

**THE MULTIFRACTAL STRUCTURE OF THE OCEAN SURFACE**

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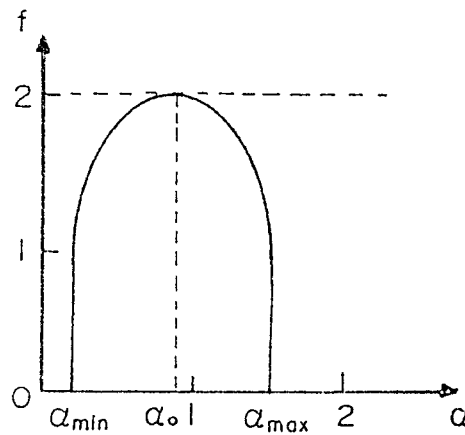
# THE MULTIFRACTAL STRUCTURE OF THE OCEAN SURFACE

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MICHAEL STIASSNIE\*

The wavenumber spectrum of the ocean surface elevation contains detailed information regarding the large-scale structure of that surface. The high wavenumber behaviour of this spectrum contains some global information regarding small-scale structures and the singularities of the ocean surface. A more complete picture of these singularities is provided by the multifractal spectrum  $f(\alpha)$ .

The singularities of the surface are classified by their strength which is given by their Lipschitz-Holder exponent  $\alpha$ . Each collection of singular points with a common  $\alpha > 0$  forms a fractal set with dimension  $f \leq 2$ , embedded in the horizontal plane. A typical multifractal spectrum of a rough surface is shown in the figure.



The  $f(\alpha)$  curve provides detailed information about the singular structure of the surface. For example, the fractal (box counting) dimension of the surface  $D$ , and the exponent  $\beta$  of the power-law decaying wavenumber spectrum (assuming small scale isotropy), expressed in terms of the  $f(\alpha)$  curve properties are given by:

$$D = 1 - \alpha_1 + f(\alpha_1), \text{ where } \left. \frac{df}{d\alpha} \right|_{\alpha = \alpha_1} = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$\beta = 4 + 2\alpha_2 - f(\alpha_2), \text{ where } \left. \frac{df}{d\alpha} \right|_{\alpha = \alpha_2} = 2 \quad (2)$$

The derivation of (1) and (2) is given in the Appendix A.

Short gravity waves are probably isotropic, and it is well established that  $\beta = 7/2$ .

In order to obtain an approximate expression for the multifractal spectrum curve, we assume: i) that the ocean surface is regular almost everywhere, i.e. that  $\alpha_0 = 1$ , (see figure ); and ii) that the  $f(\alpha)$  curve (at least its more interesting left part) is not far off from a quarter of an ellipse.

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Equation (2) with  $\beta = 7/2$  and the above assumptions yield

$$\left(\frac{f}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\alpha - 1}{0.75}\right)^2 = 1 \quad (3)$$

The fractal dimension of the surface calculated from (1) and (3) is found to be  $D = 2.13$ .

This is different from the  $D=2.25$  which was obtained under the assumption of a monofractal surface (see Stiasnie, Agnon and Shemer, 1991).

Most of the small-scale energy is concentrated in singularities with Lipschitz-Holder exponent  $\alpha_2 = 0.55$ , and is spread over a fractal set with dimension  $f_2 = 1.6$ .

I suggest that the physical interpretation of the above result is that most of the deep ocean wave breaking process (whitecaps formation) is concentrated on a fractal set with dimension of about 1.6; a fact which could be checked by analyzing aerial photos of a stormy ocean surface. Note that  $f_2$  is probably independent of the sea-state. The sea-state should be related to an appropriate measure of this set.

Note that for a case of a free water surface which is fractal the spatial derivatives do not exist, and the quadratic terms in the kinematic boundary condition become meaningless. To overcome this difficulty I propose, in Appendix B, a weak formulation of the water wave problem, which is derived from Hamilton's principle.

## Appendix A: Multifractal Analysis of Rough Surfaces

### 1. Definitions:

Let  $z(x,y)$  be a continuous, bounded single-valued function in the unit square  $0 \leq x,y \leq 1$ . In the sequel we divide the unit square into a large number  $N^2(\delta) = \delta^{-2}$  of identical small squares with side  $\delta$ . We also use discretized coordinate values  $x_i = i\delta$ ,  $y_j = j\delta$ ,  $i, j = 0,1,2,\dots, N$ .

The "range" of  $z(x,y)$  in a  $\delta x \delta$  square is defined as

$$\Delta(x_i, y_j, \delta) = \sup z(x,y) - \inf z(x,y) \quad (A.1)$$

where  $x_i \leq x \leq x_i + \delta$  and  $y_j \leq y \leq y_j + \delta$ .

The box counting dimension of the surface  $z(x,y)$  is the value  $D$  for which the measure  $M$  has a finite (not zero and not infinite) value

$$M = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{D-1} \sum_{i,j=0}^{N-1} \Delta(x_i, y_j, \delta) \quad (A.2)$$

The local behaviour of the function  $z(x,y)$  is represented by  $\alpha$  - the Lipschitz-Holder (L-H) exponent defined by

$$\Delta(x_i, y_j, \delta) = g(x, y) \delta^\alpha \quad (\text{A.3})$$

where  $g(x, y)$  is a good function (non-singular) of  $x_i \leq x \leq x_i + \delta$  and of  $y_j \leq y \leq y_j + \delta$ .

The L-H exponent is always positive but may vary in a rather general manner. More specific, we denote by  $f(\alpha) \leq 2$ , the box-counting dimension of the set of points in the unit square which have a common  $\alpha$ .

The number of  $\delta \times \delta$  squares which is needed to cover the sets in the unit square for which  $z$  has L-H exponent in the range  $(\alpha, \alpha + d\alpha)$  is

$$n(\alpha) = \rho_1(\alpha) \delta^{-f(\alpha)} d\alpha \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where  $\rho_1$  is a good function. We also introduce the good function  $\rho_2(\alpha)$ , as the average of  $g(x, y)$  in (A.3), taken over all points  $(x_i, y_j)$  for which the surface  $z(x, y)$  has L-H exponent  $\alpha$ . The function  $f(\alpha)$  is called the *Multifractal Spectrum*.

## 2. Derivation of the $f(\alpha)$ Curve

We start from a  $q$  - Measure

$$M_q = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{\tau(q)} \sum_{i,j=0}^{N-1} \mu_{ij}^q \quad (\text{A.5})$$

where the relative weight of the  $i, j$  square is

$$\mu_{ij}(\delta) = \Delta(x_i, y_j, \delta) / \sum_{i,j=0}^{N-1} \Delta(x_i, y_j, \delta) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

From (A.6), (A.3) and (A.2), for points  $(x_i, y_j)$  with L-H exponent  $\alpha$ , we have

$$\mu(\alpha, \delta) = g(x, y) \delta^\alpha / M \delta^{1-D} \quad (\text{A.6a})$$

The sigma ( $\Sigma$ ) term on the r.h.s. of (A.5) is recalculated with the aid of (A.4) and (A.6a),

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{N-1} \mu_{ij}^q = \int_0^\infty \rho_1(\alpha) \delta^{-f(\alpha)} \left( \frac{\rho_2}{M} \right)^q \delta^{(D + \alpha - 1)q} d\alpha \quad (\text{A.7})$$

Using the method of steepest descent to extract the dominant term from (A.7) in the limit of small  $\delta$

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N-1} \mu_{ij}^q = \rho_1(\alpha_q) \left( \frac{\rho_2(\alpha_q)}{M} \right)^q \left( \frac{2\pi}{f''(\alpha_q) \ln \delta} \right)^{1/2} \cdot \delta^{-f(\alpha_q) + q(D + \alpha_q - 1)} \quad (\text{A.8})$$

$$\text{where } f'(\alpha_q) = q \text{ and } f''(\alpha_q) < 0 \quad (\text{A.8a})$$

Substituting (A.8) into (A.5), we get

$$\tau = f(\alpha) - q(D + \alpha - 1) \quad (\text{A.9})$$

Taking the derivative with respect to  $q$  of (A.9) and applying (A.8a), we find

$$\frac{d\tau}{dq} = 1 - \alpha - D \quad (\text{A.10})$$

Equations (A.9) and (A.10) enable to calculate  $f(\alpha)$ , once  $\tau(q)$  is known.

### 3. Fractal Dimension and Spectral Exponent

From (A.2), (A.3) and (A.4)

$$M = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta^{D-1} \int_0^\infty \rho_1 \delta^{-f(\alpha)} \rho_2 \delta^\alpha d\alpha \quad (\text{A.11})$$

Using the method of steepest descent and the fact that  $M$  is finite, gives

$$D = 1 - \alpha_1 + f(\alpha_1); \quad \left. \frac{df}{d\alpha} \right|_{\alpha = \alpha_1} = 1 \quad (\text{A.12})$$

In order to obtain the spectral exponent, we start by calculating an approximation to the mean-square increment assuming small-scale isotropy of the surface  $z$

$$\langle [f(x + \delta \cos \theta, y + \delta \sin \theta) - f(x, y)]^2 \rangle \propto \int_0^\infty \frac{\delta^{-f(\alpha)}}{\delta^{-2}} \cdot (\delta^\alpha)^2 d\alpha \underset{\delta \rightarrow 0}{\propto} \delta^{-f(\alpha_2) + 2 + 2\alpha_2} \quad (\text{A.13})$$

$$\text{where } \left. \frac{df}{d\alpha} \right|_{\alpha = \alpha_2} = 2$$

The high wavenumber limit of the spectrum is written as

$$\Psi(k) \underset{k \rightarrow \infty}{\propto} k^{-\beta} \quad (\text{A.14})$$

The Wiener-Khinchine relations enable us to compare the small increment limit ( $\delta \rightarrow 0$ ) of the two-dimensional Fourier-transform of (A.14) with (A.13) which yields

$$\beta = 4 + 2\alpha_2 - f(\alpha_2) \quad (\text{A.15})$$

## Appendix B: Weak Formulation of the Water-Wave Problem

Hamilton's principle asserts that the motion of a dynamical system from one configuration to another renders stationary the integral

$$\iiint_R L \, dx dy dt \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where the appropriate Lagrangian  $L$ , as shown by Luke (1967), is given by the principle of stationary pressure

$$L = -\rho \int_{-\infty}^{\eta(x,t)} [\phi_t + 1/2(\nabla\phi)^2 + gz] dz, \quad (\text{B.2})$$

$R$  is an arbitrary region in the  $(\underline{x}, t)$  space,  $\rho$  is the density of the water.  $\eta$  is the free surface elevation and  $\phi$  is the flow potential. Using standard procedure of calculus of variations and integrating by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} -\hat{\delta} \iiint_R \frac{L}{\rho} \, dx dy dt &= \\ &= \iiint_R \{ (1/2(\nabla\phi)^2 + \phi_t + gz)_{z=\eta} \hat{\delta}\eta + \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} (\nabla\phi \cdot \nabla(\hat{\delta}\phi) + (\hat{\delta}\phi)_t) dz \} dx dy dt = \\ &= \iiint_R \{ (\phi_t + 1/2(\nabla\phi)^2 + gz)_{z=\eta} \hat{\delta}\eta + \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} \hat{\delta}\phi dz + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} \phi_x \hat{\delta}\phi dz + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} \phi_y \hat{\delta}\phi dz \right] - \\ &\quad - \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} (\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \phi_{zz}) \hat{\delta}\phi dz - ((\eta_t - \phi_z + \eta_x \phi_x + \eta_y \phi_y) \hat{\delta}\phi)_{z=\eta} \} dx dy dt = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Here  $\hat{\delta}(\ast)$  represents the variation of the quantity  $\ast$ . The term in square brackets integrates out to the boundaries of the domain  $R$ , and is equal to zero, since  $\hat{\delta}\phi$  is assumed to vanish there. Setting  $\hat{\delta}\eta = 0$  and  $\hat{\delta}\phi = 0$  at  $z = \eta$  yields

$$\iiint_R \int_{-\infty}^{\eta} (\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \phi_{zz}) \hat{\delta}\phi \, dx dy dz dt = 0 \quad (\text{B.4})$$

for any appropriate  $\hat{\delta}\phi$ .

Since  $\hat{\delta}\eta$  and  $\hat{\delta}\phi$  at  $z = \eta$  can take 'arbitrary' values, one obtains

$$\iiint_R [\phi_t + 1/2(\nabla\phi)^2 + gz]_{z=\eta} \hat{\delta}\eta dx dy dt = 0, \quad (B.5)$$

$$\iiint_R [\eta_t + \eta_x \phi_x + \eta_y \phi_y - \phi_z]_{z=\eta} \hat{\delta}\phi dx dy dt = 0 \quad (B.6)$$

Replacing  $\hat{\delta}\eta$  and all  $\hat{\delta}\phi$  by Dirac's Delta function in (B.4) to (B.6) yields the classical Euler equations for water-waves. But, if one has fractal (weak) solutions in mind, one must be somewhat 'more careful'. Having in mind solutions with fractal properties, one could insert Dirac's delta function in (B.4) and (B.5); but not in (B.6) where  $\hat{\delta}\phi$  is taken as a product of Dirac's delta function in time and an *appropriate spatial variation* denoted by  $\hat{\delta}\tilde{\phi}(x,y)$

$$\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \phi_{zz} = 0, \quad z < \eta, \quad (B.4')$$

$$\phi_t + 1/2(\nabla\phi)^2 + g\eta = 0, \quad z = \eta, \quad (B.5')$$

$$\iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\eta_t + \eta_x \phi_x + \eta_y \phi_y - \phi_z)_{z=\eta} \hat{\delta}\tilde{\phi} dx dy = 0, \quad (B.6')$$

Again, for classical differentiable solutions one usually takes the following two-dimensional Dirac's Delta function

$$\hat{\delta}\tilde{\phi} = \delta(\sqrt{(X-x)^2 + (Y-y)^2}) / 2\pi \sqrt{(X-x)^2 + (Y-y)^2}, \quad (\text{see Courant and Hilbert 1962, p. 791}).$$

The *Riesz Fractional Integral* in two dimensions of  $h(x,y)$  and of order  $\nu$ , as defined by Riesz (1949) can serve as a generalization of Dirac's Delta function:

$$I_{-\infty}^{\nu}(f) = \frac{\Gamma(1 - \frac{\nu}{2})}{\pi 2^{\nu} \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} \iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x,y) [(X-x)^2 + (Y-y)^2]^{\frac{\nu}{2} - 1} dx dy, \quad (B.8)$$

According to Lighthill (1959) p. 28,  $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} (\Gamma(\epsilon))^{-1} |x|^{\epsilon-1} \rightarrow 2\delta(x) = \delta(|x|)$ ,

thus

$$I_{-\infty}^0(f) = h(X,Y) \quad (B.9)$$

I suggest that equation (B.10), which was obtained from (B.7) with

$h = (\eta_t + \eta_x \phi_x + \eta_y \phi_y - \phi_z)|_{z=\eta}$ , and  $v = 1 - \alpha_{\min}$  ( $\alpha_{\min}$  is shown in the figure) should be taken as a replacement to the so-called kinematic condition:

$$\iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\eta_t + \eta_x \phi_x + \eta_y \phi_y - \phi_z)|_{z=\eta(x,y,t)} [(X-x)^2 + (Y-y)^2]^{(1+\alpha_{\min})/2} dx dy = 0, \quad (B.10)$$

This completes the weak formulation and makes clear my opinion regarding the nature of the appropriate  $\hat{\delta}\bar{\phi}$

$$\hat{\delta}\bar{\phi} = \frac{\Gamma(1-\frac{v}{2})}{\pi 2^v \Gamma(\frac{v}{2})} [(X-x)^2 + (Y-y)^2]^{\frac{v}{2}-1} \quad (B.11)$$

Note that one can show that although  $\frac{dW}{dx}$  where  $W(x)$  is the univariate Weierstrass function of dimension  $1+v$ , does not exist, its fractional integral  $-\infty \int_{-\infty}^v \left(\frac{dW}{dx}\right)$  exists and is finite. The extension of this result to two dimensions guided me in the above formulation.

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