

# Dispersive modeling of breaking waves on a slope

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## Abstract

The nonlinear shallow water model is widely used in the study of tsunami propagations, but an increasing number of studies are dedicated to the dispersion dynamics of tsunamis. If the wave dispersion becomes important, Boussinesq-type models are often used. In this work, a general purpose Boussinesq solver, BOUSSCLAW, is introduced for modeling fully non-linear dispersive tsunami propagation, taking into account inundation. In the BOUSSCLAW model, Boussinesq equations from the literature, based on the depth-averaged velocity and with enhanced dispersion properties, are implemented using a hybrid of the finite volume and finite difference methods. In order to validate BOUSSCLAW, numerical results are compared to the analytical solutions and laboratory experiments. Furthermore, the wave steepening and breaking motion is carefully scrutinized, and we demonstrate that the point of wave breaking may be wrongly identified in many of the commonly used Boussinesq models.

*Keywords:* Breaking wave, Boussinesq equation, finite volume method

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## 1. Introduction

Tsunamis are often considered as long waves compared to the water depth, and long-wave models are consequently widely used in the study of their propagation and inundation. Through the use of numerical shock capturing techniques  
5 for modeling the nearshore bore formation of the tsunami, *nonlinear shallow water* (NLSW) models did become the standard model for modeling tsunami

propagation and run-up, see e.g. (Titov and Synolakis, 1995; Imamura, 1996; Harig et al., 2008; Berger et al., 2011).

The NLSW models do not incorporate frequency dispersion, which may be  
10 included by ascending in the hierarchy of long wave expansion to the Boussinesq  
type equations. Numerical models based on Boussinesq type equations have  
been used for idealized studies of wave processes since 1966 (Peregrine, 1966) and  
additionally to simpler problems in coastal engineering in the following decades  
(Brocchini, 2013). However, the accumulated effect of the frequency dispersion  
15 for the wave propagation over the open sea is a function of propagation time  
and the shape of the disturbance (Glimsdal et al., 2013), and may become  
important for some tsunamis, in particular for landslide sources (Løvholt et al.,  
2015). Dispersion may further be of importance, in combination with non-  
linear effects, for the evolution of undular bores for tsunamis (Glimsdal et al.,  
20 2013; Grue et al., 2008; Løvholt et al., 2008; Behrens and Dias, 2015). In  
the last decades we have seen a development on long wave expansions and  
their numerical formulations. In the 1990s the modeling with Boussinesq type  
equations were vitalized by new formulations, in particular those of Madsen  
and Sørensen (1992) and Nwogu (1993) which displayed improved dispersion  
25 properties in comparison to the standard formulation of Peregrine (1967). Later  
still more extensions and improvements have followed as described in the reviews  
(Madsen et al., 2003), (Brocchini, 2013)

Boussinesq-type equations differ in mathematical structure from the NLSW  
equations and do not inherit characteristics in the same simple form. Hence,  
30 other strategies have been attempted for inclusion of wave breaking and post-  
breaking motion in Boussinesq models. Schäffer et al. (1993) employed the  
concept of the *surface roller*, first proposed by Svendsen (1984), which is vol-  
ume of water passively riding at the bore front. Another way of incorporating  
the breaking that was suggested by Kennedy et al. (2000) who included dif-  
35 fusive terms in the momentum equation which was activated and deactivated  
as a steepness measure crosses thresholds. The original steepness measure was  
the temporal rate of surface elevation corresponding to a very steep solitary

wave. Later, Lynett (2006) investigated a variety of steepness measures and then identified that the surface steepness provides the least sensitive breaking  
 40 threshold. Løvholt et al. (2013) similarly employed a diffusive model including transport terms, but pointed out that breaking wave Boussinesq models were prone to instabilities. Tissier et al. (2012) suggested a breaking decision model based on the surface roller, the maximal front angle and the Froude number. An alternative non-linear diffusive ad-hoc breaking term was suggested Matsuyama  
 45 et al. (2007), based on their large scale experiments of the wave propagation of undular bores on various slope angles.

However, there is a natural desire to exploit the efficient and well established shock capturing framework for NLSW models also in a dispersive context. Hence, recently developed Boussinesq models are often based on hybrid nu-  
 50 merical techniques such as use of approximate Riemann solvers combined with TVD limiters for the conserved variables, and finite differences for additional higher order terms (Erduran et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2009; Shiach and Mingham, 2009; Roeber et al., 2010; Dutykh et al., 2011; Shi et al., 2012). Among other models, this have led to the popular FUNWAVE-TVD and COULWAVE-TVD  
 55 applications. For instance in Shi et al. (2012), Boussinesq terms are switched off the near-shore region where large amplitude-to-depth-ratios occur, implying that only NLSW terms remain in the shallowest region. This allows for a relatively robust treatment of the modeling of the post breaking phase. To this end, the  $A/h = 0.8$  threshold suggested by (Shi et al., 2012) based on the Froude  
 60 similarity analysis by Tonelli and Petti (2009), have in many ways become the standard for incorporating breaking in a feasible and practical way.

In this paper, we present a new hybrid Boussinesq type model BOUSSCLAW, of similiar mould as FUNWAVE-TVD and COULWAVE-TVD. The emphasis is twofold. First, to present a careful validation of the model, both towards lab-  
 65 oratory experiments and more general reference models. Second, we use the new model in comparison with a full potential reference model to explore how accurate the Boussinesq models can represent the wave evolution until the point of breaking. In the present example, we are finally able to demonstrate that

Boussinesq models may be employed to accurately model the near shore tsunami  
70 propagation beyond the standard  $A/h = 0.8$  threshold depth. Conversely, we  
find that the use of the standard  $A/h = 0.8$  threshold depth invokes a too early  
formation of a breaking bore. This points out that that the breaking criteria  
employed so far lacks generality.

This paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, the base model for the wave  
75 equations is given and the numerical scheme is outlined, including a von Neuman  
stability analysis. Sections 3 compares results from the BOUSSCLAW with the  
analytic solutions and laboratory experiments. Section 3.4 discusses the wave  
steepening and using a Boundary Integral Method (BIM) for solving the full  
potential equations. In Section 4.1, we compare these results of pre-breaking  
80 evolution with Boussinesq type models.

## 2. Model Description

Boussinesq-type equations include non-hydrostatic pressure in an approxi-  
mate way treat short waves more accurately than the shallow water equations.  
The Boussinesq-type wave models have been derived on the assumption that  
85  $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$  and  $\mathcal{O}(\mu)$  terms are small, where  $\epsilon$  and  $\mu$  denote the ratio of wave am-  
plitude to depth and the ratio of depth to wavelength respectively. Various  
models have been suggested, and the papers of Peregrine (1967), Madsen and  
Sørensen (1992), Nwogu (1993), Lynett et al. (2002), and Wei and Kirby (1995)  
are representative examples.

90 In this work, a new numerical model, called BOUSSCLAW, is introduced. It is  
an extension of GEOCLAW (Clawpack Development Team, 2016), and solves the  
Boussinesq-type equations derived by Schäffer et al. (1993). The BOUSSCLAW  
model is a hybrid of the finite volume and finite difference solvers with the frac-  
tional step technique. The GEOCLAW software is a part of CLAWPACK (Claw-  
95 pack Development Team, 2016) developed mainly by LeVeque (1997), George  
(2008) and Berger et al. (2011), which is designed to solve the nonlinear shallow  
water equations.

## 2.1. BOUSSCLAW - a new long wave model for tsunami propagation and run-up

### 2.1.1. Boussinesq-type equations

Schäffer et al. (1993) derived Boussinesq-type equations with an addition of a Padé approximation of the linear dispersion relation. The equations read

$$H_t + (Hu)_x = 0, \quad (1)$$

$$(1 - D)[(Hu)_t] + \left(Hu^2 + \frac{g}{2}H^2\right)_x - gHh_x - Bgh^2(h\eta_x)_{xx} = 0, \quad (2)$$

where the operator  $D$  is defined as

$$D(w) = \left(B + \frac{1}{2}\right)h^2w_{xx} - \frac{1}{6}h^3\left(\frac{w}{h}\right)_{xx}, \quad (3)$$

for any  $w(x, t)$ . In the above equations  $H(x, t)$  and  $u(x, t)$  are the total flow depth and the depth averaged velocity of the water, respectively,  $h(x)$  is the still water depth,  $\eta(x, t)$  is the surface elevation, and thus  $H(x, t) = h(x) + \eta(x, t)$ . Moreover,  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity, and  $B$  is a dispersion parameter. Madsen and Sørensen (1992) have chosen the parameter  $B = 1/15$  from a Padé expansion of the linear dispersion analysis. When  $B = 0$ , this set of the Boussinesq-type equations approximately reduces to that of Peregrine (1967) as the linear dispersion relations are identical. However, unlike Peregrine's momentum equation the hydrostatic parts of (2) are written in a conservative form. Moreover, some nonlinearity is introduced in the dispersion term for convenience. Even though (1), (2) and (3) do not constitute a fully nonlinear set of Boussinesq equations, they do describe shoaling of solitary waves markedly better than, for instance, the Peregrine equations, as will be demonstrated in section 4.1.

The BOUSSCLAW model solves the Boussinesq-type equations (1) and (2) numerically with a hybrid combination of the finite volume and finite difference methods that will be explained in a moment. There have been several studies of this type of hybrid schemes. For example, see Tissier et al. (2011), Shi et al. (2012) and Dutykh et al. (2013).

To facilitate a fractional step method, as outlined below, we move the hydrostatic terms of (2) inside the  $(1 - D)$  operator, while balancing with extra

terms in the  $\Psi$ , to obtain

$$(1 - D)[(Hu)_t + \left(Hu^2 + \frac{g}{2}H^2\right)_x - gHh_x] = -\Psi(x, t), \quad (4)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x, t) = & \left(B + \frac{1}{2}\right) h^2 ((Hu^2)_x + gH\eta_x)_{xx} \\ & - \frac{1}{6} h^3 \left(\frac{(Hu^2)_x + gH\eta_x}{h}\right)_{xx} - Bgh^2 (h\eta_x)_{xx}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

### 2.1.2. Numerical scheme

The equations (1) and (4) are written in a form that conserves momentum to leading order in  $\mu$ , but with the  $\Psi$  term as a pseudo source. Such equations may be solved by a *fractional step method* as described in LeVeque (2002), for instance. First, it is observed that (4) may be formally rewritten as

$$(Hu)_t = - \left\{ \left(Hu^2 + \frac{g}{2}H^2\right)_x - gHh_x \right\} - (1 - D)^{-1}\Psi(x, t), \quad (6)$$

120 At the first stage of the hybrid scheme, we integrate  $Hu$  over a time step taking into account all hydrostatic terms, namely those within the braces on the right hand side, and omitting the source terms involving  $\Psi$ . When this is combined with the continuity equation (1) this simply corresponds to advancing the shallow water equations one time step forward. To this end we employ GEOCLAW,  
125 a high-order accurate finite volume solver for the shallow water equations with adaptive mesh refinements.

In the second stage, we retain the new  $H$  value, but integrate  $Hu$  (essentially being the momentum density) further from the first stage by solving

$$(1 - D)[(Hu)_t] = -\Psi. \quad (7)$$

Since the differential operator  $D$  contains spatial derivatives, a systems of difference equations must then be solved.

The spatial and time discretization should be carefully chosen for the stability of the second stage. In our numerical scheme, the second order centered  
130 scheme is used for the spatial discretization, and a four stage Runge-Kutta

method is used for the time integration. The von Neumann stability analysis of this numerical scheme is outlined in Appendix A.

Suppose the spatial domain is divided into  $n$  grid cells with the spatial grid size  $\Delta x$ . Arrays of nodal values for flow depth and  $Hu$ , respectively, are defined as

$$\mathbf{H} = (H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{M} = (H_1 u_1, H_2 u_2, \dots, H_n u_n)^T.$$

With time increment  $\Delta t$  the fourth order Runge-Kutta scheme can be written as follows,

$$\mathbf{M}^1 = \mathbf{M}, \quad \mathbf{M}^2 = \mathbf{M} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \mathbf{S}^1, \quad \mathbf{M}^3 = \mathbf{M} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \mathbf{S}^2, \quad \mathbf{M}^4 = \mathbf{M} + \Delta t \mathbf{S}^3, \quad (8)$$

where  $\mathbf{M}^k$  are intermediate value arrays and  $\mathbf{S}^k$  are correspondingly arrays for the time derivatives of  $Hu$ , obtained by solving

$$(I - \bar{D})\mathbf{S}^k = -\bar{\Psi}(\mathbf{H}, \mathbf{M}^k), \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, 4. \quad (9)$$

Here  $\bar{\Psi}$  and  $\bar{D}$  represent centered spatial discretizations for the term  $\Psi$  and the operator  $D$ , respectively. These are given explicitly below. Finally the value of  $\mathbf{M}$  at the new time level is obtained by

$$\mathbf{M}^+ = \mathbf{M} + \frac{\Delta t}{6} [\mathbf{S}^1 + 2\mathbf{S}^2 + 2\mathbf{S}^3 + \mathbf{S}^4]. \quad (10)$$

In (9),  $\bar{D}$  is a tri-diagonal  $n \times n$  matrix with elements

$$\bar{D}_{i,i-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left[ \left( B + \frac{1}{2} \right) h_i^2 - \frac{1}{6} \frac{h_i^3}{h_{i-1}} \right],$$

$$\bar{D}_{i,i} = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left( -2B - \frac{2}{3} \right) h_i^2,$$

$$\bar{D}_{i,i+1} = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left[ \left( B + \frac{1}{2} \right) h_i^2 - \frac{1}{6} \frac{h_i^3}{h_{i+1}} \right].$$

Correspondingly, the  $i$ -th element of  $\Psi(\bar{\mathbf{H}}, \mathbf{q})$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{\Psi}_i = & \left( B + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{h_i^2}{2\Delta x^3} \left[ \left( \frac{M_{i+2}^2}{H_{i+2}} - 2\frac{M_{i+1}^2}{H_{i+1}} + 2\frac{M_{i-1}^2}{H_{i-1}} - \frac{M_{i-2}^2}{H_{i-2}} \right) \right. \\ & \left. + g(H_{i+1}(\eta_{i+2} - \eta_i) - 2H_i(\eta_{i+1} - \eta_{i-1}) + H_{i-1}(\eta_i - \eta_{i-2})) \right] \\ & - \frac{1}{6} \frac{h_i^3}{2\Delta x^3} \left[ \frac{M_{i+2}^2/H_{i+2} - M_i^2/H_i}{H_{i+1}} - 2\frac{M_{i+1}^2/H_{i+1} - M_{i-1}^2/H_{i-1}}{h_i} \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{M_i^2/H_i - M_{i-2}^2/H_{i-2}}{H_{i-1}} \right. \\ & \left. + g\left( \frac{H_{i+1}(\eta_{i+2} - \eta_i)}{H_{i+1}} - 2\frac{H_i(\eta_{i+1} - \eta_{i-1})}{h_i} + \frac{H_{i-1}(\eta_i - \eta_{i-2})}{H_{i-1}} \right) \right] \\ & - \frac{Bgh_i^2}{2\Delta x^3} (H_{i+1}(\eta_{i+2} - \eta_i) - 2H_i(\eta_{i+1} - \eta_{i-1}) + H_{i-1}(\eta_i - \eta_{i-2})),\end{aligned}$$

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

### 2.1.3. Additional numerical features

Following Shi et al. (2012) we may catch wave breaking in a heuristic fashion through invocation of a threshold  $\epsilon_B := \eta/h = 0.8$  in BOUSSCLAW. When the threshold is reached, the wave breaking is supposed to be initiated, and the dispersive terms are suppressed. At the breaking, the set of equations is locally  
 140 switched to the shallow water equations for the corresponding wave packet, and the trailing waves are solved with the Boussinesq equations if the thresholds are not reached.

When a wave reaches the coastline, the coastline changes in time as the wave runs up the slope and recedes eventually. For the numerical simulations,  
 145 it has been a challenge to compute the inundation correctly. At the coastline, BOUSSCLAW switches to the NLSW solver of the GEOCLAW software, which can handle wet and dry states with the depth positivity property. Details can be found in George (2008).

Friction terms are important for inundation on gentle slopes. For example, the Figure 7 shows that the run-up height is much reduced by the friction terms.

G: wave packet is too loose. Must specify.

RJL: I modified this sentence, is this correct?



BOUSSCLAW uses the Manning-type frictions as follows,

$$f_D = -\frac{gC_d^2 u|u|}{H^{5/3}},$$

where  $C_d$  is a Manning drag coefficient. Another parameter  $d^*$  needs to be  
 150 chosen so that the water depth is set to  $H = 0$  if the water depth is smaller than  
 this threshold,  $H < d^*$ . Antuono et al. (2012) derived an approximate solution  
 of the shoreline for the shallow water equations with the Chezy friction, and  
 studied the effect of the frictional coefficient and the water depth tolerance. In  
 this work, the parameter  $d^*$  is set to  $10^{-4}$ .

## 155 2.2. Models for comparison

The performance of the Boussinesq model presented here is assessed by com-  
 parison with numerical results from a full potential flow model which is described  
 in Løvholt et al. (2013) and references therein. The model is based on a bound-  
 ary integral technique and is run with fully nonlinear solitary wave solutions  
 160 as initial conditions. During shoaling and breaking this model can describe  
 the evolution of a plunger, but breaks down when the plunger reaches the free  
 surface. Hence, the potential flow results are used to determine the point of  
 breaking due to shoaling and to evaluate the evolution of amplitude and wave  
 shape of the current model until this point. Below we refer to the full potential  
 165 model as the BIM (Boundary Integral Method) model.

Comparison with a pre-existing, fully nonlinear Boussinesq model is facil-  
 itated by the application of a Lagrangian model, described in Løvholt et al.  
 (2013). Apart from the use of Lagrangian coordinates the equations employed  
 in this model are similar to (1) and (2). They differ only concerning the non-  
 170 linearities in the dispersion terms and that the dispersion optimization terms  
 are added in a fully nonlinear fashion. Presently, the Lagrangian model has  
 no established bore capturing facility and is hence valid only to the point of  
 breaking. Results from this model will be referred to as 'Serre', even though  
 the dispersion enhancement is invoked.

175 Results for the Peregrine-type Boussinesq equations are obtained by the  
 GloBouss model. This is a dispersive tsunami propagation model which is based  
 on Peregrine-type equations and discretization on a staggered grid. Further  
 details are found in Løvholt et al. (2008).

For comparison also the version 2.1 of the FUNWAVE-TVD model by Shi  
 180 et al. (2012) is used. The FUNWAVE-TVD model shares important features  
 with BOUSSCLAW, employing a hybrid of the finite volume and finite difference  
 scheme to solve the fully non-linear higher order dispersive Boussinesq model  
 numerically. While we refer to Shi et al. (2012) for details, we briefly note  
 that FUNWAVE-TVD is based the fully nonlinear Boussinesq equations of Chen  
 185 (2006). The numerical spatial representation in FUNWAVE-TVD is MUSCL  
 TVD scheme to discretize for the flux and first order terms, whereas a cen-  
 tral finite difference scheme Wei et al. (1995a) is utilized for the higher order  
 momentum terms. A Runge-Kutta scheme is employed for the time stepping.

### 3. Numerical Tests

#### 190 3.1. Solitary wave propagation

In order to validate the numerical approach a solitary wave propagation  
 is tested on a constant water depth. For the initial conditions, the analytic  
 solitary wave solution of the Serre's equations is used since analytic solutions  
 are unknown for the set (1) and (2). Solitary wave solutions to Serre's equations  
 are given as

$$\begin{aligned}\eta(x, t) &= A \operatorname{sech}^2(\kappa(x - ct)), \\ u(x, t) &= c \frac{\eta(x, t)}{h},\end{aligned}\tag{11}$$

where

$$\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{3h}}{2A\sqrt{A+h}}, \quad \text{and} \quad c = \sqrt{g(A+h)}.\tag{12}$$

In this expression,  $A$  and  $h$  are constants which represent the wave amplitude  
 and the undisturbed water depth respectively.

In Figure 1, snapshots from the BOUSSCLAW simulation are shown at  $t = 0, 4, 8$  and  $12$  with  $\Delta x = 0.1$ . For the initial conditions, the solution (11) is used with  $A = 0.2$ ,  $h = 1$  and  $g = 9.81$ . The computational results are in good agreement with the analytic solutions concerning height, shape and propagation speed. The amplitudes decreases very gently as the wave propagates.

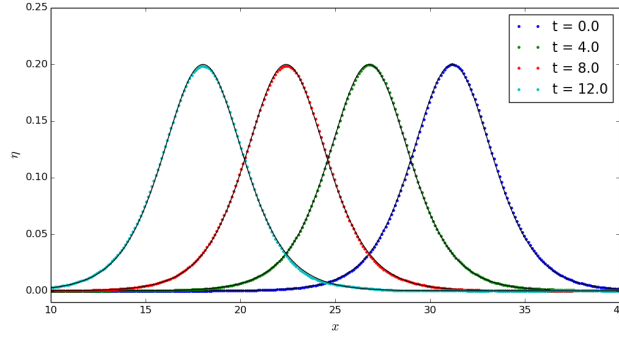


Figure 1: Snapshot of the analytic and computed solitary wave at  $t = 0, 4, 8$  and  $12$  with  $A/h = 0.2$ . The wave propagates from right to left, and the analytic solutions are black solid lines.

The vertically integrated wave energy densities for the shallow water equations and the Boussinesq equations are  $e_0$  and  $e_0 + e_1$ , respectively, where

$$e_0 = \frac{1}{2} (g\eta^2 + H\bar{u}^2), \quad (13)$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{6} H^3 \bar{u}_x^2 + \frac{1}{2} H^2 h_x \bar{u} \bar{u}_x + \frac{1}{2} H h_x^2 \bar{u}^2. \quad (14)$$

Details are given in Madsen et al. (1997) and Appendix B. When the densities are integrated over the whole horizontal domain we obtain the corresponding total energies (per width), denoted as  $E_0$  and  $E_1$ .

In Figure 2a, the energy of the solitary wave is shown with  $A/h = 0.2$  and  $\Delta x = 0.2$ . There are fluctuations both in the potential and kinetic energy that is evident when we zoom in, and the total energy decreases showing that the numerical procedure has dissipation. In Figure 2b, the relative error of the

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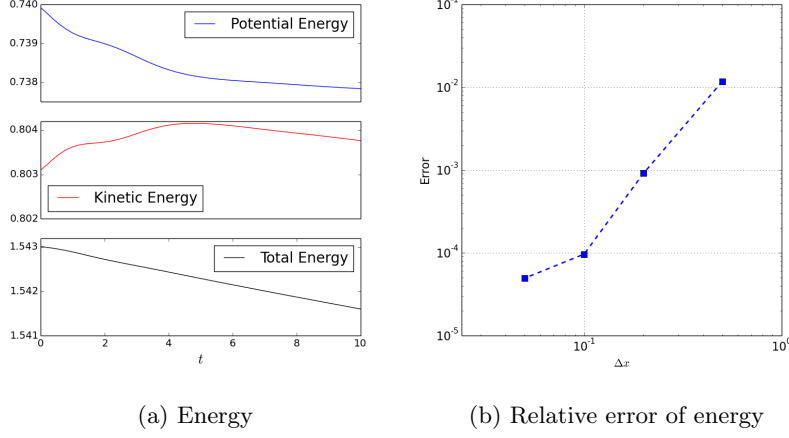


Figure 2: The energy of a solitary wave with  $\Delta x = 0.2$  (left), and log-log plot of relative error at  $t = 10$  for  $\Delta x = 0.05, 0.1, 0.2$  and  $0.5$  (right).

energy at  $t = 10$ ,

$$Error = \frac{|E_{t=0} - E_{t=10}|}{|E_{t=0}|},$$

is shown for different  $\Delta x$ . For a solitary wave on a constant depth, the energy dissipation decreases with the grid increments.

### 3.2. Waves on a composite slope

A physical model was constructed at the Coastal Hydraulic Laboratory of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers in order to address beach erosion and severe flooding problems Briggs et al. (1995). The model beach consists of three piece-wise linear slopes of 1:53, 1:150, and 1:13 with a vertical wall at the shoreline as shown in Figure 3. In the laboratory, the wavemaker was located at 23.23 m. The gauge data from three cases are provided where the ratio  $A/h$  is equal to 0.038, 0.259 and 0.681 with  $h = 21.8$  cm.

The second case with  $A/h = 0.259$  has been compared with the numerical tests which employed 400 grid points. To specify the incoming wave from the left boundary, the data at Gauge 4 were used for the wave height, and the corresponding velocity (11) was applied.

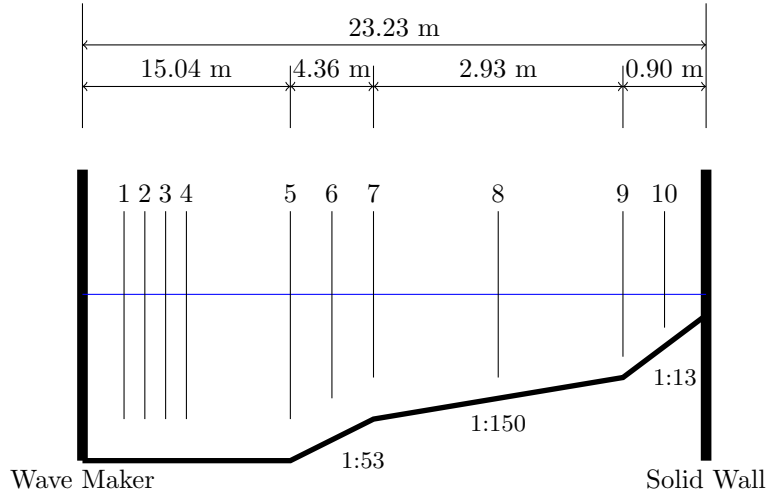


Figure 3: A sketch of the water tank

215 In Figure 4, water surface elevations at gauges 5, 7 and 8 are shown. The  
 simulated waves are in good agreement with the laboratory measurements. For  
 the reflected waves, larger discrepancies are observed. The increased discrep-  
 220 ancy occurs because the full interaction between the wave and the wall at the  
 right boundary is less accurately captured. Friction forces influence the wave  
 evolution along the shallow region near the right wall, but we have not included  
 these in the present numerical simulation. A better fit may possibly be obtained  
 by incorporating friction, however, tuning the friction models is not the scope  
 of this work.

### 3.3. Runup on a steep slope

225 On a  $10^\circ$  slope an incident solitary wave of amplitude  $A/h = 0.3$  will not  
 break until the end of the draw-down phase Grilli et al. (1997). Still, this may  
 be a challenging task for Boussinesq type models (Løvholt et al., 2013). Runup  
 on a  $10^\circ$  was investigated experimentally by Pedersen et al. (2013) who found  
 a theoretical overshoot of roughly 20% in the maximum runup height. This  
 230 was allotted to the viscous boundary layer on the beach and capillary effects.  
 Moreover, the measurements showed that the boundary layer flow during runup

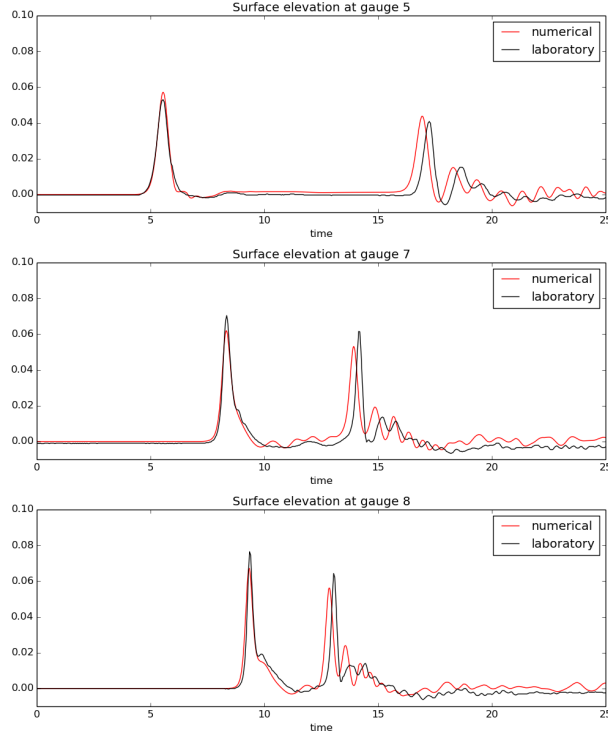


Figure 4: Water surface elevation at gauges 5,7 and 8 for  $A/h = 0.269$  case.

was mostly laminar, albeit indications of transition was observed in the upper part of the swash tongue close to flow reversal. Hence, it is not appropriate to employ a manning friction term and we compare the models without any bed  
235 friction, while leaving the experiments out.

### 3.4. Comparison with experiments on a breaking wave

Synolakis (1987) performed a series of laboratory experiments for the run-up of solitary waves on uniform slopes. Here, we are interested in the breaking cases. One such example in Synolakis (1987) is a solitary wave of amplitude  
240  $A/h = 0.28$  approaching a slope of 1 : 19.85. In Figure 5, the initial set-up for a test is shown.

The set-up of the wave tank in the simulations follows the laboratory experiments by Synolakis (1987). The bathymetry of the wave tank is composed of a

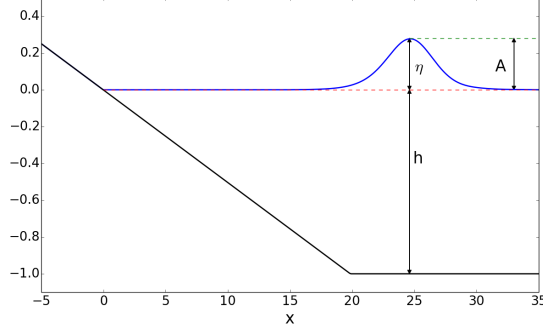


Figure 5: Set-up of a numerical test for Synolakis' experiments.

horizontal bottom and a uniform slope as shown in Figure 5. A solitary wave of  
 245 amplitude  $A/h = 0.28$  is generated at the right end of the tank and propagates  
 leftwards to the beach.

We present the results using the non-dimensional time  $t^* = t\sqrt{h/g}$  and non-  
 dimensional space  $x^* = x/h$ . In the following, we drop the asterisks in the  
 presentation of the results. In Synolakis (1987),  $t = 0$  was defined as when the  
 wave crest was a non-dimensional distance,  $L$ , from the toe of the slope, where

$$L = \sqrt{\frac{4A}{3h}} \operatorname{arccosh} \left( \frac{1}{0.05} \right).$$

However, at  $t = 0$ , the solitary wave has an elevation of 5% of its maximum at the  
 toe of the beach, meaning that the slope has started to interact with the solitary  
 wave. To avoid any such interaction obscuring our analysis, we instead place the  
 250 initial solitary wave using equation (11) at  $L + 5c$ , where  $c$  is the shallow water  
 wave celerity. In this way, the initial solitary wave has a negligible interaction  
 with the slope when initialized.

In Figure 6, the laboratory measurements are shown with the computational  
 results from the BOUSSCLAW (in Boussinesq and NLSW mode) and the BIM  
 255 models for  $A/h = 0.28$  and a 1 : 19.85 slope at  $t = 15$ . This is before the wave  
 breaks and both BOUSSCLAW and the BIM model are in good agreement with  
 the experiments.

The ratio of amplitude to depth,  $A/h$ , is about 2.01 at the break point. The

Also include the  
 BoussClaw re-  
 sults and NLSW  
 in fig. 6

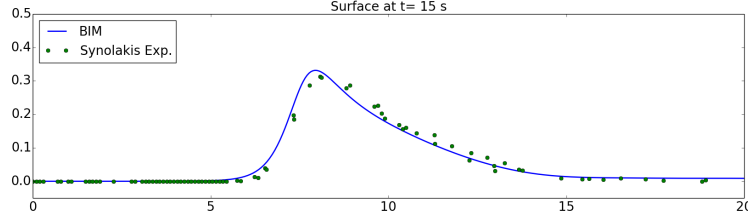


Figure 6: Comparison of the laboratory experiments and BIM at  $t=15$  with  $A/h = 0.28$  on a slope of 1 : 19.85.

potential flow model cannot be run much beyond the breaking points (until the  
 260 attachment of the plunger only) and gives no information on the following bore  
 propagation. In figure 7 we have compared the BOUSSCLAW model, with and  
 without a Manning friction, with the experimental data. The agreement is good  
 and the introduction of bed-friction even seem to match the truncated swash  
 tongue of the experiments well. However, this may be a coincidence. Even  
 265 though the wave has broken and some irregular flow features are introduced  
 thereby, we have no evidence of the flow state being anywhere near turbulent,  
 which is required for a quadratic bottom resistance to be appropriate. Capillary  
 effects and experimental errors may also affect the comparison.

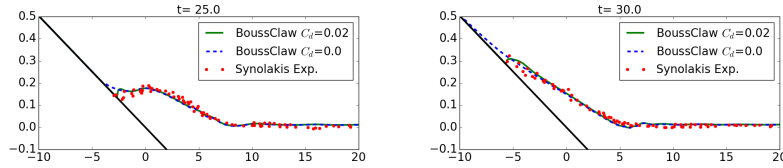


Figure 7: Comparison of experiments and BoussClaw results at  $t=25$  and  $30$ .

## 4. Shoaling and breaking phenomena

### 270 4.1. Pre-breaking

Wei et al. (1995b) made computation of pre-breaking solitary wave shoaling  
 with their fully nonlinear extension of Nwogu's model with full potential theory  
 and the weakly nonlinear version of Nwogu's model. They found that the fully



nonlinear Boussinesq equations were superior to those of Nwogu in the later  
 275 stages of the shoaling. In this subsection we will do a similar comparison for  
 our models on the 1 : 19.85 slope which was not included in the reference.

We use the set-up described in section 3.4 for the Boussinesq modeling of  
 solitary waves on a slope. The BOUSSCLAW simulations are compared with those  
 of other Boussinesq solvers, namely FUNWAVE (Shi et al., 2012), GLOBOUSS  
 280 (Løvholt et al., 2010) and the Serre type formulation (Løvholt et al., 2013). As  
 noted above, the original Serre's equations are enhanced by adding the Schäffer  
 et al. (1993) terms.

In Figure 8, snapshots from different numerical models are shown at  $t = 16$ ,  
 18 and 20. At the  $t = 20$  there are no results from the BIM model as the  
 285 wave has broken. For the BOUSSCLAW, the parameter  $B = 1/15$  is used, but  
 the computational results are rather similar with  $B = 0$  for this case. At  
 $t=16$ , the computational results from all the Boussinesq-type equations show  
 similar results. The NLSW model, on the other hand, has yielded a premature  
 breaking causing a too low amplitude. Moreover, the wave celerity is also over-  
 290 estimated by the hydrostatic model. At  $t=18$ , some discrepancies are observed  
 that can be split into two groups, and GLOBOUSS and FUNWAVE are similar  
 while the BOUSSCLAW and the Serre results are similar. The wave amplitudes  
 computed by the GLOBOUSS and FUNWAVE models, are more than 20 %larger  
 than those from the BIM model. The wave amplitude continues to increase with  
 295 GLOBOUSS simulations, and the difference from the BOUSSCLAW result becomes  
 larger at  $t = 20$ . The results from the Serre and BOUSSCLAW models clearly  
 more similar to those of the BIM model. Especially, the wave amplitudes are  
 correctly determined by these models. Our observations are in line with those  
 of Wei et al. (1995b).

#### 300 4.2. Wave breaking and run-up

In the BIM model we may identify the onset of breaking according when  
 and where we first observe a vertical slope at the wave front. For an incident  
 amplitude of  $A/h = 0.28$  on a 1 : 19.85 slope breaking then starts at  $x = 4.09$ .

RJL: Why  
 no BIM so-  
 lution at  $t =$   
 20? G: could  
 we include  
 $t=19.1$  in-  
 stead, with  
 the BIM in  
 place ?

Is the figure  
 20% OK.  
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 was far too  
 small

What are  
 the height,  
 time, etc  
 for the BIM  
 simulation

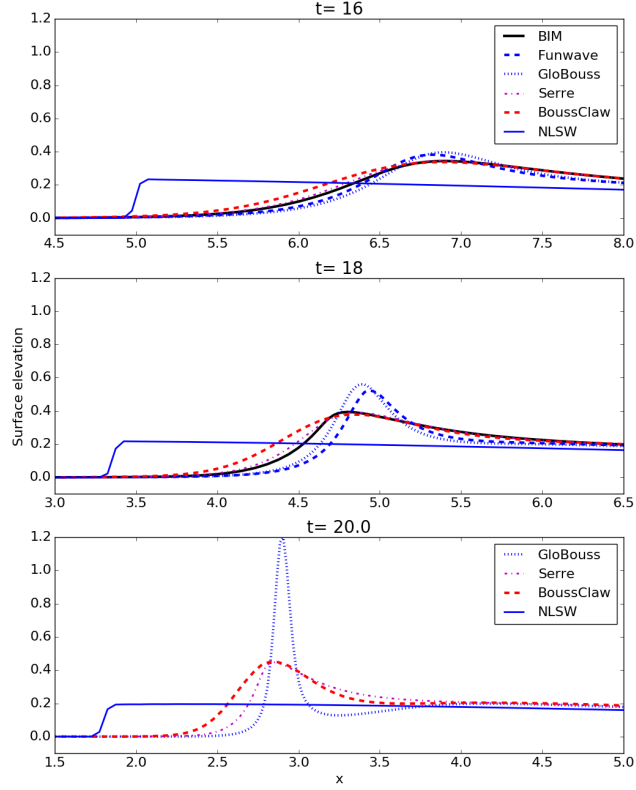


Figure 8: Snapshots of BIM, Serre, GLOBOUSS, BOUSSCLAW and FUNWAVE at  $t = 16$ , 18 and 20. The BOUSSCLAW is used with  $B=1/15$ , and the Peregrine's form is used for GLOBOUSS.

When the crest in the BOUSSCLAW simulation reaches  $x = 4.09$  we find  $A/h =$   
 305 1.97, the ratio of wave speed to celerity ( $u/\sqrt{gH}$ ) is 1.034 and maximum surface  
 slope angle of  $39.1^\circ$ .

For an incident amplitude of  $A/h = 0.28$  and a 1 : 19.85 slope the BOUSS-  
 CLAW model, the threshold  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  (se sec. 2.1.3) is reached at  $t = 14.9$  when  
 the peak of the wave is at  $x = 8.03227$ . In the following, we explore the wave  
 310 evolution with and without the application of this threshold.

In Figure 9, snapshots are shown at  $t=20$ , 25, and 30 of the solutions from

Are there  
Synolakis  
data for  
 $t=20$  ?

BOUSSCLAW and NLSW with the Manning coefficient  $C_d = 0.02$ . We compared the NLSW and BOUSSCLAW with  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  and without the threshold. At  $t = 20$  the simulation with  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  has already been in NLSW mode for 5 time units  
 315 and the difference in the wave height from the full Boussinesq simulation is significant. In fact, the threshold solution is closer to the NLSW solution. is clearly observed.

At  $t = 25$  and  $t = 30$ , the wave is running up the slope, and the difference in the swash tongue is relatively small. On the other hand, while BOUSSCLAW  
 320 simulation with  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  is smooth at  $t = 20$  irregularities are observed around  $x = 8$  due to the accumulated errors generated by the splicing of Boussinesq and NLSW equations.

Figure 10 shows the amplitude to depth ratio,  $\epsilon_B$ , as function of the crest location.

#### 325 4.3. Wave Energy

The integrated wave energies for the shallow water equations and Boussinesq equations are  $E_0$  and  $E_0 + E_1$  respectively, which are given in (13) and (14).

In Figure 11 the energy densities are depicted as functions of the crest location,  $x_c$ . In the left panel we observe that the  $E_0$  is nearly constant for the  
 330 shallow water equations until a shock is formed around  $x_c = 13$ . Thereafter, energy is quickly dissipated. In the BOUSSCLAW simulation with no threshold (right panel)  $E_0 + E_1$  is nearly when the wave propagates in constant depth. On the deeper parts of the slope there is first a very moderate increase, then a very gentle reduction. This may be due to the absence of strict energy conservation  
 335 in the Boussinesq equations in the first place. Close to the shoreline there is stronger, but still mild, energy dissipation. When the threshold  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  is invoked there is no difference from the full Boussinesq solution until the threshold is reached for  $x_c = x_B = 8.03227$ . Then, in fact, there is marked increase in  $E_0 + E_1$  followed by a stronger reduction then for the full solution.  
 340 The increase is presumably a consequence of errors introduced by changing the governing equations from a Boussinesq to a NLSW type. After  $x_c = x_B$  the

How does  
this evolve?  
Is it seen in  
other paper  
?

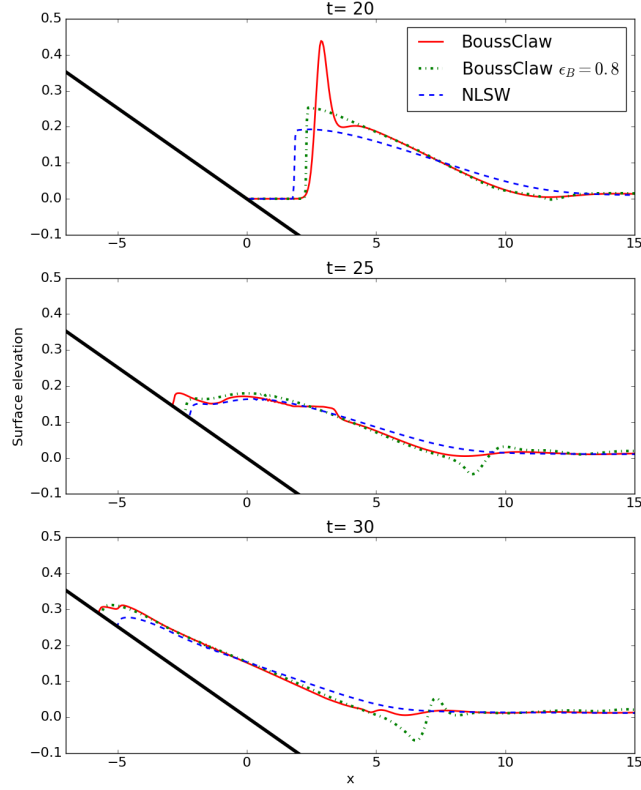


Figure 9: Comparison of BOUSSCLAW and NLSW with  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$  at  $t = 20, 25$  and  $30$ . Fiction forces have been added with  $C_d = 0.02$ .

hydrostatic energy measure,  $E_0$ , may be appropriate in this case. The artificial energy maximum is then reduced and is only slightly higher than the general overshoot for  $E_0$  and Boussinesq equations for  $x_c > x_B$ .

## 345 5. Conclusion

In the present paper we have presented a new Boussinesq type model, BOUSSCLAW, for modeling fully non-linear dispersive tsunami propagation, taking also into account drying-wetting during inundation and withdrawal on the beach.

G: Most appropriately  $e_0$  should be integrated from the NLSW part, while  $e_0 + e_1$  should be used elsewhere. How to conclude ?

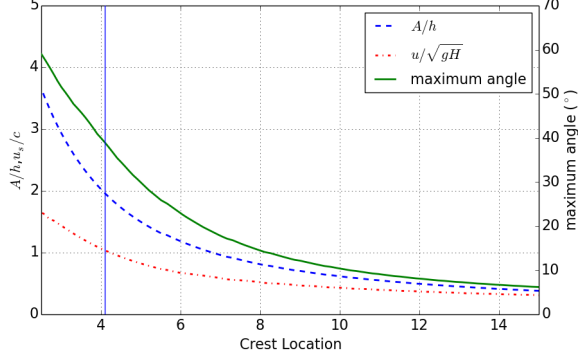


Figure 10: Plot of  $A/\eta$ ,  $u_s/c$  and maximum angle of waves vs. crest location. BIM shows the wave break at  $x = 4.09$ .

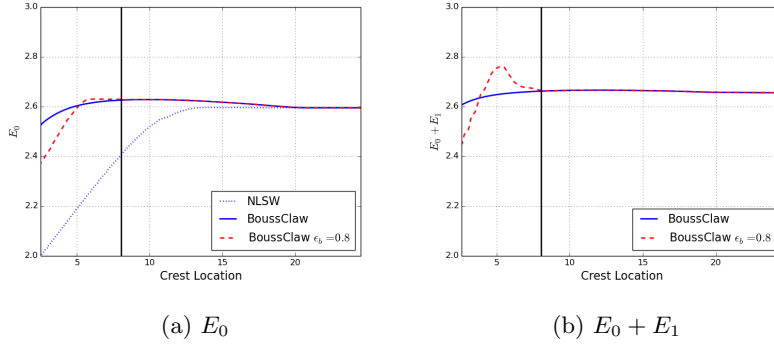


Figure 11: Energy plots of NLSW and BOUSSCLAW . The vertical line is at  $x = 8.03227$  m where  $\epsilon_B = 0.8$ , and the governing equations are switched to the NLSW from the Boussinesq equations.

BOUSSCLAW resembles much used general purpose models such as FUNWAVE-  
350 TVD and COULWAVE-TVD, but is based on a slightly simpler and more transparent set of governing equations, and has a slightly different numerical scheme. We have tested numerical implementation towards analytical solitary wave expressions as well as laboratory experiments.

Making use of the experiments of Synolakis (1987) enabled us to constrain  
355 a set of different long wave models, including BOUSSCLAW, as well as a full potential BIM reference model. Using the BIM, we were able to explore in detail

the post-breaking behaviour, and to identify the point of breaking accurately. This was useful for determining the validity of the respective long wave models. First, we found that by using standard NLSW models, the point of breaking  
 360 will be located too far offshore. Boussinesq models provide the opportunity of providing a more accurate description of the near shore propagation and shoaling. However, in current practise the Boussinesq terms are often omitted near shore through the  $A/h > 0.8$  threshold criteria. As a consequence, the point of breaking may be misinterpreted also in Boussinesq type models.

365 In the present example, we investigated the near shore propagation over a relatively gentle shelf of  $1/19.85$  slope, and in this case the actual onset of breaking occurred for  $A/h \approx 2$ , which is significantly later than what would be predicted in any standard approach (NLSW or Boussinesq). As demonstrated in this paper, the combined effects of non-linearities and dispersion influence the  
 370 solution markedly, when accumulated to the point of breaking. It is noted that the artificial effect discovered would depend on the slope, and the  $A/h = 0.8$  limited may well work better on a much gentler slope as it is primarily derived based on solitary wave evolution on constant depth. On the other hand,  $1/19.85$  slope is already quite gentle, and the offset between the reference solution and  
 375 Boussinesq models using this criteria may be even more pronounced for steeper slopes.

### Temporary section: What to do

These are in addition to margin-notes.

1. Add references to introduction.
- 380 2. More figures for section 3.3; snapshots, shorelines maximum runup, convergence.
3. Grid increments must be described, somehow, for all results.
4. What to say about breaking performance ?
5. Old figures 9b, 10bc. Reinserted ?

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## Appendix A. Stability of the hybrid scheme

It is difficult to analyze the numerical stability for our full Boussinesq equations. To obtain some insight in the stability of the proposed hybrid numerical scheme, we thus consider a closely related, but simpler, equation, namely the linearized Benjamin-Bona-Mahony (BBM) equation (Benjamin et al. (1972))

$$u_t + cu_x = \frac{h^2}{6}u_{txx}, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where  $c = \sqrt{gh}$ . This equation describes weakly dispersive, uni-directional waves in constant depth. The equation replaces the momentum equation, whereas no separate continuity equation is involved.

Following the steps of section 2.1.2, we rearrange the equation (A.1) as

$$(I - D)(u_t + cu_x) + Du_x = 0, \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where  $D = \frac{h^2}{6} \partial_x^2$ . The first step of hybrid scheme for this equation is integration of the advection equation

$$u_t + cu_x = 0, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

by the finite volume method. Then the Runge-Kutta method is applied to,

$$(1 - D)u_t + cDu_x = 0. \quad (\text{A.4})$$

515 which is the counterpart to (7).

If we use the centered spatial difference approximation of  $O(\Delta x^2)$  accuracy on a regular grid we may employ a standard von Neumann analysis where we calculate the growth of an harmonic mode over a single time step. Expressing the coefficients of the velocity array before the time step as  $u_j = e^{i\xi j \Delta x}$  we then  
 520 replace the coefficient of  $\mathbf{M}^q$ , defined in section 2.1.2, by  $M_j^q = U_j^q = g^q e^{i\xi j \Delta x}$ , where  $q$  is 1, 2, 3, 4 or +. Correspondingly, the coefficients of the  $\mathbf{S}^k$  array, which contains auxiliary, nodal values for  $u_t$ , is expressed  $(S_j^k) = s^k e^{i\xi j \Delta x}$ .

The stability of the first step, (A.3), is assured by the standard CFL criterion

$$\frac{c\Delta t}{\Delta x} < 1.$$

If we instead solve the NLSW equations, as in BOUSSCLAW,  $c$  must be replaced by the nonlinear characteristic velocity, which may lead to a more strict criterion. However, the method employed in the first step is not suited for a von Neumann stability analysis and we thus apply this technique to the second step only. Hence, we may put  $g^1$  to unity, but it is preferable to retain it in the calculations. The Runge-Kutta scheme for time stepping, (8), may now be expressed as

$$g^2 = g^1 + \frac{\Delta t}{2} s^1, \quad g^3 = g^1 + \frac{\Delta t}{2} s^2, \quad g^4 = g^1 + \Delta t s^3, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

The discrete version of (A.4), which is the counterpart to (9) for the BBM equation reads

$$S_j^k - \frac{h^2}{6} \frac{S_{j+1}^k - 2S_j^k + S_{j-1}^k}{\Delta x^2} = -\frac{ch^2}{6} \frac{U_{j+2}^k - 2U_{j+1}^k + 2U_{j-1}^k - U_{j-2}^k}{2\Delta x^3},$$

which, inserted the harmonic expressions, implies

$$s^k = i \frac{\gamma}{\Delta t} g^k, \quad \gamma = c \Delta t \frac{2 \sin(\xi \Delta x) (1 - \cos(\xi \Delta x))}{6 \Delta x^3 h^{-2} + 2 \Delta x (1 - \cos(\xi \Delta x))}, \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where the  $\Delta t$  factors are included for convenience. The assembling of the intermediate values in the Runge-Kutta procedure, (10), now yields

$$g^+ = g^1 + \frac{\Delta t}{6} [s^1 + 2s^2 + 2s^3 + s^4]. \quad (\text{A.7})$$

By combination of (A.5) and (A.6)  $s^k$  and  $g^k$ ,  $k = 1..4$  can be calculated successively and combined in (A.7) to provide the value of  $g^+$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} g^+(\gamma) &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\gamma^2 + \frac{\gamma^4}{24} + \left(\frac{\gamma^3}{6} - \gamma\right)i\right) g^1 \\ |g^+(\gamma)|^2 &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{4}\gamma^4 + \frac{\gamma^8}{24^2} - \gamma^2 + \frac{\gamma^4}{12} - \frac{\gamma^6}{24} + \gamma^2 + \frac{\gamma^6}{36} - \frac{\gamma^4}{3}\right) |g^1|^2 \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{72}\gamma^6 + \frac{1}{576}\gamma^8\right) |g^1|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Stability requires  $|g^+(\gamma)/g^1| < 1$  which is equivalent to  $|\gamma| < 2\sqrt{2}$ . Moreover, it is easily seen that  $\gamma < c\Delta t/\Delta x$ . Hence, a sufficient condition for stability of the second step of the hybrid scheme is

$$\frac{c\Delta t}{\Delta x} < 2\sqrt{2}.$$

This is more relaxed than the CFL condition for the advection equation (A.3). Therefore, if the CFL condition is satisfied in the advection equation, the fractional step is always stable with the suggested numerical scheme.

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## Appendix B. Energy estimates and dissipation

### Appendix B.1. Velocity field

To derive the energy estimates for the Boussinesq-type equations, we define the depth-averaged velocity as,

$$\bar{u} = \frac{1}{H} \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} u dz.$$

Then the velocity  $u$  can be expressed as  $u = \bar{u} + \mu^2 u_1$  where

$$\int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} u_1 dz = 0. \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Then the kinematic boundary condition at the bottom and zero divergence implies

$$w = -h_x u - \bar{u}_x(z+h) + O(\mu^2).$$

### Appendix B.2. Energy integrals

The potential energy density per horizontal area is

$$V = \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} g z dz = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 g \eta^2 - \frac{1}{2} g h^2,$$

where the last term  $\frac{1}{2} g h^2$  is the equilibrium energy. The kinematic energy density has two contributions,

$$T = T_u + T_w; \quad T_u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} u^2 dz, \quad T_w = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \mu^2 \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} w^2 dz.$$

For the horizontal part,  $T_u$  is

$$T_u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} u^2 dz = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} \bar{u}^2 + 2\mu^2 \bar{u} u_1 + \mu^4 u_1^2 dz = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 H \bar{u}^2 + O(\epsilon^2 \mu^4),$$

since  $\bar{u}$  is independent of  $z$  and by (B.1). Assuming  $\frac{1}{H} \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} u^2 dz = \bar{u}^2$ , the vertical part is

$$\begin{aligned} T_u &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \mu^2 \int_{-h}^{\epsilon\eta} h_x^2 u^2 + 2h_x u \bar{u}_x(z+h) + \bar{u}_x^2(z+h)^2 dz + O(\epsilon^2 \mu^4) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \mu^2 H \left( h_x^2 \bar{u}^2 + H h_x \bar{u} \bar{u}_x + \frac{1}{3} H^2 \bar{u}_x^2 \right) + O(\epsilon^2 \mu^4). \end{aligned}$$

Thus the energy of a wave can be approximated as

$$e = \epsilon^2 (e_0 + \mu^2 e_1 + O(\mu^4))$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} e_0 &= \frac{1}{2} (g \eta^2 + H \bar{u}^2), \\ e_1 &= \frac{1}{6} H^3 \bar{u}_x^2 + \frac{1}{2} H^2 h_x \bar{u} \bar{u}_x + \frac{1}{2} H h_x^2 \bar{u}^2. \end{aligned}$$