

1 **The depth-varying response of coastal circulation and water levels to 2D**
2 **radiation stress when applied in a coupled wave-tide-surge modelling system**
3 **during an extreme storm.**

4
5 *Submission for Coastal Engineering*

6
7 **Jennifer M. Brown^{a,*}, Rodolfo Bolaños^{a,b}, Judith Wolf^a**

8
9 ^a National Oceanography Centre, Joseph Proudman Building, 6 Brownlow Street, Liverpool, L3
10 5DA, UK.

11 ^b Now at DHI, Agern Alle 5, Hørsholm 2970, Denmark.

12 * Corresponding author *Phone*: +44 (0) 151 795 4971, *Fax*: +44 (0) 151 795 4801, *Email*:

13 jebro@pol.ac.uk (J.M. Brown)

14

15 **Abstract**

16 During storm events wave setup in shallow regions can contribute significantly to the total water
17 elevation, radiation stress can also generate alongshore drift influencing sediment transport. In
18 low lying coastal regions this generates the potential for flood inundation and morphological
19 change. A coupled tide-surge-wave modelling system is therefore required for accurate
20 forecasting. Liverpool Bay, UK, is taken as a case study because it has a resource of observations
21 and incorporates three estuaries, thus providing conditions to assess the model performance both
22 at the open coast and within estuarine environments. The model covers a region encompassing

23 depths from about 50 m below the mean tidal level to shallow wetting and drying regions, and has
24 previously given good wave and surge hindcasts both for individual storm events and multi-year
25 studies.

26
27 The present study builds on an already accepted model, to include and assess the spatial influence
28 of 2D radiation stress when implemented in a 3D circulation model. The results show that the
29 method is computationally efficient, so relevant for operational use, and also provides a plausible
30 solution. The varied influence of radiation stress across a coastal domain is demonstrated, with
31 larger impact at an estuary mouth and along the open coast, while having lesser impact within an
32 estuary and further offshore.

33
34 *Keywords:* Tide-surge-wave modelling, Shallow water, Wind waves, POLCOMS-WAM,
35 Radiation stress, Wave setup, Liverpool Bay.

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 To conserve momentum in shallow water, a force balancing any change in momentum is
39 generated. The excess momentum flux due to surface waves is defined as radiation stress
40 (Longuet-Higgins and Stewart, 1964). In shallow regions, the presence of waves can increase or
41 decrease the mean water level, which is known as wave setup or wave set-down. This change in
42 water level is an integrated effect over a region caused by gradients in radiation stress. Often
43 waves do not approach a coastline perpendicularly and a wave-induced alongshore current is also
44 manifested (Longuet Higgins, 1970a and b). During storm conditions, increased water levels arise
45 due to the combined influence of direct meteorological forcing and wave setup, which together
46 generate a storm surge. It has been known for considerable time (Harris, 1963) that at the open

47 coast wave setup can contribute to storm surge levels, during extreme storm events (e.g. with 100
48 year return period) the wave setup can contribute 30-60% of the total storm surge elevation (Dean
49 and Bender, 2006). In addition, the morphological evolution of sandy beaches can depend on
50 sediment transport driven by the alongshore current (Sherman, 1988). Radiation stress has played
51 an important role in the studies of nearshore currents, wave setup, wave set-down and rip currents,
52 commonly using 2D (depth-averaged) radiation stress in modelling approaches (Mastenbroek et
53 al., 1993; Sheng et al., 2010). In this approach the radiation stress, S_{ij} , is expressed as:

$$54 \quad S_{ij} = \rho g \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{c_g}{c} \frac{k_i k_j}{k^2} + \left(\frac{c_g}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \delta_{ij} \right\} \times F(f, \theta) df d\theta \quad (1)$$

55 Where ρ = water density, g = acceleration due to gravity, c_g = wave group velocity, c = the wave
56 phase speed, k = the wave number, δ = the Kronecker delta function, F = the wave spectrum, f =
57 the wave frequency, θ = the wave direction and i, j = the direction components.

58

59 Including 2D radiation stress within models has improved water level modelling (Roland et al.,
60 2009), modified inundation simulations (Xie et al., 2008) and enabled the study of wave-induced
61 currents and wave setup (Pleskachevsky et al., 2009). However, 3D effects can also be important,
62 since radiation stress is induced by surface waves and is thus not distributed equally in the
63 vertical; recently more attention has been paid to this, e.g., Ardhuin et al. (2008a, 2008b), Bennis
64 et al. (2011), Bennis and Ardhuin (2011), Mellor (2003, 2005, 2008, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, 2013)
65 and Xia et al. (2004). Recent modelling studies (Brown, 2010; Brown et al., 2011; Bolaños et al.,
66 2011a) have found that the inclusion of a 3D radiation stress method (see Mellor, 2003; 2005)
67 increased the hindcast water level and modified the current field during both extreme and more
68 typical conditions. However, the reliability of the method used (Mellor's approach) has been
69 questioned (Brown et al., 2011), in particular the robustness of the influence of radiation stress on

70 the vertical current profile (Bennis et al., 2011) and the accuracy of the vertical pressure term
71 (Ardhuin et al., 2008a, 2008b). New 3D radiation stress methods are presently being developed
72 (Mellor, 2008; 2011; Bennis et al., 2011) in addition to the application of vortex force formulation
73 (Kumar et al., 2012; Moghimi et al., in press). Earlier work (Mastenbroek et al., 1993) has shown
74 that radiation stress in 2D can give a good surge-setup hindcast. While 3D methods are
75 undergoing rigorous validation (e.g., Kumar et al., 2011; Moghimi et al., in press; Sheng and Li,
76 2011) this study assesses the contribution of the 2D method across a coastal region, using model-
77 observation comparisons as validation where available. At present, 3D radiation stress methods
78 have limited application and are not robust over a full regional application with unrealistic flow
79 generation in certain areas (Kumar et al., 2011). Stable 2D radiation stress methods are therefore
80 still used within depth-integrated (2D) circulation models to simulate extreme wave-circulation
81 conditions (e.g. Dietrich et al., 2012). Here, the aim is to identify if 2D methods are adequate,
82 when implemented in a 3D circulation model, while there is still debate on the accuracy and
83 suitability of 3D methods and also to identify where radiation stress has most influence across a
84 region of: estuaries, open coast and the nearshore zone.

85
86 To assess the importance of 2D radiation stress in 3D hydrodynamic models, this study looks at
87 wave setup and wave-induced currents during an extreme storm event across a shoaling region of
88 wave-influence in the UK, Liverpool Bay (Fig. 1). This area covers a region of gradually
89 decreasing depths from about 50 m below the mean tidal level offshore, to the coast. Within the
90 bay there are three estuaries along with large areas of intertidal beaches and banks. This allows a
91 range of shallow water environments to be studied. An extreme storm event (~2 m surge
92 elevation and ~5.2 m H_{m0} wave height), occurring on the 18th January 2007 is hindcast using the

93 Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory Ocean Modelling System coupled to the WAVE Model
94 (POLCOMS-WAM). This system has proven to give a good model hindcast for the Irish Sea
95 (Brown et al., 2010) and within Liverpool Bay (Bolaños et al., 2011a), especially for this event
96 (Brown, 2010; Brown et al., 2011). This model therefore provides a good basis for further
97 development. The event considered is one of the largest storms, with a complete set of
98 coincidental wave, water level and current observations, to have occurred in the past decade for
99 this study site. This event is associated with the easterly passage of a depression across the north
100 of Ireland and over Scotland (Brown and Wolf, 2009). The observed atmospheric pressure at
101 Hilbre Island ranged from 974 to 999 mb during the event. The storm track produced veering
102 winds from southwest to west, which were observed to peak at 17.3 m/s at the Hilbre Island met
103 station (Brown, 2010). In response to the meteorological forcing the surge exceeded levels of 2 m
104 along the northwest English coast, while the significant wave height (H_{m0}) offshore reached 4.95
105 m during this 25 hour storm period. The nearshore currents during this study period were of the
106 order of 1 m/s at two mooring sites (A and B, Fig. 1) and predominantly in an east-west direction.
107 At this time the astronomical tidal range was 6.66 m, which is just above the mean tidal range
108 (6.25 m). To fully assess the model skill, and the importance of the radiation stress, observed data
109 have been obtained from the Coastal Observatory (COBS, Howarth et al., 2006;
110 <http://cobs.noc.ac.uk>). The following observations are available at specified locations given in
111 Fig. 1: total surge elevations at two coastal tide gauges (Hilbre and Liverpool), wave heights and
112 periods at two wave buoys (WaveNet and Triaxys) and vertical current profiles at two fixed
113 mooring sites (A and B).

114

115 This study aims to extend the previous research of Brown (2010), Bolaños et al. (2009; 2011a;
116 2011b) and Brown et al. (2011) by investigating the regional influence of radiation stress during
117 extreme storm events in shallow, wave-influenced regions. A 2D method is assessed to determine
118 the contribution of wave setup to storm surge simulations and assess its suitability for operational
119 use. The POLCOMS-WAM model has been modified (Section 2) to include 2D radiation stress.
120 The model results are validated and compared with previous 3D simulations in Section 3. The
121 results are used to determine coastal locations where radiation stress may be important under
122 storm conditions. A discussion of the different 2D modelling approach is presented, comparing
123 the numerical stability of these methods over the full domain of a complex coastal region. Their
124 application in operational models is considered in Section 4, before concluding, in Section 5, that
125 the 2D method is appropriate for accurate, efficient computation.

126

127 **2. Modelling Methods**

128 2.1. The modelling system

129 To simulate wave-tide-surge conditions a nested modelling approach is used to propagate surge
130 and waves across the continental shelf and within the Irish Sea to the study area. Three structured
131 model grids are used: the operational Continental Shelf model (~12 km resolution), the Irish Sea
132 model (~1.8 km resolution) and the Liverpool Bay model (~180 m resolution, Fig. 1). The Irish
133 Sea and Liverpool Bay models were set up for the study of this storm event, while the Continental
134 Shelf model (Flather, 1994) is run daily at the UK Met Office to provide operational tide-surge
135 forecasts. Here, the hindcast tide-surge data from this model is utilized as hourly time series
136 boundary conditions for the Irish Sea model. In turn, the Liverpool Bay model boundary is forced
137 with tide-surge conditions every 30 minutes and 2D spectral wave conditions every hour from the

138 coupled Irish Sea model. Each model is driven by the same meteorological forcing, which
139 consists of hourly wind and pressure data with ~12 km resolution from the (mesoscale) UK Met
140 Office Unified Model (MetUM) North Atlantic European (NAE) model. The modelled conditions
141 for this event are output hourly for waves, surface elevation and 3D circulation.

142

143 Since density stratification is generally considered unimportant in mid-latitude winter storm surge
144 and wave modelling, freshwater influence has been ignored and the temperature (10 °C) and
145 salinity (35 PSU) fields, and therefore density, are kept constant. The 3D circulation model
146 POLCOMS (detailed in Holt and James, 2001), is formulated on an Arakawa B-grid, solving
147 scalar quantities at grid vertices and vector quantities centrally within the grid cells. To enable
148 wave effects to be included, POLCOMS is coupled to a wave model at the medium and high
149 resolution model grids. To this end, the third generation spectral wave model (WAM) is used.
150 WAM, originally developed for deep water application (see Komen et al., 1994), has been further
151 developed to enable nearshore wave simulation (Monbaliu et al., 2000). The coupling was
152 applied such that a 2-way exchange of information occurred every 200 s for the Irish Sea model
153 and every 30 s for the Liverpool Bay model. The interactions considered for tide-surge-wave
154 simulation were as follows. Time varying current and depth information was passed to WAM,
155 while surface and bottom roughness were passed back to POLCOMS (Osuna and Wolf, 2005)
156 along with the radiation stress (Bolaños et al., 2009; 2011b). In WAM the coupling procedure
157 introduces time varying depth and 3D current fields (Bolaños et al., 2009; 2011b; Mellor, 2003;
158 2005; Kirby and Chen, 1989), which influence refraction and allow inclusion of a wave-current
159 bottom friction, Doppler shift of the wave field and an ‘effective wind’ due to the moving frame
160 of reference (surface current). In POLCOMS the radiation stress is added to the equations of

161 motion to allow for wave-induced currents and wave setup (see below Eq. 2 and 3), while the
162 surface and bottom roughness is enhanced due to the presence of waves modifying the bottom
163 friction and wind stress. Extensive testing and validation of the coupling procedures has recently
164 been performed by Brown et al. (2011). The model is again applied here to the Irish Sea to
165 simulate wave generation by wind, while accounting for bottom friction, whitecapping, wave-
166 wave interactions and refraction due to depth and current. Further to these terms, depth-induced
167 wave breaking and radiation stress were included in the Liverpool Bay model. Wave parameters
168 were computed on the same grid as POLCOMS at the same location as the scalar quantities.
169 Velocity and wave-related stress terms were interpolated between grid vertices to central points
170 within the models to enable correct coupling.

171
172 Initially a 3D radiation stress method (Mellor, 2003; 2005) was coded by Bolaños et al. (2009;
173 2011b), and has been set up for a shallow water application (Brown, 2010; Brown et al., 2011).
174 New 3D developments are now available (Mellor, 2008; 2011a; 2011b; 2011). However, these
175 latter methods can lead to spurious accelerations in intermediate water depths (Bennis et al.,
176 2011), in particular outside the surf zone (Bennis and Ardhuin, 2011). The generation of
177 unrealistic circulation (Kumar et al., 2011) leads to doubtful coastal application (Moghimi, in
178 press) and has led to further developments (Mellor, 2013). We therefore investigate the validity of
179 using the 2D radiation stress terms of Mastenbroek et al. (1993) as a robust alternative. Ozer et al.
180 (2000) incorporated calculation of this 2D radiation stress term within WAM. We extend this
181 work by coupling the depth-averaged stress terms back into POLCOMS uniformly over the water
182 column, as described below. This is important for obtaining spatially realistic wave setup over a
183 region.

184

185 POLCOMS solves the incompressible, hydrostatic, Boussinesq equation by separation into depth-
186 varying (3D) and depth-integrated (2D) parts (see Holt and James, 2001, for the original model
187 terms and description). The total velocity is then the sum of the depth-mean and depth-varying
188 velocity components, over 32 and 10 vertical sigma levels within the water column of the Irish
189 Sea and Liverpool Bay models respectively. Bolaños et al. (2009; 2011b) added the 3D radiation
190 stress terms into the depth-varying momentum equation. These are now replaced with 2D
191 radiation stress terms, which are added into the depth-mean momentum equation, in Cartesian
192 coordinates the equations solved read as:

$$193 \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - f v = -g \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P_a}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{\rho h} (\tau_s^x - \tau_b^x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(A_h \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(A_h \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho h} \left(\frac{\partial S_{xx}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial S_{xy}}{\partial y} \right) \quad \dots(2)$$

$$194 \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + f u = -g \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial y} - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P_a}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{\rho h} (\tau_s^y - \tau_b^y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(A_h \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(A_h \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) - \frac{1}{\rho h} \left(\frac{\partial S_{yx}}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial S_{yy}}{\partial y} \right) \quad \dots(3)$$

195 Which are solved alongside the continuity equation:

$$196 \quad \frac{\partial(hu)}{\partial x} + u \frac{\partial(hv)}{\partial y} = - \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} \quad \dots(4)$$

197 Where x, y = the orthogonal directional components, u, v = the depth-integrated current
198 components, η = surface elevation, f = the Coriolis parameter, h = the total water depth, P_a =
199 atmospheric pressure, τ_s = surface stress, τ_b = bottom stress, A_h = the horizontal diffusion
200 coefficient and S_{ij} = the radiation stress tensor (with $i, j = x, y$). The radiation stress is updated with
201 each call to the wave model (every 30 s), which is where the stresses themselves are calculated.
202 By imposing the radiation stress within the momentum equations a change in the current field is
203 imposed, which causes an adjustment in surface elevation for the system of equations (Eq. 2 – 4)
204 to remain in balance. The coupled POLCOMS-WAM model is designed to run on a parallel
205 computer system (Ashworth et al., 2004) for high resolution modelling such as this. To compare

206 the efficiency of the radiation stress method in 2D against the previous (Brown et al., 2011) 3D
207 method the model simulation has been run on the same computing facility. The Liverpool Bay
208 hindcast used 256 computer processors from the UK's supercomputing service: HECToR (High-
209 End Computing Terascale Resource, <http://www.hector.ac.uk/>), to enable a 1 day spin-up and a 1
210 day tide-surge-wave simulation in approximately 12 hours of real time.

211

212 2.2. Validation Methods

213 The model hindcasts were validated at hourly intervals over the 25-hour storm period. The surge
214 elevation was validated at two coastal tide gauges (Hilbre and Liverpool, Fig. 1) and two offshore
215 mooring sites (Site A and B, Fig. 1) where pressure sensors were available. The wave height and
216 period were validated at an offshore and nearshore wave rider buoy (WaveNet and Triaxys,
217 Fig.1). The currents were validated at the two offshore sites (Site A and B, Fig. 1) using Acoustic
218 Doppler Current Profilers (ADCP), which measured the vertical current profile. For validation
219 purposes the following metrics are applied to the hourly data for the full 25-hour storm period:

$$220 \text{ Mean Bias} = \overline{\text{Modelled}} - \overline{\text{Observed}} \quad \dots(5)$$

$$221 \text{ Peak Bias} = \widehat{\text{Modelled}} - \widehat{\text{Observed}} \quad \dots(6)$$

$$222 \text{ RMSE} = \left[\overline{(\text{Modelled} - \text{Observed})^2} \right]^{1/2} \quad \dots(7)$$

223 where an over-bar denotes the mean values and a circumflex denotes the maximum value. The
224 (*Mean or Peak*) *Bias* represents under- or over-prediction of the model quantity compared with
225 the observation and the *RMSE* is the root-mean-square error of the model hindcast. For all
226 variables assessed, the *RMSE* is used to determine the average accuracy over the full period. For
227 waves and surge the maximum values are considered important for storm forecasting and coastal
228 storm impact so the *Peak Bias* is also measured. For currents the *Mean Bias* was calculated
229 because it is the net residual current that is important, for example, for sediment transport studies.

230 In this application the range in observed values over the 25 hour study period is used to specify if
231 the model performance is excellent, good, acceptable or unacceptable, by applying the following
232 thresholds to the metric values: <10%, 10-30%, 30-50% and >50%. During the 25-hour period
233 considered the range observed in total surge values (shown in Fig. 2 and 3) is: 1.9 m at Hilbre, 2.1
234 m at Liverpool, 1.5 m at Site A and 1.2 m at Site B. The range (between maximum and minimum
235 values) in the observed depth-averaged current (Fig. 7) at Site A and B is 1.7 m/s and 1.4 m/s for
236 the u -component respectively and 0.4 m/s and 0.3 m/s for the v -component respectively. At the
237 WaveNet location the observed H_{m0} and T_p (Fig. 8, left column) have ranges of: 4.2 m and 7.3 s.
238 At the Triaxys location the observed H_{m0} and T_p (Fig. 8, right column) have the ranges: 2.3 m and
239 6.2 s.

240

241 **3. Results**

242 3.1. Surge and wave setup

243 The observed surge consists of the response to the direct meteorological forcing and wave-
244 induced setup. The model hindcasts are validated (Table1) at two coastal tide gauges (O(10 m)
245 deep), where the observed surge is available. The residuals are determined by removing the
246 predicted tide for these locations using tidal constituents obtained from analysis of coastal tide
247 gauge data. At these locations it is found that both the POLCOMS-WAM model with 2D radiation
248 stress (PW – 2Dr), and without consideration of radiation stress (PW), perform well. The
249 inclusion of 2D radiation stress improves the maximum value but has little effect at any other time
250 during the storm. Previously the inclusion of 3D radiation stress (Brown et al., 2011) has shown
251 quite different results. Although the maximum value (*Peak Bias*) was fairly good, it occurred too
252 early and the influence of radiation stress occurred for a much longer proportion of the storm (10

253 – 15 hrs). Here, the inclusion of 2D radiation stress has negligible impact on the computation
254 time, while the 3D radiation stress reduces computational efficiency, in this case by 25% (Table
255 1), which is equivalent to 1.5 hours per simulated day.

256

257 The POLCOMS-WAM simulation with 2D radiation stress (Fig. 2) implies that wave setup does
258 not significantly contribute to the surge at the tide gauge locations or offshore, the model runs
259 including 2D radiation stress being similar to that without. This is not unexpected as coastal tide
260 gauges although influenced by surge are usually sheltered from waves and in deep water, in this
261 case within estuaries where wave activity is limited, since the waves mostly break on the shoals at
262 the mouth.

263

264 To validate the surge further offshore, pressure sensor data for a two month period at Sites A (~23
265 m depth) and B (~29 m depth) are analysed. T-tide, a classical tidal harmonic analysis package
266 (Pawlowicz et al., 2002), is used to remove the tidal component from the observed water levels, to
267 enable the residual to be determined. All the 45 available major tidal constituents, as well as
268 shallow water constituents, are considered at these offshore locations, giving the surge (tidal
269 residual) seen in Figure 3. Over a long period (at least a year) the mean tidal residual will be zero;
270 however for short periods (e.g., the two month winter period observed or 1 day period modelled)
271 the residual is not quite zero due to seasonal/daily storm effects. Since the observed mean will be
272 closer to zero due to the longer period considered than that modelled, a shift in the surge level
273 between observed and modelled data occurs (~0.4 m). To enable meaningful validation between
274 model and observation, the mean residual from each model simulation, over the 25-hour storm
275 period, has been applied to the observed data, such that the mean value is equal between modelled

276 and observed surge for each simulation validated. At these locations it is clearly seen that the
277 model accurately simulates the trend in the surge, although the model accuracy (Table 1) is
278 reduced with distance from the coast. The results show that offshore the surge is smaller (about
279 50% reduction in the maximum value at the mooring Sites A and B compared with the tide
280 gauges) and the negligible difference between runs with and without 2D radiation stress
281 demonstrate that (as expected) wave setup is unimportant in offshore water depths >20 m.

282

283 Offshore (Fig. 3, Site A and B) the surge is over predicted during the storm and inshore (Fig. 2) it
284 can be either over-predicted (Hilbre) or under-predicted (Liverpool). The over prediction is most
285 likely to be the result of over-predicted wind speeds used to force the model during the storm (as
286 shown by Brown, 2010). The mean value of wind-speed is over-predicted by 1.9 m/s at Hilbre.
287 The coastal accuracy is also limited by the accuracy of the bathymetry, which is highly mobile in
288 the estuary regions, used within the model. The common under-prediction of the surge is due to
289 the model boundary conditions as this also occurs in the Irish Sea model (see Brown and Wolf,
290 2009). This error could be related to inaccuracy in the storm track, size or speed influencing the
291 meteorological surge generation over the European Continental Shelf, or incorrect tuning of wind-
292 stress.

293

294 The fully coupled model is used to obtain estimates of the contribution of wave setup across this
295 varied domain, including estuary systems, open coast and the nearshore region of wave shoaling
296 (Fig. 4). Since the model is coupled in 2-way the circulation model can properly respond in a
297 dynamical way to the radiation stress. A computed setup that is too large can occur in the enclosed
298 (estuary) regions in the absence of a circulation response to the change in elevation (2-way model

309 coupling). It appears that with 2-way coupling wave setup has a more significant contribution in
300 shallow open coastal areas than within an estuary. The maximum wave setup values are 0.15 m
301 on the shallowest banks in the Ribble and 0.08 m nearshore. The patterns in maximum wave setup
302 (Fig. 4b) seem to be related to the bathymetry (Fig. 1) rather than the wave field (Fig. 4a), as the
303 channel into the Mersey can be clearly distinguished. Data collected by King et al. (1990)
304 suggests wave setup at the coast, for 1 to 2.5 m waves in 10 m of water approaching a coast in SW
305 England bordering the Irish Sea, is between 0.1 and 0.25m. These observations are comparable to
306 the PW-2Dr hindcast. However, without observations, the model results are merely suggestive.
307 This highlights the need for measurements of water level in shallow open coast locations, where
308 radiation stress has greatest impact.

309

310 The maximum meteorological surge level across the domain is presented by Brown (2010). Here
311 the ratio of the maximum wave setup to the maximum meteorological surge is shown (Fig. 4c).
312 This demonstrates that the locations where the wave setup (relative to the meteorological surge
313 levels) is most noticeable, are: (i) the open coast and (ii) at the mouth of an estuary, especially
314 around the shoals. The maximum wave setup is at most ~ 5% of the maximum meteorological
315 surge across the domain. For this event the meteorological surge therefore has greatest influence
316 increasing the water levels during this storm. For the estuaries with open mouths (the Dee and
317 Ribble) the wave setup is able to influence the estuarine water levels, whereas in the Mersey, with
318 its narrow mouth, only the meteorological surge component influences the estuary system.

319

320 3.2. Currents

321 In this section both the total and wave-induced current fields are compared with observations.
322 The currents induced by radiation stress are extracted from the total modelled current field
323 (POLCOMS-WAM with radiation stress); by subtracting the current field in which the radiation
324 stress is not considered (POLCOMS-WAM). Currents during the studied period at the two
325 observation sites (A and B, with depths of ~23 and ~29 m, Fig. 1) are mainly controlled by the
326 tides with maxima in agreement with flood and ebb flows (observation, Fig. 5). Weak variation in
327 the vertical current profile is present during the second low tide when the peak of the storm surge
328 occurred. This is more evident at the shallower location, Site A. The POLCOMS-WAM model
329 (PW, Fig. 5) is able to reproduce the general patterns of the horizontal current, which are clearly
330 dominated by the tides. The inclusion of 2D radiation stress has a vertically variable influence
331 (see Fig. 6 for wave-induced currents), as the 3D circulation model responds to the modified
332 depth-averaged flow. However, no significant changes are observed in the total current field (Fig.
333 5). The wave-induced currents (Fig. 6) are greater during the falling and rising tide as the storm
334 passes and wave heights decay (15 – 22.5 hrs). Section 3.4 goes on to show how this is related to
335 the tidal influence on the gradients in the nearshore wave field, which cause the radiation stress
336 that generates these currents. The 2D radiation stress has more influence at Site A (Fig. 6), which
337 is shallower than Site B and closer to the area of banks located at the mouth of the Mersey
338 estuary.

339

340 Validation of the depth-averaged current at the offshore locations (Table 2, Fig. 7) shows good
341 agreement between model and observation before radiation stress is considered. The inclusion of
342 2D radiation stress has little effect on the model accuracy. In both simulations the *Mean Bias*
343 shows the models to consistently under-predict the observed current components at the offshore

344 sites (A and B, Table 2). This could be related to a slight error in the tidal axis orientation, which
345 would produce marked differences in the minor (north) velocity component. Since these error
346 metrics look at the average accuracy over the 25 hour study period the instantaneous
347 improvements at certain depths by considering radiation stress are not so evident, due to
348 smoothing (over depth and time).

349

350 3.3. Waves

351 The wave conditions are validated in Table 3 at the estuarine (~12 m deep) and offshore (~22 m
352 deep) buoys over the 25-hour storm period. A time-series of the integrated wave parameters (Fig.
353 8) shows the model is able to reproduce the phase of the time-variation, but under predicts the
354 peak H_{m0} values nearshore, while the peak in T_p is under predicted offshore. The overall
355 agreement (*RMSE*) is considered to be good and the maximum values (*Peak Bias*) are acceptably
356 hindcast. The models perform better offshore than nearshore, where improved representation of
357 the physics, and maybe improved spatial resolution, is required. Although the Triaxys wave
358 period data is shown, gaps occur in the data, where inaccuracies due to errors in the firmware
359 (currently under investigation) are suspected. The inclusion of 2D radiation stress (PW-2Dr, Fig.
360 8) has a small effect on the water levels at these locations, thus the wave predictions are
361 practically the same as if radiation stress had not been considered (PW, Fig. 8) so do not produce
362 much change in the model skill statistics (Table 3).

363

364 3.4 Nearshore Interactions

365 The PW-2Dr simulation is used to determine if any significant interaction and relationships
366 between the wave setup and the tide, wave heights or surge exist. The interaction between the

367 tidal, wave and storm induced increased water levels (meteorological surge and wave setup) is
368 similar to that found by Kim et al. (2008); the maximum meteorological surge and maximum
369 wave setup do not occur at high water, while maximum nearshore wave heights do occur close to
370 high water. In this case the maximum wave setup occurs at low water due to the maximum
371 gradient in radiation stress occurring at this time, discussed below.

372
373 The correlation (R^2) is calculated to determine the existence of any linear relationship between the
374 different nearshore parameters. A value close to 1 indicates strong correlation. In these
375 circumstances either an interaction and/or dependency between processes can be inferred. Similar
376 trends and the R^2 values in Figure 9(a and c) clearly show that wave setup is dependent on the
377 difference in wave heights between nearshore and offshore. No tidal interaction with wave setup
378 is observed through the correlation with the tide itself or by considering the nearshore (Triaxys)
379 wave height, which is tidally modulated (Fig. 9a). There is a moderate correlation with the
380 offshore wave field and surge, which both peak simultaneously in response to the wind. The
381 correlation is greater with the offshore wave field than with the nearshore field. This is due to the
382 offshore wave heights having a similar time evolution to the spatial gradient (difference) in wave
383 heights across the nearshore zone (and hence momentum flux). The maximum wave setup occurs
384 just after the maximum surge and wave height, as it is not dependent on the peak in wave
385 conditions alone. This lower tidal level is when gradients in the wave conditions and therefore the
386 net momentum flux (radiation stress), are greatest during the storm period. The gradients in
387 momentum flux are caused by wave shoaling in intermediate water and energy dissipation in
388 shallow water. There is a slight dip in the peak value of the difference between wave heights

389 nearshore and offshore (Fig. 9a) in response to the tidal influence and the decaying offshore wave
390 height.

391
392 The tide has a large effect on the nearshore wave heights, therefore influencing the gradients in
393 wave conditions (momentum flux). These gradients are greatest at mid to lower water levels (as
394 seen in the difference in wave height, (Fig 9a) causing a peak in wave setup to occur at this time
395 (Fig. 9c). The wave-induced current field and wave-induced elevation across the domain are
396 shown in Figure 10 at 4 stages of the tide cycle: high water, mid water on the falling tide, low
397 water and mid water on the rising tide. The main changes in response to the tidal phase are due to
398 drying banks within the estuaries and depth changes over shoals along the coastline between the
399 Dee and Ribble. The maximum wave setup increases as the tidal level falls (from ~0.05 m to ~0.9
400 m), and becomes focused within the estuary channels as well as covering a wider cross-shore area
401 along the coast. This is due to the inshore waves being reduced more at lower total water depths
402 increasing the nearshore gradients in the wave momentum flux. On the rising tide (Fig. 10b) the
403 wave setup in the Dee is less than during the falling tide (Fig. 10d), due to the timing of the storm
404 and tidal influence (Fig. 9, 14 hrs and 20.5 hrs). However in the Ribble it is larger on the rising
405 tide (Fig. 10d), most likely due to the NE propagation of the storm still having an impact further
406 north along this coastal area. The wave setup is largest in the Ribble during high water levels
407 when waves are able to propagate over the banks at the mouth and rapidly shoal within the
408 estuary. This is due to the Ribble being the shallowest of the 3 estuaries. During lower water
409 levels, wave setup is greatest in the Dee, when the waves are confined to the deep Dee estuary
410 channels. The restricted entrance to the Mersey and shallow depths surrounding the entrance to
411 the Ribble act to limit wave activity within these two estuaries. Increased levels of wave setup

412 occur during lower water levels, especially over the shallow ebb-shoal banks close to the estuary
413 mouth of the Mersey and Dee. At high water, wave setup is minimal, with a larger effect within
414 the estuaries than at the coast. At the coast, wave attenuation is reduced during higher water
415 levels, thus reducing gradients in the nearshore wave field and therefore wave setup. Continued
416 wave shoaling within the Ribble and Dee estuaries causes larger gradients in the wave field and
417 therefore wave setup, which is able to persist up to the estuary head. In the Dee the wave setup
418 continues to increase within the estuary. In the Mersey it remains constant within the estuary,
419 having a low value due to limited wave activity as a result of the much longer narrower estuary
420 shape with more restricted mouth. In the Ribble, wave setup increases with distance into the
421 estuary and only in the upper reaches does the wave setup start to decrease, where the estuary
422 morphology is dominated by the shallow narrow river channels. At low water the large wave
423 setup at the estuaries mouth rapidly decays towards the estuary head. Wave shoaling in
424 intermediate depths also causes a small (< 2 cm) set-down seaward of wave breaking and the
425 onset of wave setup (Longuet-Higgins and Stewart, 1964). At mid and low water levels set-down
426 becomes evident in the nearshore region moving between approximately the 20 m and 10 m depth
427 contours depending on the state of the tide.

428

429 The maximum values of the depth-averaged wave-induced current field across the model domain
430 occur alongshore and in areas of shallow banks (Fig. 10). Simulated wave-induced current speeds
431 are of the order of 0.2 m/s reaching maximum values of 0.5 m/s for this event. The wave-induced
432 currents are greatest during the falling tide and low water. Again this period is when radiation
433 stress has greatest influence, as demonstrated in Figure 9c for wave setup. The areas of largest
434 wave-induced currents are in the regions of the nearshore shoals and close to the coast,

435 demonstrating the important influence of the bathymetry on the gradients of the radiation stress.
436 These patterns in current magnitude become larger with the falling tide, as shoals have greater
437 influence on the wave field and also steer the flow. The wave-induced currents are generally
438 directed onshore-offshore (east-west) in the open nearshore region surrounding Site A. On the
439 falling tide there is a clear offshore flow in the main entrance channel of the Mersey (Fig. 10f). It
440 is likely this flow is a return flow in response to the wave setup over the shallow banks. The
441 currents generated alongshore are generally southerly past the Ribble and converge in the Dee and
442 Mersey. A divergence is also found at the tip of the Great Orme (located in Fig.1).

443

444 **4. Discussion**

445 This research sets out to investigate the importance of radiation stress during an extreme storm
446 event in a shallow wave-influenced region and to properly assess the validity of the 2D method,
447 while the more complex 3D implementations are still subject to debate and computationally more
448 expensive. This is achieved by extending an existing coupled wave and circulation model to
449 include radiation stress in 2D. By comparison with observations, the procedure is found to be
450 both robust and efficient. It is demonstrated that including 2D radiation stress in POLCOMS-
451 WAM gives a good hindcast of wave, current, surge and wave setup variables across the complex
452 shallow water region of open coast and enclosed estuaries. This 2D method also remains stable
453 across this complex coastal domain, whereas the applicability of 3D methods to the full domain is
454 questionable, and give much larger values of wave setup (see Brown, 2010). Wave setup (and
455 related alongshore drift) is found to have most impact along the coastline and over shallow banks
456 at the mouths of the estuaries, making it an important process to consider in storm forecasting (or
457 hindcasting) in regions of wave influence. Over shallow and intertidal areas wave setup may

458 modify the inundation, influencing the tide-surge-wave impact on these regions. Comparison of
459 the maximum wave height (Fig. 4a) with those found by Brown (2010), show the wave field in
460 shallow (estuarine and coastal) regions can attain slightly larger maximum values due to wave
461 setup increasing the total water depth. Any increase in the total water level potentially alters the
462 position of wave action relative to the shore/estuary profile. Over shallow (bank) regions the
463 residual circulation and inundation of low-lying areas could be modified as well as the wave field,
464 changing the sediment transport due to wave-circulation interaction and the risk due to erosion
465 and flooding during the storm impact.

466
467 To correctly disperse the radiation stress within enclosed (estuary) regions 2-way coupling
468 between circulation and wave models is required to prevent artificially sustained setup. It is found
469 that the largest wave setup is focused over shallow banks in the estuaries mouth and along the
470 Sefton and North Wirral coasts (Fig. 4b). In the upper estuaries wave activity is smaller and the
471 setup diminishes. Along the open coast wave setup is restricted to the very nearshore zone; while
472 offshore the water level is relatively unchanged. Although wave setup has a relatively small
473 contribution at the tide gauge locations (~ 0.07 m contribution, Fig. 4b), which are sheltered from
474 wave activity and generally rather deep, and along the coast (~ 0.09 m contribution, Fig. 4b), it
475 can be considered important over shallow banks at an estuary mouth in wave-dominant areas, for
476 example (Fig. 4b) it reached values up to 0.15 m at the Ribble mouth (approximately 8% of the
477 observed 2 m surge level at Liverpool). It is demonstrated that wave setup is important at the
478 coast and may need to be considered in operational modelling, for accurate surge forecasts along
479 the open coast in regions of significant wave activity. However, the maximum wave setup in this
480 case occurs at low water levels and the maximum total water level is relatively unchanged. For

481 improved validation, observations in shallow water at the open coast are required, where both the
482 meteorologically- and wave-induced surge components are important, since tide gauges are often
483 situated in deep and sheltered locations. With distance from the coast towards the offshore the
484 surge reduces in magnitude, although less rapidly than the wave setup. Surge models are often
485 developed using tide gauge data for validation, since long-term data sets are readily available and
486 accurate forecasting at the coast is most important for warning systems. For this event
487 POLCOMS has greater accuracy at the coast than offshore (Table 1). Long-term offshore
488 observation is therefore required, to validate (and tune) existing surge models to capture the
489 regional offshore extent of the surge and not just the coastal influence. Some of the over-
490 prediction seen in the offshore surge hindcast (Fig. 3) could be the result of the method being used
491 to remove the tide, but may also be due to low resolution meteorological forcing not capturing the
492 variability in offshore and nearshore (wind) conditions during a storm (Bricheno et al., 2013).

493
494 POLCOMS-WAM without radiation stress is shown to accurately simulate the nearshore current
495 field (Table 2), and is only slightly modified by the inclusion of radiation stress. At Sites A and B
496 (depths ≈ 25 m) wave-induced currents are weak. However the currents are larger at the
497 shallower site (A) implying that closer to the shore consideration of these currents becomes more
498 important. This again demonstrates the need for more nearshore coastal data, where radiation
499 stress is important, inducing currents and setup. Analysis of the modelled wave-induced current
500 profiles (Fig. 6) shows that wave-induced currents are most influential in the upper half of the
501 water column and become more significant during the lower water levels from mid to low tide,
502 when the gradients in the wave field (wave momentum flux) are greatest. The vertical current
503 profile formed when using 2D radiation stress in a 3D circulation model implies that the more

504 computationally expensive 3D methods may not be significantly advantageous for modelling
505 storm conditions (operationally) in intermediate water depths. However, in some regions, or
506 under certain condition, the wave-induced current could have an important influence on the
507 vertical current profile and so there is still need for 3D methods, which are appropriate for use in
508 regional models. The wave-induced currents during this storm event are found to be important
509 along the coast and at the mouths of estuaries (Fig. 10). During high water levels the wave-
510 induced currents are mainly alongshore, while at low water levels a complex onshore-offshore
511 circulation occurs in shallow regions of the nearshore. This is most likely to be in response to
512 increased water levels within the estuary domains. The long-term wave-induced current pattern
513 due to the storm climate is likely to be of importance when considering the coastal sediment
514 transport and morphological storm impact for this location, as found at other shallow locations
515 (e.g. Brown and Davies, 2009). It is inferred that in Liverpool Bay these currents are likely to
516 redistribute and exchange sediment between the banks at estuary mouths during storm conditions,
517 if not during milder wave conditions as well. The direction of the wave-induced currents (Fig.
518 10e – g) implies that any sediment drift during southwest to westerly storms will be towards the
519 mouth of the Dee and Mersey. Holden et al. (2010) show the long-term sediment transport to
520 diverge at Formby Point towards north and south, as does the flood tidal current, which has a
521 dominant east-west component. This implies that storms enhance the net tidal transport pattern
522 south of Formby Point and inhibit it north of Formby Point. During storm events the wind induced
523 currents also become important in shelf seas (e.g. Wang et al., 2012), potentially being more
524 important than wave-driven circulation further offshore.

525

526 Wave height, wave setup, tidal elevation and surge elevation have been used to investigate the
527 tide-surge-wave interactions. Wave setup is shown to depend strongly on the gradients in the
528 wave field, which are caused by wave shoaling and dissipation. Although wave setup can increase
529 the surge levels, due to tidal modulation of the nearshore wave conditions, the largest possible
530 gradients in wave momentum flux occur close to low water, creating the maximum wave setup
531 when the threat of flooding is low. The significance of the contribution of wave setup to
532 increasing flood risk may therefore be related to the tidal range of a region. The tide also plays an
533 important role in the location of the surf zone over intertidal areas. Brown (2010, Fig. 9) shows
534 the variable position of the wave field at different stages of the tide. Here it is shown that the
535 changing tidal elevations greatly influence the position, area of influence and magnitude of wave
536 setup and wave-induced current patterns across Liverpool Bay (Fig. 10). At low water, the area
537 and magnitude of setup is greatest, but the impact may be least important. Consideration of wave-
538 induced currents is thought to be important in determining sediment pathways during a storm
539 event. Although these currents are approximately 10-30% of the tidal current speed at the coast,
540 they will contribute to the weaker time-averaged current residual during the storm period.

541
542 Comparison of the computation times shows that inclusion of the 2D radiation stress has no
543 impact on the simulation time of POLCOMS-WAM; while 3D methods (applied by Brown et al.,
544 2011) increase it (by approximately 25%). The 2D method can be included within the standard
545 version of WAM that only considers 2D depth-averaged currents rather than depth-integrated
546 currents over a depth of wave influence (see Brown et al., 2011), which is considerably more
547 efficient (saving about 1 hour per simulated day). The results presented show that accurate tide-
548 surge-wave conditions can be simulated without consideration of the vertical structure of the

549 radiation stress profile. This is not surprising as surface elevation is related to the depth integrated
550 currents, but for sediment transport modelling an accurate vertical current profile is more likely to
551 be required.

552

553 One further point of discussion is the method used to obtain the surge (tidal residual) at the
554 offshore sites. Liverpool Bay is an area where shallow water is considered to have significant
555 influence on the tidal dynamics making short-term data difficult to analyse (Brown et al., 2012).
556 Both shallow water and major tidal constituents are therefore used, in an accurate tidal analysis, to
557 remove the tidal signal from the total observed elevation to obtain the surge residual. Any tidal
558 analysis package assumes the mean residual to be (approximately) zero over the analysis period,
559 which can be invalid. The mean can vary, due to seasonal, inter- and intra- annual effects. Over
560 very long periods the mean can be assumed to be zero. At coastal tide gauge sites, observations
561 have been collected for many years, so this assumption is valid, thus giving accurate tidal
562 residuals. However at offshore sites, continuous observation is often over short periods (one to a
563 few months), so although a good approximation of the tides and surge is obtained the mean
564 (absolute) water level will be non-zero. Due to the short simulation period in this study, the 25-
565 hour mean storm residual is used to correct the data. The shift is 0.43 m in the case of PW and
566 PW – 2Dr at Site A, and 0.40 m at Site B. To enable more reliable surge observations offshore,
567 either a longer model simulation is needed to correct the observed mean over, say, a monthly
568 period, or longer continuous periods of observation are required at offshore locations. Here, the
569 offshore observation implies that the model over-predicts the surge offshore, but this cannot be
570 considered as absolute since inaccuracy in the adjustment of the mean is likely. However the

571 observations show that the model simulates the reduction in the surge and the tidal modulation
572 with distance from the coast.

573

574 **5. Conclusion**

575 A tide-surge-wave model (POLCOMS-WAM) of Liverpool Bay, UK, has been modified to
576 include radiation stress using the 2D method of Mastenbroek et al. (1993). The results have been
577 used to consider the impact of radiation stress across this region. The 2D method gives accurate
578 wave-induced depth-average current and water levels, and has been shown to generate a realistic
579 depth-varying influence nearshore when implemented in a 3D circulation model. However, 3D
580 methods are still needed to accurately represent the 3D current structure, especially in regions of
581 complex depth-variation in the current field (e.g., within the lower estuary region). Through
582 validation with observations where possible over the domain, it is found that a 2D method suffices
583 for efficient and acceptable hindcast of storm conditions using POLCOMS-WAM. The 2D
584 methodology is not only accurate and robust within a complex region, but has also proven to be a
585 computationally efficient method. If implemented in a 3D hydrodynamic model some variations
586 in the vertical profile of the wave-induced currents will still occur. Here (Fig. 6) the wave-
587 induced currents are larger towards the surface in response to the depth-averaged forcing.

588

589 The hindcast extreme storm event demonstrates that in shallow nearshore regions affected by
590 waves, wave setup is influential at low water elevations and wave-induced currents are important.
591 Water levels are typically increased by < 0.09 m (Fig. 4b) by wave setup, while the
592 meteorological surge (< 2 m) is the dominant process in this location (Fig. 4c). An additional
593 wave-driven coastal current is generated with typical speeds of 0.15 m/s (Fig. 10 e-f), which is ~

594 15% of the observed total current (< 1 m/s, Fig. 5) in this case. Further offshore and in the upper
595 estuary region these processes are not so important. The model comparison also demonstrates that
596 the influence of wave setup is not captured at tide gauge location due to their deep and sheltered
597 nature. The results of this study demonstrate that along the shallow areas of open coast radiation
598 stress is an important process to consider as it contributes to the time-averaged residual current
599 patterns, especially at low water levels. For this coastal domain, the maximum ($< 8\%$) wave-
600 surge setup contribution to the surge levels at the open coast tend not to occur at tidal high water.
601 It is therefore suggested that in macrotidal conditions, wave setup may not drastically increase
602 flood risk, which is greatest at tidal high water.

603

604 **Acknowledgments**

605 This research was initiated as part of the MICORE (EU FP7 program grant 202798), FORMOST
606 (NERC grant NE/E015026/1) and FIELD_AC (EU FP7 program grant 242284) projects and has
607 been completed as part of the iCOASST (NERC grant NE/J005444/1) and ARCoES (EPSRC,
608 ARCC-CN programme grant EP/I035390/1) projects. The support of the European Commission
609 through FP7, contract 288710 – MERMAID, is gratefully acknowledged. NOC colleague Jane
610 Williams and the UK Met Office are thanked for providing meteorological model data to force the
611 models for this study period. Jane also supplied operational surge model output to account for the
612 external surge. The PROMISE partners are acknowledged for initial code development, coupling
613 M93 in 1-way within WAM. Without the valuable observations from BODC, COBS and CEFAS
614 model validation would not have been possible.

615

616 **References**

617 Arduin, F., Jenkins, A.D., Belibassakis, K.A., 2008a. Comments on “The three-dimensional
618 current and surface wave equations”. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 33(9),
619 1340–1350.

620 Arduin, F., Rascle, N., Belibassakis, K.A., 2008b. Explicit wave-averaged primitive equations
621 using a generalized lagrangian mean. *Ocean Modelling*, 20(1), 35–60.

622 Ashworth, M., Holt, J.T., Proctor, R., 2004. Optimization of the POLCOMS hydrodynamic code
623 for terascale high-performance computers. Proceedings of the 18th International parallel
624 and distributed processing symposium, 26th–30th April, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

625 Bennis, A-C., Arduin, F., Dumas, F., 2011. On the coupling of wave and three-dimensional
626 circulation models: Choice of theoretical framework, practical implementation and
627 adiabatic tests, *Ocean Modelling*, 40(3–4), 260–272.

628 Bennis, A-C., Arduin, F., 2011. Comments on “The Depth-Dependent Current and Wave
629 Interaction Equations: A revision”. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 41(10), 2008–2012.

630 Bolaños, R., Wolf, J., Brown, J., Osuna, P., Monbaliu, J. and Sánchez-Arcilla, A. 2009.
631 Comparison of wave-current interaction formulation using POLCOMS-WAM wave-
632 current model. *Coastal Engineering*, 521–533 pp. World Scientific Publishing, ISBN: 13
633 978-981-4277-36-5

634 Bolaños, R., Brown, J.M., Souza, A.J. 2011a. Three dimensional circulation modeling in the Dee
635 Estuary. *Journal of Coastal Research*, SI(64), 1457-1461.

636 Bolaños, R., Osuna, P. Wolf, J., Monbaliu, J. and Sanchez-Arcilla, A., 2011b. Development of
637 POLCOMS-WAM model. *Ocean Modelling*. 36(1–2), 102–115.

638 Booij, N., Ris, R.C., Holthuijsen, L.H., 1999. A third-generation wave model for coastal regions,
639 Part I, Model description and validation. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 104 (C4),
640 7649–7666.

641 Bricheno, L.M., Soret, A., Wolf, J., Jorba, O., and Baldasano, J.M., 2013. Effect of high-
642 resolution meteorological forcing on nearshore wave and current model performance.
643 *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, in press.

644 Brown, J.M., 2010. A comparison of WAM and SWAN under storm conditions in a shallow water
645 application. *Ocean Modelling*, 35(3), 215–229.

646 Brown, J.M., Bolaños, R., Howarth, M.J., Souza, A.J., 2012. Extracting sea level residual in
647 tidally dominated estuarine environments. *Ocean Dynamics*, 62(7), 969–982.

648 Brown, J.M., Bolaños, R., Wolf, J., 2011. Impact assessment of advanced coupling features in a
649 tide-surge-wave model, POLCOMS-WAM, in a shallow water application. *Journal of*
650 *Marine Systems*, 87(1), 13–24.

651 Brown J.M., Davies, A.G. 2009. Methods for medium-term prediction of the net sediment
652 transport by waves and currents in complex coastal regions. *Continental Shelf Research*,
653 29(11–12), 1502–1514.

654 Brown, J.M., Souza, A.J., Wolf J., 2010. An 11-year validation of wave-surge modelling in the
655 Irish Sea, using a nested POLCOMS-WAM modelling system. *Ocean Modelling*, 33(1–2),
656 118–128.

657 Brown J.M., Wolf J., 2009. Coupled wave and surge modelling for the eastern Irish Sea and
658 implications for model wind-stress. *Continental Shelf Research*, 29(10), 1329–1342.

659 Dean, R.G., Bender, C.J., 2006. Static wave setup with emphasis on damping effects by
660 vegetation and bottom friction, *Coastal Engineering*, 53(2–3), 149–156.

661 Dietrich, J.C., Tanaka, S., Westerink, J.J., Dawson, C.N., Luettich Jr, R.A., Zijlema, M.,
662 Holthuijsen, L.H., Smith, J.M., Westerink, L.G., Westerink, H.J., 2012. Performance of the
663 unstructured-mesh, SWAN+ADCIRC model in computing hurricane waves and surge,
664 *Journal of Scientific Computing*, 52(2), 468–497.

665 Flather, R.A., 1994. A storm surge model of the northern Bay of Bengal with application to the
666 cyclone disaster in April 1991. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 41(1), 172–190.

667 Harris, D.L., 1963. Characteristics of hurricane storm surge. Washington, D.C, U.S. Department
668 of Commerce, Weather Bureau. Technical Paper No 48/ 139pp.

669 Holden, V., Worsley, A., Lymbery, G., Pugh, C., 2010. The Sefton coast conceptual model, north
670 coast summary report, Edge Hill University, 8pp.

671 Holt, J.T., James I.D., 2001. An s coordinate density evolving model of the northwest European
672 continental shelf: 1, Model description and density structure. *Journal of Geophysical*
673 *Research*, 106(C7), 14,015–14,034.

674 Howarth, M.J., Proctor, R., Knight, P.J., Smithson, M.J., Mills, D.K., 2006. The Liverpool Bay
675 Coastal Observatory :towards the goals. *Proceedings of Oceans '06, MTS/IEEE, Boston:*
676 6pp., doi: 10.1109/OCEANS.2006.307095

677 Kim, S.Y., Yasuda, T., Mase, H., 2008. Numerical analysis of effects of tidal variations on storm
678 surges and waves. *Applied Ocean Research*, 30(4), 311–322.

679 King, B.A., Blackley, M.W.L., Carr, A.P., Hardcastle, P.J., 1990. Observations of wave-induced
680 set-up on a natural beach. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 95(C12), 22289-22297.

681 Komen, G.J., Cavaleri, L., Donelan, M., Hasselmann, K., Hasselmann, S., Janssen, P.A.E.M.,
682 1994. *Dynamics and modelling of ocean waves*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge,
683 532pp.

684 Kumar, N., Voulgaris, G., Warner, J.C., 2011. Implementation and modification of a three-
685 dimensional radiation stress formulation for surf zone and rip-current applications. *Coastal*
686 *Engineering*, 58(12), 1097–1117.

687 Kumar, N., Voulgaris, G., Warner, J.C., Olabarrieta, M., 2012. Implementation of the vortex force
688 formulism in the coupled ocean-atmosphere-wave-sediment transport (COAWST)
689 modelling system for inner shelf and surf zone applications. *Ocean Modelling*, 47, 65–95.

690 Longuet-Higgins, M.S., 1970a. Longshore currents Generated by Obliquely Incident Sea Waves,
691 1. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 75(33), 6778–6789.

692 Longuet-Higgins, M.S., 1970b. Longshore currents Generated by Obliquely Incident Sea Waves,
693 2. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 75(33), 6790–6801.

694 Longuet-Higgins, M.S., Stewart, R.W., 1964. Radiation stresses in water waves; a physical
695 discussion with applications. *Deep-Sea Research*, 11, 529–562.

696 Mastenbroek, C., Burgers, G., Janssen, P.A.E.M., 1993. The dynamical coupling of a wave model
697 and a storm surge model through the atmospheric boundary layer. *Journal of Physical*
698 *Oceanography*, 23(8), 1856–1866.

699 Mellor, G., 2003. The three-dimensional current and surface wave equations. *Journal of Physical*
700 *Oceanography*, 33(9), 1978–1989.

701 Mellor, G., 2005. Some consequences of the three-dimensional current and surface wave
702 equations. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 35(11), 2291–2298.

703 Mellor, G., 2008. The depth-dependent current and wave interaction equations: a revision. *Journal*
704 *of Physical Oceanography*, 38(11), 2587–2596.

705 Mellor, G., 2011a. Wave radiation stress. *Ocean Dynamics*, 61(5), 563–568.

706 Mellor, G., 2011b. CORRIGENDUM. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 41(7), 1417–1418.

707 Mellor, G., 2011c. Reply to comments by A-C Bennis and F. Ardhuin. *Journal of Physical*
708 *Oceanography*, 41(10), 2013–2015.

709 Mellor, G., 2013. Waves, circulation and vertical dependence. *Ocean Dynamics*, 63(4), 447–457.

710 Moghimi, S., Klingbeil, K., Gräwe, U., Burchard, H., (in press). A direct comparison of a depth-
711 dependent Radiation Stress formulation and a Vortex force formulation within a three-
712 dimensional coastal ocean model. *Ocean Modelling*, available online 7th November 2012.

713 Monbaliu, J., Padilla-Hernández, R., Hargreaves, J.C., Carretero-Albiach, J.C., Luo, W., Sclavo,
714 M., Günther, H., 2000. The spectral wave model WAM adapted for applications with high
715 spatial resolution. *Coastal Engineering*, 41(1–3), 41–62.

716 Osuna, P., Wolf, J., 2005. A numerical study of the effect of wave-current interaction processes in
717 the hydrodynamics of the Irish Sea, International Conference on ocean Waves and
718 Analysis. WAVES, Madrid, Spain.

719 Ozer, J., Padilla-Henandez, R., Monbaliu, J., Alvarez Fanjul, E., Carretero Albiach, J.C., Osuna,
720 P., Yu, J.C.S., Wolf, J., 2000. A coupling module for tides, surge and waves. *Coastal*
721 *Engineering* 41(1–3), 95–124.

722 Pawlowicz, R., Beardsley, B., Lentz, S. 2002. Classical tidal harmonic analysis including error
723 estimates in MATLAB using T_TIDE. *Computers and Geosciences*, 28(8), 929–937.

724 Pleskachevsky, A., Eppel, D.P. and Kapitza, H. 2009. Interaction of waves, currents and tides, and
725 wave-energy impact on the beach area of Sylt island. *Ocean Dynamics*, 59(3), 451–461.

726 Roland, A., Cucco, A., Ferrarin, C., Hsu T., Liau, J., Ou, S., Umgiesser, G. and Zanke, U. 2009.
727 On the development and verification of a 2-D coupled wave-current model on unstructured
728 meshes. *Journal of Marine Systems*, Volume 78, Supplement 1, November 2009, Pages
729 S244-S254

730 Sheng, Y.P., Zhang, Y. and Paramygin, V.A. 2010. Simulation of storm surge, wave, and coastal
731 inundation in the Northeastern Gulf of Mexico region during Hurricane Ivan in 2004.
732 Ocean Modelling, 35(4), 314–331.

733 Sheng, Y.P., Liu, T., 2011. Three-Dimensional Simulation of Wave Induced Circulation –
734 Comparison of Three Radiation Stress Formulations. Journal of Geophysical research,
735 116(CO5021), 17pp.

736 Sherman, D.J. 1988. Empirical Evaluation of Longshore-Current Models. The Geographical
737 Review, 78(2), 158–168.

738 Tucker, M.J., Pitt, E.G. 2001. Waves in Ocean Engineering. Elsevier Ocean Engineering Book
739 Series, vol. 5, Amsterdam, Elsevier. 548p.

740 Xia, H., Xia, Z. and Zhu, L. 2004. Vertical variation in radiation stress and wave-induced current.
741 Coastal Engineering, 51(4), 309–321.

742 Xie, L., Liu, H. and Peng, M. 2008. The effect of wave-current interactions on the storm surge and
743 inundation in Charleston Harbour during Hurricane Hugo 1989. Ocean Modelling, 20(3),
744 252–269.

745 Wang, Z.B., Hoekstra, P., Burchard, H. Ridderinkhof, H. ., De Swart, H.E., Stive, M.J.F. 2012.
746 Morphodynamics of the Wadden Sea and its barrier island system. Ocean & Coastal
747 Management, 68(Special Issue on the Wadden Sea Region), 39–57.

748

749

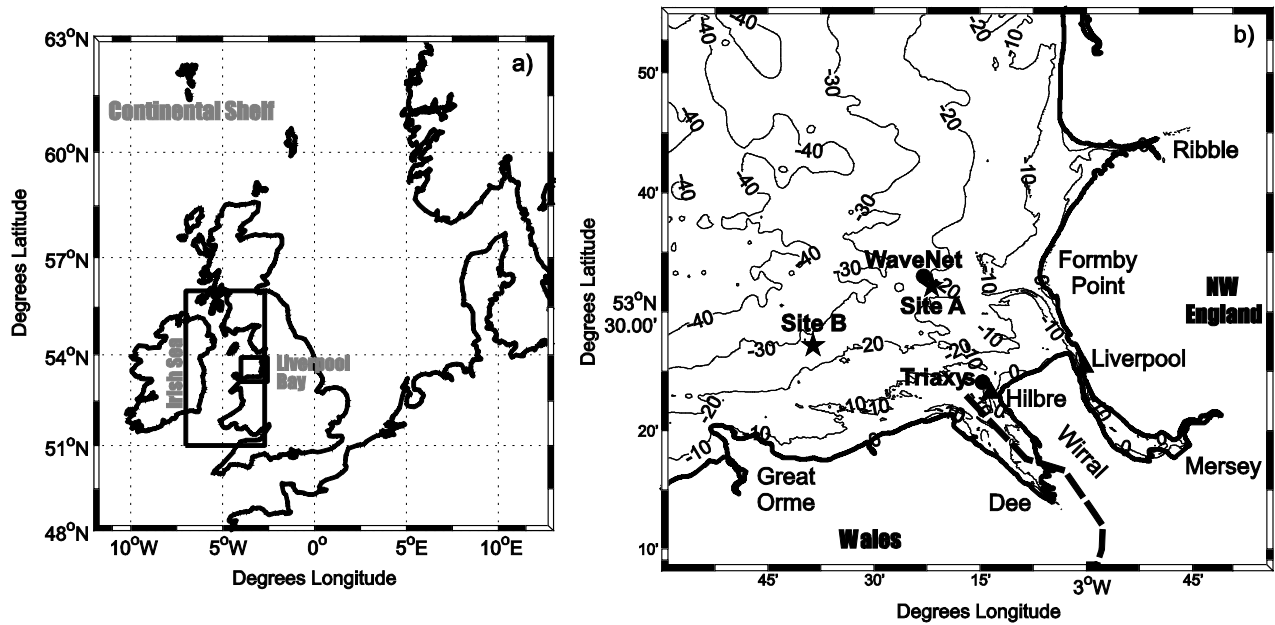
750

751

752

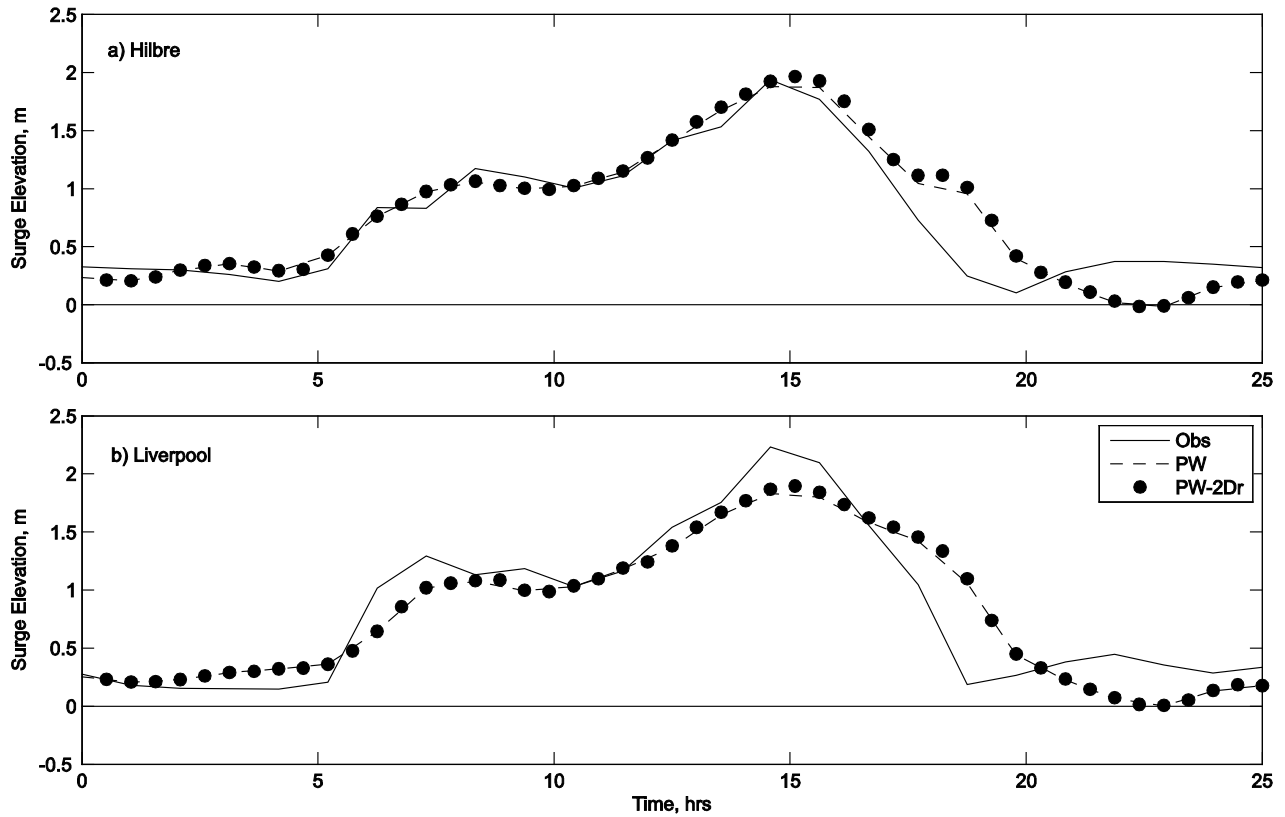
753 **Figure captions:**

754 Fig. 1. a) The ~180 m Liverpool Bay model domain, nested with the ~1.8 km Irish Sea model, in
755 turn nested within the ~12 km Continental Shelf model. b) Bathymetry contours are
756 relative to mean tidal level (MTL) and the symbols represent observation stations. Tide
757 gauges are marked with triangles, wave buoys are marked by circles and the fixed
758 moorings with ADCP are marked with stars.



759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766

767 Fig. 2. The observed and hindcast surge at Hilbre (a) and Liverpool (b). All model setups,
768 identified in Table 1, are shown. The time series over the 25 hour storm period starts
769 00:00 18th January and ends 00:00 19th January.



770

771

772

773

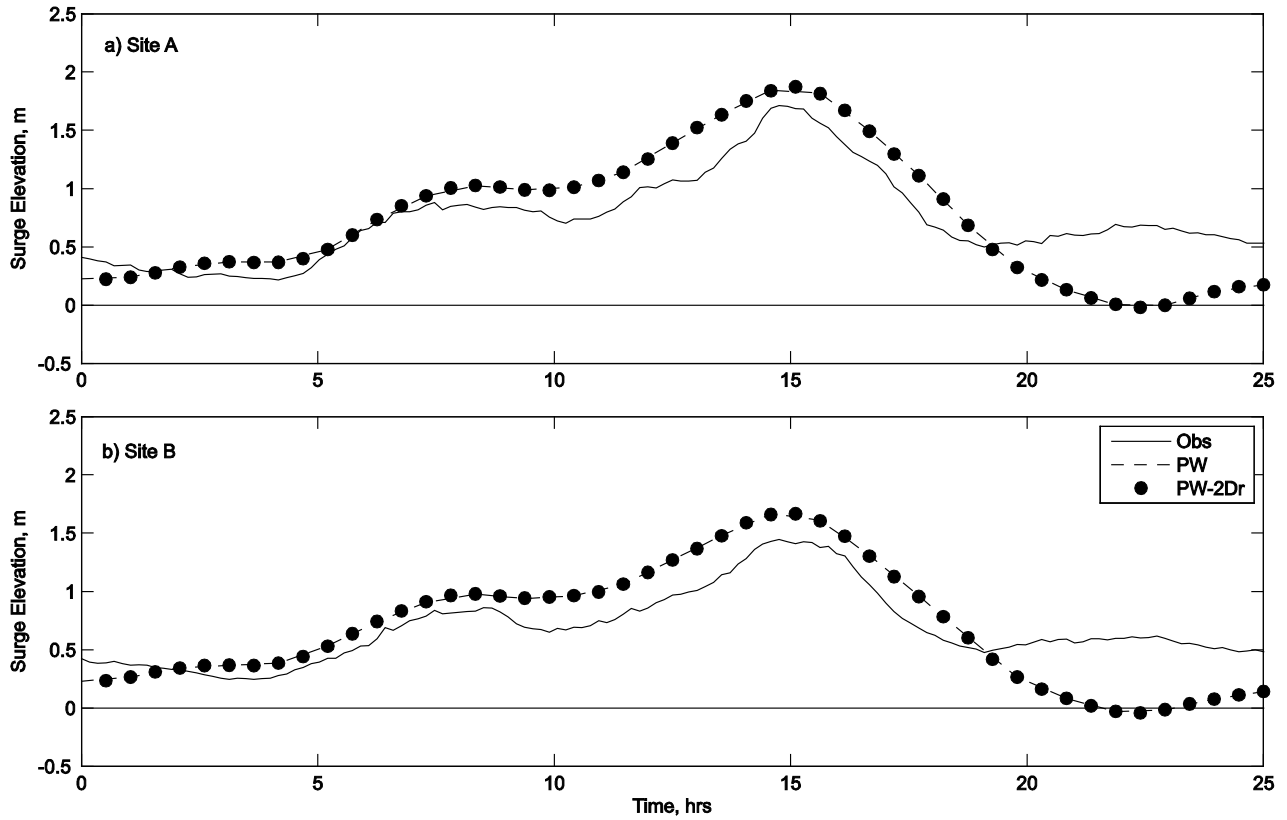
774

775

776

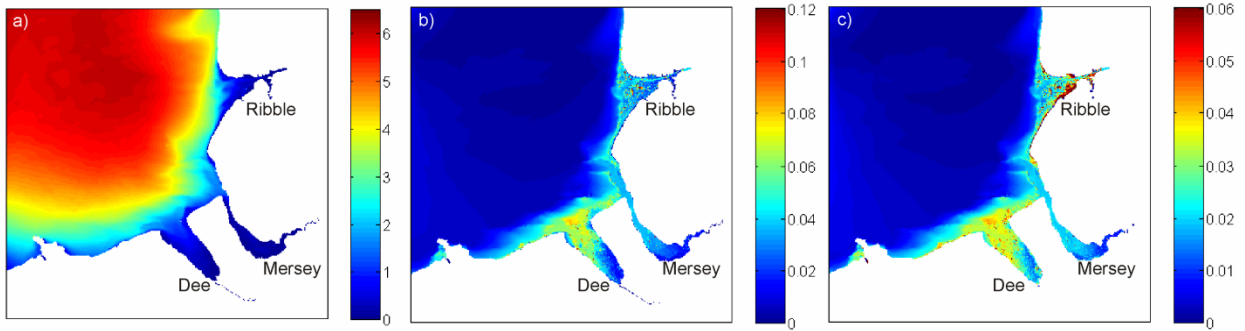
777

778 Fig. 3. The observed (corrected to the PW mean value) and hindcast surge at Site A (a) and Site B
779 (b). All model setups, identified in Table 1, are shown. The time series over the 25 hour
780 storm period starts 00:00 18th January and ends 00:00 19th January.



781
782
783
784
785
786
787
788

789 Fig. 4. The maximum significant wave height, m (a), maximum wave setup, m (b) and the ratio of
790 the maximum wave setup to the maximum meteorological surge (c), all at each grid point
791 across the model domain, occurring at independent times during the 25 hour storm period.



792

793

794

795

796

797

798

799

800

801

802

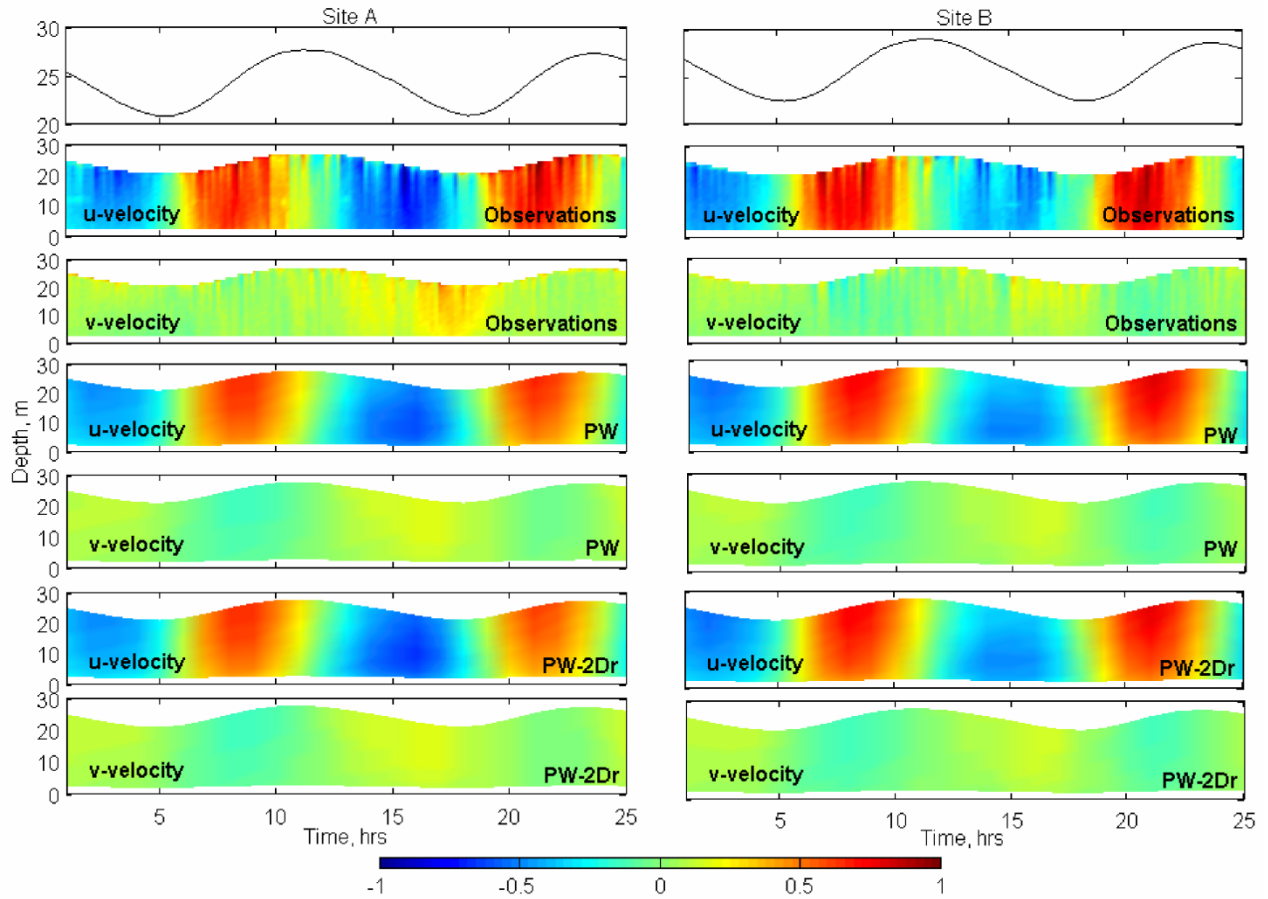
803

804

805

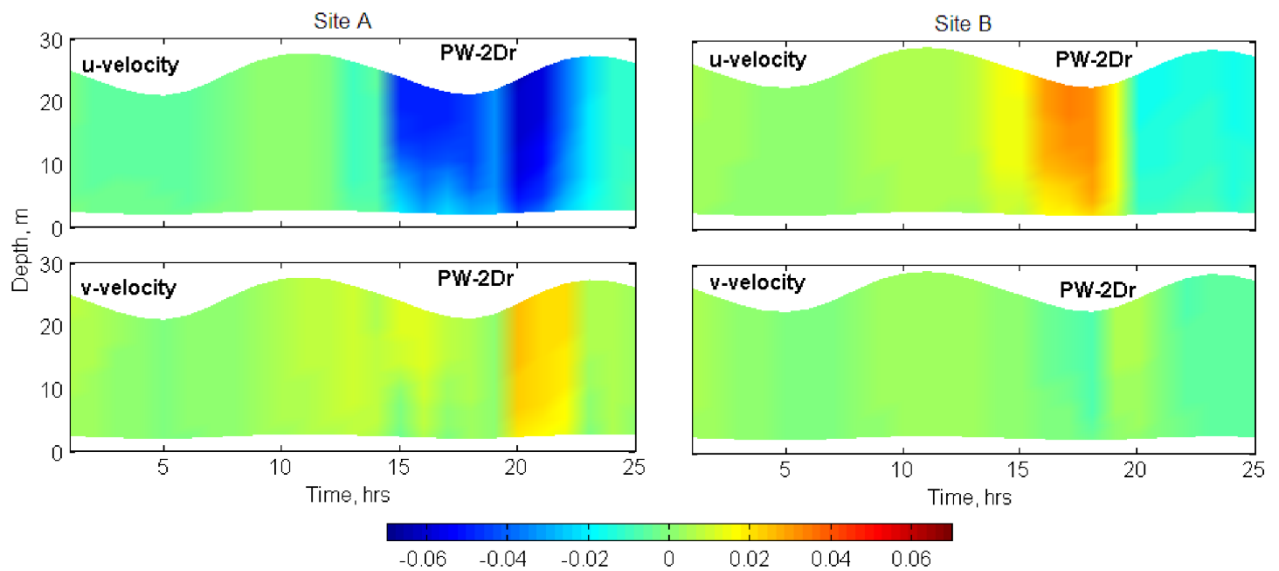
806

807 Fig. 5. Profiles of the observed and POLCOMS-WAM modelled time-varying horizontal velocity
 808 (m/s) over the 25 hour storm period at the two instrumented mooring Sites A and B,
 809 starting 00:00 18th January ending 00:00 19th January. The model simulations are with and
 810 without the inclusion of 2D radiation stress. The velocity components to the east and north
 811 are represented by u and v respectively. In the top panels the surface elevation is shown.



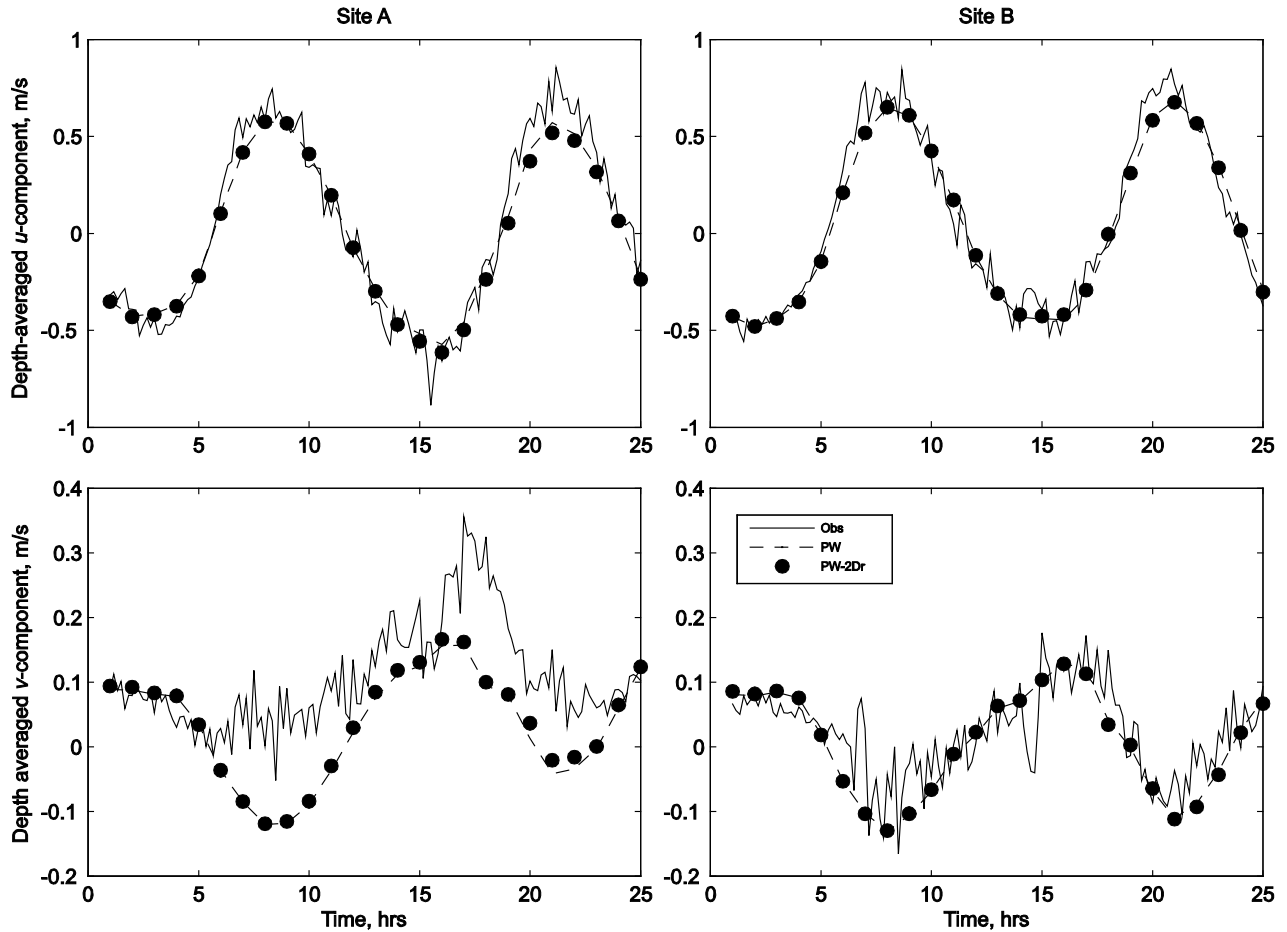
812
 813
 814
 815
 816
 817

818 Fig. 6. The POLCOMS-WAM modelled vertical profile of the wave-induced velocity components
819 over the 25 hour storm period at the two instrumented mooring Sites A and B, starting
820 00:00 18th January ending 00:00 19th January. The model simulation includes 2D radiation
821 stress methods as identified in Table 1 and validated in Table 2. The velocity components
822 to the east and north are represented by u and v respectively.
823



824
825
826
827
828
829
830
831
832

833 Fig. 7. The POLCOMS-WAM modelled depth-averaged velocities (m/s) over the 25 hour storm
834 period at the two instrumented mooring Sites A and B, starting 00:00 18th January ending
835 00:00 19th January. The 2D radiation stress method, as identified in Table 1, was used in
836 this model simulation. The velocity components to the east and north are represented by u
837 and v respectively.



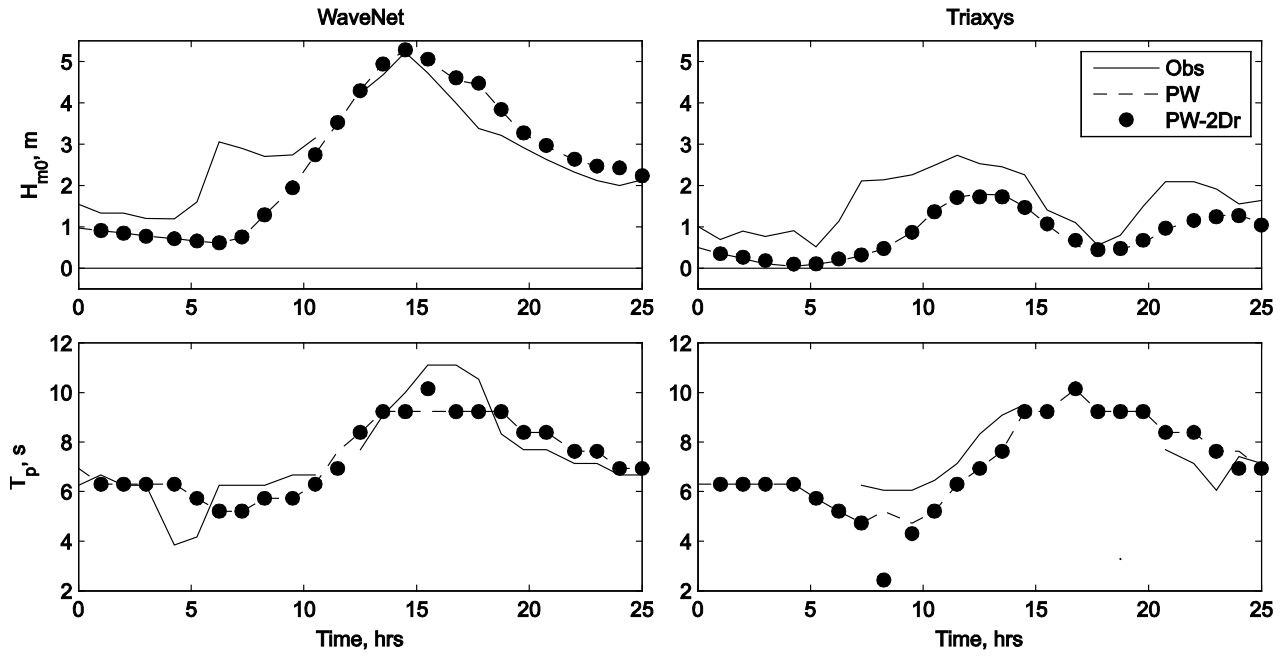
838

839

840

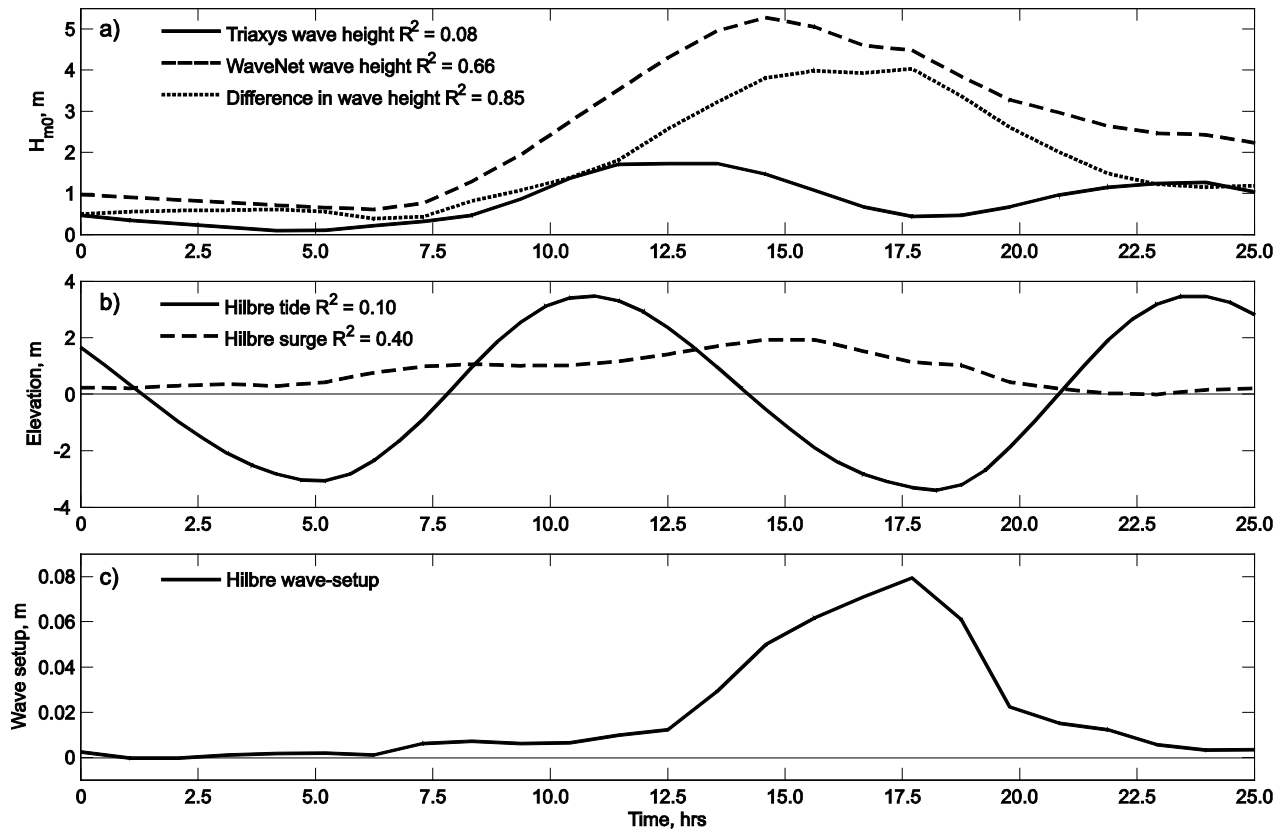
841

842 Fig. 8. The observed (obs) and hindcast (PW, PW-2Dr) wave conditions at the WaveNet (left) and
 843 Triaxys (right) buoys over the 25 hour storm period, starting 00:00 18th January ending
 844 00:00 19th January. The model setups PW and PW-2Dr can be identified in Table 3.



845
 846
 847
 848
 849
 850
 851
 852
 853
 854

855 Fig. 9: Time series of modelled nearshore parameters from PW-2Dr at the Triaxys, WaveNet and
856 Hilbre locations, as specified in the legends. The correlation (R^2 value) between each
857 parameter given in the legend in panel a and b is with the wave setup in panel c.



858
859

860

861

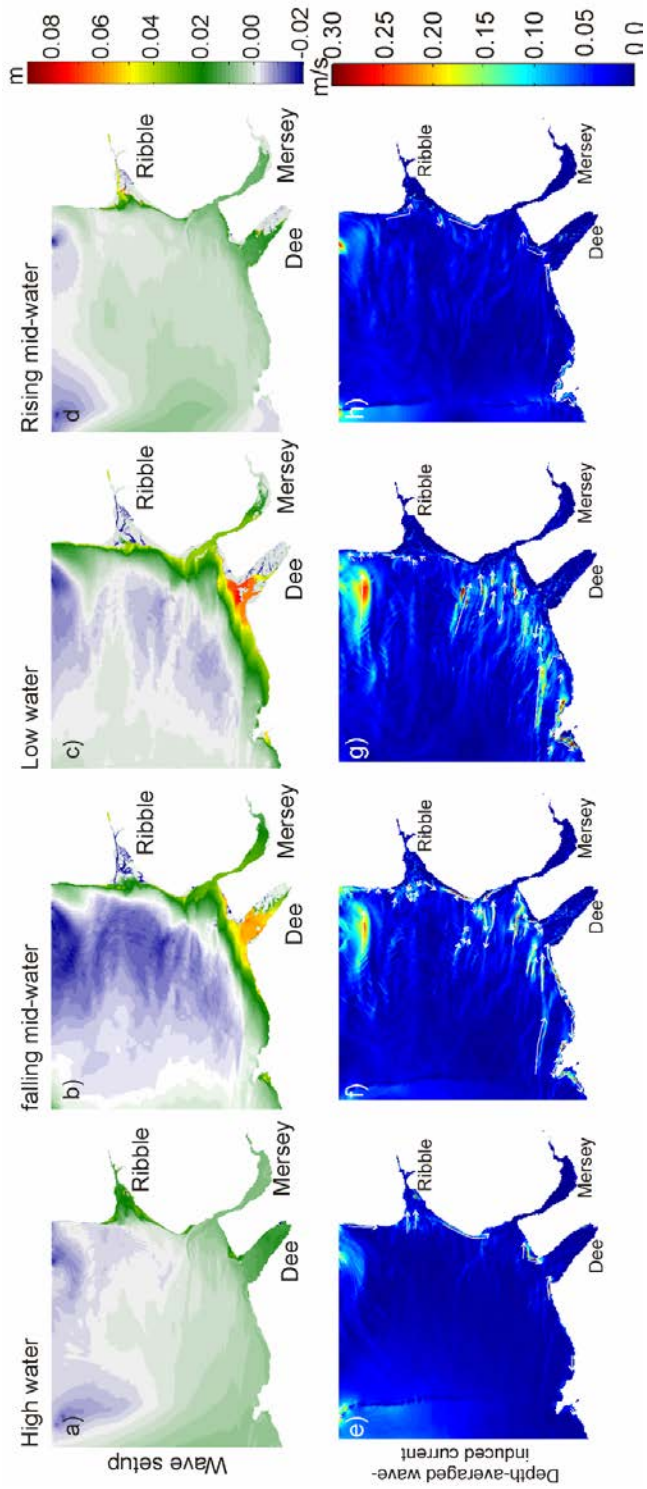
862

863

864

865

866 Fig. 10. The wave setup (top row) and depth-averaged wave-induced current speed (bottom row)
 867 across the model domain at different stages of the tide during the 25 hour storm period for
 868 the PW-2Dr simulation, identified in Table 1.



870 **Table Captions:**

871 Table 1: Valiation metrics for surge with and without wave setup, between the model hindcast and
 872 observation for: POLCOMS-WAM (PW) and POLCOMS-WAM including 2D radiation
 873 stress (PW-2Dr). The observations used to estimate the metrics consist of the total
 874 (meteorological and wave-induced) surge. The observation locations are given in Fig. 1.
 875 At Site A and B the observations are corrected by the modelled mean residual for each
 876 simulated case.

	Hilbre, <i>surge</i>		Liverpool, <i>surge</i>		Site A, <i>surge</i>		Site B, <i>surge</i>		Model Run Time (h)
Model coupling	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	
PW	0.22	-0.06	0.28	-0.40	0.31	0.15	0.30	0.23	11.6
PW – 2Dr	0.23	-0.01	0.28	-0.36	0.31	0.15	0.30	0.23	11.6

877

878

879 Table 2: Validation metrics for the depth-averaged currents between the model hindcast and
 880 ADCP observation for: POLCOMS-WAM (PW) and POLCOMS-WAM including 2D
 881 radiation stress (PW-2Dr). The velocity components to the east and north are represented
 882 by *u* and *v* respectively. The observation locations are given in Fig. 1.

	Site A, <i>u</i> -velocity		Site A, <i>v</i> -velocity		Site B, <i>u</i> -velocity		Site B, <i>v</i> -velocity	
Model coupling	<i>RMSE</i> (m/s)	<i>Mean Bias</i> (m/s)	<i>RMSE</i> (m/s)	<i>Mean Bias</i> (m/s)	<i>RMSE</i> (m/s)	<i>Mean Bias</i> (m/s)	<i>RMSE</i> (m/s)	<i>Mean Bias</i> (m/s)
PW	0.070	-0.015	0.110	-0.080	0.093	-0.027	0.055	-0.028
PW-2Dr	0.085	-0.02	0.105	-0.074	0.091	-0.024	0.056	-0.028

883

884

885

886

887 Table 3: Validation metrics for the significant wave height (H_{m0}), peak period (T_p) mean period
888 (modelled T_{m02} , observed T_z) between the model hindcast and observation for:
889 POLCOMS-WAM (PW) and POLCOMS-WAM including 2D radiation stress (PW-2Dr).
890 The observation locations are given in Fig. 1.

Model coupling	WaveNet, H_{m0}		Triaxys, H_{m0}		WaveNet, T_p		Triaxys, T_p	
	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (m)	<i>RMSE</i> (m)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (s)	<i>RMSE</i> (s)	<i>Peak Bias</i> (s)	<i>RMSE</i> (s)
PW	0.06	0.85	-1.01	0.87	-1.88	0.99	0.63	2.16
PW-2Dr	0.06	0.85	-1.00	0.87	-0.96	0.94	0.63	2.16

891