

Solving Coastal Dynamics: Introduction to High Resolution Ocean Forecasting Services

Joanna Staneva¹, Angelique Melet², Jennifer Veitch³, Pascal Matte⁴

¹Institute of Coastal Systems - Analysis and Modelling, Helmholtz-Zentrum Hereon, Geesthacht, Germany

²Mercator Ocean International, Toulouse, France

³Egagasini Node, South African Environmental Observation Network (SAEON), Cape Town, South Africa

⁴Meteorological Research Division, Environment and Climate Change Canada, Québec, QC, Canada

Correspondence to: Joanna Staneva (joanna.staneva@hereon.de)

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

34 1 Introduction

35 High resolution observation and modelling are needed so that marine services can be compliant with small-scale processes in
36 the ocean, particularly in coastal areas where these processes have a significant impact on dynamics and biogeochemistry
37 (Figure 1). The importance of high resolution in coastal services is underscored by the coastal ocean's significance to humanity,
38 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
39 dynamic, subject to both direct and indirect anthropogenic impacts, respectively, such as eutrophication, overfishing, offshore
40 wind farm development, dredging, and pollution, global warming, sea level rise and changes in meteorological and
41 hydrological conditions. These combined influences frequently trigger regime shifts, coastal erosion, flooding, and the
42 introduction of invasive species, underscoring the vulnerability and complexity of these systems.

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

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

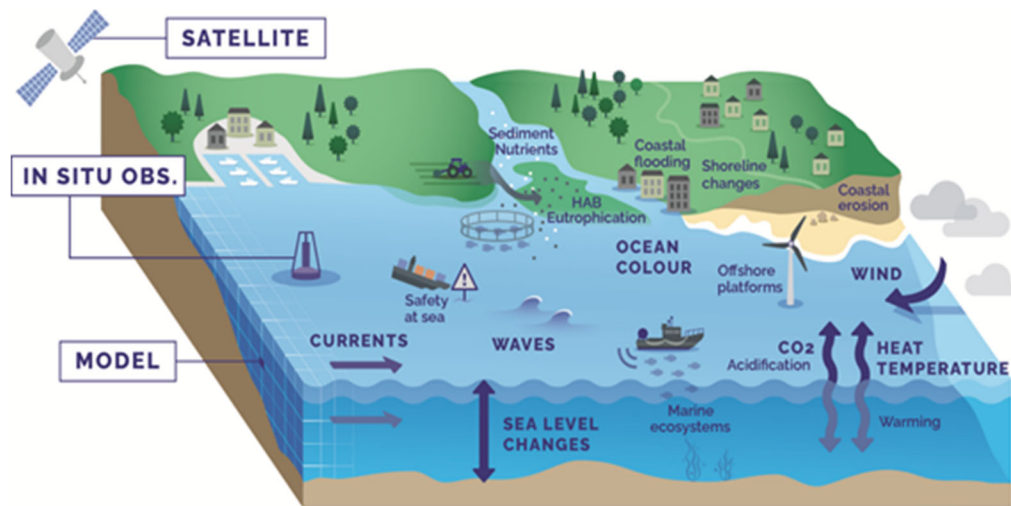
56 Changes occurring in the coastal ocean are attributed to both direct human impacts and climate change. Anthropogenic impacts
57 encompass factors such as eutrophication, overfishing, offshore wind farm construction, dredging, and pollution. Natural
58 changes in the coastal ocean result from sea-level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

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

65 The aim of this paper is to introduce high-resolution ocean forecasting services that address the challenges of coastal dynamics
66 by improving predictions of physical and biogeochemical processes. It focuses on the integration of advanced modelling

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

77
78



79

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

82 **2 Typical spatial scales and processes solved by high-resolution services**

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

86 *1. Local Scale:* At the local scale, high-resolution services focus on small coastal areas, such as individual bays, estuaries, or
87 nearshore zones. These services aim to provide detailed information and predictions for specific locations of interest. Spatial

88 resolutions in this range can be on the order of meters to a few kilometers, allowing for precise observations and modelling of
 89 localized processes.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

150 In the coastal ocean, characteristic time scales are significantly shorter compared to the global ocean. These time scales,
151 typically around 1 day, are determined by various processes, including tides, inertial motion, diurnal cycles, and synoptic
152 weather patterns. The fast-paced dynamics of the coastal ocean require models to accurately capture these shorter time scales.
153 In estuaries, the periodicity becomes more complex due to strong tidal asymmetries and the presence of secondary circulation
154 patterns. The interactions between tidal forcing, river flow and estuarine geometry result in intricate and variable periodic
155 patterns. (as shown in Campuzano et al. 2022 for the Western Iberian Buoyant Plume, Sotillo et al. 2021 for the whole European

Atlantic façade, Pein et al. 2021 for the Elbe Estuary). The periodicity observed in coastal seas is mainly influenced by external forcing signals, such as atmospheric conditions or remote ocean signals. These external signals propagate in the coastal models through the specification of lateral boundary conditions, which is a crucial aspect of modelling in coastal areas. Unlike global models that can operate without open boundaries, coastal models require careful consideration of these boundary conditions to accurately represent the interactions between the coastal and open ocean.

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

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

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

3.1 Required observations

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

Most global and regional prediction products use a combination of satellite observations and in situ observations. Traditionally, in situ observations constituted the major data source for coastal ocean monitoring. During the end of the past century, satellite observations contributed significantly to the understanding of spatial variabilities. Novel instruments, such as the acoustic Doppler current profiler (ADCP), which measures current profiles throughout the water column, enhanced our understanding of current shear and bottom stress. Nowadays, high-resolution numerical simulations in the coastal ocean are keeping pace with high-resolution observations. A similar trend is observed in coastal waters, estuaries, and ports, which are rich in different

activities and interests: fishing, recreational activities, search and rescue, protection of habitats, storm forecasts, maritime industries, as well as routine maintenance operations (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019).

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

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

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

Further advances in coastal observations are enabled by autonomous platforms such as Slocum gliders. These gliders can carry a wide array of physical and biogeochemical sensors and perform repeated transects, thus providing high-resolution

observations of dynamic features such as eddies, frontal systems, and upwelling events. Their operational flexibility and ability to collect subsurface data make them valuable for both sustained monitoring and adaptive sampling strategies (Rudnick, 2016; Testor et al., 2019). In parallel, satellite technologies continue to evolve. Moreover, the Japanese geostationary meteorological satellite Himawari-8 provides high-frequency (every 10 minutes) and high-resolution (up to 500 m) visible and infrared imagery. These capabilities allow for near-real-time monitoring of sea surface temperature (SST), making it possible to track rapidly evolving coastal phenomena such as diurnal warming, river plumes, and thermal fronts (Kurihara et al., 2016). These complementary in situ and remote sensing platforms represent essential components of integrated coastal observing systems, supporting the growing demand for accurate forecasts, early warnings, and data-driven decision-making tools.

3.2 Numerical models

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

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	Luettich 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

3.3 Fine resolution nested models, downscaling and upscaling

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

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

An important consideration in downscaling and coastal modelling is the treatment of open boundary conditions (OBCs), which play a critical role in determining model fidelity near the boundaries. OBCs are typically derived from larger-scale models but often require case-specific tuning to ensure dynamic consistency and minimize reflection or spurious signals. The choice and configuration of OBCs—such as Flather-type, radiation conditions, or relaxation zones—can significantly affect the transport and energy balance within the coastal model domain. Given the diversity of physical processes and geometries encountered in

coastal environments (Marchesiello et al., 2001). Models equipped with a wide suite of configurable boundary condition types offer a practical advantage, particularly in multi-scale coupled frameworks. Ensuring consistency across nested domains while preserving physical realism remains an ongoing challenge, motivating continued development and intercomparison of OBC strategies in operational and research settings.

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

The coupling of a coarse-resolution regional model with a fine-resolution coastal model using a two-way nesting approach has been studied in the context of the straits connecting the North and Baltic Seas. The intricate topography and narrow cross-sections of the straits result in the dominance of small-scale motions, which play a vital role in the exchange between the two seas and significantly influence Baltic Sea stratification. The two-way nesting method, design to exchange information between the child model in the straits and the parent model in the seas, incorporates elements of data assimilation and allows for different vertical discretizations in each model. The Adaptive Grid Refinement in FORTRAN (AGRIF), originally developed by Debreu et al. (2008; 2012), has found wide application as a library for seamless spatial and temporal refinement over rectangular regions in the NEMO modelling framework (<https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/wiki/WorkingGroups/AGRIF>). Recent advancements in two-way nesting frameworks have demonstrated their effectiveness in improving multi-scale model accuracy. The implementation of a general two-way nesting framework has enhanced the exchange of physical properties between nested grids while preserving numerical stability and computational efficiency. Additionally, the integration of two-way nesting in a global ocean model has significantly improved surface tidal accuracy, refining regional tidal dynamics without compromising large-scale coherence (Herzfeld & Rizwi, 2019; Jeon et al., 2019). Further applications of AGRIF have demonstrated improvements in hydrodynamic simulations and the estimation of environmental indicators in coastal systems, underscoring its potential to refine fine-scale hydrodynamics while ensuring consistency with larger-scale ocean processes (Petton et al., 2023).

The organization of these multi-model studies is identified by the coastal modelling community as a need. Firstly, to tackle common assessments of the wide range of overlapping (global/basin/regional and local) models that are available for users in some coastal zones. Secondly, these multi-model validation exercises, comparing the performance of global/regional “core” model forecasts (i.e. from services such as the Copernicus Marine one) and coastal model solutions, nested into the formers, are useful to identify the potential added value (and the limitations) of performed coastal downscaling with respect to the “parent” core operational solutions, in which high-resolution coastal models are nested.

Frishfelds et al. (2025) highlight the benefits of on-demand coastal modeling employing two-way nesting, emphasizing its capacity to dynamically refine coastal processes while maintaining consistency with larger-scale ocean simulations. This

approach enhances the accuracy and reliability of high-resolution forecasting systems, facilitating improved representation of fine-scale coastal dynamics.

In that sense, these multi-model intercomparison exercises are key elements for many initiatives, such as the Horizon Europe Project FOCCUS (Forecasting and Observing the Open-to-Coastal Ocean for Copernicus Users, <https://foccus-project.eu/>) Project, that have in their core the enhancing of existing coastal downscaling capabilities, developing innovative coastal forecasting products based on a seamless numerical forecasting from regional models of the Copernicus Marine Service covering the EU regional seas, to Member States coastal forecasting systems (authors can add here any other pertinent reference from literature). Espino et al. (2022) emphasized the significance of extending Copernicus Marine Environmental Monitoring Service (CMEMS) products to coastal regions, highlighting the integration of high-resolution models and observational data to improve coastal forecasting capabilities. Their work underscores the importance of tailoring operational ocean models to better capture nearshore dynamics, ensuring more accurate and actionable predictions for end-users. Furthermore, multi-model studies focused on extreme event simulations provide valuable insights into the performance of operational forecasting systems. For instance, Sotillo et al. (2021) examined the record-breaking Western Mediterranean Storm Gloria by evaluating five different model systems, including Copernicus Marine Service products (global, regional Mediterranean, and Atlantic IBI solutions) alongside two coastal nested models. Such studies play a crucial role in assessing model accuracy, leveraging local HF radar observations, and informing future improvements to regional and coastal forecasting services.

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

3.4 Unstructured-Grid Models for Cross-Scale Coastal Dynamics

The use of unstructured-grid models is crucial for cross-scale modelling and effectively addressing the interactions between estuaries and the open ocean. One key aspect is the accurate representation of freshwater transformation from rivers, which is often oversimplified in ocean models by specifying river runoff as a point source. Unstructured-grid models, while often employing lower-order spatial discretizations due to interpolation complexities on irregular meshes, provide enhanced flexibility in resolution placement and transition zones. This allows them to effectively capture subtidal, tidal, and intermittent processes in coastal and estuarine environments, supporting a more realistic representation of estuarine dynamics and improved coupling with estuarine models.

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

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

347 The generation of unstructured meshes is a critical component in configuring coastal and estuarine ocean models, as it directly
348 influences numerical accuracy, computational efficiency, and the ability to represent complex shoreline and bathymetric
349 features. Tools such as OceanMesh2D offer MATLAB-based workflows for high-quality, two-dimensional unstructured mesh
350 generation, facilitating user control over mesh density and coastal geometry resolution (Roberts et al., 2019). Similarly,
351 OPENCoastS provides an open-access, automated service that streamlines the setup of coastal forecast systems, integrating
352 mesh generation, model configuration, and forecast production (Oliveira et al., 2019, 2021). The OCSMesh software developed
353 by NOAA represents another important advancement. It enables data-driven, automated unstructured mesh generation tailored
354 for coastal ocean modeling, offering a robust framework to ensure mesh quality, reproducibility, and interoperability with
355 NOAA modeling systems (Mani et al., 2021). Together, these developments represent the ongoing progress toward objective,
356 reproducible, and user-oriented mesh generation in support of high-resolution coastal ocean modelling.

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

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

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

3.5 Riverine forcing and its role in coastal ocean Modeling

Rivers play a critical role in shaping coastal circulation and stratification by delivering freshwater, nutrients, and sediments that influence estuarine and shelf dynamics. The treatment of riverine inputs in ocean models remains a key source of uncertainty, especially when estuarine plume dynamics and mixing processes are unresolved. In many coarse-resolution systems, river discharge is prescribed via simplified surface or salinity fluxes, which may misrepresent the spatial structure and strength of river plumes (Sun et al., 2017; Verri et al., 2020). To address this, high-resolution and regional-scale models increasingly incorporate momentum-carrying river inflows or artificial estuarine channels (Herzfeld, 2015; Sobrinho et al., 2021). For instance, Nguyen et al. (2024) demonstrated how high-resolution modeling in the German Bight captures the hydrodynamic and biogeochemical responses to extreme river discharge events, showing significant implications for salinity,

389 stratification, and nutrient dispersion during floods. These findings underscore the importance of resolving riverine inflow
390 variability and extreme events in coastal ocean prediction systems.
391 Recent work has also focused on operational strategies for river forcing (Matte et al., 2024), including real-time discharge data
392 integration (e.g., from GloFAS; Harrigan et al., 2020), and estuary box models that approximate sub-grid plume behavior (Sun
393 et al., 2017). These approaches aim to enhance predictive capabilities while maintaining computational feasibility in global-
394 to-coastal modeling chains. Choosing the appropriate river input strategy is therefore application-dependent and strongly
395 influenced by spatial resolution and target phenomena.

396 **3.6 Integration of AI in Coastal Modeling and Forecasting**

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

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

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

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

The use of ML for extreme event prediction has gained increasing attention in the context of operational coastal forecasting. AI models trained on historical storm data and high-resolution numerical simulations have been utilized to enhance storm surge predictions and improve early warning systems (Xie et al., 2023). Transformer-based models, originally developed for atmospheric forecasting, have been adapted for ocean applications, achieving competitive skill in eddy-resolving ocean simulations (Wang et al., 2024). The integration of AI in ensemble forecasting further contributes to uncertainty quantification, providing probabilistic predictions for extreme coastal events. Bayesian inference techniques, combined with ML-based ensemble prediction, offer a framework for optimizing multi-model ensembles and reducing systematic errors in operational forecasts (Bouallègue et al., 2024; Penny et al., 2022). The synergy between ML-driven emulators and traditional ensemble forecasting techniques has the potential to enhance coastal hazard predictions, particularly in regions prone to high-impact events. Despite the advancements in AI for coastal modeling, several challenges remain. The interpretability and robustness of ML-based solutions need further improvement, particularly for operational applications requiring high levels of reliability (Bonavita, 2023). Additionally, integrating ML models with real-time observational data streams, including remote sensing and high-frequency radar (HFR) networks, remains an ongoing area of research (Reichstein et al., 2019). The extension of ML-based ocean forecasting to seasonal and interannual time scales also poses challenges related to long-term stability and physical consistency (Beucler et al., 2024).

4 Summary and outlook

The critical importance of high-resolution coastal modelling is demonstrated in addressing the complexities of dynamic coastal systems. Coastal areas are shaped by the interplay of mesoscale and submesoscale processes, strong tidal currents, atmospheric and hydrologic forcing, and significant anthropogenic pressures. Advanced techniques, including turbulence closure models for capturing vertical mixing and parameterizations of bottom roughness and vegetation drag for representing energy dissipation, are essential for accurately modelling these systems. The nonlinear interactions between tidal currents and wind waves emerge as a particularly influential factor, affecting ocean circulation and improving the accuracy of sea surface temperature predictions. It is shown that the integration of high-resolution observational data, such as HF radar for surface currents and the SWOT satellite mission for sea surface topography, has the potential of substantially enhancing the resolution and reliability of coastal models. These data facilitate a detailed characterization of processes in transition zones spanning estuaries, nearshore areas, and the open ocean. Improved coupling between regional and local models has advanced the representation of boundary conditions and enabled simulations of small-scale dynamics, essential for capturing the complexity of the coastal continuum. The application of data assimilation techniques addresses the rapid variability inherent in coastal processes, highlighting the challenges and limitations of predictability in these highly dynamic environments. Strategies to extend the accuracy of short-term and localized forecasts are provided, leveraging multiscale data integration to refine predictions. The ability to simulate interactions between atmospheric conditions, hydrological inputs, and oceanographic processes strengthens the foundation for

more accurate modelling. This contribution underscores the importance of bridging observational and modelling gaps to achieve a comprehensive understanding of coastal systems. It highlights the necessity of integrating small-scale dynamics with broader processes to better inform sustainable coastal management practices. By aligning advanced techniques with high-resolution data, this work offers a pathway for more robust representations of coastal ocean dynamics and supports informed decision-making in the face of growing environmental and societal challenges.

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

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

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

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

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

489
490

491 **References**

- 492 Benkiran, M., Le Traon, P.-Y., Rémy, E., & Drillet, Y. (2024). Impact of two high-resolution altimetry mission concepts on
 493 ocean forecasting. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 11, 1465065. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2024.1465065>
- 494 Blumberg, A. F., & Mellor, G. L. (1987). Title: A description of a three-dimensional coastal ocean circulation model.
 495 Book Chapter: In *Three-dimensional coastal ocean models* (pp. 1-16). Publisher: American Geophysical Union.
 496 DOI: 10.1029/CO004p0001
- 497 Campuzano, F., Santos, F., Simionesei, L., Oliveira, A. R., Olmedo, E., Turiel, A., Fernandes, R., Brito, D., Alba, M.,
 498 Novellino, A., & Neves, R. (2022). Framework for Improving Land Boundary Conditions in Ocean Regional Products. *Journal*
 499 *of Marine Science and Engineering*, 10(7), 852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse10070852>
- 500 Candy, A.S., Pietrzak, J.D. (2018). Shingle 2.0: Generalising self-consistent and automated domain discretisation for multi-
 501 scale geophysical models. *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 11, 213-234. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-11-213-2018>.
- 502 Casulli, V. (1999), A semi-implicit finite difference method for nonhydrostatic free surface flows. *Internat. J. Numer. Methods*
 503 *Fluids*, 30(4), 425-440. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1097-0363\(19990630\)30:4<425::AID-FLD847>3.0.CO;2-D](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0363(19990630)30:4<425::AID-FLD847>3.0.CO;2-D).
- 504 Casulli, V., Zanolli, P. (2002). Semi-implicit numerical modelling of non-hydrostatic free-surface flows for environmental
 505 problems. *Math. Comput. Model.*, 36, (9-10), 1131-1149. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0895-7177\(02\)00264-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0895-7177(02)00264-9)..
- 506 Casulli, V., Zanolli, P. (2005). High resolution methods for multidimensional advection diffusion problems in free-surface
 507 hydrodynamics. *Ocean. Model.*, 10 (1-2), 137-151. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2004.06.007>.
- 508 Chan-Hoo Jeon, Maarten C. Buijsman, Alan J. Wallcraft, Jay F. Shriver, Brian K. Arbic, James G. Richman, Patrick J. Hogan,
 509 Improving surface tidal accuracy through two-way nesting in a global ocean model, *Ocean Modelling*, Volume 137,
 510 2019,Pages 98-113,ISSN 1463-5003, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2019.03.007>.
- 511 Chen, W., Jacob, B., Valle-Levinson, A., Stanev, E., Staneva, J., & Badewien, T.H. (2023): Subtidal secondary circulation
 512 induced by eddy viscosity-velocity shear covariance in a predominantly well-mixed tidal inlet. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 10:1105626,
 513 doi:10.3389/fmars.2023.1105626
- 514 Chen, C., Liu, H., Beardsley, R.C. (2003). An unstructured grid, finite-volume, three dimensional, primitive equations ocean
 515 model: Application to coastal ocean and estuaries. *J. Atmos. Ocean. Technol.*, 20, 159-186. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0426\(2003\)020<0159:AUGFVT>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0426(2003)020<0159:AUGFVT>2.0.CO;2).
- 517 Davidson, F., Alvera-Azcárate, A., Barth, A., Brassington, G.B., Chassignet, E.P., Clementi, E., De Mey-Frémaux, P.,
 518 Divakaran, P., Harris, C., Hernandez, F., Hogan, P., Hole, L.R., Holt, J., Liu, G., Lu, Y., Lorente, P., Maksymczuk, J., Martin,
 519 M., Mehra, A., Melsom, A., Mo, H., Moore, A., Oddo, P., Pascual, A., Pequignet, A.-C., Kourafalou, V., Ryan, A., Siddorn,
 520 J., Smith, G., Spindler, D., Spindler, T., Stanev, E.V., Staneva, J., Storto, A., Tanajura, C., Vinayachandran, P.N., Wan, L.,
 521 Wang, H., Zhang, Y., Zhu, X., and Zu., Z. (2019). Synergies in Operational Oceanography: The Intrinsic Need for Sustained
 522 Ocean Observations. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 6:450. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00450>.

523 Debreu, L., Vouland, C., Blayo, E. (2008). AGRIF: Adaptive grid refinement in Fortran. *Comput. Geosci.*, 34(1), 8-13.
 524 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2007.01.009>.
 525 Debreu, L., Marchesiello, P., Penven, P., and Cambon, G. (2012). Two-way nesting in split-explicit ocean models: Algorithms,
 526 implementation and validation. *Ocean Modelling*, 49-50, 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2012.03.003>
 527 Delft3D-Flow User Manual. Available at https://content.oss.deltares.nl/delft3d4/Delft3D-FLOW_User_Manual.pdf (last
 528 access: 25/07/2024).
 529 De Mey, P., Oke, P. R., & Cummings, J. A. (2017). Assimilation of ocean and coastal observations: Report from the
 530 International Workshop. *Ocean Science*, 13(3), 441-469. DOI: 10.5194/os-13-441-2017
 531 De Mey-Frémaux, P., Ayoub, N., Barth, A., Brewin, R., Charria, G., Campuzano, F., Ciavatta, S., Cirano, M., Edwards, C.A.,
 532 Federico, I., Gao, S., Garcia Hermosa, I., Garcia Sotillo, M., Hewitt, H., Hole, L.R., Holt, J., King, R., Kourafalou, V., Lu, Y.,
 533 Moure, B., Pascual, A., Staneva, J., Stanev, E.V., Wang, H. and Zhu, X.(2019). Model-Observations Synergy in the Coastal
 534 Ocean. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6:436. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00436>
 535 Engwirda, D. (2017). JIGSAW: A mesh generator for geophysical modelling. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 10(6), 2117–
 536 2140. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-10-2117-2017>
 537 Federico, I., Pinardi, N., Coppini, G., Oddo, P., Lecci, R., and Mossa, M. (2017). Coastal ocean forecasting with an
 538 unstructured grid model in the southern Adriatic and northern Ionian seas. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 17, 45-59.
 539 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-17-45-2017>.
 540 Ferrarin, C., Bellaïfiore, D., Sannino, G., Bajo, M., and Umgiesser, G. (2018). Tidal dynamics in the inter-connected
 541 Mediterranean, Marmara, Black and Azov seas. *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 161, 102-115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2018.02.006>.
 542 FOCCUS (Forecasting and Observing the Open-to-Coastal Ocean for Copernicus Users) Project, <https://foccus-project.eu/>),
 543 Grant agreement ID: 101133911, DOI: 10.3030/101133911
 544 Fringer, O.B., Dawson, C. N., He, R., Ralston, D. K., Zhang, Y. J.(2019). The future of coastal and estuarine modelling:
 545 Findings from a workshop. *Ocean Modelling*, 143, 101458, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2019.101458>
 546 Fringer, O.B., Gerritsen, M., Street, R.L. (2006). An unstructured-grid, finite-volume, nonhydrostatic, parallel coastal ocean
 547 simulator. *Ocean Model.*, 14 (3-4), 139-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2006.03.006>.
 548 Frishfelds, V., She, J. & Murawski, J (2025). On-demand coastal modelling with two-way nesting. *Ocean Dynamics* 75, 23.
 549 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-025-01670-x>
 550 Fujii, Y., Remy, E., Zuo, H., Oke, P. R., Halliwell, G. R., Gasparin, F., et al. (2019). Observing system evaluation based on
 551 ocean data assimilation and prediction systems: on-going challenges and future vision for designing/supporting ocean
 552 observational networks. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6:417. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00417>.
 553 García-León, M., Sotillo, M. G., Mestres, M., Espino, M., & Fanjul, E. Á. (2022). Improving Operational Ocean Models for
 554 the Spanish Port Authorities: Assessment of the SAMOA Coastal Forecasting Service Upgrades. *Journal of Marine Science*
 555 and Engineering, 10(2), 149. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse10020149>.

556 Haid, V., Stanev, E.V., Pein, J., Staneva, J., and Chen, W. (2020). Secondary circulation in shallow ocean straits: Observations
 557 and numerical modelling of the Danish Straits. *Ocean Modelling*, 148, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2020.101585>.
 558 Harrigan, S., Zsoter, E., Alfieri, L., Prudhomme, C., Salamon, P., Wetterhall, F., Barnard, C., Cloke, H., and Pappenberger,
 559 F.: GloFAS-ERA5 operational global river discharge reanalysis 1979–present, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 12, 2043–2060,
 560 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-2043-2020>, 2020.
 561 Herzfeld, M. (2015). Methods for freshwater riverine input into regional ocean models. *Ocean Modelling*, **90**, 1–15.
 562 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2015.04.001>
 563 Herzfeld, M., Engwirda, D., & Rizwi, F. (2020). A coastal unstructured model using Voronoi meshes and C-grid staggering.
 564 *Ocean Modelling*, 148, 101599. DOI: 10.1016/j.ocemod.2020.101599
 565 Herzfeld M. and F. Rizwi, (2019), A two-way nesting framework for ocean models, *Environmental Modelling & Software*,
 566 Volume 117, 2019, Pages 200-213, ISSN 1364-8152, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2019.03.015>.
 567 Holt, J., Allen, J. I., Proctor, R., & Gilbert, F. (2012). Error propagation in a North Sea tidal model: Implications for data
 568 assimilation. *Continental Shelf Research*, 30(17), 2063-2071. DOI: 10.1016/j.csr.2010.10.003.
 569 Hyder, K., Rossberg, A. G., Allen, J. I., Austen, M. C., Barciela, R. M., Bannister, H. J., et al. (2015). Making modelling count
 570 - increasing the contribution of shelf-seas community and ecosystem models to policy development and management. *Mar.*
 571 *Policy*, 62, 291-302. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2015.07.015>.
 572 Ilicak, M., Federico, I., Barletta, I., Mutlu, S., Karan, H., Ciliberti, S. A., Clementi, E., Coppini, G., & Pinardi, N. (2021).
 573 Modeling of the Turkish Strait System Using a High Resolution Unstructured Grid Ocean Circulation Model. *Journal of Marine*
 574 *Science and Engineering*, 9(7), 769. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse9070769>
 575 Kourafalou, V. H., De Mey, P., Le Henaff, M., Charria, G., Edwards, C. A., He, R., et al. (2015a). Coastal Ocean Forecasting:
 576 system integration and evaluation. *J. Operat. Oceanogr.*, 8, S127–S146. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1755876X.2015.1022336>.
 577 Kourafalou, V. H., De Mey, P., Staneva, J., Ayoub, N., Barth, A., Chao, Y., et al. (2015b). Coastal ocean forecasting: science
 578 foundation and user benefits. *J. Operat. Oceanogr.*, 8, 147-167. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1755876X.2015.1022348>.
 579 Kurihara, Y., Murakami, H., & Kachi, M. (2016). Sea surface temperature from the new Japanese geostationary meteorological
 580 Himawari-8 satellite. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 43(3), 1234–1240. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GL067159>
 581 Lorente, P., Piedracoba, S., Sotillo, M. G., Aznar, R., Amo-Baladrón, A., Pascual, A., et al. (2016). Characterizing the surface
 582 circulation in Ebro Delta (NW Mediterranean) with HF radar and modeled current data. *J. Mar. Syst.*, 163, 61-79.
 583 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2016.07.001>.
 584 Luetlich, Jr., R.A., Westerink, J.J., Scheffner, N.W. (1992). ADCIRC: an Advanced Three Dimensional Circulation Model for
 585 Shelves, Coasts and Estuaries. Report 1: Theory and methodology of ADCIRC-2DDI and ADCIRC-3DL. Dredging Research
 586 Program Technical Report DRP-92-6, U.S. Army Engineers Waterways Experiment Station, Vicksburg, MS, 137 pp. URI:
 587 <http://hdl.handle.net/11681/4618>.
 588 Madec, G. & the NEMO Team (2016). Title: NEMO ocean engine. Institution: Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace (IPSL), France.
 589 Version: NEMO v3.6 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1464816>

590 Madec, Gurvan, and The NEMO System Team. NEMO Ocean Engine Reference Manual. Zenodo, 2024.
 591 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6334656>.

592 Maicu, F., De Pascalis, F., Ferrarin, C., and Umgiesser, G. (2018). Hydrodynamics of the Po River-Delta-Sea system. *J. Phys.*
 593 *Res. Oceans*, 123, 6349-6372. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2017JC013601>.

594 Matte, P., Wilkin, J., & Staneva, J. (2024). The Role of Rivers in Ocean Forecasting. Preprint. [https://doi.org/10.5194/sp-2024-](https://doi.org/10.5194/sp-2024-9)
 595 [9](https://doi.org/10.5194/sp-2024-9)

596 Marchesiello P., Auclair, F., Debreu, L., McWilliams, J.C., Almar, R., Benshila, R., Dumas, F. (2021). Tridimensional
 597 nonhydrostatic transient rip currents in a wave-resolving model. *Ocean Modelling*, 163, 101816.
 598 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2021.101816>.

599 Marchesiello, P., McWilliams, J. C., & Shchepetkin, A. (2001). Open boundary conditions for long-term integration of regional
 600 oceanic models. *Ocean Modelling*, 3(1–2), 1–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1463-5003\(00\)00013-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1463-5003(00)00013-5)

601 Mani, S., Calzada, J. R., Moghimi, S., Melton, C., & Signell, R. P. (2021). OCSMesh: a data-driven automated unstructured
 602 mesh generation software for coastal ocean modeling. NOAA Technical Memorandum NOS CS; 47. U.S. Department of
 603 Commerce. <https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/33879>

604 Marshall, J., Adcroft, A., Hill, C., Perelman, L., Heisey, C. (1997). A finite volume, incompressible Navier–Stokes model for
 605 studies of the ocean on parallel computers. *J. Geophys. Res.* 102(C3), 5753-5766. <https://doi.org/10.1029/96JC02775>.

606 Mellor, G. L. (2004). Users guide for a three-dimensional, primitive equation, numerical ocean model.
 607 Institution: Princeton University, Program in Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences. URL:
 608 http://jes.apl.washington.edu/modsims_two/usersguide0604.pdf

609 Mengual, B., Le Hir, P., Cayocca, F., Garlan, T. (2017). Modelling fine sediment dynamics: Towards a common erosion law
 610 for fine sand, mud and mixtures. *Water*, 9(8), 564. <https://doi.org/10.3390/w9080564>.

611 McWilliams, J.C. (2016). Submesoscale Currents in the Ocean. *Proceedings of the Royal Society A. Mathematical, Physical*
 612 *and Engineering Sciences*, 472(2189), 20160117. <http://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.2016.0117>.

613 Moore, A. M., and Martin, M. J. (2019). Synthesis of ocean observations using data assimilation: toward a more complete
 614 picture of the State of the Ocean. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 6:90. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00090>.

615 Moure, B., & Chiggiato, J. (2014). A comparison of ensemble-based data assimilation methods for the North Sea.
 616 *Journal of Marine Systems*, 129, 190-203. DOI: 10.1016/j.jmarsys.2013.05.009

617 Munk, W., Wunsch, C. (1998). Abyssal recipes II, Energetics of tidal and wind mixing. *Deep-Sea Res., Part I*, 45, 1977-2010.
 618 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0637\(98\)00070-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0637(98)00070-3).

619 NOAA (2020). 2020 National Ocean Service Science Report. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Retrieved
 620 from: <https://repository.library.noaa.gov/view/noaa/33879>

621 Nguyen, T. T., Staneva, J., Grayek, S., Bonaduce, A., Hagemann, S., Pham, N. T., Kumar, R., & Rakovec, O. (2024). Impacts
 622 of extreme river discharge on coastal dynamics and environment: Insights from high-resolution modeling in the German Bight.
 623 *Regional Studies in Marine Science*, 66, 103476. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsma.2024.103476>

Oke, P. R., Allen, J. S., Miller, R. N., Egbert, G. D., and Kosro, P. M. (2002). Assimilation of surface velocity data into a primitive equation coastal ocean model. *J. Geophys. Res.* 107:3122. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JC000511>.

Oke, P. R., and Sakov, P. (2012). Assessing the footprint of a regional ocean observing system. *J. Mar. Syst.*, 105, 30-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2012.05.009>.

Oliveira, A., Fortunato, A. B., Rogeiro, J., Teixeira, J., Azevedo, A., Lavaud, L., Bertin, X., Gomes, J., David, M., Pina, J., Rodrigues, M., & Lopes, P. (2019). OPENCoastS: An open-access service for the automatic generation of coastal forecast systems. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 124, 104585. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2019.104585>

A. Oliveira, A.B. Fortunato, M. Rodrigues, A. Azevedo, J. Rogeiro, S. Bernardo, L. Lavaud, X. Bertin, A. Nahon, G. Jesus, M. Rocha, P. Lopes, 2021. Forecasting contrasting coastal and estuarine hydrodynamics with OPENCoastS, *Environmental Modelling & Software*, Volume 143,105132, ISSN 1364-8152, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2021.105132>.

Pein, J.U., Grayek, S., Schulz-Stelleneth, J., Stanev, E.V. (2016). On the impact of salinity observations on state estimates in Ems Estuary. *Ocean Dynamics*, 66, 243-262. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-015-0920-0>.

Pein, J., Staneva, J., Daewel, U., & Schrum, C. (2021): Channel curvature improves water quality and nutrient filtering in an artificially deepened mesotidal idealized estuary. *Continental Shelf Research*, Volume 231, 104582, doi:10.1016/j.csr.2021.104582

Ponte, R. M., Carson, M., Cirano, M., Domingues, C., Jevrejeva, S., Marcos, M., et al. (2019). Towards comprehensive observing and modelling systems for monitoring and predicting regional to coastal sea level. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00437>.

Rao, Y.R., Murthy, C.R., Sinha, P.C (2008). The coastal ocean. In: Murthy, C.R., Sinha, P.C., Rao, Y.R. (Eds.), *Modelling and Monitoring of Coastal Marine Processes*. Springer (Dordrecht) & Capital Publishing Company (New Delhi), pp. 3-10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-8327-3>

Reyes, E., Aguiar, E., Bondoni, M., Berta, M., Brandini, C., Cáceres-Euse, A., Capodici, F., Cardin, V., Cianelli, D., Ciralo, G., Corgnati, L., Dadić, V., Doronzo, B., Drago, A., Dumas, D., Falco, P., Fattorini, M., Fernandes, M. J., Gauci, A., Gómez, R., Griffa, A., Guérin, C.-A., Hernández-Carrasco, I., Hernández-Lasheras, J., Ličer, M., Lorente, P., Magaldi, M. G., Mantovani, C., Mihanović, H., Molcard, A., Murre, B., Révelard, A., Reyes-Suárez, C., Saviano, S., Sciascia, R., Taddei, S., Tintoré, J., Toledo, Y., Uttieri, M., Vilibić, I., Zambianchi, E., and Orfila, A.: Coastal high-frequency radars in the Mediterranean – Part 2: Applications in support of science priorities and societal needs, *Ocean Sci.*, 18, 797–837, <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-18-797-2022>, 2022.

Ringler, T., Petersen, M., Higdon, R. L., Jacobsen, D., Jones, P. W., & Maltrud, M. (2013). A multi-resolution approach to global ocean modeling. *Ocean Modelling*, 69, 211–232. DOI: 10.1016/j.ocemod.2013.04.010

Rudnick, D. L. (2016). Ocean research enabled by underwater gliders. *Annual Review of Marine Science*, 8, 519–541. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-marine-122414-033913>

656 Roberts, K. J., Pringle, W. J., Mattocks, C. A., & Westerink, J. J. (2019). OceanMesh2D 1.0: MATLAB-based software for
 657 two-dimensional unstructured mesh generation in coastal ocean modeling. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 12(5), 1847–
 658 1868. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-1847-2019>
 659 Tonani, M., Sykes, P., King, R. R., McConnell, N., Péquignet, A.-C., O'Dea, E., Graham, J. A., Polton, J., and Siddorn, J.
 660 (2019). The impact of a new high-resolution ocean model on the Met Office North-West European Shelf forecasting system,
 661 *Ocean Sci.*, 15, 1133–1158, <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-15-1133-2019>.
 662 Rubio, A. J., Mader, L., Corgnati, C., Mantovani, A., Griffa, A., Novellino, C., et al. (2017). HF radar activity in European
 663 coastal seas: next steps towards a pan-european hf radar network. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 4:8.
 664 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2017.00008>.
 665 van Sebillie, E., England, M. H., and Froyland, G. (2012). Origin, dynamics and evolution of ocean garbage patches from
 666 observed surface drifters. *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 7, 1026-1034. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/7/4/044040>
 667 Shulman, I., and Paduan, J. D. (2009). Assimilation of HF radar-derived radials and total currents in the Monterey Bay area.
 668 *Deep Sea Res. Part II Top. Stud. Oceanogr.*, 56, 149-160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.08.004>.
 669 Schulz-Stellenfleth, J., and Stanev, E. V. (2016). Analysis of the upscaling problem - a case study for the barotropic dynamics
 670 in the North Sea and the German Bight. *Ocean Model.*, 100, 109-124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2016.02.002>.
 671 Siddorn, J. R., Good, S. A., Harris, C. M., Lewis, H. W., Maksymczuk, J., Martin, M. J., and Saulter, A. (2016). Research
 672 priorities in support of ocean monitoring and forecasting at the Met Office. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 217–231,
 673 <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-217-2016>
 674 Shechepetkin, A., McWilliams, J.C. (2005). The regional oceanic modelling system (ROMS): a split-explicit, free-surface,
 675 topography-following-coordinate oceanic model. *Ocean Model.* 9(4), 347-404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2004.08.002>.
 676 Sobrinho, J., de Pablo, H., Campuzano, F., & Neves, R. (2021). Coupling Rivers and Estuaries with an Ocean Model. *Water*,
 677 13(16), 2284, DOI: 10.3390/w13162284.
 678 Stanev, E. V., Al-Nadhairi, R., Valle-Levinson, A., & Badewien, T. H. (2011). Tidal dynamics and residence time in the
 679 German Bight: Linking transport and variability. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 116(C8). DOI:
 680 10.1029/2010JC006835
 681 Stanev, E. V., Grashorn, S., and Zhang, Y. J. (2017). Cascading ocean basins: numerical simulations of the circulation and
 682 interbasin exchange in the Azov-Black-Marmara-Mediterranean Seas system. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 1003-1025.
 683 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-017-1071-2>
 684 Stanev, E., Schulz-Stellenfleth, J., Staneva, J., Grayek, S., Grashorn, S., Behrens, A., et al. (2016). Ocean forecasting for the
 685 German Bight: from regional to coastal scales. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 1105-1136. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-1105-2016>,
 686 Stanev, E. V., Ziemer, F., Schulz-Stellenfleth, J., Seemann, J., Staneva, J., and Gurgel, K. W. (2015). Blending surface currents
 687 from HF radar observations and numerical modelling: tidal hindcasts and forecasts. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.* 32, 256–281.
 688 <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-1105-2016>.

689 Staneva, J., Alari, V., Breivik, O., Bidlot, J.-R., and Mogensen, K. (2017). Effects of wave-induced forcing on a circulation
 690 model of the North Sea. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 81-101. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-016-1009-0>.
 691 Staneva, J., Wahle, K., Günther, H., and Stanev, E. (2016a). Coupling of wave and circulation models in coastal-ocean
 692 predicting systems: a case study for the German Bight. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 797-806. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-797-2016>.
 693 Staneva, J., Wahle, K., Koch, W., Behrens, A., Fenoglio-Marc, L., and Stanev, E. (2016b). Coastal flooding: impact of waves
 694 on storm surge during extremes – a case study for the German Bight. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 16, 2373–2389.
 695 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-16-2373-2016>.
 696 Sotillo, M. G., Campuzano, F., Guihou, K., Lorente, P., Olmedo, E., Matulka, A., Santos, F., Amo-Baladrón, M. A., &
 697 Novellino, A. (2021). River Freshwater Contribution in Operational Ocean Models along the European Atlantic Façade: Impact
 698 of a New River Discharge Forcing Data on the CMEMS IBI Regional Model Solution. *Journal of Marine Science and*
 699 *Engineering*, 9(4), 401. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse9040401>
 700 Sotillo, M. G. (2022). Ocean Modelling in Support of Operational Ocean and Coastal Services. *Journal of Marine Science and*
 701 *Engineering*, 10(10), 1482. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse10101482>
 702 Sotillo MG, Mourre B, Mestres M, Lorente P, Aznar R, García-León M, Liste M, Santana A, Espino M and Álvarez E (2021)
 703 Evaluation of the Operational CMEMS and Coastal Downstream Ocean Forecasting Services During the Storm Gloria
 704 (January 2020). *Front. Mar. Sci.* 8:644525. doi: 10.3389/fmars.2021.644525
 705 Sun, Q., Whitney, M.M., Bryan, F.O., & Tseng, Y. (2017). A box model for representing estuarine physical processes in Earth
 706 system models. *Ocean Modelling*, 112, 139–153. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2017.03.004>
 707 Testor, P., de Young, B., Rudnick, D. L., et al. (2019). OceanGliders: A component of the integrated GOOS. *Frontiers in*
 708 *Marine Science*, 6, 422. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00422>
 709 Trotta, F., Pinardi, N., Fenu, E., Grandi, A., and Lyubartsev, V. (2017). Multinest high-resolution model of submesoscale
 710 circulation features in the Gulf of Taranto. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 1609-1625. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-017-1110-z>.
 711 Umgiesser, G., Canu, D.M., Cucco, A., Solidoro, C. (2004). A finite element model for the Venice Lagoon. Development, set
 712 up, calibration and validation. *Journal of Marine Systems* 51(1-4), 123–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2004.05.009>
 713 Sotillo, M. G., Campuzano, F., Guihou, K., Lorente, P., Olmedo, E., Matulka, A., Santos, F., Amo-Baladrón, M. A., &
 714 Novellino, A. (2021). River Freshwater Contribution in Operational Ocean Models along the European Atlantic Façade: Impact
 715 of a New River Discharge Forcing Data on the CMEMS IBI Regional Model Solution. *Journal of Marine Science and*
 716 *Engineering*, 9(4), 401. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse9040401>
 717 Verri, G., et al. (2020). Box model approaches to estuarine dynamics in coarse-resolution ocean models. *Ocean Modelling*,
 718 148, 101587. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2020.101587>
 719 Wahle, K., Staneva, J, Koch, W., Fenoglio-Marc, L., Ho-Hagemann, H. T. M., and Stanev, E.V. (2017). An atmosphere-wave
 720 regional coupled model: improving predictions of wave heights and surface winds in the Southern North Sea. *Ocean Sci.*, 13,
 721 289–301. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-13-289-2017>.

Warner, J.C., Armstrong, B., He, R., J. B. Zambon, J.B. (2010). Development of a Coupled Ocean-Atmosphere-Wave-Sediment Transport (COAWST) modelling system. *Ocean Model.*, 35(3), 230-244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2010.07.010>.

Warner, J.C., Sherwood, C.R., Signell, R.P., Harris, C., Arango, H.G. (2008). Development of a three-dimensional, regional, coupled wave, current, and sediment-transport model. *Comput. Geosci.* 34(10), 1284-1306. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2008.02.012>.

Westerink, J.J., Luettich, R.A., Blain, C.A., Scheffner, N.W. (1994). ADCIRC: An Advanced Three-Dimensional Circulation Model for Shelves, Coasts and Estuaries. Report 2: Users' Manual for ADCIRC-2DDI, Department of the Army US Army Corps of Engineers, Washington, D.C. Available at <https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/citations/ADA276150> (last access: 25/07/2024).

Wilkin, J. L., Arango, H. G., Haidvogel, D. B., Lichtenwalner, C. S., Glenn, S. M., and Hedström, K. S. (2005). A regional ocean modelling system for the Long-term Ecosystem Observatory. *J. of Geophy. Res.: Oceans*, 110(C6), <https://doi.org/10.1029/2003JC002218>.

Zeng, X., Atlas, R., Birk, R. J., Carr, F. H., & others (2020). Title: Use of observing system simulation experiments in the United States. *Journal: Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 101(8). doi: 10.1175/BAMS-D-19-0155.1

Zhang, Y. and Baptista, A. M. (2008). SELFE: a semi-implicit Eulerian– Lagrangian finite-element model for cross-scale ocean circulation. *Ocean Model.*, 21(3-4), 71-96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2007.11.005>.

Zhang, Y. J., Stanev, E., and Grashorn, S. (2016a). Unstructured-grid model for the North Sea and Baltic Sea: validation against observations. *Ocean Model.*, 97, 91-108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2015.11.009>.

Zhang, Y. J., Ye, F., Stanev, E. V., and Grashorn, S. (2016b). Seamless cross-scale modelling with SCHISM. *Ocean Model.*, 102, 64-81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2016.05.002>.

743 **Competing interests**

744 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

746 **Author contributions**

747 JS conceptualized the study, analyzed data, and wrote this article. All authors contributed to the writing of the article and
748 quality control.

750 **Competing interests**

751 The contact author has declared that neither of the authors has any competing interests.

753 **Disclaimer**

754 Views and opinions expressed are however those of the author(s) only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European
755 Union or the European Health and Digital Executive Agency (HaDEA). Neither the European Union nor HaDEA can be held
756 responsible for them.

757
758 Publisher's note: Copernicus Publications remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims made in the text, published
759 maps, institutional affiliations, or any other geographical representation in this paper. While Copernicus Publications makes
760 every effort to include appropriate place names, the final responsibility lies with the authors.

761
762 Acknowledgements

763 JS and AM acknowledge Horizon Europe Project FOCCUS "Forecasting and observing the open-to-coastal ocean for
764 Copernicus users" (Grant Agreement 101133911).

765