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# Extreme wave formation in unidirectional sea due to stochastic wave phase dynamics

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## ABSTRACT

The authors consider a stochastic model based on the interaction and phase coupling amongst wave components that are modified envelope soliton solutions to the nonlinear Schrödinger equation. A probabilistic study is carried out and the resulting findings are compared with ocean wave field observations and laboratory experimental results. The wave height probability distribution obtained from the model is found to match well with prior data in the large wave height region. From the eigenvalue spectrum obtained from the Inverse Scattering Transform, it is revealed that the deep-water wave groups move at a speed different from the linear group speed, which justifies the inclusion of phase correction to the envelope solitary wave components. It is determined that phase synchronization amongst elementary solitary wave components can be critical for the formation of extreme waves in unidirectional sea states.

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## 1. Introduction

Rogue waves have been described as waves that appear from nowhere and leave without a trace [1]. These extreme energy concentrations pose severe threats to maritime voyages and offshore operations [2]. Considerable work has been done on modeling and predicting rogue waves [3,4]. Related efforts include the analytical work based on modulational instability (MI) [5,6], experiments and field measurements on wave statistical properties, such as kurtosis and skewness of the underlying probability density function [7], and numerical computations of different sea state parameters [8]. Broadly speaking, there are different mechanisms that can be used to explain the occurrence of extreme waves, including nonlinear focusing, dispersive focusing, atmospheric forcing and so on (e.g., the review papers by Dysthe et al. [1] and Kharif and Pelinovsky [2]). Until now, it is widely recognized that the unidirectional sea state often favors extreme wave statistics, as claimed in most of the studies [9–12].

The modulational instability (MI) is a well-recognized mechanism for generating very large waves due to energy transfer between different modes. A mathematical model for explaining MI has been developed by Shabat and Zakharov [6]. This model, known as the nonlinear Schrödinger equation (NLSE), has been used to study the interplay between nonlinearity and dispersion

of water waves. NLSE is integrable in  $1D + 1$  and can be solved by using the Inverse Scattering Transform (IST). Several analytical solutions, such as solitons and breathers, have been regarded as the prototypes of rogue waves. However, there is no broad agreement on which solution is the best candidate for a rogue wave, when considering different spatial and temporal periodicities [13–16].

The existence of steep solitary wave groups has been confirmed in laboratories and examined under different numerical frameworks. When transverse effect is insignificant, weakly nonlinear wave groups do exhibit structural stability without noticeable distortion in the event of collisions and these groups can propagate a long distance. Whereas in the case of large wave steepness; that is, relatively steep solitary groups, dispersion outweighs the self-focusing effect along the propagation direction. However, it has been confirmed through experiments that the envelope soliton solution to NLSE provides a rather accurate approximation to the long-time evolution of steep intense solitary wave groups up to wave steepness of 0.3 [17].

Although a single steep solitary wave group can create a freak wave event, interactions amongst multiple moderate solitary wave groups improves the likelihood of extreme waves significantly, leading to a heavy tail distribution in the wave height statistics. Soliton synchronization has been proved as an effective way to generate localized high-amplitude waves in the system governed by the NLSE [18] and the modified KdV framework [19]. In the former framework, it has been indicated with the Darboux transformation method that the solitons can be synchronized to form a

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1 peak at the focusing point with the magnitude equal to that of the  
2 sum of interacting solitons [20,21].

3 The effect of multiple soliton interactions strongly depends on  
4 the details of the collision process. Although an intersection of  
5 soliton trajectories is necessary but it is not sufficient for the ef-  
6 ficient focusing. When approaching the focusing point, the train  
7 of solitons should be positioned with descending group veloci-  
8 ties, which allow farther solitons to overtake the nearer ones. In  
9 addition, they should have alternating phases [19]. By simply set-  
10 ting position and phases to be equal amongst soliton trains, one  
11 will not have amplitude synchronization since the nonlinear in-  
12 teraction process makes the trajectory of each soliton bend before  
13 reaching the focusing point [18]. Although the exact synchroniza-  
14 tion of amplitude requires further details, there are two essential  
15 ingredients for soliton synchronization, phase coherence during  
16 the synchronization and different group velocities for soliton colli-  
17 sion [22,23].

18 Sea waves are an example of inherently stochastic waves and  
19 they are often modeled as a combination of quasi-sinusoidal waves  
20 with independent random uniformly distributed phases, known as  
21 Gaussian sea, following earlier work [24]. Onorato et al. [11,12]  
22 have performed three-dimensional random waves water basin ex-  
23 periments to study the free surface profile probability distributions  
24 based on the JONSWAP spectrum. Different degrees of directionality  
25 have been considered to study the effects of wave crest length.  
26 The results indicate that the probability distributions of the surface  
27 elevation of unidirectional waves deviate most from the Gaussian  
28 or near-Gaussian sea and the occurrence of rogue waves has in-  
29 creased significantly compared to short-crest sea. Gramstad and  
30 Trulsen [25] have claimed a similar finding that more rogue waves  
31 are generated in unidirectional seas.

32 Here, the authors focus on understanding how the introduction  
33 of phase interference and wave train modulation can enhance the  
34 possibility of extreme waves formations in the unidirectional sea  
35 states. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next  
36 section, they describe the model construction as an extension of  
37 the envelope solitary wave solution to NLSE. Following that, in  
38 Section 3, the authors present the results obtained through the  
39 application of this model to North Sea Draupner events to demon-  
40 strate the validity of the described methodology. Statistical results  
41 obtained from large-scale simulations are also discussed in support  
42 of the proposed model. Finally, concluding remarks are collected  
43 and presented together in Section 4.

## 44 2. Solitary wave model approximation

### 45 2.1. Nonlinear Schrödinger equation and fundamental solitary wave 46 solution

47 The leading-order theory for the description of unidirectional  
48 gravity water wave nonlinear focusing is the classic cubic NLSE  
49 written for the complex wave envelope  $A(x, t)$  as

$$50 A_t + c_g A_x + \frac{i}{4} c_g k_0^{-1} A_{xx} + \frac{i}{2} \omega_0 k_0^2 |A|^2 A = 0. \quad (1)$$

51 Here,  $\omega_0$  and  $k_0$  are dominant wave frequency and wavenumber,  
52 respectively, and  $c_g = \omega_0/2k_0$  is the linear group velocity in deep  
53 water, with the dispersion relation

$$54 \omega_0 = \sqrt{gk_0}. \quad (2)$$

55 Both the surface elevation  $\eta(x, t) = \text{Re}\{A(x, t)e^{ik_0x - i\omega_0t}\}$  and ve-  
56 locity potential  $\phi(x, z, t)$  are determined by the complex-valued  
57 function  $A(x, t)$ . The  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  fields can be computed with high  
58 accuracy by including higher order nonlinear terms in NLSE, such

59 as the Dysthe equation. The fundamental envelope soliton, a solu-  
60 tion to equation (1), is of the form [26]

$$61 A = a_0 \text{sech}[\sqrt{2}a_0 k_0^2 (x - c_g t)] e^{-ia_0^2 k_0^2 \omega_0 t/4}, \quad (3)$$

62 where  $a_0$  is the soliton amplitude. The envelope soliton given by  
63 equation (3) is propagated with the linear group velocity  $c_g$ . Dif-  
64 ferent from transient wave groups, the envelope soliton consists of  
65 coherent wave harmonics that prevent the dispersion of the wave  
66 group. The Fourier spectrum of wave group (3) may be obtained  
67 as

$$68 \hat{A}(k, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} A(x, t) e^{ikx} dx = F(k) e^{i\xi(t)}, \quad (4)$$

$$69 F(k) = \frac{\pi A_0}{\sqrt{2}k_0^2 a_0} \sinh\left(\frac{\pi k}{2\sqrt{(2)k_0^2 a_0}}\right), \quad (5)$$

$$70 \xi(t) = -kc_g t - \frac{k_0^2 a_0^2 \omega_0 t}{4}. \quad (6)$$

71 Hence, all Fourier modes have the same phases and the Fourier  
72 amplitudes  $F(k)$  do not evolve in time for a single envelope  
73 soliton. However, within the framework of NLSE, envelope soli-  
74 tons (3) may interact amongst each other, and also with other  
75 quasi-linear waves. It is noted that equation (1) has high-order  
76 solutions such as the Peregrine soliton, Kuznetsov–Ma breather,  
77 and Akhmediev breather [27], which are the results of interac-  
78 tions involving envelope solitons (3) with background waves [28].  
79 These high-order breathers have different characteristic group ve-  
80 locity than  $c_g$  and they are defined by the IST spectrum [28,23].  
81 Next, the authors revisit the IST to examine the determination of  
82 the spectrum from the complex modulation amplitude based on  
83 NLSE.

### 84 2.2. Inverse scattering transform

85 The authors consider the non-dimensional NLSE equation of the  
86 form

$$87 iA_t + A_{xx} + 2|A|^2 A = 0. \quad (7)$$

88 This equation satisfies the compatibility condition of the following  
89 system of linear equations:

$$90 \mathbf{B}_x = \begin{pmatrix} -i\lambda & A \\ -A^* & i\lambda \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{B}, \quad (8)$$

$$91 \mathbf{B}_t = \begin{pmatrix} -2i\lambda^2 + i|A|^2 & iA_x + 2\lambda A \\ -iA_x^* - 2\lambda A^* & 2i\lambda^2 - i|A|^2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{B}, \quad (9)$$

92 where  $\lambda$  is a spectral parameter,  $\mathbf{B}(x, t, \lambda)$  is a vector or matrix  
93 function, and  $A^*$  represents the complex conjugate of  $A$ . In fact, if  
94 one differentiates equations (8) and (9) with respect to  $t$  and  $x$   
95 respectively, one can find that in order to force the right hand side  
96 to be equal to each other, the complex envelope function  $A(x, t)$   
97 must satisfy equation (7). In other words, equation (8) and (9) are  
98 compatible with each other on the equation condition (7). The ma-  
99 trix operators in the above linear systems are called the Lax pair  
100 of equation (7) and these operators were first studied by Zakharov  
101 and Shabat [6]. Equation (8) is called the Zakharov–Shabat (ZS)  
102 scattering problem. The parameter  $\lambda$ , which lies in the complex  
103 plane, is such that  $\lambda = \lambda_R + i\lambda_I$ . Then, the  $\lambda_I$  can be interpreted as  
104 having the information about the amplitude of the unstable mode  
105 and  $\lambda_R$  can be interpreted as referring to the group velocity re-  
106 lative to the linear group velocity, which corresponds to  $\lambda$  located  
107 on the imaginary axis.

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