

**On kurtosis and extreme waves in crossing directional seas:
a laboratory experiment**

Journal:	<i>Journal of Fluid Mechanics</i>
Manuscript ID	JFM-18-S-1403.R3
mss type:	JFM Papers
Date Submitted by the Author:	11-Jul-2019
Complete List of Authors:	Luxmoore, Jamie; University of Exeter College of Engineering Mathematics and Physical Sciences, Penryn Campus Ilic, Suzana; Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University Mori, Nobuhito; Kyoto University Disaster Prevention Research Institute
Keyword:	Surface gravity waves < Waves/Free-surface Flows, Waves/Free-surface Flows

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

On kurtosis and extreme waves in crossing directional seas: a laboratory experiment

Jamie F. Luxmoore¹, Suzana Ilic²† and Nobuhito Mori³

¹College of Engineering, Mathematics and Physical Sciences, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, Penryn, Cornwall TR10 9FE, UK

²Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster LA1 4YQ, UK

³Disaster Prevention Research Institute, Kyoto University, Gokasho, Uji 611-0011, Japan

(Received xx; revised xx; accepted xx)

We examine the statistical properties of extreme and rogue wave activity in crossing directional seas, to constrain the probabilistic distributions of wave heights and wave crests in complex sea states; such crossing seas alter the statistical structure of surface waves and are known to have been involved in several marine accidents. Further, we examine the relationship between the kurtosis as an indicator of non-linearity in the spectrum and the directionality and crossing angles of the sea state components. Experimental tests of two-component directionally spread irregular waves with varying frequency, directional spreading and component crossing angles were carried out at the Ocean Basin Laboratory in Trondheim, Norway. The results from the experiments show that wave heights are well described by a first-order (linear) statistical distribution, while for the wave crest heights several cases exceed a second-order distribution. The number of rogue waves is relatively low overall, which agrees with previous findings in directionally spread seas. The kurtosis and wave and crest height exceedance probabilities were more affected by varying the directional spreading of the components than by varying the crossing angles between components; reducing the component directional spreading increases the kurtosis and increases the exceedance probabilities. The kurtosis can be estimated quite well for two-component seas from the directional spreading by an empirical relationship based on the two-dimensional Benjamin-Feir index when the effects of bound modes are included. This result may allow forecast of the probability of extreme waves from the directional spreading in complex sea states.

1. Introduction

Extreme and rogue waves are a potentially life-threatening and catastrophic phenomenon (Dysthe et al. 2008), the need to study their statistics and driving mechanisms is clear. Oceanic rogue or freak waves are generally defined as waves for which the ratio of wave height (H) or crest height (η_c) to significant wave height (H_s) exceeds a certain value (Kharif and Pelinovsky 2003) for example $H/H_s > 2.0$ or $\eta_c/H_s > 1.25$ although several other definitions exist (e.g. Dean (1990)). Kurtosis can be used as a measure of the relative importance of non-linearities (Janssen 2003) and hence the probability of extreme waves, while the skewness describes the importance of the second-order bound nonlinearities (Fedele et al. 2016). Bi-modal or crossing seas, when there are two distinctive peaks in the directional spectra, can be observed in general sea states (e.g. Semedo et al. (2011)) as well as extreme seas such as tropical cyclones (Mori 2012). Mixed sea states, in which there are two or more distinct spectral peaks have been shown to occur in the North Sea

† Email address for correspondence: s.ilic@lancaster.ac.uk

14 with a probability of occurrence of around 25% (Boukhanovsky et al. 2007). Crossing
 15 seas alter the statistical structure of surface waves and several marine accidents involving
 16 large or rogue waves are known to have occurred in crossing seas (Toffoli et al. 2005)
 17 including the well known Draupner wave (Onorato et al. 2006; Mcallister et al. 2019). In
 18 directionally spread crossing seas much of the recent research work on wave statistical
 19 development and rogue waves is based on numerical studies (e.g. (Trulsen et al. 2015;
 20 Bitner-Gregersen and Toffoli 2014; Gramstad et al. 2018)). The present study aims to
 21 extend previous experimental studies by focussing on two crossing directionally spread
 22 systems and to test whether empirical models and results from single component seas
 23 can be applied or extended to crossing or bi-modal seas.

24 Third-order quasi-resonant interactions and associated modulational instabilities can
 25 cause the statistics of weakly nonlinear gravity waves to significantly differ from the
 26 Gaussian structure of linear seas (Janssen 2003; Fedele 2008; Onorato et al. 2009; Shemer
 27 and A. 2009; Toffoli et al. 2010a; Xiao et al. 2013). This mechanism is usually associated
 28 with deep water, but is also present in intermediate depth water (Toffoli et al. 2013). For
 29 narrow banded waves, the importance of modulational instabilities can be described by
 30 the Benjamin-Feir index (BFI) (Benjamin and Feir 1967; Janssen 2003):

$$\text{BFI} = \frac{\sqrt{2}\varepsilon}{\delta_\omega} \quad (1.1)$$

31 where the frequency spectrum bandwidth $\delta_\omega = \sigma_\omega/\omega_p$, σ_ω is the standard deviation of the
 32 frequency spectrum, ω_p is the peak angular frequency and ε is wave steepness. The wave
 33 steepness is defined here as $\varepsilon = \sqrt{m_0}k_p$ where the m_0 is the zeroth-order moment of the
 34 variance density spectrum and k_p is the wave-number at the spectral peak derived from
 35 a spectral analysis of the time series with subsequent application of the linear dispersion
 36 relationship.

37 Uni-directional (long-crested) seas where the dissipation is negligible and the wave
 38 steepness is small and thus where quasi-resonant interactions are effective in the reshaping
 39 of the wave spectrum are rare. Ocean waves are typically multi-directional (short-crested)
 40 and energy can spread directionally. Experimental (Onorato et al. 2009; Waseda et al.
 41 2009) and numerical (Mori and Janssen 2006; Gibson and Swan 2007; Gramstad and
 42 Trulsen 2007; Fedele and Tayfun 2009) investigations have found that as the direction-
 43 ality in the sea increases, the quasi-resonant effects decrease. Although modulational
 44 instability-like resonant or quasi-resonant interactions accelerate the probability of rogue
 45 waves, recent analysis of field data (Fedele et al. 2016) suggest that second-order bound
 46 mode effects enhance the directional and dispersive interference that is the main driver
 47 for observed rogue wave activity in the ocean.

48 A number of studies have shown that crossing seas differ significantly from uni-modal
 49 seas. Onorato et al. (2006) investigated simplified crossing seas using the non-linear
 50 Schrödinger equation. They found that introducing a second wave system can increase
 51 the instability growth rate and increase the size of the unstable region. Again using
 52 the non-linear Schrödinger equation, Shukla et al. (2006) found that two crossing long-
 53 crested wave trains can form large amplitude wave groups even when the individual
 54 wave trains are modulationally stable; and Grönlund et al. (2009) found that two-wave
 55 coupled systems show increased non-linear focusing and decreased time to develop large
 56 waves compared to a non-coupled system. Using the non-linear Schrödinger equation
 57 Gramstad and Trulsen (2010) found the addition of a swell wave system slightly increases
 58 the number of rogue waves in a short-crested wind sea.

59 Mori et al. (2011) suggest an extension of the Benjamin-Feir index, the two-dimensional
 60 BFI or BFI_{2D} for waves with significant directional spread. This is based on BFI and the

61 frequency spectrum bandwidth R , which is a measure of the angular width with respect
62 to frequency:

$$R = \frac{\delta_\theta^2}{2\delta_\omega^2} \quad (1.2)$$

63

$$\text{BFI}_{2D} = \frac{\text{BFI}}{\sqrt{1 + \alpha_2 R}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}\varepsilon}{\sqrt{\delta_\omega^2 + \alpha_2 \delta_\theta^2/2}} \quad (1.3)$$

64 where the directional bandwidth δ_θ is the standard deviation of the directional spectrum
65 (in radians) and the constant α_2 is empirically determined in Mori et al. (2011) as
66 $\alpha_2 = 7.10$ in a stationary, homogeneous and weakly non-linear uni-modal directional sea
67 state.

68 Kurtosis gives an indication of the non-linearity of the spectrum. Assuming a mean of
69 zero for the surface elevation η , kurtosis μ_4 is defined as the fourth moment around the
70 mean $\langle \eta^4 \rangle$ divided by the square of the average surface elevation variance $\langle \eta^2 \rangle$ (which is
71 here equal to the zeroth-order moment of the variance density spectrum $\langle \eta^2 \rangle = m_0$)

$$\text{kurtosis} = \mu_4 = \frac{\langle \eta^4 \rangle}{\langle \eta^2 \rangle^2}. \quad (1.4)$$

72 For a Gaussian random wave field, the kurtosis is equal to 3. The excess kurtosis is
73 $\mu_4 - 3$. Excess kurtosis comprises a dynamic component due to non-linear wave-wave
74 interactions (Janssen 2003) and a bound contribution induced by the characteristic crest-
75 trough asymmetry of ocean waves. In the narrow banded approximation, the kurtosis
76 accounting for the contribution to deviations from Gaussian statistics by second- and
77 third-order bound nonlinearities (Fedele et al. 2016) can be expressed as a function of
78 wave steepness (Mori and Janssen 2006)

$$\mu_4^{\text{bound}} = 3 + 24 \left(k_p \sqrt{\langle \eta^2 \rangle} \right)^2 = 3 + 24\varepsilon^2 \quad (1.5)$$

79 For unidirectional narrowband waves the dynamic kurtosis due to the third-order quasi-
80 resonant interactions is obtained (Mori and Janssen 2006)

$$\mu_4^{\text{dyn}} = \frac{\langle \eta^4 \rangle}{\langle \eta^2 \rangle^2} = 3 + \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2} k_p \sqrt{\langle \eta^2 \rangle}}{\sigma_\omega / \omega_p} \right)^2 = 3 + \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \text{BFI}^2 \quad (1.6)$$

81 Toffoli et al. (2011) note that the statistical uncertainty in the kurtosis is high, requiring
82 large data sets to achieve a reliable result. Gramstad et al. (2018, appendix) find in
83 a numerical study that the kurtosis approaches the final value after around 180 waves,
84 while Stansberg (1994) states that 1500 random waves are sufficient for kurtosis stability.
85 A strong link between increasing kurtosis and increasing freak wave occurrence was
86 established by Mori and Janssen (2006) and a theoretical analysis validated against
87 laboratory data by Mori et al. (2011) found that as directional dispersion increases so
88 the kurtosis decreases.

89 Bi-modal long-crested waves (i.e. two distinct long-crested components crossing each
90 other) showed reduced kurtosis and rogue wave activity compared to uni-modal waves in
91 numerical studies by Støle-Hentschel et al. (2018). For more complex sea states involving
92 bi-modal short-crested seas, an experimental study by Petrova and Guedes Soares (2009)
93 investigated the effect of different ratios of wind sea to swell sea at three crossing
94 angles on the kurtosis in intermediate depth water. In wind sea dominated conditions
95 they found that the kurtosis was higher than for swell dominated conditions. Hindcast
96 simulations of the Draupner wave have found no significant third-order effects (Brennan

97 et al. 2018), while Trulsen et al. (2015) found no evidence that non-linear interactions
98 between two crossing wave systems impacted kurtosis or maximum wave height in the
99 Prestige accident.

100 Experimental (Toffoli et al. 2011; Sabatino and Serio 2015) studies suggest that the
101 kurtosis increases to a maximum between 40° and 60° crossing angle. A more recent
102 numerical study reported in Gramstad et al. (2018) found a peak in kurtosis at large
103 and small crossing angles for broad-banded crossing seas, while crest height was found to
104 be nearly independent of crossing angle. In numerical studies using directionally spread
105 crossing seas Bitner-Gregersen and Toffoli (2014) found that the energy and frequency of
106 the wave systems were the most important factor in determining rogue wave probability,
107 but the maximum wave height was affected by crossing angle with a peak around 40° .

108 The directional spreading affects the distribution of wave heights and wave crests. If the
109 directional spectrum is narrow enough the wave height distribution will follow the (first-
110 order) Rayleigh distribution (Longuet-Higgins 1980), however the Rayleigh distribution
111 tends to over-predict the higher wave heights in experimental data. Forristall (1978)
112 developed an empirical fit to a Weibull distribution to improve on the Rayleigh distribu-
113 tion for large wave heights. In order to account for differences between observations and
114 Rayleigh distributions Mori and Janssen (2006) included non-linear effects in the wave
115 height distribution using an Edgeworth series; the resulting distribution has been named
116 the Modified Edgeworth Rayleigh (MER) distribution and describes the deviation from
117 linear statistics under the hypothesis of a narrow-banded, weakly non-linear wave train.

118 Qualitatively the sharpening of wave crests is the most obvious manifestation of non-
119 linearity in the ocean. Under the hypothesis of deep water and narrow-banded waves,
120 Tayfun (1980) derived a second-order wave crest distribution (given below in Eq. 2.11).
121 The Tayfun formula enhances the tail of the Rayleigh distribution, especially if the wave
122 steepness is large. The assumption is that the departure from the Rayleigh distribution
123 is due to the presence of bound (phase locked) modes and not due to the dynamics of
124 free waves; the Stokes wave non-linearity is accounted for, but the non-linear interactions
125 among free wave components are not. The statistics of long-crested waves are different
126 to those of short-crested waves, but both long-crested and short-crested waves show a
127 trend to reach crest heights above the second-order distribution (Buchner et al. 2011),
128 while the wave heights are generally well described by first-order distributions.

129 There has been some significant recent work on rogue wave occurrence in directionally
130 spread crossing seas, but as much of the work is based on numerical studies it is clear that
131 further analyses based on experimental data are required. The work reported here is based
132 on an experimental programme carried out to study wave dynamics and the statistical
133 properties of extreme and rogue waves in directionally spread and crossing sea conditions.
134 The aim of this paper is to examine the statistical properties of extreme and rogue wave
135 activity in crossing directional seas with particular focus on the kurtosis. The specific
136 objectives are firstly to investigate the effect of changing crossing angle, directional spread
137 and component frequency on the kurtosis in directionally spread crossing seas. Secondly
138 to investigate the extent to which the most widely used statistical distributions of wave
139 heights and crest heights describe the measured distributions in directionally spread
140 crossing seas and thirdly to test an empirical estimate of the kurtosis from the BFI_{2D}
141 in directionally spread crossing seas. Following this introduction is a method section
142 describing the test procedure and analysis methods, followed by a results section and
143 analysis of exceedance probabilities and kurtosis. This analysis is followed by a discussion
144 and conclusions.

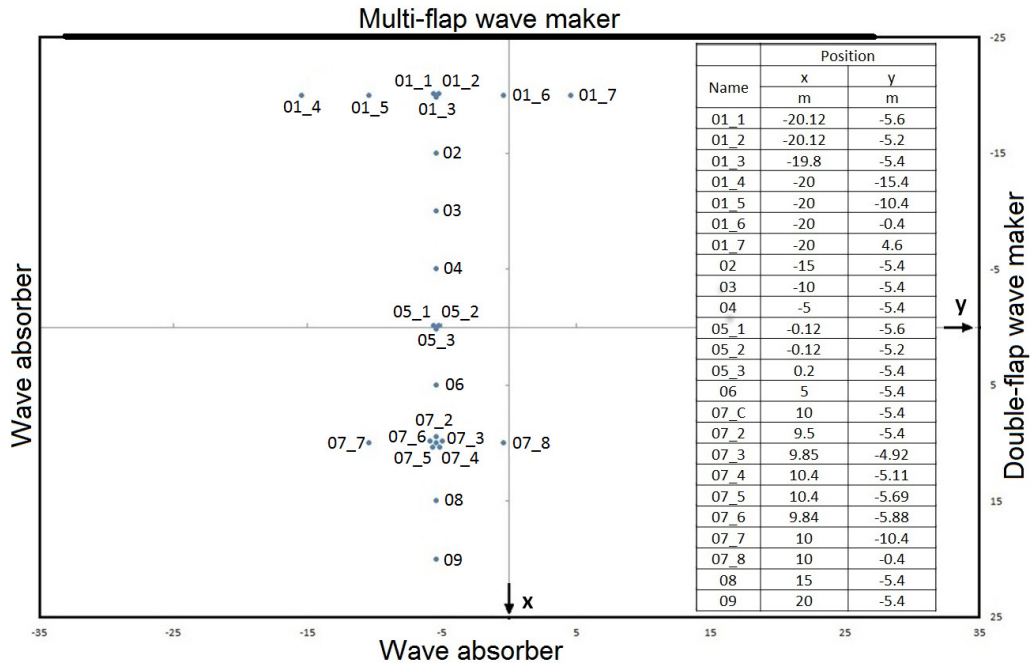


FIGURE 1. Positions and naming convention for the wave gauges in the Marintek Ocean Basin in Trondheim, Norway.

2. Method

2.1. Experimental methodology

The experimental tests were carried out at the Marintek Ocean Basin Laboratory in Trondheim, Norway. The Ocean Basin has a water surface area of 50 m by 80 m including the side wave absorber, with the full depth of 3 m extending over an area of 50 m by 70 m as shown in figure 1. The waves were created by a multi-flap wave maker on one of the long sides with 144 individually controlled hinged type paddles. The far end and right side have wave absorption systems, while the left side has a double flap wave maker which was switched off during the tests.

The Ocean Basin was instrumented with 24 twin wire resistance type wave gauges measuring surface elevation at 100 Hz. The positions of the gauges are shown in figure 1. The gauges are offset from the centreline of the tank by 5.4 m to reduce the presence of reflections from the double flap wave maker in the measurements. There are three arrays of probes designed to measure directionality in the wave field: probes 01₁, 01₂ and 01₃ and probes 05₁, 05₂ and 05₃ are laid out in two equilateral triangles with edges of 0.4 m. Probes 07₂ to 07₆ are arranged in a pentagon with a diameter of 1 m with probe 07_C in the centre. The rightmost nine paddles ($x \approx 30$ m to 35 m) on the multi-flap wave maker were switched off to reduce reflections from the double flap wave maker. To reduce the build up of reflected waves and to reduce any cross tank seiching the tests were limited to 23 min long with at least 15 min settling time between tests. Frequency spectrum analysis showed that there was some limited seiching detectable. Directional analysis showed that the spectral energy contained in the reflections is below 5% of the total energy. In general the results presented in this paper use data from 9 probes directly down the centreline of the tank ($y = -5.4$ m) using 7_C at position 7 rather than 7₂. The only exception to this

Test	Component 1			Component 2			α	H_{m_0}	ε	$\sqrt{2}BFI$
	T_p (s)	γ	N	T_p (s)	γ	N				
2500	1	3	-	N/A			-	0.058	0.064	0.71
2508	1	3	50	N/A			-	0.061	0.061	0.62
2248	1	3	50	1	6	200	0°	0.083	0.083	0.91
2308	1	3	50	1	6	200	10°	0.083	0.084	0.88
2318	1	3	50	1	6	200	20°	0.083	0.083	0.86
2328	1	3	50	1	6	200	30°	0.084	0.083	0.88
2338	1	3	50	1	6	200	40°	0.084	0.083	0.88
2728	1	3	200	1	6	200	40°	0.083	0.083	0.88
2718	1	3	840	1	6	200	40°	0.083	0.083	0.85
2408	1	3	50	1.11	6	200	40°	0.086	0.078	0.85
2418	1	3	50	1.25	6	200	40°	0.085	0.062	0.69
2428	1	3	50	1.67	6	200	40°	0.084	0.030	0.29
Onorato et al. (2009) A	1	3	24 to 840	N/A			-	0.06	0.065	0.7
Onorato et al. (2009) B	1	6	24 to 840	N/A			-	0.08	0.08	1.1
Toffoli et al. (2011)	1	6	-	1	6	-	10° to 40°	0.068	0.07	-

TABLE 1. Selected irregular wave tests at Marintek Ocean Basin. All tests use a JONSWAP spectrum. All data are input (requested) values except H_{m_0} which is measured at wave gauge 01₃. Also shown are details of two previous experiments at Marintek.

169 is the directional analysis which uses the five probes in the pentagon array and probe
170 τ_C .

171 The test conditions considered in this paper are listed in table 1. The experimental
172 design follows on from two previous experiments at the Marintek Ocean Basin, firstly
173 Onorato et al. (2009) examining the statistics of directionally spread uni-modal seas and
174 secondly Toffoli et al. (2011) examining kurtosis with two crossing uni-directional wave
175 trains. In table 1 the BFI is multiplied by $\sqrt{2}$ to allow easy comparison to Onorato et al.
176 (2009). The requested input significant wave height H_{m_0} for each component was 0.058 m,
177 which resulted in a measured significant wave height of around 0.08 m for two component
178 tests and close to 0.058 m for single component tests. Throughout this paper the H_{m_0}
179 is measured at wave gauge 01₃ and is calculated from the zeroth-order moment of the
180 variance density spectrum m_0 as $H_{m_0} = 4\sqrt{m_0}$. H_{m_0} is referred to as the significant wave
181 height although the original definition of significant wave height is based on the mean
182 of the highest 1/3 of waves in a wave record $H_{1/3}$. For the present tests the difference
183 between H_{m_0} and $H_{1/3}$ is up to 4%. Previous studies (Toffoli et al. 2010b; Sabatino and
184 Serio 2015) have found that rogue wave activity is increased around 40° crossing angle,
185 so tests of the effects of component frequency and directional spread are performed at
186 this crossing angle.

187 All tests except test number 2500 were repeated four times to give long enough time
188 series for robust statistical analysis. The first three minutes of each test were removed
189 prior to analysis giving around 80 min of data at each condition, or roughly 4800 waves.
190 The analysis reported in this paper is all conducted on the full combined 80 min tests,
191 again with the exception of test 2500, so the roughly 4800 waves used in the present
192 experiments should give a stable value. An analysis of the kurtosis showed that above
193 3000 waves the kurtosis approaches a stable value - above 3000 waves the standard
194 deviation is below 0.3% of the mean value for all tests at all 9 locations down the tank.

195 For all the tests listed except 2500 and 2508 there were two spectral wave components

196 requested. Both components use a JONSWAP spectrum, component 1 with $\gamma = 3$ and
 197 component 2 with $\gamma = 6$. For component 2 the spreading factor is set to $N = 200$ for all
 198 cases, while for component 1, N is varied between 50 and 840. The directional spreading
 199 is characterised by the factor N where N is equal to $2S$ in a $\cos^{2S}(\theta - \theta_m)$ type directional
 200 distribution (Longuet-Higgins et al. 1963), where θ_m is the mean direction. The effect of
 201 varying the peak period of component 2 was studied in tests 2408, 2418 and 2428. The
 202 peak period was set to 1 s for all other tests which corresponds to a peak wavelength
 203 $\lambda_p = 1.56$ m. The only other variable was the direction of the two components, hereafter
 204 referred to as the crossing angle α . The mean direction of the two components was always
 205 straight down the tank away from the multi-flap wave maker and the crossing angle was
 206 varied between 0° and 40° .

207 The directional spectra are calculated using the Iterative Maximum Likelihood Method
 208 (IMLM) (Isobe et al. 1984), implemented in DIWASP (Johnson 2012), a General Public
 209 License toolbox for MATLAB[®]; with a directional resolution of 1° and a frequency
 210 resolution of 0.049 Hz. The directional spreading σ_θ is calculated as the overall mean di-
 211 rectional spreading following the method outlined in IAHR guidance for multi-directional
 212 waves (Frigaard et al. 1997). Note that here σ_θ is equal to δ_θ in equation 1.2. First, the
 213 directional width σ_{θ_w} is calculated

$$\sigma_{\theta_w}^2 = \int D(f, \theta)(\theta - \theta_m)^2 d\theta \quad (2.1)$$

214 where $D(f, \theta)$ is the normalised directional distribution (from the IMLM analysis). The
 215 overall mean directional spreading is calculated as

$$\sigma_\theta = \int_{f_1}^{f_n} \frac{S(f)\sigma_{\theta_w}(f)}{m_0} df \quad (2.2)$$

216 where $S(f)$ is the spectral energy density.

217 2.2. Wave height and wave crest exceedance probability

218 The exceedance probability of both the wave heights and wave crests were calculated
 219 from the sorted wave and crest height data; wave heights less than 0.4σ (where σ is the
 220 standard deviation of the surface elevation) were ignored and wave crests less than 0.2σ
 221 were also ignored. Wave heights were normalised by $\eta_{rms} = \sqrt{m_0}$ while wave crests were
 222 normalised by H_{m_0} . Wave height probability was calculated using 101 classes for H/η_{rms}
 223 from 0:0.1:10 (rogue waves are expected for $H/\eta_{rms} \geq 8$ assuming $H_{m_0} = 4\eta_{rms}$). Wave
 224 crest probability was calculated using 91 classes for η_c/H_{m_0} from 0:0.02:1.8 (rogue waves
 225 are expected for $\eta_c/H_{m_0} \geq 1.25$).

226 Several theoretical and semi-empirical estimates of the exceedance probability distribu-
 227 tions exist, those used in the present analysis are summarized here. For the wave heights
 228 (where \mathbf{H} is the wave height normalised by η_{rms} throughout) the Rayleigh distribution
 229 is

$$P_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}) = \exp(-\mathbf{H}^2/8) \quad (2.3)$$

230 The Forristall distribution (Forristall 1978) is

$$P_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}) = \exp(-\mathbf{H}^{2.126}/8.42) \quad (2.4)$$

231 The modified Edgeworth-Rayleigh (MER) distribution (Mori and Janssen 2006) is

$$P_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}) = e^{-(1/8)\mathbf{H}^2} [1 + \kappa_{40} B_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H})] \quad (2.5)$$

232 where κ_{40} was taken as the maximum measured excess kurtosis for the relevant combined

8

233 time series at the centre of the tank and $B_H(H)$ is defined as:

$$B_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}) = \frac{1}{384} \mathbf{H}^2 (\mathbf{H}^2 - 16) \quad (2.6)$$

234 The probability density function p_m and the exceedance probability P_m of the maxi-
 235 mum wave height \mathbf{H}_{max} (where \mathbf{H}_{max} is the maximum wave height normalised by η_{rms}
 236 throughout) in a wave train can be calculated as a function of the fourth cumulant of the
 237 surface elevation κ_{40} (sometimes called the excess kurtosis $\kappa_{40} = \mu_4 - 3$) and the number
 238 of waves N_w in the wave train (Mori and Janssen 2006). Assuming an MER distribution
 239 these become:

$$p_m(\mathbf{H}_{max}) = \frac{N_w}{4} \mathbf{H}_{max} e^{-\frac{\mathbf{H}_{max}^2}{8}} [1 + \kappa_{40} A_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}_{max})] \exp \left\{ -N_w e^{-\frac{\mathbf{H}_{max}^2}{8}} [1 + \kappa_{40} B_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}_{max})] \right\} \quad (2.7)$$

$$P_m(\mathbf{H}_{max}) = 1 - \exp \left\{ -N_w e^{-\frac{\mathbf{H}_{max}^2}{8}} [1 + \kappa_{40} B_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}_{max})] \right\} \quad (2.8)$$

240 where $B_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H})$ is defined in eq. 2.6 and $A_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H})$ is defined as:

$$A_{\mathbf{H}}(\mathbf{H}) = \frac{1}{384} (\mathbf{H}^4 - 32\mathbf{H}^2 + 128) \quad (2.9)$$

241 A first-order representation of the water surface elevation can be simply Gaussian noise
 242 (with a reasonably narrow frequency band); the wave crest heights then have the same
 243 distribution as the envelope of noise (Forristall 2000) which is the Rayleigh distribution:

$$P(\eta_c > \eta) = \exp \left[-8 \frac{\eta^2}{H_{m_0}^2} \right] \quad (2.10)$$

244 The second-order Tayfun distribution (Tayfun 1980) is

$$P(\eta_c > \eta) = \exp \left[-\frac{8}{H_s^2 k_p^2} (\sqrt{1 + 2k_p \eta} - 1)^2 \right] \quad (2.11)$$

245 where H_s is taken as H_{m_0} measured at wave gauge 01₃ for each combined test and k_p is
 246 the peak wave period at wave gauge 01₃ for each full (combined) test. The second-order
 247 Forristall crest height distribution (Forristall 2000) is

$$P(\eta_c > \eta) = \exp \left[-\left(\frac{\eta}{\alpha_1 H_s} \right)^\beta \right] \quad (2.12)$$

248 where

$$\alpha_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{8}} + 0.2568S_1 + 0.08U_r \quad (2.13)$$

249 and

$$\beta = 2 - 1.7912S_1 - 0.5302U_r + 0.2824U_r^2 \quad (2.14)$$

250 The steepness $S_1 = (2\pi/g)(H_s/T_{01}^2)$ where T_{01} is the mean wave period defined by m_0/m_1
 251 measured at gauge 01₃ for each test and H_{m_0} again measured at gauge 01₃ for each test
 252 is used for H_s . The Ursell number is $U_r = H_{m_0}/(k_1^2 d^3)$ where d is the depth and k_1 is
 253 the wave number for a frequency of $1/T_{01}$.

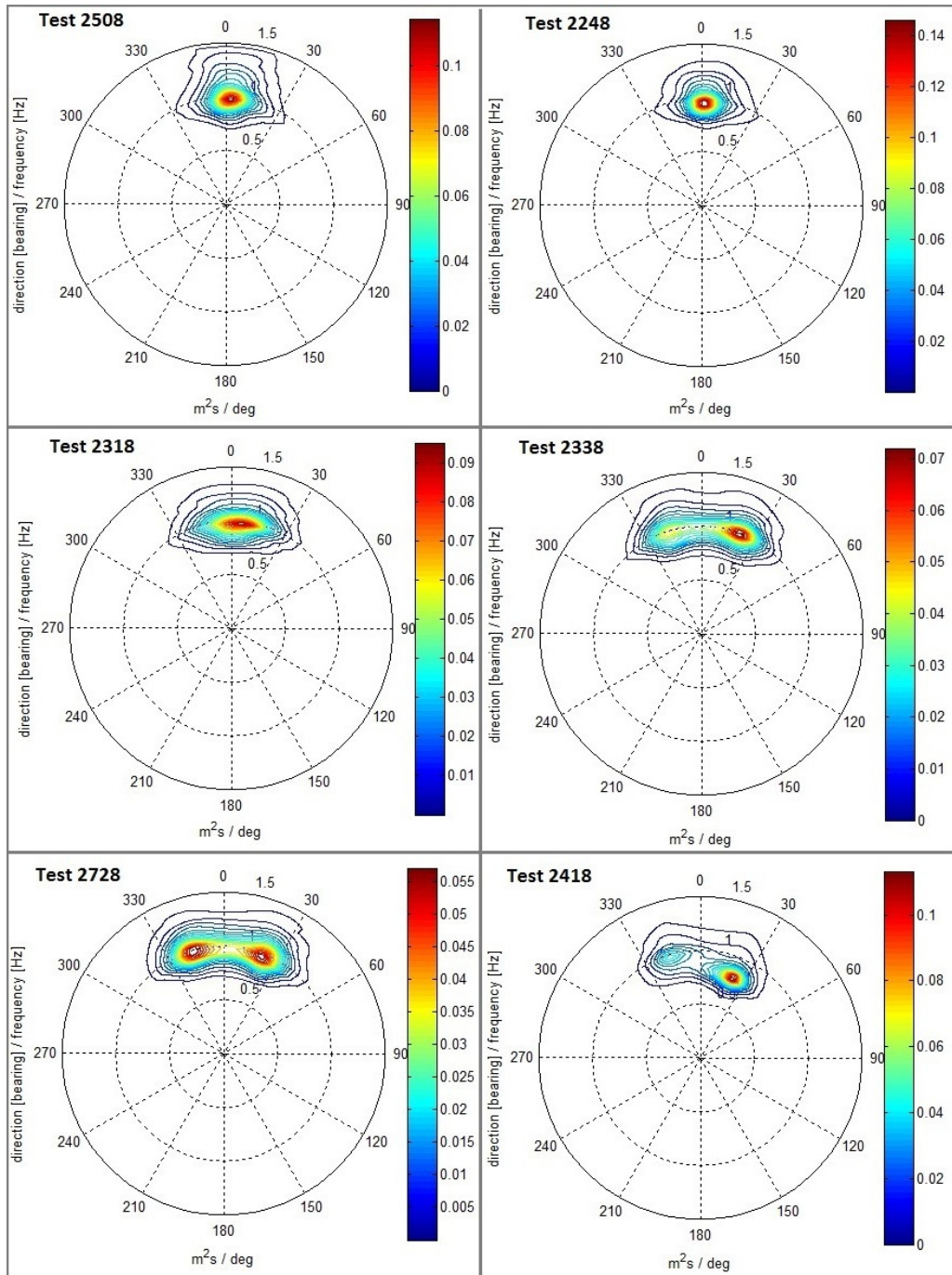


FIGURE 2. Measured directional spectra for several cases at position 7 (pentagon wave gauge array). All calculated using IMLM method.

10

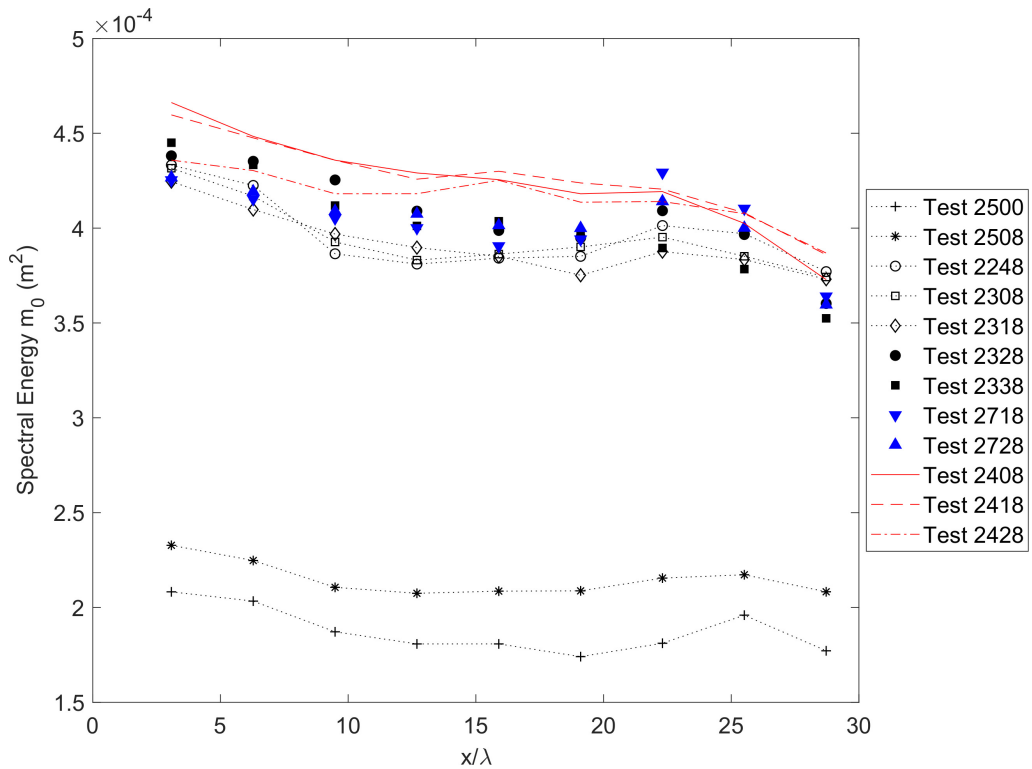


FIGURE 3. Change of spectral energy with non-dimensional distance down the centre of the tank for all test cases.

3. Results

The directional analysis (figure 2) shows that there is a slight directional offset for all tests of around 2 degrees caused by a small misalignment of the pentagon array relative to the wave maker. Tests with a crossing angle less than 20° show as a uni-modal spectrum with directional spread mainly dependant on crossing angle - effectively the two components appear to merge into one component with a wider directional spread. Tests with wider crossing angles show two clear directional components with features largely consistent with the requested direction and frequency. Similar features were observed at positions 1 and 5, but the two component spectra with similar peak frequencies are not so well resolved using the IMLM method at the three gauge arrays, so these are not shown.

Plotting the zeroth-order moment of the variance density spectrum m_0 down the tank (figure 3) gives an indication of the total energy loss at the centre of the tank. The spectral energy m_0 drops off down the tank as is consistent with some form of energy dissipation. The rate of drop-off is not steady (indeed at some locations there is a slight increase) but there is some consistency between tests. A small number of breaking wave crests were observed in all bi-modal tests, but there was almost none in the uni-directional tests (2500) which shows similar energy dissipation, so wave breaking is unlikely to be significant. The primary cause of the energy loss is almost certainly diffraction. The multi-flap wave-maker does not cover the entire side of the tank and so energy loss to the edges must occur. One edge contains a wave absorber which will prevent most reflections, while on the other edge the end wave paddles were intentionally turned off to reduce reflections.

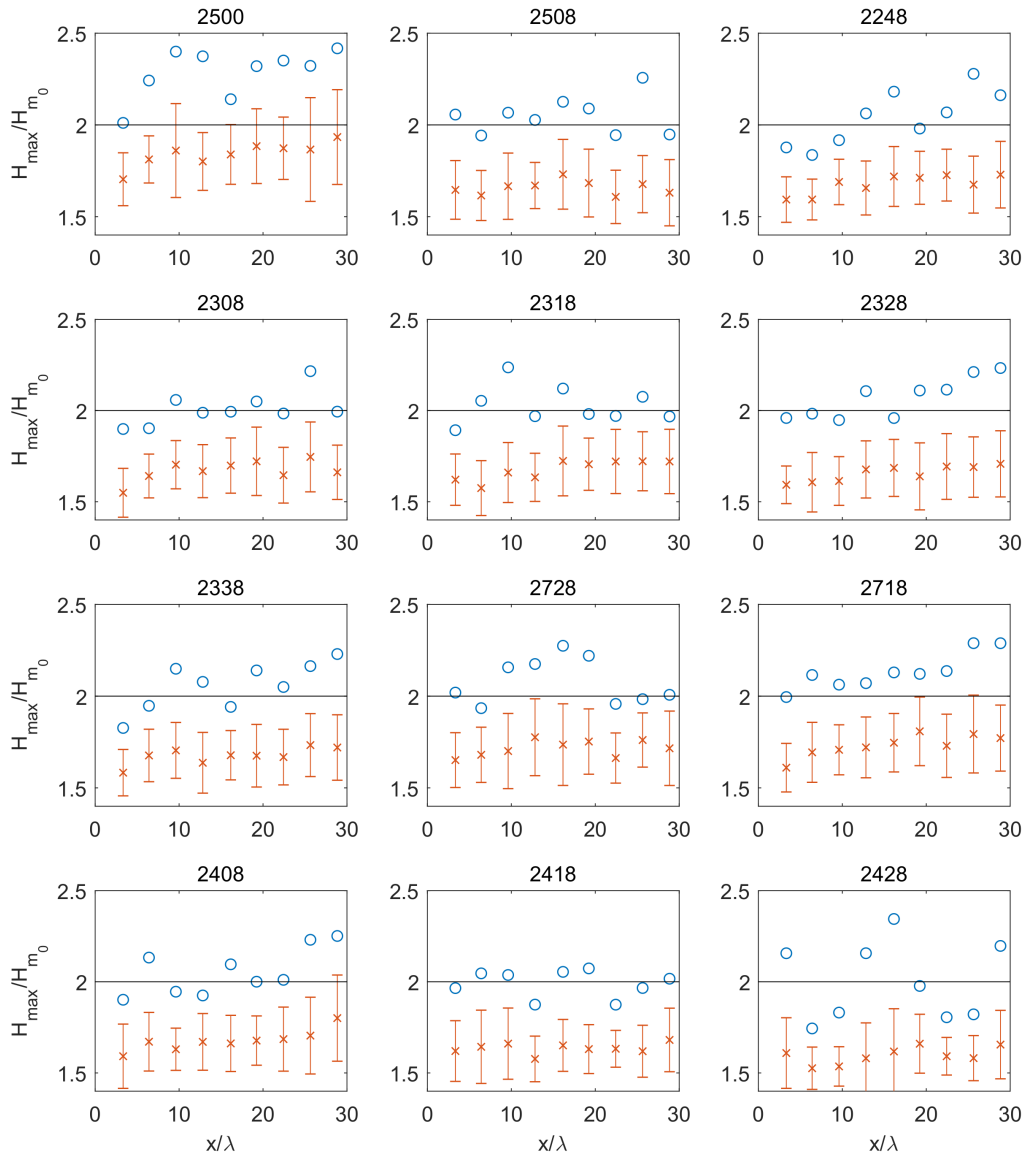


FIGURE 4. Evolution of H_{max}/H_{m_0} down the basin for all tests. Circles show H_{max}/H_{m_0} for the whole time series. The crosses are the mean value of H_{max}/H_{m_0} over all segments when the time series is split into segments of 200 waves. The error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean over all segments. The line is at $H_{max}/H_{m_0} = 2.0$.

276 There is also a wave absorber at the far end of the tank and reflections from this are
 277 likely to account for the small increases in energy seen at some locations near the end of
 278 the tank.

279 Figure 4 shows the evolution of H_{max}/H_{m_0} down the designated centre of the tank,
 280 for the twelve selected test cases (for all cases the peak wavelength $\lambda_p = 1.56$ m). Also
 281 shown are the mean and standard deviation of H_{max}/H_{m_0} for each segment when the
 282 time series are split into segments of 200 waves. In the field, wave measurements are
 283 often taken for around 20 min every few hours, so with a peak period of 6 s, 20 min of

284 data would be roughly 200 waves. The uni-directional case shows generally the highest
 285 values of H_{max}/H_{m0} , despite being the shortest test by a factor of 4. High maximum
 286 wave heights are observed for all tests ($H_{max}/H_{m0} > 2$), but the maximum wave height
 287 gives no indication of the probability of occurrence. The mean maximum wave height
 288 for the 200 wave segments generally increases down the tank. The mean is highest for
 289 the the uni-directional case 2500, and of the directionally spread test cases, case 2718
 290 with two narrow components ($N = 840$ and 200) crossing at 40° shows the highest mean
 291 H_{max}/H_{m0} .

292 3.1. Exceedance probabilities

293 Figure 5 shows the exceedance probabilities for wave heights and wave crests at
 294 positions 1, 5 and 7 - the results show the effect of changing the crossing angle between
 295 the two components, but constant directional spreading of $N = 50/N = 200$ (note that
 296 the / symbol here is for separation to show the different properties of the two components
 297 not a fraction). Taking the results for the wave heights first; for figure 5A, C and E the
 298 experimental results are closest to the Forristall distribution at position 1, but by position
 299 5 the results are much closer to the Rayleigh distribution and remain the same at position
 300 7. For the wave crest heights in figure 5B, D and F the experimental results are around
 301 the Tayfun and Forristall distributions at position 1 but by position 5 and 7 they are
 302 generally well above the Tayfun distribution with some variations between the crossing
 303 angles, but no clear trends.

304 Figure 6 shows the exceedance probabilities for wave heights and wave crests at
 305 positions 1, 5 and 7 - the results show the effect of directional spread of the individual
 306 components with constant crossing angle. For the wave heights shown in figure 6A, C
 307 and E the experimental results are between the Forristall and Rayleigh distributions
 308 at position 1 and are close to the Rayleigh distribution by position 5. At position 7
 309 the experimental results for a slightly narrower first component directional spreading
 310 ($N = 200/N = 200$) are slightly below the Rayleigh distribution towards the Forristall
 311 distribution, while for a much narrower first component ($N = 840/N = 200$) the
 312 experimental results are above the Rayleigh distribution towards the MER distribution.
 313 It is interesting to note that the the case at $N = 50/N = 200$ is higher than $N =$
 314 $200/N = 200$ but lower than $N = 840/N = 200$. The uni-directional results are quite
 315 well described by the MER distribution at all positions and the results with a single
 316 directionally spread component are between the Forristall and Rayleigh distributions at
 317 position 1, close to the Rayleigh distribution at position 5 and close to the Forristall
 318 distribution by position 7.

319 The results for the wave crest heights shown in figure 6B show that the results with
 320 two narrow spectra are close to the Tayfun distribution at position 1, while the results
 321 with a broader component ($N = 50/N = 200$) are between the Rayleigh and Forristall
 322 distributions at position 1. The uni-directional results are above the Tayfun distribution
 323 and the results with a single directionally spread component are quite well described by
 324 the Forristall distribution at position 1. By position 5 shown in figure 6D the experimental
 325 results are above the Tayfun distribution. At position 7 shown in figure 6F, the test with
 326 the narrowest first component ($N = 840/N = 200$) is the furthest above Tayfun, while
 327 the case at $N = 200/N = 200$ is on or just below the Tayfun distribution. Once again the
 328 case at $N = 50/N = 200$ is between the other two-component cases. The uni-directional
 329 results are well above the Tayfun distribution and the results with a single directionally
 330 spread component remain quite well described by the Forristall distribution at position
 331 7.

332 Figure 7 shows the exceedance probabilities for wave heights and wave crests at

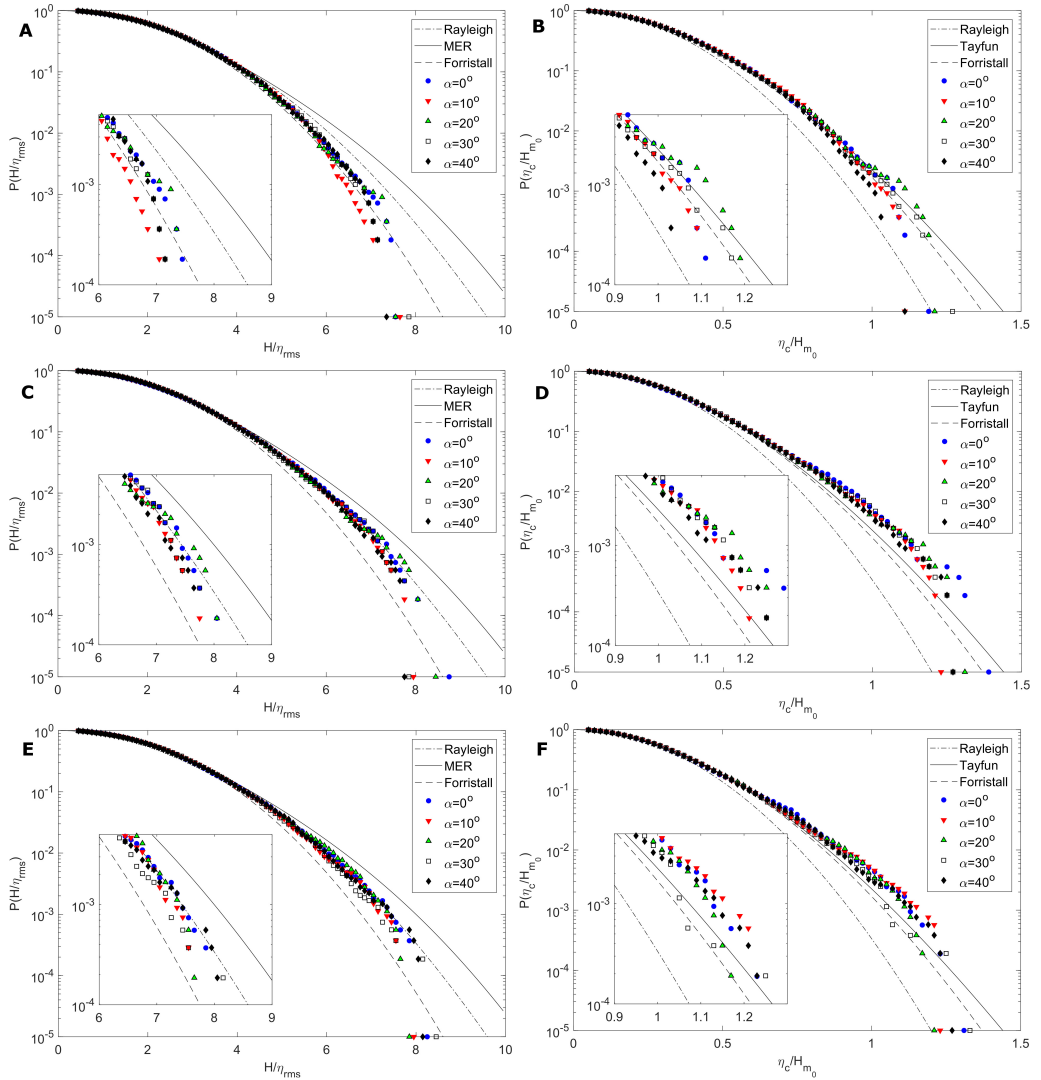


FIGURE 5. Exceedance probability distributions at different crossing angles for wave height H/η_{rms} (left figures) and crest height η_c/H_{m0} (right figures) at position 1 ($x/\lambda_p = 3.2$ - top figures), position 5 ($x/\lambda_p = 16.1$ - middle figures) and position 7 ($x/\lambda_p = 22.4$ - bottom figures). Shapes show the experimental data. For the left figures (wave height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.3), the solid line shows the MER distribution (Eq. 2.5) and the dashed line shows the Forristall distribution (Eq. 2.4). For the right figures (crest height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.10), the solid line shows the Tayfun distribution (Eq. 2.11) and the dashed line shows the Forristall distribution (Eq. 2.12).

333 positions 1, 5 and 7 - the results show the effect of varying component peak frequency at
 334 a constant crossing angle of 40° . For figure 7A the wave height results are between the
 335 Forristall and Rayleigh distributions at position 1. Further down the tank at positions 5
 336 and 7, figure 7C and E show the results are still slightly below the Rayleigh distribution
 337 towards the Forristall distribution except for the case at $T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1.67\text{ s}$ when the
 338 experimental results are clearly closer to the Forristall distribution.

339 For the crest heights at position 1 shown in figure 7B, the experimental results are all
 340 close to the Tayfun distribution apart from the case at $T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1\text{ s}$ where the

14

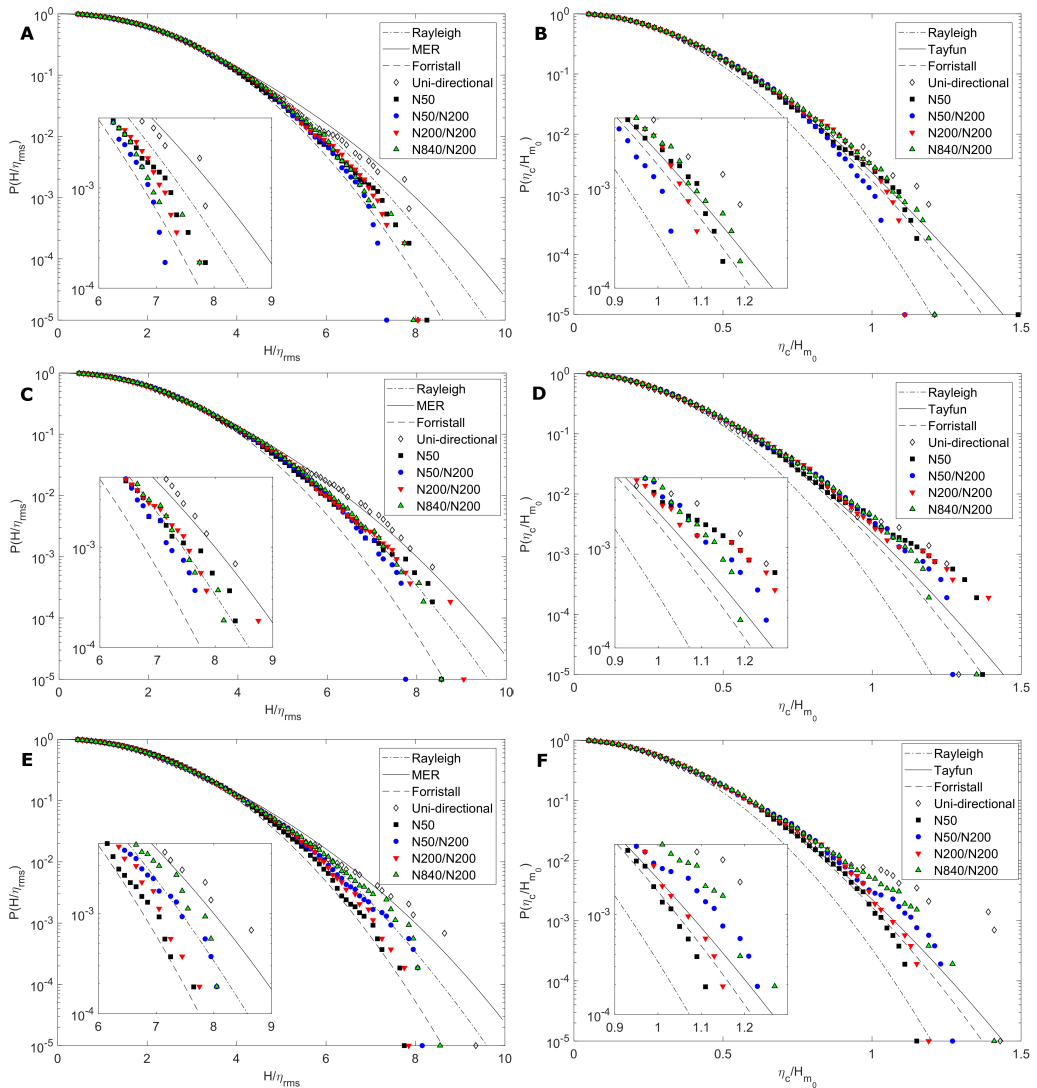


FIGURE 6. Exceedance probability distributions at different component directional spreads for wave height H/η_{rms} (left figures) and crest height η_c/H_{m0} (right figures) at position 1 ($x/\lambda_p = 3.2$ - top figures), position 5 ($x/\lambda_p = 16.1$ - middle figures) and position 7 ($x/\lambda_p = 22.4$ - bottom figures). Shapes show the experimental data. Also shown are the uni-directional (test 2500) and single component directionally spread (test 2508) cases. For the left figures (wave height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.3), the solid line shows the MER distribution (Eq. 2.5) and the dashed line shows the Forristall distribution (Eq. 2.4). For the right figures (crest height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.10), the solid line shows the Tayfun distribution (Eq. 2.11) and the dashed line shows the Forristall distribution (Eq. 2.12).

341 results are closer to the Forristall distribution. For figure 7D and F at positions 5 and 7
 342 the experimental results are all above the Tayfun distribution, noting that for the case at
 343 $T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1.67\text{ s}$ the Forristall distribution is in fact above the Tayfun distribution,
 344 so in this case the experimental results are closest to the Forristall distribution.

345 Comparing the tails of the distributions between figure 5 and figure 6 shows clearly

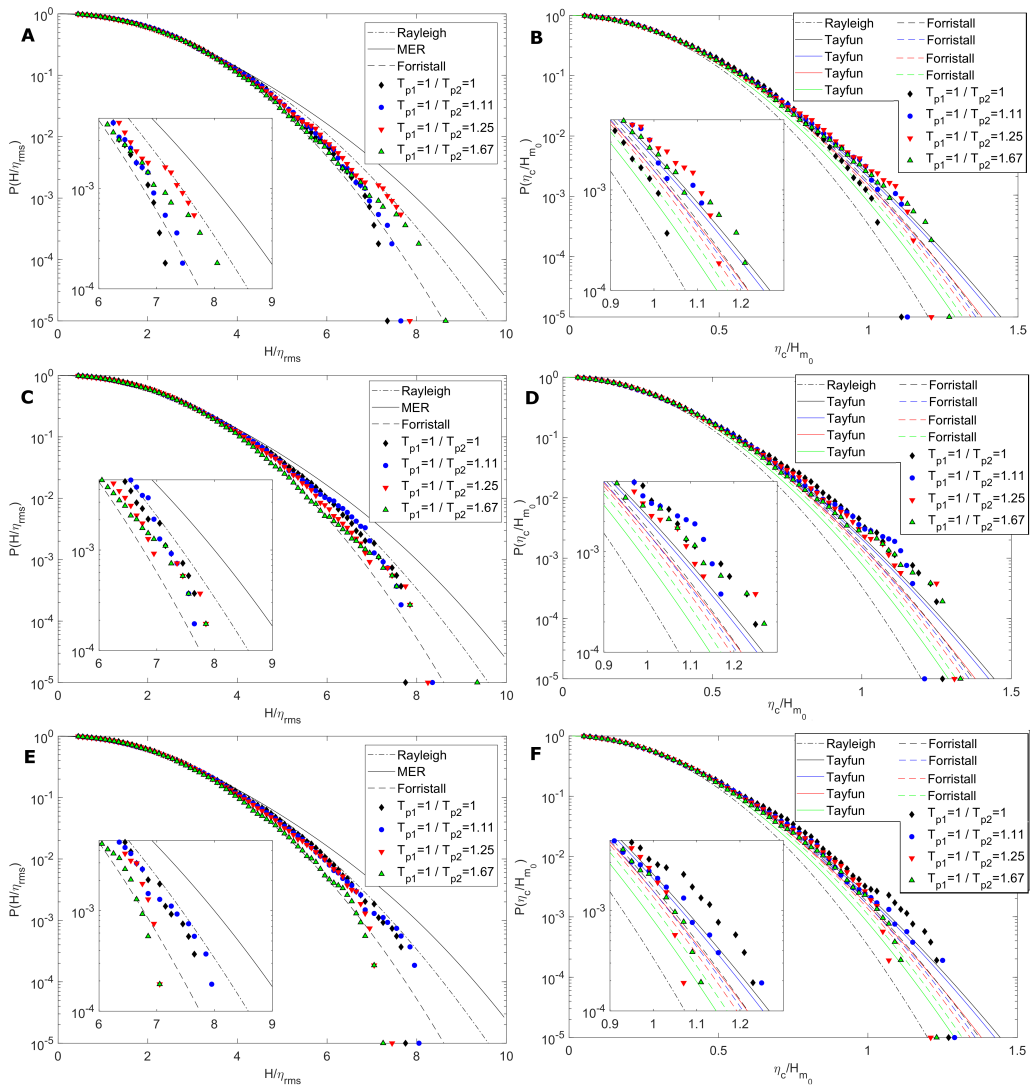


FIGURE 7. Exceedance probability distributions at different component peak frequencies for wave height H/η_{rms} (left figures) and crest height η_c/H_{m0} (right figures) at position 1 ($x/\lambda_p = 3.2$ - top figures), position 5 ($x/\lambda_p = 16.1$ - middle figures) and position 7 ($x/\lambda_p = 22.4$ - bottom figures). Shapes show the experimental data. For the left figures (wave height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.3), the solid line shows the MER distribution (Eq. 2.5) and the dashed line shows the Fornistall distribution (Eq. 2.4). For the right figures (crest height), the dotted line shows the Rayleigh distribution (Eq. 2.10), the solid lines show the Tayfun distribution (Eq. 2.11) and the dashed lines show the Fornistall distribution (Eq. 2.12); the Tayfun and Fornistall distributions are frequency dependant through k_p and S_1 respectively so are coloured to indicate which results they apply to.

346 that changing the directional spreading of the individual components has more effect on
 347 the tails of the distributions than changing the crossing angles. Changing the crossing
 348 angles has relatively little clear effect on either the wave height distributions or the wave
 349 crest distributions, while changing the directional spreading of component 1 at a fixed
 350 crossing angle has quite a large effect. The kurtosis (shown in table 2) seems to correlate
 351 quite well with the above noted features for figures 6 and figure 7 - the tests with higher

Test case	Descriptive label	Kurtosis
2500	Uni-directional	3.478
2508	$N = 50$	3.074
2248	$\alpha = 0^\circ$	3.255
2308	$\alpha = 10^\circ$	3.146
2318	$\alpha = 20^\circ$	3.288
2328	$\alpha = 30^\circ$	3.133
	$\alpha = 40^\circ$	
2338	$N = 50/N = 200$	3.205
	$T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1\text{ s}$	
2728	$N = 200/N = 200$	3.135
2718	$N = 840/N = 200$	3.292
2408	$T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1.11\text{ s}$	3.138
2418	$T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1.25\text{ s}$	3.124
2428	$T_{p1} = 1\text{ s}/T_{p2} = 1.67\text{ s}$	3.083

TABLE 2. Kurtosis at probe 07_C for tests shown in figures 5, 6 and 7.

352 overall mean kurtosis show higher exceedance probabilities. For the tests with different
 353 crossing angles in figure 5 the kurtosis varies from 3.133 to 3.255 but the exceedance
 354 distributions are all closely grouped.

355 Overall, for the experimental results for spectra that have developed down the tank
 356 (at position 7), the wave heights are reasonably well described by the Rayleigh distri-
 357 bution with the exception of the uni-directional case (long-crested) and the case with
 358 a single directionally spread component where the results are closer to the MER and
 359 Forristall distributions respectively. The results at position 7 for the wave crest heights
 360 are generally either slightly above or close to the second-order Tayfun distribution, again
 361 with the exception of the uni-directional (long-crested) results which are far above the
 362 Tayfun distribution and the single directionally spread component results which are well
 363 described by the Forristall distribution.

364 3.2. Kurtosis

365 Previous studies have shown that increasing kurtosis is related to increasing rogue
 366 wave activity (Mori and Janssen 2006; Mori et al. 2011). Figure 8 shows the evolution of
 367 the kurtosis down the centre of the tank for the twelve selected test cases. The kurtosis
 368 is calculated from the whole combined file (80 min time series or 20 min for test 2500) for
 369 all kurtosis figures except for figure 10. For all the multi-directional cases, the kurtosis is
 370 considerably lower than the uni-directional case (test 2500). For all the multi-directional
 371 cases the kurtosis is close to the second-order theory and generally increases down the
 372 tank. There is no clear effect of changing the crossing angle between the two components
 373 for the angles tested. Using a narrower spreading factor for component 1 seems to increase
 374 the kurtosis to slightly above the second-order theory (test 2718 in particular). The
 375 conditions for cases 2718 and 2728 are more similar to the long-crested crossing seas
 376 used by Toffoli et al. (2011), who found increased kurtosis at around 40° , and both cases
 377 show several points well above the second-order theoretical distribution. Note however
 378 that comparison between two crossing long-crested wave trains and crossing directional
 379 seas should be treated with caution. The measured excess kurtosis ($\mu_4 - 3$) is up to 190%
 380 of the second-order theoretical excess kurtosis for case 2718. The cases with a lower

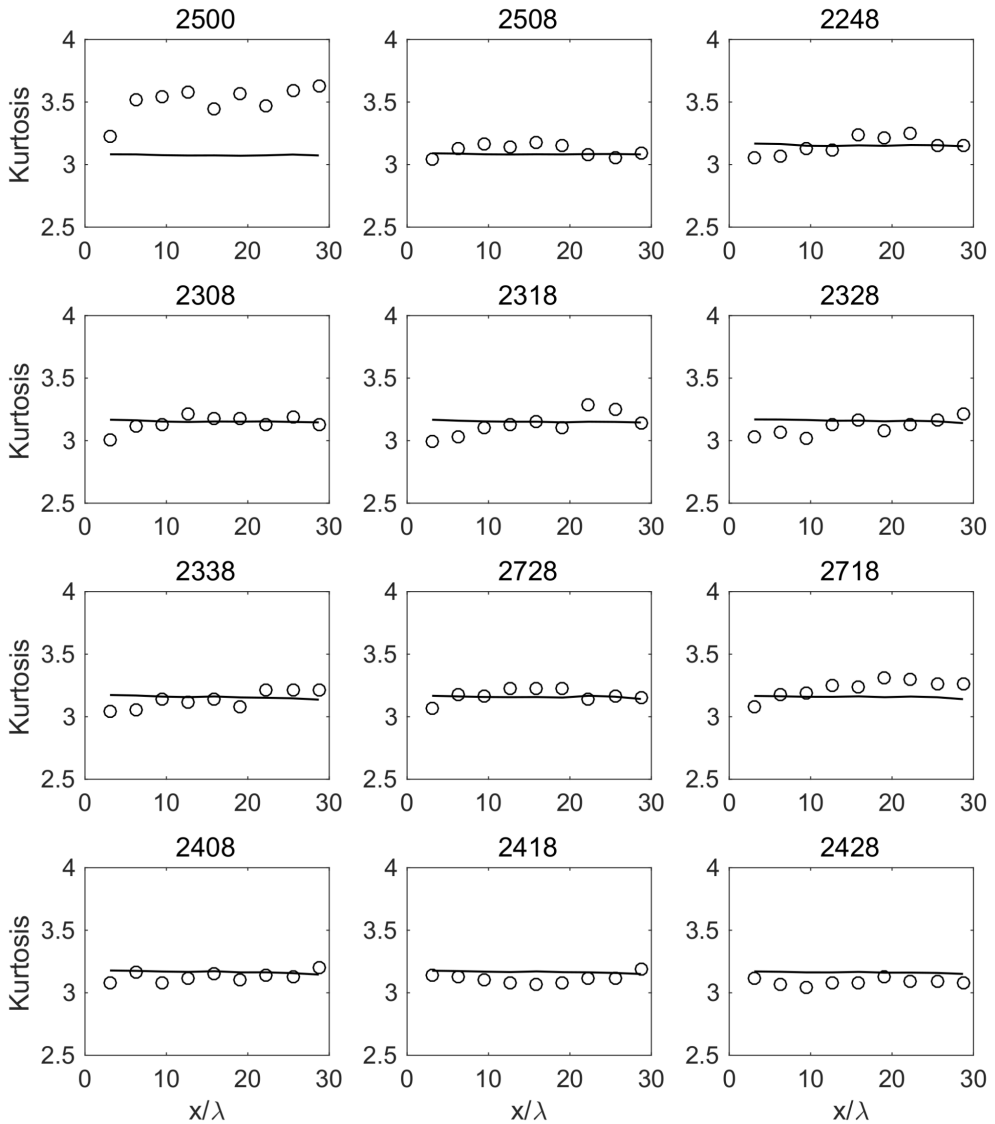


FIGURE 8. Evolution of kurtosis down the centre of the basin for all tests. The circles show the kurtosis μ_A (Eq. 1.4) and the line shows a narrow banded approximation of the second-order theoretical kurtosis distribution (Eq. 1.5), both calculated from measured values at the centreline probes.

381 frequency for component 2 (tests 2408, 2418 and 2428) show slightly lower kurtosis than
 382 the cases with $T_p = 1$ s for both components.

383 Figure 9 shows H_{max}/H_{m_0} plotted against kurtosis for the same test cases and wave
 384 gauge positions presented in figure 8. Excepting the uni-directional case, the results are
 385 quite closely grouped with a mean kurtosis of around 3.14 and a mean H_{max}/H_{m_0} of 2.05.
 386 The solid line shows the most commonly used definition of a rogue wave ($H_{max}/H_{m_0} >$
 387 2). The results generally agree with the hypothesis that increasing kurtosis is related
 388 to increasing extreme wave activity as the trend is generally bottom left to top right
 389 across the figure (with some notable outliers). In addition to measured data, expected

18

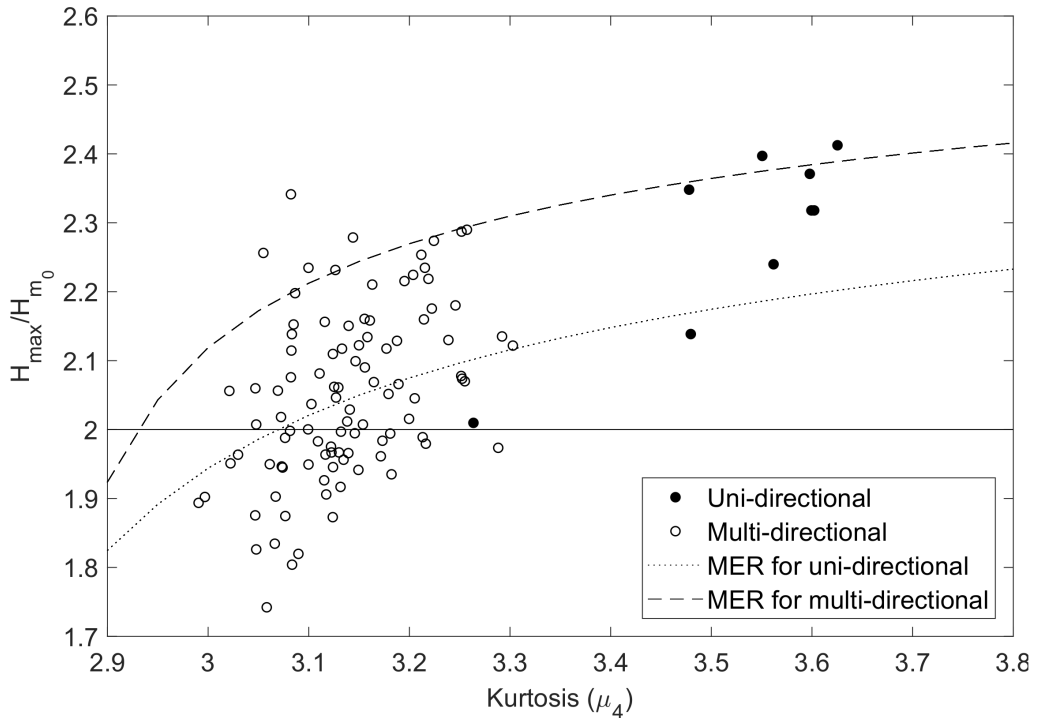


FIGURE 9. H_{max}/H_{m_0} plotted against kurtosis for all tests at nine positions down the tank. The uni-directional case (test 2500) is marked with filled circles. The lines show the theoretical relationship from integration of the MER pdf (Eq. 2.7) with 4800 waves for multi-directional cases and 1200 waves for the uni-directional case.

390 values calculated by numerical integration of the MER equation (eq. 2.7) are also given.
 391 Theoretical predictions of H_{max}/H_{m_0} on the basis of number of waves and kurtosis μ_4
 392 are overestimated in comparison to the measured data. This agrees with the observation
 393 that the wave heights are quite well described by the Rayleigh distribution and hence
 394 below the MER distribution. The uni-directional results are grouped around the MER
 395 relationship as observed with the wave height exceedance plots.

396 Figure 10 shows the effect of sample size on the relationship between wave height and
 397 kurtosis. The surface elevation data were split into segments of 100, 200 and 500 waves
 398 and for each of these segments a value of H_{max}/H_{m_0} and μ_4 was calculated then averaged
 399 over the whole data set at each of the 9 locations down the tank. The averaged peak
 400 wave height ratio $\langle H_{max}/H_{m_0} \rangle$ increases with increasing averaged kurtosis $\langle \mu_4 \rangle$
 401 and with increasing sample size. The averaged peak wave height ratio is generally below
 402 the theoretical prediction except for the uni-directional case which is close to the model.

403 Figure 11 shows the kurtosis plotted against skewness, for the same test cases as above.
 404 With the exception of the uni-directional case, the values generally lie on or slightly above
 405 the theoretical second-order relationship describing the contribution to the kurtosis by
 406 bound waves represented by the solid line. The contribution to the kurtosis by bound
 407 waves is from $\mu_4 = 3 + 24(k_p\sigma)^2$ and skewness $\mu_3 = 3k_p\sigma$ (Srokosz and Longuet-Higgins
 408 1986) giving:

$$\mu_4 = 3 + \frac{8}{3}\mu_3^2 \quad (3.1)$$

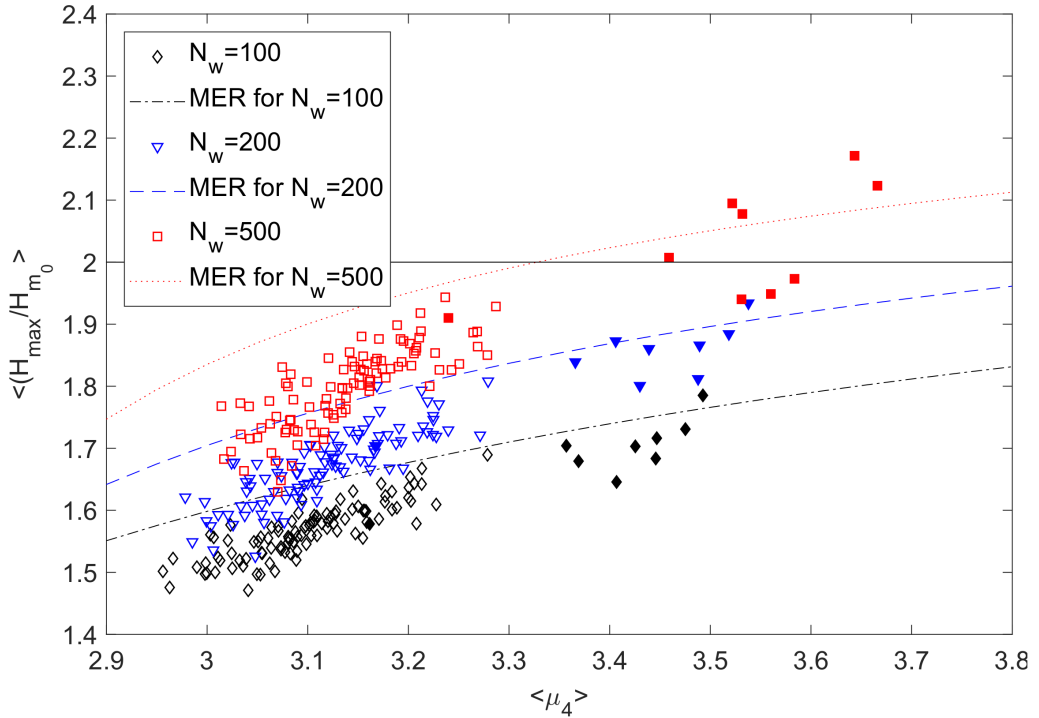


FIGURE 10. Averaged H_{max}/H_{m0} plotted against averaged kurtosis for all tests at nine positions down the tank, for three sample sizes. See associated text for a description of how these are calculated. The uni-directional case (test 2500) is marked with filled shapes. The lines show the theoretical relationship from integration of the MER pdf (Eq. 2.7) with the given number of waves.

409 Mori et al. (2011) present theoretical and empirical formulae for the relationship
 410 between directional spreading and kurtosis (μ_4). In the uni-directional case, a theoretical
 411 estimate of the kurtosis can be derived from the Benjamin Feir Index (defined in Eq.
 412 1.1):

$$\mu_4 = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \text{BFI}^2 + 3 \quad (3.2)$$

413 In the directionally spread case, an empirical estimate of the kurtosis can be derived from
 414 the empirical two-dimensional BFI (Mori et al. 2011):

$$\mu_4 = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \text{BFI}_{2D}^2 + 3 \quad (3.3)$$

415 where BFI_{2D} is given in Eq. 1.3. The two-dimensional BFI was not designed for bi-modal
 416 sea states and includes an empirical parameter specifically derived for uni-modal short-
 417 crested waves. It is therefore of interest to test if the BFI_{2D} can usefully be employed
 418 in bi-modal seas. There are several possible ways to define the degree of directional
 419 spreading σ_θ for a two component directionally spread sea-state and this is an area
 420 which would benefit from future study. The method used here is designed for uni-modal
 421 multi-directional seas and calculates the overall mean directional spreading of the whole
 422 spectrum as described in section 2.1. Including the effects of bound waves gives (Mori
 423 and Janssen 2006):

$$\mu_4 = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \text{BFI}_{2D}^2 + 24\varepsilon^2 + 3 \quad (3.4)$$

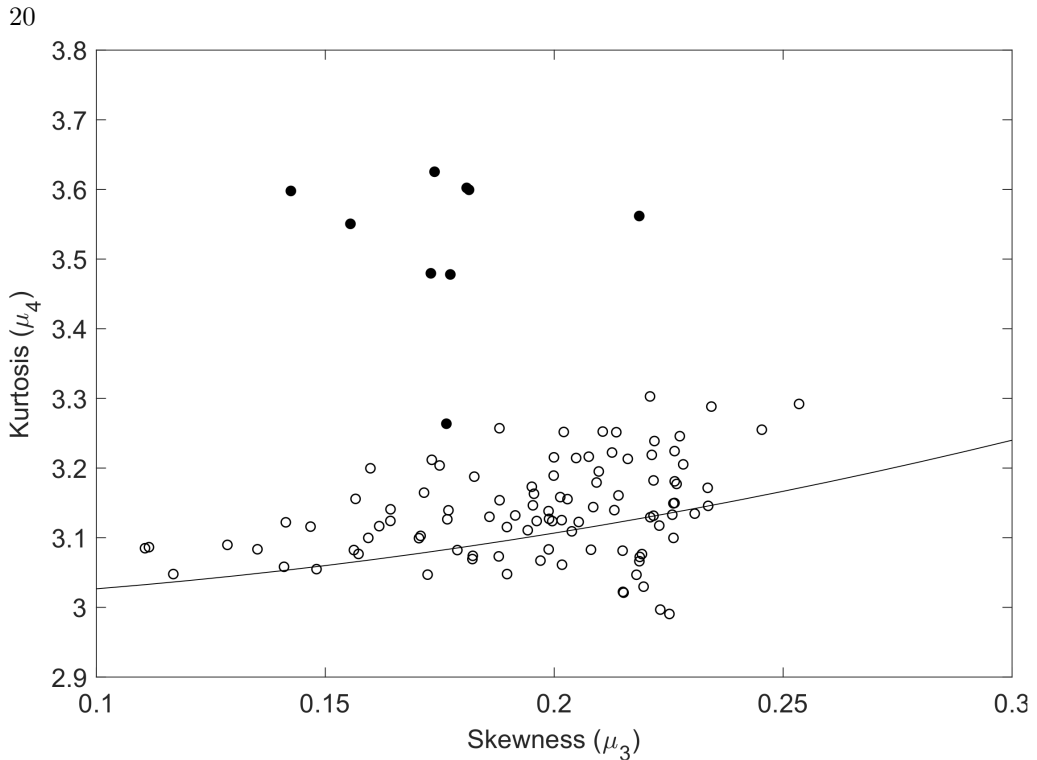


FIGURE 11. Kurtosis plotted against skewness for all tests. The uni-directional case (test 2500) is marked with filled circles. The line is the contribution to the kurtosis due to bound waves (Eq. 3.1).

424 Figure 12 shows the three theoretical / empirical relationships as well as the exper-
 425 imental results for all test cases. The experimental kurtosis values are the maximum
 426 observed kurtosis at the pentagon wave gauge array and the spreading is calculated at the
 427 same position. The experimental results are distributed around the empirical relationship
 428 including bound mode effects, which agrees well with the conclusions of Mori et al. (2011),
 429 who found that for short-crested waves in the region $\sigma_\theta < 0.2$ rad the empirical solution
 430 including bound mode effects fitted the observed kurtosis well. The experimental value
 431 of kurtosis for the uni-directional case is well above the theoretical value.

432 4. Discussion

433 Rogue waves defined as $H/H_s > 2$ (or $\eta_c/H_s > 1.25$) were detected in all tests. How-
 434 ever, the probability of rogue waves is very small in the order of 0.1 % to 0.2 %, confirming
 435 that these events are rare in the sea states tested. Unlike studies with two uni-directional
 436 crossing components (Onorato et al. 2010; Sabatino and Serio 2015), the results here with
 437 two multi-directional crossing components do not show significantly different exceedance
 438 probabilities or kurtosis values for different crossing angles. Observing just the results
 439 with changing crossing angle, the wave height exceedance probabilities develop down the
 440 tank from a Forristall distribution at position 1 ($\lambda/L = 3.2$) to a Rayleigh distribution
 441 at position 7 ($\lambda/L = 22.4$). The crest height exceedance probabilities develop from a
 442 grouping around the Tayfun and Forristall distributions at position 1 to above the Tayfun
 443 distribution at position 7. For both wave heights and crest heights there is little difference
 444 among the crossing angles investigated. The kurtosis increases slightly down the tank to

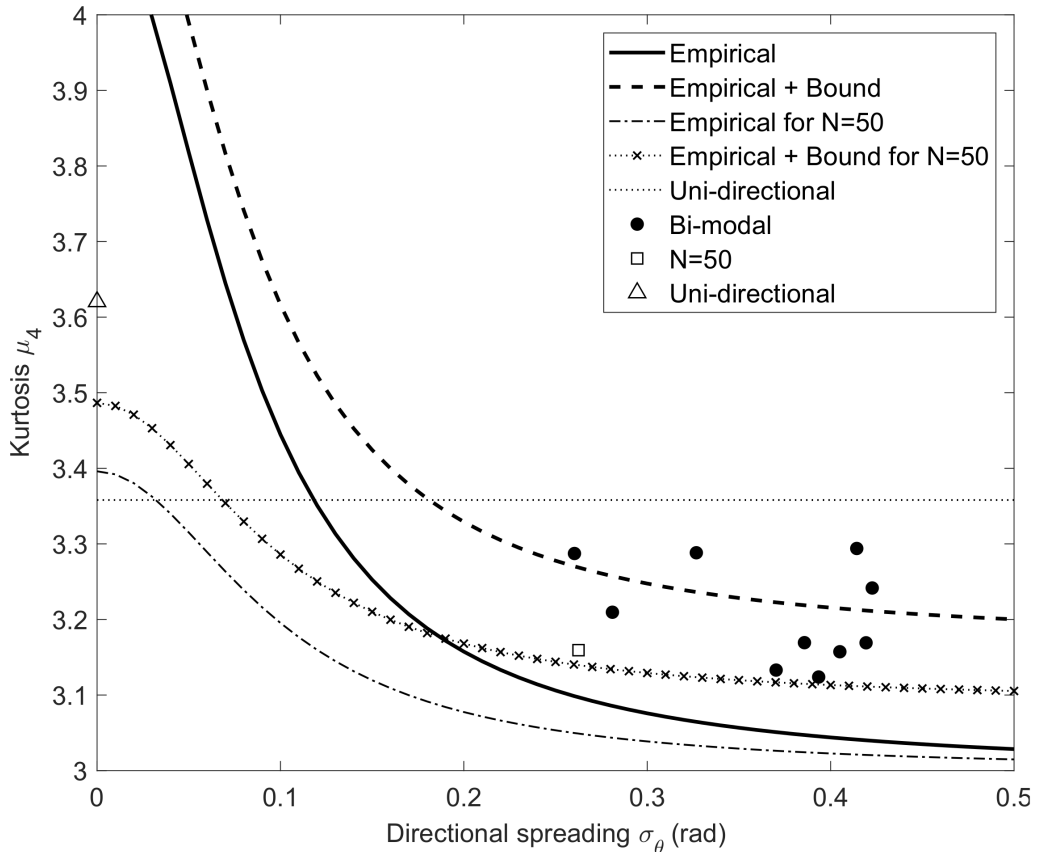


FIGURE 12. Plot of maximum kurtosis down the tank against mean directional spreading σ_θ measured at position 7. Lines are for Eq. 3.3 (Empirical), Eq. 3.4 (Empirical + Bound) and Eq. 3.2 (Unidirectional). The theoretical lines for $N = 50$ are lower as H_{m0} is lower for the single component cases.

445 at or just above the second-order theoretical value, but in agreement with the exceedance
 446 probabilities there is no clear difference among the crossing angles.

447 In case of the bi-modal crossing multi-directional waves investigated here, the direc-
 448 tional dispersion of the spectrum poses a limit for the growth of kurtosis (Gramstad and
 449 Trulsen 2007; Onorato et al. 2002). The reduction of the quasi-resonant effects due to
 450 directionality is significant, resulting in only a slight increase in the kurtosis across the
 451 basin. For most of the multi-directional wave tests, the kurtosis value increases towards
 452 the middle of the basin but it does not significantly exceed the second-order prediction.
 453 A slight departure above the second-order estimation is only observed for two of the two
 454 component test cases. Test 2318 with a crossing angle of $\alpha = 20^\circ$ showed an increase in
 455 the kurtosis towards the end of the basin reaching a value of 3.29 where the second-order
 456 theoretical value is 3.15. Test case 2718 with a directional spreading of $N = 840/N = 200$
 457 and crossing angle of 40° reached a slightly higher value of kurtosis at 3.30 against a
 458 second-order expectation of 3.17. This is also the only two component test for which the
 459 wave height exceedance probability clearly exceeds the Rayleigh distribution at position 7
 460 and the crest height exceedance probability is the furthest above the Tayfun distribution,
 461 implying that for these tests the directionality in the component spectra has more of an
 462 effect on rogue wave probability than the crossing angle.

463 The lowest values of kurtosis were recorded for the crossing sea states with different
 464 peak frequencies, which could be due to the basin being too short to allow for non-linear
 465 interactions to take place when the peak frequencies are separated. Despite the uni-
 466 directional case having a lower wave steepness than the two-component cases, there is a
 467 clear departure in kurtosis values from the Gaussian statistics. This agrees quite well with
 468 the results of Onorato et al. (2009) who found that for single component directionally
 469 spread seas the wave heights were well described by the Rayleigh distribution and that
 470 for the wave crest heights the deviation above the Tayfun distribution reduced as the
 471 directionality in the wave field increased.

472 The two-dimensional Benjamin-Feir Index BFI_{2D} was formulated by Mori et al. (2011)
 473 using empirical data from uni-modal directionally spread seas; here it is applied to bi-
 474 modal seas. Plotting kurtosis against directional spreading shows the empirical formula
 475 with the bound modes effect included gives a reasonably good match to the data. Mori
 476 et al. (2011) found that for directional spreading > 0.2 rad, the bound mode effect
 477 contributes most to the kurtosis change, while the four wave interactions are more
 478 significant with small directional spreading. For the two cases with the highest values
 479 of kurtosis (2718 and 2318), the empirical model slightly under-predicts the measured
 480 kurtosis even including the bound mode effects. The empirical relationships developed by
 481 Mori et al. (2011) give a reasonable approximation of the kurtosis of a crossing bi-modal
 482 directionally spread surface wave distribution when the directional spreading is calculated
 483 for the whole spectrum. The parametrization by Mori et al. (2011) is based on the non-
 484 linear Schrödinger equation to weak non-linearity and narrow-banded spectra. Despite
 485 this, the results shown here clearly demonstrate a relationship between the kurtosis and
 486 the directional spreading, which is weakly affected by the crossing angle between sea
 487 state components.

488 There are several limitations to this study. Only relatively steep wave conditions were
 489 studied and the values of directional spreading were below those typical of ocean wind
 490 waves. For the tests with two different peak frequencies it is likely that a longer basin
 491 would be needed to observe the full spectral development. Directional analysis at the far
 492 end of the tank showed that the requested input spectra were generally well reproduced
 493 in the tank, but differences between the measured and requested spectra noted were: a
 494 slight reduction the crossing angle for the larger crossing angles and merging of the two
 495 components when the crossing angle was smaller. Reliably estimating the directional
 496 spreading of complex seas is difficult with point measurement wave gauges even at
 497 the pentagon array. New measurement techniques need to be developed to capture the
 498 development across the whole basin, in particular the directional spectra need to be
 499 measured at multiple locations to improve the estimate of directional spreading.

500 Overall the results presented here indicate that the kurtosis and maximum wave and
 501 crest height is more dependent on the component directional spreading than the crossing
 502 angle for crossing directionally spread seas. Bitner-Gregersen and Toffoli (2014) on the
 503 basis of numerical studies emphasise the role of energy (steepness) and frequency on
 504 rogue wave probability and find that the maximum kurtosis occurs for 40° independent
 505 of directional spreading. This suggests that further work is required to find when the
 506 kurtosis becomes less dependent on crossing angle and more dependent on directional
 507 spreading and to investigate the effect of steepness experimentally.

508 5. Conclusions

509 Laboratory experiments of two-component, directionally spread irregular waves were
 510 performed in one of the largest wave basins in the world. The effects of directional

511 spreading, crossing angle and peak frequency on the development of the statistical
512 properties of surface waves down the tank were investigated.

513 Overall, the directional spreading of the individual components appears to have more
514 effect on the kurtosis and the exceedance probabilities than the crossing angle between the
515 components. In particular, for one test condition with narrower directional spreading of
516 both components the kurtosis and wave height exceedance probabilities were significantly
517 increased compared to conditions with broader component directional spreading with the
518 same crossing angle.

519 The kurtosis rarely exceeds the second-order theoretical value for the two-component
520 crossing seas investigated here. The number of rogue waves in these experiments was
521 relatively low, in agreement with previous experiments involving single component di-
522 rectionally spread waves. The directionally spread test cases are found to be quite well
523 grouped around a second-order correlation between kurtosis and skewness describing the
524 effect of bound waves.

525 The wave height distribution is generally grouped around the Rayleigh distribution
526 while the wave crest heights generally slightly exceed the second-order Tayfun distribu-
527 tion. For the test condition with narrower directional spreading of both components, the
528 wave height distribution developed from well below the Rayleigh distribution at $x/\lambda_p =$
529 3.2 to close to the Modified Edgeworth Rayleigh (MER) distribution at $x/\lambda_p = 22.4$ which
530 was also the test and location with the highest kurtosis measured in all two-component
531 tests. This suggests that linear and non-linear processes take place down the tank and
532 change the statistical wave properties. The MER distribution appears more appropriate
533 for conditions with high kurtosis.

534 To our knowledge, we are first to apply the empirical relationship between kurtosis and
535 directional spreading derived by Mori et al. (2011) to two-component directionally spread
536 crossing seas. The results showed that the kurtosis can be estimated reasonably well from
537 the overall mean directional spreading using the empirical relationship including bound
538 mode effects. This result opens the prospect of predicting the kurtosis from the directional
539 spectrum, which can be then used in the estimation of the probability of extreme waves,
540 but this will require further laboratory and field investigations.

541 The work described in this publication was supported by the European Community
542 Seventh Framework Programme through a grant to the budget of the Integrating Activity
543 HYDRALAB IV, Contract number 261520. This work was also partially supported by
544 MEXT/JSPS KAKENHI grant number 19H00782 in Japan and through the EPSRC
545 SUPERGEN Wind Phase 2 (reference EP/H018662/1) programme in the UK. We would
546 like to thank the staff of the MARINTEK facility Dr Csaba Pakodzi, Dr Carl Trygve
547 Stansberg and Dr Ivar Nygaard and also Dr Victor Efimov from the Institute of Solid
548 State Physics RAS, Chernogolovka for important contributions to the experiments and
549 for useful discussions.

REFERENCES

- 550 Benjamin, T. B., and J. E. Feir, 1967: The disintegration of wavetrains in deep water. part 1.
551 *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **27**, 417–430.
- 552 Bitner-Gregersen, E. M., and A. Toffoli, 2014: Occurrence of rogue sea states and consequences
553 for marine structures. *Ocean Dynamics*, **64** (10), 1457–1468.
- 554 Boukhanovsky, A. V., L. J. Lopatoukhin, and C. Guedes Soares, 2007: Spectral wave climate of
555 the North Sea. *Applied Ocean Research*, **29** (3), 146–154.
- 556 Brennan, J., J. M. Dudley, and F. Dias, 2018: Extreme waves in crossing sea states. *Int. J.*
557 *Ocean Coast. Eng.*, **1** (1), 1–13, , URL <http://arxiv.org/abs/1802.03547>, 1802.03547.

- 558 Buchner, B., G. Forristall, K. C. Ewans, M. Christou, and J. Henning, 2011: New insights in
559 extreme crest height distributions (A summary of the CresT JIP). *Proc. 30th Int. Conf.*
560 *Offshore Mech. Arct. Eng.*, 1–16.
- 561 Dean, R., 1990: Freak waves: a possible explanation. *Water Wave Kinematics*, A. Trum, and
562 O. Gudmestad, Eds., NATO ASI Series, Vol. 178, Springer Netherlands, pp 609–612.
- 563 Dysthe, K., H. E. Krogstad, and P. Müller, 2008: Oceanic Rogue Waves. *Annu. Rev. Fluid*
564 *Mech.*, **40** (1), 287–310, .
- 565 Fedele, F., 2008: Rogue waves in oceanic turbulence. *Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena*, **237**,
566 2127 – 2131.
- 567 Fedele, F., J. Brennan, S. Ponce De León, J. Dudley, and F. Dias, 2016: Real world ocean rogue
568 waves explained without the modulational instability. *Sci. Rep.*, **6** (June), 1–11, , URL
569 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/srep27715>.
- 570 Fedele, F., and M. A. Tayfun, 2009: On nonlinear wave groups and crest statistics. *Journal of*
571 *Fluid Mechanics*, **620**, 221–239.
- 572 Forristall, G. Z., 1978: On the statistical distribution of wave heights in a storm. *Journal of*
573 *Geophysical Research*, **83** (C5), 23532358.
- 574 Forristall, G. Z., 2000: Wave Crest Distributions: Observations and Second-Order Theory.
575 *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, **30** (8), 1931–1943.
- 576 Frigaard, P., and Coauthors, 1997: IAHR list of sea state parameters. *Proceedings of the 27th*
577 *IAHR Congress, Seminar: Multi-Directional Waves and Their Interaction with Structures*,
578 15–19.
- 579 Gibson, R. S., and C. Swan, 2007: The evolution of large ocean waves: the role of local and
580 rapid spectral changes. *Proceedings Of The Royal Society A - Mathematical Physical and*
581 *Engineering Sciences*, **463** (2077), 21.
- 582 Gramstad, O., E. Bitner-Gregersen, K. Trulsen, and J. C. Nieto Borge, 2018: Modulational
583 Instability and Rogue Waves in Crossing Sea States. *J. Phys. Oceanogr.*, **48** (6), 1317–
584 1331, , URL <http://journals.ametsoc.org/doi/10.1175/JPO-D-18-0006.1>.
- 585 Gramstad, O., and K. Trulsen, 2007: Influence of crest and group length on the occurrence of
586 freak waves. *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **582**, 463–472.
- 587 Gramstad, O., and K. Trulsen, 2010: Can swell increase the number of freak waves in a wind
588 sea? *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **650**, 57–79.
- 589 Grönlund, A., B. Eliasson, and M. Marklund, 2009: Evolution of rogue waves in interacting wave
590 systems. *EPL (Europhysics Letters)*, **86** (2), 24001.
- 591 Isobe, M., K. Kondo, and K. Horikawa, 1984: Extension of MLM for estimating directional
592 wave spectrum. *Proceedings Symposium on Description and Modelling of Directional Seas*,
593 Copenhagen, A-6-1 – A-6-15.
- 594 Janssen, P. A. E. M., 2003: Nonlinear four-wave interactions and freak waves. *Journal of Physical*
595 *Oceanography*, **33** (4), 863–884.
- 596 Johnson, D., 2012: *DIWASP, a directional wave spectra toolbox for MATLAB®: User Manual.*
597 *Research Report WP-1601-DJ (V1.1)*, Centre for Water Research, University of Western
598 Australia. Centre for Water Research, University of Western Australia.
- 599 Kharif, C., and E. Pelinovsky, 2003: Physical mechanisms of the rogue wave phenomenon.
600 *European Journal Of Mechanics B-fluids*, **22**(6), 603–634.
- 601 Longuet-Higgins, M., D. E. Cartwright, and N. D. Smith, 1963: Observations of the directional
602 spectrum of sea waves using the motions of a floating buoy. *Ocean Wave Spectra*, Prentice-
603 Hall, Easton, Maryland, pp. 111–136.
- 604 Longuet-Higgins, M. S., 1980: On the distribution of the heights of sea waves: Some effects of
605 nonlinearity and finite band width. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans (1978–2012)*,
606 **85** (C3), 1519–1523.
- 607 Mcallister, M. L., S. Draycott, T. A. A. Adcock, P. H. Taylor, and T. S. van den Bremer, 2019:
608 Laboratory recreation of the Draupner wave and the role of breaking in crossing seas. *J.*
609 *Fluid Mech.*, **860**, 767–786, .
- 610 Mori, N., 2012: Freak waves under typhoon conditions. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,
611 **117** (C00J07), 12, .
- 612 Mori, N., and P. A. E. M. Janssen, 2006: On kurtosis and occurrence probability of freak waves.
613 *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, **36** (7), 1471–1483.
- 614 Mori, N., M. Onorato, and P. A. E. M. Janssen, 2011: On the estimation of the kurtosis in

- 615 directional sea states for freak wave forecasting. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, **41** (8),
616 1484–1497.
- 617 Onorato, M., A. R. Osborne, and M. Serio, 2002: Extreme wave events in directional, random
618 oceanic sea states. *Phys. Fluids*, **14** (4).
- 619 Onorato, M., A. R. Osborne, and M. Serio, 2006: Modulational instability in crossing sea states:
620 A possible mechanism for the formation of freak waves. *Physical Review Letters*, **96** (1),
621 014503.
- 622 Onorato, M., D. Proment, and A. Toffoli, 2010: Freak waves in crossing seas. *The European*
623 *Physical Journal Special Topics*, **185** (1), 45–55.
- 624 Onorato, M., and Coauthors, 2009: Statistical properties of mechanically generated surface
625 gravity waves: a laboratory experiment in a three-dimensional wave basin. *Journal of*
626 *Fluid Mechanics*, **627**, 235–257.
- 627 Petrova, P. G., and C. Guedes Soares, 2009: Probability distributions of wave heights in bimodal
628 seas in an offshore basin. *Applied Ocean Research*, **31** (2), 90–100.
- 629 Sabatino, A. D., and M. Serio, 2015: Experimental investigation on statistical properties of wave
630 heights and crests in crossing sea conditions. *Ocean Dynamics*, **65** (5), 707–720.
- 631 Semedo, A., K. Sušelj, A. Rutgersson, and A. Sterl, 2011: A global view on the wind sea and
632 swell climate and variability from ERA-40. *Journal of Climate*, **24** (5), 1461–1479.
- 633 Shemer, L., and S. A., 2009: An experimental study of spatial evolution of statistical parameters
634 in a unidirectional narrow-banded random wavefield. *J. Geophys. Res.*, **114** (C01015).
- 635 Shukla, P. K., I. Kourakis, B. Eliasson, M. Marklund, and L. Stenflo, 2006: Instability and
636 evolution of nonlinearly interacting water waves. *Physical Review Letters*, **97** (9), 094501.
- 637 Srokosz, M. A., and M. S. Longuet-Higgins, 1986: On the skewness of sea-surface elevation.
638 *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **164**, 487–497.
- 639 Stansberg, C. T., 1994: Effects from directionality and spectral bandwidth on non-linear spatial
640 modulations of deep-water surface gravity wave trains. *Coastal Engineering*, 579–593.
- 641 Støle-Hentschel, S., K. Trulsen, L. B. Rye, and A. Raustøl, 2018: Extreme wave statistics of
642 counter-propagating, irregular, long-crested sea states. *Phys. Fluids*, **30** (6), .
- 643 Tayfun, M. A., 1980: Narrow-band nonlinear sea waves. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*
644 (1978–2012), **85** (C3), 1548–1552.
- 645 Toffoli, A., E. M. Bitner-Gregersen, A. R. Osborne, M. Serio, J. Monbaliu, and M. Onorato,
646 2011: Extreme waves in random crossing seas: Laboratory experiments and numerical
647 simulations. *Geophysical Research Letters*, **38** (6), 5 pp.
- 648 Toffoli, A., O. Gramstad, K. Trulsen, J. Monbaliu, E. M. Bitner-Gregersen, and M. Onorato,
649 2010a: Evolution of weakly nonlinear random directional waves: Laboratory experiments
650 and numerical simulations. *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **664**, 313–336.
- 651 Toffoli, A., J. M. Lefevre, E. Bitner-Gregersen, and J. Monbaliu, 2005: Towards the identification
652 of warning criteria: analysis of a ship accident database. *Applied Ocean Research*, **27** (6),
653 281–291.
- 654 Toffoli, A., M. Onorato, E. M. Bitner-Gregersen, and J. Monbaliu, 2010b: Development of a
655 bimodal structure in ocean wave spectra. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans (1978–*
656 *2012)*, **115** (C3).
- 657 Toffoli, A., and Coauthors, 2013: Experimental evidence of the modulation of a plane wave to
658 oblique perturbations and generation of rogue waves in finite water depth. *Phys. Fluids*,
659 **25** (9), , URL <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.4821810>.
- 660 Trulsen, K., J. C. Nieto Borge, O. Gramstad, L. Aouf, and J. M. Lefevre, 2015: Crossing sea
661 state and rogue wave probability during the Prestige accident. *J. Geophys. Res. Ocean.*,
662 **120** (10), 7113–7136, .
- 663 Waseda, T., T. Kinoshita, and H. Tamura, 2009: Evolution of a random directional wave and
664 freak wave occurrence. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, **39** (3), 621–639.
- 665 Xiao, W., Y. Liu, G. Wu, and D. Yue, 2013: Rogue wave occurrence and dynamics by direct
666 simulations of nonlinear wave-field evolution. *Journal of Fluid Mechanics*, **720**, 357–392.