

1 **Atmospheric controls and long range predictability of directional waves in the United**
 2 **Kingdom & Ireland**

3 **T. Scott¹, G. Masselink¹, R. J. McCarroll¹, B. Castelle², G. Dodet³, A. Saulter⁴, A. A.**
 4 **Scaife^{4,5} and N. Dunstone⁴**

5 ¹ School of Biological and Marine Sciences, University of Plymouth, UK.

6 ² University of Bordeaux/CNRS, UMR EPOC, Bordeaux, France.

7 ³ IFREMER, Univ. Brest, CNRS, IRD, Laboratoire d'Océanographie Physique et Spatiale,
 8 IUEM, Brest, France.

9 ⁴ UK Met Office, Exeter, UK

10 ⁵ College of Engineering, Mathematics and Physical Sciences, University of Exeter, UK.

11 Corresponding author: Tim Scott

12 timothy.scott@plymouth.ac.uk

13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • Over 70% of inshore wave climates in United Kingdom and Ireland are directionally
 15 bimodal
- 16 • Combinations of winter atmospheric circulation indices NAO, WEPA, SCAND and EA
 17 are significantly correlated with directional wave climates in all regions
- 18 • Regression models using multiple winter atmospheric indices enable skillful
 19 reconstructions of directional wave climate in all regions ($r^2 = 0.45-0.8$)

20 **Abstract**

21 Improved understanding of how our coasts will evolve over a range of time scales (years-decades) is
 22 critical for effective and sustainable management of coastal infrastructure. Globally, sea-level rise will
 23 result in increased erosion, with more frequent and intense coastal flooding. Understanding of current and
 24 future coastal evolution requires robust knowledge of the wave climate. This includes spatial, directional
 25 and temporal variability, with recent research highlighting the importance of wave climate directionality
 26 on coastal morphological response, for example in UK, Australia and California. However, the variability
 27 of the inshore directional wave climate has received little attention, and an improved understanding could
 28 drive development of skillful seasonal or decadal forecasts of coastal response. We examine inshore wave
 29 climate at 63 locations throughout the United Kingdom and Ireland (1980–2017) and show that 73% are
 30 directionally bimodal. We find that winter-averaged expressions of six leading atmospheric indices are
 31 strongly correlated with both total and directional winter wave power (peak spectral wave direction) at all
 32 studied sites. Coastal classification through hierarchical cluster analysis and stepwise multi-linear
 33 regression of directional wave correlations with atmospheric indices defined four spatially coherent
 34 regions. We show that combinations of indices have significant skill in predicting directional wave
 35 climates ($r^2 = 0.45-0.8$; $p < 0.05$). We demonstrate for the first time the significant explanatory power of
 36 leading winter-averaged atmospheric indices for directional wave climates, and show that leading
 37 seasonal forecasts of the NAO skillfully predict wave climate in some regions.

39 1. Introduction

40 Sustainable coastal zone management requires a robust knowledge and understanding of
41 beach and coastal dynamics over time scales ranging from years to decades. While coastal
42 erosion is already a problem globally (Luijendijk et al., 2018; Mentaschi et al., 2018), climate
43 change will also affect the primary drivers of coastal change, driving sea-level rise (Cazenave et
44 al., 2014) and increased storminess in some regions of the world (Zappa et al., 2013, Scaife et al.,
45 2012). Globally, increased sea-level rise will result in increased erosion (Le Cozannet et al.,
46 2016), and increased frequency and intensity of coastal flooding along low-lying coasts (e.g.,
47 Vousdoukas et al., 2018). A key requirement for progressing our understanding of coastal
48 dynamics and shoreline evolution is a comprehensive knowledge of the forcing wave conditions,
49 including its variability in space and time. The relatively recent availability of multi-decadal
50 atmospheric sea-level pressure records (e.g., Poli et al., 2016; Antolínez et al., 2018), hindcast
51 directional wave timeseries (e.g., Dodet et al., 2010) and beach morphological records (e.g.,
52 Masselink et al., 2016a; Turner et al., 2016; Ludka et al., 2019) have provide new insights into
53 the importance of multi-decadal atmospheric variability in controlling inshore wave conditions
54 and beach dynamics.

55 Dodet et al. (2019) investigated decadal datasets of beach morphology along the Atlantic
56 coast of Europe and found that winter-averaged wave conditions play a key role in determining
57 shoreline response in regions that are dominated by cross-shore exchange (on-offshore) of beach
58 sediments on seasonal and greater timescales. Castelle et al. (2017) expanded on this and linked
59 the variability in winter wave conditions along the Atlantic coast of Europe to winter-averaged
60 atmospheric indices, notably the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO; Hurrell, 1995) and the West
61 Europe Pressure Anomaly (WEPA). It was further demonstrated that the NAO was most strongly
62 correlated to the wave heights north of southern Ireland (52°N) and that WEPA was most
63 strongly correlated to the wave heights from the south of Ireland to the south of Portugal. Dodet
64 et al. (2010) demonstrated for the first time the link between the winter averaged mean wave
65 direction variability and the winter-averaged NAO in the North East Atlantic, with positive
66 correlations up to 0.7 in South Portugal. Martínez-Asensio et al. (2016) also examined
67 relationships between the wind wave climate and the main climate modes of atmospheric
68 variability (1989–2007) in the North Atlantic Ocean (including NAO, East Atlantic (EA) pattern,
69 East Atlantic Western Russian (EA/WR) pattern and the Scandinavian (SCAND) pattern),
70 demonstrating that NAO and EA (which has similar characteristics to WEPA) patterns are the
71 most relevant. However, none of these studies have examined these relationships within
72 directionally multimodal wave climates, common to more sheltered and protected seas.

73 Along the exposed coasts of western Europe facing the dominant wave direction,
74 sediment movement and therefore beach response is mainly driven by cross-shore processes
75 (Castelle et al., 2014; Masselink et al., 2016a; Scott et al., 2016; Burvingt et al., 2018). In
76 contrast, beaches that are not directly facing the dominant wave approach, experience oblique
77 wave approach and longshore processes drive sediment transport and beach response (Short and
78 Masselink, 1999, Bühler and Jacobson 2001). Planform changes in beach orientation, which is
79 referred to as “rotation” and is typical of embayed settings (Klein et al., 2002), can be driven by
80 either spatial variability of cross-shore sediment transport, or longshore transport gradients.

82 Harley et al (2011) demonstrated that rotation can be linked to subtle variations in
83 alongshore gradients of wave energy, and hence cross-shore sediment exchange, leading to out-
84 of-phase response at embayment extremities. The most common rotation mechanism occurs in
85 relatively sheltered settings with a mixture of distant swell and local wind wave components
86 coming from different directions (i.e., bi-directional wave climate). In such environments, the
87 rotational response is governed by the relative importance of the two wave directions associated
88 with the bi-directional wave climate compared to the long-term average (Ruiz de Alegria-
89 Arzaburu and Masselink, 2010; Bergillos et al., 2016; Wiggins et al., 2019a). Year-to-year
90 changes in the directional variability in shoreline alignment in these settings are common, with
91 seasonal rotational phases often leading to erosion and increased coastal vulnerability at one or
92 other end of the embayment (e.g., Scott et al., 2016).

93 Recent (Pacific) basin-wide research into inter-annual wave climate variability in the
94 Pacific (Barnard et al., 2015; Mortlock and Goodwin, 2016) revealed links between climate
95 forcing (ENSO modes), wave direction and cross-shore beach response. Further to this,
96 modelling work by Splinter et al. (2012) and field observations by Harley et al. (2017) have
97 highlighted, not only the relationship between climate indices on wave direction and the
98 subsequent impact on shoreline dynamics along the east coast of Australia, but also the impact of
99 storm wave direction on coastal vulnerability along embayed coasts in general. In northwest
100 Europe, research by Wiggins et al. (2019a) shows that winter-averaged variability in NAO and
101 WEPA has significant skill in explaining wave directional balance in regions where wave
102 climate is strongly bi-directional, as well as driving beach rotation in these regions (Wiggins et
103 al., 2019b).

104 The NAO represents the principle mode of variability in the North Atlantic climate, and
105 the skillful predictability of winter NAO is critical for long-range forecasting of the European
106 surface winter climate (Wang et al., 2017). As an intrinsic mode of variability in atmospheric
107 circulation, the dynamics associated to the NAO have in the past been considered unpredictable
108 and largely stochastic in nature (Kim et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2016). But recent forecast systems
109 (Scaife et al., 2014; Dunstone et al., 2016) have shown significant skill provided large ensembles
110 are used (Athanasiadis et al 2016 report correlation skill of 0.86 with large multimodel
111 ensembles) due to the anomalously weak signal-to-noise ratio of climate signals (Scaife and
112 Smith, 2018), achieving correlation coefficients of $r > 0.6$ for winter season (DJF) forecasts
113 initiated on 1st November. Dunstone et al. (2016) highlighted potential for further improvements
114 in skill through increased ensemble size and decadal predictability of the NAO with large
115 ensembles was recently reported by Smith et al. (2019). Advances have also been achieved
116 through empirical approaches to forecasting the NAO. For example, Wang et al. (2017) used
117 multiple linear regression of key discriminant variables (sea-ice concentration, stratospheric
118 circulation and sea-surface temperature) and obtained forecast skill (r) of 0.69–0.71. Combined,
119 these advances suggest that skillful prediction of seasonal and decadal coastal vulnerability may
120 be possible (Colman et al 2011, Dobrynin et al., 2019), where forecasts of climate indices may
121 provide a valuable tool for managing risk to society due to extreme winter-wave events, wave
122 directional variability and corresponding geomorphological change at the coast.

123 An improved understanding of how leading atmospheric indices can explain seasonal to
124 multi-decadal variability in wave power and directionality, and consequentially beach state, lays
125 the foundation for: (1) new insights into climate controls on basin-scale coastal change; and (2)

126 potential exploitation of skillful season ahead and decadal forecasts of atmospheric indices. The
127 overall aim of this paper is to investigate whether climate variability, synthesized by leading
128 winter-averaged atmospheric indices (NAO, WEPA, EA, EA/WR, SCAND, and the Artic
129 Oscillation AO), significantly controls the directional balance of alongshore wave power at
130 inshore locations throughout the UK & Ireland (UK&I), characterized by directionally bimodal
131 (semi-) sheltered seas. The specific objectives are to: characterize the directional wave climate of
132 the UK & Ireland (Section 3); examine relationships between winter wave climate and leading
133 atmospheric indices (Section 4), exploring the regional coherence (Section 5); developing multi-
134 linear regression models for predicting winter directional wave climate (Section 5); and assessing
135 the current skill of season ahead forecasts to create useful predictions for coastal managers
136 (Section 6).

137 2. Datasets

138 2.1 Wave modelling

139 The directional wave climates throughout the UK&I were analyzed at 63 coastal
140 locations (~20m depth) using data from the UK Met Office 8-km WAVEWATCH III third-
141 generation spectral wave model (version 3.14; Tolman, 2009), representing a 3-hourly hindcast
142 of integrated wave parameters for the period 1980–2017. This model is described in detail by
143 Mitchell et al. (2017) and has been extensively validated with directional buoys and satellite
144 altimeters by Saulter (2015). These 63 sites were selected to represent all major stretches of
145 exposed coastline throughout the UK&I (Figure 1), and range from the extremely exposed storm-
146 dominated Atlantic west coasts of Ireland, Scotland and southwest England, to more sheltered
147 locally-derived wind-wave dominated regions in the Irish Sea, North Sea and English Channel.
148 Section 3 provides an overview of the annual wave climate in each region for 1980–2017.

149 Our analysis, including the use of peak spectral wave direction, relies on an assumption
150 that bimodality is primarily asynchronous. A preliminary analysis indicated that synchronous
151 bimodality, where the wave power of a secondary spectral peak is >5% that of the main peak,
152 occurs <5% of the total time. The lowest synchronous spectral bimodality occurred in semi-
153 sheltered coastal regions typically associated with bi-directional wave climates (S and E
154 England). Therefore, the assumption of asynchronous bimodality is justified, and references to
155 bimodality from herein refer to asynchronous bimodality.

156 2.2 Atmospheric data and climate indices

157 Climate indices used in this study include the leading monthly teleconnection indices
158 (NAO, EA, EA/WR and SCAND) derived from rotated EOF analysis of the monthly mean
159 standardized 500-mb height anomalies in the Northern Hemisphere, as described in Barnston and
160 Livezey (1987) and available for the period 1980–2017 (downloaded from the National Oceanic
161 and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Climate Prediction Center; www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov).
162 In addition, we used the Western Europe Pressure Anomaly (WEPA), a climate index developed
163 by Castelle et al. (2017) and computed as the normalized sea level pressure (SLP) gradient

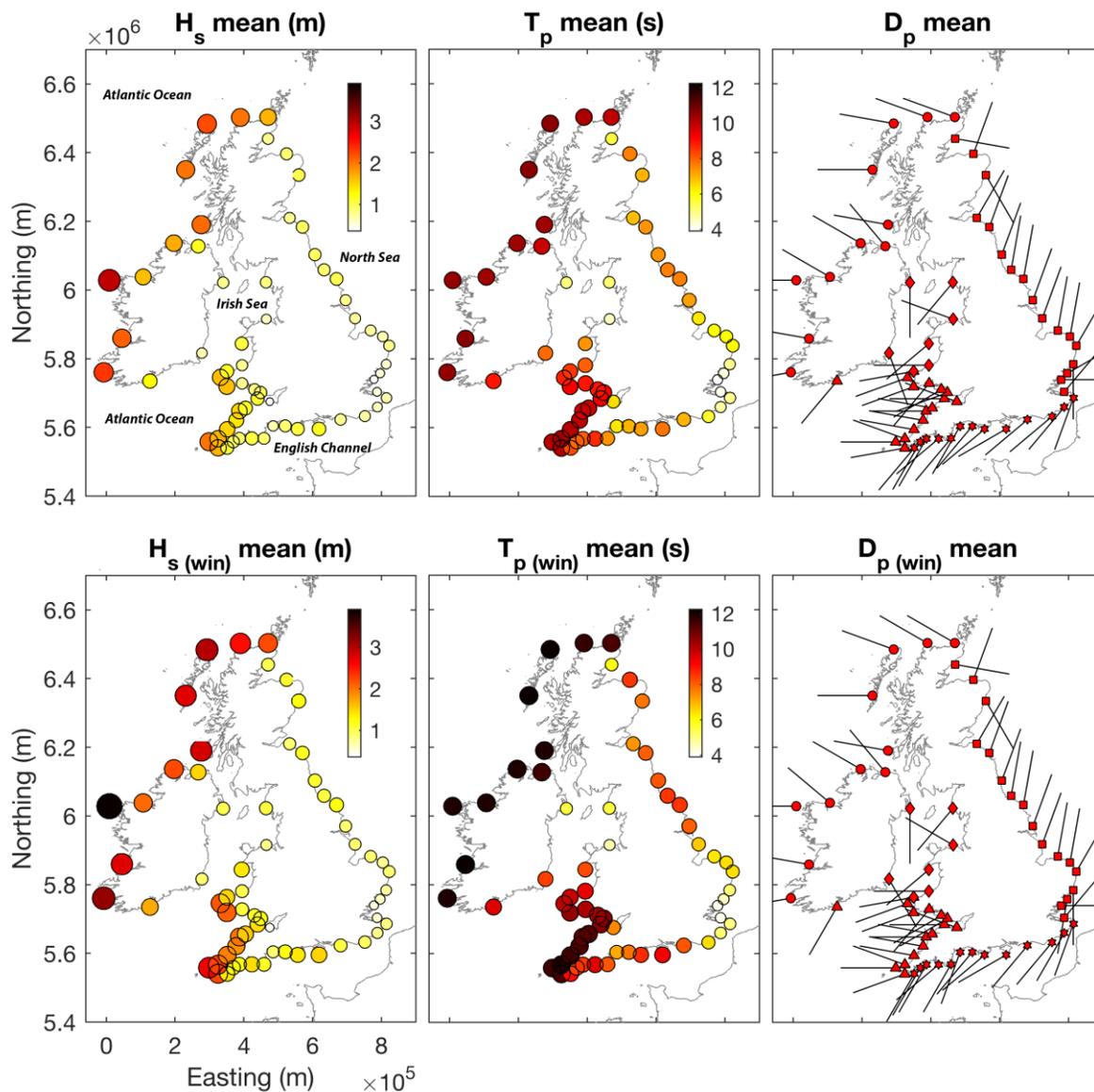


Figure 1. Overview of annual (top panels) and winter (bottom panels) wave climate (1980–2017) around the UK&I coast (all 63 wave model nodes) – mean significant wave height (left panels), mean peak wave period (middle panels), modal peak wave direction (frequency of occurrence; right panels). The size of symbols (left/middle) are proportional to colormap values.

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between Valentia (Ireland) and Santa Cruz de Tenerife (Canary Islands). Although the WEPA contains some variability of EOF-based NAO, EA, EA/WR and SCAND, it was used as it provides a simple SLP-based index that best explains winter wave height variability along the coast of western Europe, from UK to Portugal (52–36°N), and which reflects a latitudinal shift of the Icelandic low / Azores high dipole. We also used the Arctic Oscillation (AO), a climate index

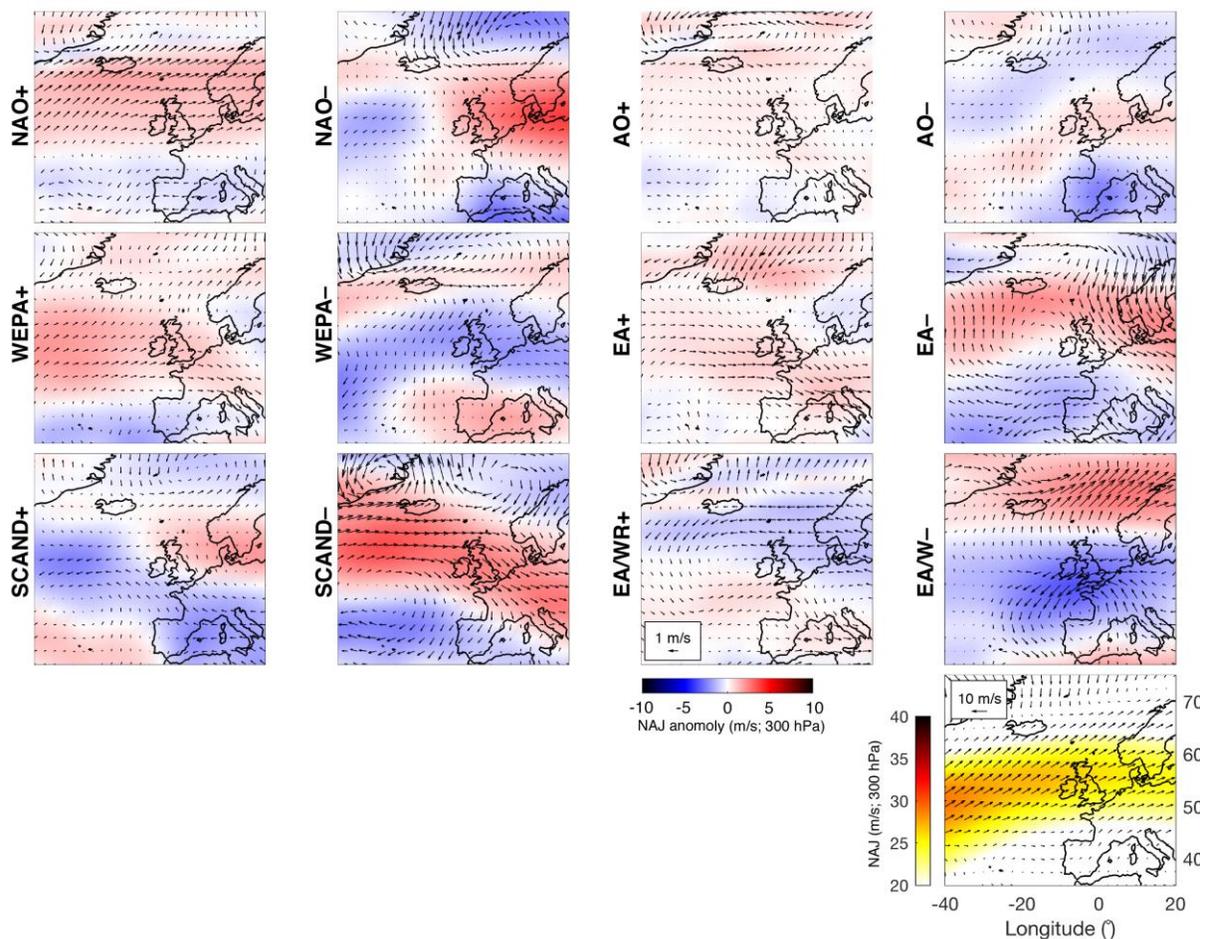


Figure 2. Atmospheric signature of all indices used in this study. Panels show sea surface wind (vectors) and 300 hPa winds relating to the North Atlantic Jet (NAJ; red/blue colours) anomalies from long term mean. Positive phase and negative phase of each index is addressed by averaging the 5 years with the largest and smallest index values over 1980–2017, respectively. Variability is displayed as anomalies from the long-term mean (1980–2017). Long-term mean sea surface wind field (vectors) and NAJ 300 hPa wind speed (colour) are shown in bottom right panel for entire period.

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 171 representing the state of the atmospheric circulation of the Arctic computed by projecting the AO
 172 loading pattern to the daily 1000-mb height field anomaly above 20°N. The loading pattern of
 173 the AO is the leading mode from EOF analysis of monthly mean 1000-mb height for 1979–2000.
 174 While research has debated the usefulness of the AO, suggesting it is expressing the same
 175 physical phenomenon as the NAO (Itoh, 2008), it is included in this study due to the potential
 176 insights it may provide for subtle changes in directional wind-wave fields in sheltered seas.
 177 These regional atmospheric signatures are highlighted in Figure 2, illustrating the association of
 178 +NAO and -SCAND with increased westerly winds at high latitudes, and -NAO and +SCAND
 179 linked to reduction in westerly airflow and blocking of the North Atlantic Jet (NAJ). It is also
 180 clear from Figure 2 that +WEPA represents a southward shift and strengthening of westerly sea
 181 surface winds in North Atlantic.

182 Season-ahead retrospective forecasts (hindcasts) of the winter-averaged December-March
 183 (DJFM) NAO and WEPA are provided by version 3 of the Decadal Prediction System
 184 (DePreSys3) of the UK Met Office, as outlined in Dunstone et al. (2016). Forecasts were run for
 185 winters over the period 1980–2016, with hindcasts initialized on 1st November each year. The
 186 NAO is calculated using the Azores-Iceland definition (similar to that used in Dunstone et al.
 187 (2016), but now for DJFM (December–March). There is a significant correlation skill score for
 188 the season-ahead forecasts of the observed pressure-dipole based NAO $r = 0.57$ ($p < 0.05$).
 189 WEPA is calculated using the Canaries-Ireland definition (similar to that used in Castelle et al.
 190 2017) but there is poor correlation skill score for the season-ahead forecasts of observed
 191 pressure-dipole based WEPA ($r = 0.13$, $p \gg 0.05$).

192 Atmospheric data were derived from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
 193 (NCEP)/ National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Reanalysis 1 project (downloaded
 194 from www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis.html), providing gridded ($0.25^\circ \times$
 195 0.25°) 4 times daily (0Z, 6Z, 12Z, and 18Z) vector winds at 17 pressure levels from 1948 to the
 196 present (Kalnay et al., 1996).

197 **3. Wave climates in the UK and Ireland**

198 Figure 1 provides an overview of the 63 inshore wave data nodes that span all the
 199 sheltered and exposed regions of the UK&I. These regions can be qualitatively separated into
 200 their geographic regions based on their wave exposure (annual/winter mean wave climate) and
 201 the characteristics of the directional modality of the wave climate (Table 1; Figure 3). Integrated
 202 winter wave climate is composed of months December through to March (DJMF), following
 203 previous analysis of climate indices (e.g., Castelle et al., 2017). To assess directional multi-
 204 modality throughout the UK&I and investigate the explanatory power that climate indices may
 205 have on the directional balance of alongshore wave power at these inshore locations, directional
 206 modes were extracted from the cumulative directional wave power distribution for each wave
 207 node around the coast and ordered by energy peak for 1980–2017 (Figure 3; right). Analysis of
 208 direction modality shows that 46 of the nodes (73%) have directionally multimodal wave
 209 climates where secondary modes ($> 5\%$ of primary mode peak prominence) have $> 20^\circ$ peak-to-
 210 peak separation. Across all nodes, mean prominent peak half power width = 22° ; therefore, it can
 211 be estimated that $> 70\%$ ($\sim 2.35\sigma$) of peak distribution is within 20° of peak.

212 In general, the most exposed west coast regions (winter-averaged significant wave height
 213 $H_s > 1.5$ m and peak wave period $T_p > 9$ s; W Ireland and SW England & Wales) display the
 214 lowest levels of directional multimodality (20% and 33% of nodes, respectively) with NW
 215 Scotland being the exception (60%) due to a broad ocean swell window (Table 1; Figure 1). All
 216 nodes along the coasts of S & E England throughout the English Channel and North Sea coasts
 217 are directionally multimodal; these regions are also the most sheltered from open ocean swell
 218 and are the only regions where winter $H_s < 1.2$ m. Moving up the North Sea coast into NE
 219 Scotland, there is an increasing influence of northerly swell waves from the Arctic (winter $T_p =$
 220 7.4 s), but wave climate bi-directionality still dominates (100% of nodes) until the north-facing
 221 coast of NW Scotland is reached. Coasts of W Wales, NW Wales & NW England, and E Ireland
 222 are located within the Irish Sea with varying influence of S-SW Atlantic swell waves, resulting in
 223 much of the region being dominated by local wind wave regimes and local influence of coastal
 224 orientation (winter $H_s = 0.9$ – 1.3 m and $T_p = 5.1$ – 9.4 s; Table 1).

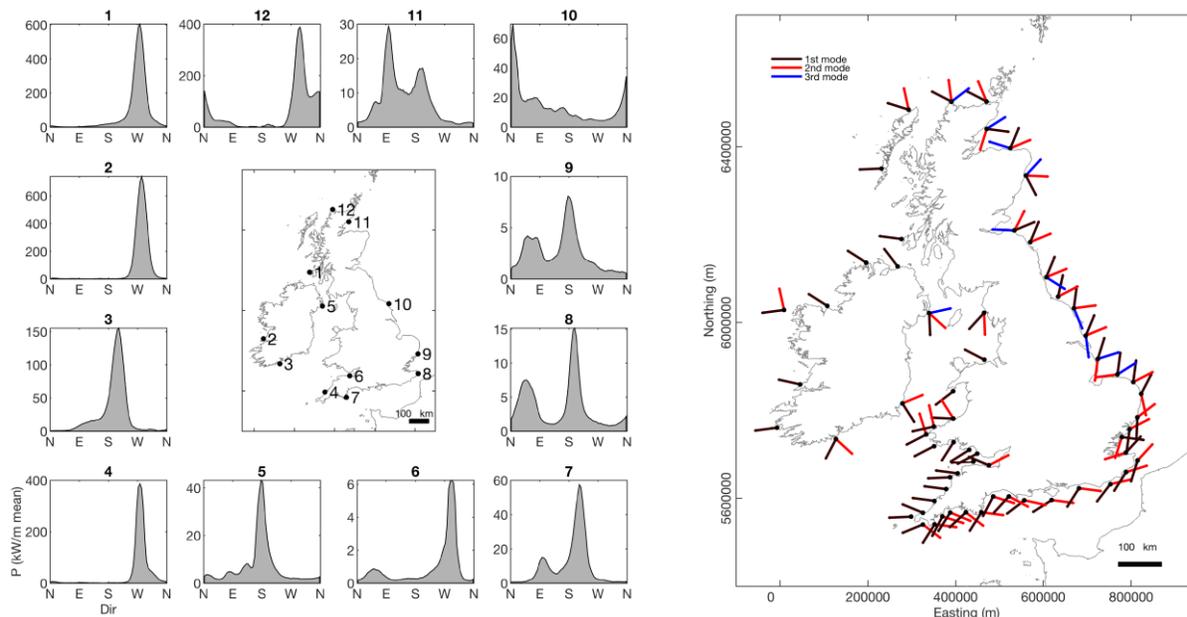


Figure 3. Left: Regional examples of winter (DJFM) wave climate data showing distribution of directional wave power (cumulative). Insets are 3-hourly average kW/m in 5° bins for 1980–2017. Right: Quiver plot shows dominant directional modes (1980–2017) from cumulative wave power distribution for all coastal nodes. Black, red and blue are primary, secondary and tertiary, respectively. Modes displayed are > 5% of primary mode peak prominence.

Table 1. UK hindcast wave climate statistics for the period 1980-2016. Nodes shown in Figure 1 are integrated into regions of similar characteristics and exposure. Winter wave statistics represent months Dec-Mar.

<i>Region</i>	<i>Nodes(n)</i>	<i>Annual H_s</i> (m)	<i>Annual T_p</i> (s)	<i>Winter H_s</i> (m)	<i>Winter T_p</i> (s)	<i>Bi-directionality</i> (%)
NW Scotland	5	2.0	10.3	2.7	11.8	60
W Ireland	6	2.0	10.3	2.6	11.9	20
SW England & Wales	12	1.3	9.4	1.7	10.8	33
W Wales	4	1.2	8.2	1.5	9.4	75
E Ireland	4	1.0	7.9	1.3	8.7	75
S England	13	0.9	6.7	1.1	7.5	100
NE Scotland	3	0.9	6.7	1.1	7.4	100
NW Wales & NW England	2	0.7	4.8	0.9	5.1	50
E England	14	0.7	6.1	0.9	6.6	100

226 Initial wave climate analysis indicates that beyond the semi-sheltered sites examined in Wiggins
 227 et al. (2019) along the western English Channel coast, directionally bimodal wave climates exist
 228 in many inshore regions throughout the coasts of the UK&I. Of particular interest are nodes
 229 along the English Channel coast (S England) and southern North Sea coast (E England) where
 230 primary and secondary directional modes are from opposing directions with respect to the coastal
 231 shore-normal, therefore having the greatest potential to influence coastal morphodynamics and
 232 shoreline plan-shape rotation with respect to the directional balance of alongshore wave power
 233 (Figure 3).

234 **4. Role of atmospheric indices**

235 The associations between long-term atmospheric forcing and wave climate, for inshore
 236 waters of UK&I, were investigated by correlating the winter-averaged climate indices (NAO,
 237 WEPA, SCAND, AO, EA and WR/EA) with total winter-averaged wave power (1980-2017), for
 238 nodes in Figure 4. All references herein to climate indices are DJFM winter averaged. Total
 239 winter-averaged wave power was found to be significantly correlated with NAO for Atlantic NW
 240 coasts ($r = 0.6-0.83$; $p < 0.05$), consistent with earlier findings (Martínez-Asensio et al., 2016;
 241 Castelle et al., 2017). Correlations for the Atlantic SW and within the Irish Sea were also
 242 significant, though with lower coefficients ($r = 0.39-0.58$; Figure 4). Similar spatial relationships
 243 occur for the AO, though limited to the west Atlantic, and with lower coefficients ($r = 0.5-0.8$,
 244 Atlantic NW; $r = 0.31-0.4$, Atlantic SW). As previously determined (Castelle et al., 2017), the
 245 NAO has limited skill in predicting total wave power south of southern Ireland ($\sim 52^\circ\text{N}$), with
 246 WEPA and EA displaying a corresponding increase in skill in this region. WEPA and EA only
 247 show positive correlations with wave power for the southern half of UK&I, with WEPA
 248 outperforming EA (15% greater explanation of variance, where significant correlations exist).
 249 WEPA has the greatest predictive skill in the southwest ($r = 0.66-0.79$, Atlantic SW coast; $r =$
 250 $0.81-0.84$, W English Channel). Wave power along the Atlantic NW exposed coast are also
 251 correlated with negative SCAND ($r = -0.32$ to -0.63), while the semi-sheltered North Scotland
 252 coast is correlated with positive SCAND ($r = 0.21-0.6$). The significance map of SCAND is
 253 broadly an inverse of the AO.

254 In the context of previous ocean basin-scale research, significant positive relationships
 255 with the NAO, AO, WEPA and EA, and also negative SCAND, for total wave power on Atlantic
 256 coasts were expected, but inshore regional scale (including shelter seas) analysis here reveals
 257 significant negative correlations with NAO/AO and positive correlations with SCAND along the
 258 mixed swell/wind-wave dominated east-facing North Sea coast (NAO $r = -0.28 - -0.69$; AO $r = -$
 259 $0.41 - -0.71$, SCAND $r = -0.33 - 0.65$) with AO showing the strongest relationship and level of
 260 significance (all sites significantly correlated at 95% level). This analysis shows that the EA/WR
 261 index provides the least explanatory power of all the indices tested.

262 The associations between wave direction and climate were further explored by
 263 correlating the climate indices with cumulative directional winter wave power, within an angular
 264 window spanning $\pm 20^\circ$ of the modal peak (Figure 5). Results show a striking degree of
 265 correlation across multiple indices (NAO, AO, WEPA, EA, SCAND), with strong contrasts
 266 between indices. This indicates that a significant amount of winter-wave directional variability
 267 within UK&I can be explained by variations in climatic modes, with correlations apparent even
 268 for some sheltered wind-wave dominated regions away from Atlantic swell.

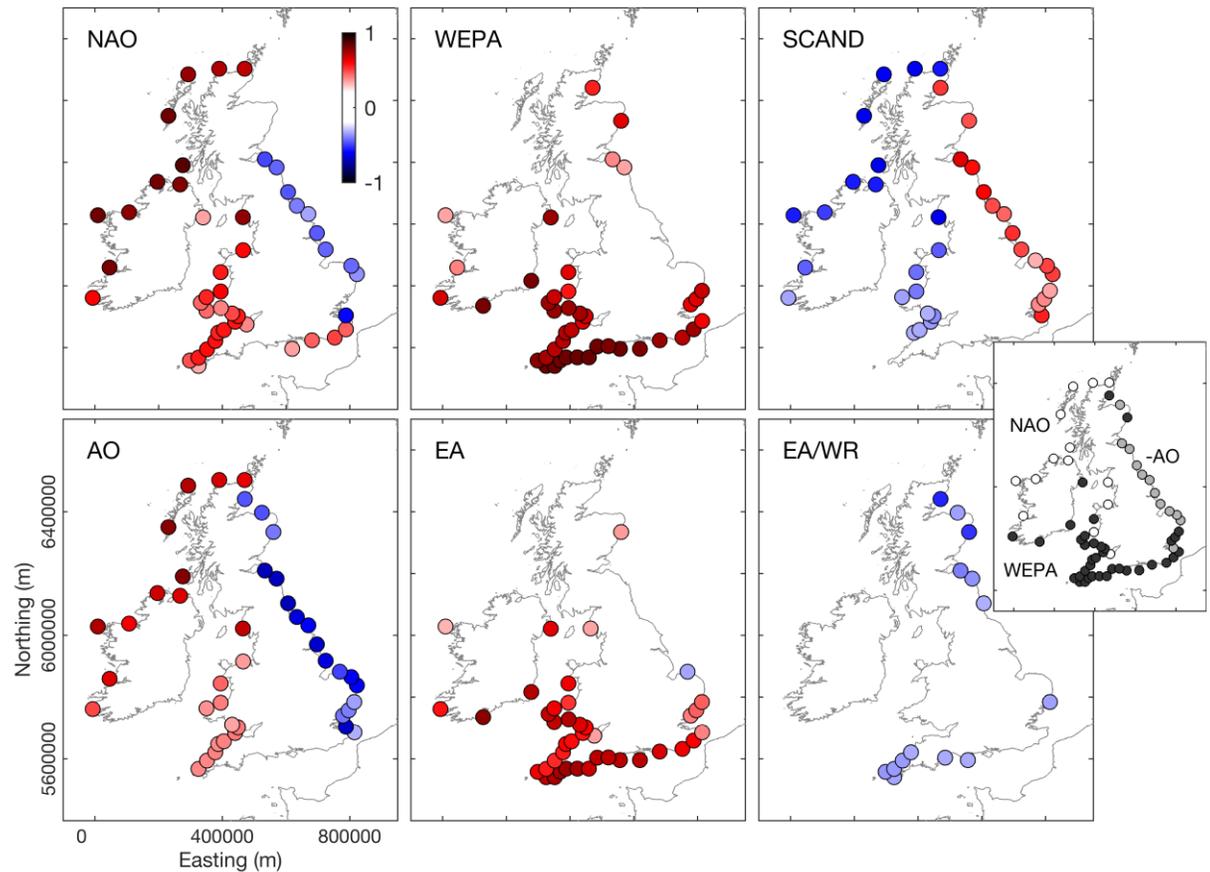


Figure 4. Correlations between mean winter wave power and six winter-averaged atmospheric indices (NAO, WEPA, SCAND, AO, EA and EA/WR) for 63 locations around the coast of the UK&I. Only locations where correlation coefficients (r) were significant at 95% level are shown ($p < 0.05$). Inset shows leading explanatory index for each node (white = NAO, black = WEPA, grey = AO).

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271 All nodes in the southern Ireland, English Channel and southern North Sea coasts (south-
 272 facing) are strongly directionally bimodal (Figure 3), with coastal orientation suggesting
 273 dominance of alongshore sediment transport processes, which is supported by observations along
 274 this coast by Wiggins et al. (2019b). Analysis shows that WEPA (and EA to a lesser extent)
 275 significantly explains variability in winter-averaged wave power for all southwesterly orientated
 276 (principal) wave directional modes ($r = 0.58-0.77$), accounting for the largest proportion of
 277 winter-averaged wave power. In contrast, negative NAO explains variability in all easterly-
 278 orientated wave modes ($r = -0.6 - -0.76$), with positive SCAND also contributing high
 279 correlations with easterly waves ($r = -0.5 - -0.67$). These findings mean the full winter-averaged
 280 directional wave power balance is significantly explained by climate indices along this whole
 281 section of coast.

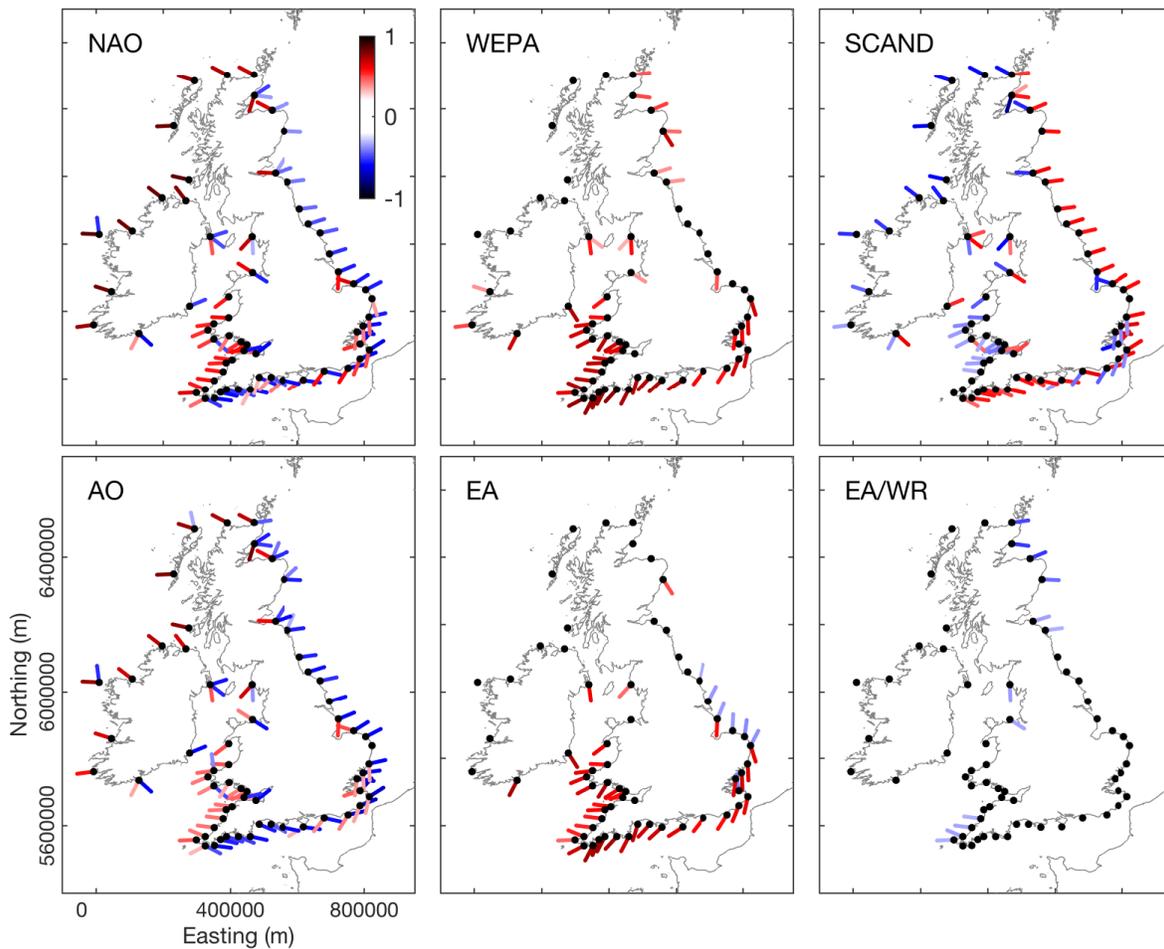


Figure 5. Relationship between winter-averaged NAO, WEPA, SCAND, AO, EA and EA/WR and directional winter-averaged wave power (local wave directional window of $\pm 20^\circ$ for each node) for 63 wave nodes (black dots) around the coast of the UK&I (1980–2017). Colors are correlation coefficients (r), only results where $P < 0.05$ are shown.

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Beyond the south coast regions, easterly-orientated wave modes throughout the bi-directional North Sea region, characterized by short wind-waves, showed significant relationships with negative NAO (and AO) where $r = -0.35 - -0.57$ ($r = -0.5 - -0.62$) decreasing to the north. The strongest relationships in the North Sea region are found with the SCAND index, showing significant positive correlations with all easterly-orientated nodes where $r = 0.57-0.62$. Interestingly, EA and AO, and NAO to a lesser extent, had some skill in explaining northerly swell waves entering this North Sea region, but only regionally. This northerly component is an important element of the northern North Sea coastal wave climate and is associated with a small swell window and is strongly impacted by coastal orientation. Whilst EA provided some skill in explaining northerly wave mode variability at six southern North Sea coast sites, significant r -values only reached 0.39. AO and NAO showed some explanatory power for six nodes in the northern North Sea regions (E. Scotland) with significant r -values between 0.33 and 0.59 (Figure 5).

296 Throughout the UK&I there are sheltered regions with complex coastal orientations (e.g.,
297 E Scotland, Irish Sea and Bristol Channel) sheltered from significant swell-wave contribution
298 and that are dominated by a locally generated wind-wave climate. The directional wave modes in
299 these regions display a variety of significant relationships with indices dependent of spatial
300 location and coastal orientation. Typically, easterly-oriented short fetch nodes are related to
301 negative NAO/AO, and positive SCAND; whereas westerly-oriented short fetch nodes are
302 related to positive NAO/AO, and negative SCAND.

303 In summary, winter-averaged climate indices show strong and significant correlations
304 with directional winter-averaged wave power throughout the UK&I. Analysis indicates there are
305 regionally-coherent relationships between directional waves and various combinations of the
306 leading climate indices. To examine the temporal variability and predictability of regional
307 response characteristics, a quantitative connectivity-based cluster analysis is first undertaken.

308 **5. Characterization of regional response**

309 Regionally-coherent relationships between the climate indices shown to provide the most
310 explanatory power in determining directional wave variability in UK&I were investigated
311 through hierarchical cluster analysis. For all 63 nodes, the variables examined were mean
312 directional winter wave power correlation coefficients with NAO, WEPA, AO, SCAND and EA
313 for the period 1980–2017. EA/WR was excluded at this stage as spatial correlations were weak
314 and mostly statistically insignificant. EA and AO were retained as they provided some
315 explanatory skill for northerly waves in the North Sea. The clustering uses Euclidian-based
316 proximity to determine similarity between nodes where response variables are primary and
317 potentially secondary directional mode correlations with winter-averaged climate indices. The
318 dendrogram shown in Figure 6 shows the results of the cluster analysis where Ward's minimum
319 variance method is used to minimize the total within-cluster variance (weighted squared
320 distance between cluster centers) at each step (Ward 1963). The advantage of Ward's method is
321 that it often provides a clear threshold number of groups where there is a large jump in group
322 merging cost (e.g., above and below similarity level 1; Figure 6).

323 Four clear groupings were defined by this classification process (Figure 6). Two groups
324 named South West and North West clearly represent the largely directionally uni-modal west
325 coasts that are dominated by ocean swell waves. A group named South represents nodes that are
326 bi-directional in nature and largely located on the southern and western regions of the UK&I.
327 The final major group named East also represents bi-directional wave climates, but the region is
328 limited to the eastern North Sea coast and only consists of sites exposed to northerly swell
329 waves. To elucidate the driving climate control relationships of each group, example nodes (A-E;
330 Figure 6) representing case study sites from each cluster, were examined further.

331 Figure 7 examines the atmospheric indices controlling the wave climate at each case
332 study site. Where the wave climate is directionally uni-modal, the standardized long-term (1980–
333 2017) winter-mean wave power timeseries is examined through a wave power index (P_{index}).
334 Where the wave climate is significantly directionally bimodal, a wave power directionality index
335 (WDI) is computed following Wiggins et al. (2019a), which represents the winter-averaged
336 standardized wave power balance between two opposing wave directional modes, shown by
337 Wiggins et al. (2019b) to correlate with observed beach rotation. At each node, an index of the

338 relative balance between winter wave power contributions from the two modal directions is
 339 computed, using the equation:

$$WDI = \frac{(P_1 - P_2) - \overline{(P_1 - P_2)}}{\sigma(P_1 - P_2)} \quad (1)$$

340 where $(P_1 - P_2)$ is the residual wave power between the first (prominent) and second directional
 341 wave power modes, $\overline{(P_1 - P_2)}$ is the long-term mean and $\sigma(P_1 - P_2)$ is the long-term standard
 342 deviation of that difference. High positive values of WDI indicate that the primary directional
 343 mode is more prevalent than the long-term average, whereas high negative values indicate that
 344 the wave climate has a higher proportion of the secondary directional mode than average.
 345

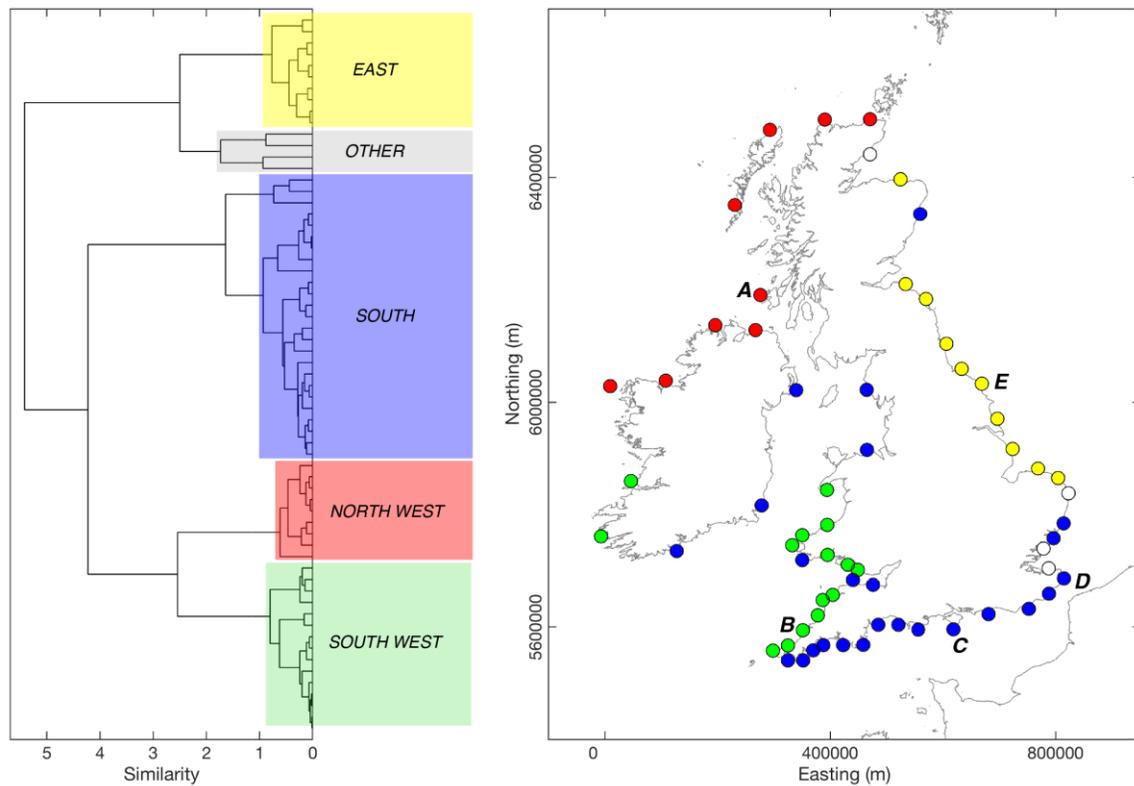


Figure 6. Regional classification of correlations between winter-averaged directional wave climate response (mean wave power for dominant directional modes) and most significant winter-average atmospheric indices NAO (EOF-based), WEPA (station-based), and SCAND (EOF-based) for the period 1980–2017. Left: Dendrogram illustrating results of hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis, using Ward’s minimal increase of sum-of-squares Euclidian proximity method. Clear groupings are labelled. Right: Groupings from cluster analysis presented spatially, with nodes A-E representing case-study sites from each region used for further analysis and visualization.

347 For all bi-directional example sites shown in Figure 7, WDI time-series show significant
 348 temporal variability over the 37-year period. WDI within the South region (sites C and D; Figure
 349 7 left panel) displays a consistent 5–8 year cyclicality that can be observed from the continuous
 350 wavelet transform analysis shown in Figure 7 (right panels) computed as in Castelle et al. (2018)
 351 using a scaled and normalized Morlet function, following Grinsted et al. (2004). Periodicity is
 352 strongest and most significant since 2005. This corresponds to the periodicity observed in the
 353 WEPA index by Castelle et al. (2018) through similar wavelet analysis. WDI at these South
 354 group sites is significantly positively correlated with WEPA, NAO and SCAND, with WEPA
 355 having a stronger correlation in the west of the region (site C) and NAO/SCAND increasing in
 356 importance the east (site D). The case study site from the East group in the mid North Sea coast
 357 (site E) shows a significant 5–6 year periodicity in WDI, but with limited negative phases
 358 between 2000–2010 and shows weak or insignificant correlations to the climatic indices tested,
 359 with the exception of SCAND. As has already been shown, example sites from North West and
 360 South West groups, which are directionally uni-modal, P_{index} are strongly correlated with NAO
 361 and WEPA, respectively, and are therefore dominated by any periodicity of these indices. Unlike
 362 WEPA, there is little coherent periodicity displayed within NAO dominated sites (site A) and
 363 there are high degrees of variability over the period 1980–2017, with the only significant
 364 timescales of ~2 years occurring post 2010 (Figure 7a-b; right panel). This lack of NAO
 365 periodicity has previously been demonstrated by Barbosa et al. (2006) and Castelle et al. (2018).

366 It is clear that the inter-annual variability of winter-averaged directional wave power
 367 throughout the UK&I is well explained by a range of individual indices, but it is useful to
 368 explore whether or not when combined they have greater predictive skill, particularly for bi-
 369 directional regions. Empirical stepwise multiple linear regression models were computed for
 370 each example site using combinations of the leading indices for each location based on
 371 correlation analysis and their predictive skill is presented in Figure 7 (left panels). For all sites,
 372 except site A in the North West group, the combination of multiple indices in a linear model
 373 outperformed the use of a single index. The model elements are presented in Table 2. Both sites
 374 from exposed uni-directional groups (North West and South West) demonstrated very skillful
 375 reconstructions of winter wave power with combinations of NAO and WEPA with r-squared
 376 values exceeding 0.75. Specifically, site B from the South West group demonstrated the
 377 improved skill gained by utilizing the product of two indices (r-squared = 0.8). WDI from the
 378 South group (sites C and D) was skillfully predicted utilizing a combination of NAO, WEPA and
 379 SCAND. The discriminatory power of these combined indices is visualized in NAO/WEPA and
 380 NAO/SCAND parameter space (Figure 7; middle panels) demonstrating, for example, that at site
 381 C all winters experiencing positive WDI occurred when both NAO and WEPA were positive.
 382 Likewise, SCAND when combined with EA at site D accounts for a greater proportion of the
 383 variance in WDI. Finally, in the East region (site E), where SCAND was the only index
 384 significantly correlated with WDI ($r = 0.35$), the combination of NAO, WEPA and SCAND with
 385 EA generated a linear model with significant explanatory skill (r-squared = 0.45), where the
 386 combination of SCAND and EA at site D go some way in discriminating between WDI+
 387 (dominance of waves from the northerly mode; EA-) and WDI- (waves from the easterly mode;
 388 +SCAND).

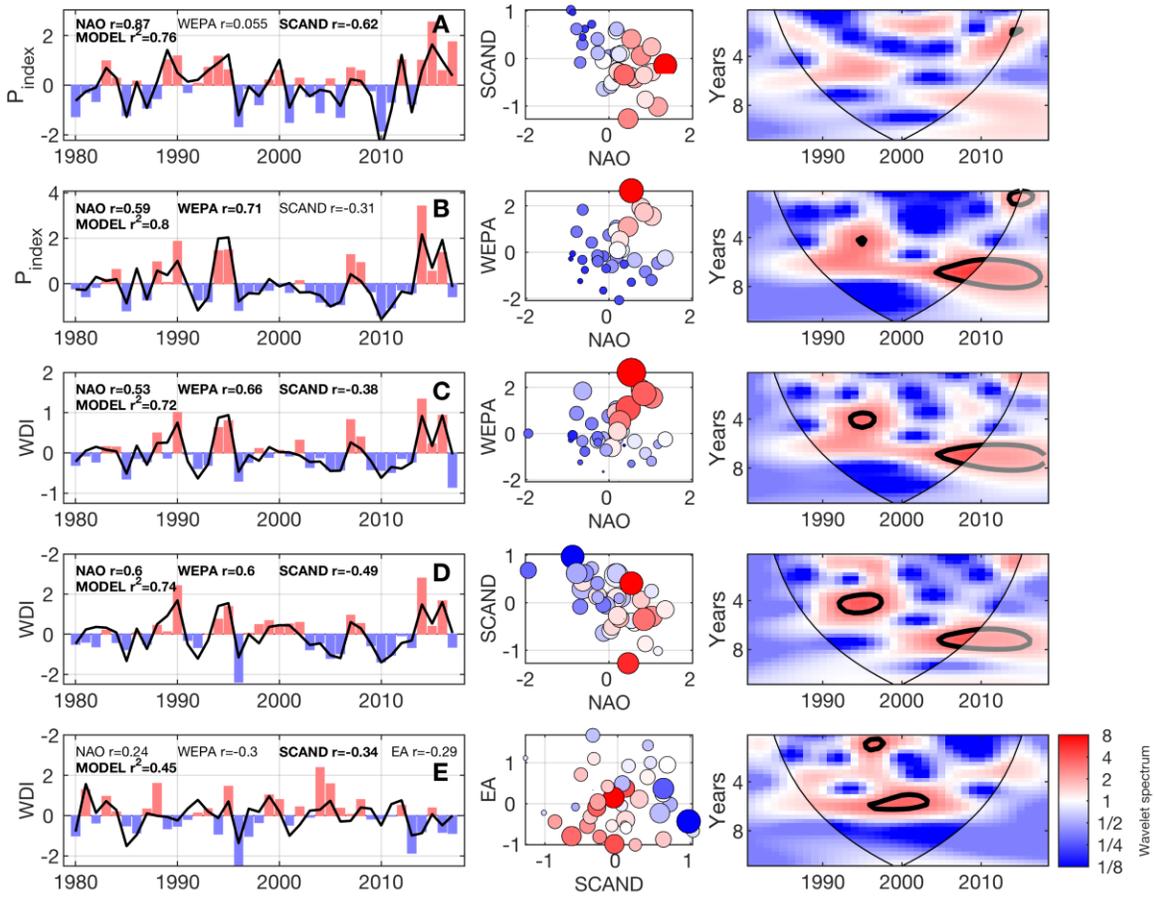


Figure 7. Temporal variability of standardized winter-averaged wave power (P_{index} ; uni-directional regions) and wave direction (WDI; bi-directional regions) for case study sites from each of the 4 major classified regions are shown. Locations of sites A-E are shown on Figure 6. Left panels show 1980-2017 wave power (P_{index} ; top two panels A-B) and winter-averaged WDI timeseries (bottom three panels C-E) for each winter season as red/blue bars, for each site correlations (r) with winter-averaged NAO, WEPA and SCAND are shown (bold is significant at the 95% level). In addition, stepwise multiple linear regression (SMLR) model r -squared values are shown (bold is significant at the 95% level) and model prediction line is shown (bold black). Middle panels show winter-averaged P_{index} (top two) and WDI values (bottom three) within a 2D parameter space of the leading explanatory variables from SMLR for each site. Color is P_{index} or WDI (low/high = blue/red, white = zero), bubble size is standardized winter wave power. Right panel shows local wavelet spectrum normalized by the variance of associated power and wave direction index. In wavelet panels, the 5% significance level against red noise is contoured in bold black line and the cone of influence is delimited by the fine black line.

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391 The atmospheric expression of modelled P_{index} and WDI values from case study sites for each
392 classified region (1980–2017) are explored in Figure 8 by taking the highest and lowest 5 years
393 for each P_{index} (the same methodology as Figure 2). The highest five P_{index} years (P^+) at North
394 West and South West example sites (site A and site B) reflect the atmospheric signature NAO+
395 and WEPA+, respectively (Figure 2). In both sites (in particular site B), the influence of the
396 positive and negative SCAND patterns can be seen in both surface winds and the NAJ anomaly.
397 The P^+ anomaly seen in the North West group case (site A) is expressed as an increase in
398 northwesterly surface winds above 55°N and a northward shift of the NAJ, while in the South
399 West group case (site B) P^+ corresponds to a clockwise rotation of the NAJ with a striking
400 southward dip below 50°N over UK&I and NW Europe; this NAJ southerly shift is somewhat
401 characteristic of WEPA+ and SCAND-. Certainly, the most significant difference in P^+ between
402 the North West and South West group cases is the increase in westerly surface winds below 53°N
403 (southern Ireland) for the latter when compared to a NAO+ (P^+ site A) scenario. This observed
404 relationship between the NAJ and NAO is unsurprising and as year-to-year variability in the
405 NAO is known to describe the state of the Atlantic jet stream which is directly related to near-
406 surface winds across North America, Europe, and other regions around the Atlantic Basin (Scaife
407 et al. 2014) For the bi-directional South group (site C), the WDI+ expression is strongly reflected
408 in WEPA+ with increased westerly surface winds over the southern half of the UK&I. The WDI-
409 expression is one of increased southeasterly anomalies in surface winds throughout the English
410 Channel and North Sea and a dramatic reduction in westerly winds in the North Atlantic, limiting
411 southwesterly swell in this region; this is associated with an Atlantic shift of the NAJ to the north
412 ($>65^\circ\text{N}$) or south ($<45^\circ\text{N}$) away from the western approaches and reflects patterns of SCAND+
413 and NAO-. The WDI+ atmospheric expression from the East group (site E) shows a very strong
414 latitudinal shift of the NAJ below 50°N represented by a reduction in NAJ windspeeds of $\sim 5 \text{ ms}^{-1}$
415 throughout the north and increase to the south. A strong northeast surface wind anomaly ($> 2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$)
416 above 50°N throughout the North Sea and NE Atlantic represents a condition that may be
417 representative of increased northerly swell wave propagation into the North Sea. This pattern is
418 not clearly reflected in NAO, WEPA or SCAND, but can be partially reflected in the EA- pattern
419 (Figure 2). The signature of WDI- in the East group is even less clear reflecting the complexity
420 of the wave climate and highlight issues/limitations of trying to use climate indices to predict
421 directional wave climate in this region (East).

422 6. Discussion and conclusions

423 This study has shown there exists strong and significant connections between leading
424 climate indices in the North Atlantic and winter-averaged wave power in inshore regions, both in
425 exposed and (semi)- sheltered coastlines. For the first time, we have demonstrated the full extent
426 of directionally bimodal inshore wave climates around the coast of the UK&I, as well as the
427 significant role climate indices play in explaining their inter-annual variability over four decades.
428 It is well established that climate indices like ENSO in the Pacific and AO/NAO in the Atlantic
429 are leading modes of atmospheric variability and strongly affect winter wave energy (Dodet et
430 al., 2010; Bromirski et al., 2013; Castelle et al., 2017), and recent studies have also shown how
431 extreme phases can lead to large-scale coastal erosion and shoreline change (Masselink et al.,
432 2016; Barnard et al., 2017; Dodet et al., 2018). But, there is now a growing base of evidence
433 highlighting the role leading modes of climate variability also have in controlling wave direction
434 and associated longshore sediment re-distribution and shoreline rotation at the coast (e.g., Silva
435 et al., 2012; Splinter et al., 2014; Goodwin et al., 2016; Wiggins et al., 2019b). In extreme cases,

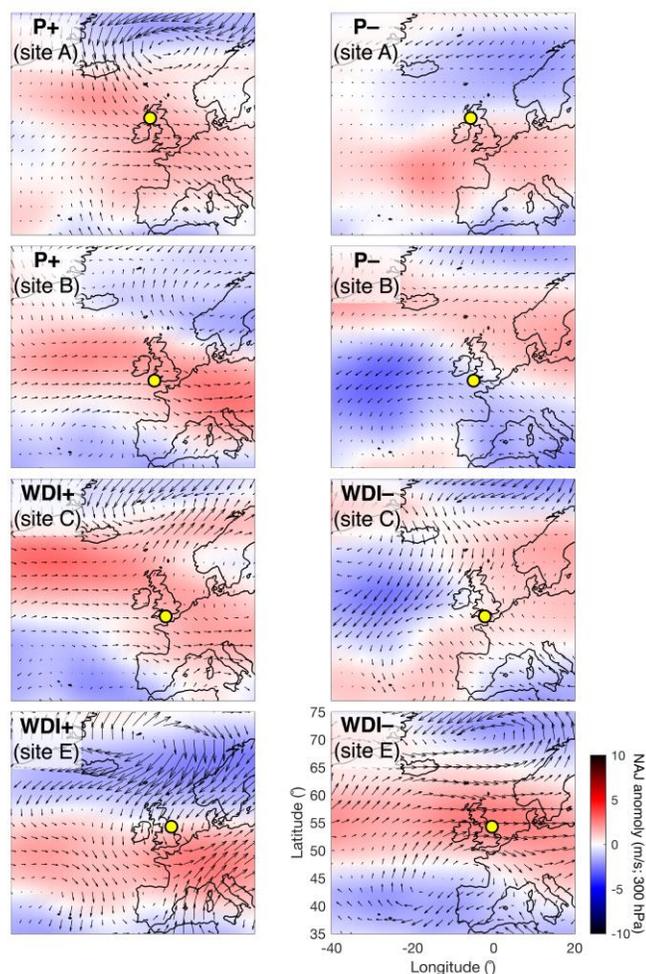


Figure 8. Atmospheric expressions of the directional wave power indices (P_{index} and WDI) for example sites (yellow circles; A, B, C, and E) in each response group (North West, South West, South and East; top to bottom). Methodology and symbology as per Figure 2.

Table 2. Stepwise multiple linear regression models for winter-mean wave power (sites A and B) and WDI (sites C, D and E) as a function of combined climate indices. Coefficients are standardized weightings of significant variables used in the model.

<i>Site</i>	<i>Index</i>	<i>Weight</i>	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>r</i> ²	<i>p-value</i>
A (NorthWest)	NAO	1.29	0.50	0.76	2×10^{-12}
B (SouthWest)	NAO*WEPA	0.32	0.46	0.8	4×10^{-12}
C (South)	NAO*WEPA	0.33	0.56	0.72	9×10^{-9}
	SCAND	-0.49			
D (South)	NAO	0.47	0.54	0.73	2×10^{-9}
	WEPA	0.59			
	SCAND	-0.68			
E (East)	NAO* SCAND	0.74	0.82	0.45	25×10^{-3}
	WEPA* SCAND	-1.18			
	SCAND*EA	1.47			

437 as shown by Wiggins et al. (2019a) when studying the impacts of the extreme storm wave events
438 of the 2013/14 winter in Northwest Europe, resultant embayment rotation in semi-sheltered
439 regions can lead to extreme coastal vulnerability and infrastructural failure.

440 These relationships between climate variability and inshore directional wave forcing are
441 critical for our understanding of multi-annual and multi-decadal coastal dynamics. The analysis
442 of 37 years of hindcast wave data from 63 inshore nodes around the entire coast of UK&I has
443 shown that 73% of studied sites have directionally bimodal wave climates (where secondary
444 modes are > 5% of primary mode peak prominence), with all sites within the English Channel
445 and North Sea regions found to be directionally bimodal. Of specific relevance to coastal
446 dynamics, primary and secondary modes within the English Channel and the southern North Sea
447 coasts are opposing with respect to the coastal normal and have the greatest potential to influence
448 coastal morphodynamics due to the importance of the directional balance of alongshore wave
449 power. This is evidenced by Wiggins et al. (2019) through the examination of a decade of beach
450 observations and embayment rotation along the south coast of England. Importantly, the analysis
451 of these wave directional modes as a function of leading climatic indices found that
452 combinations of the NAO, WEPA, SCAND and EA significantly explained the directional
453 variability in winter-averaged directional wave power throughout all coasts and modal directions
454 within the UK&I.

455 The seasonal variability of directional winter wave power throughout the UK&I also
456 demonstrated clear regional coherence. Cluster analysis of all coastal nodes driven by winter-
457 averaged directional wave correlations with NAO, WEPA, SCAND, AO and EA for the period
458 1980–2017 identified four key regions that had distinct responses to atmospheric variability. The
459 classes were strongly defined by wave exposure, coastal orientation and latitude; and the regional
460 classes were closely related to the impact that sea surface and NAJ wind expressions of related
461 indices could have on directional waves. Empirical multiple linear regression for regional
462 examples from each class demonstrated significant skill ($r^2 = 0.5–0.8$) for both uni- and bi-
463 directional sites, where skill in bi-directional sites was significantly improved through the
464 combination of multiple indices when variability of contrasting directional modes was explained
465 by different indices. Similar observations were made by Woollings et al. (2010) who had some
466 success in explaining the location and strength of the NAJ with a statistical mixture model
467 defined by the NAO and the EA (similar to WEPA).

468 The relation between large scale seasonal atmospheric behavior and wave directionality
469 along both exposed and more sheltered coasts that are dominated by longshore sediment
470 transport processes is important to enable development of skillful long range forecasting of
471 coastal dynamics. A similar approach has seen some success in seasonal forecasts of precipitation
472 in the UK (Baker et al., 2018). These relationships can also facilitate the extension of our
473 understanding of past (historic) coastal behavior, due to the fact atmospheric sea level pressure
474 (and proxy) records (e.g. Luterbacher et al., 1999; Camus et al., 2014) and modelled wave re-
475 analysis' (e.g. Santo et al., 2015), whilst containing inherent uncertainties, are much longer than
476 those of sea surface waves or coastal morphological observations (<40 years; e.g., Turner et al.,
477 2016). The extent of variability and periodicity of each of the leading atmospheric indices
478 provides insights into coastal geomorphological response of beaches past and present (e.g.,
479 Castelle et al., 2018). As shown recently by Dodet et al. (2019), coastal (beach/dune) response to
480 the disturbance of extreme winters can be multi-annual and the rate and extent of beach recovery

481 is critically related to subsequent winter wave power and directionality. Therefore, an improved
482 understanding of multi-annual to decadal variability in wave conditions and its potential
483 prediction will be fundamental knowledge for future coastal management. In this respect, the
484 recently launched (October 2018) French-Chinese satellite CFOSAT designed to measure
485 simultaneously directional wave spectra and winds with innovative radar scatterometer onboard
486 (Hauser et al., 2019), will complement the spaceborne wave spectra measurements from
487 Synthetic Aperture Radar (Alpers et al., 1981), and allow an improved characterization of wave
488 spectral variability at the global scale.

489 6.1 Season-ahead forecasting

490 In this context, it is useful to examine the current skill of 'season ahead' forecasts of
491 winter-mean climate indices for explaining directional waves in the UK&I. Until recently, long-
492 range forecast systems showed only modest skill in 'season ahead' predictions of Atlantic winter
493 climate and the NAO, partially due to the lack of response of extratropical atmospheric
494 circulation to long-term predictive variability of the ocean (Smith et al., 2012). However, Scaife
495 et al. (2014) recently demonstrated significant skill ($r = 0.6$) in predicting the NAO when
496 initialized a month before the onset of winter and argued that greater ensemble sizes would lead
497 to greater skill (Scaife et al., 2014). One would expect from results presented in this study that
498 wave nodes in the North West group, that were highly correlated with the NAO, would be the
499 most forecastable. Indeed, this is borne out in Figure 9, where all uni-directional nodes between
500 southwest Ireland and north Scotland are significantly correlated (at 95% level) with forecast
501 NAO (1980–2016) where $r = 0.37$ – 0.52 . This relationship disappears for the South West group,
502 where variability is more strongly linked to WEPA. Correlation scores for the bi-directional
503 groups South and East showed significant inverse correlations (at 95% level) with secondary
504 mode easterly waves at six sites along the English Channel coast, specifically those sites with a
505 southeasterly orientation. At the 90% level, the easterly wave component of wave climate
506 throughout English Channel and southern North Sea is significantly negatively correlated with
507 forecast NAO. For sites in the South and East groups, this skill does not translate into
508 predictability of WDI due to the strong influence of WEPA explaining the primary southwesterly
509 directional waves. To the authors' knowledge, these findings are the first demonstration of
510 skillful 'season ahead' forecasts for inshore directional winter wave climate and provide new
511 evidence that medium term forecasts of coastal hazard are currently achievable for selected
512 regions of the UK&I, and further advances in forecast skill may open the possibility for highly
513 valuable national scale coastal vulnerability assessments.

514 As noted by Scaife et al. (2014), much of the forecast skill of the atmospheric model is
515 derived from the ability to predict the NAO and this is highlighted by the lack of model skill in
516 regions where NAO influence is weak. It is therefore unsurprising that indices explaining
517 secondary modes of variability like WEPA are currently not well predicted ($r = 0.13$; $p = 0.353$).
518 An examination of the skill map for predicting DJFM Mean Sea Level Pressure (MSLP, Figure
519 10) confirms that, on average, DePreSys3 shows little MSLP skill over UK&I (located in the
520 region of high uncertainty due to the NAJ variability). Instead, significant skill is found to the
521 South (over the Azores/Southern Europe) and to the North (north of Iceland and over
522 Scandinavia). While this is a limitation for the UK&I and indices like WEPA, this does suggest
523 that the implementation of the approach used in this study in regions of greater atmospheric
524 model skill may yield stronger results. Encouragingly, recent studies have highlighted the

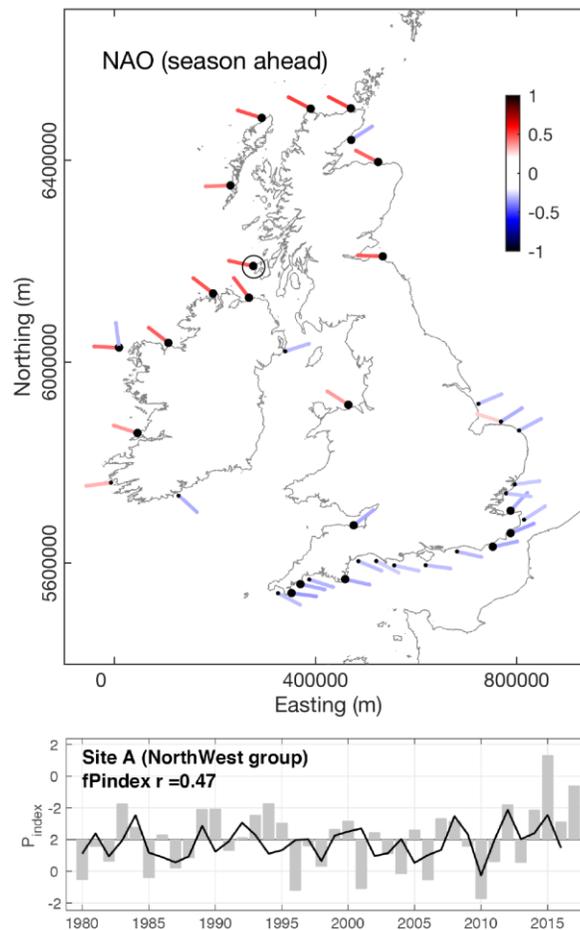


Figure 9. NAO ‘season ahead’ forecast: (upper) relationship between season-ahead forecast winter NAO and directional winter-averaged wave power (local wave directional window of $\pm 20^\circ$ for each node) for 63 wave nodes around the coast of the UK&I (1980–2016). Colors are correlation coefficients (r), only results where $P < 0.1$ are shown, larger black dots represent $P < 0.05$. (lower) Winter P_{index} timeseries for site A (NorthWest group) showing (black line) modelled P_{index} values using forecast NAO from DePrySys 3 model. Correlation coefficient is significant at 95% level.

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potential for future improvements in seasonal (Athanasiadis et al., 2016) and decadal (Smith et al., 2019) forecast skill through increased ensemble sizes, citing the ‘signal to noise paradox’, which identifies that climate models (particularly for the Atlantic) are better able to predict their observed counterparts than their weak signal-to-noise ratios may suggest, meaning there may be much more potential predictability of indices like the NAO with larger ensemble sizes (Scaife and Smith, 2018). In combination with the indication that the seasonal and decadal climate may be more predictable than previously thought, the strong relationships uncovered in this study between inshore winter waves and atmospheric indices suggests that the potential for skillful long-term wave climate forecasts may be realized in the near future. This would better enable decision-makers to effectively adapt to the impact of long-term climate variability and extreme events (Smith et al., 2019).

537 Within the global coastal science community there is an ever-increasing focus on
 538 developing skillful long-term predictions of coastal evolution due to climate change (through
 539 increased sea-level rise and changes in storminess; e.g., Montano et al., 2020). As part of this
 540 challenge, it will be critical to account for climate variability and put observed coastal change
 541 over the past 20 years into this context. As elucidated through climate indices like the NAO,
 542 these indices can reflect natural variability in the ocean and atmosphere on inter-annual and
 543 multi-decadal scales (e.g., Scaife et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016; McCarthy et al., 2018). Deser et
 544 al. (2017) suggested that internal variability of the NAO imparts substantial uncertainty in future
 545 changes in regional climate even out to decades ahead. This is likely overestimated due to signal
 546 to noise errors in predictions of the NAO (Eade et al 2014) but still needs to be accounted for in
 547 climate projections and predictions of directional wave climate in order to aid coastal managers
 548 to prepare and adapt to ongoing climate variability and change.

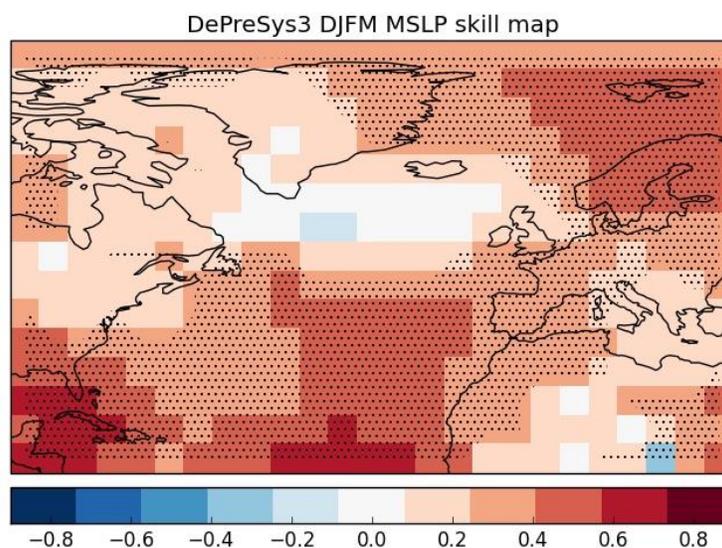


Figure 10. Spatial distribution of skill (correlation) for UK Met Office Decadal Climate Prediction System 3 (DePreSys3), predicting the season ahead winter (DJFM) mean sea level pressure. Stippled regions are significant at the 5% level according to a Student’s t-test.

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 556 data were from the UK Met Office 8-km WAVEWATCH III third-generation spectral wave
 557 model (version 3.14; Tolman, 2009). This dataset is not publicly available due to commercial
 558 restrictions, but can be sourced from the Met Office (enquiries@metoffice.gov.uk , co-author
 559 reference Dr Andrew Saulter) for specific research purposes. EOF-based climate indices used in

560 this study are publicly available for the period 1980–2017 (National Oceanic and Atmospheric
 561 Administration (NOAA) Climate Prediction Center; www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov). The Western
 562 Europe Pressure Anomaly (WEPA) climate index (1943-2018) developed by Castelle et al.
 563 (2017) is publicly available online via the University of Plymouth PEARL open access research
 564 repository (<http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/15509>). Season-ahead retrospective forecasts
 565 (hindcasts) of the winter-averaged December-March (DJFM) NAO and WEPA are not publicly
 566 available due to commercial restrictions, but can be sourced from the Met Office
 567 (enquiries@metoffice.gov.uk) for specific research purposes.

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