

1 **Variability in storm climate along the Gulf of Cadiz: the role of large**  
2 **scale atmospheric forcing and implications to coastal hazards.**

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11

12 Abstract

13 In the context of increased coastal hazards due to variability in storminess patterns, the  
14 danger of coastal damages and/or morphological changes is related to the sum of sea  
15 level conditions, storm surge, maximum wave height and run up values. In order to better  
16 understand the physical processes that cause the variability of the above parameters a 44  
17 years reanalysis record (HIPOCAS) was used. The HIPOCAS time-series was validated  
18 with real wave and sea-level data using linear and vector correlation methods. In the  
19 present work changes in the magnitude, duration, frequency and approach direction of the  
20 Atlantic storms over the Spanish Gulf of Cadiz (SW Iberian Peninsula) were identified by  
21 computing various storm characteristics such as maximum wave height, total energy per  
22 storm wave direction and storm duration. The obtained time-series were compared with  
23 large-scale atmospheric indices such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and the  
24 East Atlantic pattern (EA). The results show a good correlation between negative NAO  
25 values and increased storminess over the entire Gulf of Cadiz. Furthermore, negative  
26 NAO values were correlated with high residual sea level values. Finally, a joint  
27 probability analysis of storm and sea level analysis resulted in increased probabilities of  
28 the two events happening at the same time indicating higher vulnerability of the coast and  
29 increased coastal risks. The above results were compared with coastal inundation events  
30 that took place over the last winter seasons in the province of Cadiz.

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32

33 **1. Introduction**

34

35 Storm events are considered the main cause for shoreline change in many areas  
36 worldwide (Fenster et al., 2001). Depending on the magnitude of the event and the  
37 morphological characteristics of the coastline the change can be transient or persistent  
38 (Anderson et al., 2010). Hence, storms are attributed an essential role in coastal long-term  
39 evolution (decadal and centennial) despite the usually short time scale of their action  
40 (Morton et al., 1995). Nowadays there is a growing socioeconomic need towards  
41 innovative coastal management and evaluation of the risks associated with the  
42 development in coastal plains (Van Dongeren et al., 2014). The combined effect of storm  
43 activity and surge level changes can pose a risk on the coastal environment by eroding  
44 the upper beach and inundating any low lying backshore area. In coastlines exposed to  
45 long fetches, such as the Spanish Atlantic coast, large scale atmospheric phenomena are  
46 the main source of storminess variability. Hence, the seasonal and inter-annual variability  
47 or long term trends of the above processes can affect the risk distribution over a particular  
48 stretch of coastline.

49

50 Specific trends in wave heights have long been observed in the North Atlantic (Bacon  
51 and Carter, 1991; Carter and Draper, 1988; Dupuis et al., 2006; Feng et al., 2014b) and in  
52 the Northeast Pacific (Allan and Komar, 2000). Furthermore, Bacon and Carter (1991)  
53 observed a correlation between North Atlantic meridional atmospheric pressure gradient  
54 and wave height. Woolf et al. (2002) established a relationship between wave height  
55 anomalies and large scale atmospheric pressure patterns over the Northeast Atlantic on  
56 the basis of satellite altimetry. Finally, Dodet et al. (2010) presented a larger influence of  
57 the NAO over the south area of Europe using a 60 year long wave model forced by the 6h  
58 wind field from National Centres of Environmental Prediction (NCEP) reanalysis project  
59 (Kalnay et al., 1996).

60

61 Traditionally the NAO and other climatic indices have been mainly linked with  
62 temperature, precipitation and large scale circulation patterns. Recent studies have also

63 focused on analysing the response of sea level variability to NAO, but always at a broad  
64 spatial scale (Efthymiadis et al., 2002; Tsimplis and Shaw, 2008; Tsimplis et al., 2006;  
65 Woolf et al., 2003). Main findings are that the NAO influence on sea level is dominant in  
66 winter and represents one of the causes of the high inter-annual variability of sea level  
67 during this season. Moreover, Woolf et al. (2003) suggest that NAO effects are probably  
68 similar in the open ocean and along coastlines in large geographical areas, although they  
69 might sometimes be masked by local phenomena.

70

71 Regional correlations between mean monthly wave height and NAO values have been  
72 performed by various researchers (Bertin et al., 2013; Dodet et al., 2010; Feng et al.,  
73 2014a; Rangel-Buitrago and Anfuso, 2013; Woolf et al., 2003). The impact of storms on  
74 shoreline variability has been widely demonstrated (e.g. (Cooper et al., 2004; List et al.,  
75 2006; Morris et al., 2001). However, a direct relationship between inter-annual wave  
76 variability and coastal response has not been linked to NAO because of the general lack  
77 of long-term and detailed coastal topographic data and the influence of other local and  
78 regional aspects on coastal changes, such as geological framework (Jackson et al., 2005).  
79 Recently O'Connor et al. (2011) demonstrated a tentative link between coastline  
80 topography and NAO-modulated external forcing, by focusing in small and well  
81 constrained tidal inlets of northwest of Ireland. Thomas et al. (2011) derived a negative  
82 correlation between beach rotation and volume with the NAO for the southwest Welsh  
83 coast. In the same way, using the SOI climatic index and the data-set of Narrabeen Beach  
84 in Australia a relation between beach rotation was linked to the variability of wave  
85 characteristics (Harley et al., 2009; Ranasinghe et al., 2004; Short et al., 2000).

86

87 Although it is well known that NAO affects the latitudinal aspects of storm tracks  
88 variability over the Atlantic (Keim et al., 2004; Rogers, 1997) an in-depth investigation  
89 of the joint influence on the wave storminess and sea surface height variability and the  
90 associated coastal hazards in the Gulf of Cadiz has not yet been undertaken. The present  
91 work focuses in the coastal area of the northern part of the Gulf of Cadiz and goes  
92 beyond the separate analysis of wave and residual sea level as it investigates the  
93 combined occurrence of the phenomena and their contribution to the increasing severity

94 of coastal hazards. Furthermore, other aspects of wave storminess are examined such as  
95 the storm significant wave height, the storm direction and the total amount of storm hours  
96 in a month. A description of the study area, wave and sea level data sets is presented,  
97 followed by a section focused on the validation exercise and correction fittings that were  
98 employed in order to improve the results of the hindcast models for storm conditions.  
99 Then the inter-annual variability of the record is presented and correlations with large  
100 scale climatic indices are undertaken. Finally, discussion and conclusions of the results  
101 obtained and comparison with other work are detailed.

102

## 103 **2. Study area**

104 The Gulf of Cadiz is the sub-basin that connects the Atlantic Ocean with the  
105 Mediterranean Sea through the Strait of Gibraltar. Its northern and southern boundaries  
106 are, respectively, the southwest coast of the Iberian Peninsula and the Atlantic coast of  
107 Morocco (Figure 1). As an Atlantic exposed coast it is influenced by large scale oceanic  
108 weather systems that cross the North Atlantic following an eastward path, that determine  
109 the patterns of precipitation, wind and long-fetch waves. The storms generated by these  
110 systems are the principal cause of transient erosion in the area (Del Rio, 2007). On a local  
111 scale, the orientation of the coastline and the local physiographic characteristics result in  
112 sheltering effects to the north component winds and funnelling effects to south and east  
113 component winds due to the complex orography of the Strait of Gibraltar (Dorman et al.,  
114 1995). The prevailing wind and wave fields are from WSW directions (Figure 1), with a  
115 yearly average significant wave height of 1 m comprised of both sea and swell,  
116 generating a predominant longshore current towards the E and SE (Benavente et al.,  
117 2000). Waves with north component are not frequent within the Gulf of Cadiz due to the  
118 sheltering effect of the Cape St. Vincent (Figure 1) where significant diffraction and  
119 attenuation takes place. In general the northern Gulf of Cadiz is characterized by a lower  
120 energy wave climate than the western coastlines of the Iberian Peninsula (Loureiro et al.,  
121 2013). Storm events are generally frequent over the autumn and winter months with  
122 significant wave height values reaching up to 7m. The less frequent wave storm events in  
123 the Gulf of Cadiz have easterly directions (wave rose in Figure 1) but they do not produce  
124 high waves to the north-eastern part of the Gulf due to their limited fetch. Due to the

125 coastline orientation, these limited fetch storm waves affect only the north-western part  
126 of the Gulf of Cadiz.

127

128 In terms of tides the area can be described as semidiurnal with mean tidal range of 2.20 m  
129 decreasing towards the Strait of Gibraltar. Changes in shoreline orientation along the  
130 Gulf coast greatly influence the approach angle of waves, which diminishes progressively  
131 towards the Southeast, generating less significant littoral currents close to the Strait of  
132 Gibraltar and weaker longshore drift (Medina, 1991). The surface circulation over the  
133 continental shelf is mainly wind-driven but it is also affected by local forcing  
134 mechanisms, such as the Guadalquivir River discharge, and is subject to seasonal and  
135 inter-annual variations deeply related to the seasonal variability of the open sea  
136 circulation (Criado-Aldeanueva et al., 2009). The latter is greatly affected by the large-  
137 scale atmospheric patterns over the Atlantic Ocean, roughly represented by the NAO  
138 index (Criado-Aldeanueva et al., 2009).

139

### 140 **3. Methodology**

141

#### 142 **3.1 Data description**

143 In the present work the nearshore nodes of a hindcast dataset (HIPOCAS data  
144 hereinafter), located over the north coast of the Gulf of Cadiz were used. The dataset  
145 consists of a 44-year reanalysis of meteorological, wave variables and sea level spanning  
146 between January 1958 and December 2001 (Sebastiao et al., 2008). For the wave  
147 simulation over the Gulf of Cadiz a grid of 5' was linked to a larger WAM model  
148 (WAMDI-Group, 1988) of the Atlantic Ocean through a series of nested models (Gomez  
149 Lahoz and Carretero Albiach, 2005). The wave model was initially forced by the NCEP  
150 reanalysis wind fields. The ocean circulation and sea level variations were simulated with  
151 the HAMSOM model over a grid of 10'x 15' taking into account wind and pressure  
152 forcing. The hydrodynamic model was forced with boundary conditions from the REMO  
153 atmospheric model (Sebastiao et al., 2008) that was in turn forced with NCEP data. The  
154 sea-level data represent the atmospherically-induced contribution and the associated  
155 storm surges and do not have a tidal signal, or the contribution of the steric effect on sea-

156 level (Sebastiao et al., 2008). The output time-step was 3 hours for all the parameters.  
157 From the above data set five stations were selected that cover the entire north coast of the  
158 Gulf of Cadiz (Figure 1). From west to east the selected stations are: Faro, that represents  
159 the most exposed part of the Gulf of Cadiz with a narrow shelf and a steep continental  
160 slope; Huelva and Seville, located further to the east, at the widest part of the continental  
161 shelf and partially sheltered from the west and north component winds by the Cape St.  
162 Vincent; Cadiz station is located further to the southeast where the shelf width starts to  
163 reduce and the coastline is more exposed to the Atlantic storms; finally the Zahara station  
164 is largely dominated by the Gibraltar Strait conditions and is characterized by the absence  
165 of continental shelf and reduced tidal range. In terms of wave data the coastal buoy of  
166 Cadiz managed by Spanish Port Authorities and the buoy of Faro managed by the  
167 Portuguese Hydrographical Office (Figure 1) were selected for validation purposes since  
168 they provided directional wave measurement overlapping with the model data.

169

### 170 **3.2 HIPOCAS data validation**

171 An extensive validation exercise was undertaken by Mendez et al. (2006) between the  
172 HIPOCAS wave data and wave buoy data collected around the Spanish coasts. However,  
173 in order to optimize the results in the Gulf of Cadiz, a new correction was applied in the  
174 present study that consisted in: (i) fitting the model wave height to observations focusing  
175 mainly in the case of storm conditions; (ii) evaluating differences between model and  
176 measured wave directions using a vector correlation approach (Kundu, 1976). The wave  
177 height validation was evaluated by calculating the bias and the Brier Skill Score (BSS).  
178 The latter parameter relates the variance of the difference between data and model with  
179 the variance of the data. BSS=1 means perfect skill, BSS=0 means no skill (Roelvink et  
180 al., 2009). The wave direction validation was evaluated based on the Kundu coefficient  
181 and mean angle rotation ( $\theta$ ). Both wind waves and swell were analysed together since  
182 they coexist during storm events and no spectral information was available.

183

184 In order to obtain a statistically independent wave height data set of storm conditions a  
185 peak over threshold analysis (POT) was used for the period with simultaneous model and  
186 observation data (Kamphuis, 2000). The above analysis allowed producing a correction

187 based on the peak values of each storm and was then applied to the entire data set. The  
188 threshold value for the POT analysis was set as 1.5m wave height (a threshold value  
189 proposed by the local authorities for civil protection), and a storm independence criteria  
190 (time between two consecutive independent storms) was calculated based on the integral  
191 time scales of the autocorrelation function (Emery and Thomson, 2001). Higher storm  
192 threshold values proposed for the area of Cadiz (Almeida et al., 2012; Del Rio et al.,  
193 2012; Ribera et al., 2011) were also used but the fitting coefficients obtained were not  
194 significantly different.

195

196 The corrected values of significant wave height ( $H_{sc}$ ) improved the time series extracted  
197 from the reanalysis data for storms with  $H_s$  higher than 3m, where the HIPOCAS data  
198 had significantly and systematically overestimated the wave height approximately by  
199 30%. A single model was constructed from both data series with a correlation coefficient  
200 of  $r=0.75$  and applied to all stations. Similar correlation coefficients were also obtained  
201 for only the Faro data by Almeida et al. (2011). Separate analysis of Cadiz and Faro  
202 buoys resulted in correlations that had statistically no significant differences. Typical  
203 results are shown in Figure 2 for March 1995 for both stations, where it can be observed  
204 that the corrected HIPOCAS data show better agreement during storm conditions with the  
205 buoy data. For the data set relative bias values of 0.02 instead of 0.29 for the uncorrected  
206 data and BSS of 0.60 instead of 0.43 were obtained for the buoy of Faro. For the case of  
207 Cadiz buoy similar values were calculated with relative bias decreasing from -0.35 to -  
208 0.02 and BSS increasing from 0.41 to 0.66.

209

210 The agreement between the original (uncorrected) model data and buoy data, in both Faro  
211 and Cadiz wave buoys, was tested for wave height and direction simultaneously using the  
212 Kundu (1976) vector correlation approach. This correlation method produces a  
213 coefficient between the directional wave heights of the two time series and the main  
214 angle ( $\theta$ ) through which the first series would have to be rotated anticlockwise to match  
215 the direction of the second series. Although overlapping of directional wave data between  
216 the buoy of Cadiz and the HIPOCAS data only exists over part of 2001, the period is long  
217 enough to cover both calm and stormy conditions. For the case of Faro the overlapping



218 period was much longer (1997-2001). The correction coefficients calculated for the two  
219 time series were not statistically different; hence a common correction equation was  
220 derived for both sites and then applied to all the wave data.

221

222 Differences in wave propagation direction between the measured and modelled data are  
223 presented against the significant wave height in Figure 3. There is a large scatter in  
224 directions for wave heights lower than 1m in both sites. However, as it can be seen from  
225 the point's density, large differences are only present over few events, while the majority  
226 of the data show small deviations. Such deviations are reduced to a variance of 45 deg for  
227 waves between 1-1.5m, also with larger densities concentrated in small differences. Data  
228 from Faro present slightly larger deviations for the lower wave heights. This is probably  
229 related to the diffraction processes that waves undergo at the Cape St. Vincent, which are  
230 probably not fully resolved by the model resolution. For the higher wave heights the  
231 directional scatter is minimized and the HIPOCAS data present a good agreement with  
232 the observed data.

233

234 Using the vector correlation approach, the correlation coefficient obtained for the Cadiz  
235 buoy was 0.71 with an average angle difference of 4.7 deg. For Faro the correlation  
236 obtained was 0.76 with an average angle difference of -5.2 deg. In Figure 4 the E-W  
237 (zonal) and N-S (meridional) components of the waves are plotted for both sites. A good  
238 agreement is observed between both components, particularly for large storm events of  
239 southwest direction, which is the main oceanic storm approach direction. Similar results  
240 were also observed by Ribera et al. (2011) for the same data set. The locally generated  
241 small storms with predominant southeast directions are not well represented by the model  
242 probably due to spatial constraints of the atmospheric forcing that cannot resolve the  
243 local east wind acceleration over the Strait of Gibraltar (Figure 4, around 11/08/2001) and  
244 the short fetch of those waves. These locally generated storms are not affecting the  
245 eastern coastline of the Gulf of Cadiz, because of the short fetch and its general  
246 orientation. However, the above events can generate coastal erosion events further west,  
247 over the coast of southern Portugal (Garcia et al., 2005).

248

249 No validation to the sea level data was applied here because the calibrated time series  
250 (Sebastiao et al., 2008) are the only available in the area for the reanalysis period. The sea  
251 level reanalysis carried out for the HIPOCAS data along the coasts of the Iberian  
252 Peninsula presented good results (Sebastiao et al., 2008). For example, in the area of the  
253 Gulf of Cadiz (tidal station Seville) the results were under-predicting the observations  
254 with a RMSE of 12.61 only for the extreme peak of the storms. This discrepancy could be  
255 due to the tidal gauge location (close to estuary mouth) where the measured water levels  
256 are locally affected by the river discharge; however, this do not influence the general  
257 surge level on the continental shelf (Laiz et al., 2013).

258

### 259 **3.3 Data analysis**

260 The corrected time series were used to calculate the monthly, seasonal and annual values  
261 of the wave heights and directions and sea level in order to identify the wave climatology  
262 in the area. Furthermore, storminess indices were calculated on a monthly basis in order  
263 to be compared with climatic indices. The wave storminess indices obtained were: the  
264 number of individual storms per month (storm number, SN); the storm significant wave  
265 height  $H_{st}$  which corresponds to the monthly average ( $\overline{H_s}$ ) of wave heights ( $H_s$ ) for the  
266 values above the threshold ( $H_{th}$ )

$$H_{st} = \overline{H_s} | H_s > H_{th}$$

267

268 Finally, the number of hours when the storm threshold was exceeded divided by the total  
269 number of hours per month (Storm Duration Ratio, SDR) was also calculated

270

$$SDR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N t_i | H_i > H_{th}}{\sum_{i=1}^N t_i}$$

271

272 where N is the number of model output per month and  $H_{th}$  is the storm threshold. For both  
273 indices the wave height threshold and storm independence criteria remained the same as  
274 in the POT analysis. SDR is a value similar to the percentage of run length introduced by  
275 Feng et al. (2014a). Additionally the total storm energy per month was calculated as the  
276 sum of wave energy above the storm threshold.

277

278 The computed indices were correlated with the climatic indices that influence weather  
279 patterns over Europe, namely the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), the East Atlantic  
280 Pattern (EA), the Scandinavia Pattern (SCAN) and the Polar/ Eurasia Pattern (POL). The  
281 monthly data corresponding to the HIPOCAS dataset were obtained from NOAA climate  
282 centre and were calculated from the rotated EOF of the 500 hPa geopotential height. The  
283 SCA and POL did not present any significant correlation; hence the results are not  
284 presented. Significant differences between two correlation coefficients were tested using  
285 the Fisher r-to-z transformation (Fisher, 1970). This method converts first each  
286 correlation coefficient into a  $z$ -score. Then, making use of the sample size employed to  
287 obtain each coefficient; these  $z$ -scores are compared.

288

289 Furthermore, a detailed study of surge levels given a specific wave height ( $f_{S|Hs}$ ) was  
290 studied at a storm event timescale. For the joint probability estimation of the residual sea  
291 level (SLres) and Hsc were jointly used in POT analysis. For each storm event identified  
292 by the POT analysis the peak Hsc and peak SLres were selected in order to construct a  
293 contingency table. Tidal variations were not taken into account since in the Iberian  
294 Peninsula tidal–surge energy transfer is low (Ratsimandresy et al., 2008). Combined  
295 wave and SLres probability function ( $f_{SLres,Hs}$ ) events was undertaken parting from the  
296 assumption that the surge elevation probability function ( $f_s$ ) is not independent of the  
297 significant wave height probability function ( $f_{Hs}$ ) for waves above the threshold.

298

$$f_{Hs,RSL}(Hs, RSL) = f_{RSL|Hs}(RSL|Hs) \cdot f_{Hs}(Hs)$$

299 For the calculation of join probability the initial POT analysis results were used in order  
300 to construct a contingency table with storm events and the associated SLres.

301

## 302 **4. Results and Discussion**

303

304

305

### 306 **4.1 Wave and Residual Sea Level Climate**

307 The mean annual cycle for the corrected significant wave height ( $H_{sc}$ ) and the associated  
308 wave directions for the coastal area of the northern Gulf of Cadiz are presented in Figure  
309 5a and 5b. The average wave heights over the area are higher during the winter months  
310 and part of the autumn. From the comparison of corrected significant wave heights ( $H_{sc}$ )  
311 and their associated directions it can be seen that there is a high energy period starting in  
312 November and extending up to March, when the mean wave heights are higher ( $H_{sc} \approx$   
313 1m) and from more southerly directions. The same pattern is present for all stations with  
314 some differences in Huelva and Seville where the mean significant wave height is lower  
315 and mean direction of propagation has a stronger southern component, due to the shelter  
316 effect of the Cape St Vincent. These values classify the coastline as a mixed energy,  
317 wave-dominated coast according to (Davis and Hayes, 1984). Over the rest of the year  
318 mean wave height is significantly lower with more westerly directions. This annual  
319 variability represents the typical wave climatology of the region. Based on the above  
320 results the wave climate in the Gulf of Cadiz can be separated in a storm (November -  
321 March) and a calm (April - October) season. These results are in agreement with previous  
322 wave climate studies (Dodet et al., 2010; Lozano et al., 2004) on the area and with the  
323 seasonal morphological behaviour of the beach (Benavente et al., 2002). In terms of peak  
324 period ( $T_p$ , Figure 5c) the seasonal pattern is repeated with higher values of  $T_p$  during the  
325 storm season and lower ones during the calm season. All stations present the same mean  
326 monthly values with the only difference of Huelva (the most protected station) where  $T_p$   
327 values are smaller.

328

329 On the other hand the monthly residual sea level (SLres) variation (Figure 5d) presents an  
330 inverse image, with higher SLres during the calm period and lower values during the  
331 storm period. These results are in agreement with previous analysis of SLres records in  
332 the area that show a seasonal cycle with a minimum in February and a maximum in  
333 October, consistent with atmospheric pressure forcing in this region (Laiz et al., 2013).  
334 The SLres annual signal ranges between about 4–6/5–6 cm from tide gauges/altimeter  
335 measurements, respectively, the latter always showing slightly larger amplitudes  
336 (Gomez-Enri et al., 2012; Laiz et al., 2013; Marcos et al., 2011; Marcos and Tsimplis,  
337 2007).

338

#### 339 **4.2 Correlations with climate indices**

340 The inter-annual variability of the storm significant wave height and storminess indices  
341 did not show significant correlation with climatic indices. These results have been  
342 reported before for the Faro station and NAO (Almeida et al., 2011) and seem to extend  
343 over the entire Gulf of Cadiz. Other studies have concluded that the inter-annual  
344 variability of Hs is partially controlled by NAO (Dodet et al., 2010; Woolf et al., 2002)  
345 but Bertin et al. (2013) show that this relationship has a large spatial variability that  
346 results in non-significant correlations over the Gulf of Cadiz. Also the same studies  
347 concluded that no linear trend is present for Hs over the study area. This paper is focusing  
348 on the monthly variability both for the storm and calm period as well as their  
349 climatological anomalies.

350

351 Both the storm mean monthly values (mean value of significant wave height that exceeds  
352 the storm threshold, 1.5 m) and their anomalies for the whole year and for the storm  
353 seasons were tested against all indices that are linked with climate variability over  
354 Europe, in order to investigate possible correlations with the wave parameters and SLres  
355 in the Gulf of Cadiz. Significant correlations were obtained for the NAO and EA pattern.  
356 Data showed correlation between the annual Hsc and NAO for all sites with values  
357 between -0.27 for Faro and -0.34 for Seville, increasing for the storm season months to  
358 values of around -0.58 (Table 1, Figure 6). However, the correlations between the mean  
359 monthly anomalies and NAO show significant increase ( $p < 0.01$ ) for the full year where  
360 the correlation coefficient almost doubles, suggesting that NAO has an effect on the wave  
361 variability that prevails during calm season as well. This variability could be due to  
362 waves formed by local wind or to swell field being determined by the NAO over the  
363 North Atlantic. This can have implications on the medium term shoreline evolutions  
364 since the wave period characteristics during the calm season are responsible for the beach  
365 accretion and recovery after the storms. For the storm season the anomaly correlations are  
366 also higher but differences are small and not statistically significant. In terms of spatial  
367 distributions there are no significant differences observed for the various locations  
368 between NAO and the annual Hs for all cases. The physical explanation of the above

369 correlations could be attributed to the higher abundance of low pressure systems and the  
370 increase in wind speed linked with the NAO and attributed to the southern shift of the  
371 Atlantic storm tracks (Dodet et al., 2010; Keim et al., 2004).

372

373 Significant correlations but with low correlation coefficient values were observed  
374 between NAO and monthly wave directions for the full year; the best correlation was  
375 observed in Huelva but the coefficient did not exceed -0.20. Over the storm season  
376 correlations did not improve but the significance levels decreased due to the lower  
377 number of observations (220 instead of 528) that influences the degrees of freedom of the  
378 correlations. The spatial distribution again did not show any significant variation.

379

380 The residual water levels also presented strong correlations with NAO especially during  
381 the storm season months, showing a high correlation value between mean storm residual  
382 water levels and NAO (-0.66 on average,  $p < 0.01$ ). These results are in agreement with  
383 previous studies in the area using the same reanalysis data for southern Europe (Marcos  
384 et al., 2009). The main mechanism that drives the residual sea level response to the NAO  
385 is both hydrostatic and non-hydrostatic (Woolf et al., 2003). Considering this, the  
386 correlation between mean storm residual water level and NAO is possibly related to the  
387 fact that the HIPOCAS dataset includes both processes, as it was modelled using a  
388 barotropic version of the HAMSOM model (Ratsimandresy et al., 2008). All correlations  
389 have a negative sign because wave height and residual sea level increase with negative  
390 NAO values (Table 1).

391

392 For the case of EA the above parameters explain a small but statistically significant part  
393 of the variability (Table 2) among which the most pronounced is that of the significant  
394 wave height during the storm months. In all cases the correlation coefficients were  
395 smaller than with NAO, as expected, since the EA is the second prominent mode of low-  
396 frequency variability over the North Atlantic (Barnston and Livezey, 1987). For this  
397 index the correlations are positive for wave height and direction but negative for SLres.  
398 Positive EA values are responsible for zonally extended storm tracks that affect the  
399 southern coasts of Europe (Wettstein and Wallace, 2010). Significant differences between

400 stations were only present for wave height correlations, where the lowest value obtained  
401 (Huelva) was significantly different from the rest of the stations.

402

403 Correlations between wave directions during storms were stronger in the case of EA than  
404 with the NAO. Correlations were positive with mean values around 0.20 to 0.3 and were  
405 constant both for mean values and anomalies (Table 2). Apart from these correlations,  
406 EA index presented negative correlations (between -0.36 and -0.46) with the wave  
407 direction standard deviation during the storm season (Figure 7). These correlations  
408 suggest a focusing of the storm around west direction during the positive EA and a  
409 greater dispersion during negative EA. This dispersion is represented in the Gulf of Cadiz  
410 with increased southern direction because of the negative skewness inherited to the data  
411 by the coastline orientation.

412

413 Because the NAO and the EA represent different modes of the atmospheric variability i.e.  
414 the percentage of variability expressed by the two indices is uncorrelated, the above  
415 results suggest that storminess during negative NAO and positive EA phases can be  
416 further increased. However, on a seasonal scale the indices can be correlated; hence, part  
417 of the explained variance can be common (Martinez-Asensio et al., 2014). The physical  
418 mechanism during NAO-negative and EA-positive phases is that the orientation of the  
419 boundary between the positive and negative pressure anomalies crosses the North  
420 Atlantic from northwest (60N, 60W) to southeast (45N, 10W), which is likely to  
421 influence the meridional circulation intensity (Nesterov, 2009) and direct the storm tracks  
422 towards south Europe and into the Gulf of Cadiz. Furthermore, average wind during  
423 winter NAO-negative and EA-positive phases reveals patterns of westerly wind  
424 (Martinez-Asensio et al., 2014) that can induce a net mass flux in the Gulf of Cadiz and  
425 at the same time generate increased Hs (Fukumori et al., 2007). Similar average wind  
426 patterns are also generated during positive SCAN phases but with a more pronounced  
427 northern component; however, any generated waves by this wind pattern are not affecting  
428 the northern part of the Gulf of Cadiz due to the sheltering effect of the Cape St. Vincent.

429

430 Apart from the mean monthly values and anomalies, specific storm indices calculated  
431 above were also correlated with the climatic indices. Similar correlations (-0.52 and -  
432 0.43,  $p < 0.01$ ) were obtained between the SDR, which is a measure of the total time of the  
433 Atlantic oriented storm activity per month, and the NAO for the storm season (Figure 8).  
434 Higher values are observed for the more exposed stations (Faro, Cadiz and Zahara).  
435 Special cases for the Atlantic storms were selected by gradually restricting the direction  
436 of the incoming storm to pure westerly directions (data not shown). For these cases the  
437 correlation coefficients remain practically unchanged in all stations except Seville and  
438 Huelva, where the number of events drops dramatically due to the sheltering effect. The  
439 Storm number also presented similar patterns to the SDR both in terms of NAO  
440 correlations and spatial variability (data not shown).

441

442 The monthly storm wave height ( $H_{st}$ ) obtained from individual storms produced a weaker  
443 correlation (-0.41,  $p < 0.01$ ) with NAO over the storm season. Similar results were  
444 obtained for the total energy of the storm waves for each month where the correlation  
445 coefficient with NAO was -0.45 ( $p < 0.01$ ). However the correlation between SDR and the  
446 mean monthly  $H_s$  was of the order of -0.90 for the study area, with no significant  
447 variations between the stations. The above results suggest that although negative NAO  
448 values increase the storminess over the study area, they do not control the magnitude of  
449 the wave height which is probably affected by synoptic atmospheric patterns. On the  
450 other hand there is a correlation with the number and total storm duration arriving to the  
451 Gulf of Cadiz. Similar results were presented for the Norwegian Sea where no statistical  
452 correlation was obtained between NAO and waves with low probability of exceedance  
453 (largest waves) (Feng et al., 2014b); however it has to be noted that NAO correlations  
454 with the largest 1% of  $H_s$  can reach  $r = 0.83$  over the Northwest of Scotland (Wang and  
455 Swail, 2001; 2002) but these correlations present large spatial variation over the North  
456 Atlantic.

457

### 458 **4.3 Joint Probability**

459 Despite the opposite seasonal pattern followed by the  $H_{sc}$  and the  $SL_{res}$  presented in  
460 Figure 4, sea level values during storms were found to deviate substantially from the



461 average seasonal cycle especially during the storms. The joint probability between these  
462 parameters is presented in Figure 9, with similar patterns observed at all stations. A large  
463 proportion of the events identified by the POT (50%) correspond to relatively low energy  
464 events ( $<2.5$  m Hsc), for which the SLres showed a large spread that is mainly  
465 concentrated in positive values between 0 and 15cm. For the rest of the events a clear  
466 trend is obtained where higher wave heights are observed together with positive SLres,  
467 with values up to 35 cm for the extreme wave height events of 4-6.5 m that have a return  
468 period in the area of Cadiz between 3 and 4 years respectively (Del Rio et al., 2012).

469

470 The stations of Seville and Huelva that are situated at the shadow zone of the Cape St.  
471 Vincent receive less storm activity both in terms of number and magnitude but follow the  
472 same probability patterns as the rest of the area. Besides, this zone shows the highest  
473 values of storm surge probably due to the larger width of the continental shelf. In contrast  
474 the areas of Zahara and Faro that are characterised by a relatively narrower continental  
475 shelf present much lower surges for the similar or higher wave heights. These results  
476 show dependence between the SLres and the peak storm Hsc and have wide implications  
477 on the coastal hazards and the associated risk of coastal erosion and inundations of the  
478 coastal plain (Del Rio et al., 2012).

479

480 In accordance with the correlation presented above between the storm variables and  
481 NAO, the joint probability analysis was undertaken separately for positive and negative  
482 NAO events. In general the ratio between storm events occurred during a positive NAO  
483 and events occurred during a negative NAO phase is close to 1 for all sites (Table 3). For  
484 NAO phases with an index higher/lower than  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm 1.5$  it can be seen that the  
485 negative NAO phases present almost twice the events than the positive ones for the  
486 central part of the Gulf (Seville and Huelva). On the contrary the two sites located at the  
487 extremities of the Gulf of Cadiz (Faro and Zahara) do not show this pattern. This is partly  
488 due to the strong easterly winds that can also create short-fetch storms for these areas,  
489 such events are more frequent during positive NAO (Dorman et al., 1995). These events  
490 are present in the wave record of Zahara due to the proximity to the Strait of Gibraltar  
491 and in Faro due to the orientation of the coastline and the considerable easterly fetch.

492 Differences are not present in extreme NAO phases ( $-2 > \text{NAO} > +2$ ) probably due to the  
493 small number of events (Table 3).

494

495 The joint probability analysis for positive and negative NAO events with index  
496 higher/lower than  $\pm 1.5$  is presented in Figure 10, where it can be seen that during strong  
497 positive and negative phases of NAO the joint probability of the wave–surge follows a  
498 different pattern. Positive NAO events (Figure 10 left panels) are concentrated in weak  
499 storm events ( $H_{sc} < 2.5\text{m}$ ) with mainly small SLres. On the other hand, for the negative  
500 NAO events (Figure 10 right panels) the same pattern that was observed in the full data  
501 analysis is repeated with a positive trend between storm wave heights and SLres. The  
502 above results corroborate with the NAO correlations of Table 1; where during storm  
503 season  $H_{sc}$  and SLres show significant correlations with NAO.

504

505 The joint probability results emphasize the importance of the NAO on coastal hazards.  
506 The  $H_s$  and storm surge height drive the morphological evolution and coastal hazard  
507 estimation in the Gulf of Cadiz shores according to Del Rio et al. (2012). This way,  
508 severe coastal erosion and flooding events have been recorded in the area during negative  
509 NAO phases, with a great socioeconomic impact. This impact is related to both direct  
510 damage to coastal infrastructure and undesirable morphological changes in the coastal  
511 area, such as long-term reduction in beach width or damage to dune ridges (Del Rio et al.  
512 2012). One of the most significant periods in this respect occurred in the 2009-2010  
513 winter season, when a peak in negative NAO index over the last 190 years was recorded  
514 (Osborn, 2011). In that period a number of energetic storm events caused widespread  
515 beach and dune recession and coastal flooding along the Gulf of Cadiz (Benavente et al.,  
516 2013; Del Rio et al., 2010; Rangel-Buitrago and Anfuso, 2013; Vousedoukas et al., 2012).  
517 Maximum wave heights of up to 8.4m were observed and SLres up to 0.50m were  
518 recorded at the tidal station of Cadiz. In terms of  $H_s$  the storm had a return period of  
519 20years; however, taking into account the prolonged duration of the storm (more than 20  
520 days of storm conditions) the total event as a group of storms should have a much greater  
521 return period according to Ferreira (2006). The associated damage on coastal assets  
522 generated important economic losses, which for instance in Cadiz city beaches were

523 around 157,000 €(Lopez-Doriga et al., 2010) For this reason, the fact that Hs and storm  
524 surge height have a high joint probability especially during the negative NAO phases is  
525 of great importance and can be very useful at the design stage of coastal protection  
526 systems and civil protection plans.

527

## 528 **5. Conclusions**

529

530 Reanalysis of wave and sea level data for a period of 44 years (HIPOCAS data) were  
531 used to investigate the connection between large scale atmospheric circulation patterns  
532 (NAO, EA) and the wave climate and sea level in the Gulf of Cadiz. Significant  
533 improvement of the storm wave record was obtained after applying correction functions  
534 derived from the coastal wave buoys in the area of Cadiz and Faro. In general, the  
535 HIPOCAS data correctly represented the directional storm climate in the Gulf of Cadiz  
536 and mainly the one coming from the northwestern Atlantic. The locally accelerated  
537 easterly winds in the area of the Strait of Gibraltar are not well represented due to the  
538 relative large scale of the re-analysis data. However, these events are not affecting storm-  
539 related hazards along the coastline of the study area except for the zone of Faro, as they  
540 are mostly related to high atmospheric pressure situations; furthermore, shoreline  
541 orientation and short fetch determine a negligible impact of easterly waves along the  
542 northeastern coast of the Gulf of Cadiz.

543

544 In terms of wave activity two seasons can be distinguished: the storm and the calm  
545 season. The former extends from November to March and shows higher mean monthly  
546 significant wave height and distinguishable wave period and direction than the calm  
547 season. Based on these results further analysis was undertaken following the above  
548 seasonal pattern and not the atmospheric season convention. NAO presented negative  
549 correlations with the monthly parameters of the storm season. When the mean wave  
550 climatology was subtracted from the data this correlation was extended to the entire year  
551 (anomalies) suggesting influence of the NAO to the calm wave conditions . Positive  
552 correlations were obtained with the EA pattern that probably represents the zonal  
553 extension of the storm tracks over the study area during positive EA phases. Better

554 correlations were identified for the total storm hours (Storm Index) and the residual mean  
555 sea level but not with the maximum wave height. The above results suggest that although  
556 negative NAO values increase the storminess over the study area they do not control the  
557 magnitude of the wave height, which is probably affected by mesoscale atmospheric  
558 patterns. The combined NAO and EA patterns explain a large part of the mean wave  
559 variability, also positive EA patterns are correlated with more westerly directions of the  
560 storm waves.

561

562 Joint probability analyses showed dependence between storm conditions and positive  
563 residual mean sea level on the basis of 367 events. This dependence is more pronounced  
564 over storm events with large wave heights. Study of storm events over distinct NAO  
565 index values showed a dominance of storm events during negative NAO phases. At  
566 extreme negative NAO phases the coexistence of large SLres and large storm events are  
567 present. This is not the case in positive NAO phases, where small storm events are  
568 present with disperse SLres response. In terms of coastal hazards and risk the coexistence  
569 of storm events and high SLres can potentially increase the vulnerability of the coastal  
570 areas to erosion and/or flooding episodes. The fact that these two parameters have a high  
571 joint probability especially during the negative NAO phases is of great importance and  
572 can be very useful at the design stage of coastal protection systems and civil protection  
573 plans. Furthermore, such result provides valuable information for understanding and  
574 reconstructing the long-term coastline evolution of the Gulf of Cadiz due to the long  
575 record of NAO index.

576

### 577 *Acknowledgments*

578 The authors would like to acknowledge Puertos del Estado for providing the wave buoy  
579 data for the coastal area of Cadiz, and CEDEX for providing the HIPOCAS data. This  
580 work has been supported by the MICORE project (EU grant FP7-ENV-2007-1-202798,  
581 the GERICO project (CGL2011-25438) and the RISCKIT project (Resilience-Increasing  
582 Strategies for Coasts - toolKIT", EU grand number 603458, [www.risckit.eu](http://www.risckit.eu)). IL was  
583 financially supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Technology ("Juan de la  
584 Cierva Programme", the project ALCOVA (CTM2012-37839) and by the research group

585 RNM-337 of the PAI. TAP, JB and LdR were also supported by the research group  
586 RNM-328 of the PAI. The contribution of the two reviewers in the improvement of the  
587 manuscript is greatly acknowledged.

588

589

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791 **List of Tables**

792  
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796

Table 1: Comparison of the correlation coefficients between mean monthly values and anomalies and NAO index for wave height (Hsc), wave direction (Dir) and residual sea level (SLres). Significance levels are <99%.

		H <sub>annual</sub>	H <sub>storm</sub>	Dir <sub>annual</sub>	Dir <sub>storm</sub>	SLres <sub>annual</sub>	SLres <sub>storm</sub>
Cadiz	Mean Values	-0.32	-0.58	-0.11	-0.136*	-0.37	-0.67
	Anomalies	-0.43	-0.59	-0.12	-0.133*	-0.42	-0.70
Faro	Mean Values	-0.27	-0.54	-0.09*	-	-0.36	-0.66

	Anomalies	-0.42	-0.56	-0.11*	-	-0.42	-0.70
Zahara	Mean Values	-0.28	-0.54	-0.10	-0.17	-0.37	-0.67
	Anomalies	-0.42	-0.56	-0.12	-0.17	-0.42	-0.70
Seville	Mean Values	-0.34	-0.60	-0.06*	-	-0.38	-0.65
	Anomalies	-0.44	-0.61	-	-	-0.42	-0.70
Huelva	Mean Values	-0.31	-0.61	-0.16	-0.22	-0.38	-0.67
	Anomalies	-0.43	-0.62	-0.20	-0.23	-0.42	-0.70

797 \* Significance level of <95%

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801 Table 2: **Comparison of the correlation coefficients between mean monthly**  
802 **values and anomalies and EA for wave height, wave direction and**  
803 **residual sea level. Significance levels are <99%.**

		H <sub>annual</sub>	H <sub>storm</sub>	Dir <sub>annual</sub>	Dir <sub>storm</sub>	SLres <sub>annual</sub>	SLres <sub>storm</sub>
Cadiz	Mean Values	0.20	0.37	0.17	0.25	-0.16	-
	Anomalies	0.25	0.35	0.18	0.26	-0.16	-
Faro	Mean Values	0.20	0.35	0.19	0.35	-0.18	-0.14*
	Anomalies	0.27	0.36	0.25	0.36	-0.18	-
Zahara	Mean Values	0.19	0.34	0.13	0.21	-0.17	-
	Anomalies	0.24	0.36	0.15	0.21	-0.17	-
Seville	Mean Values	0.20	0.34	0.12	0.19	-0.16	-
	Anomalies	0.23	0.35	0.15	0.19	-0.15	-
Huelva	Mean Values	0.13	0.23	0.15	0.32	-0.17	-
	Anomalies	0.14	0.24	0.20	0.33	-0.17	-

804 \* Significance level of <95%

805

806 Table 3: **Number of storm events identified for different positive and negative**  
807 **NAO thresholds.**

	0	0.5	1	1.5	2
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Cadiz	NAO +	230	145	70	32	11
	NAO -	250	174	87	39	7
	Ratio (+/-)	0.92	0.83	0.80	0.82	1.57
	<b>Total</b>	<b>480</b>	<b>319</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>18</b>
Faro	NAO +	306	199	101	50	20
	NAO -	270	172	82	33	7
	Ratio (+/-)	1.13	1.16	1.23	1.51	2.8
	<b>Total</b>	<b>575</b>	<b>371</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>27</b>
Zahara	NAO +	278	178	81	41	15
	NAO -	279	181	89	38	8
	Ratio (+/-)	1.0	0.98	0.91	1.08	1.87
	<b>Total</b>	<b>557</b>	<b>359</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>23</b>
Seville	NAO +	125	71	35	16	8
	NAO -	191	131	86	38	7
	Ratio (+/-)	0.65	0.54	0.40	0.42	1.14
	<b>Total</b>	<b>316</b>	<b>202</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>15</b>
Huelva	NAO +	173	101	58	24	10
	NAO -	209	149	83	38	6
	Ratio (+/-)	0.83	0.68	0.70	0.63	1.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>382</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>16</b>

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811 **List of Figures (Captions)**

812

813 Fig. 1: **Bathymetric map of the study area showing the HIPOCAS data points and**  
814 **the location of the coastal buoys of Cadiz and Faro. Superimposed wave**  
815 **rose presents the annual wave height (m) at the central part of the Gulf of**  
816 **Cadiz.**

817

818 Fig. 2: **Comparison between modelled (HIPOCAS), measured (buoy), and**  
819 **corrected data for significant wave height (Hs) for a) Cadiz and b) Faro.**  
820 **Station locations in Figure 1**  
821

822 Fig. 3: **Comparison of the difference between mean wave direction for the**  
823 **corrected (HIPOCAS) and measured (buoy) data for 2001 for the buoys of**  
824 **Cadiz (top panel) and Faro (bottom panel). Colour scale represents the**  
825 **data density.**  
826

827 Fig. 4: **Comparison between modelled (HIPOCAS), measured (buoy), and**  
828 **corrected for the North-South and East-West components of significant**  
829 **wave height for Cadiz (a, b) and Faro (c, d).**  
830

831 Fig. 5: **Average seasonal cycle for the entire reanalysis period of: (a) Significant**  
832 **wave height; (b) Mean wave direction; (c) Peak wave period and (d)**  
833 **Residual mean sea level.**  
834

835 Fig. 6: **Correlations between NAO index and mean monthly significant wave**  
836 **height for all stations. Colour scale represents the data density.**  
837

838 Fig. 7: **Correlations between EA index and wave direction standard deviation**  
839 **during the storm months for all stations. Colour scale represents the data**  
840 **density.**  
841

842 Fig. 8: **Correlation between the Storm Index and the mean monthly significant**  
843 **wave height. Colour scale represents the data density.**  
844

845 Fig. 9: **Observed joint occurrence of storm wave heights and residual mean sea**  
846 **level. Colour scale indicates the probability of occurrence.**  
847

848 Fig. 10: **Observed joint probability distribution of storm wave heights and residual**  
849 **mean sea level for: (a) storm events during  $NAO > +1.5$  and (b) storm events**  
850 **during  $NAO < -1.5$ . Colour scale represents the probability of occurrence.**  
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