# On the parabolic equation method for water-wave propagation

## By A. C. RADDER

Ministry of Transport and Public Works, Rijkswaterstaat, Data Processing Division, Rijswijk, The Netherlands

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A parabolic approximation to the reduced wave equation is investigated for the propagation of periodic surface waves in shoaling water. The approximation is derived from splitting the wave field into transmitted and reflected components.

In the case of an area with straight and parallel bottom contour lines, the asymptotic form of the solution for high frequencies is compared with the geometrical optics approximation.

Two numerical solution techniques are applied to the propagation of an incident plane wave over a circular shoal.

### 1. Introduction

The propagation of periodic, small amplitude surface gravity waves over a seabed of mild slope can be described by the solution of the reduced wave equation

$$\nabla \left( cc_a \nabla \Phi \right) + \omega^2 \Phi c_a / c = 0 \tag{1}$$

with appropriate boundary conditions. Here  $\Phi(x, y)$  is the complex two-dimensional potential function,  $\nabla \equiv (\partial/\partial x, \partial/\partial y)$  the horizontal gradient operator,  $\omega$  the angular frequency, and c and  $c_g$  are the corresponding local phase and group velocities of the wave field. This reduced wave equation accounts for the combined effects of refraction and diffraction, while the influences of bottom friction, current and wind have been neglected.

The wave equation (1) has been derived by several authors, for the first time by Berkhoff (1972), and by Schönfeld (1972) in a different form. Svendsen (1967) derived the equation for one horizontal dimension, as is pointed out by Jonsson & Brink-Kjaer (1973). Smith & Sprinks (1975) gave a formal derivation of (1). Booij (1978) has proposed a new wave equation, which includes the effect of a current, and which reduces to (1) in the current-free case.

The equation (1) is essentially of elliptic type, and therefore defines a problem which is in general properly posed only when a boundary condition along a closed curve is given. In order to obtain a numerical solution for short waves over a large area in the horizontal plane, a great amount of computing time and storage is thus needed. However, in many water wave problems involving a gently sloping bottom, wave energy is propagating without appreciable reflexion or backscattering, and it should be natural to consider methods which make use of this property. In the classification of Lundgren (1976), such methods can be distinguished as R-methods (refraction methods) and P-methods (propagation methods), both of which represent

an approximation to the mild-slope equation (1). Refraction methods are based on the geometrical optics approximation, which fails to give a reliable solution near caustics and crossing wave rays, where diffraction effects become important.

Propagation methods should be able to account for such situations. Methods of this type have been proposed by Biésel (1972), Lundgren (1976) and Radder (1977), but these are lacking, among other things, in the possibility of making systematic corrections which are needed if one wants to recover the complete wave field.

A more systematic method which belongs to the same class is the parabolic equation method. It consists in approximating the elliptic wave equation by a parabolic wave equation, which is easier to solve numerically. This is because the parabolic equation permits solution by a marching method, while the elliptic equation needs simultaneous solution over the whole area. The parabolic equation method has been extensively used in mathematical physics. It was introduced by Leontovich & Fock (1965), who applied the method to radio wave propagation in the atmosphere. A generalization of the method, based on the use of ray co-ordinates and the concept of transverse diffusion, was developed by Malyuzhinets (1959) and by Fock & Wainstein (1965), and subsequently applied and extended to many other physical problems, e.g. in the field of seismic wave propagation (see Babich 1970). The most recent application has occurred in the field of underwater acoustics, a review of which is given by Tappert (1977), who presents a historical survey and a comprehensive list of references. Some additional references can be found in a recent paper by Candel (1979), concerning acoustic wave propagation in a turbulent medium.

The standard parabolic wave equation, which has the same form as the Schrödinger equation in quantum mechanics, has the disadvantage of being limited to propagation in weakly inhomogeneous media, at small angles with a preferred direction. This limitation may be overcome by expressing the parabolic equation in ray co-ordinates, neglecting the longitudinal diffusion along the rays. Recently, Kriegsmann & Larsen (1978) presented an asymptotic method, which combines the features of both the geometrical optics and parabolic approximations. However, in order to obtain the improved validity of the method, a more complex set of equations has to be solved, at the expense of rather heavy computational efforts.

In the present paper, a parabolic approximation to the reduced wave equation (1) is derived, based on the use of a splitting matrix, which divides the wave field into transmitted and reflected components. This procedure has been applied in optics by Corones (1975), and in acoustics by McDaniel (1975).<sup>†</sup> The result is a pair of coupled equations for the transmitted and reflected fields. By assuming that the reflected field is negligible (i.e. no backscattering), a parabolic equation is obtained for the transmitted field. This equation represents a significant improvement over the standard parabolic equation, because it is applicable, with reasonable accuracy, to wave propagation in strongly inhomogeneous media. The derivation is based on the Helmholtz equation is given, and in §3 a parabolic approximation is derived. In the remaining sections, two examples are considered. In § 4, the asymptotic form of the solution for high frequencies is compared with the geometrical optics approximation, in the case of an area with straight and parallel bottom contour lines. Finally, in §5 and §6 numerical

† By an analogous procedure, the Schrödinger equation can be obtained as the non-relativistic approximation to the Klein-Gordon equation (see Messiah 1969, chap. XX).

solutions to the parabolic equation are obtained in the form of two finite-difference schemes, with application to plane wave propagation over a circular shoal with parabolic bottom profile. The results are compared with similar calculations in literature.

#### 2. Reduction of the mild-slope equation to the Helmholtz equation

Although a parabolic approximation can be directly derived from equation (1), it is useful, to simplify the notation and applications, to reduce equation (1) to the Helmholtz equation, without loss of generality.

A scaling factor is introduced

$$\phi = \Phi \left( c c_{g} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{2}$$

which turns (1) into the Helmholtz equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi + k_c^2 \phi = 0. \tag{3}$$

Here the effective wavenumber  $k_c$  is defined by

$$k_c^2 = k^2 - \frac{\nabla^2 (cc_g)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{(cc_g)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \tag{4}$$

and the wavenumber k is the positive real root of the dispersion relation

$$\omega^2 = gk \tanh\left(kh\right) \tag{5}$$

with h the local water depth and g the gravitational acceleration. The phase and group velocities are then given by  $c = \omega/k$ ,  $c_g = \partial \omega/\partial k$ . In shallow water, the difference  $k_c^2 - k^2$  may become appreciable: in this case one has

$$k^2 \simeq \frac{\omega^2}{gh}, \quad c = c_g \simeq (gh)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad k_c^2 \simeq \frac{\omega^2}{gh} - \frac{\nabla^2 h}{2h} + \frac{|\nabla h|^2}{4h^2}.$$
 (6)

It follows, that  $k_c$  may be approximated by k if

$$\left|\nabla^2 h\right| \ll 2\omega^2/g \tag{7a}$$

and

$$|\nabla h|^2 \ll 4\omega^2 h/g,\tag{7b}$$

implying a slowly varying depth and a small bottom slope, or high frequency wave propagation.

Unless stated otherwise,  $k_c$  will be approximated by k in this paper, assuming that (7a) and (7b) are satisfied.

## 3. Derivation of the parabolic approximation

The Helmholtz equation (3) can be written in the form

$$\partial^2 \phi / \partial x^2 = -\left(k^2 + \partial^2 / \partial y^2\right)\phi\tag{8}$$

in which x denotes a prescribed direction, preferably the main direction of propagation. For the derivation of the parabolic approximation, the subscript c of the wavenumber k in (8) has been dropped for convenience, without making use of the restrictions (7).

The wave field  $\phi$  should be split into a transmitted field  $\phi^+$  and a reflected field  $\phi^-$ 

$$\phi = \phi^+ + \phi^-. \tag{9}$$

This can be achieved by the use of a splitting matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  which defines the transmitted and reflected components by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^- \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{T} \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (10)

The matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  is formally arbitrary, but some general physical criteria limit the choice of  $\mathbf{T}$  and lead to the governing parabolic equation in a natural way.

Firstly, equation (9) is valid for arbitrarily chosen  $\phi^+$  and  $\phi^-$  only if **T** satisfies

$$\alpha + \gamma = 1$$
 and  $\beta + \delta = 0.$  (11)

Using equation (8), it follows that

$$\frac{\partial \phi^{+}}{\partial x} = \left[ -k^{2}\beta + \frac{\alpha\gamma}{\beta} + \frac{\partial\alpha}{\partial x} + \frac{\gamma}{\beta} \frac{\partial\beta}{\partial x} - \beta \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \phi^{+} + \left[ -k^{2}\beta - \frac{\alpha^{2}}{\beta} + \frac{\partial\alpha}{\partial x} - \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \frac{\partial\beta}{\partial x} - \beta \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \phi^{-} \quad (12a)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \phi^{-}}{\partial x} = \left[ k^{2}\beta + \frac{\gamma^{2}}{\beta} + \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial x} - \frac{\gamma}{\beta} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} + \beta \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \phi^{+} + \left[ k^{2}\beta - \frac{\alpha\gamma}{\beta} + \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial x} + \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial x} + \beta \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}} \right] \phi^{-}.$$
 (12b)

Further, when k is a constant, solutions of the form

$$\phi^+ \simeq e^{ikx}, \quad \phi^- \simeq e^{-ikx}$$
 (13)

should result, and equations (12a) and (12b) should naturally decouple in this case. This can be achieved by choosing

$$k^{2}\beta + \alpha^{2}/\beta = 0, \quad k^{2}\beta + \gamma^{2}/\beta = 0$$
(14)

and the resulting splitting matrix is (cf. Corones 1975)

.

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i/k \\ 1 & i/k \end{pmatrix},\tag{15}$$

while (12) reduces to

$$\frac{\partial \phi^+}{\partial x} = \left(ik - \frac{1}{2k}\frac{\partial k}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2k}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right)\phi^+ + \left(\frac{1}{2k}\frac{\partial k}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2k}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right)\phi^-$$
(16a)

$$\frac{\partial \phi^{-}}{\partial x} = \left(\frac{1}{2k}\frac{\partial k}{\partial x} - \frac{i}{2k}\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}}\right)\phi^{+} + \left(-ik - \frac{1}{2k}\frac{\partial k}{\partial x} - \frac{i}{2k}\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y^{2}}\right)\phi^{-}.$$
 (16b)

This pair of coupled equations is equivalent to equation (8). By neglecting the reflected field  $\phi^-$ , a parabolic equation for the transmitted field  $\phi^+$  is obtained

$$\frac{\partial \phi^+}{\partial x} = \left(ik - \frac{1}{2k}\frac{\partial k}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2k}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right)\phi^+.$$
(17)

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In a similar way, a parabolic approximation can be directly derived from equation (1), which yields for the transmitted field  $\Phi^+$ 

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^+}{\partial x} = \left[ik - \frac{1}{2kcc_g}\frac{\partial(kcc_g)}{\partial x} + \frac{i}{2kcc_g}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}cc_g\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right]\Phi^+$$

Using (2) and (7), equation (17) is recovered.

By adding to the left-hand sides of (14) the operator  $\beta \partial^2 / \partial y^2$ , another splitting matrix is derived:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{A}} = rac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i/A \ 1 & i/A \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $A = (k^2 + \partial^2/\partial y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , and a closer approximation to equation (8) may be obtained. Unfortunately, the square-root operator A makes the resulting parabolic equation practically untractable, and a satisfactory approximation must be found for the operator A in order to obtain numerical results (for more details, see McDaniel 1975; Tappert 1977).

In the following, the parabolic equation (17) will be further investigated, and therefore an appropriate choice for the direction x has to be made. For the cases considered here, x is defined through the direction of the incident plane wave.

#### 4. Asymptotic analysis for the one-dimensional case

In order to test the validity of the parabolic equation (17) as an approximation to equation (8), solutions to both equations will be compared in the case of an area with straight and parallel bottom contour lines. The problem is equivalent to plane wave propagation in a plane stratified medium in optics and acoustics, and the asymptotic analysis of Seckler & Keller (1959) will be followed here. Dropping the + superscript, equation (17) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + 2ik_0 n \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \left(2k_0^2 n^2 + ik_0 \frac{\partial n}{\partial x}\right) \phi = 0, \qquad (18)$$

where  $k_0$  denotes a constant wavenumber, and  $n = k/k_0$  the index of refraction. By introducing a new co-ordinate system  $(\rho, \sigma)$ , with the  $\sigma$  axis parallel to the depth contours,

$$\rho = x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha \sigma = -x \sin \alpha + y \cos \alpha,$$
 (19)

the bottom is defined through

and

$$h \equiv h(\rho), \quad n \equiv n(\rho); \quad \partial n/\partial y = \lambda \partial n/\partial x, \quad \lambda = \tan \alpha,$$
 (20)

where  $\alpha$  is the angle of incidence, with  $|\alpha| < \frac{1}{2}\pi$ .

It will be assumed that  $k(\rho)$  tends to the constant value  $k_0$  (i.e.  $n(\rho) \rightarrow 1$ ) as  $\rho$  tends to  $-\infty$ .

Now suppose a plane wave  $\exp[ik_0 x]$  is incident from  $x = -\infty$ . The field  $\phi$  can then be written in the form

$$\phi = A(\rho) \exp\left[ik_0(x - p \int n \, d\rho)\right] \tag{21}$$

with  $p = \cos \alpha / \sin^2 \alpha$ . Upon inserting (21) into (18) one finds that A satisfies

$$A_{\rho\rho} + k_0^2 p^2 [n^2 + 2\lambda^2 n(n-1)] A = 0.$$
<sup>(22)</sup>

At  $\rho = -\infty$ ,  $A(\rho)$  is supposed to behave like

$$A(\rho) \simeq \exp\left[ik_0 p\rho\right] + R \exp\left[-ik_0 p\rho\right],\tag{23}$$

where the constant R denotes a complex reflexion coefficient. At  $\rho = +\infty$ ,  $A(\rho)$  should satisfy a radiation condition, i.e. no incoming wave from  $+\infty$ .

The equation (22) is in general not explicitly solvable, and the solution must be represented by an approximation, which usually takes on an asymptotic form for high frequencies, in the limit  $k_0 \to \infty$ . A point at which the coefficient of A in (22) vanishes is called a turning point, where the character of the solution changes from oscillatory to exponential. In the geometrical optics approximation of the problem, a caustic line is formed at these turning points. If there is no turning point, and  $n+2\lambda^2(n-1) > 0$  for all values of  $\rho$ , the asymptotic form has an oscillatory character with R = 0, and can be found by the WKB-method (cf. Langer 1937). Let

$$A_p = |n^2 + 2\lambda^2 n(n-1)|^{-\frac{1}{4}}$$
(24)

$$F_{p} = x + \frac{1}{\lambda^{2}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} \left[ \left| n^{2} + 2\lambda^{2}n(n-1) \right|^{\frac{1}{2}} - n \right] dx,$$
(25)

then the WKB-approximation to  $\phi$  is given by

$$\phi_p = A_p \exp\left[ik_0 F_p\right]. \tag{26}$$

A similar analysis for equation (8) results in the geometrical optics approximation. Let

$$A_g = |n^2 + \lambda^2 (n^2 - 1)|^{-\frac{1}{4}}$$
(27)

(28)

$$F_g = x + \frac{1}{1+\lambda^2} \int_{-\infty}^{x} \left[ |n^2 + \lambda^2 (n^2 - 1)|^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right] dx,$$

then the asymptotic form is given by

$$\phi_g = A_g \exp\left[ik_0 F_g\right]. \tag{29}$$

In the special case  $\alpha = \lambda = 0$ , both  $\phi_p$  and  $\phi_g$  agree (if the scaling factor  $(cc_g)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is taken into account) with the classical shoaling formula for a progressive wave

$$\Phi_g \simeq \frac{1}{c_g^{-\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left[i \int_{x_0}^x k \, dx\right]. \tag{30}$$

In the case of  $\lambda > 0$ , there is exact agreement only at points, where  $n(\rho)$  takes on the value 1.

In table 1, a comparison between  $\phi_p$  and  $\phi_q$  is made for the wave amplitude A, the wavenumber  $|\nabla F|$  and the angle of refraction  $\theta$ , for some values of  $\lambda$ , at points where  $n(\rho)$  takes on the values 2 and 3.

It is assumed, that the incident wave is starting in deep water,  $k_0 = \omega^2/g$ , and a correction factor  $c_A = n/[1+k_0 h(n^2-1)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$  should be applied for the wave amplitudes, according to equation (2). The agreement is rather close, even for comparatively large values of  $\lambda$ .

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and

and

α	λ	n	$c_A A_p$	$c_A A_g$	$  abla F_p $	$ \nabla F_{g} $	$\theta_{p}$	$\theta_{g}^{\dagger}$
45°	1	<b>2</b>	0.88	0.91	2.01	<b>2</b>	20.6°	20.7°
45°	1	3	1.01	1.07	3.03	3	13·5°	13·6°
63·4°	2	2	0.70	0.74	2.04	2	26·1°	<b>26.6°</b>
63·4°	<b>2</b>	3	0.79	0.85	3.12	3	16·7°	17·3°
71.6°	3	2	0.59	0.63	2.07	2	27·3°	28·3°
71-6°	3	3	0.66	0.72	3.21	3	17·2°	18·4°
76∙0°	4	2	0.52	0.55	2.09	2	$27 \cdot 6^{\circ}$	<b>29</b> ·0°
76·0°	4	3	0.57	0.63	$3 \cdot 27$	3	17·3°	18·9°

† Cf. Snell's law of refraction:  $\sin \alpha = n \sin \theta_{g}$ , which can easily be deduced from equation (28). TABLE 1. Comparison of refracted plane waves, no turning point

Now suppose there is just one turning point at  $\rho = \rho_0$ , where  $\rho_0$  is a single root of the equation  $n + 2\lambda^2(n-1) = 0$ .

This will occur when n takes on the value  $n_p$ :

$$n_p = \frac{2\lambda^2}{1+2\lambda^2}.\tag{31}$$

In case of equation (8), the corresponding value is given by  $n_q$ :

$$n_g = \frac{|\lambda|}{(1+\lambda^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \sin \alpha.$$
(32)

An analysis of the turning point problem can be found in the article of Langer (1937): for  $\rho > \rho_0$ ,  $A(\rho)$  takes on an exponentially decreasing form

$$A(\rho) \simeq |Q|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\int_{\rho_0}^{\rho} |Q| d\rho\right], \qquad (33a)$$

and for  $\rho < \rho_0$  an oscillatory form

$$A(\rho) \simeq 2|Q|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cos\left[\int_{\rho}^{\rho_0} Q \, d\rho - \frac{1}{4}\pi\right],$$
(33b)

where

$$Q = k_0 p |n^2 + 2\lambda^2 n(n-1)|^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$
(34)

Near the turning point, the asymptotic form of the solution can be represented by Airy functions.

Upon inserting (33) into (21) one obtains the asymptotic form  $\phi_p$ . Here, only the behaviour of  $\phi_p$  at  $-\infty$  will be given explicitly

$$\phi_p(-\infty) \simeq \exp\left[ik_0 x\right] + R_p \exp\left[ik_0 (x(\lambda^2 - 2) - 2y\lambda)/\lambda^2\right],\tag{35}$$

with  $|R_p| = 1$ , i.e. a fully reflected plane wave arises, with wave number  $k_p$  and angle of reflexion  $\alpha_p$  given by

$$k_p = k_0 (1+4/\lambda^4)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \alpha_p = \arctan \frac{\lambda^3}{2+\lambda^2}.$$
 (36)

For the geometrical optics solution, the corresponding formulas are given by

$$\phi_g(-\infty) \simeq \exp\left[ik_0 x\right] + R_g \exp\left[ik_0 (x(\lambda^2 - 1) - 2y\lambda)/(1 + \lambda^2)\right]$$
$$|R_g| = 1, \quad k_g = k_0, \quad \alpha_g = \arctan\lambda = \alpha.$$
(37)

For some values of  $\lambda$ , a comparison is presented in table 2 and in figure 1.

α	λ	$n_{p}$	$n_{g}$	$k_p/k_0$	$k_g/k_0$	α,	$\alpha_{g}$
45°	1	0.67	0.71	$2 \cdot 24$	1	18·4°	45°
63·4°	2	0.89	0.89	1.12	1	53·1°	63∙4°
71·6°	3	0.95	0.95	1.02	1	67·8°	71·6°
76∙0°	4	0.97	0.97	1.01	1	74·3°	76.0°

TABLE 2. Comparison of plane waves, reflected at a turning point



FIGURE 1. Comparison of asymptotic directions of rays (---), reflected at a caustic line (---), between parabolic  $(\alpha_p)$  and geometrical optics  $(\alpha_g)$  approximations, for some values of  $\lambda = \tan \alpha$ . (a)  $\lambda = 1$ ; (b)  $\lambda = 2$ ; (c)  $\lambda = 3$ ; (d)  $\lambda = 4$ .

Since the geometrical optics solution gives the correct result for k and  $\alpha$ , it is obvious that the parabolic approximation is valid in this case, provided  $\lambda^2 \ge 2$ , i.e.  $\alpha$  near 90°. For small values of  $\lambda$ , the coupling between the transmitted and reflected wave fields in equations (16) cannot be neglected (however, a significant improvement may be obtained by choosing the x axis in equation (18) parallel to the depth contours). For systematic corrections to the parabolic approximation, see Corones (1975).

## 5. Numerical solutions for the general case

The parabolic equation (17) may be solved by using finite-difference techniques. In this section, two alternatives will be dealt with. Assuming plane wave incidence

$$\phi = \Psi \exp\left[ik_0 x\right],\tag{38}$$

then equation (18) yields for the complex potential function  $\Psi$ ,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + 2ik_0 n \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} + f \Psi = 0, \qquad (39)$$

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where

$$f = k_0^2 n \left[ 2(n-1) + \frac{i}{k_0} \frac{\partial \ln(n)}{\partial x} \right].$$

$$\tag{40}$$

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A Crank-Nicholson finite-difference equation is used for the numerical solution to equation (39), cf. Richtmyer & Morton (1967): let a rectangular grid be given with grid spacings  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$ , and let the approximation to  $\Psi(l\Delta x, j\Delta y)$  be denoted by  $\Psi_j^i$ ,  $l, j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$  The scheme I is then defined by

$$\begin{split} \Psi_{j+1}^{l+1} + \Psi_{j-1}^{l+1} + \Psi_{j+1}^{l} + \Psi_{j-1}^{l} + [-2 + (\Delta y)^2 f_j^{l+\frac{1}{2}}] \cdot (\Psi_j^{l+1} + \Psi_j^{l}) \\ + 4ik_0 \frac{(\Delta y)^2}{\Delta x} n_j^{l+\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (\Psi_j^{l+1} - \Psi_j^{l}) = 0, \quad (41) \end{split}$$

where

$$n_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}(n_{j}^{l+1} + n_{j}^{l}), \quad f_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} = k_{0}^{2} n_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} \left[ 2(n_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} - 1) + \frac{i}{k_{0}} \ln\left(\frac{n_{j}^{l+1}}{n_{j}^{l}}\right) / \Delta x \right], \quad (42)$$

and with initial condition

$$\Psi_j^0 = 1, \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$
 (43)

and appropriate boundary conditions, to be specified later on. An alternative solution technique is based on a description in terms of amplitude and phase. This can be achieved by the change of variable

$$\Psi = e^{\zeta} \tag{44}$$

which turns (39) into

$$\frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial y} + 2ik_0 n \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial x} + f = 0.$$
(45)

It may be expected that the solution  $\zeta$  is a less rapidly varying function than  $\Psi$ , thus providing a more accurate approximation with the same gridsize. However, the transformation (44) is singular at points where  $\Psi = 0$  (branchpoints, or: amphidromic points), and a direct application of a scheme like (41) is not possible. In order to prevent the nonlinear instabilities involved, it appears to be useful to add to the left-hand side of (45) an artificial viscosity term of the form

$$-i\beta \frac{(\Delta y)^2}{4} \cdot \left| \frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial y^2} \right| \cdot \frac{\partial^2 \zeta}{\partial y^2}, \tag{46}$$

where  $\beta$  is a dimensionless constant of the order of 1. (There is some resemblance with the Lax–Wendroff treatment of shocks, where an analogous dissipative term has been introduced to insure stability; see Richtmyer & Morton (1967), chap. 12.) Let

$$g_{j}^{l} = 2 - i\beta \cdot |\zeta_{j+1}^{l} - 2\zeta_{j}^{l} + \zeta_{j-1}^{l}|, \qquad (47)$$

then the scheme II is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta_{j+1}^{l+1} \cdot [g_{j}^{l} + (\zeta_{j+1}^{l} - \zeta_{j-1}^{l})] + \zeta_{j-1}^{l+1} [g_{j}^{l} - (\zeta_{j+1}^{l} - \zeta_{j-1}^{l})] + \\ \zeta_{j}^{l+1} \cdot \left[ -2g_{j}^{l} + 8ik_{0} \frac{(\Delta y)^{2}}{\Delta x} n_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} \right] + 2(\zeta_{j+1}^{l} + \zeta_{j-1}^{l}) + \\ \zeta_{j}^{l} \cdot \left[ -4 - 8ik_{0} \frac{(\Delta y)^{2}}{\Delta x} n_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} \right] + 4(\Delta y)^{2} \cdot f_{j}^{l+\frac{1}{2}} = 0, \end{aligned}$$

$$(48)$$

with initial condition

$$\zeta_j^0 = 0, \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots \tag{49}$$

and appropriate boundary conditions.



FIGURE 2. Comparison of relative wave amplitudes for bottom configuration I, between results of the schemes I and II (continuous curves,  $\Delta x/L_0 = \frac{1}{3}$ ) and results of Ito & Tanimoto (1972) and of Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977) (circles). (a)  $y/L_0 = 4$ ; (b)  $x/L_0 = 7$ ; (c)  $x/L_0 = 6$ .

Both schemes being implicit, a system of simultaneous linear equations has to be solved. For systems like (41) or (48) very efficient methods are available.

The rate of convergence will be exemplified in the next section, where numerical solutions are obtained for the case of a circular shoal.

## 6. Application to circular shoal

As an example, the propagation of an incident plane wave will be considered over a circular symmetric shoal with parabolic bottom profile. Calculations for this severe test case have been made by Berkhoff (1976), Bettess & Zienkiewicz (1977), Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977), and Ito & Tanimoto (1972) who additionally conducted some laboratory experiments.

The shoal is represented by the depth profile

$$\begin{split} h &= h_m + e_0 r^2 \quad \text{for} \quad r < R, \\ h &= h_0 \qquad \text{for} \quad r \ge R, \\ r^2 &= (x - x_m)^2 + (y - y_m)^2 \\ e_1 &= (h_1 - h_1)/R^2 \end{split}$$
 (50)

where

and

$$e_0 = (h_0 - h_m)/R$$

To be definite, short wave propagation is considered, and the assumptions (7) should apply, which amount to:  $e_0 \ll \omega^2/g.$ (51)

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This implies that the curvature of the bottom is much less than the wavenumber, regardless of the value of the minimum depth. The value of the angular frequency  $\omega$  follows from the dispersion relation (5):  $\omega^2 = gk_0 \tanh(k_0 h_0)$ ; denoting the corresponding wavelength by  $L_0 = 2\pi/k_0$ . the problem is then defined through the parameters  $h_m/R$ ,  $h_0/R$  and  $L_0/R$ .

In order to specify the boundary conditions, it is useful to analyse the asymptotic character of the solution for large distance x. The governing equation (viz. equation (39), with  $n \equiv 1$ ) stands for the Schrödinger equation of a free particle, which is represented by a one-dimensional wave packet. The behaviour of this wave packet for large x is a well-known problem in wave mechanics: the spreading of the packet increases linearly with the distance x, and the magnitude approaches zero, as  $1/x^{\frac{1}{2}}$  (see Messiah 1969, chap. VI).

It follows, that the required boundary conditions for schemes I and II, in case of a shoal, can be given by the undisturbed initial values of the solution,  $\Psi = 1$  and  $\zeta = 0$ , provided these boundaries are taken sufficiently far away from the area of interest. In this way, the artificial reflexions which may occur at the boundaries, can be avoided.

Some calculations with the numerical schemes have been performed, for two configurations of the shoal:



Configuration I, defined through:

$$h_m/R = 0.0625; \quad h_0/R = 0.1875; \quad L_0/R = 0.5.$$

Configuration II, defined through:

$$h_m/R = 0.016; \quad h_0/R = 0.116; \quad L_0/R = 0.288.$$

The parameter  $e_0 g/\omega^2$  takes on the value 0.01 for configuration I, and the value 0.005 for configuration II, so the inequality (51) is valid in both cases. The constant  $\beta$  in (46) is chosen to be 1, and the grid spacings have been varied according to

$$\Delta y / \Delta x = \frac{1}{2}; \quad \Delta x / L_0 = 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4} \text{ and } \frac{1}{8}.$$

Configuration I has been studied by Ito & Tanimoto (1972), who use a finite-difference timestep method, and by Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977), who use a finite-element elliptic method. In figure 2, a comparison is given for the relative wave amplitudes, showing a good agreement. A detailed view of the solution is presented in figures 3-6, in which the centre of the shoal, with radius  $R = 16\Delta x$ , is located at  $x_m = 33$ ,  $y_m = 113$  (in grid units).



		Configur	ation I	Configuration II		
$\Delta y / \Delta x = \frac{1}{2} \qquad \qquad \Delta x / L_0$		$\overset{\bullet}{\underset{A}{\operatorname{Maximum}}}$	Location $x/L_0$	$\mathop{\rm Maximum}_{A}$	Location $x/L_0$	
Scheme I	1	$2 \cdot 17$	8.5	2.57	<b>9</b> ·0	
	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.08	7.0	3.18	7.0	
	ž	2.05	6.8	3.01	6.0	
	18	$2 \cdot 05$	6.6	$2 \cdot 96$	5.7	
Scheme II	1	2.10	7.0	2.85	6.0	
$(\beta = 1)$	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.03	$6 \cdot 5$	$2 \cdot 96$	5.8	
. ,	Ī	2.04	6.6	2.92	5.7	
	Ī	$2 \cdot 05$	6.6	2.97	5.7	
Ito & Tanimoto (1972)		$2 \cdot 1$	6.3			
Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977)		2.04	6·4	3.1	5.7	
Bettess & Zienkiewicz (1977)		<u> </u>		$2 \cdot 9$	5.5	

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These figures show, successively, contour lines of the amplitude, energy flux lines (wave orthogonals), and contour lines of the phase (wave fronts). Energy flux lines are defined through the energy streamfunction G:

$$G = k_0 y - \int_0^x A^2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} dx, \qquad (52)$$

where amplitude A and phase F are given by  $\phi = Ae^{iF}$ . If the field  $\phi$  satisfies the Helmholtz equation (8), it follows that  $\nabla F \cdot \nabla G = 0$ , i.e. orthogonality of  $\nabla F$  and  $\nabla G$ , which provides another test of validity for the parabolic approximation.

In figure 7, an indication is given of the rate of convergence of the numerical schemes, for the relative wave amplitudes on the line of symmetry,  $y = y_m$  (cf. table 3 for a comparison of maximum wave amplitudes).

Configuration II has been studied by Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977), and Bettess & Zienkiewicz (1977), using a finite-element elliptic method. In figures 8 and 9, the relative wave amplitudes on the line of symmetry are presented (cf. table 3). It appears that the minimum near the end of the shoal cannot be represented properly by the solution of scheme II. This is caused by the occurrence of branchpoints, for which A = 0. In the vicinity of such points, the phase is a multiple-valued function, and the



FIGURE 7. Comparison of relative wave amplitudes for configuration I, on the line of symmetry, between results of scheme I (a) and results of scheme II (b).



FIGURE 8. Comparison of relative wave amplitudes for configuration II, on the line of symmetry, between results of scheme I (continuous curves) and results of Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977)(circles).



FIGURE 9. Comparison of relative wave amplitudes for configuration II, on the line of symmetry, between results of scheme II (continuous curves) and results of Flokstra & Berkhoff (1977) (circles).

energy flux lines are closed. The application of scheme II then results in a smoothed solution, which may be preferable when the accuracy requirements are not too high.

## 7. Summary and conclusions

For the propagation of periodic surface waves in shoaling water, a parabolic wave equation (18) has been derived, based on the splitting technique of Corones (1975). This method yields a pair of coupled equations for the transmitted and reflected fields, and the parabolic equation results from neglecting the reflected field. In the case of an area with straight and parallel bottom contour lines, the asymptotic form of the solution for high frequencies is compared with the geometrical optics approximation. There is a close agreement, if there is no caustic line. In the presence of a caustic, there is a reasonable agreement provided the angle of incidence is close enough to 90°.

Finally, two numerical solution techniques are presented in the form of finitedifference schemes, each based on a different form of the parabolic equation. As an example, wave propagation over a circular shoal is considered, where the geometrical optics approximation predicts a cusped caustic line. For two bottom configurations, the results are compared with similar calculations in literature, showing a reasonable agreement. Which solution technique is preferable depends upon the required accuracy and the available computer capacity.

The parabolic equation method may be applied to short wave propagation in large coastal areas of complex bottom topography.

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