Hinze dam	Stepped	51.3	29/01/2013	202	16.5	$6.5  imes 10^7$	See Chanson (2013)
			3/05/2015	21	1.7	$6.8 imes10^6$	
			31/03/2017	334	27.3	$1.1 imes 10^8$	1:100 AEP flood
			23/03/2021	111	9.1	$3.6 imes10^7$	
			24/03/2021	140	11.4	$4.5  imes 10^7$	
			27/03/2021	72	5.9	$2.3 imes10^7$	
			25/02/2022	52	4.3	$1.7 imes 10^7$	
			27/02/2022	116	9.5	$3.8 imes10^7$	
			1/03/2022	249	20.4	$8.1 imes10^7$	
			3/03/2022	143	11.7	$4.6  imes 10^7$	
			4/03/2022	111	9.1	$3.6 imes10^7$	
			5/03/2022	86	7.0	$2.8 imes10^7$	
Chinchilla weir	Smooth	11.3	27/11/2021	121	0.57 ( <sup>1</sup> )	$2.3 imes10^{6}$ (1)	
			15/12/2021	144	0.67 ( <sup>1</sup> )	$2.7 imes 10^{6}~(^{1})$	

Note: (1) at the spillway crest.

complexity of the prototype turbulent flow motion. The prototype spillway flows were characterised by extremely rapid, quasi-random and large changes with time and space. Furthermore, a number of movies were processed using an optical flow (OF) technique, with the camera fixed on a sturdy tripod and equipped with full-frame prime lenses. The OF is a set of tools, detecting the flow motion between consecutive frames based upon brightness intensity changes, originally developed by computer vision scientists (Bung and Valero, 2016, Zhang and Chanson, 2019). In this study, the OF technique was based upon the Farneback method. The Farneback technique was applied using parameters previously obtained and validated in laboratory for surface velocity (Arosquipa Nina et al., 2022). The application to prototype spillway chutes was carefully validated against theoretical analyses and large-size physical model (Chanson, 2022, Chanson and Apelt, 2022).

## 3. Prototype spillway flow observations

#### 3.1. Air-water flow features

For all flood events, the approach flow conditions were observed to be very smooth at all spillway structures. This was confirmed by aerial photographs and drone footages during a select number of events (Fig. 3A & Chanson, 2023). In the reservoir, the flow converged smoothly towards the spillway crest, and the upstream water surface was waveless and quasi-still. For all observation conditions (Table 1), the flow was critical at the un-controlled crest, acting as a hydraulic control. The smooth change on water surface elevation between the upstream reservoir and the upstream end of the chute was thoroughly documented with photographs, movies and aerial footage.

On the spillway chute, the flow accelerated and the water surface became rough and choppy, before becoming self-aerated. The inception region presented markedly different features between flat-slope and steep slope structures. On flat-slope chutes, a progressive transition of surface roughness was seen, as documented at Chinchilla weir in 1997, 2011, 2021 and 2022 (Chanson and Apelt, 2023), and at other flat-slope chute weirs (Anwar, 1994). Down un-controlled flat-slope chutes, the water surface roughness changed progressively from a glassy surface to a rough appearance, followed by a choppy wavy texture, becoming self-aerated, i.e. the inception region (Fig. 1A & 3C). The inception region corresponded to the progressive change in surface texture and roughness. Downstream of the inception region, the self-aerated chute flow at Chinchilla weir exhibited a beige colour, systematically documented in 1974, 1997, 2011, 2021 and 2022. The beige colour was evidence of the three-phase nature of the air–water-sediment motion (Chanson, 2013).

On steep spillway chutes, the inception region was characterised by a brutal transition from non-aerated to self-aerated flow, with explosive interactions between large-scale turbulent structures and the water surface (Fig. 1B, 1C, 3A, 3B, & 4A). Short-lived very-energetic surface scars and boils were observed immediately upstream of the onset of freesurface aeration. The surface scars initiated and developed primarily as transverse entities, although the generation process could include a mix of both longitudinal and transverse scar initiation (Chanson, 2022). Fig. 4B presents the dimensionless growth of the transverse width of air–water surface features in the vicinity of the onset region. The graphs regroups both prototype and laboratory data obtained with high-shutter speed records (Table 2). Details of the flow conditions are listed in Table 2, including the aspect ratio  $B/d_c$ , defined as the ratio of chute width B to critical depth  $d_c$ , and the camera frame rate in frames per second (fps). For all the data sets (Table 2), the growth of transverse cars was best correlated by

$$\frac{w}{d_c} = 0.888 \times \left( t \times \sqrt{\frac{g}{d_c}} \right)^{0.485} \text{ for steep chutes}$$
(1)

where w is the instantaneous width, g is the gravity acceleration, t is the time since the apparition of the surface feature, and the normalised correlation coefficient is 0.80. Eq. (1) is shown and compared to the data in Fig. 4B. The data presented some scatter, which reflected upon the turbulent nature of the interactions between large-scale coherent structures and the free surface, immediately upstream of the inception region (Toro et al., 2017, Chanson, 2022).

The surface scar features were linked to some violent upwelling of large-scale elongated coherent structures. At the same time as the surface breaking took place, some upward stretching of the scar feature took place, with violent air-water processes including air entrapment and air-water fluid expulsion. While the upwelling continued, the violent surface breaking led to the formation of elongated air-water surface features (Fig. 4A). The growth of the elongated air-water surface features yielded the complete aeration of the whole free-surface, i.e. the self-aerated flow region downstream of the inception region. The air-water surface features presented a variety of elongated shapes in prototype chutes with an aspect ratio, i.e. ratio of length to width, typically greater than 2 to 5 as observed Hinze, Paradise, Somerset and Wivenhoe Dams, Australia (Present study), as well as at Pedrogao Dam, Portugal (Matos and Meireles, 2014) and at Aviemore Dam, New Zealand (Keller, 1972, Cain, 1978). In laboratory, the same air-water surface features presented a ratio of length to width equal about to unity in average, as shown in Fig. 4C. The contrast between prototype and laboratory data hints that some laboratory results in self-aerated flows might not be extrapolated to full-scale prototype spillways without some intrinsic limitations and potential scale effects, already discussed elsewhere (Wood, 1985, Chanson, 1995, Zhang and Chanson, 2017).



(A) Paradise Dam spillway for Q = 2,316  $m^3/s$  and Re =  $2.9{\times}10^7$  - Top: approach flow



conditions; Bottom: steep spillway chute flow

(B) Hinze Dam spillway for  $Q=202\ m^3/s$  and  $Re=6.7{\times}10^7$ 

Fig. 3. Self-aeration at prototype spillways during major flood operation - All photographs are high shutter speed with exposure time less than 1 ms.



(C) Chinchilla weir for  $Q = 121 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and  $\text{Re} = 2.3 \times 10^6$  (at the crest)

Fig. 3. (continued).

## 3.2. Inception region

For design engineers, the flow conditions at and location of the inception region of self-aeration are basic design requirements to model the gradually-varied self-aerated flow region (Wood, 1985,1991, Chanson, 1993, Matos, 2000). For all overflows, the prototype data are presented in Fig. 5A, as the dimensionless location of the inception region  $L_I/d_c$  as function of the Reynolds number Re. In Fig. 5A, the present data are compared to earlier prototype data. Despite differences in designs, i.e. smooth versus stepped chutes and flat versus steep slopes, all

the prototype data were relatively closely correlated as:

$$\frac{L_I}{d_c} = 9 + \frac{4.65 \times 10^5}{\text{Re}^{0.7}} \tag{2}$$

where  $L_I$  is the mean position of inception region of free-surface aeration and measured from the chute crest and the normalised correlation coefficient was 0.96. Eq. (2) is compared to the prototype data in Fig. 5A, and the results showed a lower limit  $L_I/d_c$  towards 9 for very large Reynolds numbers, i.e.  $Re > 10^8$ , irrespective of the chute type and invert slope. The data trend (Fig. 5A) implies potential scale effects in



(A) Elongated air-water surface features in the inception region at the Hinze Dam spillway for

 $Q = 111 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and  $Re = 4,5 \times 10^7$  (shutter speed: 1/1,000 s)



(B) Dimensionless time variation of transverse length of individual surface scars immediately upstream of the inception region in prototype and laboratory chute spillways

Fig. 4. Air-water surface features in the inception region on steep-slope chutes (Table 2).



(C) Dimensionless time variations of length to width aspect ratio of individual air-water

surface features in laboratory

#### Fig. 4. (continued).

 Table 2

 Observations of individual air-water surface features in the inception region of steep spillway chutes (Present study).

Spillway	Design	θ (°)	Q (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	q (m²/s)	Re	Aspect ratio B/d <sub>c</sub>	Camera frame rate
Hinze dam	Stepped $(h = 1.5 \text{ m})$	51.3	140 140 202	11.4 11.4 16.5	$4.5 \times 10^{7}$ $4.5 \times 10^{7}$ $6.5 \times 10^{7}$	5.16 5.16	30 fps 120 fps 30 fps
Laboratory (UQ)	Stepped $(h = 0.10 \text{ m})$	45.0	0.13	0.13	$5.2 \times 10^5$	8.21	20,000 fps

terms of the location of the inception region, when extrapolating observations obtained for Re <  $2 \times 10^7$  to larger Reynolds numbers. Eq. (2) differs from historical developments which were derived in terms of a Froude number scaling (Keller and Rastogi, 1975, Wood et al., 1983). Instead, Eq. (2) incorporates the Reynolds number, following boundary layer development theories (Schlichting 1979, Schetz 1993, Chanson, 2014). Further, the range of applications of Eq. (2) covers a broad range of prototype flow conditions for  $2 \times 10^6 < \text{Re} < 1 \times 10^8$ .

The data in terms of dimensionless flow depth  $d_I/d_c$  in the inception region are shown in Fig. 5B. The water depth data were obtained from series of high-resolution dSLR photographs (12 Mpx to 24 Mpx) and detailed postconstruction plans. Standard uncertainties of less than 10 mm and 2–5 pixels were assumed for the ground reference point and image coordinates. The corresponding physical photographic uncertainty typically ranged between 0.005 m and 0.015 m per pixel. Despite some scatter, the prototype observations indicated smaller water depths at inception on smooth chute spillways, compared to stepped spillways. The difference was linked in different boundary layer growth rates, between friction-dominated smooth chute flows and form dragdominated stepped spillway flows. Although some difference is seen between stepped chute data, it may be stressed the high accuracy of the Hinze Dam data set, owing to the excellent and unique physical and optical access and accurate ground reference points (Chanson, 2022).

## 3.3. Surface velocity field

At two prototype spillways, the surface velocity field was derived from an optical technique (OF). The data showed a streamwise distribution with increasing longitudinal surface velocity with decreasing vertical invert elevation at both Hinze Dam and Chinchilla Weir (Chanson, 2022, Chanson and Apelt, 2023). On both chutes, the longitudinal surface velocity maps presented regions of higher velocities and areas of lower velocities, at a given vertical elevation (Fig. 6A). The findings invalidated the "traditional" assumption of two-dimensional flow on spillway chutes and implied a three-dimensional velocity field. The standard deviations of streamwise and transverse surface velocity showed large streamwise surface turbulence and much smaller transverse turbulent intensity. The dimensionless longitudinal turbulence intensity was of the order of magnitude about:  $v_s'/V_s \sim 100 \%$  to 150% at both chute spillways, with Vs the time-averaged streamwise surface velocity component and vs' the standard deviation of the streamwise surface velocity component (Fig. 6B). The dimensionless velocity fluctuation data were comparable to laboratory observations of surface velocity fluctuations in large-size laboratory chutes, obtained with total pressure probe, dual-tip phase detection probe and optical flow with ultra-high-speed video camera (e.g. Zhang and Chanson, 2016, Arosquipa Nina et al., 2022). Fig. 6B presents a comparison of prototype and laboratory observations, with similar trend and order of magnitude for all data sets. In Fig. 6B, the phase-detection probe data were recorded at  $y=Y_{90}$  where the void fraction was 90 %. For the prototype data (Hinze Dam, Chinchilla Weir), it is believed that the natural lighting would likely contribute to the greater uniform data trend, seen in Fig. 6B. Indeed, one cannot stress the importance of lighting conditions when using optical techniques (Chanson and Shi, 2022, Bung, 2023). Altogether, these high turbulence levels were caused by a combination of free-surface turbulence and free-surface fluctuations in the direction normal to the invert, as well as instationary hydrodynamic instabilities (Felder and Chanson, 2014, Chanson, 2022).



(A) Longitudinal location of the inception region including a comparison with Equation (2)



## (B) Water depth in the inception region

Fig. 5. Dimensionless location  $L_I/d_c$  of and water depth  $d_I/d_c$  at the inception region on prototype spillway chutes as functions of the Reynolds number Re -Comparison between prototype smooth chute data (Aviemore dam, Chinchilla weir) and prototype stepped chute data (Hinze dam, Paradise dam, Pedrogao dam, Dona Francisca dam) (Present study, Cain and Wood, 1981, Chanson et al., 2015).

Basically, the surface velocity and turbulence intensity data recorded in prototype spillways demonstrated a two-dimensional surface velocity field, implying a strong three-dimensionality of the self-aerated spillway chute flows. The supercritical chute flows entering the downstream stilling basin would include some regions of kinetic energy peaks, and the finding has some direct implication into the safe design of downstream energy dissipators.

### 4. Concluding outcomes

Today, the planet Earth is experiencing an increasing number of extreme water events, including with droughts and floods (Jonkman,

2005, Rojas et al., 2013). Both flood protection and water security are becoming vital to mankind. Water reservoirs can deliver both (Novak et al., 1996,2007) and the dams must be equipped with a spillway structure to pass safely the flood waters above, below, beneath or beside the dam wall. Despite the numerous hydraulic design manuals, what do we know really about prototype spillway operation during major floods, beyond limited visual qualitative observations and physical modelling in facilities drastically smaller than the full-scale prototype spillways? Not much really! Detailed quantitative measurements in prototype spillway overflow are rare, especially during very large floods. One cannot stress enough the importance of prototype field measurements because they apply to the full-scale infrastructure. Despite a sizeable number of



(A) Contour map of longitudinal surface velocity  $V_s$  at Chinchilla Weir (left spillway bay) for  $Q = 121 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  and  $\text{Re} = 2.3 \times 10^6$  (at spillway crest)



(B) Dimensionless vertical variations of longitudinal turbulence intensity  $v_s'/V_s$  at Chinchilla weir (Q = 144 m<sup>3</sup>/s, Re = 2.7×10<sup>6</sup>) at Hinze Dam (Q = = 140 m<sup>3</sup>/s, Re = 4.5×10<sup>7</sup>) and in laboratory (Q = 0.13 m<sup>3</sup>/s, Re = 5.2×10<sup>5</sup>) - DTPTP = dual-tip phase detection probe data at y = Y<sub>90</sub> where the void fraction was 90%; OF = optical flow - Note that the critical flow conditions (d<sub>c</sub>, V<sub>c</sub>) are calculated at the spillway crest.

Fig. 6. Surface velocity measurements at prototype spillways during major flood operation.

intrinsic difficulties, the field measurements represent the ultimate "truth". In plain terms, quantitative prototype data constitute a fundamental requirement for the proper validation of successful hydraulic designs as well as the validation of experimental, theoretical and computational modelling.

In the last few decades, a number of recent developments in physical and optical observations delivered a few prototype spillway tests (Cain and Wood, 1981, Falvey, 1982, Volkart and Rutschmann, 1984, Hohermuth et al., 2021, Bai et al. 2022). While controlled prototype tests are very valuable to provide documented answers to many design questions, the test flow conditions are usually idealised. That is, the fullscale tests are typically conducted for short durations, with water discharges significantly smaller than design flow conditions, with smooth inflow, and with low debris and sediment contents. Such conditions differ from major flood events, and a senior dam engineer warned of the "*fallacy*" behind full-scale testing (Elder 1984b). Today, there remains a critical need to fill the knowledge gap in detailed prototype observations during major floods and natural disaster events.

Many variables are uncontrolled during prototype hydraulic structure overflows, in comparison to laboratory experiments. A sizeable amount of scientific discussions has been centered on the physical modelling in laboratory and scale effects affecting the extrapolation of laboratory results (Kobus, 1984, Chanson, 2009, Novak et al., 2010). In contrast, detailed reports on the hydraulic operation of large dams' spillways during major floods are rare, unless there are accidents, incidents or failure. A notable exception was a special seminar held in 2001 (Burgi and Gao, 2001). Thus, an expert hydraulic engineer should ask: how large the Reynolds number of a prototype flow needs to be? Let us remember that the flow conditions for a few seminal prototype data sets corresponded to Reynolds numbers Re about  $10^6$  to  $3 \times 10^6$ : e.g., at the Aviemore dam spillway (Cain and Wood, 1981), La Grande Dixence spillway chute (Volkart and Rutschmann, 1984) and Pangzhuang gate (Bai et al., 2021). The flow conditions of these data sets were one to two orders of magnitude lower than the design flow conditions of many large dam spillway systems, including the Hinze Dam and Paradise Dam spillway chutes. In this context, the current contribution encompasses prototype spillway data collected at large Reynolds numbers up to  $1.1 \times 10^8$  and discharges in excess of  $100 \text{ m}^3$ /s. This constitutes an original attempt to develop the state-of-the art expertise in air-water flows in spillway flow and to expand our knowledge in ultra-high-Reynolds number free-surface flows.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: In line with recommendations of the International Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) and the Office of the Commonwealth Ombudsman (Australia), Hubert Chanson declares a major conflict of interest with Matthias Kramer (University of New South Wales, Canberra) and Stefan Felder (University of New South Wales). Matthias Kramer and Stefan Felder made false allegations of plagiarism against Professor Chanson, his student and his research fellow. The allegations were investigated independently and found un-substantiated by very senior scholars.

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