

Impact of wave-watersea level non-linear interactions for the projections of mean and extreme changes on future wave conditions along the coasts of western Europe

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Abstract. Wind-waves and swells are a main driver of coastal environment changes. Wave setup contributes to and coastal hazards such as coastal flooding during extreme water level events and erosion. Wave characteristics used to estimate wave setup are sensitive to changes in water depth in shallow and intermediate waters. However, wave models used for historical simulations and projections typically do not account for watersea level changes whether from tides, storm surges, or long-term sea level rise. In this study, the sensitivity of projected changes in wave characteristics to the non-linear interactions between waves and water interaction of sea level changes on waves is investigated along the Atlantic European coastline. For this purpose, a global wave model is dynamically downscaled over the northeastern Atlantic for the 1950-2100 period and for two under the SSP5-8.5 climate change scenarios (SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5) scenario. Twin experiments are performed by accounting (with or not) for without including hourly sea level variations of water level from regional 3D ocean simulations in the regional wave model. The largest impact of the non-linear interaction of wave-watersea level interactions are found on waves is located on the wide continental shelf where shallow water dynamics prevail, especially in macro-tidal areas. For instance, in the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel in France, due to a large tidal range of 10 m. At this location and during an extreme historical extreme event, significant wave height was found to be up to 1 m higher (or +25(+30 %) when considering watersea level variations are included. At the end of the 21st century under SSP5-8.5 scenario, the wave simulation including water level variations exhibits an increase in extreme significant wave heights and wave setup values are larger, by up to +20 % and +10 % respectively. These results are found for many coastal points of the large continental shelf where shallow and intermediate water dynamics prevail, and especially so in macro-tidal areas. However, as the wave setup is computed with a parameterization based on offshore characteristics, the depth-induced wave breaking is not activated in the model. 40 % (+60 cm) mainly due to the effect of tides and mean sea level rise. The estimates provided in this study therefore only partially represent the processes responsible for the wave-watersea level-wave non-linear interactions due to model limitations in terms of resolution and processes included.

1 Introduction

35 Coastal zones are among the most densely populated and urbanized areas in the world (McMichael et al., 2020; Neumann et al., 2015; Wolff et al., 2020). which implies that monitoring their evolution in the context of climate change is important in several aspects. Wind-waves and swells are a major driver of coastal environment changes (Ranasinghe, 2016) and can drive coastal marine hazards such as coastal flooding (Melet et al., 2020b). Coastal marine flooding is most severe during extreme water level events. Extreme water levels actually cause most of the sea level-related damages and are on the rise due to mean sea level rise (e.g. Fox-Kemper et al. 2021, Le Cozannet et al. 2022).

40 Wind waves and swell contribute to extreme water level events at the coast via wave setup and runup, combined with astronomical tides, storm surges (due to low atmospheric surface pressure and wind setup) and mean sea level changes. In this study, wave contribution assessment will be limited to wave setup. Wave setup corresponds to the time mean (over several wave groups) elevation of the water level in the shallow surf zone due to breaking waves (Dodet et al., 2019; Longuet-Higgins and Stewart, 1964). At a large spatial scale, wave setup usually scales with offshore wave characteristics such as the wave height and wavelength (Holman, 1986; Stockdon et al., 2006; Dodet et al., 2019). As a rule of thumb, wave setup reaches 10-20 % of the significant wave height (Holman, 1986; Guza and Thornton, 1981).

45 To build knowledge on future changes in wave climate, a growing number of global and regional wave projections have been developed and intercompared (Hemer et al., 2013; Hemer and Wand 2017; Morim et al., 2018, 2021; Lobeto et al., 2021; Meucci et al., 2020). Projections are commonly based on dynamical wave models forced by projected surface winds from general circulation models, notably from (Hemer et al., 2013; Morim et al., 2018; Meucci et al., 2020; Morim et al., 2021; Lobeto et al., 2021; Morim et al., 2023). These projections are commonly based on dynamical wave models often forced by surface winds projected by climate models contributing to the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP), with potential downscaling of atmospheric forcing. Regional dynamic downscaling can be used to provide wave projections at higher

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55 resolution. A multi-model analysis is required to assess uncertainties and robustness of projected changes in wave climate changes. Morim et al., 2018, 2019, provided a review of wave projections. Over the northeastern Atlantic and Mediterranean Sea bordering the coasts of western Europe, models project a robust decrease in annual and seasonal mean significant wave height, together with a decrease in the mean wave period. Regarding mean wave direction, a robust clockwise change is projected for the Iberian Atlantic Iberian coast. Extreme significant wave heights are also consistently projected to decrease over the northeastern Atlantic and Mediterranean Sea (Morim et al., 2018, 2021; Aarnes et al., 2017).

60 Wave characteristics used to estimate wave setup are sensitive to changes in water depth and thus to sea level changes variations in shallow and intermediate waters, where waves start to interact with the ocean bottom. This occurs through a variety of processes. Very close to the coast, in shallow waters, depth-induced wave breaking is the fundamental mechanism, but it is a very-small-scale process compared that is often omitted in climate projections due to the coarse resolution of global and regional models used for climate projections. In intermediate waters, at a greater distance from the coast, other larger scale processes are involved and can also be affected by watersea level variations for instance through bottom friction effects or non-linear interactions between the different waves of the spectrum. However, wave models used for historical simulations and projections typically do not account for water level changes, whether from tides, storm surges, or long-term sea level rise. Yet, At fine spatial scales, wave statistics have already been shown to be sensitive to sea level rise (Chini et al., 2010; Wandres et al., 2017; Arns et al., 2017) and to tide-tides and surges during extreme wave events (Alari, 2013; Viitak et al., 2016; Fortunato et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2019; Staneva et al., 2021; Calvino et al., 2022). A review of tide and sea level rise effects on waves and wave setup is provided in Idier et al., 2019. Tides wave setup interactions can induce changes in total water level at the coast of a few centimeters to tens of centimeters in some cases (Idier et al., 2019). These studies have mainly been conducted at fine scales including very coastal processes. But on a larger scale and in the context of climate change and sea level rise, projections of wave setup could also differ substantially when non-linear interactions between water level and waves are accounted for, due to other larger scale processes. (Alari, 2013; Viitak et al., 2016; Fortunato et al., 2017; Idier et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019; Staneva et al., 2021; Calvino et al., 2022). However, large-scale wave models used for historical simulations and projections typically do not account for sea level changes, whether from tides, storm surges, or long-term sea level rise. Nevertheless, these wave climate simulations are likely to be influenced by sea level variations through small to large scale processes, depending on those included in the model.

80 The present study aims at investigating the sensitivity of wave mean and extreme characteristics wave climate conditions to the non-linear interactions between waves and water interaction of sea level changes. In particular, wave setup is presented as an indicator for coastal hazard related to coastal flooding on waves. To that aim, regional hindcasts historical simulations and projections of waves are produced over the 1950-2100 period considering two climate change scenarios corresponding to low-emissions, the high-mitigation (SSP1-2.6) and high-emission scenario, low-mitigation (SSP5-8.5) pathways climate change scenario (O'Neill et al., 2016). The simulations are produced over the northeastern Atlantic region, called the IBI domain (Iberian-Biscay-Ireland). The wave model is intended to represent the open-ocean wave characteristics therefore the depth-induced wave breaking is not activated. Given that the model resolution is not fine enough to calculate properly the wave setup, it is estimated using a generic parameterization based on offshore characteristics. To assess the sensitivity of wave projections waves characteristics to the wave-water level non-linear interactions interaction of sea level on waves, the regional wave model is adapted to consider hourly variations of watersea level from a 3D regional ocean model described in Chaigneau et al., 2022 for the same IBI domain.

95 The paper is organized as follows. Global The wave model and regional wave model configurations and simulations are presented in Sect. 2 together with the calculation of the wave setup contribution. Regional simulations for the northeastern Atlantic domain. Simulated mean and extreme wave conditions are compared to observations over the historical period and to previously published 21st century projections in Sect. 3, in terms of mean and extreme conditions. Sect. 4 provides an assessment of the impact of including hourly water level changes on sensitivity of wave characteristics and wave setup to the non-linear interaction of sea level on waves along the European Atlantic coastlines. Finally, results are discussed in Sect. 5 and conclusions are drawn in Sect. 6.

100 2 Methods: models and simulations

105 The aim of the present study is to investigate the sensitivity of historical and projected sea states to the wave-water level non-linear interactions for the IBI coastlines. To this end, a regional dynamical downscaling of a global wave model (CNRM HR-WAV, Sect. 2.3.1) forced by a global climate model (CNRM CM6 1 HR) was implemented over the northeast Atlantic region. Regional wave simulations (IBI-CCS WAV, Sect. 2.2) are forced by hourly surface currents from a regionally downscaled ocean model (IBI-CCS, Sect. 2.3.3), using the same CNRM CM6 1 HR parent climate model. In addition, a twin regional wave configuration was set up to investigate wave-water level interactions by considering hourly water level outputs from IBI-CCS in the wave model (IBI-CCS WAV_ssh, Sect. 2.4). Figure 1 describes the downscaling strategy and the links between the different models used in this study. All the wave simulations described in the following sections are performed over the historical period (1950-2014) and the 21st century (2015-2100) under the SSP1-2.6 and SSP5-8.5 climate change scenarios.

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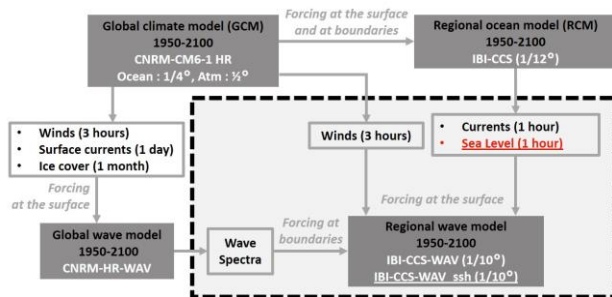


Figure 1: Sketch of the downscaling strategy explaining the links between the different models used in this study.

Two regional wave configurations IBI-CCS-WAV (Sect. 2.2) and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh (Sect. 2.3) are set up to dynamically downscale global wave simulations over the IBI domain, considering or not hourly sea level outputs as a forcing in the wave model (Sect. 2.1). Table 1 summarizes the different simulations used in the study: the simulations performed and analyzed in this paper, the simulations used for the forcings, the simulations used for the validation in Sect. 3. Appendix A describes the downscaling strategy and the links between the different simulations used to force the regional wave model.

Name of the simulation	Model type	Name of the model	Historical time-span	Future time-span and scenarios	Horizontal resolution	Forcings	Application in the paper	References
IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh	Regional wave model	MFWAM	1970-2014	2015-2100 (SSP5-8.5)	1/10°	CNRM-CM6-1-HR (winds), IBI-CCS (surface currents, sea level), CNRM-HR-WAV (wave spectra)	Analyses (Sect. 3 and 4)	-
CNRM-HR-WAV	Global wave model	MFWAM	1970-2014	2015-2100 (SSP5-8.5)	1°	CNRM-CM6-1-HR (winds, surface currents, ice cover)	Forcing	-
IBI-WAV (reanalysis)	Regional wave model	MFWAM	1993-2020	N/A	1/20°	ERA5 (winds), IBIRYS (surface currents), WAVERYS (wave spectra), with assimilated data	Validation (Sect. 3)	Copernicus Marine Service: Garcia San Martín et al., 2021 Toledano et al., 2021
WAVERYS (reanalysis)	Global wave model	MFWAM	1993-2021	N/A	1/5°	ERA5 (winds), GLORYS12V1 (surface currents), with assimilated data	Calibration, Forcing	Law-Chune et al., 2021
CNRM-CM6-1-HR	Global climate model	NEMO3.6 (ocean), APEGE-Climat 6.3 (atm)	1970-2014	2015-2100 (SSP5-8.5)	1/4° ocean, 1/2° atm		Forcing	Voltaire et al., 2019 Saint-Martin et al., 2021
IBI-CCS	Regional ocean model	NEMO3.6	1970-2014	2015-2100 (SSP5-8.5)	1/12°	CNRM-CM6-1-HR	Forcing	Chaigneau et al., 2022
IBIRYS (reanalysis)	Regional ocean model	NEMO3.6	1993-2020	N/A	1/12°	ERA5, GLORYS2V4 1/4° with assimilated data	Forcing	Copernicus Marine Service: Levier et al., 2020

Table 1: List of the different simulations used in the study. The first box is for wave simulations and the second for ocean simulations.

2.1 The numerical wave model: MFWAM

The MFWAM wave model is a spectral sea-state prediction model (wind-wave and swell). It is a modified version of IFS ECWAM-CY41R2 cycle (ECMWF, 2014) developed at Météo-France for their operational applications (Aouf and Lefèvre, 2015). The variables used to force such a model are surface winds, ocean currents and sea ice cover (if relevant for the ocean domain for the latter). Technical details on the model are explained in Law-Chune et al., 2021.

MFWAM primarily aims at describing the open ocean sea states. As such, the coastal depth-induced breaking is not activated in the model and overall, the model is not able to resolve very coastal processes such as the shoaling effect even if included. Large scale processes included in the model are the terms of wave growth by wind, non-linear interactions between waves, dissipation by breaking in deep water referred to as whitecapping, dissipation by friction between long and short waves, bottom friction. These processes, which occur from the deep ocean to intermediate waters, are likely to be affected by the water level variations.

Additions from Météo-France concern (i) the use and adjustment of the Ardhuin et al., 2010 source term for wave breaking and swell damping dissipation (ST4 physics; Ardhuin et al., 2010), (ii) the use of a Phillips spectrum tail to better constrain the surface roughness for high-frequency waves. The wind input source term is based on Bidlot et al., 2007 and has been improved by considering wave damping by surface friction and sheltering effects for short waves. The non-linear source term uses the discrete interaction approximation (DIA) approach developed by Hasselmann et al., 1985. A better wave propagation around islands, mostly in the Pacific Ocean, is obtained thanks to an island-obstructions scheme.

MFWAM primarily aims at describing the open ocean sea states. Source terms include physical processes that generate (wave growth by wind), dissipate (white-capping, dissipation by friction between long and short waves, bottom friction and depth-induced wave breaking) or redistribute wave energy (non-linear interactions between waves). The coastal depth-induced breaking that occurs in shallow waters is parametrized using Battjes and Janssen, 1978. All these processes that occur from the deep ocean to the shallow coastal waters are likely to be affected by sea level variations.

Supported by the assimilation of satellite observations, MFWAM is successfully operated within the Copernicus Marine Service (<https://marine.copernicus.eu/>) to provide near-real time (analyses/forecasts) and multi-year (reanalysis/hindcasts) wave products over both the global ocean and the northeastern Atlantic corresponding to the region of interest in this study.

2.2 Regional wave model: IBI-CCS-WAV

Regional wave simulations IBI-CCS-WAV (IBI Climate Change Scenarios Wave) are produced over the 1950-2100 period using MFWAM (Sect. 2.1) at a $1/10^\circ$ resolution. The configuration was designed over the IBI domain based on a Copernicus Marine Service (CMEMS) configuration (<https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00030>). The regional domain covered by IBI-CCS-WAV extends from 27° to 61° N and 17° W to 8° E (Fig. 2), leading to a horizontal resolution ranging from 5.5 to 10 km. IBI-CCS-WAV is used to dynamically downscale the CNRM-HR-WAV global simulations described in Sect. 2.3.1. The dynamical downscaling method allows the resolution of regional processes at a finer scale. The method consists in forcing the regional wave model at its lateral boundaries by wave spectra from the CNRM-HR-WAV larger scale model and at the surface by winds, surface currents and possibly water without sea level variations from simulations performed with other suitable models. The models and simulations that provide these forcings are described in the following sections 2.3 et 2.4. In the regional wave model, the bathymetry used is a smoothed ETOPO1 ocean bathymetry (<https://sos.noaa.gov/datasets/etopo1-topography-and-bathymetry/>). In our simulations, the wave spectrum is discretized in 24 directions and 30 frequencies starting from 0.035 up to 0.58 Hz. The time step of IBI-CCS-WAV is set to 240 s. Classical integrated wave parameters are generated hourly for IBI-CCS-WAV. IBI-CCS-WAV

The IBI zone is interesting for wave modeling as it contains a variety of physical processes. First, the domain contains strong variations of bathymetry, with a wide continental shelf in the northern part of the domain (North Sea, English Channel) and a tight narrow continental shelf in the southern part (Spain, Portugal, Morocco, Mediterranean Sea) (Fig. 2). There are also contrasting wave regimes: the Atlantic coasts are subject to very energetic events in terms of significant wave heights, wave periods and energy flows (Masselink et al., 2016; Bruciaferri et al., 2021) whereas the Mediterranean Sea and North Sea are more sheltered areas dominated by wind waves (Chen et al., 2002; Bergsma et al., 2022). In addition, the zone also contains

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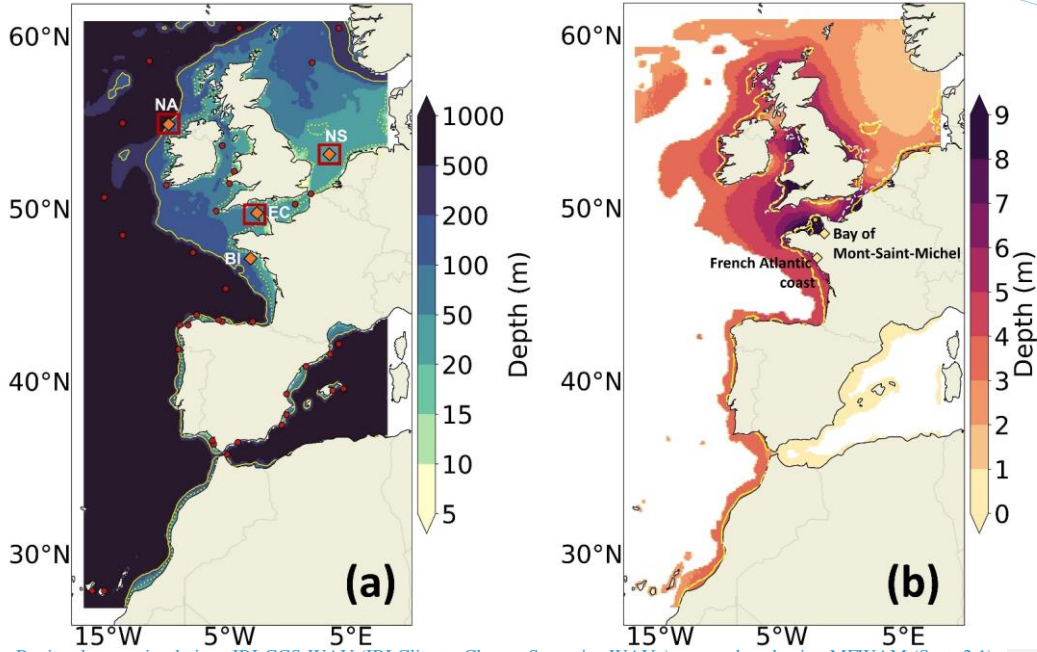
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165 very different tidal regimes with both macro and micro tidal regimes respectively in the English Channel/Celtic Sea (Valiente et al., 2019; Stokes et al., 2021) and in the Mediterranean Sea.

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170 Regional wave simulations IBI-CCS-WAV (IBI Climate Change Scenarios WAVe) are produced using MFWAM (Sect. 2.1) at a 1/10 ° resolution. The configuration was designed over the IBI domain based on the Copernicus Marine Service regional configuration (Tab. 1, IBI-WAV, <https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00030>). The regional domain covered by IBI-CCS-WAV extends from 27 to 61 ° N and 17 ° W to 8 ° E (Fig. 1), leading to a horizontal resolution ranging from 5.5 to 10 km. The regional wave configuration is used to dynamically downscale global wave simulations. The dynamical downscaling method allows the resolution of regional processes at a finer scale. The method consists in forcing the regional wave model at its lateral boundaries by wave spectra from the larger scale wave model and at the surface by winds and surface currents from other suitable models (global climate model and 3D regional ocean model, Tab. 1). The models and simulations that provide these forcings are described in the Appendix A. The bathymetry used is a smoothed ETOPO1 ocean bathymetry (<https://sos.noaa.gov/datasets/etopo1-topography-and-bathymetry/>). The wave simulations are performed over the historical period (1970-2014) and the 21st century (2015-2100) under SSP5-8.5 climate change scenario. Classical integrated wave parameters such as the significant wave height H_s and the peak period T_p are generated hourly.

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2.3.2 Atmospheric forcing from CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model

Regional wave projections are driven by the same 3-hourly surface winds as CNRM-HR-WAV (Sect. 2.3.1) produced by the CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model (Voldoire et al., 2019; Saint Martin et al., 2021), which is part of the CMIP6 database. The use of a global climate model with a higher spatial resolution compared to the typical coarse resolutions of CMIP5 and 6 models was interesting for the atmosphere ($1/2^\circ$) for the intensity of the winds notably.

By driving our simulations with only one global climate model simulation, the aim of the study is not to characterize the uncertainties of wave projected changes over the IBI domain, but rather to discuss the impact of the water level changes on the downscaled projections. However, before using the winds to force the global and regional wave models, we verified that CNRM-CM6-1-HR was consistent with other CMIP6 global climate models in particular in terms of extreme winds and their projections. A comparison of extreme winds (99th percentile) between CNRM-CM6-1-HR, some other CMIP6 global climate models, the atmospheric reanalysis ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) and wind observations from wave buoys (Wehde et al., 2021) is performed at different locations in the IBI region (Fig. 3a). The three different locations considered (shown in Fig. 2) are chosen along storm trajectories in the northeastern Atlantic and North Sea (Lozano et al., 2004). Figure 3a shows that CNRM-CM6-1-HR is representative of an ensemble of 21 CMIP6 models over the historical period. In general, CNRM-CM6-1-HR is also in good agreement with ERA5 which is the reference here. However, wave buoys observations seem to be significantly different from both the global climate models and ERA5, except in the North Sea. Figure 3b shows the projected changes for the extreme wind speed at the three locations. Projected changes in extreme wind speed are quite small in all models and rather uncertain (large interquartile range). Projected changes are of the same sign for 7, 9 and 10 models out of twelve for the three boxes respectively. In the English Channel and North Sea, CNRM-CM6-1-HR shows an increase in extreme wind speed which is representative of the other CMIP6 models. In the North Atlantic, CNRM-CM6-1-HR exhibits a large decrease in extreme wind speed which is in the high range (in absolute value) of CMIP6 models but still of the same sign as most models.

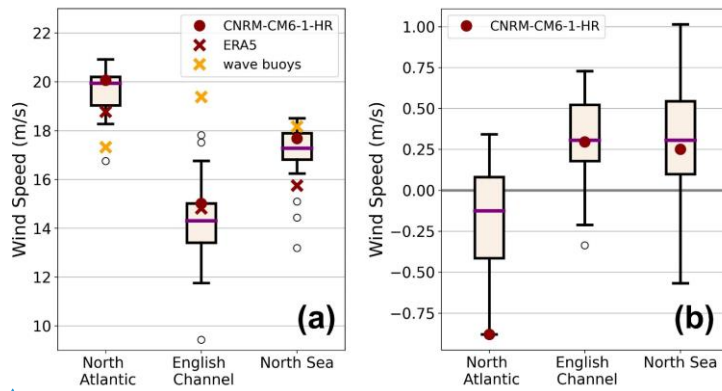


Figure 3: (a) Extreme winds (99th percentile) for CNRM-CM6-1-HR (dark red dot), 21 different CMIP6 global climate models (black box), the atmospheric reanalysis ERA5 (dark red cross) and wind observations from wave buoys (yellow cross) at the three locations in the IBI region marked on Fig. 2a for the 1993-2014 period. The 2011-2022 period was chosen for the wave buoy in the North Sea as it was the only period available. (b) Projected changes in extreme wind speed for CNRM-CM6-1-HR and 12 different CMIP6 climate models at the three locations marked on Fig. 2a under the SSP5-8.5 scenario (2081-2100 vs 1986-2005). The selected CMIP6 climate models are those with three hourly atmospheric outputs. In (a) and (b), the purple line represents the median, the black box represents the interquartile range and the whiskers represent the last model under or above 1.5 times the interquartile range. The black circles represent the outlier models i.e. models outside 1.5 times the interquartile range. Units are in $m s^{-1}$.

2.3.3 Ocean forcing from IBI-CCS regional ocean model

Regional wave projections are also forced by the hourly surface current (and hourly water simulations with sea level variations in the dedicated simulation, IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh) of IBI-CCS, a regional ocean model at a $1/12^\circ$ horizontal resolution, itself forced by CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model. IBI-CCS was implemented in Chaigneau et al., 2022 to refine sea level projections of CNRM-CM6-1-HR over the northeastern Atlantic region through a dynamical downscaling. For a more complete representation of processes driving coastal water level changes, tides and

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atmospheric surface pressure forcing are explicitly resolved in IBI-CCS in addition to the ocean general circulation (dynamic sea level),

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250 2.4 Inclusion of water level variations in the regional wave model: IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh

The water levels over which the waves propagate control the intermediate and shallow water wave dynamics and the refraction by bathymetric gradients, as well as bottom friction induced wave breaking. To measure the impact of wave water level the non-linear interactions/interaction of sea level on waves in the IBI region, a twin configuration to IBI-CCS-WAV (Sect. 2.2) was set up to consider waters/sea level variations as an additional forcing: IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh. For this purpose, MFWAM (Sect. 2.1) has been modified to include an hourly waters/sea level forcing (coming from IBI-CCS the same 3D regional ocean simulations, Sect. 2.3.3) which adjusts bathymetric depth (Fig. 2b) to hydrodynamic effects such as the surface currents. Hourly sea level forcing includes tides, storm surges, mean sea level but also the non-linear interactions between these processes. In our ocean simulations, the mean sea level contains the stericodynamic sea level (thermal expansion and dynamic sea level associated with ocean circulations but also) and the barostatic sea level change (the addition of water mass to the ocean); thus, long-term mean sea level rise over the next century. In practice, water elevation is read at the same time as ocean surface currents (Fig. 1) and is included in the hourly sea level forcing. From a practical point of view, in order to simulate the sea level variations in the wave model, the sea level obtained from the ocean simulations is added to the topographic depth at each forcing time step. These depth variations associated with water level variations affect the source terms (Sect. 2.1) and wave propagation from intermediate to shallow waters. Wavelocal depth every hour and at every grid point.

The wave model operates with a look-up table system as the following: as a pre-processing, wave propagation parameters such as group velocities and wave numbers, as well as parameters that affect the source terms described in Sect. 2.1 are tabulated at the beginning of the simulation according to a fixed list of depths and frequencies in the form of look-up. During the simulation, the required parameters are retrieved from these tables. As explained in Figure 2, the inclusion of sea level affects the local water depth and therefore affects the parameters needed for wave propagation and source terms (Sect. 2.1) in intermediate to shallow waters. The depth discretization for the propagative aspects was adapted of the tables follows a geometric series with a first level at 3 meters and a vertical resolution of the order of about 15 centimeters near the surface (Fig. 2). For IBI-CCS-WAV, a minimum water depth of 6 meters was chosen to be consistent with that applied in the forcing from the regional ocean simulations. In the regional ocean model, this value avoids the occurrence of uncovered banks in macro-tidal areas, especially around Mont-Saint-Michel in France and in the Bristol Channel. For IBI-CCS-WAV, since the depth is set to a minimum of 6 meters (Sect. 2.2), values less than 6 meters in the tables are not used. For IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh, since the local depth fluctuates around that of IBI-CCS-WAV, values less than 6 meters in the tables are used, for example at low tide. In this case, the values can be used up to a minimum of 3 meters which corresponds to the first term of the geometric series used to discretize the tables (Fig. 2).

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A minimum time mean water depth of 6 meters was chosen to be consistent with that applied in the ocean simulation from IBI-CCS (Chaigneau et al., 2022). This value avoids the occurrence of uncovered banks in macro-tidal areas, especially around Mont-Saint-Michel in France and in the Bristol Channel. These settings are applied for all regional wave simulations, whether they are forced by time-varying water levels (IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh) or not (IBI-CCS-WAV).

255 2.5 Wave setup calculation based on a parametrization

The present study aims at investigating the sensitivity of projected changes in mean and extreme wave conditions to wave-water level non-linear interactions. In particular, the focus is given on the wave setup which drives coastal sea level hazards such as coastal flooding. Wave setup and runup can be resolved directly from wave-resolving coastal models such as Xbeach (Roelvink et al., 2009), SWASH (Zijlema et al., 2011) or BOSZ (Pinault et al., 2022). Such models require a high resolution of several meters and nearshore profiles as inputs. They cannot yet simulate nearshore morphological changes over long time periods and at large spatial scales due to their limitations to represent cross-shore sediment exchanges (Elsayed and Oumeraci, 2017). For models such as MFWAM that do not directly resolve the wave setup and runup, they can be estimated, at first order, via empirical formulations that relate them to a set of simple deep water environmental parameters (e.g. Dodet et al., 2019). In our study, the wave contribution to sea level is limited to wave setup. As the aim is to provide a first order estimate of wave setup projected changes, our wave setup estimates η are based on an empirical formulation (Stockdon et al., 2006), applicable for sandy beaches:

$$295 \quad \eta = 0.35\beta\sqrt{H_s L_p} (1) \text{ (Stockdon et al., 2006)}$$

where β is the foreshore beach slope (i.e. the slope in the swash zone), H_s is the deep water significant wave height, L_p is the deep water peak wave wavelength related to the deep water peak wave period T_p through the deep water linear dispersion relationship: $L_p = \frac{g}{2\pi} T_p^2$, g is the acceleration of gravity.

As the wave setup estimation largely depends on the beach slope parameter, in this study, for the wave setup changes of Sect. 3.2 and 4, we provided a wave setup scaling $\sqrt{H_s L_p}$ rather than using the formulation of equation (1) to allow our results to be scaled with different beach slopes or empirical formulae (Dodet et al., 2019). To provide a range of wave setup changes

estimates, formulation (1) was used with time and space constant beach slope values of 0.04 (4 %) and 0.07 (7 %), which correspond to the low and high spatial mean values found in previous broad-scale studies (Melet et al., 2020a, Vos et al., 2020). The limitations of such an approach based on parametrizations are discussed in Section 5.

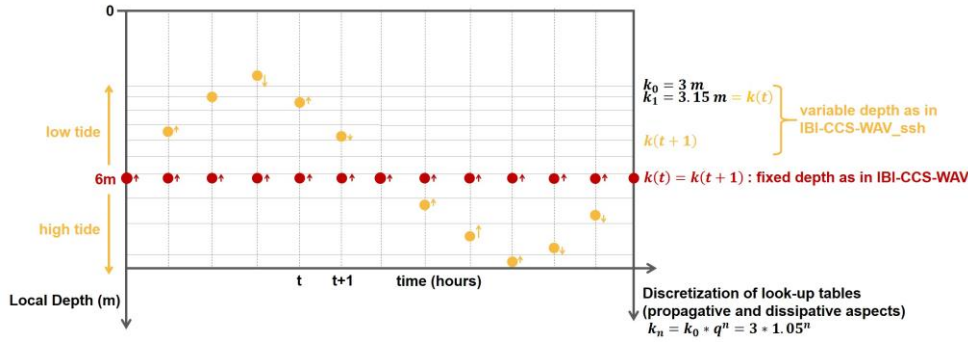


Figure 2: Schematic of the inclusion of sea level variations in the wave model for a given coastal point as a function of time. The dots represent the local depths. In red, the local depth is fixed (IBI-CCS-WAV), and in this example the local depth is the minimum allowed. In yellow, an example of the time evolution of the local depth corresponding to the hourly sea level variations (IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh), here dominated by a tidal signal. The q_n terms represent the vertical discretization of the depths used in the look-up tables to obtain parameters needed for wave propagation and source terms. These discretized depths are chosen as close as possible to the local depths estimated from the bathymetry with sea level changes added.

2.4 Extreme value analyses

To assess the impact of the non-linear interaction of sea level on wave extremes, nonstationary extreme value analyses (EVA) are performed for each coastal location. To do that, the approach of Mentaschi et al., 2016 is used, allowing the detection of long-term trends in extremes and, in our case, the filtering of variability on time scales shorter than 20 years. For each coastal location and wave time series, the output of the EVA is a time-varying generalized Pareto distribution (GPD), from which the return levels can be obtained, such as the 1-in-100-year return level analyzed in Sect. 4.

3 Validation and projections of IBI-CCS-WAV, without waves-sea level interactions the regional wave simulations

3.1 Validation of IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh over the 1993-2014 period

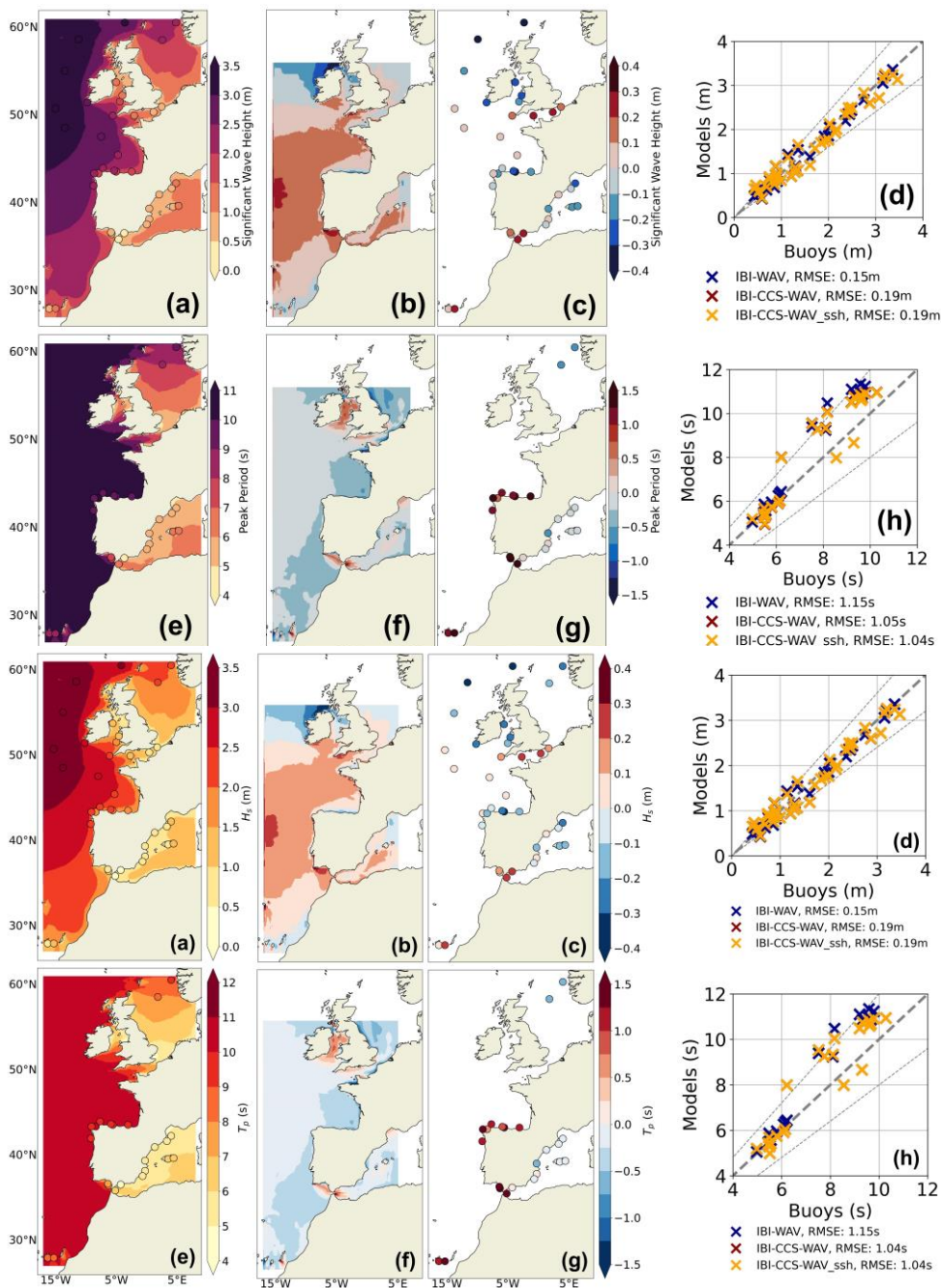
IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh are validated over the 1993-2014 period against Copernicus Marine Service products: a regional wave reanalysis which will be referred to as IBI-WAV thereafter (Tab. 1, García San Martín et al., 2021; Toledano et al., 2021) and observations from wave buoys (Wehde et al., 2021). The IBI-WAV reanalysis covers the whole 1993-2020 period and has a horizontal resolution of 5 km. IBI-WAV uses the currents from the IBIRYS regional ocean reanalysis (Levier et al., 2020). In the present study, we considered the IBI-WAV reanalysis as the reference for the domain as Toledano et al., 2021 have shown that its because it showed good performance was good compared to satellite and buoy observations over the 1993-2019 period. The selected wave buoys have a temporal data coverage of at least 60% over the validation period. The 1993- (Toledano et al., 2021). In our case, the 1993-2014 period was chosen for the validation period because it corresponds to the intersection between the period covered by the IBI-WAV regional reanalysis (starting in 1993) and the historical period of IBI-CCS-WAV (ending in 2014).

Wave buoys were selected to have a temporal data coverage of at least 60% over the validation period. The ability of IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh to reproduce observed distributions is assessed for the mean state and the 99th percentile of the significant wave height H_s and peak period since these variables are then used to compute T_p and for the mean wave direction through wave roses. In this section, it is rather IBI-CCS-WAV which is validated against the wave setup-sealing (Seet. 3.2, 4)-reanalysis because as IBI-CCS-WAV, the reanalysis does not consider hourly sea level variations as a forcing.

3.1.1 Significant wave height and mean wave peak period

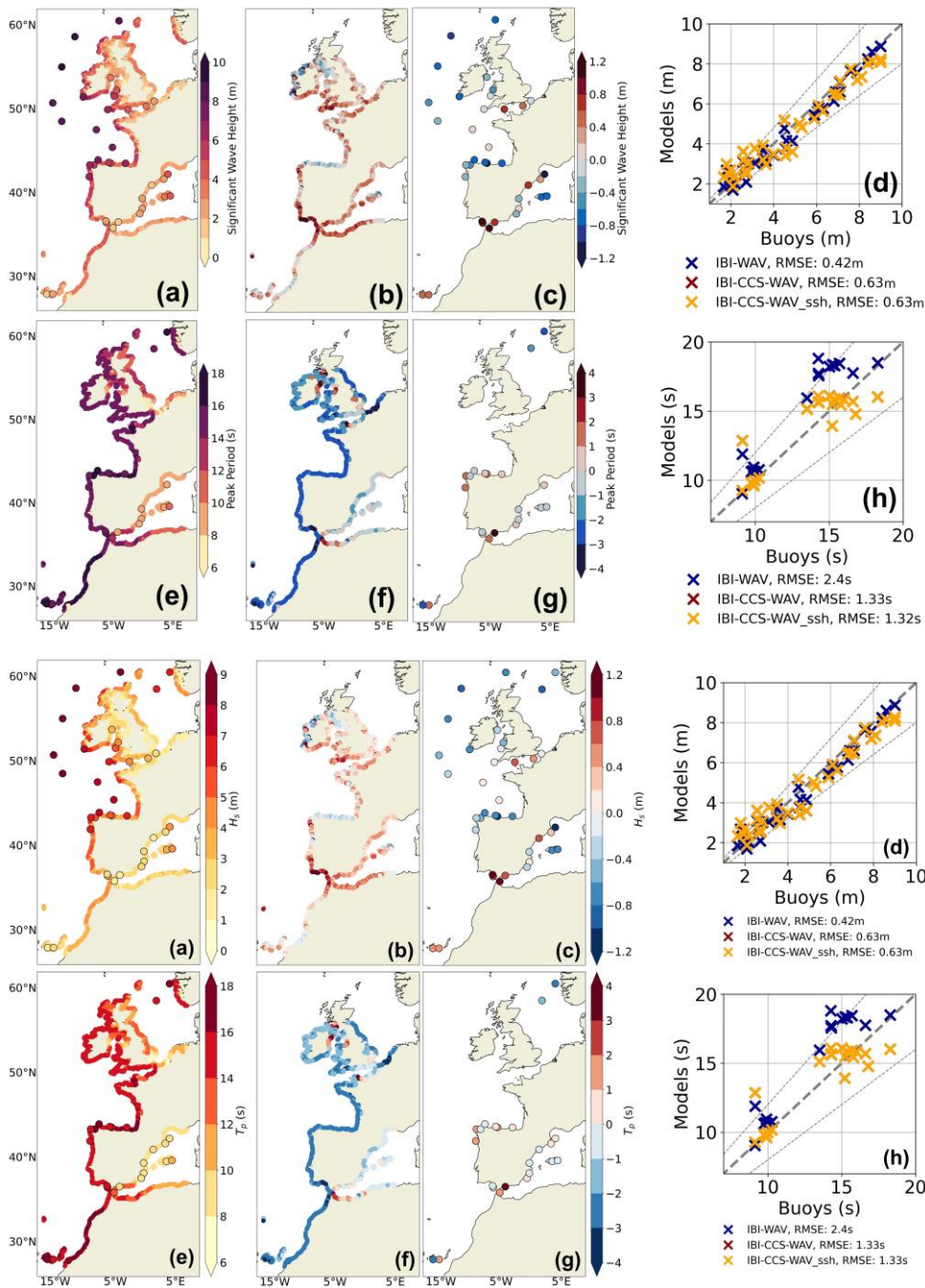
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340 **Figure 43:** (a), (b), (c) and (d) show the mean significant wave height (H_s , H_{ss} in m) over the 1993-2014 period for: (a) IBI-CCS-WAV, for the domain and wave buoys for the circles, (b) Differences between IBI-CCS-WAV and the reanalysis IBI-WAV, (c) Bias between IBI-CCS-WAV and CMEMS wave buoys at buoys locations, (d) Scatter plot at each wave buoy location of simulations IBI-CCS-WAV (red marks), IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh (yellow marks) and IBI-WAV (blue marks).

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390 **Figure 5-4:** (a), (b), (c) and (d) show the 99th percentile (based on hourly outputs) coastal significant wave height (H_s , H_{ss} in m) over the 1993-2014 period for: (a) IBI-CCS-WAV, for the domain and wave buoys for the circles, (b) Differences between IBI-CCS-WAV and the reanalysis IBI-WAV, (c) Bias between IBI-CCS-WAV and CMEMS wave buoys at buoy locations, (d) Scatter plot at each wave buoy location of simulations IBI-CCS-WAV (red marks), IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh

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430 Directional distributions are shown/validated on wave roses at two locations in the Atlantic Ocean (marked on Fig. 2a). In
 Figure 6, the 1a (Fig. 5). The focus is only on the IBI-CCS-WAV simulation as we found that the impact of the water level
 variations on the mean wave direction was negligible over the 1993-2014 period. As both locations since the two buoys
 are found/located in deep waters (Fig. 1a). Since both sites are located in the Atlantic Ocean exposed to the westerlies-exposed
 Atlantic Ocean, the wave roses indicate dominant waves in the west, west-northwest and west-southwest directions. For the
 435 North Atlantic buoy 6200093, IBI-WAV shows the same main west direction as both the buoy data (Fig. 6a) reanalysis and e).
 However, the observed west distribution is slightly underestimated (by 5 %) by IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-WAV, especially for
 the highest waves, superior to 4 m. In IBI-WAV, this could be IBI-CCS-WAV tend to have a southward direction bias
 compared to the wave buoy associated with a larger/smaller directional spread of the biggest waves coming from the north
 (Fig. 5a,b,c). For the reanalysis, ~~ce~~ In IBI-CCS-WAV, waves tend to have a slight southward direction bias, as the dominant
 440 wave direction is west as for the buoy (Fig. 5a,c) while in IBI-CCS-WAV the dominant wave direction is west-southwest (Fig.
 6b5b). For the Belle-Ile buoy 6200074, the west direction represents 70 % of occurrence in IBI-CCS-WAV against 60 % for
 the wave buoy (Fig. 6d5d and e). Half of the 70 % are related to This difference is coming from waves with a significant wave
 height of less than 2 m whereas for the buoy it represents only 25 %. This difference of 25 % is found in the west-northwest
 direction bin for the wave buoy data.

445 Overall, In summary, both the IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV ssh regional wave model has shown simulations show good
 performances/performance, compared to the IBI-WAV reanalysis and wave buoys, although observations are scarce. For the
 future period, as in the present study we use a single global climate model forcing, we assess the regional projections compared
 to previous published studies.

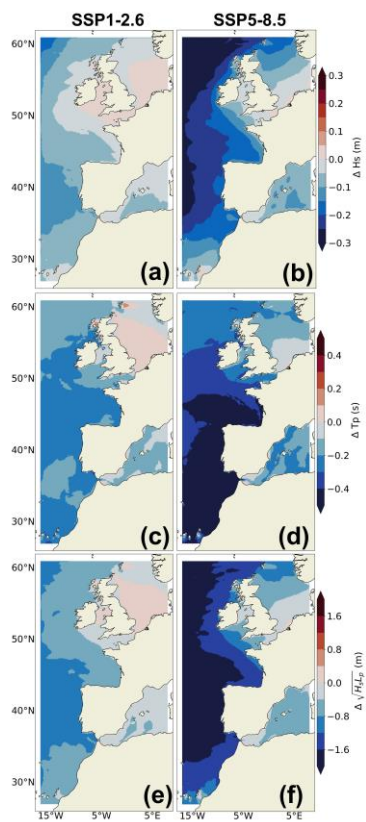
450 **3.2 Regional wave projections of IBI-CCS-WAV under two climate change scenarios: the SSP5-8.5 and SSP1-2.6 climate change scenario.**

Regional projections over 2015-2100 for the end of the 21st century are now presented for IBI-CCS-WAV under the SSP5-8.5
 and SSP1-2.6 scenarios climate change scenario for the significant wave height and peak period and mean wave direction
 validated in Sect. 3.1 and for wave setup scaling $\sqrt{H_s L_p}$ (Sect. 2.5.3).

455 **3.2.1** By driving our regional simulations with a single global climate model, the aim of the study was not to provide
 regional wave projections with characterized uncertainties over the domain. Nonetheless, we verified that our regional
 projections were consistent with other large-scale studies. Projected changes in significant wave height, peak period and wave
 setup scaling for IBI-CCS-WAV are not presented in this section because they are not directly comparable to other studies
 that do not include sea level variations, this simulation will be used to characterize the impact of the non-linear interaction of
 sea level on waves in Sect. 4.

460 **Mean state projections**

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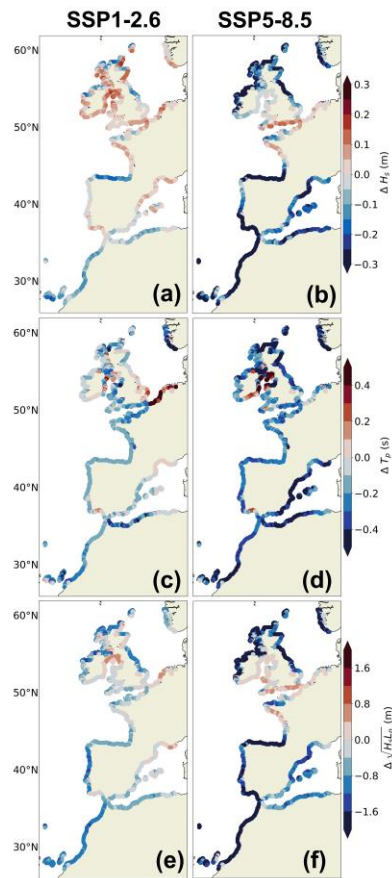


Figure 8: Projected changes in incoming extreme (99th percentile) waves conditions for the 2081-2100 period (relative to 1986-2005) under the SSP1-2.6 (first column) and SSP5-8.5 (second column) scenarios in IBI-CCS-WAV for (a,b) significant wave height (ΔH_s , in m), (c,d) peak period (ΔT_p , in s) and (e,f) sealing for wave setup ($\Delta \sqrt{H_s L_p}$, in m).

Projected changes in the 99th percentile of significant wave height, peak period and wave setup sealing extremes are illustrated in Figure 8 for the end of the century under two climate change scenarios. Changes in the 99th percentile of peak period are moderate as it generally represents a decrease of less than 2.5 % for the SSP5-8.5 scenario (Fig. 8c,d). For the significant wave height, projected changes in the 99th percentile under SSP5-8.5 scenario are large with a decrease of more than 30 cm or 12 % in the southern part of the domain. For both scenarios, projected changes in the 99th percentile of significant wave height are quite spatially substantially different from those in the mean state, as reported in Morim et al., 2018. This is associated with different changes in the extreme wind speed forcing compared to those in the mean state (not shown). For example, for the SSP5-8.5 scenario, the large decrease in the extreme wind speed (Fig. 3bA2b) and thus in the significant wave height of more than 1 m or 12 % is located in the North Atlantic south of 45 °N and north of 55 °N (Fig. 7b6b). This is consistent with other studies (Aarnes et al., 2017; Meucci et al., 2021) in which the largest decrease in the 99th percentile of extreme significant wave height is also found in the southern domain (Fig. 8b). In the English Channel, Celtic Sea and French Atlantic coasts, the model even exhibits an increase in the extreme significant wave height that has not been reported in other studies for both scenarios (Fig. 8a,b). This increase is however consistent with projected changes in extreme wind speed shown in Fig. 3bA2b for the English Channel. In the Mediterranean Sea, the SSP5-8.5 and SSP1-2.6 scenarios exhibit significant wave height projected changes of a different sign (Fig. 8a,b) associated with different projected changes in the forcing global climate model. Projected changes in the extreme winds (not shown). Over the whole domain, as projected changes in extreme peak periods are small, projected changes in extreme wave setup sealing are mostly governed by those in extreme significant wave height (Fig. 8e,f) in contrast to the projected changes in mean state of Figure 7. For instance, along the north Iberian coasts, projected changes in wave setup sealing show a decrease of 2 m or 4 %, with 70 % of the changes due to those in significant wave height and 30 % due to changes in peak period. In terms of sea level equivalent, the decrease in extreme wave setup can

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reach between -2.8 cm and -4.9 cm using (1), as for the mean state of Figure 7, peak period are moderate as they generally represent a decrease of less than 2.5 % (Fig. 6d).

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3.2.2 Projected changes in wave roses

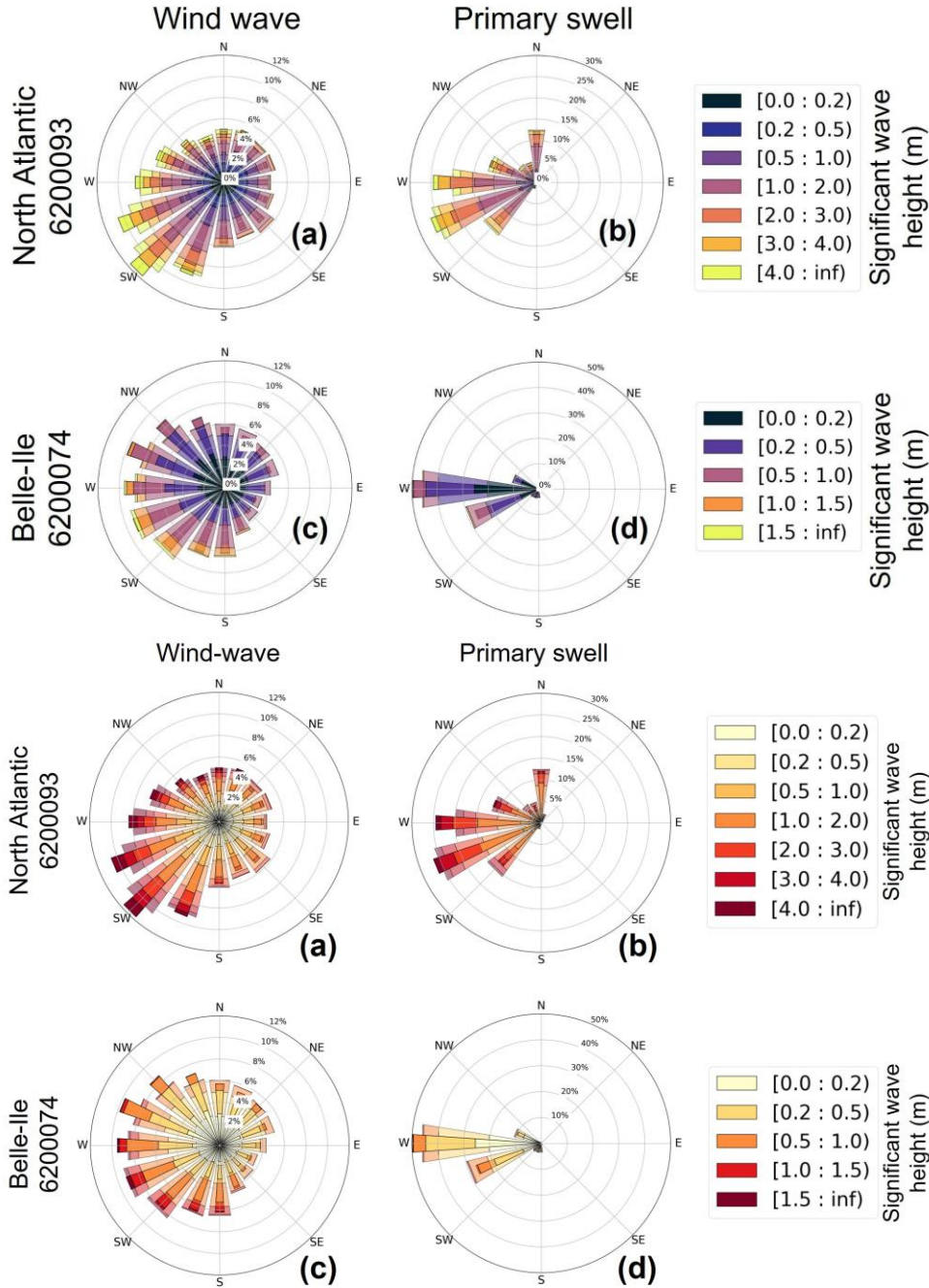


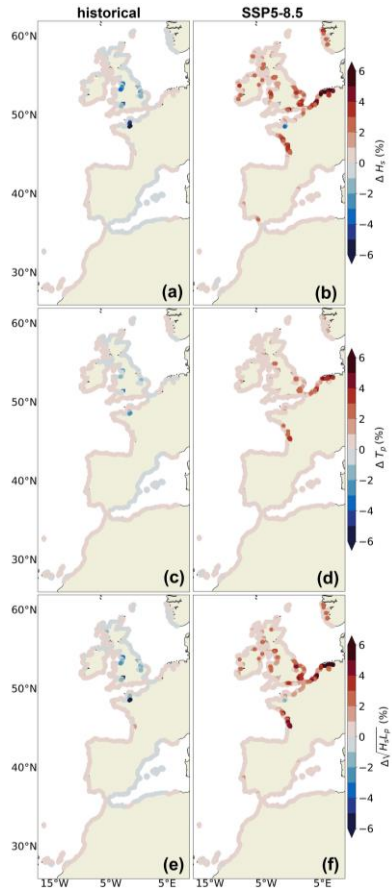
Figure 97: Projected changes (SSP5-8.5 scenario) in directional distribution of significant wave height for the 2081-2100 period (narrow angle bins, dark colors) relative to 1986-2005 (wide angle bins, pale colors) in IBI-CCS-WAV at

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4.1 Impact for the entire coastal domain

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This result agrees consistent with Arns et al., 2017 who showed that changes in water depth changes induced by sea level rise were leading to waves of resulted in greater amplitude and period, breaking closer to the shore. wave amplitudes near the coast. The impact of the sea level rise on the mean state of significant wave height leads to an impact of the same order of magnitude (up to +6 %) on the wave setup scaling mean state (Fig. 10f). For the peak period, the impact is moderate (Fig. 10d)-future mean peak periods is even smaller, with differences up to +4% (or 0.05 s) (Fig. 8d). In the southern North Sea, projected changes in both significant wave height and peak period are small (Fig 7b) and therefore an added impact of +3 cm due to the sea level rise corresponds to more than 70 % of the projected total changes under SSP5-8.5 scenario.

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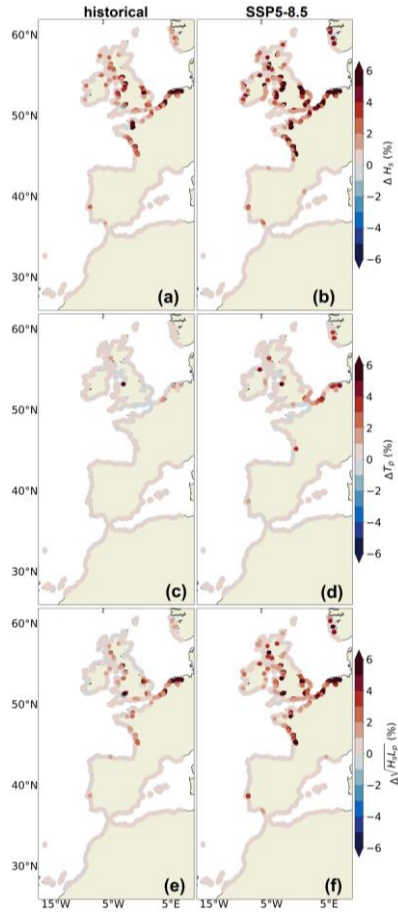


Figure 416a). The small impact of the non-linear interaction of sea level on waves (+3 cm, +0.05 s) therefore represents more than 70% of the future change.

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heights and peak periods in IBI-CCS-WAV are quite small at the coast (Fig. 8b,c), especially on the French Atlantic coasts and on the North Sea coasts (<10 cm, <0.3 s), an impact of the hourly water level variations of +6 cm are increased by up to +40 % or +0.1 s represents more than 80 % of the projected changes in IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh. These results highlight that wave-water level non-linear interactions should be considered for applications on wave extreme events in particular in coastal zones subject to large water level variations or on large continental shelves, with implications for estimates of both past and future sea level changes. 60 cm (Fig. 9b). On the contrary, extreme peak periods are negligibly impacted by the non-linear interaction of sea level on waves (Fig. 9c,d).

4.2 Impact of the impact on extreme events at two specific locations: Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel and French Atlantic coast

The largest impact of including water level variations in the wave modeling model is found during extreme events, as shown in Figure 11. In Sect. 4.2, the We now focus is on two specific French regions where an impact of non-linear wave-water level interactions on the wave extremes has been identified in Figures 11 and Figure 9. In the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel, strong hourly water level variations occur due to the large tidal range in the region (about 10 meters, Fig. 2b1b). For the French Atlantic coast, the tidal range is large (4 meters, Fig. 2b1b) but smaller than in the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel.

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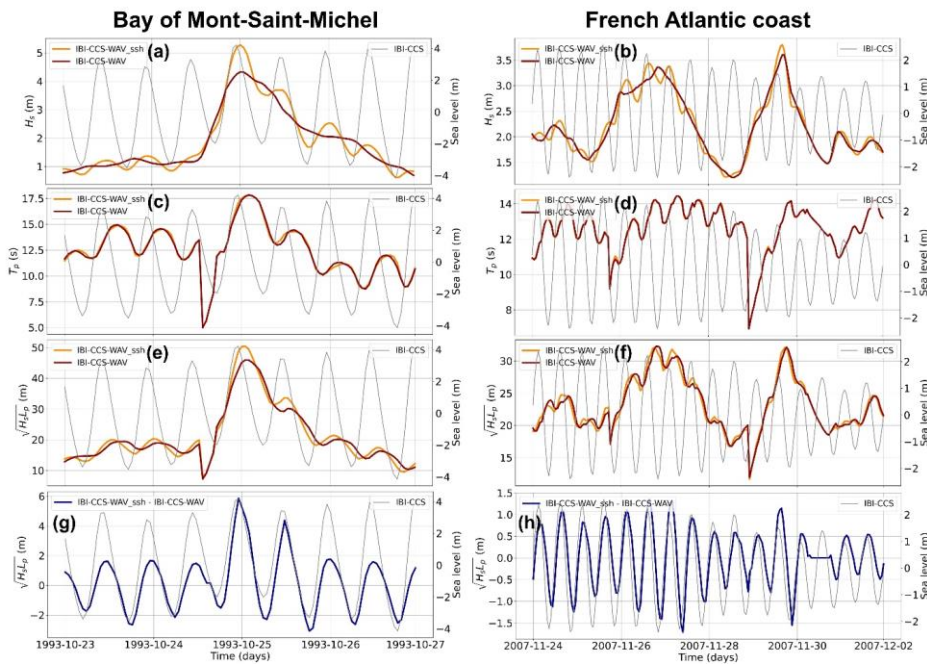
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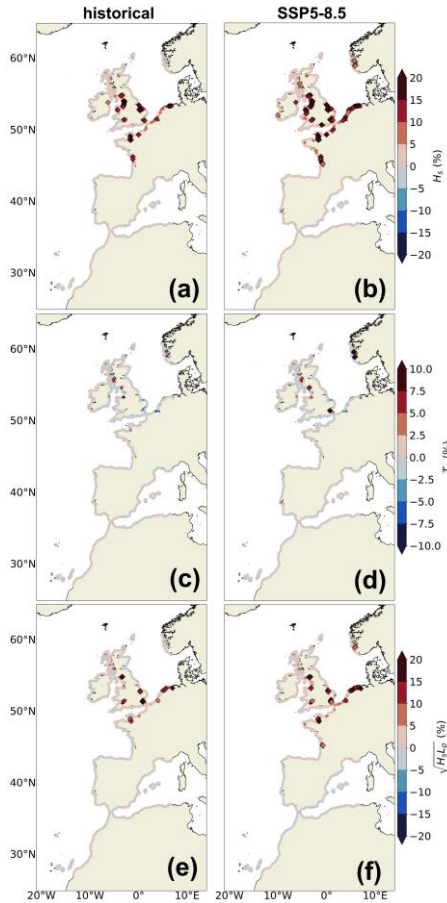
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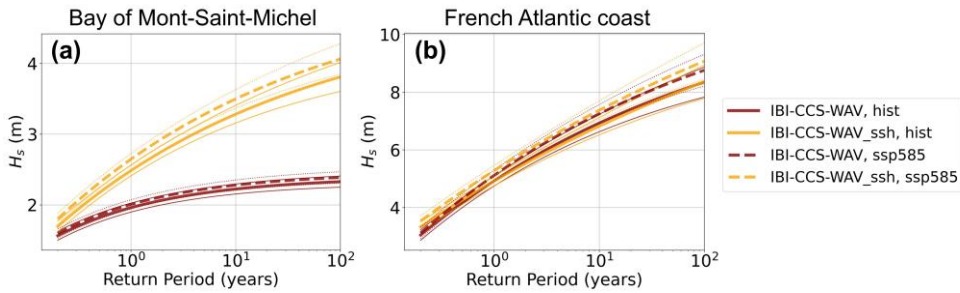


670 **4.3 Impact on extreme events in terms of return periods**

675 It was shown in Sect. 4.1 that the impact of the inclusion of the hourly water level variations in the wave model had a larger effect on the 99th percentile than on the mean state of wave conditions. To better document the impacts on extreme events, we now focus on high return periods, such as the 100-year return level. In Sect. 4.3, a nonstationary extreme value analysis (EVA) is performed for each location time series by using the approach described by Mentaschi et al., 2016. This method is used to detect long-term trends in the extremes and to filter out the variability on time scales shorter than 30 years. For each location and wave time series, the output of the EVA analysis is a time-varying generalized Pareto distribution (GPD):



680 **Figure 13:** Impact of the inclusion of the hourly water level variations in the wave model on the 100-year return level of (a,b) significant wave height (first row, ΔH_s , in %), (c,d) peak period (second row, ΔT_p , in %) and (e,f) wave setup scaling (third row, $\sqrt{H_s/L_p}$, in %). The first column shows the relative differences of the 100-year return level between IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh and IBI-CCS-WAV for the year 1985 (representative of the 1970-2000 period). The second column shows the relative differences of the 100-year return level between IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh and IBI-CCS-WAV for the year 2085 (representative of the 2070-2100 period) under the SSP5-8.5 scenario.



The large diamonds represent the locations where the differences between both simulations are significant (i.e. where the confidence intervals associated with the 100-year return level calculation are disjoint). Note that the colorbars are saturated in red for some points for (b).

Projected changes in the 100-year return level under SSP5-8.5 scenario (not shown) are globally consistent with projected changes in the 99th percentile of significant wave height, peak period and wave setup scaling of Figure 8. Therefore, we use the IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh simulations to assess the influence of the inclusion of hourly water level variations in the wave model during high return period events. As for the 99th percentile, the coastal points of the large continental shelf of Figure 13 are highly impacted and particularly macro-tidal locations (Fig. 2b). However, the differences between IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh for the 100-year return level are of a larger amplitude than the differences for the 99th percentile of Figure 11 for the whole domain. At the end of the century, the consideration in the wave model of the combination of the tidal range, storm surges and mean sea level rise lead to greater values in extreme significant wave height and wave setup scaling by up to +20 % and +10 % respectively. However, these large impacts are found in locations where the projected changes for the 21st century are generally small since the largest projected changes are located in the southern domain. In spite of this, the effect of sea level on waves should be important to consider when analyzing extreme wave events but also when analyzing extreme water level events even if fewer locations are concerned for the wave setup scaling.

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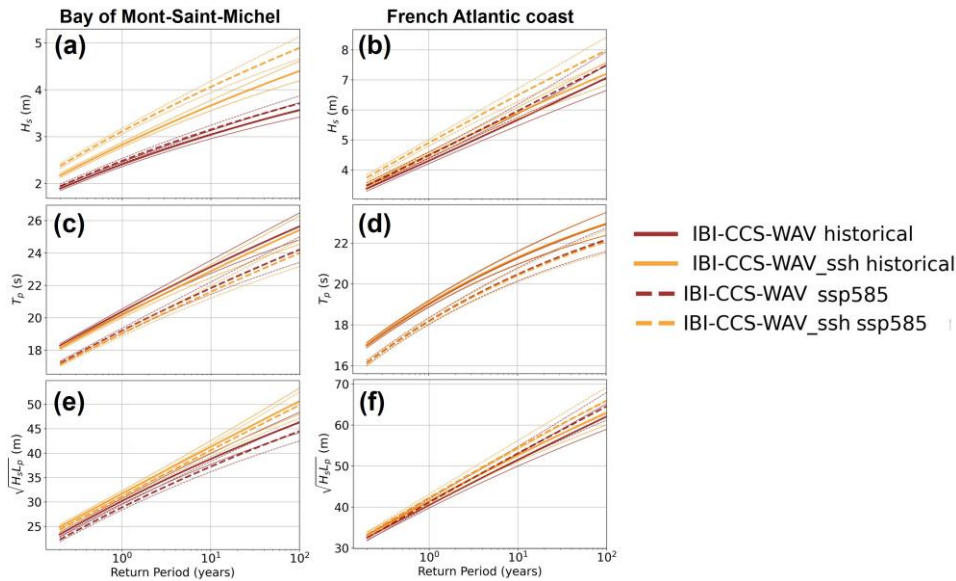


Figure 14: Return period curves of incoming significant wave conditions height (H_s , in m) for IBI-CCS-WAV (dark red curves) and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh (dark yellow curves) for (a) the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel (first column) and for (b) the French Atlantic coast (second column) (Fig. 2b1b). The solid lines represent the year 1985 (representative of the 1970-2000-2006 period) and the dashed lines the year 2085 (representative of the 2070-2081-2100 period) for under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. The rows show 3 variables: (a,b) significant wave height (H_s , in m), (c,d) peak period (T_p , in s) and (e,f) scaling for wave setup ($\sqrt{H_s T_p}$, in m). The thin solid and dashed lines are the confidence intervals (corresponding to 1 sigma confidence)

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associated with the extreme value analysis (EVA). The differences between IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh are considered significant when the confidence intervals associated with the return levels calculation are disjoint.

The return period curves for the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel and for the French Atlantic coast are displayed in Figure 14 for the two simulations IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh. In the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel, the differences between the two simulations are very important for the 1970-2000 period (dark curves) for the significant wave height (Fig. 14a). It is especially the case for high return periods such as the 100-year return level. As the confidence intervals for the two simulations are disjoint, the differences are considered significant. For the 2070-2100 period under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, the differences between the two simulations are even larger due to the mean sea level rise of about +80 cm. For example, in the case of the significant wave height, the 100-year return level is +35% larger when considering the water level variations and for the wave setup scaling it represents an increase of +11%. In terms of wave setup, using parameterization (1), the differences in the wave setup can reach from +7 cm to +12.25 cm for the 100-year return level depending on the beach slope. This value seems small but is important to consider in the context of threshold exceedance calculations to predict coastal flooding. For the French Atlantic coast, the confidence intervals between IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh are not distinct. Therefore, the differences due to the inclusion of the water level variations on the wave model are not considered significant. Overall, the longer the return periods, the larger the differences between the two simulations.

To better assess the impact of sea level variations on the extreme significant wave heights, return period curves are displayed in Figure 11 for the two locations. The higher the return periods, the larger the impact of the non-linear interaction of sea level on waves. For instance, in the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel, the 1-in-100-year return level of significant wave height is +60% larger when considering sea level variations in the wave model (Fig. 11a). At the end of the century, the differences between the two simulations are even larger and can reach +70% mainly due to the mean sea level rise of about +80 cm under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. The curves also indicate that considering the interaction of sea level on waves modifies the shape of the return period curve, which may have important implications for the future amplifications of extreme events.

5 Discussion

5.1 Model resolution limitations

The use of a single forcing climate model does not allow to quantify the uncertainties of the projected changes. Here, the focus of the study is not providing a likely range of wave projected changes over the IBI domain but rather the focus is process-oriented. In our study, the estimation of the impact of including the hourly water level variations in the wave model is limited by several resolution aspects. The first limitation is the horizontal resolution of the wave model. The model resolution of 1/10° (~10 km) is conditioned by the computational cost due to the length of the simulations needed to address the question of extremes in a non-climate scalescales. It does not allow a very fine representation of the coastline and of the bathymetry in the coastal zones. For instance, to maintain a realistic balance between Moreover, the 10 km horizontal resolution regional ocean model (Tab. 1 and Appendix A) used for the water depth, the minimum surface currents and sea level forcing does not allow for dry areas. Therefore, a minimal bathymetry is set to 6 m (i.e. time-mean minimum of to run the ocean model with tides (Chaigneau et al. 2022)). We chose to apply the same minimal bathymetry of 6 m in the regional wave model to maintain consistency between both regional ocean and wave models. In fact, because it would have been unrealistic to have a bathymetry of 1 m within a 10 km grid point. In consequence, the wave model has, the minimum bathymetry (6 m) also allows to maintain a realistic balance between the 10 km horizontal resolution and the water depth. This results in fewer areas of shallow and intermediate and shallow water areas than a higher resolution in the wave model and thus less non-linear interactions effect of sea level variations on the waves. The implementation of “wetting and drying” (O’Dea et al., 2020) allowing for dry areas in NEMO version 4.2 should improve this limitation on the ocean model and therefore on the wave model. Another limitation that may limit the non-linear interactions between waves and water level is the resolution of the atmospheric forcing from the global climate model (Seet. 2.3.2 Tab. 1). Given that winds are the major drivers of extreme wave events in our study, the relative coarse even with a relatively high-resolution climate model forcing, the resolution of 50 km for the atmospheric drivers (~50 km) implies that generated waves are more representative of a large-scale forcing than of coastal processes. Therefore, the results

For all these reasons, the estimates provided in this study only partially represent the processes responsible for the non-linear interaction of sea level on waves and the results found in this study are not representative of the real any purely local situation at the coast but rather give a provide regional information. A second step of dynamical downscaling at higher resolution would be necessary to overcome such resolution limitations.

5.2 Limitations associated with the use of parametrizations for the wave setup

Limitations in the use of parametrizations to estimate wave setup are thoroughly discussed in Melet et al., 2020; Lambert et al., 2020, including sensitivity analyses of the wave setup and runup contributions to different empirical parametrizations. The generic parametrization of Stockdon et al., 2006 used to compute the wave setup in our study is indeed subject to intrinsic limitations. A major limitation is that the formulation is only representative of sandy beaches. Other parameterizations (Guza and Thornton, 1981; Holman, 1986; dissipative case of Stockdon et al., 2006 or for a review Dodet et al. 2019) exist but they

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are often limited to specific coastal environments (e.g. dissipative sandy beaches, rocky cliffs) and have been calibrated with relatively few field data. The calibration therefore does not cover all the spectra of the environmental conditions.

For our large-scale study, another major limitation is that the parameterization relies on the specification of a beach slope. As explained in Melet et al., 2020, the beach slope evolves over different time scales (extreme events, seasonal, interannual, and in response to sea level rise) and spatial scales (from alongshore at a given local beach to regional scales) and generally ranges between 0.01 and 0.20 (Komar, 1998). At the moment, however, no observations of the foreshore beach slope applicable in empirical formulations is available worldwide or in Europe. Therefore, a time and space constant beach slope value is commonly used for global and regional studies (Serafin et al., 2017; Melet et al., 2018, 2020a), as done in this study. In Melet et al., 2020, a beach slope of 0.04 is used, corresponding to the median value of local values at 308 sites along the global ocean coastlines. In Serafin et al., 2017, a constant beach slope of 0.05 is used corresponding to the regional mean based on observations for the west coast of USA. In Vos et al., 2020, regional beach slopes are provided for the coasts of southeastern Australia and USA California based on satellite data. The spatial mean of these regional estimates is 0.06 ± 0.02 for the Australia and 0.07 ± 0.02 for California. All these values for β are in the tested range of 0.04-0.07.

5.3 Limitations associated with the applicability of the parametrization to coastal points

To calculate the wave setup for the coastal points of our regional domain, we chose to use the simple parameterization of Stockdon et al., 2006 based on deep water parameters. However, the coastal points are theoretically not purely deep water as shown in Figure 2a (yellow dotted lines). Yet, this approach, used in other climate studies (Melet et al., 2018, 2020a; Lambert et al., 2020), appears pragmatic given the model resolution limitations (Sect. 5.1) and the processes accounted for in the wave model (Sect. 2.1).

5.4 Impact of the absence of depth-induced wave breaking

Very close to the coast, the depth-induced wave breaking is a fundamental depth-dependent process that can have a first-order effect on the shallow water wave statistics and thus on the wave setup. As explained in Sect. 2.1, the physics associated with the explicit representation of coastal breaking waves is not activated. Such an approach is justified because our primary interest is to calculate the wave setup contribution to include it in further analyses on extreme water levels and the parameterization used to compute this contribution is based on deep water parameters (Sect. 2.5) that are not supposed to be affected by coastal wave breaking. In consequence, as the regional wave model does not have a very fine representation of the bathymetry or the coastline (Sect. 5.1) and does not resolve the wave transformations in the coastal zones, the estimates provided in this study only partially represent the processes responsible for the wave-water level non-linear interactions.

With the coastal wave breaking included, the significant wave heights should be substantially impacted in shallow waters. The impact of the inclusion of the water level variations in the wave model would also probably differ. A perspective for this study would be to take into account coastal wave breaking and to apply new specific wave setup formulations which would not require deep water characteristics or to use a wave model that directly resolve the wave setup.

5.5.2 Impact of waves on sea level

The aim of the study was to better understand the non-linear interactions between waves and sea level. In the modeling framework of the paper, only the effect of sea level on waves is accounted for. However, both are coupled in reality with waves impacting on sea level. For instance, Bonaduce et al., 2020, have studied the contribution of wave processes to sea level variability over the European Seas with ocean-wave coupled simulations at an eddy-resolving spatial resolution of 3.5 km. They highlighted the occurrence of mesoscale features of the ocean circulation and a modulation of the surge at the shelf break due to the effect of the wave forcing on sea level. More importantly, they also reported a large contribution of wave induced processes to sea level extremes which are up to 20 % higher on the European continental shelf due to these wave processes. By considering taking these processes into account in the ocean model, as the watersea level would be higher, the impact on the wave model would be larger which means increased wave water, meaning an increase in waves-sea level feedbacks.

5.6.3 Implications of the results for coastal flooding

The results obtained in this study have shown a large impact of sea level variations on extreme significant wave projections heights. Wind-waves and swell contribute to extreme sea levels at the coast via wave setup and runup (Dodet et al., 2019), combined with tides, storm surges and mean sea level changes. Marine flooding hazards cannot be quantified based on wave contributions alone but these contributions can locally partially enhance sea level changes at the coast (Melet et al., 2020a). Our results show that extreme significant wave heights are strongly influenced by the effect of sea level on waves in coastal areas subject to large sea level variations or on wide continental shelves. Depending on the region (wave regimes, sign of the extreme wave projected changes, local ocean processes involved, amplitude of projected changes in local sea level), the impact of the sea level changes on waves could be important to consider for present and future flooding hazards (e.g. for threshold exceedance calculations). For instance, future waves conditions and therefore coastal flooding could be affected in areas where large changes in tides are projected such as in the China Sea and Gulf of Saint Lawrence (Pickering et al., 2017; Haigh et al., 2019). Future extreme waves could also be significantly impacted in areas subject to large relative mean sea level

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rise, such as along the eastern coasts of the United States, the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea where a rise of +1.4 m is expected by the end of the century under the SSP5-8.5 scenario (Fox-Kemper et al., 2021).

Marine flooding hazards cannot be quantified based on wave setup alone but wave setup can locally partially balance or enhance water levels at the coast (Melet et al., 2020a). Depending on the location (wave regimes, local ocean processes involved, sign of the extreme wave projected changes, amplitude of the projected changes in ocean processes), the inclusion of the non-linear interactions could thus enhance or balance the future wave extremes and may be important to consider for future flooding hazard calculations. The results presented in this study highlight that wave-water level non-linear interactions can be substantial for extreme wave height and wave setup, but are region dependent. For instance, the extreme wave projections are directly dependent on the water level variations forcing. In our case, the future water level variations and therefore a large part of the non-linear interactions are mainly associated with the mean sea level rise of about +80 cm and less so to changes in tides or storm surges. In other regions, large projected changes in tides or storm surges could impact the future waves conditions. For instance, Pickering et al., 2017 and Haigh et al., 2019 showed changes up to +20 cm in the M2 component in the China Sea and in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence. Then, the future wave extremes could also be substantially more impacted in areas subject to larger mean sea level rise such as along the eastern coasts of the United States, in the Gulf of Mexico and in the Caribbean Sea where a rise of +1.4 m is expected at the end of the century under scenario SSP5-8.5 (Fox-Kemper et al., 2021).

6 Conclusions

Several studies have shown that water depth changes induced by sea level rise can induce changes in the wave field at a fine spatial scale (Hoeke et al., 2015; Arns et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2019; Idier et al., 2019; Calvino et al., 2022). The aim of the present paper was to characterize, at a larger scale, the sensitivity of historical and projected sea states to the non-linear interactions between waves and water level changes (tides, storm surge, mean sea level rise) changes on waves, notably during extreme events. To address this question, a regional wave model has been adapted to include the wave-water level interactions over the northeastern Atlantic for the 1950-2100 period. This is one of the first studies assessing the impact of sea level changes on waves conditions at such a regional large-scale.

As a first step, the regional wave model has been presented and validated over the 1993-2014 period. Comparisons to observations and a wave reanalysis showed an overall good performance of the model. Secondly, as we used a single forcing climate model, projected regional changes in mean and extreme wave conditions were compared to previous studies. They were shown to be representative of other published projections over the northeastern Atlantic region, with a general decrease in mean and extreme significant wave height and peak period under the SSP5-8.5 scenario.

The impact of including hourly water level variations in the wave model was assessed over the historical period and for 21st century projections for the mean state and extremes of wind-wave characteristics and wave setup, the latter contributing to coastal sea level hazards such as coastal flooding. For the historical period, wave-water level interactions on the mean wave state and wave setup were found to be small. The impact of water level changes on wave conditions is weak in general over the historical period is substantially more important when considering the 99th percentile or 100-year return level along the coasts of the large continental shelf and particularly in large tidal range areas. For example, in the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel where the tidal range is of 10 meters, extreme significant wave heights were found to be larger by 1 meter (or +25%) during a historical extreme wave event when considering hourly water level variations in the wave model. The corresponding increase in wave setup reached +8.4 cm and +14.7 cm, when considering beach slopes of 4% and 7% respectively. However, these values are the upper bound of the sensitivity of significant wave height and wave setup to wave-water level interactions with the settings of our model, as the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel is subject to one of the largest tidal ranges of the IBI domain.

Mean and at the end of the 21st century. Over the northeastern Atlantic, mean sea level rise and, to a lesser extent, changes in tidal amplitudes and storm surges reach approximately +80 cm in 2100 compared to the 1986-2005 mean under period for the SSP5-8.5 high-emission climate change scenario over the northeastern Atlantic (Chaigneau et al., 2022). This increase leads to mean sea level rise has an overall effect in our regional projections of the mean wave state over the large continental shelf where shallow and intermediate water dynamics prevail. Significant wave heights are projected to be significant wave heights up to +3 cm (or +6%) higher along the French Atlantic coasts and in the southern North Sea by the end of the 21st century due to water depth changes. The impact of accounting for wave-water level interactions on the wave setup mean state is of the same order of magnitude (+6%). However, it should be noted that these impacts are found in locations where projected changes in significant wave height over the 21st century are generally small since the largest projected changes are located in the southern part of the regional domain. The main impact of the inclusion of hourly water level variations in the wave model is found during extreme events (99th percentile or 100-year return level) at the end of the 21st century. For high return period events, the consideration in the wave model of sea level variations is substantially more important on extreme significant wave heights over the wide continental shelf where shallow water dynamics prevail and particularly in large tidal range areas. For example, in the Bay of Mont-Saint-Michel where the tidal range is of 10 m, extreme significant wave heights are found to be larger by 1 m (or +30%) during a historical extreme wave. Accounting for the combination of tides, storm surges and sea level rise in the wave model also lead to greater values of 1 in extreme-100-year significant wave height by heights, up to +20

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875 % for many locations 40 %, at the end of the 21st century. The impact on located in the wave setup can be up to +10 % but fewer locations are concerned. Overall Bay of Biscay, the inclusion of water level variations on the wave model had almost no impact on the peak period.

880 However North Sea, around United Kingdom and Ireland. Moreover, as the regional wave model does not have a very fine representation of the bathymetry or of the coastline and does not resolve the depth induced wave breaking in the shallow areas include the feedback of waves on sea level, the estimates provided in this study only partially represent the processes responsible for the wave-watersea level-wave, non-linear interactions. Moreover Overall, the results found might be dependent inclusion of water level variations on the parametrization used to compute the wave setup and therefore model had almost no impact on the beach slopes-peak period.

885 In conclusion, our results advocate for the inclusion of wave-watersea level-wave non-linear interactions in modelling modeling studies of wave extremes at this resolution or higher, in particular when extreme significant wave heights are of interest. These non-linear interactions should be accounted for when threshold exceedances are calculated for example in order to prevent coastal flooding or to build coastal protection structures in a climate change context.

Code availability

The MFWAM model used in this study is based on the wave model WAM freely available at <https://github.com/mywave/WAM>.

890 Data availability

895 Information on CNRM-CM6- 1-HR simulations can be found at <https://doi.org/10.22033/ESGF/CMIP6.4067> (CNRM-CM6-1-HR, historical; Voldoire, 2019a), <https://doi.org/10.22033/ESGF/CMIP6.4164> (CNRM-CM6-1-HR, piControl; Voldoire, 2019b), <https://doi.org/10.22033/ESGF/CMIP6.4185> (CNRM-CM6-1-HR, ssp126; Voldoire, 2020a), <https://doi.org/10.22033/ESGF/CMIP6.4225> (CNRM-CM6-1-HR, ssp585; Voldoire, 2019c). The CNRM-CM6-1-HR forcing fields are available on the ESGF website (ESGF, 2022a: historical data, http://esgf-data.dkrz.de/search/cmip6-dkrz/?mip_era=CMIP6&activity_id=CMIP&institution_id=CNRM-CERFACS&source_id=CNRM-CM6-1-HR&experiment_id=historical; ESGF, 2022b: piControl data, http://esgf-data.dkrz.de/search/cmip6-dkrz/?mip_era=CMIP6&activity_id=CMIP&institution_id=CNRM-CERFACS&source_id=CNRM-CM6-1-HR&experiment_id=piControl; ESGF, 2022c: ssp126 data, http://esgf-data.dkrz.de/search/cmip6-dkrz/?mip_era=CMIP6&activity_id=ScenarioMIP&institution_id=CNRM-CERFACS&source_id=CNRM-CM6-1-HR&experiment_id=ssp126; ESGF, 2022d: ssp585 data, http://esgf-data.dkrz.de/search/cmip6-dkrz/?mip_era=CMIP6&activity_id=ScenarioMIP&institution_id=CNRM-CERFACS&source_id=CNRM-CM6-1-HR&experiment_id=ssp585). The reanalysis data and wave buoy observations were obtained from the Copernicus Marine Services (Copernicus, 2022a: reanalysis data, <https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00030>; Copernicus, 2022b: observational data, <https://doi.org/10.13155/53381>).

Author contribution:

910 AM designed the study. LA prepared the regional wave model configuration. SLC adapted the regional wave model to consider hourly variations of sea level and performed the regional wave simulations. AAC performed the sea level regional simulations and did the analyses of the study. AM, AV, GR, SLC and LA supervised the project. AM and AAC wrote the introduction, SLC AAC wrote the Methods section and AAC wrote the Results, Discussion and Conclusions sections. All authors contributed to manuscript revisions and read and approved the submitted version.

Competing interests:

All authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Appendix A : External forcings used to produce the regional wave simulations

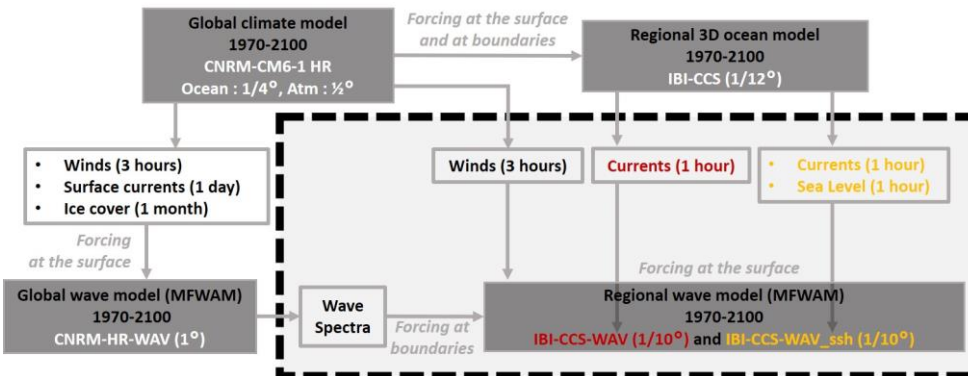


Figure A1: Sketch of the downscaling strategy explaining the links between the different simulations used in this study.

1 Wave forcing from CNRM-HR-WAV global wave simulations

The regional wave simulations IBI-CCS-WAV and IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh described in Sect. 2.2 and Sect. 2.3 are forced at lateral boundaries by 3-hourly wave spectra information from CNRM-HR-WAV global wave simulations (Fig. A1, Tab. 1). CNRM-HR-WAV simulations are produced over the 1970-2100 period using the MFWAM wave model (Sect. 2.1) at a 1° resolution. These simulations are forced by 3-hourly surface winds ($1/2^\circ$), monthly sea-ice cover ($1/4^\circ$) and daily ocean surface currents ($1/4^\circ$) taken from the CMIP6 CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate simulations (Voldoire et al., 2019; Saint-Martin et al., 2021). The historical simulation of CNRM-CM6-1-HR is used over the 1970-2014 period. Then, over the 2015-2100 period, the SSP5-8.5 climate change scenario simulations is used (O'Neill et al., 2016).

CNRM-HR-WAV simulations use 2-min gridded global topography data from ETOPO2/NOAA (National Geophysical Data Center 2006). The model grid has a constant spacing in longitude but is compressed in latitude to maintain a constant resolution (Bidlot, 2012). A wave growth calibration was performed to adjust the mean significant wave height of CNRM-HR-WAV to the Copernicus Marine Service Waverys wave reanalysis (Law-Chune et al., 2021) over the IBI domain. The wave spectrum is discretized in 24 directions and 30 frequencies starting from 0.035 up to 0.58 Hz. Classical integrated wave parameters such as significant wave height (H_s) or peak period (T_p) are output at a three-hourly from CNRM-HR-WAV.

2 Atmospheric forcing from CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model

Regional wave projections are driven by the same 3-hourly surface winds as CNRM-HR-WAV (Sect. A1.1) produced by the CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model (Voldoire et al., 2019; Saint-Martin et al., 2021), which is part of the CMIP6 database. The use of a global climate model with a higher spatial resolution compared to the typical coarse resolutions of CMIP5 and 6 models was interesting for the atmosphere ($1/2^\circ$) for the intensity of the winds notably.

By driving our simulations with only one global climate model simulation, the aim of the study was not to characterize the uncertainties of wave projected changes over the IBI domain, but rather to discuss the impact of the sea level changes on the downscaled projections. However, before using the winds to force the global and regional wave models, we verified that CNRM-CM6-1-HR was consistent with other CMIP6 global climate models in particular in terms of extreme winds and their projections. A comparison of extreme winds (99th percentile) between CNRM-CM6-1-HR, some other CMIP6 global climate models, the atmospheric reanalysis ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) and wind observations from wave buoys (Wehde et al., 2021) is performed at different locations in the IBI region (Fig. A2a). The three different locations considered (shown in Fig. 1) are chosen along storm trajectories in the northeastern Atlantic and North Sea (Lozano et al., 2004). Figure A2a shows that CNRM-CM6-1-HR is representative of an ensemble of 21 CMIP6 models over the historical period. In general, CNRM-CM6-1-HR also agree with ERA5 which is the reference here. However, wave buoys observations seem to be significantly different from

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both the global climate models and ERA5, except in the North Sea. Figure A2b shows the projected changes for the extreme wind speed at the three locations. Projected changes in extreme wind speed are quite small in all models and rather uncertain (large interquartile range). Projected changes are of the same sign for 7, 9 and 10 models out of twelve for the three boxes respectively. In the English Channel and North Sea, CNRM-CM6-1-HR shows an increase in extreme wind speed which is representative of the other CMIP6 models. In the North Atlantic, CNRM-CM6-1-HR exhibits a large decrease in extreme wind speed which is in the high range (in absolute value) of CMIP6 models but still of the same sign as most models.

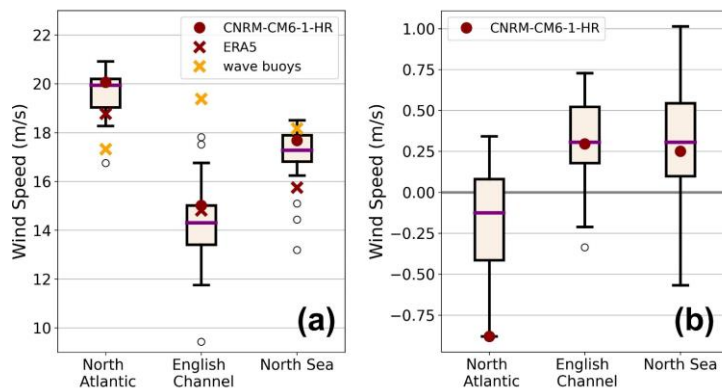


Figure A2; (a) Extreme winds (99th percentile) for CNRM-CM6-1-HR (dark red dot), 21 different CMIP6 global climate models (black box), the atmospheric reanalysis ERA5 (dark red cross) and wind observations from wave buoys (yellow cross) at the three locations in the IBI region marked on Fig. 2a for the 1993-2014 period. The 2011-2022 period was chosen for the wave buoy in the North Sea as it was the only period available. (b) Projected changes in extreme wind speed for CNRM-CM6-1-HR and 12 different CMIP6 climate models at the three locations marked on Fig. 2a under the SSP5-8.5 scenario (2081-2100 vs 1986-2005). The selected CMIP6 climate models are those with three-hourly atmospheric outputs. In (a) and (b), the purple line represents the median, the black box represents the interquartile range and the whiskers represent the last model under or above 1.5 times the interquartile range. The black circles represent the outlier models i.e. models outside 1.5 times the interquartile range. Units are in $m s^{-1}$.

3 Ocean forcing from IBI-CCS regional ocean model

IBI-CCS-WAV regional wave projections are also forced by hourly surface current (and hourly sea level variations in the dedicated simulation IBI-CCS-WAV_ssh) of IBI-CCS, a 3D regional ocean model at a $1/12^\circ$ horizontal resolution, itself forced by CNRM-CM6-1-HR global climate model. IBI-CCS was implemented in Chaigneau et al., 2022 to refine sea level projections of CNRM-CM6-1-HR over the northeastern Atlantic region through a dynamical downscaling. For a more complete representation of processes driving coastal sea level changes, tides and atmospheric surface pressure forcing are explicitly resolved in IBI-CCS in addition to the mean sea level (including ocean general circulation (dynamic sea level)).

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