A Surface KInematics Buoy (SKIB) for wave-current interactions studies

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Abstract. Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSS) and modern motion-sensor packages allow the measurement of ocean surface waves with low-cost drifters. Drifting along or across current gradients provides unique measurements of wave-current interactions. In this study, we investigate the response of several combinations of GNSS receiver, motion-sensor package and hull design in order to define a prototype "surface kinematic buoy" (SKIB) that is particularly optimized for measuring

5 wave-current interactions, including relatively short wave components (relative frequency around 1 Hz) that are important for air-sea interactions and remote sensing applications. The comparison with existing Datawell Directional Waverider and SWIFT buoys, as well as stereo-video imagery demonstrates the accuracy of SKIB. The use of low-cost accelerometers and a spherical ribbed and skirted hull design provide acceptable heave spectra, while velocity estimates from GNSS receivers yield a mean direction and directional spread. Using a low-power acquisition board allows autonomous deployments over several months

10 with data transmitted by satellite. The capability to measure current-induced wave variations is illustrated with data acquired in a macro-tidal coastal environment.

1 Introduction

Many devices have been developed to measure ocean waves, from in situ moored or drifting sensors, to remote sensing systems using optical or radar devices (COST Action 714 Working Group 3, 2005). Each measurement system has a specific range of applications defined by the required space and time resolution and coverage, water depth, current speed. These have been very

5 useful in studying upper ocean processes or monitoring sea states for various applications.

Among all these, surface buoys such as the Datawell directional Waverider have been reference instruments for the estimation of the sea surface elevation frequency spectra from measurements of buoy acceleration. The combined horizontal and vertical accelerations give the first five moments of the directional spectrum that can be used to estimate the directional wave spectrum (e.g. Benoit et al., 1997). In conditions with strong currents, e.g. more than 1 m/s, it is usually impossible to measure waves

10 with a moored surface buoy, due to the tension on the mooring line. This problem is avoided with drifting buoys, but the nature of the measurement is different. Drifting buoys will not measure long time series at the same location, but they can provide a unique along-section measurement of waves following the current (Pearman et al., 2014).

Several such drifting buoys have been developed recently for different applications (Herbers et al., 2012; Thomson, 2012; Reverdin et al., 2013). With our focus on relatively short gravity waves, with wavelength between 1 and 30 m, there is a

15 trade-off between the size of the device and its response to the waves.

Herbers et al. (2012) proposed a compact and low-cost 45-cm diameter GPS-Tracked drifting buoy. This buoy uses a GPS receiver for absolute position tracking. Compared with Datawell these authors find that the horizontal wave orbital displacements are accurately resolved, although, the vertical sea surface displacements were not well resolved by standard GPS measurements, requiring to attach an external high precision antenna to the drifter.

20 Thomson (2012) developed the Surface Wave Instrument Float with Tracking (SWIFT), a multi-sensor drifter buoy. This short instrumented spar buoy has a 0.3 m diameter and 2.15-m height, and has been designed to measure wind, waves, whitecap properties and underwater turbulence and current profiles. Wave measurements are derived from the phase-resolving GPS, that contain the wave orbital motions relative to the earth reference frame. The relatively large size of the buoy is needed for the other measurements, and it results in a very weak response for wave frequencies above 0.4 Hz. Obviously, the SWIFT buoy

25 design has other benefits, such as the use of an acoustic Doppler current profiler that allows to investigate the effect of the vertical current shear on the waves (Zippel and Thomson, 2017).

Reverdin et al. (2013) developed a surface wave rider (called "Surpact") to measure sea state and atmospheric sea level pressure as well as temperature and salinity at a small fixed depth from the surface. Surpacts use a floating annular ring (28 cm diameter) with a rotating axis across it to which the instrumented tag is attached and uses the vertical acceleration to obtain the

30 power spectrum between 0.2 Hz and 2.2 Hz.

Within limitations, the changing position of drifting buoys can also be used to estimate near surface currents, with buoy trajectories representing the result of the integral of wind and current forcing over the entire buoy.

Our intention is to capture the response of surface gravity waves to horizontal current gradients, in order to better interpret airborne and satellite imagery of waves and current features (e.g. Kudryavtsev, 2005; Rascle et al., 2014, 2017), and improve on the parameterizations of numerical wave models (e.g. Ardhuin et al., 2009; van der Westhuysen et al., 2012).

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the relations between parameters recorded by the various devices used in our study and the wave spectrum. Section 3 explains the design of SKIB and validation in the laboratory and in situ. Section 4 describes an example application to measurements of waves and currents, and conclusions follow in section 5.

2 Measurable parameters and processing

For random wind waves, the variance of the sea surface elevation field can be described using variance density spectrum $E(f_r, \theta)$, or the action density spectrum $N(k, \theta)$, where $N(k, \theta) = E(f_r, \theta)/\sigma$, $f_r = 2\pi/\sigma$ is the intrinsic (relative) wave frequency, θ is the wave direction.

For linear waves, the wavenumber k is related to the intrinsic wave frequency, the frequency measured by a drifting buoy following the current,

$$\sigma^2 = gk \tanh(kD). \tag{1}$$

where D is the water depth, and g the acceleration of the gravitational force.

In the presence of a horizontal current vector $\boldsymbol{U}$ that is vertically uniform, the intrinsic frequency differs from the absolute frequency $f_a = \omega/(2\pi)$ observed in a reference frame attached to the solid Earth,

$$\omega = \sigma + \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{U}. \tag{2}$$

A near-surface shear would lead to an effective current that varies with the wavenumber (Stewart and Joy, 1974).

When drifting with the surface current vector (u, v), a surface buoy can measure the three components of the acceleration vector (a_x, a_y, a_z), the GPS horizontal Doppler velocities (u, v) and positions (x, y, z). In practice the accelerations and horizontal velocities have relatively low noise and can be used to measure waves. In our SKIB acquisition system, the GPS data is sampled at 1 Hz while the accelerometer is sampled at 25 Hz and they are independent systems.

The spectra and co-spectra of these time series can provide the moments of the directional distribution of the spectrum $E(f_r, \theta)$, that are the first terms in a Fourier expansion of the directional distribution, $E(f_r)$, $a_1(f_r)$, $b_1(f_r)$, $a_2(f_r)$, $b_2(f_r)$ (Longuet-Higgins et al., 1963; Kuik et al., 1988).

From the first moments it is customary to define a mean direction $\theta_1(f_r)$ and directional spread $\sigma_1(f_r)$,

$$\theta_1(f_r) = \tan^{-1}(b_1/a_1), \tag{3}$$

$$\sigma_1(f_r) = \sqrt{2\left(1 - \sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2}\right)}. \tag{4}$$

When only velocity measurement are available, one can only access $E(f_r)$,$a_2(f_r)$,$b_2(f_r)$, which give the two following parameters,

$$\theta_2(f_r) = \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}(b_2/a_2),$$ (5)

$$\sigma_2(f_r) = \sqrt{0.5\left(1 - \sqrt{a_2^2 + b_2^2}\right)}.$$ (6)

For completeness, here are how the spectra of and co-spectra C_{xy} of two quantities x and y, with x or y replaced by h for heave, and u or v for the horizontal velocity components, are linked to the directional moments,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1(f_r) \\ b_1(f_r) \\ a_2(f_r) \\ b_2(f_r) \end{pmatrix} = \int_0^{2\pi} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \\ \cos 2\theta \\ \sin 2\theta \end{pmatrix} E(f_r,\theta)d\theta \Big/ \int_0^{2\pi} E(f_r,\theta)d\theta = \begin{pmatrix} C_{uh}/\sqrt{C_{hh}(C_{uu} + C_{vv})} \\ C_{vh}/\sqrt{C_{hh}(C_{uu} + C_{vv})} \\ (C_{uu} - C_{vv})/(C_{uu} + C_{vv}) \\ 2C_{uv}/(C_{uu} + C_{vv}) \end{pmatrix}.$$ (7)

We estimated the auto- and cross-spectra following Welch (1967), using Fourier transforms over time series of 5000 samples, with a 50% overlap, and using a Hann window. The resulting spectra have a frequency resolution of 0.005 Hz and 24 degrees of freedom (12 independent windows and 11 overlapped windows).

Because the GPS and accelerometer have different sampling frequencies, the buoy displacements are linearly interpolated on the accelerometer sampling time steps. This is only required for the co-spectrum of the horizontal displacements $C_{uv}(f)$, and quadrature-spectra of horizontal and vertical displacements $C_{uh}(f)$, $C_{vh}(f)$.

Here we will focus on frequencies between 0.06 to 0.80 Hz for our investigation of current gradients. We will also discuss the full frequency range for a validation of the buoy behavior.

3 Buoy design and validation

3.1 Hull shape and constraints of deployment at sea

We performed a first experiment in September 2014 using buoys provided by T. T. Janssen. These were early prototypes that evolved into the Spotter buoy (https://spoondrift.co/). They functioned very well, using GPS-derived orbital velocities giving estimates of $E(f_r)$, $\theta_2(f_r)$ and $\sigma_2(f_r)$ up to a frequency of 0.5 Hz. These buoys had a spherical plexiglass hull and were deployed with a lead weight attached to their bottom with a rope to provide some stability. This weight introduces a mass-spring resonance at a frequency of 0.8 Hz, making the measurement of wave properties in the frequency range 0.5 to 1 Hz difficult. A similar resonance exists for the short spar SWIFT buoys, due to their shape.

The hull shape is clearly important when resolving short wave components. The main drivers are the stability of the buoy, we typically want to have the top of the buoy stay above its bottom, in particular for radio transmission, we also wish to avoid rotation of the buoy relative to the water around it, and finally the buoy has to be big enough to be visible for recovery and small enough to be easily handled and to follow the motion of short waves. One final driver is the cost of the hull.

With all these constraints in mind we found that a nearly spherical shape with ribs and an additional skirt provided a good water-following behavior. Three-dimensional printing was tested without much success due to the porosity of the printed material. For the small number of buoys that we needed we finally settled on glass spheres, for which we had other oceanographic uses, encased in a plastic ribbed cage, as shown in figures 1 and 2.a,b.

3.2 SKIB Electronics

The accelerometer and the GPS system are directly integrated in a general-purpose oceanographic "Advanced Low Energy Electronic System" (ALEES) board developed by Ifremer/RDT especially for applications which need very low power consumption. This generic board uses a micro-controller 32bits EFM32 cortex M3, working at 48MHz, 1Mb flash memory and 128Kb RAM. The data is stored in a SDHC micro memory card. The GPS and the accelerometer are not synchronized and the acquisition rates are 1Hz and 25Hz respectively.

The integrated accelerometer is a STMicroelectronics model LIS3DH (this is the SKIB STM buoy version), already incorporated in the ALEES board for other uses, namely the detection of strong motions for under-water sensors. This low-cost (less than 2 USD) component was chosen for its very low power use, between 2 and 6 μA at 2.5 V.

A specific board was designed to control the GPS acquisition and send the buoy position via the IRIDIUM board. We typically programmed the buoy to send position messages every 10 min, in order to be able to find the instruments at sea in highly variable currents. The ALEES board and Xbee module are plugged in a SYREDOMY board for an underwater wireless pop-up system. The ALEES and GPS boards can be controlled by a 802.15.4. Zigbee wireless link with an application layer. This wireless link also allow the user to setup the buoy and to recover the data without opening the glass spheres, allowing to powering on and off the system.

All the system, the electronic boards, battery pack and antennas (Xbee, GPS, Iridium) is mounted inside a 10-inch diameter glass sphere, which is vacuum-sealed. See figure 1.

For a detailed validation we have also integrated a more accurate sensor in two of the SKIB buoys (this is the SKIB SBG buoy version). In those buoys were used the IMU SBG Ellipse N, set with an acquisition rate of 50 Hz. However, this sensor significantly increases the equipments cost and consumption, with a unit price typically above 4000 USD.

3.3 Laboratory tests and in situ validation

Buoy testing started with verification of expected acceleration accuracy in a wave tank, followed by a comparison with in situ measurements with a reference wave buoy.

The Laboratory tests were very useful for testing various hull shapes, from spheres to short cylinders. These led to the addition of the plastic skirt that effectively removes rotations around the horizontal axes, with a limited impact on the water-following capacity for short wave components. This final design has a heave transfer function close to 1 up to 0.8 Hz, decreasing to 0.6 at 1 Hz, as established in wave basin tests (Thomas, 2015). This extends to high frequency the useful range of buoys such as Datawell waveriders or SWITFs. For in situ validation, the SKIB buoy was deployed drifting within 200 m of a directional Mark III Datawell directional Waverider of 70 cm diameter, moored in a region of weak currents with a mean water depth of
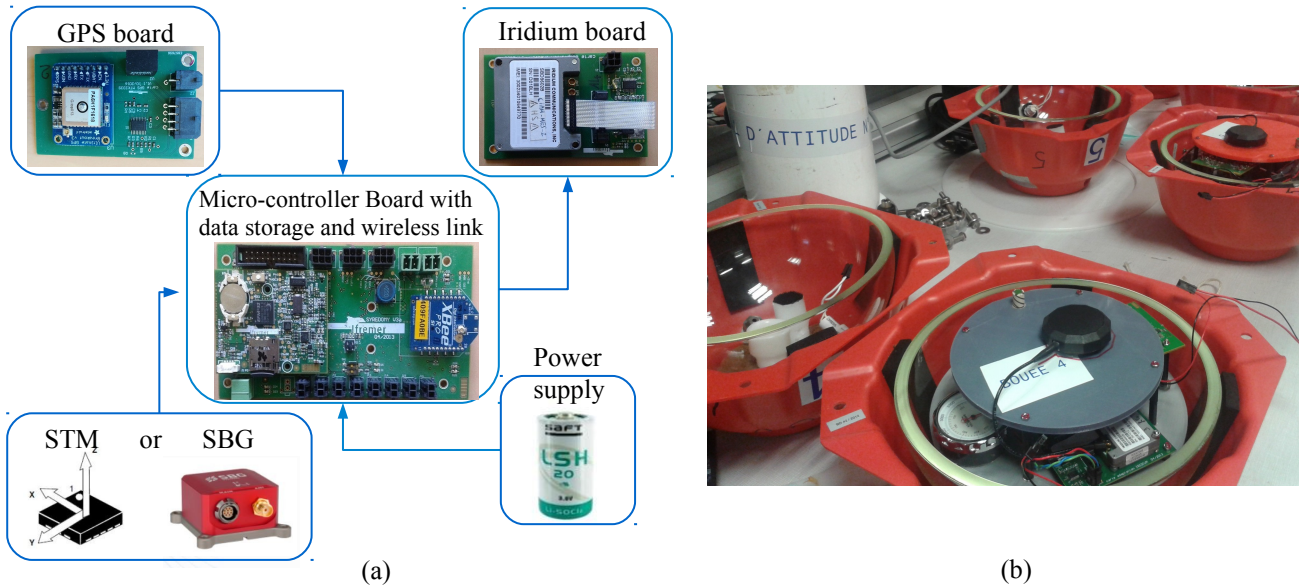
Figure 1. SKIB a) main electronics components b) SKIBs with top cover removed, showing the 10-inch diameter glass spheres.

60 m, at 48.2857°N, and 4.9684°W. This Waverider buoy is part of the permanent CEREMA wave buoy network, with the World Meteorological Organization number 62069 (Ardhuin et al., 2012). This buoy provides measurements of the first five moments for frequencies 0.025 to 0.580 Hz, based on accelerometer data.

Contrary to Herbers et al. (2012) who strapped their new acquisition system on a Waverider buoy, we wanted to validate
5 the full system, including the hull response. As a result the different sensors do not measure the same waves (with the same phases) but should be measuring the same sea state, i.e. the same spectrum, moments, and derived parameters.

The test presented here was performed on 21 September 2016, from 10:44 to 11:56 UTC, following a similar test in 2015 with only a SKIB and a with a different GPS receiver but the same hull, and a Datawell. The results were very similar. In the 2016 experiment, we also deployed a SWIFT buoy (Thomson, 2012) and a ship-mounted stereo video wave system (Benetazzo
10 et al., 2016). Pictures of all these systems are shown in figure 2, as used during the experiment.

The SWIFT model used is shown in the water in figure 2.c. It uses a GPS receiver integrated with an IMU (Microstrain 3DM-GX3-35), a Doppler velocity profiler (Nortek AquadoppHR), an autonomous meteorological station ultrasonic anemometer (AirMar PB200), a digital video recorder system, and real time tracked radio frequency transmitter. The wave spectra for each 10-min burst are calculated as the ensemble average of the fast Fourier transform of 16 subwindows with 50% overlap, which
15 results in 32 degrees of freedom and a frequency bandwidth $df = 0.0117$ Hz in the range $0.05 < f < 0.5$. The IMU data gives information of the tilt and horizontal rotation, as well as accelerations, of the SWIFT as it follows wave motions. Note that the hull shape of the SWIFT follows displacements and velocities at the sea surface, but not surface slopes. Hence, only velocities
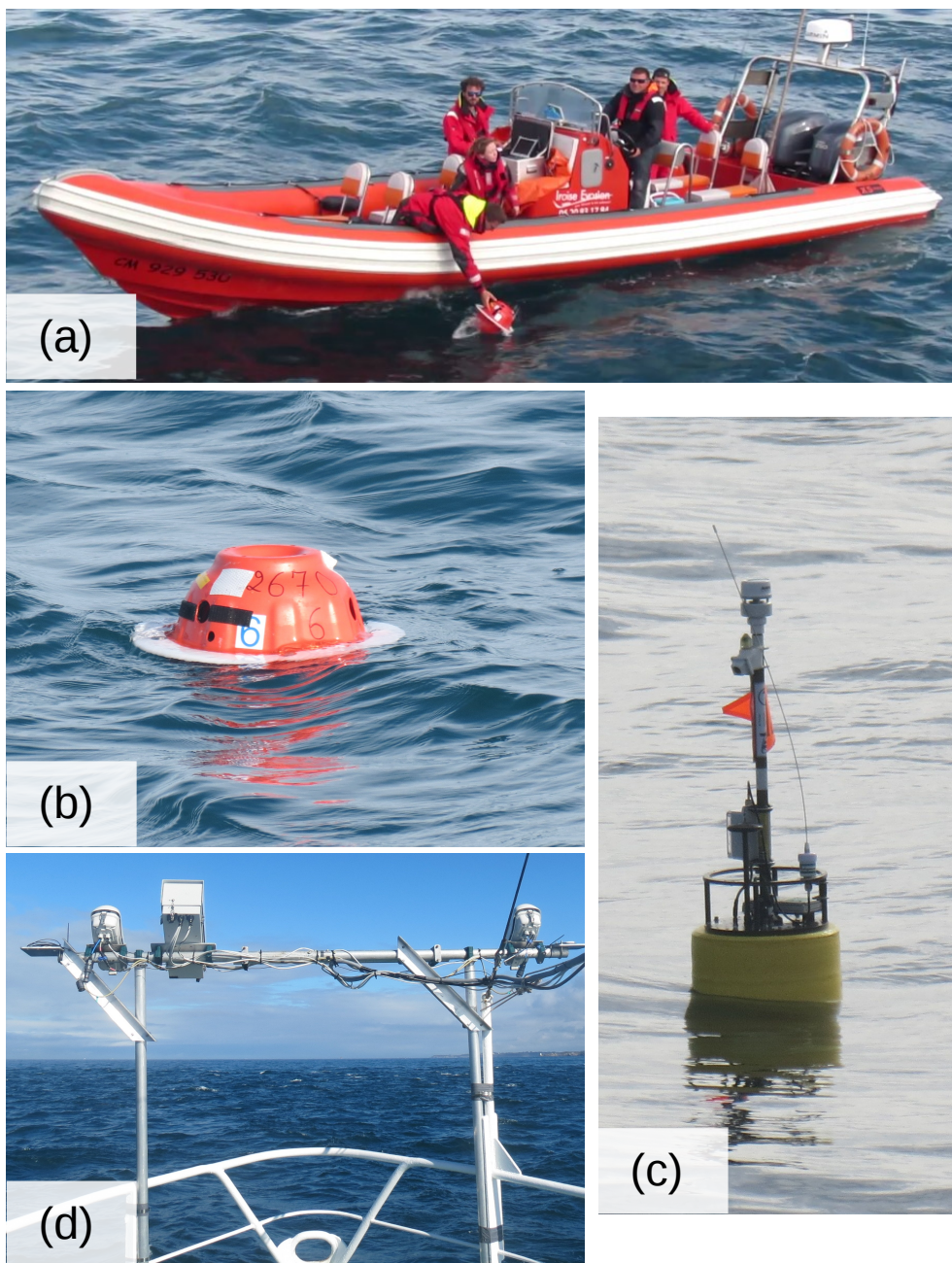
Figure 2. Sensors using during BBWAVES campaign for in situ validation. a) SKIB deployment; b) SKIB buoy; c) SWIFT buoy; d) Stereo video system

and accelerations are used in wave processing. Post-processing of the merged GPS and IMU data applies as classic RC filter to exclude signals at frequencies lower than $f < 0.04$ Hz.

The stereo video system is the same as used by Leckler et al. (2015), based on a pair of synchronized video cameras (2048 $\times$ 2456 pixels) BM-500GE JAI, mounted with wide angle lenses. However, here the system was installed at the bow of R/V
5   Thalia, a 24.5 m ship of the French coastal oceanographic fleet. The cameras are located approximately 7 m above the sea level (fig.2.d), and an Ellipse-D Inertial Measurement Unit is fixed on the bar joining the cameras to correct for ship motion with $0.2°$ accuracy on all rotation angles. The video processing follows the methods of Benetazzo (2006), Leckler (2013) and Benetazzo et al. (2016). However, instead of use the mean surface plane correction, like in these earlier papers, here the rotation matrix is optimized by the quaternions of IMU data and translation obtained by the IMU and GPS data. The resulting
10   surface elevation $\zeta(x,y,t)$ maps acquired over 30 minute records at 12 Hz are gridded in a 10 by 10 m square surface with 0.1 m resolution. This square is moving with the mean velocity U_m, relative to the solid Earth, as given by the GPS data. The 3D spectrum $E(k_x, k_y, f)$ were obtain after applying a Hann window in all three dimensions to the elevation maps over time intervals of 85.33 seconds (1024 frames), with 50% overlapping as well. As result, the energy over frequency and wavenumber are in a reference frame moving at the speed U_m, and the measured radian frequency of the waves σ_m must be corrected by the
15   mean ship velocity (U_m) over each time window. So the absolute frequency in an Earth reference frame is $\omega = \sigma_m - \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{U}_m$. This procedure is particularly prone to errors for wave components longer than 20 m, that are not resolved in the field of view. These longer components can be treated separately using a slope array estimation of the directional spectrum (e.g. Leckler et al., 2015), but we focus here on the short waves. The stereo heave frequency spectrum $E(f)$ is obtained by integration over wavenumbers and it is expressed in terms of the absolute frequency f_a, with $\omega = 2\pi f_a = \sigma - \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{U}$, where $\boldsymbol{U}$ is an unknown
20   current field.

A comparison of the different sensors at the same sea state conditions is shown at figure 3. For this comparison the records from each sensor have been synchronized over 10 minute intervals, and averaged over the 30 minutes of the Waverider records and a integration interval from 0.06 to 0.58 Hz. Figure 3.a shows the buoys drift trajectories for the 1 hour of the acquisition, with one color symbol every 10 minute and the track of R/V Thalia. The stereo-video record is 20 minutes, starting at the same
25   time as SKIB and SWIFT acquisitions. The Waverider data correspond to two acquisition of 28 minute each, ending at 10:30 and 11:00 UTC.

A closer look at the heave spectra (fig.3.b) shows a good correspondence by between Datawell and SKIB buoys at the peak of the spectrum. The main source of error in the SWIFT data, around the peak of the spectrum, was associated to a high-pass filter applied to the IMU acceleration before each time integration. This part of the SWIFT processing, to obtain $E(f)$, were
30   optimized by Thomson et al. (2016) to reduce the low frequency noise and to have best agreement with a Datawell waverider at Ocean Station Papa. This was obtained from the double time-integration of the IMU acceleration, with a high-pass filter at each integration, to reconstruct a wave-resolved time series of sea surface elevations. This generally improves the estimation of the spectrum for $f > 0.1$ Hz, but it reduces the level of lower frequencies (as it is also observed on fig.3.b).

For the SKIBs we have not filtered the acceleration data and the $E(f)$ was directly obtained form the twice in the time
35   domain integration of the accelerometer data. Other differences are found for the main direction (fig.3.d), that is better retrieved
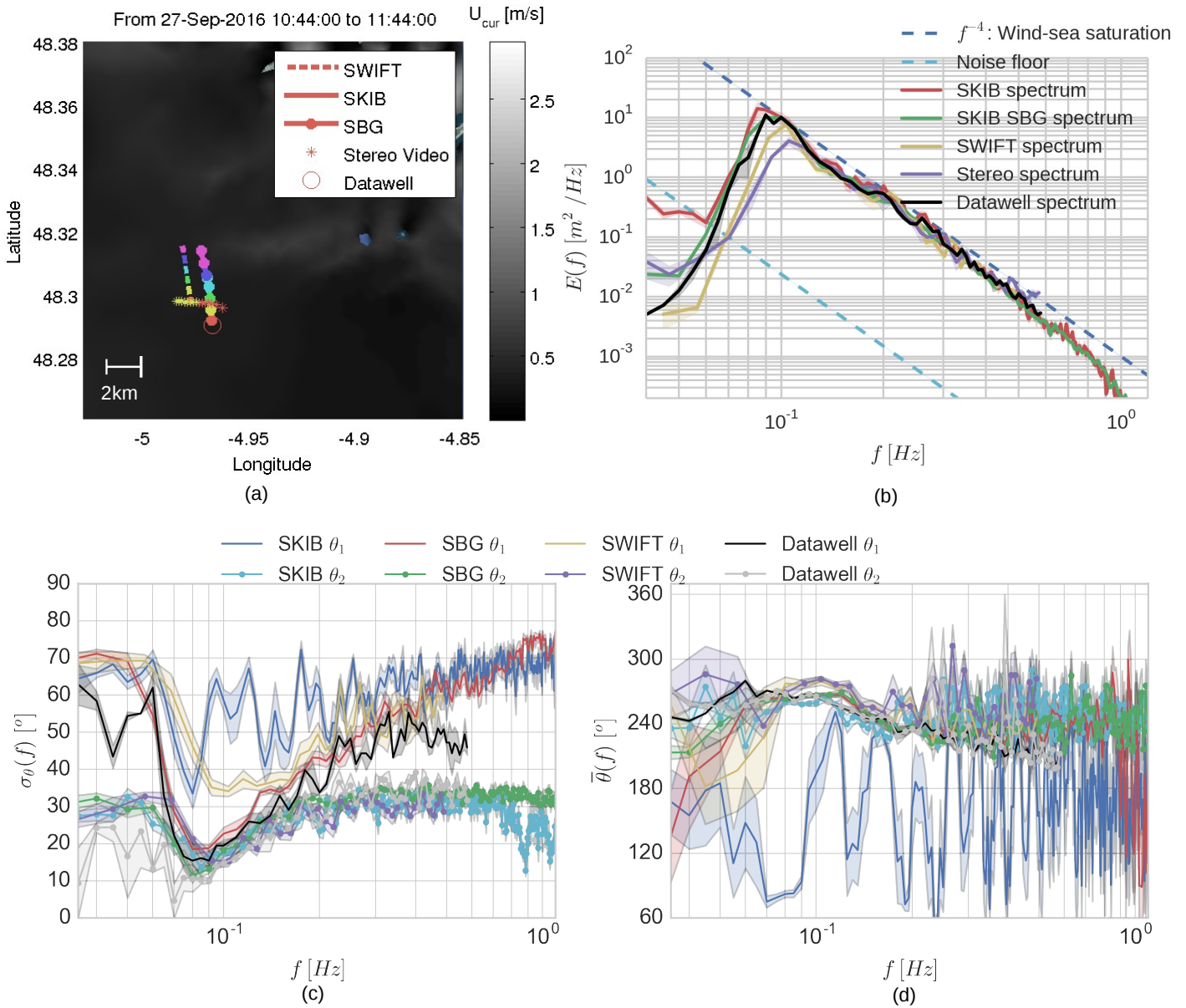
Figure 3. Comparison of wave spectra estimates from SKIB, SWIFT, Datawell and Stereo video. (a) Wave sensors path, the colors represent 10-min displacement, starting in read (b) $E(f)$ Sea surface variance spectral density; (c) $\sigma_\theta(f)$ Directional spreading from first and second-order directional moments (θ_1 and θ_2); (d) $\overline{\theta}(f)$ frequency-dependent mean wave direction from first and second-order directional moments (θ_1 and θ_2). The shadow in the lines represent the error for a 95% confidence interval.

with the SBG IMU. The main benefit of the SBG IMU is the reduction of the noise floor at low frequencies compared to an

estimation of the motion from GPS alone. This is most important for swells of long periods and low heights, but not critical for our investigation of wind-seas interacting with currents.

Figure 3.c and 3.d present the estimates of σ_θ and $\overline{\theta}$ based on the first and second-order moments. We see a significant difference in the wave spread and mean direction estimates, especially in the first-order estimation ($\sigma_{\theta 1}$ and $\overline{\theta_1}$). This occurs

5 because the accelerometer is not internally synchronized with the GPS and because they have different characteristics errors. The second-order moment depends only of horizontal displacements while the first-order depends of both horizontal and vertical displacements. So, the second-order moments are more accurate, because there is no cross products between different sensors. Although there are differences, the results suggest that the usage of the combination of GPS drifter displacement and vertical acceleration produces a good estimation of the spectrum directionality. These results are particularly important, as the

10 drifter was not equipped with a compass and only used a low-cost GPS receiver. Because the GPS acquisition were limited to 1 Hz in the SKIB with STM accelerometer, the directional analysis are limited to 0.5 Hz (and 0.8 Hz for SBG which uses only accelerometer data).

A comparison of the different sensors in terms of usual sea state parameters is shown in table 1, with the significant wave height H_s, mean wave period $T_{m0,1}$ and peak wave period T_p. Since the only reliable directions are provided by the GPS

15 data alone, we define the peak wave direction D_p and the peak wave direction $\theta_{m,2}$ from the second moments as $\theta_{m,2} = 0.5\tan^{-1}(B_2/A_2)$ with

$$A_2 = \int E(f)a_2(f)\mathrm{d}f \tag{8}$$

$$B_2 = \int E(f)b_2(f)\mathrm{d}f \tag{9}$$

Table 1. Comparison of wave parameters, significant waves hight (H_s), mean absolute wave period (T_{m01}) and mean wave direction ($\theta_{m,2}$). The root mean square difference between Waverider and other sensors is given in a second column for each variable. The $[H_s^-, H_s^+]$ represents the maximum and minimum limits for 95% H_s confidence interval, considering a chi square distribution (according Young, 1995, eq.5 and 6), for two perfect devices measuring the same random wave field.

Sensor	H_s [m]	$[H_s^-, H_s^+]$	$RMSD$	T_{m01} [s]	$RMSD$	$\theta_{m,2}$ [°]	$RMSD$	ν
Datawell Mark III	2.55	[2.31,2.64]	–	10.49	–	238.1	–	193.4
SKIB STM	2.86	[2.63,2.94]	0.36	10.85	0.91	245.4	8.3	289.9
SKIB SBG	2.55	[2.29,2.65]	0.15	10.52	0.44	231.0	7.3	169.3
SWIFT	2.08	[1.88,2.16]	0.48	9.98	0.89	263.1	25.3	193.4
Stereo video	1.89	[1.73,1.94]	0.63	9.40	0.54	249.6	8.2	253.9

As reported in table 1, SKIB results generally agree on H_s, T_{m01} and mean directions, with confidence intervals for H_s

20 overlapping with the reference Waverider buoy.

The Largest differences are between the SKIB STM and SWIFT buoys and are associatedassociated with the filtering of low frequency content in the SWIFT processing chain (fig.3.b), and unfiltered low frequency noise in the SKIB STM. However,

for frequencies from 0.1 to 0.5 Hz, the spectra are consistent with the stereo-video and Datawell data. At higher frequencies, for which we do not have other validation data, the result follows the same trend and appears realistic up to at least 0.8 Hz, consistent with laboratory tests (Thomas, 2015).

In order to validate the SKIB buoys in different sea state conditions, others deployments were performed next to the buoy
5 62069, one at August 05, 2015 and other four between September 21 and 27 of 2016. For the 2016 experiment, we used two SKIB buoys equipped with SBG IMU and two others with the STM accelerometer. For the 2015 experiment we have only one buoy equipped with the STM accelerometer. Results for integral parameters are presented in figure 4, and a selection of two spectra with different shapes is shown in figure 5.

For most sea states H_s and D_p are measured correctly (Fig.4.a and d), with RMSD around 0.3 m and 5.3^o respectively.
10 As expected, the SKIB-SBG agrees best with the Waverider for all the analyzed parameters, and the regression lines for the SBG data (fig.4) are closer to the ideal correlation line (gray dash lines fig.4) than those from the SKIB STM data. In general, the STM accelerometer has more energy at the lower frequencies and this can produce overestimations on H_s and T_{m01} measurements. These errors are confined to frequencies below 0.12 Hz. The main difference between the SKIB and Datawell was found at the peak wave period (T_p, Fig.4.c). Higher errors in the identification of the peak frequency are expected a priori
15 as the buoys present different spectral resolutions and different numbers of degrees of freedom (Young, 1995). Again the SKIB-SBG performs better than SKIB-STM.

The buoys low frequency noise varies at each sea state conditions. The error associated to the low frequency limit and at the spectrum peak are illustrated in figure 5.

In most sea states analyzed here, the SKIB buoy measured measured correctly the sea state condition at frequencies higher
20 than 0.07 Hz. In terms of H_s, the instrument usually presents a root mean square error within the statistical uncertainty expected for two perfect devices measuring the same random wave field (Young, 1995, eq. 6). However, because of a significant low frequency noise in SKIM-STM we reduced the integration interval for this buoy. The low frequency noise was reduced by using the SBG IMU, that presented the best performance among the sensors tested here. In summary, we had a good performance of SKIB for $f > 0.07$ Hz, that makes it appropriate to use in the investigation of young wind-waves interacting with currents.

25 **4   Wave evolution in current gradients**

Wave properties are largely defined by the wind field and the geometry of the basin in which they develop, but currents can introduce large variations, particularly at small scales (e.g. Phillips, 1984; Masson, 1996; Ardhuin et al., 2017). Current effects are generally strongest for the shortest wave components due to a larger ratio of current speed to phase speed, and can enhance the probability of wave breaking (e.g. Chawla and Kirby, 2002; Zippel and Thomson, 2017).
30 Here we illustrate the capabilities of SKIB drifters with a deployment through a current gradient that opposes the waves, following the method of Pearman et al. (2014). We deployed buoys in the current upstream of a large gradient area and recorded the evolution of the wave field as the buoys drifted across the current gradient .
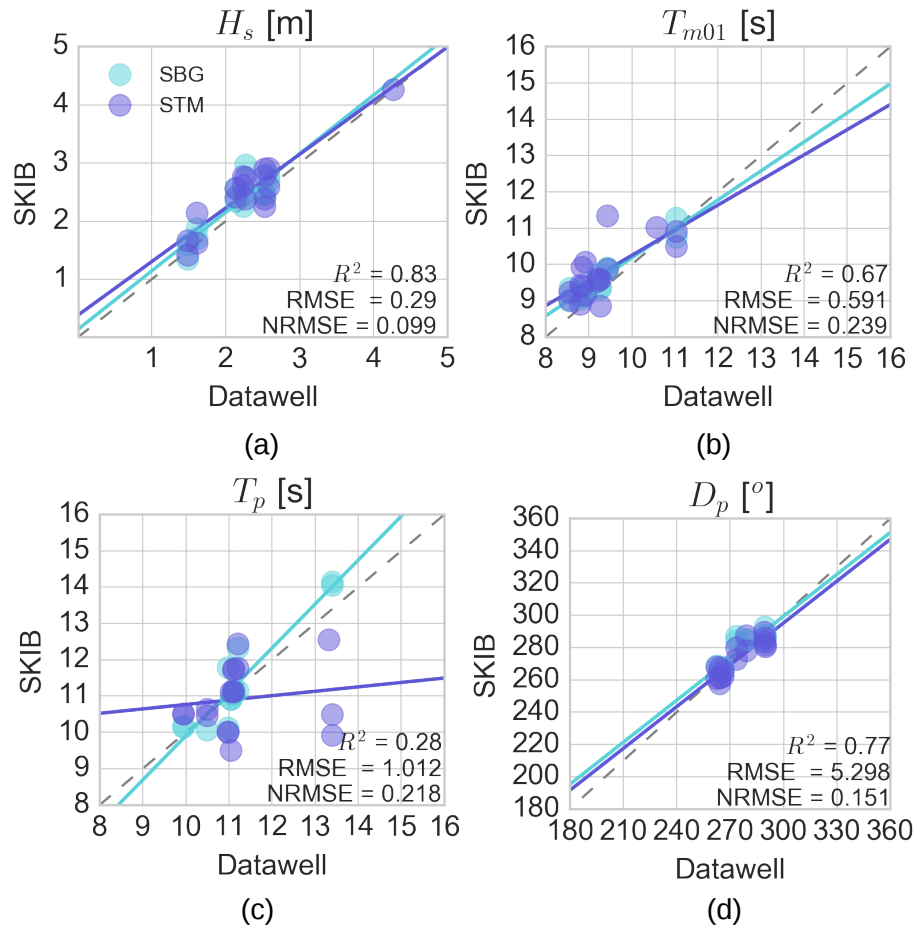
Figure 4. Comparison of the integrated wave parameters estimates from Datawell and SKIB with SBG (IMU sensor) and STM (accelerometer). (a) Significant wave hight (H_s) (b) Mean waves period (T_{m01}) (c) Peak waves period (T_p) and (d) Peak direction (D_p) for a frequency interval between 0.06 to 0.6 Hz. The regression lines are computed independently for SBG and STM data set. The gray dash line represent the ideal correlation regression line and the statistics coefficient wrote in the figures are computed considered booth data sets, SBG and STM.

The selected area for this study is at the southern end of the Chenal du Four, a passage oriented north-south surrounded by shallow rocks, with Beniguet island to the west, and the mainland to the east (see Fig.6). The water depth in this region ranges from 10 to 13 m relative to chart datum, and increases to 25 m at the southern end near latitude 48.32° N. At the time of our measurements, the water depth was the depth relative to chart datum plus 6 m. The tidal flow in this area is stronger in the

5   shallower part of the channel, resulting in a current gradient at the channel mouth that often enhances wave breaking and can lead to hazardous navigation conditions.

On October, 23 from 13:40 to 14:40 UTC of 2015, six drifters buoys were deployed from a small boat (see Fig.2a.).
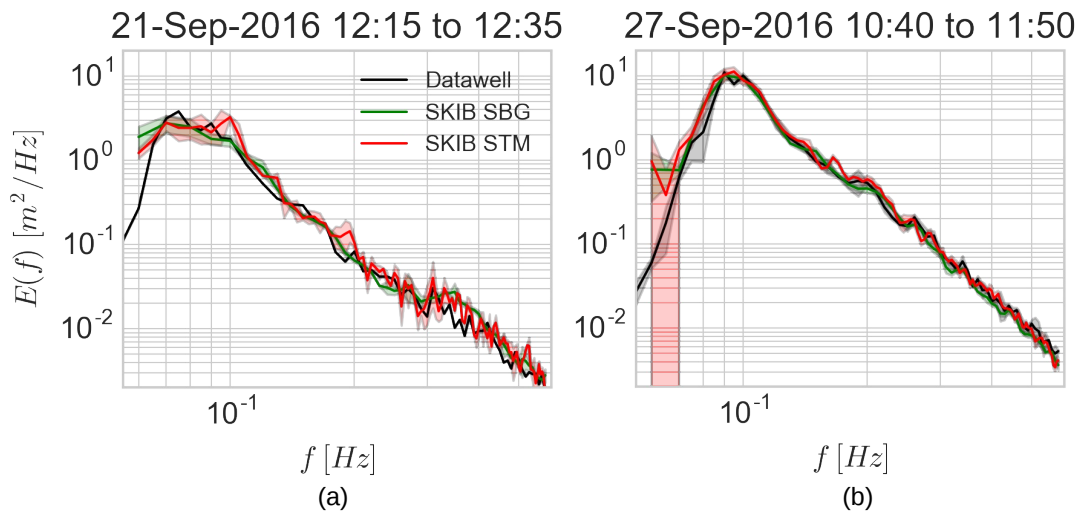
Figure 5. Comparison of Datawell and SKIB with SBG and STM for the sea surface variance spectral density $E(f)$ for two different field measurements around the Datawell buoy "Pierres Noires" (with World Meteorological Organization number 62069).
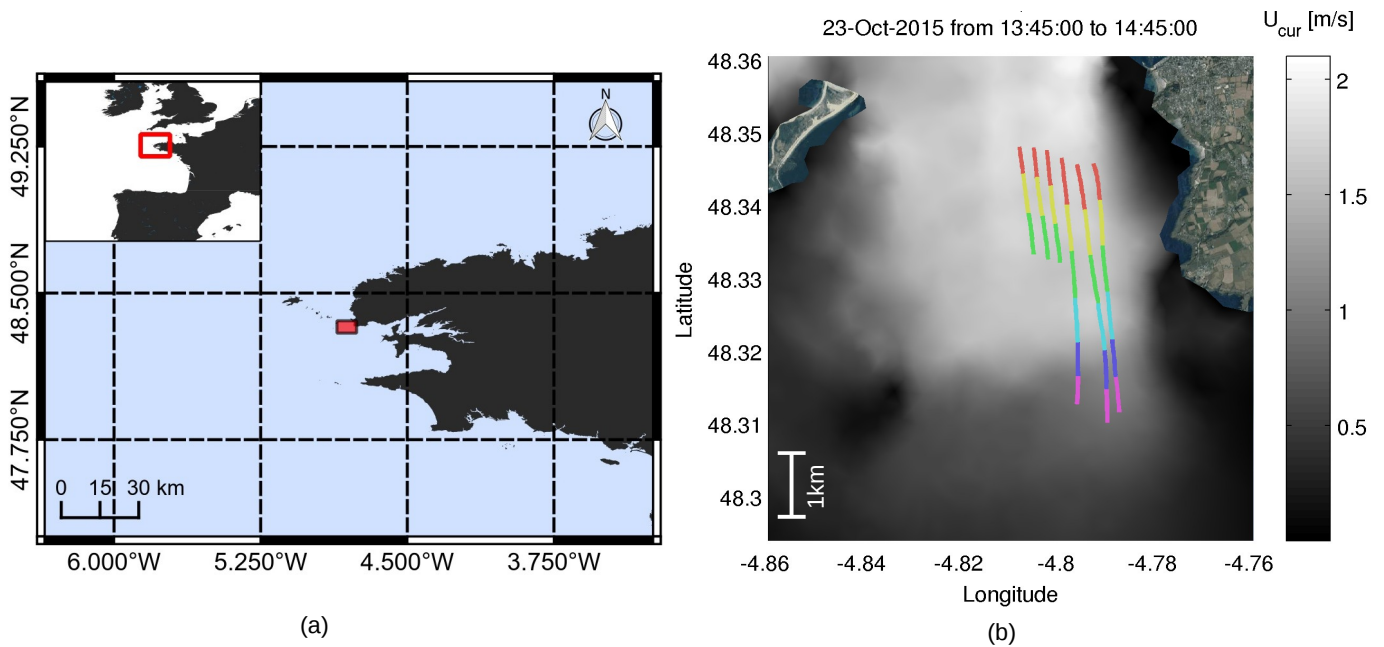
Figure 6. Study field location and local experimental conditions a) Four channel location b) Local current condition and drifters path. The current field shown here comes from a barotropic model simulation at 250 m resolution (Lazure and Dumas, 2008; Pineau-Guillou, 2013). Colored lines shows the 10-min SKIB displacement over current gradient at 23-October-2015 14:40 UTC.

Winds were approximately 6.2 m/s from the south, blowing against a tidal current of approximately 1.4 m/s (see Fig.8). The offshore wave conditions, as recorded by the Waverider buoy, included a 0.9 m swell with a peak period of 13 s coming from the 280°, and a 1.2 m wind-sea. The location of our measurements is well sheltered from the the swell, and swell heights increase as the buoys drift away from Chanel du Four. Figure 7 presents the mean current velocity estimated from the successive GPS

5   positions, for all buoys and each of the 10-minute records over which wave spectra are estimated. After increasing from 1.3 to 1.4 m/s, the current drops to 0.9 m/s over the deeper region. As the waves travel against the current, they first experience the increase in the adverse current from 0.9 to 1.4 m/s.
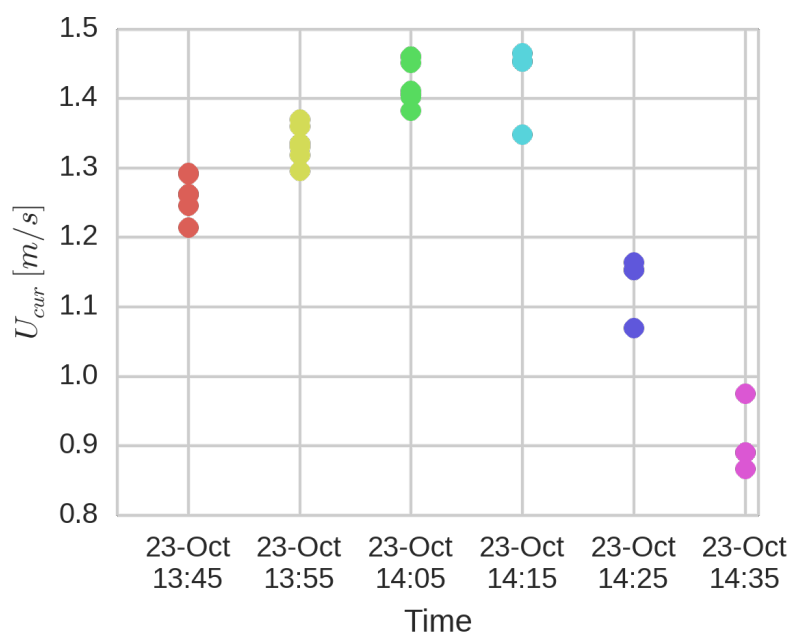
Figure 7. Evolution of the current speed during the drift of the buoys. For each time segment, each dot represents a single buoy.

The corresponding wave spectra are shown in figure 8. There is little variation of the mean direction and directional spread (not shown).

10   The increase of energy at low frequencies are mostly due by the buoys drifting to more exposed areas in the presence of a swell. The effect of the current on the shape of the wind-waves is analyzed using the non-dimensional saturation spectrum B, following Phillips (1984). With a velocity increase $\Delta_{U,1} = 0.6$m/s over a 1 km scale we measure an increase of the saturation level at frequencies from 0.35 to 0.5 Hz that does not exceed 50%. The following reduction in wave energy is more pronounced over the 3 km where the current slows down.

15   Figure 9 shows that the saturation level increases when waves face an accelerating and opposing current. This is similar to the cases studied in Zippel and Thomson (2017), from the Columbia River, in which opposing currents increase the steepness
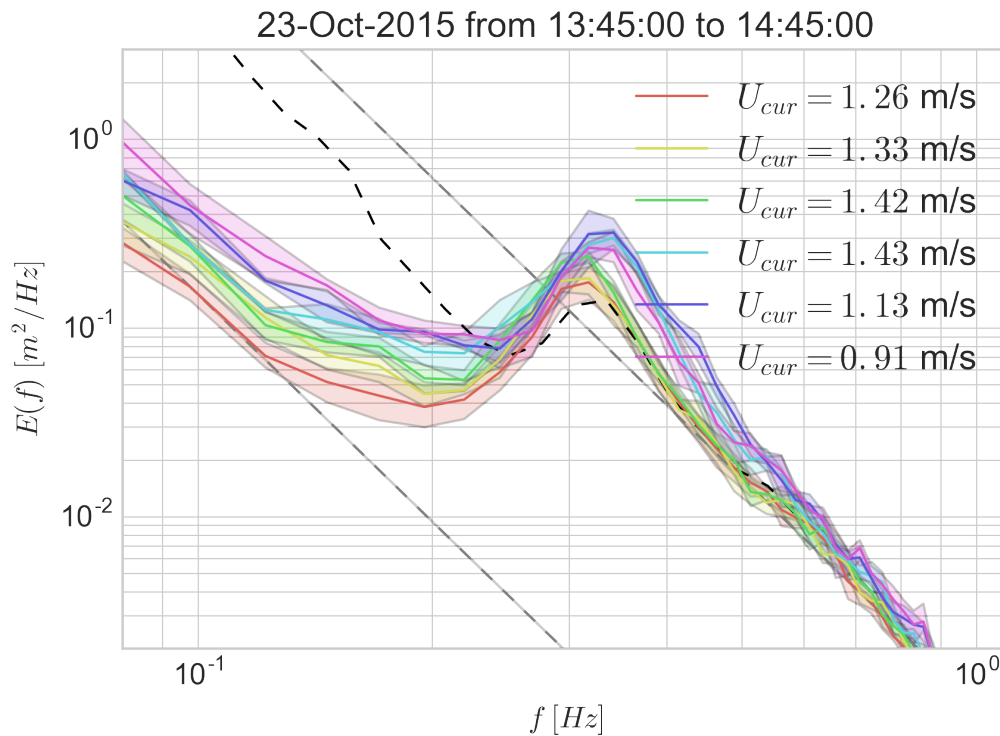
Figure 8. Variance spectral density evolution on time, 10 min Fourier transform from 23-October-2015 13:40 to 14:40 UTC. The gray dash lines shows the wind-sea saturation f^{-4} and noise floor at $E(f)f^4$ limits for the first 10 minutes of acquisition. The colors lines follow the buoys displacement as on figure 6. The solid lines shows the spatial mean of the spectral density measured in f_r during each 10 minutes acquisition. The lines shadow represent 99% confidence interval. The dash dark line is the spectral density measured by Pierre Noires Datawell buoy at a near offshore location, outside the current region.

locally (without gradient analysis). In the final portion of the trajectories, the current speed decreases and the saturation relaxes to a lower value.

Given the complex interaction of wave generation by the wind, wave dissipation by breaking and non-linear evolution, there are no simple theoretical results to interpret our observations. Starting from a dynamical balance in the absence of currents, Phillips (1984) provides an analysis of the current effect as a deviation of the wave spectrum from a near-equilibrium state. Assuming that the wind forcing is proportional to B and a dissipation rate that is proportional to B^n with $n \simeq 3$. For a scale of current variation L, he finds that the maximum value of B is

$$B_{\max} = B_0\left[1 + 18\Delta_U/(cS)\right]^{[1/(n-1)]} \tag{10}$$

where B_0 is the equilibrium level of the saturation outside of the current gradient. S is scale of current variation normalized by the wind stress $L/(2\pi)C_dU_{10}^2/g \simeq 1$. For a relative frequency $f_r = 0.4$ Hz, $n = 3$ and $L = 1$ km giving $S = 1$, this gives
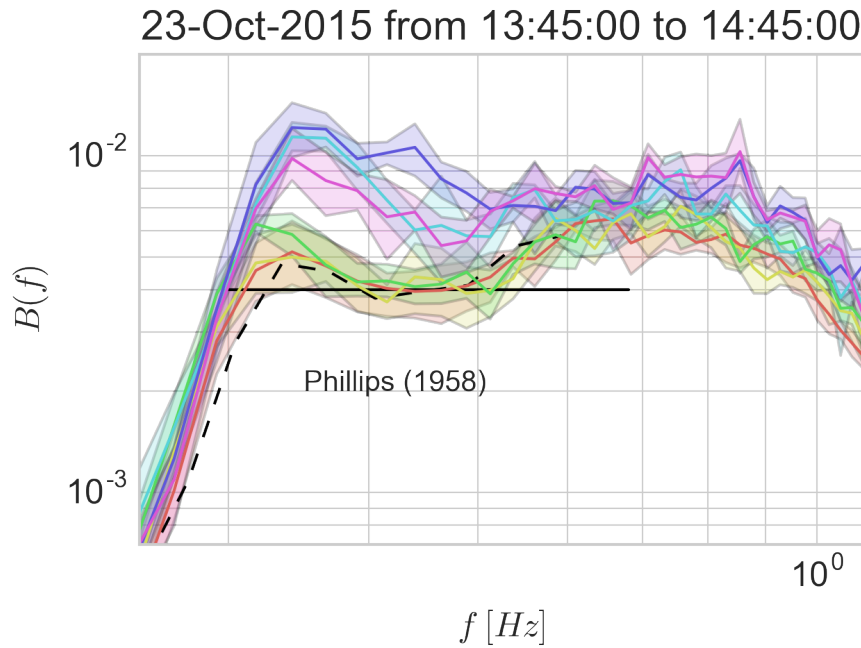
Figure 9. Saturation of the spectral density, time evolution over 10 min Fourier transform from 23-October-2015 13:40 to 14:40 UTC. The colors lines follow the buoys displacement as on figure 8. The solid lines shows the spatial mean of the spectral density measured during each 10 minutes acquisition. The lines shadow represent 99% confidence interval. The dashed black line is the saturation measured at an offshore location by the "Pierre Noires" Datawell buoy.

$B_{\max} = 1.5B_0$. If n is reduced to 2, $B_{\max}/B_0$ is as large as 2.4, and diverges as n goes to 1. In other words, the dissipation rate must be a very steep function of B in order to absorb the wind forcing energy that converges into the small region of the current gradient. The limited increase in B in our data supports $n > 2$.

For example, a current speed of 1.6 m/s corresponds to blocking conditions for waves with periods shorter than 2 s, that have a group speed slower than 1.6 m/s, and these short waves should be strongly attenuated in a fixed reference frame. However, our measurements are in a reference frame moving with the current, in which the waves, even those with periods shorter than 2 s, are propagating past the drifting buoys. At frequencies above 0.5 Hz, the intrinsic group speed is less than 1.6 m/s and waves must be generated by the local wind and cannot propagate from the south. Our data is consistent with $n = 3$, as used in Banner et al. (2000); Ardhuin et al. (2010). For $f_r = 0.6$ Hz, $n = 3$ gives $B_{\max} = 2.26B_0$,

5 Summary and conclusion

The Surface KInematics Buoy (SKIB) is a new low-cost drifter that has been designed for the investigation of wave-current interactions, including relatively short waves from 0.07 Hz and up to 1 Hz in frequency. Here we mostly used the heave data from the accelerometer that was first validated by comparing to reference Datawell waverider buoy up to 0.6 Hz. The shorter
5 wave components were validated with stereo-video imagery.

The capabilities of the new drifter were illustrated by measuring the variation of wave properties across a current gradient that was relatively uniform and along the propagation direction. Such measurements are important for testing existing theories for wave dissipation, such as proposed by Phillips (1984) and now widely used in numerical wave models (e.g. Ardhuin et al., 2010).

Competing interests. no competing interests are present

Acknowledgements. Work described here is supported by DGA under the PROTEVS program, LabexMer via grant ANR-10-LABX-19-01, and CNES as part of the CFOSAT and SWOT preparatory program. We thank all the TOIS group at LOPS, O. Peden, for his contributions to buoy tests and the crew of R/V Thalia for their performance during the BBWAVES-2016 experiment.

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