

1 Solving Coastal Dynamics: Introduction to High Resolution Ocean

2 Forecasting Services

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13 **Abstract.** Coastal services are fundamental for society, with approximately 60% of the world's population living within 60
14 km of the coast. Thus, predicting ocean variables with high accuracy is a challenge that requires numerical models able to
15 simulate from mesoscale to submesoscale processes, to capture shallow water dynamics influenced by wetting-drying and
16 resolve the ocean variables in very high-resolution spatial domains. This paper introduces key aspects of coastal modelling,
17 such as vertical structure of the mixed layer depth, parameterization of bottom roughness and the dissipation of kinetic energy
18 in coastal areas. It stresses the need for models to account for the nonlinear interactions between tidal currents, wind waves,
19 and small-scale weather patterns, emphasizing their significance in refining coastal predictions. In addition, observational
20 advancements, such as high-frequency (HF) radar and satellite missions like SWOT, provide unique opportunities to observe
21 coastal dynamics. This integration enhances our ability to model physical and dynamical peculiarities in coastal waters,
22 estuaries, and ports. Coastal models not only benefit from such high-resolution observations but also contribute to evolving
23 observational systems, creating feedback loops that refine monitoring and prediction capabilities. Modelling strategies are also
24 examined, including downscaling and upscaling approaches, and numerical challenges like implementing robust data
25 assimilation schemes to refine estimations of coastal ocean states are addressed. Emerging techniques, such as advanced
26 turbulence closure models and dynamic vegetation drag parameterization, are highlighted for their role in enhancing the
27 realism of modeled coastal processes. Furthermore, the integration of atmospheric forcing, tidal asymmetries, and estuarine
28 dynamics underlines the necessity for models that span the complexities of the coastal continuum. It also demonstrates the
29 critical importance of accurately modelling coastal and estuarine systems to capture interactions between mesoscale and
30 submesoscale processes, their connections to broader oceanic systems, and their implications for sustainable coastal
31 management and climate resilience. This work underscores the potential of advancing coastal forecasting systems through
32 interdisciplinary innovation, paving the way for enhanced scientific understanding and practical applications.

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36 High resolution observation and modelling are needed so that marine services can be compliant with small-scale processes in
37 the ocean, particularly in coastal areas where these processes have a significant impact on dynamics and biogeochemistry
38 (Figure 1). The importance of high resolution in coastal services is underscored by the coastal ocean's significance to humanity,
39 not least because about 60% of the world's population lives within 60 km of the coast (Rao et al., 2008). These areas are highly
40 dynamic, subject to both direct and indirect anthropogenic impacts, respectively, such as eutrophication, overfishing, offshore
41 wind farm development, dredging, and pollution, global warming, sea level rise and changes in meteorological and
42 hydrological conditions. These combined influences frequently trigger regime shifts, coastal erosion, flooding, and the
43 introduction of invasive species, underscoring the vulnerability and complexity of these systems.

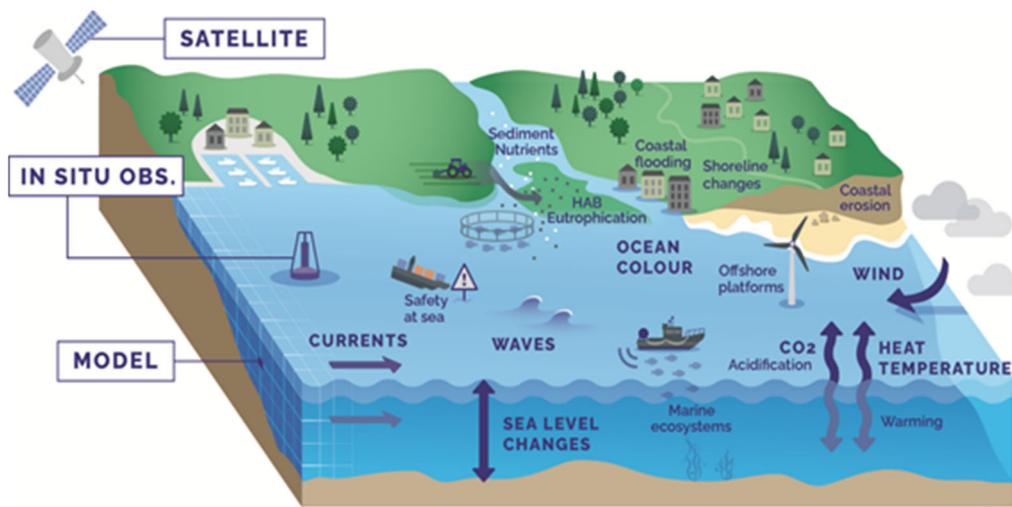
44 Accurately predicting ocean variables in coastal environments is challenging due to the need to resolve mesoscale to
45 submesoscale dynamics and their interactions with atmospheric and hydrological processes. The inherent variability of these
46 systems requires models that can account for a wide range of phenomena, including tidal asymmetries, wetting-drying cycles,
47 nonstationary river and atmospheric forcing, and nonlinear feedback mechanisms between tidal currents and wind waves
48 (Staneva et al., 2017). These processes influence mixing, ocean circulation, and the accuracy of sea surface temperature
49 predictions. Thus, high-resolution models are indispensable for capturing the fine-scale interactions that drive coastal dynamics
50 and shape biogeochemical responses.

51 Observational data play a pivotal role in advancing coastal modelling. High-frequency (HF) radar and novel high resolution
52 satellite missions offer unprecedented opportunities to observe and understand coastal processes with fine spatial and temporal
53 resolution (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019). These data sources are integral to improving the representation of physical and
54 biogeochemical variability in the models, bridging the gap between observations and predictive frameworks. By integrating
55 data from remote sensing and in situ platforms, coupled with advanced data assimilation techniques, models can better capture
56 the complexity of estuarine and nearshore processes.

57 ~~Changes occurring in the coastal ocean are attributed to both direct human impacts and climate change. Anthropogenic impacts~~
58 ~~encompass factors such as eutrophication, overfishing, offshore wind farm construction, dredging, and pollution. Natural~~
59 ~~changes in the coastal ocean result from sea-level rise, global warming, and alterations in meteorological and hydrological~~
60 ~~conditions such as precipitation, evaporation, wind patterns, and river run-off. These natural and human-induced changes can~~
61 ~~lead to significant regime shifts, including alterations in biogeochemistry, increased coastal erosion, heightened flooding risks,~~
62 ~~and the proliferation of invasive species, among other impacts.~~

63 Science-based services in the coastal ocean are essential for ensuring efficient management, sustainable use of coastal systems,
64 and the development of strategies that are adaptable to the changing climate, including sea-level rise. These efforts, for
65 example, align with the marine strategy framework directive in the European context (Hyder et al., 2015).

66 The aim of this paper is to introduce high-resolution ocean forecasting services that address the challenges of coastal dynamics
67 by improving predictions of physical and biogeochemical processes. It focuses on the integration of advanced modelling
68 techniques and modern observational tools to enhance understanding of small-scale dynamics and their connections to larger
69 ocean systems. The paper first describes the spatial scales and processes that high-resolution models address, focusing on local,
70 regional, and transitional zones. It then explores advanced observational tools, such as satellite missions and HF radars, and
71 their role in improving coastal forecasts. Following this, the discussion highlights numerical modelling techniques, including
72 turbulence modelling and bottom drag parameterization, which are essential for capturing small-scale coastal dynamics. It also
73 examines the role of data assimilation techniques and observing system experiments in improving prediction accuracy and
74 guiding the design of observation networks. Finally, the paper concludes with a summary of findings, identifies current
75 challenges, and outlines future directions for advancing coastal forecasting systems. By addressing these topics, the paper aims
76 to support the development of more robust and adaptable tools for coastal forecasting, which are critical for sustainable
77 management and improving resilience to environmental changes.



80

81 **Figure 1: Schematic representation of the coastal zone, hazards (e.g. HAB (harmful algae bloom), metocean and biogeochemical**
82 **variables, as well as observations and applications (adapted from Melet et al., 2020).**

83 **2 Typical spatial scales and processes solved by high-resolution services**

84 High-resolution services in the coastal ocean operate at various spatial scales depending on the specific applications and
85 objectives. These scales can range from local to regional levels, aiming to capture fine-scale processes and variations. Here
86 are some typical spatial scales for high-resolution services:

87 *1. Local Scale:* At the local scale, high-resolution services focus on small coastal areas, such as individual bays, estuaries, or
88 nearshore zones. These services aim to provide detailed information and predictions for specific locations of interest. Spatial
89 resolutions in this range can be on the order of meters to a few kilometers, allowing for precise observations and modelling of
90 localized processes.

91 *2. Coastal Scale:* High-resolution services at the coastal scale cover larger coastal regions, spanning multiple bays, estuaries,
92 and coastal zones. These services provide a broader view of the coastal environment and its dynamics. Spatial resolutions in
93 this range typically range from meters to a kilometer, enabling the capture of coastal- to regional-scale variations and
94 interactions.

95 *3. Transition Zones:* Transition zones refer to areas where coastal and open ocean processes interact. These zones often exhibit
96 complex dynamics and are of particular interest for high-resolution services. Spatial resolutions in transition zones can vary
97 depending on the specific characteristics and objectives, but they generally aim to capture the intricate interactions between
98 coastal and open ocean processes.

99 A collection of 11 recent studies on operational coastal services utilizing high-resolution models offers significant insights into
100 the relevant spatial scales, objectives, and applications, thereby strengthening the analysis in this context (Sotillo, 2022). Eddies
101 or isolated vortices, meandering currents or fronts and filaments are characteristic features of oceanic mesoscale processes.
102 These processes typically exhibit spatial scales ranging from 10 to 500 kilometers, depending on geographic latitude and
103 stratification, and time scales ranging from several days to approximately 100 days. Submesoscale processes in the ocean, on
104 the other hand, are characterized by smaller scales, typically ranging from 1 to 10 kilometers (McWilliams, 2016). These scales
105 are smaller than the Rossby radius of deformation. Submesoscale processes also have shorter temporal scales, usually lasting
106 only a few hours, and their relative vorticity is greater than the Coriolis parameter f . In contrast, for mesoscale motion, the
107 relative vorticity is comparable to f . Overall, studying and observing submesoscale processes require advanced techniques and
108 methods to overcome their small scale and rapid variability, but their understanding is crucial for comprehending the intricate
109 dynamics of the ocean.

110 The surface and bottom mixed layers in the open ocean occupy just a tiny part of the ocean volume because these layers are
111 much thinner than the almost viscousless ocean interior. However, in the coastal zone, drag parameterizations become
112 increasingly important in shallow water, and even more so where the impact of vegetation is significant. Furthermore, a large
113 part of kinetic energy in the ocean is dissipated in the coastal zone, which necessitates an adequate modelling of this important
114 small-scale process, vital for the global energy balance (Munk and Wunsch, 1998). To accurately represent the coastal
115 dynamics and the fine structure of these layers, models need to resolve the vertical structure of the mixed layers. This
116 requirement necessitates the use of turbulence closure models, which account for the effects of turbulence and mixing in these
117 regions. Additionally, models for coastal processes need to consider the impact of bottom drag. The parameterization of bottom
118 roughness, often based on the grain size distribution, allows for the inclusion of bottom drag effects. In cases where vegetation
119 is present, drag parameterizations become even more important. A significant portion of the kinetic energy in the ocean is
120 dissipated in the coastal zone. Therefore, it is crucial to adequately model these small-scale processes in order to maintain a

121 balanced representation of the global energy dynamics. Understanding and accurately simulating the dissipation of kinetic
122 energy in coastal areas contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the ocean's energy budget.

123 In shallow water, the variability of surface elevation caused by tides and storms becomes comparable to the water depth itself.
124 In some coastal areas, shallow-water tides play a significant role in the overall tidal dynamics. To improve the accuracy of
125 tidal predictions in shelf regions, it is necessary to consider higher harmonics and assess the ability of ocean models to fully
126 resolve the tidal spectrum.

127 Some important processes, such as the nonlinear feedback between strong tidal currents and wind waves, cannot be ignored in
128 the coastal zone (Staneva et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2017). Wave-current coupling tends to decrease strong winds through wave-
129 dependent surface roughness (Wahle et al., 2017), affects mixing and ocean circulation, and improves predictions for sea
130 surface temperature. Further examples of the value of the incorporation of coupling in the numerical models in the coastal
131 ocean are given by De Mey-Frémaux et al. (2019). These scientific developments of operational oceanography are in pace
132 with the trend in the Earth System modelling to seamlessly couple different environmental prediction components of
133 atmosphere, waves, hydrology, and ice.

134 The small spatial scales characteristic of coastal and estuarine systems requires coastal models to consider ageostrophic
135 (deviating from the Earth's rotation) and three-dimensional dynamics, primarily driven by boundary-layer processes (Fringer
136 et al., 2019). Understanding these small-scale processes is crucial, particularly the interactions between mesoscale and sub-
137 mesoscale dynamics and their connection to larger-scale processes. It is essential to improve the representation of exchanges
138 between the coastal and open ocean, as well as their coupling with estuaries and catchment areas, in order to capture the
139 complexity of coastal systems. Accounting for high-resolution atmospheric forcing in the coastal models is essential for
140 accurately capturing local meteorological dynamics, including wind patterns, temperature gradients, and precipitation rates.
141 Such detailed atmospheric data drive fundamental processes like heat and momentum fluxes, profoundly influencing coastal
142 hydrodynamics, sediment transport, and ecosystem responses. The implementation of a novel high-resolution atmospheric
143 forcing, combined with the refinement of bulk formulae for surface flux computations, significantly enhances the performance
144 of various high-resolution modelling systems for port environments (García-León et al.). Coastal models need to accurately
145 account for frictional balances, taking into consideration the effects of friction on the movement of water. They must also
146 address wetting and drying processes, as well as hydrological forcing, to capture the transitions between shallow environments
147 and larger regional scales. By incorporating these factors, models can provide a more realistic representation of coastal
148 dynamics. In addition, the grid characteristics used in coastal models should be carefully selected to accurately represent the
149 dominant spatial scales present in the coastal environment. Choosing grid resolutions that capture the essential features of the
150 coastal system is crucial for obtaining reliable and meaningful results.

151 In the coastal ocean, characteristic time scales are significantly shorter compared to the global ocean. These time scales,
152 typically around 1 day, are determined by various processes, including tides, inertial motion, diurnal cycles, and synoptic
153 weather patterns. The fast-paced dynamics of the coastal ocean require models to accurately capture these shorter time scales.
154 In estuaries, the periodicity becomes more complex due to strong tidal asymmetries and the presence of secondary circulation

155 patterns. The interactions between tidal forcing, river flow and estuarine geometry result in intricate and variable periodic
156 patterns. (as shown in Campuzano et al. 2022 for the Western Iberian Buoyant Plume, Sotillo et al. 2021 for the whole European
157 Atlantic façade, Pein et al. 2021 for the Elbe Estuary). The periodicity observed in coastal seas is mainly influenced by external
158 forcing signals, such as atmospheric conditions or remote ocean signals. These external signals propagate in the coastal models
159 through the specification of lateral boundary conditions, which is a crucial aspect of modelling in coastal areas. Unlike global
160 models that can operate without open boundaries, coastal models require careful consideration of these boundary conditions
161 to accurately represent the interactions between the coastal and open ocean.

162 The predictability limit of models depends on the geophysical processes. For synoptic processes in the open ocean, this limit
163 is on the order of weeks to months. For the coastal ocean, it is on the order of hours to days. The loss of predictability, associated
164 with nonlinear processes, is exemplified by the growth of errors in predictive models. Assimilation of data containing spatial
165 and temporal scales below the predictability limit is needed to address this issue. Simulations at grid resolutions that would
166 sufficiently resolve the coastal submesoscale would require horizontal grid resolutions of approximately 1-10 meters in
167 estuaries and 0.1-1 kilometer in coastal shelf domains. However, achieving such high resolutions poses significant
168 computational challenges and resource demands.

169 By employing high-resolution services with appropriate spatial scales, scientists and stakeholders can gain a more detailed and
170 accurate understanding of coastal processes, improve forecasting capabilities, and support effective coastal management and
171 decision-making.

172 **3 State-of-the-art data and tools for coastal forecasting**

173 **3.1 Required observations**

174 Observing systems are spatiotemporally sparse in coastal regions compared to the small scales of ecosystem variability found
175 there. A crucial challenge in observations is addressing the variety of important spatial and temporal scales within the coastal
176 continuum, which encompasses the seamless transition from the deep ocean to estuaries through the shelf. In order to achieve
177 this, observations should sample the multiscale, two-way interactions of estuarine, nearshore, and shelf processes with open
178 ocean processes. Additionally, they need to account for the different pace of circulation drivers, such as fast atmospheric and
179 tidal processes, as well as the slower general ocean circulation and climate forcing. It is also important to accurately sample
180 the gradients of biological production, ranging from mesotrophic estuaries to oligotrophic oceans. Given the current situation,
181 observational practices and strategies need to be strongly coupled with numerical modelling to effectively extract the
182 information contained in the data and advance the quality of coastal services.

183 Most global and regional prediction products use a combination of satellite observations and in situ observations. Traditionally,
184 in situ observations constituted the major data source for coastal ocean monitoring. During the end of the past century, satellite
185 observations contributed significantly to the understanding of spatial variabilities. Novel instruments, such as the acoustic
186 Doppler current profiler (ADCP), which measures current profiles throughout the water column, enhanced our understanding

187 of current shear and bottom stress. Nowadays, high-resolution numerical simulations in the coastal ocean are keeping pace
188 with high-resolution observations. A similar trend is observed in coastal waters, estuaries, and ports, which are rich in different
189 activities and interests: fishing, recreational activities, search and rescue, protection of habitats, storm forecasts, maritime
190 industries, as well as routine maintenance operations (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019).

191 The coastal ocean observations only are not sufficient to fully support the present-day need for high-quality ocean forecasting
192 and monitoring because measurements may represent very localized and short scale dynamics, and it is not straightforward to
193 know how fully they describe the complex coastal system. Therefore, recent practices employ the synergy between
194 observations and numerical modelling, which ensures valuable research advancements and practical implementations
195 (Kourafalou et al., 2015a, 2015b). The core components of operational oceanographic systems consist of a multi-platform
196 observation network, a data management system, a data assimilative prediction system, and a dissemination/accessibility
197 system (Kourafalou et al., 2015a; De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019; Davidson et al., 2019). By combining observations and models
198 through data assimilation methods, ranging from coastal to global and from in situ to satellite-based, we can assess ocean
199 conditions and create reliable forecasts. This integration adds value to coastal observations and enables a wide range of
200 applications (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019; Ponte et al., 2019), as well as providing decision-making support. For a
201 comprehensive review of ocean monitoring and forecasting activities in both the open and coastal oceans, please refer to
202 Siddorn et al. (2016).

203 High-frequency radars (HFR) offer unique spatial resolution by providing reliable directional wave information and gridded
204 data of surface currents in almost real time. The use of HFR networks has become an essential element of coastal ocean
205 observing systems, contributing to high-level coastal services (Stanev et al., 2016; Rubio et al., 2017; Reyes et al., 2022). The
206 outputs from prediction systems extend the utility of HFR observations beyond the immediate observation area (Stanev et al.,
207 2015), enabling adequate estimates even where no direct observations have been made. This demonstrates how models connect
208 observations, synthesize them, and assist in the design of observational networks. In turn, observations can guide the
209 development of coastal models (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019).

210 Alongside ADCP data, HFR data are used for skill assessment of operational wave and circulation models (Lorente et al.,
211 2016). Another valuable source of fine-resolution data in the coastal region is provided by color data from satellites. In terms
212 of sea level observations, some challenges associated with the use of altimeter data in the coastal zone are expected to be
213 overcome through the use of wide-swath Surface Water and Ocean Topography (SWOT) technology. SWOT is a landmark
214 satellite mission that delivers two-dimensional sea surface height observations at high resolution across a 120 km swath. It
215 represents a major step forward in resolving mesoscale and submesoscale features critical to coastal dynamics. Recent
216 Observing System Simulation Experiments (OSSEs) have demonstrated that wide-swath altimetry substantially enhances
217 ocean forecasting capabilities. For instance, a constellation of two SWOT-like wide-swath altimeters provides a ~14%
218 reduction in sea surface height forecast error compared to a 12-nadir altimeter constellation and also improves estimates of
219 surface currents and Lagrangian trajectories (Benkiran et al., 2024). These results highlight the importance of SWOT-type
220 observations for resolving small-scale coastal variability and improving model-data integration.

221 Further advances in coastal observations are enabled by autonomous platforms such as Slocum gliders. These gliders can carry
 222 a wide array of physical and biogeochemical sensors and perform repeated transects, thus providing high-resolution
 223 observations of dynamic features such as eddies, frontal systems, and upwelling events. Their operational flexibility and ability
 224 to collect subsurface data make them valuable for both sustained monitoring and adaptive sampling strategies (Rudnick, 2016;
 225 Testor et al., 2019). In parallel, satellite technologies continue to evolve. Moreover, the Japanese geostationary meteorological
 226 satellite Himawari-8 provides high-frequency (every 10 minutes) and high-resolution (up to 500 m) visible and infrared
 227 imagery. These capabilities allow for near-real-time monitoring of sea surface temperature (SST), making it possible to track
 228 rapidly evolving coastal phenomena such as diurnal warming, river plumes, and thermal fronts (Kurihara et al., 2016).
 229 These complementary in situ and remote sensing platforms represent essential components of integrated coastal observing
 230 systems, supporting the growing demand for accurate forecasts, early warnings, and data-driven decision-making tools.
 231

232 3.2 Numerical models

233 Addressing specific processes in the coastal ocean and accurately modelling the transition between regional and coastal scales
 234 cannot be achieved solely by adjusting the model resolution. Certain processes, such as shallow-water tides, which are often
 235 overlooked in global and regional forecasting, play a dominant role in coastal ocean dynamics. The previous sections have
 236 highlighted the importance of a tailored approach in observational practices and numerical models for the coastal ocean. For
 237 further information on other popular coastal models, refer to the comprehensive discussion by Fringer et al. (2019).

238 **Table 1: Circulation models in alphabetical order, which can be used for coastal and regional studies and/or provision of services.**

Model	Citationan	C: Coastal, R: Regional, G: Global	Finte-volume (FV) or Finite-element (FE)
ADCIRC	Luetlich et al. (1992) Westerink et al. (1994)	C	FE
COAWST	Warner et al. (2008, 2010)	C/R	FV
COMPAS	Herzfeld et al. (2020)	C/R	FV
CROCO	Marchesiello et al. (2021)	C/R	FV
Delft3D	Delft3D-Flow User Manual (2024)	C	FV
FVCOM	Chen et al. (2003)	C/R/G	FV
GETM	Burchard and Bolding (2002)	C	FV

MITgcm	Marshall et al. (1997)	C/R/G	FV
MPAS	Ringler et al. (2013)	R/G	FV
NEMO	Madec et al., (2016)	C/R/G	FV
POMS	Blumberg and Mellor (1987), Mellor (2004)	C/R	FV
ROMS	Shchepetkin and McWilliams (2005)	R	FV
SCHISM	Zhang et al. (2016)	C/R/G	FV/FE
SELFE	Zhang and Baptista, 2008	C	FV/FE
SHYFEM	Umgiesser et al. (2004)	C	FE
SUNTANS	Fringer et al. (2006)	C	FV
TRIM/UnTRIM	Casulli (1999), Casulli and Zanolli (2002, 2005)	C	FV

239 **3.3 Fine resolution nested models, downscaling and upscaling**

240 High-resolution coastal services must properly resolve interactions between various coastal processes, including nearshore,
 241 estuarine, shelf, drying, and flooding dynamics. Achieving this requires a resolution of approximately 10-100 meters.
 242 Simultaneously, it is essential to capture open ocean processes at a resolution of around 1 kilometer or coarser. Common
 243 approaches employed in addressing this challenge include downscaling and multi-nesting techniques (e.g., Debreu et al., 2012;
 244 Kourafalou et al., 2015b; Trotta et al., 2017) as well as the use of unstructured-grid models (e.g., Zhang et al., 2016a, 2016b;
 245 Federico et al., 2017; Stanev et al., 2017; Ferrarin et al., 2018; Maicu et al., 2018). Another important aspect to consider is
 246 upscaling (Schulz-Stellenfleth and Stanev, 2016), which becomes relevant when addressing the two-way interaction between
 247 coastal and open-ocean systems.

248 Most coastal models are one-way nested, relying heavily on forcing data from larger-scale models as the coastal system is
 249 primarily influenced by the atmosphere, the hydrology and the open ocean. Enhancing the horizontal resolution of the North
 250 Sea operational model from 7 to 1.5 kilometers (Tonani et al., 2019) has shown improvements in off-shelf regions, but biases
 251 persist over the shelf area, indicating the need for further enhancements in surface forcing, vertical mixing, and light
 252 attenuation.

253 An important consideration in downscaling and coastal modelling is the treatment of open boundary conditions (OBCs), which
 254 play a critical role in determining model fidelity near the boundaries. OBCs are typically derived from larger-scale models but
 255 often require case-specific tuning to ensure dynamic consistency and minimize reflection or spurious signals. The choice and

256 configuration of OBCs—such as Flather-type, radiation conditions, or relaxation zones—can significantly affect the transport
257 and energy balance within the coastal model domain. Given the diversity of physical processes and geometries encountered in
258 coastal environments (Marchesiello et al., 2001). Models equipped with a wide suite of configurable boundary condition types
259 offer a practical advantage, particularly in multi-scale coupled frameworks. Ensuring consistency across nested domains while
260 preserving physical realism remains an ongoing challenge, motivating continued development and intercomparison of OBC
261 strategies in operational and research settings.

262 While the downscaling of information from coarser global or regional models to high-resolution coastal models is well-
263 established, the reverse process of upscaling is more challenging and continues to be a subject of research. Two-way nested
264 models allow assimilated information from coastal observations, typically not assimilated by larger-scale forecasting systems,
265 to propagate beyond the coastal region while maintaining dynamic consistency. This upscaling capability has the potential to
266 benefit regional models. Coastal observations have demonstrated their potential to improve boundary forcing or surface wind
267 forcing in regional models.

268 The coupling of a coarse-resolution regional model with a fine-resolution coastal model using a two-way nesting approach has
269 been studied in the context of the straits connecting the North and Baltic Seas. The intricate topography and narrow cross-
270 sections of the straits result in the dominance of small-scale motions, which play a vital role in the exchange between the two
271 seas and significantly influence Baltic Sea stratification. The two-way nesting method, design to exchange information
272 between the child model in the straits and the parent model in the seas, incorporates elements of data assimilation and allows
273 for different vertical discretizations in each model. The Adaptive Grid Refinement in FORTRAN (AGRIF), originally
274 developed by Debreu et al. (2008; 2012), has found wide application as a library for seamless spatial and temporal refinement
275 over rectangular regions in the NEMO modelling framework (<https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/wiki/WorkingGroups/AGRIF>).

276 ([Madec et al., 2024, Debreu et al., 2008](#))
277 Recent advancements in two-way nesting frameworks have demonstrated their effectiveness in improving multi-scale model
278 accuracy. The implementation of a general two-way nesting framework has enhanced the exchange of physical properties
279 between nested grids while preserving numerical stability and computational efficiency. Additionally, the integration of two-
280 way nesting in a global ocean model has significantly improved surface tidal accuracy, refining regional tidal dynamics without
281 compromising large-scale coherence (Herzfeld & Rizwi, 2019; Jeon et al., 2019). Further applications of AGRIF have
282 demonstrated improvements in hydrodynamic simulations and the estimation of environmental indicators in coastal systems,
283 underscoring its potential to refine fine-scale hydrodynamics while ensuring consistency with larger-scale ocean processes
284 (Petton et al., 2023).

285 The organization of these multi-model studies is identified by the coastal modelling community as a need. Firstly, to tackle
286 common assessments of the wide range of overlapping (global/basin/regional and local) models that are available for users in
287 some coastal zones. Secondly, these multi-model validation exercises, comparing the performance of global/regional “core”
288 model forecasts (i.e. from services such as the Copernicus Marine one) and coastal model solutions, nested into the formers,

289 are useful to identify the potential added value (and the limitations) of performed coastal downscaling with respect to the
290 “parent” core operational solutions, in which high-resolution coastal models are nested.
291 Frishfelds et al. (2025) highlight the benefits of on-demand coastal modeling employing two-way nesting, emphasizing its
292 capacity to dynamically refine coastal processes while maintaining consistency with larger-scale ocean simulations. This
293 approach enhances the accuracy and reliability of high-resolution forecasting systems, facilitating improved representation of
294 fine-scale coastal dynamics.

295 In that sense, these multi-model intercomparison exercises are key elements for many initiatives, such as the Horizon Europe
296 Project FOCCUS (Forecasting and Observing the Open-to-Coastal Ocean for Copernicus Users, <https://foccus-project.eu/>)
297 Project, that have in their core the enhancing of existing coastal downscaling capabilities, developing innovative coastal
298 forecasting products based on a seamless numerical forecasting from regional models of the Copernicus Marine Service
299 covering the EU regional seas, to Member States coastal forecasting systems (~~authors can add here any other pertinent reference~~
300 ~~from literature~~). Espino et al. (2022) emphasized the significance of extending Copernicus Marine Environmental Monitoring
301 Service (CMEMS) products to coastal regions, highlighting the integration of high-resolution models and observational data
302 to improve coastal forecasting capabilities. Their work underscores the importance of tailoring operational ocean models to
303 better capture nearshore dynamics, ensuring more accurate and actionable predictions for end-users.

304 Furthermore, and from an end-user perspective, multi-model studies focused on extreme event simulations provide valuable
305 ~~insights into~~ input on the performance of operational forecasting systems. For instance, Sotillo et al. (2021) examined the
306 record-breaking Western Mediterranean Storm Gloria by evaluating five different model systems, including Copernicus
307 Marine Service products (global, regional Mediterranean, and Atlantic IBI solutions) alongside two coastal nested models.
308 Such studies play a crucial role in assessing model accuracy, leveraging local HF radar observations, and informing future
309 improvements to regional and coastal forecasting services.

310 ~~Furthermore, and from an end-user perspective, multi-model study cases focused on extreme event simulations, such as the~~
311 ~~one performed by Sotillo et al. (2021) focused on the record-breaking Western Mediterranean Storm Gloria, allow to identify~~
312 ~~strengths and limitations of model solutions delivered by operational forecast services available in zones affected by extreme~~
313 ~~events; for instance, in the referred study case, 5 model systems were considered (including systems both from the Copernicus~~
314 ~~Marine service with usages of the Global and the regional Mediterranean and Atlantic IBI solutions and 2 coastal services~~
315 ~~nested into the regional solutions). This kind of multi-model study cases certainly help to enhance product quality assessments~~
316 ~~(in this Gloria Storm case, making extensive use of the local HF radar capabilities). In addition, it contributed for~~ increasing
317 the knowledge about the model systems in operations, and outlining future model service upgrades (both in the regional and
318 coastal services) aimed at achieving a better coastal forecasting ~~of~~, especially during the extreme events.

319 **3.4 Unstructured-Grid Models for Cross-Scale Coastal Dynamics**

320 The use of unstructured-grid models is crucial for cross-scale modelling and effectively addressing the interactions between
321 estuaries and the open ocean. One key aspect is the accurate representation of freshwater transformation from rivers, which is

322 often oversimplified in ocean models by specifying river runoff as a point source. Unstructured-grid models, while often
323 employing lower-order spatial discretizations due to interpolation complexities on irregular meshes, provide enhanced
324 flexibility in resolution placement and transition zones. This allows them to effectively capture subtidal, tidal, and intermittent
325 processes in coastal and estuarine environments, supporting a more realistic representation of estuarine dynamics and improved
326 coupling with estuarine models.

327 Compared to curvilinear and Cartesian grids, unstructured grids excel in resolving complex bathymetric features without
328 significant grid stretching. Since bathymetry plays a fundamental role in governing the dynamics of estuaries and the near
329 coastal zone, unstructured grid models offer greater accuracy and computational efficiency in numerical forecasting. Their
330 flexibility also enables more effective resolution of multiscale dynamic features. Fine spatial resolution in unstructured-grid
331 models allows for the resolution of secondary (transversal) circulation in estuaries and straits, thereby improving mixing and
332 enhancing the representation of long-channel changes in stratification, as demonstrated by Haid et al. (2020). Zhang et al.
333 (2016) have emphasized the role of cross-scale modeling in capturing multi-scale hydrodynamic interactions, particularly in
334 tidal straits, where unstructured-grid models enhance the representation of exchange flows and stratification dynamics. As
335 Ilicak et al. (2021) have shown, these advancements contribute to more precise simulations of estuarine and strait dynamics.
336 Recent research has further elucidated the mechanisms governing secondary circulation in tidal inlets. Chen et al. (2023)
337 demonstrated that subtidal secondary circulation can arise due to the covariance between eddy viscosity and velocity shear,
338 even in predominantly well-mixed tidal environments. This finding highlights the necessity of incorporating high-resolution
339 turbulence parameterizations within unstructured-grid models to accurately capture ~~submesoscales~~sub-mesoscale and cross-
340 channel processes, thereby improving the fidelity of numerical simulations in complex coastal and estuarine systems.

341 However, the construction of grids and ensuring reproducibility in unstructured-grid modelling still present challenges. Grid
342 generation is not always fully automated, and subjective decisions are often made based on the specific research problem,
343 applications, and intended services. The development of more objective grid construction methods and reproducibility
344 standards is an ongoing concern in unstructured-grid modelling (Candy and Pietrzak, 2018). One significant advancement is
345 the introduction of the JIGSAW mesh generator (Engwirda, 2017), which enables the creation of high-quality unstructured
346 grids designed to satisfy specific numerical requirements. JIGSAW produces centroidal Voronoi tessellations with well-
347 centred, orthogonal cell geometries that are particularly suitable for mimetic finite-volume schemes. JIGSAW incorporates
348 mesh optimisation strategies tailored to geophysical fluid dynamics and has been increasingly adopted in ocean modelling
349 applications.

350 ~~The~~Moreover, the generation of unstructured meshes is a critical component in configuring coastal and estuarine ocean models,
351 as it directly influences numerical accuracy, computational efficiency, and the ability to represent complex shoreline and
352 bathymetric features. Tools such as OceanMesh2D offer MATLAB-based workflows for high-quality, two-dimensional
353 unstructured mesh generation, facilitating user control over mesh density and coastal geometry resolution (Roberts et al., 2019).
354 Similarly, OPENCoastS provides an open-access, automated service that streamlines the setup of coastal forecast systems,
355 integrating mesh generation, model configuration, and forecast production (Oliveira et al., 2019, 2021). The OCSMesh

356 software developed by NOAA represents another important advancement. It enables data-driven, automated unstructured mesh
357 generation tailored for coastal ocean modeling, offering a robust framework to ensure mesh quality, reproducibility, and
358 interoperability with NOAA modeling systems (Mani et al., 2021). Together, these developments represent the ongoing
359 progress toward objective, reproducible, and user-oriented mesh generation in support of high-resolution coastal ocean
360 modelling.

361 **3.5 Observing System Simulation Experiments, Observing System Experiments and Data Assimilation**

362 Data assimilation in coastal regions presents challenges due to the presence of multiple scales and competing forcings from
363 open boundaries, rivers, and the atmosphere, which are often imperfectly known (Moore and Martin, 2019). Data assimilation
364 is particularly challenging in tidal environments (especially for meso- and macro-tidal environments; and not so in micro-tidal
365 coastal zones (De Mey et al., 2017, Stanev et al, 201, Holt et al, ~~2012~~2005). Studies by Oke et al. (2002), Wilkin et al. (2005),
366 Shulman and Paduan (2009), Stanev et al. (2015, 2016), and others have demonstrated the value of assimilating HF radar
367 observations to improve the estimation of the coastal ocean state.

368 Observing System Simulation Experiments (OSSE) and Observing System Experiments (OSE) are widely used techniques for
369 assessing and optimizing ocean observational systems. OSSEs involve numerical simulations that test the potential impact of
370 hypothetical observations on forecast models before actual observations are made, enabling improved planning and cost-
371 effective observational strategies. In contrast, OSEs assess the impact of existing observations by systematically removing
372 certain datasets from assimilation systems and evaluating the resulting degradation in model performance. OSSE and OSE
373 have the capability to incorporate diverse observing systems, including satellite-based observations, HF radars, buoys with
374 low-cost sensors, autonomous vehicles, and more. These approaches ~~provide valuable insights~~is useful for refining data
375 assimilation techniques and guiding the development of future observational networks. For further details, we refer readers to
376 Oke and Sakov (2012) and Fujii et al. (2019), who provide comprehensive discussions on the methodologies and applications
377 of OSSEs and OSEs in operational oceanography. an in-depth review of OSSE methodologies and insights into how OSSE
378 and OSE methodologies contribute to improving ocean forecasting, designing observational systems, and refining numerical
379 models is given in Zeng et al (2020). These approaches can help identify gaps in existing coastal observing networks, assess
380 operational failure scenarios, and evaluate the potential of future observation types. Pein et al. (2016) used an OSE-type
381 approach to investigate the impact of salinity measurements in the Ems Estuary on the reconstruction of the salinity field,
382 identifying observation locations that are more suitable for model-data synthesis. This type of analysis can contribute to the
383 design and optimization of both existing and future observational arrays, especially in coastal regions where fine resolution is
384 required.

385 **3.5 Riverine forcing and its role in coastal ocean Modeling**

386 Rivers play a critical role in shaping coastal circulation and stratification by delivering freshwater, nutrients, and sediments
387 that influence estuarine and shelf dynamics. The treatment of riverine inputs in ocean models remains a key source of

388 uncertainty, especially when estuarine plume dynamics and mixing processes are unresolved. In many coarse-resolution
389 systems, river discharge is prescribed via simplified surface or salinity fluxes, which may misrepresent the spatial structure
390 and strength of river plumes (Sun et al., 2017; Verri et al., 2020). To address this, high-resolution and regional-scale models
391 increasingly incorporate momentum-carrying river inflows or artificial estuarine channels (Herzfeld, 2015; Sobrinho et al.,
392 2021). For instance, Nguyen et al. (2024) demonstrated how high-resolution modeling in the German Bight captures the
393 hydrodynamic and biogeochemical responses to extreme river discharge events, showing significant implications for salinity,
394 stratification, and nutrient dispersion during floods. These findings underscore the importance of resolving riverine inflow
395 variability and extreme events in coastal ocean prediction systems.

396 Recent work has also focused on operational strategies for river forcing (Matte et al., 2024), including real-time discharge data
397 integration (e.g., from GloFAS; Harrigan et al., 2020), and estuary box models that approximate sub-grid plume behavior (Sun
398 et al., 2017). These approaches aim to enhance predictive capabilities while maintaining computational feasibility in global-
399 to-coastal modeling chains. Choosing the appropriate river input strategy is therefore application-dependent and strongly
400 influenced by spatial resolution and target phenomena.

401 **3.6 Integration of AI in Coastal Modeling and Forecasting**

402 The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) techniques in ocean and coastal forecasting has rapidly
403 evolved, providing novel methodologies for improving predictive accuracy, computational efficiency, and data assimilation in
404 operational models. Recent advances in AI-based approaches for parameterizing subgrid-scale processes, hybrid modelling
405 techniques, and ensemble forecasting highlight the transformative potential of these methods in coastal modelling (Heimbach
406 et al., 2024).

407 Machine learning applications in coastal ocean modeling primarily focus on two domains: (1) enhancing conventional physical
408 models by integrating ML-based parameterizations and error corrections, and (2) fully data-driven approaches that employ
409 neural networks as surrogate models (Zanna & Bolton, 2020; Bolton & Zanna, 2019). The former leverages ML techniques to
410 optimize numerical model performance by improving subgrid parameterizations, bias correction, and data assimilation
411 strategies, while the latter explores the potential of deep learning algorithms such as Fourier Neural Operators (FNOs) and
412 Transformer-based architectures for high-resolution ocean forecasting (Bire et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024).

413 Data assimilation, a critical component of operational forecasting, benefits from AI-enhanced methodologies that improve
414 state estimation and predictive skill. AI-driven data assimilation frameworks, such as the combination of deep learning with
415 variational assimilation (4D-VarNet) (Fablet et al., 2022), have demonstrated superior performance in coastal and regional
416 models. Hybrid approaches incorporating AI techniques into numerical models have been applied to refine coastal simulations,
417 allowing for better representation of multi-scale interactions (Brajard et al., 2021). Furthermore, convolutional neural networks
418 (CNNs) have been successfully used for downscaling sea surface height and currents in coastal areas, addressing challenges
419 related to observational gaps and improving model resolution (Yuan et al., 2024).

420 Coastal high-resolution models often suffer from errors stemming from inaccuracies in numerics, forcing (e.g., open
421 boundaries, meteorological inputs), and unresolved physical processes. AI-based methods have been increasingly applied to
422 address these challenges, particularly in the realm of subgrid-scale parameterization. AI-enabled parameterizations of
423 mesoscale and submesoscale processes using deep learning techniques, such as residual networks and generative adversarial
424 networks (GANs), have shown promising results in reducing bias in numerical simulations (Gregory et al., 2023; Brajard et
425 al., 2021). Additionally, hybrid methods combining physics-based models with ML correction schemes have demonstrated
426 improved predictive skill for regional and coastal ocean models (Perezhogin et al., 2023).

427 The use of ML for extreme event prediction has gained increasing attention in the context of operational coastal forecasting.
428 AI models trained on historical storm data and high-resolution numerical simulations have been utilized to enhance storm
429 surge predictions and improve early warning systems (Xie et al., 2023). Transformer-based models, originally developed for
430 atmospheric forecasting, have been adapted for ocean applications, achieving competitive skill in eddy-resolving ocean
431 simulations (Wang et al., 2024).

432 The integration of AI in ensemble forecasting further contributes to uncertainty quantification, providing probabilistic
433 predictions for extreme coastal events. Bayesian inference techniques, combined with ML-based ensemble prediction, offer a
434 framework for optimizing multi-model ensembles and reducing systematic errors in operational forecasts (Bouallègue et al.,
435 2024; Penny et al., 2022). The synergy between ML-driven emulators and traditional ensemble forecasting techniques has the
436 potential to enhance coastal hazard predictions, particularly in regions prone to high-impact events.

437 Despite the advancements in AI for coastal modeling, several challenges remain. The interpretability and robustness of ML-
438 based solutions need further improvement, particularly for operational applications requiring high levels of reliability
439 (Bonavita, 2023). Additionally, integrating ML models with real-time observational data streams, including remote sensing
440 and high-frequency radar (HFR) networks, remains an ongoing area of research (Reichstein et al., 2019). The extension of
441 ML-based ocean forecasting to seasonal and interannual time scales also poses challenges related to long-term stability and
442 physical consistency (Beucler et al., 2024).

443 **4 Summary and outlook**

444 The critical importance of high-resolution coastal modelling is demonstrated in addressing the complexities of dynamic coastal
445 systems. Coastal areas are shaped by the interplay of mesoscale and submesoscale processes, strong tidal currents, atmospheric
446 and hydrologic forcing, and significant anthropogenic pressures. Advanced techniques, including turbulence closure models
447 for capturing vertical mixing and parameterizations of bottom roughness and vegetation drag for representing energy
448 dissipation, are essential for accurately modelling these systems. The nonlinear interactions between tidal currents and wind
449 waves emerge as a particularly influential factor, affecting ocean circulation and improving the accuracy of sea surface
450 temperature predictions.

451 It is shown that the integration of high-resolution observational data, such as HF radar for surface currents and the SWOT
452 satellite mission for sea surface topography, has the potential of substantially enhancing the resolution and reliability of coastal

453 models. These data facilitate a detailed characterization of processes in transition zones spanning estuaries, nearshore areas,
454 and the open ocean. Improved coupling between regional and local models has advanced the representation of boundary
455 conditions and enabled simulations of small-scale dynamics, essential for capturing the complexity of the coastal continuum.
456 The application of data assimilation techniques addresses the rapid variability inherent in coastal processes, highlighting the
457 challenges and limitations of predictability in these highly dynamic environments. Strategies to extend the accuracy of short-
458 term and localized forecasts are provided, leveraging multiscale data integration to refine predictions. The ability to simulate
459 interactions between atmospheric conditions, hydrological inputs, and oceanographic processes strengthens the foundation for
460 more accurate modelling. This contribution underscores the importance of bridging observational and modelling gaps to
461 achieve a comprehensive understanding of coastal systems. It highlights the necessity of integrating small-scale dynamics with
462 broader processes to better inform sustainable coastal management practices. By aligning advanced techniques with high-
463 resolution data, this work offers a pathway for more robust representations of coastal ocean dynamics and supports informed
464 decision-making in the face of growing environmental and societal challenges.

465 Several directions for advancing coastal ocean modelling to address evolving environmental and societal challenges are
466 highlighted. Future efforts should focus on integrating emerging observational technologies, such as high-resolution satellites
467 (e.g., SWOT), autonomous platforms like gliders and drones, and hyperspectral imaging. These tools, combined with machine
468 learning techniques for data analysis, can bridge gaps in spatial and temporal data coverage, providing a richer understanding
469 of coastal dynamics.

470 Developing coupled modelling systems that seamlessly integrate atmospheric, hydrological, and oceanographic processes will
471 be essential for capturing the complexities of the land-ocean continuum. Incorporating river runoff, estuarine dynamics, and
472 nearshore processes into such systems will significantly enhance the scope and accuracy of predictions. Addressing
473 computational challenges associated with high-resolution modelling is equally critical; this includes leveraging high-
474 performance computing, cloud-based processing, and optimizing numerical schemes to achieve efficient and precise
475 simulations.

476 Improving data assimilation techniques through ensemble approaches and probabilistic forecasting is another priority. These
477 methods will better integrate multiscale observational data, reduce uncertainties, and enhance the reliability of predictions in
478 dynamic environments. Concurrently, there is a pressing need to explore the impacts of climate change on coastal systems,
479 including sea-level rise, increased storm intensity, and shifting precipitation patterns. Understanding these impacts will guide
480 the development of adaptive strategies and strengthen resilience in vulnerable coastal zones.

481 The future of coastal modelling also depends on fostering interdisciplinary collaboration, engaging expertise from
482 oceanography, meteorology, hydrology, and ecology. By aligning scientific research with societal needs and practical
483 applications, collaborative frameworks can ensure the relevance and effectiveness of modelling efforts. Additionally, applying
484 artificial intelligence to optimize model parameterization, grid design, and predictive analyses will unlock new capabilities for
485 simulating small-scale processes like sediment transport and ecosystem responses.

486 Finally, enhancing global and regional coordination for coastal monitoring and modelling will be vital. Strengthening networks
487 to ensure consistency in data and modelling approaches can foster international collaboration, facilitating the exchange of best
488 practices and resources. These collective advancements promise to deepen our understanding of coastal systems and provide
489 robust tools to manage and protect these critical areas sustainably in the face of ongoing and future challenges.

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768 JS conceptualized the study, analyzed data, and wrote this article. All authors contributed to the writing of the article and
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