



1 **Solving Coastal Dynamics: Introduction to High Resolution Ocean**
2 **Forecasting Services**

3 Joanna Staneva¹, Angelique Melet², Jennifer Veitch³, Pascal Matte⁴

4
5 ¹Institute of Coastal Systems - Analysis and Modeling, Helmholtz-Zentrum Hereon, Geesthacht, Germany

6 ²Mercator Ocean International, Toulouse, France

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

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

9
10 *Correspondence to:* Joanna Staneva (joanna.staneva@hereon.de)

11



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

32

33 **1 Introduction**

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

42 Accurately predicting ocean variables in coastal environments is challenging due to the need to resolve mesoscale to
43 submesoscale dynamics and their interactions with atmospheric and hydrological processes. The inherent variability of these



44 systems requires models that can account for a wide range of phenomena, including tidal asymmetries, wetting-drying cycles,
45 nonstationary river and atmospheric forcing, and nonlinear feedback mechanisms between tidal currents and wind waves
46 (Staneva et al., 2017). These processes influence mixing, ocean circulation, and the accuracy of sea surface temperature
47 predictions. Thus, high-resolution models are indispensable for capturing the fine-scale interactions that drive coastal dynamics
48 and shape biogeochemical responses.

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

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

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

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

76
77



78

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

81 **2 Typical spatial scales and processes solved by high-resolution services**

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

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

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

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

97 Eddies or isolated vortices, meandering currents or fronts and filaments are characteristic features of oceanic mesoscale
98 processes. These processes typically exhibit spatial scales ranging from 10 to 500 kilometers, depending on geographic latitude



99 and stratification, and time scales ranging from several days to approximately 100 days. Submesoscale processes in the ocean,
100 on the other hand, are characterized by smaller scales, typically ranging from 1 to 10 kilometers (McWilliams, 2016). These
101 scales are smaller than the Rossby radius of deformation. Submesoscale processes also have shorter temporal scales, usually
102 lasting only a few hours, and their relative vorticity is greater than the Coriolis parameter f . In contrast, for mesoscale motion,
103 the relative vorticity is comparable to f . Overall, studying and observing submesoscale processes require advanced techniques
104 and methods to overcome their small scale and rapid variability, but their understanding is crucial for comprehending the
105 intricate dynamics of the ocean.

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

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

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

130 The small spatial scales characteristic of coastal and estuarine systems require coastal models to consider ageostrophic
131 (deviating from the Earth's rotation) and three-dimensional dynamics, primarily driven by boundary-layer processes (Fringer
132 et al., 2019). Understanding these small-scale processes is crucial, particularly the interactions between mesoscale and sub-



133 mesoscale dynamics and their connection to larger-scale processes. It is essential to improve the representation of exchanges
134 between the coastal and open ocean, as well as their coupling with estuaries and catchment areas, in order to capture the
135 complexity of coastal systems. Accounting for high-resolution atmospheric forcing into coastal models is essential for
136 accurately capturing local meteorological dynamics, including wind patterns, temperature gradients, and precipitation rates.
137 Such detailed atmospheric data drive fundamental processes like heat and momentum fluxes, profoundly influencing coastal
138 hydrodynamics, sediment transport, and ecosystem responses. Coastal models need to accurately account for frictional
139 balances, taking into consideration the effects of friction on the movement of water. They must also address wetting and drying
140 processes, as well as hydrological forcing, to capture the transitions between shallow environments and larger regional scales.
141 By incorporating these factors, models can provide a more realistic representation of coastal dynamics. In addition, the grid
142 characteristics used in coastal models should be carefully selected to accurately represent the dominant spatial scales present
143 in the coastal environment. Choosing grid resolutions that capture the essential features of the coastal system is crucial for
144 obtaining reliable and meaningful results.

145 In the coastal ocean, characteristic time scales are significantly shorter compared to the global ocean. These time scales,
146 typically around 1 day, are determined by various processes, including tides, inertial motion, diurnal cycles, and synoptic
147 weather patterns. The fast-paced dynamics of the coastal ocean require models to accurately capture these shorter time scales.
148 In estuaries, the periodicity becomes more complex due to strong tidal asymmetries and the presence of secondary circulation
149 patterns. The interactions between tidal forcing, river flow and estuarine geometry result in intricate and variable periodic
150 patterns. The periodicity observed in coastal seas is mainly influenced by external forcing signals, such as atmospheric
151 conditions or remote ocean signals. These external signals propagate into coastal models through the specification of lateral
152 boundary conditions, which is a crucial aspect of modeling in coastal areas. Unlike global models that can operate with open
153 boundaries, coastal models require careful consideration of these boundary conditions to accurately represent the interactions
154 between the coastal and open ocean.

155 The predictability limit of models depends on the geophysical processes. For synoptic processes in the open ocean, this limit
156 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
157 with nonlinear processes, is exemplified by the growth of errors in predictive models. Assimilation of data containing spatial
158 and temporal scales below the predictability limit is needed to address this issue. Simulations at grid resolutions that would
159 sufficiently resolve the coastal submesoscale would require horizontal grid resolutions of approximately 1-10 meters in
160 estuaries and 0.1-1 kilometer in coastal shelf domains. However, achieving such high resolutions poses significant
161 computational challenges and resource demands.

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



165 **3 State-of-the-art data and tools for coastal forecasting**

166 **3.1 Required observations**

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

176 Most global and regional prediction products use a combination of satellite observations and in situ observations. Traditionally,
177 in situ observations constituted the major data source for coastal ocean monitoring. During the end of the past century, satellite
178 observations contributed significantly to the understanding of spatial variabilities. Novel instruments, such as the acoustic
179 Doppler current profiler (ADCP), which measures current profiles throughout the water column, enhanced our understanding
180 of current shear and bottom stress. Nowadays, high-resolution numerical simulations in the coastal ocean are keeping pace
181 with high-resolution observations. A similar trend is observed in coastal waters, estuaries, and ports, which are rich in different
182 activities and interests: fishing, recreational activities, search and rescue, protection of habitats, storm forecasts, maritime
183 industries, as well as routine maintenance operations (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019).

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

196 High-frequency radars (HFR) offer unique spatial resolution by providing reliable directional wave information and gridded
197 data of surface currents in almost real time. The use of HFR networks has become an essential element of coastal ocean



198 observing systems, contributing to high-level coastal services (Stanev et al., 2016; Rubio et al., 2017). The outputs from
 199 prediction systems extend the utility of HFR observations beyond the immediate observation area (Stanev et al., 2015),
 200 enabling adequate estimates even where no direct observations have been made. This demonstrates how models connect
 201 observations, synthesize them, and assist in the design of observational networks. In turn, observations can guide the
 202 development of coastal models (De Mey-Frémaux et al., 2019).

203 Alongside ADCP data, HFR data are used for skill assessment of operational wave and circulation models (Lorente et al.,
 204 2016). Another valuable source of fine-resolution data in the coastal region is provided by color data from satellites. In terms
 205 of sea level observations, some challenges associated with the use of altimeter data in the coastal zone are expected to be
 206 overcome through the use of wide-swath Surface Water and Ocean Topography (SWOT) technology. SWOT provides two-
 207 dimensional observations of sea surface topography at kilometer resolution in a 120 km swath. The expectation is that wide-
 208 swath altimetry will significantly enhance the quality of coastal ocean forecasts through high spatial coverage and resolution.
 209 These new data are anticipated to (1) sample the two-way interactions between nearshore, estuarine, and shelf processes and
 210 open ocean processes, and (2) resolve both fast processes (atmospheric, hydrologic, tidal) and slower processes (general ocean
 211 circulation and climate evolution). High-resolution models play a critical role as integrators of these coastal continuum
 212 observations.

213 3.2 Numerical models

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

219 **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
CROCO	Marchesiello et al. (2021)	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
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

220 **3.3 Fine resolution nested models, downscaling and upscaling**

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

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

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

239 The coupling of a coarse-resolution regional model with a fine-resolution coastal model using a two-way nesting approach has
 240 been studied in the context of the straits connecting the North and Baltic Seas. The intricate topography and narrow cross-
 241 sections of the straits result in the dominance of small-scale motions, which play a vital role in the exchange between the two
 242 seas and significantly influence Baltic Sea stratification. The two-way nesting method, developed by exchanging information
 243 between the child model in the straits and the parent model in the seas, incorporates elements of data assimilation and allows



244 for different vertical discretizations in each model. The Adaptive Grid Refinement in FORTRAN (AGRIF), originally
245 developed by Debreu et al. (2008; 2012), has found wide application as a library for seamless spatial and temporal refinement
246 over rectangular regions in the NEMO modeling framework (<https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/wiki/WorkingGroups/AGRIF>).

247 **3.4 Unstructured-Grid Models for Cross-Scale Coastal Dynamics**

248 The use of unstructured-grid models is crucial for cross-scale modeling and effectively addressing the interactions between
249 estuaries and the open ocean. One key aspect is the accurate representation of freshwater transformation from rivers, which is
250 often oversimplified in ocean models by specifying river runoff as a point source. Unstructured-grid models, with their ability
251 to employ higher-order spatial discretizations, demonstrate good skill in capturing subtidal, tidal, and intermittent processes in
252 coastal and estuarine environments, providing a more realistic representation of estuarine processes and improved interface
253 with estuarine models.

254 Compared to curvilinear and Cartesian grids, unstructured grids excel in resolving complex bathymetric features without
255 significant grid stretching. Since bathymetry plays a fundamental role in governing the dynamics of estuaries and the near
256 coastal zone, unstructured grid models offer greater accuracy and computational efficiency in numerical forecasting. Their
257 flexibility also enables more effective resolution of multiscale dynamic features. Fine spatial resolution in unstructured-grid
258 models allows for the resolution of secondary (transversal) circulation in estuaries and straits, thereby improving mixing and
259 enhancing the representation of long-channel changes in stratification, as demonstrated by Haid et al. (2020).

260 However, the construction of grids and ensuring reproducibility in unstructured-grid modeling still present challenges. Grid
261 generation is not always fully automated, and subjective decisions are often made based on the specific research problem,
262 applications, and intended services. The development of more objective grid construction methods and reproducibility
263 standards is an ongoing concern in unstructured-grid modeling (Candy and Pietrzak, 2018).

264 **3.5 Observing System Simulation Experiments, Observing System Experiments and Data Assimilation**

265 Data assimilation in coastal regions presents challenges due to the presence of multiple scales and competing forcings from
266 open boundaries, rivers, and the atmosphere, which are often imperfectly known (Moore and Martin, 2019). However, studies
267 by Oke et al. (2002), Wilkin et al. (2005), Shulman and Paduan (2009), Stanev et al. (2015, 2016), and others have
268 demonstrated the value of assimilating HF radar observations to improve the estimation of the coastal ocean state.

269 Observing System Simulation Experiments (OSSE) and Observing System Experiments (OSE) have the capability to
270 incorporate diverse observing systems, including satellite-based observations, HF radars, buoys with low-cost sensors,
271 autonomous vehicles, and more. These approaches, when coupled with an assimilative system, can provide guidance on
272 optimizing the observing network (Oke and Sakov, 2012; Fujii et al., 2019). They can help identify gaps in existing coastal
273 observing networks, assess operational failure scenarios, and evaluate the potential of future observation types. Pein et al.
274 (2016) used an OSE-type approach to investigate the impact of salinity measurements in the Ems Estuary on the reconstruction
275 of the salinity field, identifying observation locations that are more suitable for model-data synthesis. This type of analysis can



276 contribute to the design and optimization of both existing and future observational arrays, especially in coastal regions where
277 fine resolution is required.

278

279 **4 Summary and outlook**

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

287 It is shown that the integration of high-resolution observational data, such as HF radar for surface currents and the SWOT
288 satellite mission for sea surface topography, has the potential of substantially enhancing the resolution and reliability of coastal
289 models. These data facilitate a detailed characterization of processes in transition zones spanning estuaries, nearshore areas,
290 and the open ocean. Improved coupling between regional and local models has advanced the representation of boundary
291 conditions and enabled simulations of small-scale dynamics, essential for capturing the complexity of the coastal continuum.
292 The application of data assimilation techniques addresses the rapid variability inherent in coastal processes, highlighting the
293 challenges and limitations of predictability in these highly dynamic environments. Strategies to extend the accuracy of short-
294 term and localized forecasts are provided, leveraging multiscale data integration to refine predictions. The ability to simulate
295 interactions between atmospheric conditions, hydrological inputs, and oceanographic processes strengthens the foundation for
296 more accurate modeling. This contribution underscores the importance of bridging observational and modeling gaps to achieve
297 a comprehensive understanding of coastal systems. It highlights the necessity of integrating small-scale dynamics with broader
298 processes to better inform sustainable coastal management practices. By aligning advanced techniques with high-resolution
299 data, this work offers a pathway for more robust representations of coastal ocean dynamics and supports informed decision-
300 making in the face of growing environmental and societal challenges.

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

306 Developing coupled modeling systems that seamlessly integrate atmospheric, hydrological, and oceanographic processes will
307 be essential for capturing the complexities of the land-ocean continuum. Incorporating river runoff, estuarine dynamics, and
308 nearshore processes into such systems will significantly enhance the scope and accuracy of predictions. Addressing



309 computational challenges associated with high-resolution modeling is equally critical; this includes leveraging high-
310 performance computing, cloud-based processing, and optimizing numerical schemes to achieve efficient and precise
311 simulations.

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

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

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

326

327

328

329

330

331



332 References

- 333 Candy, A.S., Pietrzak, J.D. (2018). Shingle 2.0: Generalising self-consistent and automated domain discretisation for multi-
334 scale geophysical models. *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 11, 213-234. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-11-213-2018>.
- 335 Casulli, V. (1999). A semi-implicit finite difference method for nonhydrostatic free surface flows. *Internat. J. Numer. Methods*
336 *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).
- 337 Casulli, V., Zanolli, P. (2002). Semi-implicit numerical modelling of non-hydrostatic free-surface flows for environmental
338 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).
- 339 Casulli, V., Zanolli, P. (2005). High resolution methods for multidimensional advection diffusion problems in free-surface
340 hydrodynamics. *Ocean. Model.*, 10 (1-2), 137-151. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2004.06.007>.
- 341 Chen, C., Liu, H., Beardsley, R.C. (2003). An unstructured grid, finite-volume, three dimensional, primitive equations ocean
342 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).
- 344 Davidson, F., Alvera-Azcárate, A., Barth, A., Brassington, G.B., Chassignet, E.P., Clementi, E., De Mey-Frémaux, P.,
345 Divakaran, P., Harris, C., Hernandez, F., Hogan, P., Hole, L.R., Holt, J., Liu, G., Lu, Y., Lorente, P., Maksymczuk, J., Martin,
346 M., Mehra, A., Melsom, A., Mo, H., Moore, A., Oddo, P., Pascual, A., Pequignet, A.-C., Kourafalou, V., Ryan, A., Siddorn,
347 J., Smith, G., Spindler, D., Spindler, T., Stanev, E.V., Staneva, J., Storto, A., Tanajura, C., Vinayachandran, P.N., Wan, L.,
348 Wang, H., Zhang, Y., Zhu, X., and Zu, Z. (2019). Synergies in Operational Oceanography: The Intrinsic Need for Sustained
349 Ocean Observations. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 6:450. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00450>.
- 350 Debreu, L., Vouland, C., Blayo, E. (2008). AGRIF: Adaptive grid refinement in Fortran. *Comput. Geosci.*, 34(1), 8-13.
351 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2007.01.009>.
- 352 Debreu, L., Marchesiello, P., Penven, P., and Cambon, G. (2012). Two-way nesting in split-explicit ocean models: Algorithms,
353 implementation and validation. *Ocean Modelling*, 49-50, 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2012.03.003>
- 354 Delft3D-Flow User Manual. Available at https://content.oss.deltares.nl/delft3d4/Delft3D-FLOW_User_Manual.pdf (last
355 access: 25/07/2024).
- 356 De Mey-Frémaux, P., Ayoub, N., Barth, A., Brewin, R., Charria, G., Campuzano, F., Ciavatta, S., Cirano, M., Edwards, C.A.,
357 Federico, I., Gao, S., Garcia Hermosa, I., Garcia Sotillo, M., Hewitt, H., Hole, L.R., Holt, J., King, R., Kourafalou, V., Lu, Y.,
358 Mourre, B., Pascual, A., Staneva, J., Stanev, E.V., Wang, H. and Zhu, X.(2019). Model-Observations Synergy in the Coastal
359 Ocean. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6:436. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00436>
- 360 Federico, I., Pinardi, N., Coppini, G., Oddo, P., Lecci, R., and Mossa, M. (2017). Coastal ocean forecasting with an
361 unstructured grid model in the southern Adriatic and northern Ionian seas. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 17, 45-59.
362 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-17-45-2017>.
- 363 Ferrarin, C., Bellafiore, D., Sannino, G., Bajo, M., and Umgiesser, G. (2018). Tidal dynamics in the inter-connected
364 Mediterranean, Marmara, Black and Azov seas. *Prog. Oceanogr.*, 161, 102-115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2018.02.006>.



- 365 Fringer, O.B., Dawson, C. N., He, R., Ralston, D. K., Zhang, Y. J.(2019). The future of coastal and estuarine modeling:
366 Findings from a workshop. *Ocean Modelling*, 143, 101458, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2019.101458>
- 367 Fringer, O.B., Gerritsen, M., Street, R.L. (2006). An unstructured-grid, finite-volume, nonhydrostatic, parallel coastal ocean
368 simulator. *Ocean Model.*, 14 (3-4), 139-173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2006.03.006>.
- 369 Fujii, Y., Remy, E., Zuo, H., Oke, P. R., Halliwell, G. R., Gasparin, F., et al. (2019). Observing system evaluation based on
370 ocean data assimilation and prediction systems: on-going challenges and future vision for designing/supporting ocean
371 observational networks. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6:417. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00417>.
- 372 Haid, V., Stanev, E.V., Pein, J., Staneva, J., and Chen, W. (2020). Secondary circulation in shallow ocean straits: Observations
373 and numerical modeling of the Danish Straits. *Ocean Modelling*, 148, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2020.101585>.
- 374 Hyder, K., Rossberg, A. G., Allen, J. I., Austen, M. C., Barciela, R. M., Bannister, H. J., et al. (2015). Making modeling count
375 - increasing the contribution of shelf-seas community and ecosystem models to policy development and management. *Mar.*
376 *Policy*, 62, 291-302. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2015.07.015>.
- 377 Kourafalou, V. H., De Mey, P., Le Henaff, M., Charria, G., Edwards, C. A., He, R., et al. (2015a). Coastal Ocean Forecasting:
378 system integration and evaluation. *J. Operat. Oceanogr.*, 8, S127–S146. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1755876X.2015.1022336>.
- 379 Kourafalou, V. H., De Mey, P., Staneva, J., Ayoub, N., Barth, A., Chao, Y., et al. (2015b). Coastal ocean forecasting: science
380 foundation and user benefits. *J. Operat. Oceanogr.*, 8, 147-167. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1755876X.2015.1022348>.
- 381 Lorente, P., Piedracoba, S., Sotillo, M. G., Aznar, R., Amo-Baladrón, A., Pascual, A., et al. (2016). Characterizing the surface
382 circulation in Ebro Delta (NW Mediterranean) with HF radar and modeled current data. *J. Mar. Syst.*, 163, 61-79.
383 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2016.07.001>.
- 384 Luettich, Jr., R.A., Westerink, J.J., Scheffner, N.W. (1992). ADCIRC: an Advanced Three Dimensional Circulation Model for
385 Shelves, Coasts and Estuaries. Report 1: Theory and methodology of ADCIRC-2DDI and ADCIRC-3DL. Dredging Research
386 Program Technical Report DRP-92-6, U.S. Army Engineers Waterways Experiment Station, Vicksburg, MS, 137 pp. URI:
387 <http://hdl.handle.net/11681/4618>.
- 388 Maicu, F., De Pascalis, F., Ferrarin, C., and Umgiesser, G. (2018). Hydrodynamics of the Po River-Delta-Sea system. *J. Phys.*
389 *Res. Oceans*, 123, 6349-6372. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2017JC013601>.
- 390 Marchesiello P., Auclair, F., Debreu, L., McWilliams, J.C., Almar, R., Benshila, R., Dumas, F. (2021). Tridimensional
391 nonhydrostatic transient rip currents in a wave-resolving model. *Ocean Modelling*, 163, 101816.
392 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2021.101816>.
- 393 Marshall, J., Adcroft, A., Hill, C., Perelman, L., Heisey, C. (1997). A finite volume, incompressible Navier–Stokes model for
394 studies of the ocean on parallel computers. *J. Geophys. Res.* 102(C3), 5753-5766. <https://doi.org/10.1029/96JC02775>.
- 395 Mengual, B., Le Hir, P., Cayocca, F., Garlan, T. (2017). Modelling fine sediment dynamics: Towards a common erosion law
396 for fine sand, mud and mixtures. *Water*, 9(8), 564. <https://doi.org/10.3390/w9080564>.
- 397 McWilliams, J.C. (2016). Submesoscale Currents in the Ocean. *Proceedings of the Royal Society A. Mathematical, Physical*
398 *and Engineering Sciences*, 472(2189), 20160117. <http://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.2016.0117>.



- 399 Moore, A. M., and Martin, M. J. (2019). Synthesis of ocean observations using data assimilation: toward a more complete
400 picture of the State of the Ocean. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 6:90. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00090>.
- 401 Munk, W., Wunsch, C. (1998). Abyssal recipes II, Energetics of tidal and wind mixing. *Deep-Sea Res., Part I*, 45, 1977-2010.
402 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0637\(98\)00070-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0637(98)00070-3).
- 403 Oke, P. R., Allen, J. S., Miller, R. N., Egbert, G. D., and Kosro, P. M. (2002). Assimilation of surface velocity data into a
404 primitive equation coastal ocean model. *J. Geophys. Res.* 107:3122. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JC000511>.
- 405 Oke, P. R., and Sakov, P. (2012). Assessing the footprint of a regional ocean observing system. *J. Mar. Syst.*, 105, 30-51.
406 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2012.05.009>.
- 407 Pein, J.U., Grayek, S., Schulz-Stelleneth, J., Stanev, E.V. (2016). On the impact of salinity observations on state estimates in
408 Ems Estuary. *Ocean Dynamics*, 66, 243-262. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-015-0920-0>.
- 409 Ponte, R. M., Carson, M., Cirano, M., Domingues, C., Jevrejeva, S., Marcos, M., et al. (2019). Towards comprehensive
410 observing and modeling systems for monitoring and predicting regional to coastal sea level. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 6.
411 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00437>.
- 412 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
413 and Monitoring of Coastal Marine Processes*. Springer (Dordrecht) & Capital Publishing Company (New Delhi), pp. 3-10.
414 <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-8327-3>
- 415 Rubio, A. J., Mader, L., Corgnati, C., Mantovani, A., Griffa, A., Novellino, C., et al. (2017). HF radar activity in European
416 coastal seas: next steps towards a pan-european hf radar network. *Front. Mar. Sci.*, 4:8.
417 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2017.00008>.
- 418 van Sebille, E., England, M. H., and Froyland, G. (2012). Origin, dynamics and evolution of ocean garbage patches from
419 observed surface drifters. *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 7, 1026-1034. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/7/4/044040>
- 420 Shulman, I., and Paduan, J. D. (2009). Assimilation of HF radar-derived radials and total currents in the Monterey Bay area.
421 *Deep Sea Res. Part II Top. Stud. Oceanogr.*, 56, 149-160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.08.004>.
- 422 Schulz-Stellenfleh, J., and Stanev, E. V. (2016). Analysis of the upscaling problem - a case study for the barotropic dynamics
423 in the North Sea and the German Bight. *Ocean Model.*, 100, 109-124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2016.02.002>.
- 424 Siddorn, J. R., Good, S. A., Harris, C. M., Lewis, H. W., Maksymczuk, J., Martin, M. J., and Saulter, A. (2016). Research
425 priorities in support of ocean monitoring and forecasting at the Met Office. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 217-231,
426 <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-217-2016>
- 427 Shchepetkin, A., McWilliams, J.C. (2005). The regional oceanic modeling system (ROMS): a split-explicit, free-surface,
428 topography-following-coordinate oceanic model. *Ocean Model.* 9(4), 347-404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2004.08.002>.
- 429 Stanev, E. V., Grashorn, S., and Zhang, Y. J. (2017). Cascading ocean basins: numerical simulations of the circulation and
430 interbasin exchange in the Azov-Black-Marmara-Mediterranean Seas system. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 1003-1025.
431 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-017-1071-2>



- 432 Stanev, E., Schulz-Stellenfleth, J., Staneva, J., Grayek, S., Grashorn, S., Behrens, A., et al. (2016). Ocean forecasting for the
433 German Bight: from regional to coastal scales. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 1105-1136. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-1105-2016>,
- 434 Stanev, E. V., Ziemer, F., Schulz-Stellenfleth, J., Seemann, J., Staneva, J., and Gurgel, K. W. (2015). Blending surface currents
435 from HF radar observations and numerical modelling: tidal hindcasts and forecasts. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.* 32, 256–281.
436 <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-1105-2016>.
- 437 Staneva, J., Alari, V., Breivik, O., Bidlot, J.-R., and Mogensen, K. (2017). Effects of wave-induced forcing on a circulation
438 model of the North Sea. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 81-101. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-016-1009-0>.
- 439 Staneva, J., Wahle, K., Günther, H., and Stanev, E. (2016a). Coupling of wave and circulation models in coastal-ocean
440 predicting systems: a case study for the German Bight. *Ocean Sci.*, 12, 797-806. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-12-797-2016>.
- 441 Staneva, J., Wahle, K., Koch, W., Behrens, A., Fenoglio-Marc, L., and Stanev, E. (2016b). Coastal flooding: impact of waves
442 on storm surge during extremes – a case study for the German Bight. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.* 16, 2373–2389.
443 <https://doi.org/10.5194/nhess-16-2373-2016>.
- 444 Trotta, F., Pinardi, N., Fenu, E., Grandi, A., and Lyubartsev, V. (2017). Multinest high-resolution model of submesoscale
445 circulation features in the Gulf of Taranto. *Ocean Dyn.*, 67, 1609-1625. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-017-1110-z>.
- 446 Umgiesser, G., Canu, D.M., Cucco, A., Solidoro, C. (2004). A finite element model for the Venice Lagoon. Development, set
447 up, calibration and validation. *Journal of Marine Systems* 51(1-4), 123–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmarsys.2004.05.009>
- 448 Wahle, K., Staneva, J, Koch, W., Fenoglio-Marc, L., Ho-Hagemann, H. T. M., and Stanev, E.V. (2017). An atmosphere-wave
449 regional coupled model: improving predictions of wave heights and surface winds in the Southern North Sea. *Ocean Sci.*, 13,
450 289–301. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-13-289-2017>.
- 451 Warner, J.C., Armstrong, B., He, R., J. B. Zambon, J.B. (2010). Development of a Coupled Ocean-Atmosphere-Wave-
452 Sediment Transport (COAWST) modeling system. *Ocean Model.*, 35(3), 230-244.
453 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2010.07.010>.
- 454 Warner, J.C., Sherwood, C.R., Signell, R.P., Harris, C., Arango, H.G. (2008). Development of a three-dimensional, regional,
455 coupled wave, current, and sediment-transport model. *Comput. Geosci.* 34(10), 1284-1306.
456 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cageo.2008.02.012>.
- 457 Westerink, J.J., Luetlich, R.A., Blain, C.A., Scheffner, N.W. (1994). ADCIRC: An Advanced Three-Dimensional Circulation
458 Model for Shelves, Coasts and Estuaries. Report 2: Users' Manual for ADCIRC-2DDI, Department of the Army US Army
459 Corps of Engineers, Washington, D.C. Available at <https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/citations/ADA276150> (last access: 25/07/2024).
- 460 Wilkin, J. L., Arango, H. G., Haidvogel, D. B., Lichtenwalner, C. S., Glenn, S. M., and Hedström, K. S. (2005). A regional
461 ocean modeling system for the Long-term Ecosystem Observatory. *J. of Geophys. Res.: Oceans*, 110(C6),
462 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2003JC002218>.
- 463 Zhang, Y. and Baptista, A. M. (2008). SELFE: a semi-implicit Eulerian– Lagrangian finite-element model for cross-scale
464 ocean circulation. *Ocean Model.*, 21(3-4), 71-96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2007.11.005>.



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

467 Zhang, Y. J., Ye, F., Stanev, E. V., and Grashorn, S. (2016b). Seamless cross-scale modelling with SCHISM. *Ocean Model.*,
468 102, 64-81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2016.05.002>.

469 **Competing interests**

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

471

472 **Author contributions**

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

475

476 **Competing interests**

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

478

479 **Disclaimer**

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

483

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

487

488 **Acknowledgements**

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

491