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Haigh, Ivan D.; Pickering, Mark D.; Green, J. A. Mattias; Arbic, Brian K.; Arns, Arne; Dangendorf, Sonke; Hill, David F.; Horsburgh, Kevin; Howard, Tom; Idier, Deborah; Jay, David A.; Jaenicke, Leon; Lee, Serena B.; Mueller, Malte; Schindelegger, Michael; Talke, Stefan A.; Wilmes, Sophie-Berenice; Woodworth, Philip L.

Reviews of Geophysics

DOI:

[10.1029/2018RG000636](https://doi.org/10.1029/2018RG000636)

Published: 01/03/2020

Peer reviewed version

[Cyswllt i'r cyhoeddiad / Link to publication](#)

Dyfyniad o'r fersiwn a gyhoeddwyd / Citation for published version (APA):

Haigh, I. D., Pickering, M. D., Green, J. A. M., Arbic, B. K., Arns, A., Dangendorf, S., Hill, D. F., Horsburgh, K., Howard, T., Idier, D., Jay, D. A., Jaenicke, L., Lee, S. B., Mueller, M., Schindelegger, M., Talke, S. A., Wilmes, S-B., & Woodworth, P. L. (2020). The Tides They Are A-Changin': A Comprehensive Review of Past and Future Nonastronomical Changes in Tides, Their Driving Mechanisms, and Future Implications: A comprehensive review of past and future non-astronomical changes in tides, their driving mechanisms and future implications. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 58(1), Article e2018RG000636. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018RG000636>

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The Tides They Are a-Changin’: A comprehensive review of past and future non-astronomical changes in tides, their driving mechanisms and future implications

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34 **Three key points:**

35 Tidal properties have changed, and continue to evolve, due to non-astronomical factors

36 Attributing causation remains challenging

37 Regionally-coherent increases/decreases in tidal properties are likely to occur over the next
38 centuries

39

40 **Abstract**

41 Scientists and engineers have observed for some time that tidal amplitudes at many locations
42 are shifting considerably due to non-astronomical factors. Here we review comprehensively
43 these important changes in tidal properties, many of which remain poorly understood. Over
44 long geological time-scales, tectonic processes drive variations in basin size, depth, and shape,
45 and hence the resonant properties of ocean basins. On shorter geological time-scales, changes
46 in oceanic tidal properties are dominated by variations in water depth. A growing number of
47 studies have identified widespread, sometimes regionally-coherent, positive and negative
48 trends in tidal constituents and levels during the 19th, 20th and early 21st centuries. Determining
49 the causes is challenging because a tide measured at a coastal gauge integrates the effects of
50 local, regional, and oceanic changes. Here, we highlight six main factors that can cause
51 changes in measured tidal statistics on local scales, and a further eight possible regional/global
52 driving mechanisms. Since only a few studies have combined observations and models, or
53 modelled at a temporal/spatial resolution capable of resolving both ultra-local and large-scale
54 global changes, the individual contributions from local and regional mechanisms remain
55 uncertain. Nonetheless, modelling studies project that sea-level rise and climate change will
56 continue to alter tides over the next several centuries, with regionally coherent modes of change
57 caused by alterations to coastal morphology and ice sheet extent. Hence, a better understanding
58 of the causes and consequences of tidal variations is needed to help assess the implications for
59 coastal defense, risk assessment, and ecological change.

60

61 **Plain Language Summary**

62 Tides are one of the most persistent and dominant forces that shape our planet. The regular and
63 predictable daily, fortnightly, monthly, annual, inter-annual and longer-term changes in tides,
64 driven by astronomical forces, are well understood. However, scientists and engineers have
65 observed for some time that tides at many locations are shifting considerably due to non-
66 astronomical factors. Here, we carry out a review of these important changes in tides, many of
67 which remain poorly understood. We highlight that over long geological time-scales, changes
68 in tides are driven by tectonic processes, which alter the size, depth and shape of the ocean.
69 Over shorter geological time-scales, changes in tides are mainly driven by changes in water
70 depth. In recent decades, a growing number of studies have identified widespread, and
71 sometimes regionally coherent, changes in tides during the last 150 years. However,
72 determining exactly what has caused these more recent changes in tides, has proved difficult.
73 We discuss the local and regional/global mechanisms that might be responsible for the
74 observed changes. Modelling studies predict that sea-level rise and climate change will
75 continue to alter tides over the next several centuries. Therefore, a better understanding of what
76 is causing changes in tides is needed.

77

78 **1. Introduction**

79 Tides remain one of the most persistent and dominant forces that shape our planet. They exert
80 a crucial physical control on the coastal zone, shelf seas and open-ocean. At the coast, tides
81 impact the timing and magnitude of storm surges and waves (Prandle and Wolf, 1978;
82 Horsburgh and Wilson, 2007), and therefore modulate high sea levels and strongly influence
83 coastal flooding and erosion (Pugh and Woodworth, 2014). Navigation to and from ports is
84 constrained by tidal stage, currents, and swell steepened by tidal currents (e.g., Akan et al.,
85 2017), while tidal range largely determines the vertical zonation of species in coastal inter-tidal
86 ecosystems (Stumpf and Haines, 1998). In estuaries, the interplay between tidal currents, tidal
87 mixing and river flow helps to determine the extent of salinity intrusion (Jay, 1991; MacCready
88 and Geyer, 2014), impacts sediment transport, sets system morphology and overall is a
89 determining factor in the mass, momentum, and energy budgets of the river/estuary/shelf
90 continuum (Jay, 1991; Burchard et al., 2018). In shelf seas, tidal currents control sediment
91 transport (Simpson and Sharples, 2012) and tidal renewable energy potential (Robins et al.,
92 2015). Vigorous tidal currents produce coherent turbulent structures and surface boils (Nimmo-
93 Smith, 1999; Talke et al., 2013), leading to the small-scale mixing and energy dissipation
94 necessary for air/water gas exchange (Zappa et al., 2007; Talke et al., 2013), which impacts the
95 drawdown of atmospheric CO₂ (Thomas et al., 2004) and alters the oxygenation of hypoxic
96 waters (Talke et al., 2009). Tidal currents affect the formation and evolution of river plumes
97 (Horner-Devine et al., 2009) and help to determine the dynamics of shelf sea fronts, therefore
98 influencing primary productivity and fisheries (Simpson and Hunter, 1974). In the open-ocean,
99 tidal dissipation affects the large-scale circulation and vertical mixing (Munk, 1966; Wunsch
100 and Ferrari, 2004; Green et al., 2009). Furthermore, tidal levels (relative to chart datum)
101 provide the physical basis for many national and international boundaries and, historically at
102 least, geodetic systems (Shalowitz, 1962, 1964). Changes to tidal levels and tidal currents,
103 therefore, have wide-ranging and important scientific and practical implications.

104 Tidal levels (e.g., mean high and low water), tidal range (i.e., the vertical difference between a
105 tidal high and the following low water) and tidal currents vary on regular daily, fortnightly,
106 monthly, annual, inter-annual and longer-term time-scales, driven by astronomical variations
107 in the orbits and relative positions of the Sun, Moon, and Earth (Pugh and Woodworth, 2014).
108 Because planetary orbital motions are stable and predictable, the astronomical forcing of tidal
109 motions are well characterized and tide predictions can be made far into the future (Cartwright,
110 1985). Due to their repeatability and importance for navigation, the study of tides is the oldest
111 branch of physical oceanography (Cartwright, 1999). Perhaps because of the reliability of tide
112 predictions, casual observers might assume that tidal prediction is a solved problem, and that
113 tidal constituents are stationary over time. Nonetheless, both scientists and engineers have long
114 observed that tidal levels in many locations change considerably due to non-astronomical
115 factors over seasonal, decadal and secular time scales (e.g., Doodson, 1924).

116 Our review of scientific literature indicates that changes in tides due to non-astronomical
117 factors have primarily been noted at local scales over the past two centuries. For example, in
118 rivers and estuaries, it has long been known that tides are greatly influenced by seasonal
119 changes to river flow, with tidal motion completely disappearing in fluvial reaches during flood
120 conditions (Powell, 1884). Similarly, engineers in Germany used theory and/or physical
121 models to determine that building a weir on the Ems Estuary would amplify tides, due to
122 increased reflection and local resonance (Keller, 1901). Engineering changes to the River
123 Thames similarly had a big impact on its tidal history: the tidal range at London increased from
124 2 m during Roman times to 7-8 m during the 19th and 20th centuries (Amin, 1983; Reidy, 2008).
125 Scientifically, studies such as Doodson (1924), Schureman (1934) and Marmer (1935)
126 observed that tides can vary significantly, most obviously due to harbour modifications and

127 dredging. However, detailed explanations were usually lacking. Moreover, there was an
128 apparent historical reluctance to explore methods for analysis of non-stationary time series in
129 order to investigate these changes further. Part of this conservatism might be assigned to the
130 stationarity assumption inherent in the harmonic analysis methodology that originated at the
131 end of the 19th century (e.g. Darwin, 1898), although later pioneering works on tides such as
132 Cartwright (1968) did recognise non-stationary behaviour related to non-astronomical forcing.
133 Only over the past 20 years (since the digitisation, concatenation, and public dissemination of
134 regional and global databases of tide gauge records; Woodworth et al., 2017) has it been
135 determined that significant and widespread positive and negative trends in tidal levels (and
136 tidal currents) are occurring at many locations around the world (e.g., Flick et al., 2003; Ray,
137 2006; Jay, 2009; Woodworth, 2010; Müller et al., 2011; Devlin et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2015;
138 Talke and Jay, 2017; Talke et al., 2018). Remarkably, the rates of tidal level changes observed
139 are of similar magnitudes to the rate of mean sea level (MSL) rise at some sites; for example,
140 Mawdsley et al. (2015) found increases in tidal range at Astoria (USA), Wilmington (USA),
141 Delfzijl (the Netherlands), Cuxhaven (Germany), and Calais (France) of >25 cm over the last
142 century. Furthermore, a number of modelling studies at local (e.g., Chernetsky et al., 2010;
143 Holleman and Stacey, 2014; Orton et al., 2015; Familkhalili and Talke, 2016, Lee et al., 2017),
144 regional (e.g., Pickering et al., 2012; Ward et al., 2012; Greenberg et al., 2012; Pelling et al.,
145 2013a, 2013b; Arns et al., 2015, 2017; Luz Clara et al., 2015; Idier et al., 2017; Ross et al.,
146 2017; Devlin et al., 2018) and global scales (e.g., Müller et al., 2011; Pickering, 2014; Pickering
147 et al., 2017; Wilmes et al., 2017; Schindelegger et al., 2018), confirm that altered conditions
148 (e.g., MSL, bathymetry, or stratification) affect tide levels and currents. Moving forward, these
149 studies suggest that further changes to tidal levels and currents due to non-astronomical causes
150 are possible over the 21st century and beyond.

151 Despite these recent advances, important gaps remain in our ability to interpret and predict past
152 and future changes in tides over the century-time scale (e.g., Müller et al., 2011), possibly
153 because multiple processes and spatial scales are involved (e.g., Devlin et al., 2018). Over
154 longer time scales, studies suggest that tides have also markedly changed in open-ocean and
155 shelf sea regions over millennial (e.g., Hinton, 1995, 1996; Shennan et al., 2000; Hill et al.,
156 2011; Gehrels et al., 1995) and longer-time scales (e.g., Platzmann, 1978; Müller, 2007; Egbert
157 et al., 2004; Arbic et al., 2004, 2008; Griffiths and Peltier, 2008, 2009; Arbic and Garrett, 2010;
158 Green 2010; Wilmes and Green, 2014; Green et al., 2017). These changes have been driven by
159 large (>100 m) variations in MSL and basin geometry, which has altered water depths,
160 frictional energy loss, and the resonant properties of specific basins. While these studies
161 suggest important mechanisms, the trends over the past few centuries occurred with
162 considerably smaller perturbations to water depth and other factors (Woodworth et al., 2010;
163 Ray, 2006), and remain challenging to reproduce with large-scale numerical models (Müller et
164 al., 2011). Instead, changes at multiple time and length scales may be occurring (e.g., Devlin
165 et al., 2018), with effects that can accentuate or counteract each other. At small scale, tidal
166 amplitudes and circulation have changed with harbour depths, many of which have been
167 drastically altered by a factor of two to four, to enable ever larger ships to enter ports
168 (Familkhalili and Talke, 2016; Chant et al., 2018). Also, coastlines have been altered
169 considerably by human development. Simultaneously, a combination of MSL rise, ongoing
170 vertical land motion, and climate evolution have changed the water depth and possibly
171 stratification of numerous shallow shelf seas over secular time scales, causing changes to tides
172 (Ray, 2006). Consequently, several questions remain unanswered, e.g.:

- 173 • Why are tides in some locations and regions particularly sensitive to changing boundary
174 conditions and environmental factors, while tides at other locations have remained
175 relatively stationary?

- 176 ● What are the mechanisms underlying these variations and how large are the respective
177 contributions of basin geometry, water depth, ice extent, bottom roughness and
178 stratification?
- 179 ● Are changes being primarily driven by the effects of climate change, particularly MSL
180 rise, and/or are they being caused by local anthropogenic factors such as channel deepening,
181 harbour development, wetland reclamation, and any other activity that affects the small to
182 large-scale geometry of coastal regions?

183 The aim of this paper is to review and synthesize non-astronomical changes in tides locally,
184 regionally and globally in an attempt to answer these important questions. Particularly when
185 combined with data archaeology and the recovery/analysis of historic tide data from the 19th
186 century (Woodworth, 2006; Haigh et al., 2009; Talke and Jay, 2013; Dangendorf et al., 2014;
187 Talke and Jay, 2017), the opportunity now exists to review our current understanding, analyse
188 instrumental data, determine local, regional, and global footprints of change, and separate out
189 local anthropogenic influences from larger spatial-scale processes (e.g., changes in climate)
190 through a combination of statistical techniques and retrospective numerical modelling. Our
191 primary goal is to better understand the spatial patterns of change that have been observed over
192 the last two centuries and that are predicted in coming centuries, and their causes and
193 implications. However, to put these ‘modern’ changes into context, we also briefly consider
194 changes on paleo-timescales.

195 We start in Section 2 by reviewing the modelling and observational studies that have
196 investigated past changes in tides on: (1) Paleo-timescales from deep-time to the year 1800
197 (Section 2.1); and (2) for the instrumental period from 1800 to present (Section 2.2). We then
198 go on in Section 3 to evaluate and discuss our current understanding of the range of different
199 mechanisms causing changes in tides over varying time-scales, first at a local (e.g., estuary)
200 scale (Section 3.1) and then regionally and globally (Section 3.2). We follow this in Section 4
201 with a review of the modelling studies that have predicted future changes in tides (Section 4.1)
202 and then discuss important implications of these potential changes (Section 4.2). Finally, we
203 end in Section 5 with conclusions, and highlight key knowledge gaps and future research
204 challenges.

205 **2. Past changes in tides**

206 Studies of paleo-tides are generally model based (see, e.g., Kagan and Sundermann, 1994;
207 Egbert et al., 2004; Uehara et al., 2006; Arbic et al., 2004; Wilmes and Green, 2016; Green et
208 al., 2017, and references below) because of a lack of direct proxies for tides, and the proxies
209 that do exist often lack spatial and/or temporal detail. Here, we give a brief overview of the
210 methods that have been applied to infer past tidal conditions. Numerous studies have used
211 cyclical sedimentary sequences, morphosedimentary data (e.g. coastline structure), salt marsh
212 sedimentary deposits and ecological indicators (e.g. species ranges across the intertidal zone)
213 to classify paleoenvironments as micro-, meso- or macro-tidal regimes (see Hinton, 1996 and
214 references therein for a detailed overview of sedimentary records used for reconstruction of
215 tidal environments). However, all rely on adequate preservation of the paleo environment which
216 is often hampered (Middleton, 1991). For example, using sublittoral sediment sequences Amos
217 and Zaitlin (1985) and Amos et al. (1991) inferred that transitions in tidal regimes and tidal
218 range changes had occurred throughout the deglaciation and Holocene in Chigneto Bay in the
219 Bay of Fundy. Tidal laminations (rythmites) which are formed by varying amounts and types
220 of sediment deposited on the flood and the ebb tide (e.g. Dalrymple, 1992), can be used to infer
221 tidal components and longer-term variations, but are highly localised in time and space and can
222 give a range of potential tidal amplitudes (e.g., Williams, 2000; Tanavsuu-Milkeviciene and

223 Plink-Bjorklund, 2009). Attempts have also been made to reconstruct tidal dynamics by linking
224 sea bed sediment types from sediments cores to bed shear stress in order to infer tidal current
225 strength (Ward et al., 2015) but were hampered by limitations of the sedimentary records.
226 Studies reconstructing changes in stratification in paleo shelf seas from plankton assemblages
227 (e.g. Scourse et al., 2002; Wood et al., 2019) can provide an indication of the strength of tidal
228 currents by tracking tidal mixing fronts, but again only provide an indication of regional tidal
229 conditions. In the late 20th century, a number of studies highlighted the possibility of using
230 tidally-driven micro-growth patterns in bivalve shells to reconstruct paleo tidal dynamics (e.g.,
231 Pannella, 1976) - this method has been used to infer Late Pleistocene tides in Osaka Bay (Japan)
232 (Ohno,1989; Tojo et al.,1999), but has not been widely applied since. Other approaches, again
233 based on cyclicity in sediments, constrain global dissipation rates through the lunar effects on
234 Milankovitch cycle (e.g., Waltham, 2015), but this can introduce large errors in the recession
235 rate if care is not taken. For example, Zeeden et al. (2014) concluded that the globally integrated
236 dissipation rate 11 Ma must have been either within 10% or half of the present rate (the latter
237 is the most likely one; Green et al., 2017). To date, however, no single method has been applied
238 over a geographically wide range and proved to be a reliable method for reconstructing paleo
239 tides.

240 **2.1 Paleo tidal changes**

241 Global MSL has generally been much higher than today over the past 500 Myr because of an
242 absence of ice-sheets, greenhouse climates, and younger (and hence lighter) tectonic plates
243 (e.g., Hallam, 1984). The exception is the late Triassic (~200 Ma), when sea-level was at a low-
244 stand 50 m below present day (Haq, 2018). Over the past 2 Myr, however, MSL has fluctuated
245 rapidly (in geological terms) by up to 130 m between glaciations and interglacial warm periods
246 (e.g., Peltier, 2004). The present day North Atlantic tides are large because the basin is near-
247 resonant (e.g., Platzmann, 1978; Platzmann et al., 1981; Müller, 2007; Egbert et al., 2004;
248 Arbic et al., 2004, 2008, 2009; Griffiths and Peltier 2008, 2009; Arbic and Garrett, 2010; Green
249 2010) – see Section 3.2 for further details. Consequently, it can be argued that on shorter
250 geological time-scales, up to 2 Myr, changes in tides were mainly due to changes in MSL and
251 ocean stratification (Egbert et al., 2004; Schmittner et al., 2015; Müller, 2012 gives a nice
252 description of how changes in stratification in coastal areas can change tides), because
253 continental drift is a very slow process (the average drift speed at present is ~5-6 cm yr⁻¹; e.g.,
254 Müller et al., 2008). Further back in time, however, MSL becomes a second order effect,
255 because large scale tectonic changes affected basin size, and hence the resonant properties,
256 more than a high stand in MSL did (see Green and Huber, 2013, for simulations of the
257 sensitivity of present-day tides to large-scale changes in bathymetry and MSL). Further back
258 in time, beyond ~250 Ma, both tectonics and changes in the Earth's rotation rate control the
259 resonant properties of the tide and need to be explicitly accounted for in numerical model
260 experiments (e.g., Webb, 1982, Hansen, 1982, Kagan 1997, and Green et al., 2019).

261

262 **2.1.1 Deep-time tides**

263 An early attempt to simulate the tidal evolution over the past 570 Myr was done by Kagan and
264 Sundermann (1994), but at a resolution we today know is too coarse to accurately simulate
265 basic tidal processes (Egbert et al., 2004). Their study also excluded tidal conversion, i.e., the
266 transfer of energy from the barotropic to the baroclinic tide, which is a crucial dissipation
267 process in the global ocean (e.g., Egbert and Ray, 2001; Green and Nycander, 2013). Due to
268 recent advances in tectonic modelling, and hence in the accuracy and resolution of the
269 reconstructions (e.g., Matthews, et al., 2016), Green and Huber (2013) and Green et al. (2017)
270 revisited the subject and performed the first deep-time simulations with improved accuracy.

271 Going back to the Permian-Triassic boundary, 252 Myr BP, and then simulating a further 5
272 slices (118 Myr, 55 Myr, 25 Myr, 2 Myr), it was shown that tides are currently very large, and
273 for most of the past 252 Myr tidal dissipation rates have been less than half of the present rates.
274 This makes sense dynamically: there is no reason to have large tides during a
275 supercontinental gathering, because basins are too large to be resonant. Also, sensitivity
276 simulations in Green et al. (2017) indicated that with higher MSL, the tides became even less
277 energetic, something Wilmes et al. (2017) also note.

278 From 2 Myr onwards, on the other hand, MSL changes dominate long-term changes in the
279 tides. The continental configuration over this period is virtually the same as today, at least at
280 the resolution used in many paleo-tidal simulations (typically $1/4$ - $1/8^\circ$, plates have moved ~ 100
281 km over the past 2 Myr). The tides at 2 Myr BP were still smaller than at present, however,
282 because MSL was some 25 m higher than today (Green et al., 2017). This is an interesting
283 result, because we would then expect the tides in the future to be smaller than today if MSL
284 keeps rising. It also indicates that interglacial periods over the past 2 Myr may have had reduced
285 tides, because they are associated with high MSL.

286

287 **2.1.2 Tides during the Last Glacial Maximum, deglaciation and Holocene**

288 During the Last Glacial Maximum (26.5 – 19 kyr BP; henceforth LGM; Clark et al., 2009;
289 Peltier et al., 2015) large parts of the Northern Hemisphere land masses were covered by
290 extensive ice sheets which lowered global MSL by 120 – 130 m, which led to the exposure of
291 most continental shelves. The MSL decrease and associated ocean basin shape change is
292 thought to have shifted tidal dissipation from the shelf seas into the open-ocean, thus
293 profoundly altering the tides during this period. At the present, the largest tidal amplitudes are
294 found in the shallow continental shelf seas, and analysis of satellite-constrained tide models
295 has shown that, out of a global total of 3.5 TW tidal energy dissipation, 1 TW (30%) of energy
296 is lost to the internal tide in the abyssal ocean (Munk and Wunsch, 1998; Egbert and Ray, 2001;
297 Nycander, 2005). Modelling of the global LGM tides (Thomas and Sündermann, 1999; Egbert
298 et al., 2004; Arbic et al., 2004; Uehara et al., 2006; Arbic et al., 2008; Griffiths and Peltier,
299 2008, 2009; Green, 2010; Wilmes and Green, 2014) suggests that the principal semi-diurnal
300 M_2 tide was especially sensitive to the LGM bathymetry changes. In the North Atlantic, M_2
301 amplitudes increased by several metres and reached amplitudes of over 6 m in some areas in
302 the Labrador Sea (see Figures 1a and b). Increases can also be seen for the South Atlantic, the
303 Gulf of Mexico and New Zealand. For K_1 , the open-ocean amplitudes show little change but
304 certain regions experience larger diurnal tides such as the margins of Antarctica, the South
305 China Sea and Sea of Okhotsk (Griffiths and Peltier, 2008, 2009; Wilmes and Green, 2014).
306 These estimates are somewhat sensitive to the abyssal stratification adopted (Egbert et al.,
307 2004; Arbic et al., 2008; Griffiths and Peltier, 2009), the sea level model used (Arbic et al.,
308 2008) and, relating to the latter, local ice sheet extent. For example, the margins of the Antarctic
309 Basin and in the Weddell and Ross Sea may have experienced mega-tides during the LGM.
310 However, their amplitude is strongly sensitive to ice sheet extent and grounding line location
311 (Griffiths and Peltier, 2008 and 2009) with local ice extent changes showing basin-wide tide
312 effects (Rosier et al., 2014; Wilmes and Green, 2014). Globally integrated dissipation for M_2
313 increased by around 1.5 TW to around 4 TW and energy losses in the abyssal ocean increased
314 by a factor of 2 - 3 to 1.5 - 3 TW (Egbert et al., 2004; Griffiths and Peltier, 2009; Green, 2010;
315 Wilmes and Green, 2014). The increases in amplitudes and dissipation during the LGM can be
316 explained with the help of a damped harmonic oscillator model (Egbert et al., 2004), as
317 discussed in [Section 3.2.3](#).

318 At the onset of the deglacial period (19 – 16 kyr BP) MSL increased by ~ 5 m kyr⁻¹ (Peltier et
319 al., 2015), and corresponding shelf area changes were initially small (see Figure 1c). As a

320 consequence, amplitude changes were restricted to the edges of the European shelf, so that
321 open-ocean dissipation remained high and close to LGM values (Figure 1d; Egbert et al., 2004;
322 Uehara et al., 2006; Wilmes and Green, 2014). Between 16 kyr and 8 kyr global MSL increased
323 at rates of up to 15 m kyr^{-1} (Stanford et al., 2011), leading to the flooding of all major shelf
324 seas. As an example, tides in the southern North Sea shifted from mesotidal to macrotidal
325 between 8,000 and 6,000 years ago, as the land bridge to England was flooded and the system
326 approached resonance (van der Molen and de Swart, 2001). Large tidal amplitudes can be seen
327 on the emerging European Shelf and Patagonian Shelf, while open Atlantic Ocean amplitudes
328 remained enhanced during the mid-deglaciation period. M_2 dissipation began to shift from the
329 open-ocean into the shelf seas (Egbert et al., 2004; Uehara et al., 2006; Wilmes and Green,
330 2014). Large drops in open-ocean amplitudes and dissipation can be seen between 10 and 8
331 kyr, corresponding with the retreat of the Laurentide Ice Sheet and opening of Hudson Bay and
332 Strait (Wilmes and Green, 2014). For example, around this time regional deglacial
333 enhancements in near-coastal tidal amplitudes can be seen across the European Shelf (Uehara
334 et al., 2006; Ward et al., 2016), the north-west coast of the US (Hill et al., 2011), and the
335 western central Labrador Sea (Arbic et al., 2008).

336 Throughout the remainder of the Holocene (7 kyr to present) MSL adjustments were small and
337 supra-regional amplitudes and dissipation closely reflected the present-day state (Egbert et al.,
338 2004; Uehara et al., 2006; Hill et al., 2011; Wilmes and Green, 2014). However, numerous
339 studies have shown that local changes took place during the mid-Holocene across the European
340 Shelf (Austin, 1991; Hinton, 1995, 1996; Shennan et al., 2000; Shennan and Horton, 2002),
341 along the east coast of America (Leorri et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2011; Hall et al., 2013), in the
342 Bay of Fundy (Scott and Greenberg, 1983; Gehrels, et al., 1995) and in the China Sea (Uehara,
343 2001), but these are generally smaller than the changes experienced during the deglacial period
344 and early Holocene.

345

346 **2.2 19th, 20th and early 21st century changes**

347 Changes in the tides over the last ~220 years have generally been studied using long tide gauge
348 records. Only a small number of records are available with start dates during the first half of
349 the 19th century; Brest (Pouvreau et al., 2006), Marseille (Wöppelmann et al., 2014), New York
350 (Talke et al., 2014), and Boston (Talke et al., 2018) are notable examples from Europe and
351 North America, respectively. Automatic tide gauges became more reliable and common during
352 the second half of the 19th century (e.g., Talke and Jay, 2013), and such gauges were
353 increasingly installed in many ports during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Many of the
354 data collected before the advent and adoption of digital recorders in the 1970s-1990s remain in
355 analog format (see e.g., Talke and Jay, 2013, 2017), and, as a consequence, one is often
356 constrained to using information from approximately the last half-century to assess and
357 interpret global trends (e.g., Woodworth, 2010; Mawdsley et al., 2015). Multiple projects are
358 in progress to improve the historical dataset (known as ‘data archaeology’, see e.g., Haigh et
359 al., 2009; Bradshaw et al., 2015; Talke and Jay, 2017).

360 Two questions arise prior to the analysis of any long tidal record. The first is whether there
361 have been any changes in the tide gauge location or changes in instrument type that could
362 introduce discontinuities or spurious trends in tides at that location (see Section 3.1.6 for a
363 discussion). The second is whether there have been local changes to the hydrological regime,
364 bathymetry, and related processes (e.g., sedimentation rates), in the vicinity of the tide gauge
365 (see Section 3.1.1 to 3.1.5 for a detailed review of local mechanisms). This is a particular
366 concern for gauges installed in rivers and estuaries, where many ports are located, or in coastal
367 lagoons. These two concerns can be addressed by having information from as many stations as

368 possible along the same coastline. Consistency of findings provides confidence that one is
369 observing a genuine regional ocean process. Interpretation is more difficult along an irregular
370 coastline with many rivers (e.g., NW Europe or SE Asia) and at isolated locations such as
371 remote ocean islands.

372 Most tide gauge data from the 19th century comprise tabulations of heights and times of high
373 and low waters, with the difference between monthly or annual Mean High Water and Mean
374 Low Water being Mean Tidal Range (MTR). Even after automatic tide gauges were introduced
375 in the 1830's (Matthäus, 1972), tidal charts at many ports were simply used to note the highs
376 and lows. The full digitisation of the charts to provide time series of typically hourly heights
377 throughout the tidal curve became routine later, alongside the increasing use of the harmonic
378 analysis of tide gauge data (Cartwright, 1999; Talke and Jay, 2017). Consequently, the two
379 types of data commonly employed in studies of changes in the tide are records of MTR, or of
380 harmonic constituents derived from the hourly time series. In areas of predominantly
381 semidiurnal tides, MTR is approximately twice the amplitude of the M_2 constituent, although
382 all other constituents also contribute to some extent (see Appendices in Woodworth et al.,
383 1991). Studies that have used MTR instead of harmonic constituents to explore changes in the
384 tide include Flick et al. (2003) and Mawdsley et al. (2015).

385

386 **2.2.1 Studies at individual stations**

387 Both continuous tide gauge time series and short sets of measurements taken some years apart
388 provide an opportunity to examine possible long-term tidal changes. For example, Cartwright
389 (1971) used short sets of data collected in 1761 and 1969 from St. Helena in the S Atlantic,
390 finding little change in the dominant semidiurnal tide but apparent changes in diurnal phase
391 lag. Cartwright (1972a) performed a similar study of historical data from Brest, finding a
392 significant decrease in semidiurnal amplitude of order 1% per century between 1771 and 1936
393 (see also Cartwright, 1972b). Pouvreau et al. (2006) updated that work, concluding that the
394 amplitude of the semidiurnal tide had increased in recent years from its smallest values around
395 1960, and that the tide had been smaller than average prior to 1880, indicating some kind of
396 cyclic variation. Wöppelmann et al. (2014) found little change in the small (decimetric) tide at
397 Marseille since the 1840's, other than those which can be explained by instrumental effects
398 (see Section 3.1.6). In New York harbour, measurements suggest that tide amplitudes
399 decreased slightly from the 1840s to the early 1900's, and increased thereafter by 5-10%,
400 depending on location (Talke et al, 2014; Chant et al., 2018). In Boston, Talke et al. (2018)
401 discussed, in the contexts of both local engineering changes and wider regional tidal changes,
402 a large (~5.5%) decrease in MTR during the 19th century, after which it was relatively stable
403 and even increased slightly after 1930 (see also Ray and Foster, 2016). The latter rate (19 mm
404 century⁻¹) is somewhat less than half the rate of change in M_2 range (54 mm century⁻¹) reported
405 for Boston by Ray (2009) over the period 1935-2005, suggesting other tidal changes (such as
406 altered M_4 and M_6 , as shown in Talke et al. 2018) are at work.

407 Other examples of studies of individual records include that of Plag (1985), who found
408 increasing amplitudes of semidiurnal and diurnal tides at two stations in southern Norway, and
409 Ray (2016), who found the amplitude of M_2 to have decreased significantly at Churchill,
410 Hudson Bay since 1990. Santamaria-Aguilar et al. (2017) recently detected significant trends
411 in the four major tidal constituents (M_2 , S_2 , K_1 , O_1 , and overtide M_4) at two Argentinian tide
412 gauge locations, expressing themselves in tidal range decreases of about ~0.6 mm yr⁻¹. Other
413 examples at individual remote locations can be found in the quasi-global surveys of
414 Woodworth (2010) and Müller et al. (2011). In most cases the changes in amplitudes, both
415 positive and negative, are of order several % century⁻¹ and in most cases tend to be statistically
416 significant.

417 For the reasons given above, it is hard to make firm conclusions from individual station records
418 regarding the validity of the findings, let alone determine the reasons for them. To do better, it
419 is necessary to take a wider perspective and test for tidal changes in denser networks.

420

421 **2.2.2 Regional studies**

422 A number of regional investigations have been made over the past decade. One example
423 concerns the Gulf of Maine for which changes in the tide have been suspected for many years
424 (Doodson, 1924; Godin, 1995). Ray (2006) concluded that M_2 amplitudes had been increasing
425 at stations in the Gulf of Maine for most of the 20th century, at rates ranging from 43 mm
426 century⁻¹ (Boston) to 133 mm century⁻¹ (Eastport). More recently, Ray and Talke (2019)
427 showed that the secular change in Gulf of Maine tides does not extend into the 19th century.
428 Greenberg et al. (2012) determined that trends in M_2 amplitude after 1982 at Portland, Eastport,
429 and Saint John were essentially half of those observed previously due to an apparent regime
430 shift which was also reflected in changes in trend in MSL. This reduction was accompanied by
431 a positive trend in tidal phase throughout the entire North Atlantic (Müller, 2011). In addition,
432 Ray (2009) found S_2 amplitude to have reduced along the entire east coast of North America,
433 and at Bermuda, over the period 1935-2005. These S_2 amplitude changes were enormous (order
434 of 10% century⁻¹) and are considered as the largest and most coherent changes of ocean tides
435 on supra-regional scales.

436 The tides of the west coast of North America contain much larger diurnal components than on
437 the east coast, so both species can contribute to significant changes in high and low water levels.
438 Jay (2009) used 34 records with lengths more than 44 years, concluding that diurnal (K_1) and
439 semidiurnal (M_2) amplitudes had increased by ~2% century⁻¹ since the mid-20th century. The
440 Ray (2009) and Jay (2009) findings are important indicators that ocean tides are changing faster
441 than expected. Confidence in this conclusion comes from the large number of stations along
442 the tested coastlines, the regional coherence in the findings, and the fact that the tide gauge data
443 in North America are among the best quality in the world.

444 Elsewhere, Hollebrandse (2005) and Jensen et al. (2003) reported for the Dutch and German
445 coasts that the tidal range was nearly constant in the first half of the 20th century, while a very
446 strong (average) increase of 25 mm decade⁻¹ emerged in the second half of the century.
447 Likewise, increases in M_2 amplitude over recent decades have been documented at stations
448 along the northern China coastline, and partly in the south (Feng et al. 2015). Shaw and
449 Tsimplis (2010) detected no significant trends in tides at Mediterranean stations, although their
450 records spanned only a couple of decades.

451

452 **2.2.3 Quasi-global studies**

453 Attempts to achieve a global understanding of tides have a long history, dating back to just
454 after the invention of the recording tide gauge in the early 1830s. The first global survey was
455 carried out by British authorities in June 1835 under the direction of William Whewell, with
456 the cooperation of the US and other powers, a total of nine countries (Whewell, 1836; Reidy,
457 2008). Up to two weeks of data were collected at 15-minute intervals at some 700 stations, an
458 astonishing logistical feat for the time given the many competing national interests.
459 Determination of the basic properties of tides globally was the priority, and no consideration
460 was given at that time to the idea that tides might change over the years. Further data
461 archaeology of Whewell's 1835 tidal information, before the large-scale development of many
462 harbours, might well prove valuable.

463 Comprehensive recent compilations of tide gauge data by the University of Hawaii Sea Level
464 Center (UHSLC; <https://uhslc.soest.hawaii.edu/>) and the Global Extreme Sea Level Analysis

465 (GESLA) project (Woodworth et al., 2017; <https://www.gesla.org>) have enabled quasi-global
466 studies of changes in tides (Woodworth, 2010; Müller et al., 2011). These surveys confirmed
467 results of Ray (2009) and Jay (2009) for North America and identified robust features of tidal
468 evolution in other areas (Figure 2). Positive changes in M_2 amplitude were found in the eastern
469 North Sea and Norway, while estimated trends appeared to be spatially more variable around
470 the UK and the southern European Atlantic coastline. Increasing amplitudes for S_2 , K_1 and O_1
471 were also found on eastern North Sea coasts, whereas both the diurnal and semidiurnal
472 amplitudes have increased at most Australian locations and decreased at most northern
473 Japanese stations. This is consistent with the results in Rasheed and Chua (2014). The signals
474 at Pacific Ocean islands were more spatially variable, although stations in the Hawaiian Islands
475 analysed by both Woodworth (2010) and Müller et al. (2011) indicated increasing amplitudes.
476 Mawdsley et al. (2015) made use of MTR data instead of harmonic constants, and came to
477 similar conclusions regarding regional changes, for example in the NE Pacific, German Bight
478 and Australasia.

479 This body of work has demonstrated that regionally-coherent changes in the tide have occurred
480 along particular coastlines. However, the tides have changed differently in different regions,
481 thereby preventing overall conclusions on common forcing factors. Regressions of tidal
482 estimates against the low-frequency components of MSL from sea level records suggest some
483 degree of association between perturbations in water depth and the tide; see, e.g., the analysis
484 of UK MTR data (Woodworth et al., 1991) and more recent larger-scale studies (Devlin et al.,
485 2017a, 2017b, 2018; Schindelegger et al., 2018). Moreover, recent papers have attempted to
486 include changes in phase as well as amplitude, to provide a more complete picture of the
487 response of tides to potential forcing factors. On the other hand, Mawdsley et al. (2015) did not
488 find such an association in a composite regression of MTR vs. MSL trend estimates from a
489 fully global in situ network, and areas of pronounced MSL rise did not exhibit unusually large
490 tidal variations. Therefore, links between changes in tides and changes in MSL (which is
491 discussed in detail in Section 3.2.3) will only be partial at best.

492 Another question is whether the observed regional tidal changes are purely coastal ones, or also
493 occur across the shelf and in the neighbouring deep ocean. An ‘open-ocean’ island sites
494 analysis such as that of Zaron and Jay (2014) for 30 gauges at Pacific island sites provides one
495 way of addressing this question. They found that statistically significant increases in M_2 and
496 K_1 amplitudes were occurring at twelve and four stations respectively, with decreases at only
497 one and two stations, respectively. However, another conclusion was that instrumental
498 improvements in tide gauge recording at most of the same sites could have contributed to an
499 apparent increase in M_2 tidal amplitudes and were dominant for four sites. Even at remote island
500 locations, harbour modifications have occurred and were dominant at two stations. This
501 provides a further warning that the combination of historical and modern data can introduce
502 biases in an analysis. In principle, long records of precise altimeter data could contribute to
503 elucidating the spatial extent of changes in tides. However, the existing coastal altimeter record
504 is still short and substantial averaging at crossover locations will be required to arrive at noise
505 levels at which tidal trends can be detected (Ray et al., 2011).

506

507 **3. Potential mechanisms causing changes**

508 The synthesis above points to both local and regionally-coherent changes in the tide over large
509 portions of the world coastline. In this section we review the range of mechanisms that can
510 cause these changes in tides, first at local scales (Section 3.1) and then at regional/global scales
511 (Section 3.2), with most of the emphasis given to the instrumental period of the 19th, 20th and

512 early 21st centuries. Tidal variability induced by gravitational forces warrants a prior mention,
513 as the astronomical tide-generating potential undergoes modulations on a multitude of time-
514 scales, from intra-annual, to inter-annual (the 4.4 and 8.8-year perigean, and 18.6-year nodal
515 cycles; Haigh et al., 2011a) to the 21,000-year cycle in the longitude of solar perigee (Pugh and
516 Woodworth, 2014). As an example, the recession of the Moon from the Earth must be explicitly
517 accounted for in deep-time tidal simulations; Green et al. (2007) state the lunar distance at 252
518 Ma was 96% of the present, leading to an increase of the tide-generating potential of some
519 13%. However, secular rates of tidal potential coefficients in modern catalogues (e.g.,
520 Hartmann and Wenzel, 1995) are miniscule, typically 0.02% per century or less for leading
521 semi-diurnal constituents and somewhat larger (0.1% per century) for declinational tides (i.e.,
522 K_2 , M_2) that are affected by the current decrease of the Earth's obliquity (Cartwright and
523 Tayler, 1971). Hence, on non-geological time scales and over the era of instrumental
524 measurements, gravitational forcing is usually considered stationary.

525 **3.1 Mechanisms causing changes on a local scale**

526 World-wide, the most dramatic recent changes in tidal properties have occurred in estuaries
527 and tidal rivers (Winterwerp, 2013; Talke and Jay, 2020). For example, tidal ranges have more
528 than doubled since the late 19th century in the upper reaches of the Hudson and Ems Rivers
529 (Schureman, 1934; Ralston et al., 2019; Talke and Jay, 2013, Winterwerp, 2013) and the Cape
530 Fear River at Wilmington (Famalkhalili and Talke, 2016). Tidal ranges have similarly doubled
531 for high flows (above 10,000 m³s⁻¹) in the tidal river part of the Columbia River estuary (Jay
532 et al., 2011). By contrast, a sharp reduction in tidal range in some Dutch estuaries has occurred,
533 apparently due to changes in resonance associated with port development (Vellinga et al.,
534 2014). Tidal trends are often larger at estuary stations (order 5-10% per century) than nearby
535 coastal stations (Jay, 2009). Why are estuary and tidal rivers so sensitive to changing
536 conditions? The scientific literature on tides suggests that changes in the following factors may
537 cause changes in tides, or at least in the measured tides:

- 538 1. Dissipation and turbulent mixing;
- 539 2. Depth of channels and flats;
- 540 3. Surface area, width, and convergence;
- 541 4. Resonance and reflection;
- 542 5. River flow; and
- 543 6. Changes in instrumentation.

544 Two additional factors, tectonic activity and changes in sea ice cover, may influence tides on
545 small physical scales but are discussed in Section 3.2, because their main effects are at larger
546 scales. More comprehensive reviews of long-wave dynamics in estuaries and tidal rivers is
547 given in Hoitink and Jay (2016) and Talke and Jay (2020).

548 **3.1.1 Dissipation and turbulent mixing**

550 Within estuaries and rivers, tides are affected to leading order by frictional damping, which
551 tends to reduce tidal amplitudes, and bathymetric funneling, which tends to amplify tides (Jay
552 1991; Friedrichs and Aubrey, 1994). Hence, any change to frictional resistance alters this
553 balance. To understand how frictional damping can change, one needs to examine the turbulent
554 mixing characteristics of the system, because turbulence extracts energy from the mean flow
555 and is eventually dissipated by the action of viscosity (e.g., Tennekes and Lumley, 1990).

556 Turbulent mixing and dissipation in estuaries are typically produced by tidal and river flow
557 over bottom roughness features such as dunes and ripples (McLean and Smith, 1979; Talke et

558 al., 2013), but are inhibited or reduced by stratification, which responds to river flow variations
559 and the spring-neap cycle (Kay and Jay, 2003a,b; Geyer and MacCready, 2014). The large
560 vertical density gradients found in estuaries, caused by salinity, water temperature, and/or
561 sediment concentration, inhibit turbulent mixing and effectively decrease the drag on a tide
562 wave (e.g., Geyer and Farmer, 1989; Giese and Jay, 1989; Jay et al., 1991). The first
563 quantitative estuarine classification system described this balance of vertical mixing and
564 stratification in terms of the ratio, G/J , of dissipation (G) to buoyancy (J) (Ippen and
565 Harlemann, 1961). However, transverse (secondary) circulations caused by salinity gradients,
566 topography, and other factors (e.g., Huijts et al., 2009; Lacy and Monismith, 2001) are also
567 important. In addition, geometric features such as islands and channel bifurcation cause chaotic
568 mixing (Zimmerman, 1986), by producing 2D eddies with vertical vorticity that serve to
569 distribute both scalars and momentum and (by necessity) are influenced by bottom friction.
570 Particularly at the estuary mouth but also on intertidal flats, wave-current interactions greatly
571 influence the bed stress (e.g., Talke and Stacy, 2003).

572 Changes to any of these small-scale (relative to the tidal wavelength) factors affect the G/J ratio
573 and have the potential to alter tidal properties. In the Ems River, the formation of a 30 - 40 km
574 long blanket of fluid mud (Talke et al., 2009; de Jonge et al., 2014) reduced hydraulic roughness
575 and inhibited turbulence (Winterwerp, 2013), thereby contributing to increased tidal range.
576 Similarly, episodic sediment transport events linked to river floods in the Guadalquivir Estuary,
577 Spain temporarily amplified the tidal range in the upper part of a tidal river; as fluid mud
578 concentrations decreased, tides returned to normal (Wang et al., 2014; Losada et al., 2017). In
579 California, shoaling and very high concentrations of coarse sediment caused by hydraulic
580 mining eliminated tides in the landward part of the Sacramento River Delta in the late 19th
581 century (Gilbert, 1917; Moftakhari et al., 2015), with tidal influence returning as the sediment
582 pulse worked its way through the system. More recently, sediment supply has decreased
583 sharply (Schoelhamer et al., 2011) and changes to the dune field in the ebb-tidal delta have
584 been implicated as one of the reasons for increasing tide range in San Francisco Bay
585 (Rodríguez-Padilla and Ortiz, 2017). Tides (and storm surge) are also affected by changes to
586 wetland and intertidal fauna and biota, since the effective drag is increased by features such as
587 oyster reefs and marsh plants (e.g., Orton et al., 2015). Other factors such as changes in
588 sediment supply, dredging, and altered circulation patterns can alter dune fields and, therefore,
589 bed roughness. Though field studies and analytical/numerical models support this inference,
590 studies definitively linking altered roughness features to changed tidal properties have rarely
591 been attempted, perhaps due to the logistical challenges of determining effective drag at a
592 system scale.

593

594 **3.1.2 Depth of channels and flats**

595 Multiple analytical, field, and numerical studies have now established that depth changes can
596 change estuary tides, primarily through the frictional term in the momentum balance (di
597 Lorenzo et al., 1993; Chernetsky et al., 2010; Familkhalili and Talke, 2016). Over long-time
598 scales, channel deepening for shipping has shifted tidal processes in multiple estuaries
599 (diLorenzo et al., 1993; de Jonge et al., 2014; Jay et al., 2011), and is a primary factor for the
600 long-term changes to estuary tides. Altered depths over sub-tidal and intertidal regions that
601 may occur due to MSL rise may also amplify tides by reducing friction (Holleman and Stacy,
602 2014; Arns et al. 2017). The G/J measure mentioned above can be rephrased as U^3H^{-1} , where
603 U is current speed and H is water depth, and a critical depth H_c separates mixing regimes
604 (Simpson and Hunter, 1974). In systems near the critical depth, spring-neap transitions in
605 mixing occur, affecting the spatial distribution of the S_2/M_2 amplitude ratio (Kay and Jay,
606 2003a; Aretxabaleta et al., 2017).

607

608 **3.1.3 Surface area, width and convergence**

609 The convergence of an estuary (the rate at which cross-sectional area decreases) influences
610 tides, with amplitudes increasing as the wave propagates into a narrower cross-section.
611 Theoretical analyses of estuarine long-wave propagation (Jay, 1991; Friedrichs and Aubrey,
612 1994; Prandle and Rahman, 1980; Godin and Gutierrez, 1986) suggest the depth dependence
613 is caused by depth averaged friction, which scales inversely with depth. More detailed analysis
614 suggests a number of non-linear feedbacks as depth increases, including alterations in velocity,
615 which tends to increase friction and limit the effect of convergence (which also is a function of
616 depth). Green's law (Green, 1837) provides a simple summary of convergence effects in tidal
617 channels. In a frictionless channel, tidal amplitudes scale as $b^{-1/2}H^{-1/4}$ (b is the channel width).
618 For a system with a channel and flats, both the width of the channel and flat influence the tidal
619 amplitude, causing amplitude scaling to $b^{-1/4}b_T^{-1/4}H^{-1/4}$, where b_T is the total width at mean water
620 level. Strong convergence of width (or depth) modifies the H dependence, and frictional effects
621 dominate if the channel is rough enough (Jay, 1991). More details are found in the review of
622 Talke and Jay (2020).

623 Only a few studies have investigated the influence of changing width of channels and flats on
624 tides from data or models. Holleman and Stacey (2014) found that allowing the tide wave to
625 flood over current boundaries in South San Francisco Bay reduced some of the modeled
626 amplification in the tide wave caused by MSL rise. On the other hand, Familkhalili and Talke
627 (2016) found that an overall decrease in width contributed to amplified tides in the Cape Fear
628 Estuary. Adding "retention basins" to a tide model (effectively a momentum sink) generally
629 causes a reduction in tide amplitudes (Li et al., 2016). By contrast, an increase in tidal high
630 water (and thus tide range) appears to have been caused by massive flooding of the Dollard
631 sub-basin in the Middle Ages, followed by a decrease when about 2/3 of the Dollard was
632 reclaimed and surface area decreased (Freund and Streif, 2000; Talke and de Swart, 2006).
633 This suggests that the balance of channel convergence and friction can be modified by
634 resonance and reflection, especially in short estuaries.

635

636 **3.1.4 Resonance and reflection**

637 The reflection of a tide wave at a river boundary, and the partial reflection that occurs due to
638 abrupt changes in width and depth, tend to cause local amplification in tides (Jay, 1991;
639 Chernetsky et al., 2010). Estuaries that are about a quarter of a wavelength long are particularly
640 susceptible to amplification. The usual quarter wave argument is simplistic, however, in that it
641 neglects friction. In the absence of friction, resonance is infinitely sharp, and even a very small
642 deviation of the actual length from the quarter wavelength criterion would essentially eliminate
643 resonance. Thus, friction plays a dual role (Dronkers, 1964). On the one hand, some friction is
644 needed to broaden the resonant peak (in terms of estuary length) such that resonance can
645 actually occur. On the other, very strong friction will eliminate resonance because of the rapid
646 damping of the tide toward the head of the estuary. In practice, strongly resonant systems
647 almost always exhibit a convergent geometry (which increases tidal amplitude by funnelling
648 of the wave energy) and are deep enough that tidal currents are not too strong. Two criteria are
649 usually cited in identifying resonance: (a) an increase in tidal amplitude toward the head of an
650 estuary, and (b) a 90° phase difference between elevation and current. However, these criteria
651 also describe the behaviour of a single incident wave in a strongly and uniformly convergent
652 channel with weak to moderate friction. Moreover, Godin (1993) showed that the actual criteria
653 for resonance is rather more complex than the quarter wave rule, due to interaction of the tide
654 in the estuary with the rest of the ocean. The system is not truly resonant unless there is an
655 amphidrome within the system.

656 Leaving aside these dynamical complexities, changes to either length or depth of an estuary
657 can alter tidal amplification. As discussed in Talke and Jay (2020), the largest changes occur
658 in systems that were highly damped historically, but have been significantly deepened. For
659 example, construction of a weir in 1900 altered the length of the Ems estuary, and produced an
660 amplification in upriver tides (Keller, 1901; Chernetsky et al., 2010; Talke and Jay, 2013).
661 Progressive deepening has further moved the system towards resonance (de Jonge et al., 2014).
662 In the Columbia River, a bathymetric constriction caused locally amplified tides (Giese and
663 Jay, 1989), and may contribute to the secular increase in tides at Astoria (OR). Similarly, a
664 partial reflection was noted by Familkhalili and Talke (2016) at the end of the shipping channel
665 in the Cape Fear estuary. Tides in the resonant Long Island Sound have amplified over secular
666 time scales, likely due to MSL rise (Kemp et al., 2017). Tides in the Guadalquivir estuary in
667 Spain are also affected by reflection (Diez-Minquito et al., 2012).

668

669 **3.1.5 River flow**

670 River flow interacts nonlinearly with tides and increases the effective frictional damping (Jay,
671 1991; Godin, 1986, 1991, 1999) particularly in tidal rivers, where river flow is typically strong
672 (Hoitink and Jay, 2016). The interaction is quantitative, in the sense that it can be used to
673 estimate river flow from tidal records (Moftakhari et al, 2013, 2016; Cai et al., 2014). Over
674 long-time scales, alteration in river flow can produce a secular trend in tides, particularly in
675 upstream locations far from the coast. In both San Francisco Bay (Moftakhari et al., 2013;
676 Padilla and Ortiz, 2017) and the Columbia River estuary (Naik and Jay, 2011, Jay et al., 2011),
677 long-term decreases in river inflow are a factor contributing to growth in the M_2 tide. It is
678 important to distinguish, however, between changes in tidal amplitude related to changing river
679 flow, and changes in tidal amplitude for a given (fixed) river flow. In fact, both have occurred
680 in the Columbia, due to an increase in hydraulic efficiency related to navigational development.
681 The nearly linear astronomical tidal constituents are not the only components of the tide
682 affected by river flow and changes therein. Looking landward in a river estuary, overtides
683 typically first increase, due to frictional interactions of the main tidal constituents with each
684 other and with river flow (e.g., Jay and Flinchem, 1997; Godin, 1999; Gallo and Vinzon, 2005;
685 Guo et al., 2015). They then decrease, as the main tidal constituents become too small to
686 maintain overtide generation, and frictional dissipation of the overtides increases, due to the
687 landward increase in river flow velocity. Nonlinear fortnightly variability is typically maximal
688 further landward in a tidal river than the overtides and may persist beyond the point where the
689 main tidal constituents are extinguished (Leblond, 1979; Buschman et al., 2009; Jay et al.,
690 2015), in part due to the long wavelength of this oscillation (much longer than the estuary-tidal
691 river; Hoitink and Jay, 2016).

692

693 **3.1.6 Instrumentation and measurement issues**

694 The five factors considered above lead to real changes in tides at a local scale. However, water
695 levels and tidal constituents can erroneously appear to have changed for a number of technical
696 reasons associated with the sea level measurements (Woodworth, 2010). These include: (i) an
697 undocumented change of the tide gauge location, (ii) a change in tide gauge technology, and/or
698 (iii) errors caused by timing problems or calibration errors. For example, recording at Liverpool
699 on the west coast of England prior to the 1990's took place at a location 3 miles south of where
700 the current tide gauge is operated now. Although the tide is similar at the two locations, there
701 are small differences in all tidal constituents (Lane, 1982), which could be reported as a secular
702 change in the tide by an analyst of Liverpool data unaware of the move. A change in location
703 can also mean that a gauge is exposed to a different wave regime and, given that waves can
704 bias the measurement of sea level by some types of gauge (Pugh and Woodworth, 2014), this

705 can result in an inhomogeneous data set. Another concern is whether recording has been made
706 by the same type of gauge (float, pressure, acoustic, radar) as each technique has its own biases,
707 and so a change in technology can again result in subtle changes to the data. Finally, timing
708 errors, the symptoms of which are discussed by Zaron and Jay (2014), are often evident in sea
709 level measurements digitised from historic tidal charts and can result in spurious changes in
710 calculated tidal statistics. Timing problems can be caused by clock errors or sedimentation of
711 the stilling well (e.g., Agnew et al., 1986), or could occur when tidal charts were placed on the
712 rotating drum by the operator without accurately resetting the drum offset to zero (IOC, 1985).
713 Before the use of digital computers for processing tide records, a tide ‘computer’ (a person with
714 a pencil) could only make very simple corrections for time and elevation errors in records, and
715 reprocessing from the original paper record may allow for improvement in these corrections
716 (e.g., Talke and Jay, 2013, 2017). The inaccurate clocks used in the first generation of ‘digital’
717 gauges (those without paper records) in the 1960’s to the 1980’s were also subject to timing
718 errors, which may be larger than occurred in the ‘marigram’ period, when a paper record was
719 used (e.g., Talke et al., 2018). The latter problem was exacerbated by the reduction in human
720 gauge checks that accompanied the transition to digital instruments. It is therefore vital,
721 particularly when conducting assessments of changes in tides over regional scales, that the
722 possibility of instrument errors be considered.

723 **3.2 Mechanisms causing changes on regional/global scale**

724 Spatially coherent variations observed in both tidal levels and constituents over the last century
725 cannot be explained by the above-mentioned local mechanisms alone. Instead, at regional and
726 global scales, the following range of possible driving mechanisms have been proposed to
727 explain long-term secular changes in the tides (e.g., Woodworth, 2010; Müller et al., 2011;
728 Müller, 2012):

- 729 1. Tectonics and continental drift;
- 730 2. Water depth;
- 731 3. Shoreline position;
- 732 4. Extent of (sea-)ice coverage;
- 733 5. Sea-bed roughness;
- 734 6. Ocean stratification and internal tides;
- 735 7. Non-linear interactions (frictional or triad); and
- 736 8. Radiational forcing.

737 These mechanisms are illustrated in Figure 3 and discussed below. We consider which
738 components have contributed most to observed past changes in **Section 3.2.9**.

739

740 **3.2.1 Tectonics and continental drift**

741 As discussed previously (**Section 2.1**), it can be argued that to first order the tidal properties of
742 a basin are set by the tectonic configuration. This is because it is the length-scale of a basin,
743 along with its depth, that determines the resonant periods, and the shape of a basin is largely
744 set by the tectonically controlled distribution of continents and ocean. Because of the motion
745 of the Earth’s tectonic plates, it is thus expected that regions go in and out of resonance at all
746 scales – from small inlets to ocean basins (Green et al., 2017; 2018) – depending on the tectonic
747 configuration. Indeed, Green et al. (2018) identified a supertidal cycle that is linked to the
748 tectonic supercontinent cycle; during a period of supercontinent aggregation, tides are very
749 weak – close to equilibrium tides – except for isolated small inlets where local resonances can
750 act. The reason for the overall weak tide is simply that the large horizontal scale of the ocean

751 external to the supercontinent is out of resonance and thus not supporting a large tide.
752 Consequently, there is no forcing in the deep ocean for large tides in local or regional basins
753 either, although local resonances can of course still occur and lead to amplifications of up to a
754 factor 10 (e.g., Balbus 2014 for some theoretical considerations). As continents drift apart,
755 basins may go in and out of resonance, thus enabling large local and regional tides. These can
756 be generated both locally, because the basin itself is resonant (*cf.* the present-day Bay of
757 Fundy), but also remotely, because the regional basin is near-resonant, thus allowing for a
758 larger tidal forcing at the boundary of a region (*cf.* the present-day North Atlantic allowing
759 large tides on the European shelf).

760 Over short time-scales, earthquakes can also alter the shape and topography of coastlines,
761 which can affect tidal dynamics, although mainly at a local scale. For example, the
762 Christchurch earthquake in New Zealand in 2011, dramatically altered the coastline in that
763 region (Bradley and Cubrinovski, 2011).

764

765 **3.2.2 Water depth**

766 Changes in water depth due to geocentric (or absolute) MSL rise or geological processes such
767 as the crust's Glacial Isostatic Adjustment (GIA) have been explored as one of the main drivers
768 of changes in tide at the regional/global scale (Flather et al., 2001; Müller et al. 2011;
769 Greenberg et al. 2012; Arns et al., 2015; Pickering et al., 2017; Kemp et al., 2017; Ross et al.,
770 2017; Schindelegger et al., 2018). Tides behave as shallow-water waves and thus are strongly
771 affected by water depth. There are two mechanisms by which water depth changes can alter
772 tidal dynamics.

773 The first mechanism is that of resonance: large tidal amplitudes and dissipation occur when the
774 tidal forcing frequency lies close to the natural period of an ocean basin. Therefore, increases
775 in water depth could push an ocean basin, shelf sea or embayment closer to resonance,
776 increasing the tidal range, or it may be moved away from resonance, reducing the tidal range
777 (e.g., Pickering et al., 2012; Kemp et al., 2017; Green, 2010; Idier et al., 2017). Several studies
778 (summarized in Section 2.1) have conclusively demonstrated significant deviations from
779 present-day tides in the recent geological past, and it has been suggested that these are caused
780 by resonance-related changes due to large relative MSL variations. For instance, Egbert et al.
781 (2004) explained the increases in amplitudes and dissipation during the LGM with the help of
782 a damped harmonic oscillator model. The open-ocean North Atlantic displays resonant
783 behaviour at M_2 frequency (Platzman, 1981; Müller, 2008), however, at present most energy
784 dissipates in the shallow shelf seas due to bottom friction. During the LGM, most shelf seas
785 lay dry or were occupied by ice sheets, leading to a significantly decreased damping effect.
786 Therefore, tidal energy dissipation shifted from the shelf seas to the abyssal ocean and open-
787 ocean amplitudes and dissipation strongly increased. The larger tides during the glacial period
788 are thought to have increased the amount of energy available for mixing through the internal
789 tide (Wunsch, 2003; Montenegro et al., 2007; Green et al., 2009; Schmittner et al., 2015),
790 however, the consequences of increased tides for the LGM Meridional Overturning Circulation
791 remain debated (Montenegro et al., 2007; Green et al., 2009; Schmittner et al., 2015).
792 Furthermore, the hypothesis has been put forth that the megatides in the Labrador Sea during
793 the last glacial period may have had decreased Laurentide Ice Sheet stability and possibly
794 contributed to periodic ice stream instabilities (Arbic et al., 2004, 2008). Arbic et al. (2009)
795 and Arbic and Garrett (2010) built upon the Egbert et al. (2004) damped oscillator model by
796 constructing models of two coupled damped oscillators - one (Arbic et al., 2009) using
797 idealized shallow-water basins and the other (Arbic and Garrett, 2010) used an even more
798 idealized system consisting of a large mass (the open-ocean) connected via a spring to a smaller
799 mass (the shelf). In both of these models, if the open-ocean and shelf are near resonance, the

800 removal of the shelf yields a large increase in the amplitude of the open-ocean tide, in
801 qualitative consistency with what is seen in numerical simulations of LGM vs. present-day
802 tides. While the damped oscillator model has been used more often to describe how tides
803 changed in ocean basins with large MSL variations ($>100\text{m}$), it has also been used to show that
804 $\sim 1\%$ changes in amplitude and ~ 1 degree changes in phase can arise from ~ 1 m changes in sea
805 level (Müller et al., 2011). The open-ocean/shelf coupling described above is summarized in
806 Figure 4. This displays the coupled oscillator model of Arbic and Garrett (2010), the results of
807 a frequency sweep of the coupled oscillator model, demonstrating that the open-ocean tide can
808 be greatly affected if the shelf is removed, and results illustrating that blocking the Hudson
809 Strait in a global numerical ocean tide model yields substantial changes in the open-ocean tide,
810 in qualitative consistency with the analytical coupled oscillator model results.

811 The second mechanism is that a change in water depth alters the propagation speed of the tidal
812 wave and causes a spatial re-organization amphidromes (Figure 5). In a semi-enclosed basin,
813 MSL rise and thus increasing water depth causes the amphidromic point to shift towards the
814 open boundary, leading to an increase in tidal range at the dissipative end of the basin (Taylor,
815 1922). The change in depth and tide range within the amphidrome alters the spatial distribution
816 of tidal currents and therefore the spatial pattern of energy dissipation, which is dependent on
817 U^3/H (Simpson and Hunter, 1974; Garrett et al., 1978); where U is velocity and H is water
818 depth. If greater tidal range at the dissipative end is associated with larger currents, the greater
819 amount of energy lost to friction may counteract the depth effects. This in turn would shift the
820 amphidrome to the left of the direction of propagation of the tidal wave in the Northern
821 Hemisphere. This would increase the tidal range on one side of the basin, while reducing it on
822 the other. The increase in tidal range would also decrease the proportion of tidal energy
823 reflected by the dissipative boundary, leading to a further displacement of the amphidrome.
824 Taylor (1922) investigated these processes using simple analytical solutions. The shifting
825 locations of all amphidromic points on the European Shelf with MSL rise and the associated
826 increases or decreases in the M_2 tide are mapped in Figure 4 of Pickering et al. (2012). Idier et
827 al. (2017) found that MSL rise leads to a small shift of the degenerate amphidromic point in
828 the western direction (i.e. in the open-ocean direction) in the English Channel, while an overall
829 increase of tidal range emerges in the east.

830

831 **3.2.3 Shoreline position**

832 Another factor influencing tide changes is the shoreline position, or, the horizontal extension
833 and surface area of the water body. Such changes imply variations in the dissipation and
834 modifications of the natural period of oscillation of the basin. These changes can be related to
835 water depth changes (Section 3.2.2), extent of ice-cover (Section 3.2.4), but also shoreline
836 dynamics (retreat, accretion) or changes in coastal defence structures. The effect of the
837 shoreline dynamics on tide changes at a regional or global scale has not yet been investigated,
838 except for studies of paleo-tides when the continents and/or ice sheets were organized
839 differently (see Section 2.1).

840 Coastal defence structures and flood defences influence not only the MSL rise itself, but also
841 the landward spread of the tide, and potentially the tide at the regional scale and global scale
842 (Pelling et al., 2013; Pelling and Green, 2014; Pickering, 2014; Pickering et al., 2017).
843 Increasing the landward propagation of a tide wave implies an increase in the dissipation and
844 modifications of the natural period of oscillation of the basin. For example, using a numerical
845 experiment approach, Pelling et al. (2012) shows that the tide response (to MSL rise) of the
846 Irish Sea is controlled by the flooding of estuaries, increasing open-water tidal amplitudes
847 through the increased dissipation in the newly flooded areas, as explained by the damped
848 harmonic oscillator (Arbic et al., 2006). Similarly, Pelling et al. (2013) shows that the changes

849 in the North Sea are dominated by the flooding of the Dutch coast (assuming present day
850 defences are not maintained) which shifts the areas of tidal energy dissipation from the present
851 coastline to the new flooded areas and thus moves the amphidromic points towards the coast.
852 The same happens at the global scale (see Section 4.1), where the changes in tide caused by
853 inundation of land in tidal simulations with large-scale MSL are of the same order of magnitude
854 as the tide changes induced by the water depth increase alone (Pickering, 2014; Pickering et
855 al., 2017).

856

857 **3.2.4 Extent of sea-ice cover**

858 The interaction between sea-ice and surface tidal currents can induce tidal variability which
859 has been, so far, mainly observed on seasonal timescales. This interactive process is described
860 by the insulation of the ocean surface from wind forcing and the frictional effect between ocean
861 surface currents and sea-ice (Prinsenberget al. 1988, St. Laurent et al. 2008). Müller et al.
862 (2014) showed, using a coupled ocean circulation, tide, and sea-ice model, and a comparison
863 with observations, that sea-ice is an important driver of seasonal variation of high-latitude tides.
864 In the Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait, where seasonal variations in tidal amplitude can be up
865 to 0.1 m, the amount of energy dissipated by under-ice friction is 21 GW, or about 10% of the
866 bottom drag dissipation in the region.

867 In addition, varying sea-ice cover in polar regions, can drive tide changes through several of
868 the above factors, e.g., water depth (Section 3.2.2) and shoreline position (Section 3.2.3). Godin
869 and Barber (1980) and Godin (1986) observed some correlation locally between tide changes
870 and ice cover. The numerical experiment of Georgas et al. (2011) show that the winter ice field
871 (and the associated friction) is an explanation for sudden tide changes in the Hudson River,
872 both at the ice front and further afield (where reflection from the ice front may be important).

873 Apart from sea-ice cover, ocean tide properties may also respond to variations in the geometric
874 configuration of marine ice-sheet margins, particularly the extensive ice shelves surrounding
875 the Antarctic ice sheet. Specifically, if an ice shelf is perturbed in such a way as to alter its areal
876 extent, thickness, and grounding line, this would affect the tide by changing local water column
877 thickness and the position of lateral boundaries. Using a regional barotropic tide model for the
878 Filchner-Ronne Ice Shelf and the southern Weddell Sea, Padman et al. (2018) showed that tidal
879 currents near the Ronne ice front will decrease substantially if the ice shelf thins, with an
880 approximate slowdown of 0.1 m/s for a hypothetical 100 m loss of vertical ice extent. In a range
881 of sensitivity experiments, Rosier et al. (2014) modeled perturbations of tidal amplitude in an
882 ocean domain south of 60°S for several scenarios of ice-sheet evolution, including projected
883 shifts in grounding line up to the year 2500 as constrained by external ice sheet models. K_1
884 amplitudes were found to respond to this ice-shelf retreat with increases of a few dm in both
885 the Ross and Weddell Seas, whereas M_2 mainly changed under the Filcher-Ronne Ice Shelf as
886 a result of ice thickness reduction. Both Rosier et al. (2014) and Padman et al. (2018) highlight
887 the role of tides and their variations in modulating the low-frequency dynamics of ice sheets,
888 e.g., through feedbacks on basal melt rates and ice stream velocities. However, the effect of
889 actual (and not projected) changes of Antarctic cavity geometry on tides themselves, especially
890 on global scales, remains unexplored.

891

892 **3.2.5 Sea-bed roughness**

893 The character of the sea bed can be changed over time by many natural (e.g., including waves
894 and tidal currents; Idier et al., 2003) and human processes (e.g., trawling; Aldridge et al., 2015).
895 Beam trawling, in particular, the process by which heavy chains and a large net attached to a
896 beam are dragged across the sea bed, has been reported to lead to flattening of the bottom,

897 causing a reduction in bottom friction (e.g. Schwinghamer et al., 1996). It has been suggested
898 that changes in sea-bed roughness could therefore induce changes in tides. Further research in
899 this area is therefore needed.

900

901 **3.2.6 Ocean stratification and internal tides**

902 Changes in ocean stratification can have multiple effects on tidal dynamics. First, they can
903 change the tidal conversion rate, i.e., the transfer of energy from barotropic to baroclinic tides,
904 as well as the surface expression of the internal tide. The effect on the barotropic tide through
905 changes in the internal tide field at regional or global scales has not been well explored beyond
906 sensitivity tests on long time scales (i.e., millennia, see Egbert et al., 2004 and Wilmes and
907 Green, 2014). It has been shown, however, that the surface expression of internal tides can vary
908 on seasonal time-scales due to variations in the stratification and ocean currents (e.g., Müller
909 et al., 2012). A local analysis of the tide-gauge record from Honolulu, Hawaii by Colosi and
910 Munk (2006) attributes the recorded secular increase of the M_2 surface tide amplitude of 16.1
911 to 16.9 cm between 1915 and 2000 to a 28° phase change of the internal tide, induced by time-
912 variable density stratification along the wave propagation path to the measurement site (see
913 also Mitchem and Chiswell, 2000). Nonlinear mechanisms can also be involved. At stations
914 around the Solomon Islands, strong connection between semidiurnal tidal anomaly trends and
915 changes in thermocline depth, overtide generation, and the El Niño Southern Oscillation
916 (ENSO) have been observed. As shown by Devlin et al. (2014), this correlation could result
917 from the changes in non-linear triad resonance of barotropic (M_2) and internal tides (K_1 , O_1)
918 associated with changes in stratification.

919 Another effect of varying stratification on tides is by means of changes in the vertical eddy
920 viscosity profile, which is important in shallow waters. In principle, eddy viscosity can cover
921 orders of magnitude by transitions from stable-stratified to well-mixed conditions, thereby
922 affecting tidal current profiles. Müller (2012) showed, using analytical and numerical models,
923 that stratification changes between winter and summer can modify the tidal transport by 5%
924 and that a deepening of the mixed-layer depth by only 10 m can induce a transport change of
925 1–2%, which might be relevant to understand secular trends of tides in a warming ocean. On
926 seasonal timescales this effect has been observed in tidal current profiles (e.g., Howarth, 1998)
927 and evoked in explanations of seasonal changes of around 6% in the M_2 surface tide in the
928 North Sea and Yellow and East China Sea (Kang et al., 2002; Müller et al., 2014).

929

930 **3.2.7 Non-linear interactions**

931 Non-linear interactions between tidal constituents and between tides and non-tidal processes
932 can lead to significant variations in tides. Regarding the former, at many locations it has been
933 found that the 18.6-year nodal cycle variations in tidal amplitude is smaller than the 3.7% one
934 one would expect for M_2 in the tidal potential. This can be explained by the non-linear frictional
935 tide-tide interactions (Ku et al, 1985); for example, Ray and Foster (2016) showed that the M_2
936 tide in Boston (US Atlantic coast) varies by 2.9% over the 18.6-year nodal cycle. Smaller
937 variations for M_2 have also been found around the UK by Amin (1983, 1985) and Woodworth
938 et al. (1991), around the west coast of Australia (Amin, 1993), as well as in the Bay of Fundy
939 and Gulf of Maine (Ku et al., 1985; Ray, 2006; Müller, 2011; Ray and Talke, 2019). Feng et
940 al. (2015) found differences from equilibrium nodal expectations for variations in both
941 semidiurnal and diurnal tides along the coast of China. Jay et al. (2015) found that the S_2/M_2
942 ratio varied along an estuary-fluvial river continuum. There are two likely causes: (i) the
943 primacy of the M_2 -river flow interaction (no other constituent is as much affected by river flow
944 as M_2); and (ii) the fact that tidal energy propagation depends on the square of tidal amplitude,
945 while dissipation depends on its cube. A change in overtide magnitude and relative phase can

946 also indicate altered non-linear interactions (e.g., Devlin et al., 2014). Thus, changes in the
947 nonlinear tide-tide interactions at other time scales than the nodal cycle have been observed by
948 Gräwe et al. (2014), who showed seasonal variations of the M_4/M_2 ratio in the North Sea are
949 due to variations in the thermal structure of the water column. Given these observations, any
950 factor that alters tide-tide interaction (such as altered bed friction) can produce a trend in one
951 or more tidal constituents; however, extracting these (usually small) factors remains a
952 challenging signal processing task, except when changes to non-linear interaction are large.
953 Moreover, closely spaced tidal constituents may respond differently to non-tidal forcing.

954 Variations in tides caused by interactions between the tide and non-tidal processes include a
955 large spectrum of phenomena, ranging from storm events to inter-annual and decadal scale
956 variability. Examples include storm surge effects (e.g., Prandle and Wolf, 1978; Horsburgh and
957 Wilson, 2007; Zhang et al., 2010; Idier et al., 2012), seasonal variations of mean currents and
958 winds (e.g., Müller, 2012; Devlin et al., 2017, 2018), and climate variations such as ENSO
959 (e.g., Devlin et al., 2014). The tide changes manifest themselves as variations in tidal
960 constituents from year to year and can result in a long-term trend in tidal parameters if a
961 corresponding trend exists in the non-tidal forcing. Without discriminating between the sources
962 of the sea-level fluctuations, Devlin et al. (2017) investigated tide gauge records in the Pacific
963 Ocean and their results suggest that interannual tidal variability is correlated to sea level
964 variability at most (92%) of tide gauges in the Pacific, with statistically significant rates
965 between ± 1 and $\pm 50\%$ of the MSL rise observed. However, the correlations of the multiple
966 mechanisms inducing tide and sea-level variability make it challenging to discern the
967 individual causes of observed variability. For instance, Devlin et al. (2018) suggest that
968 seasonal variability of tides in Gulf of Thailand and near Singapore could arise from monsoon-
969 related changes in winds. Tidal current and tidal water level interact directly with wind and
970 pressure, through the advection term in the shallow-water theory (the water depth enters in the
971 denominator of the friction term in the shallow-water equations), and nonlinear friction term
972 related to velocity interactions (Flather, 2001; Horsburgh and Wilson, 2007; Zhang et al., 2010;
973 Haigh et al., 2010). Wind-induced waves, in addition to super-elevation of water, can also alter
974 tide magnitudes during storms (e.g., Arns et al., 2017). In many cases, the dominant tide-surge
975 interaction term comes from the friction term. Depending on the event and location, the tide-
976 surge interaction can have a significant effect on water level at the event scale (several tens of
977 centimetres; Idier et al., 2012). However, the long-term effect on the tidal constituents is
978 smaller, since it would require a long-term trend in the frequency and/or magnitude of storms.

979

980 **3.2.8 Radiational forcing**

981 The term ‘radiational potential’ was introduced by Walter Munk to account for motions of a
982 tidal nature which are caused, directly or indirectly, by the Sun’s radiation, instead of being of
983 astronomical tidal origin due to the Moon or Sun (Munk and Cartwright, 1966; Cartwright and
984 Tayler, 1971). Such radiational (or ‘meteorological’) oscillations dominate the tides of the
985 atmosphere, through absorption and differential heating processes, and are also important as
986 components of the ocean tide. Relative to their astronomical counterparts, the largest
987 radiational tides in the ocean occur due to the annual and semi-annual variation in air pressure,
988 and the ocean’s subsequent response via the inverse barometer effect, and due to sun-
989 synchronous meteorological changes at the diurnal S_1 frequency. These meteorological
990 forcings include diurnal variations in air pressure and also small-scale contributions from land-
991 sea breezes (Rosenfeld, 1988; Ray and Egbert, 2004). Numerical modelling (e.g., Ray and
992 Egbert, 2004, Schindelegger et al., 2016) shows that the radiational part of the S_1 ocean tide
993 can have amplitudes of a few cm in some regions (Arabian Sea, eastern Indian Ocean, Okhotsk
994 Sea) and that it dominates the solar diurnal gravitational component by an approximate factor

995 of five throughout the ocean. Pugh and Woodworth (2014) also point to possible spurious
996 manifestations of S_1 in tide gauge measurements, related, e.g., to the daily heating and cooling
997 of thermally sensitive instruments.

998 Radiational contributions to the solar semidiurnal ocean tide S_2 are smaller than gravitational
999 S_2 oscillations but nonetheless important. In the tropics, air pressure tends to be a maximum
1000 near 10:00 and 22:00 local time, with amplitudes that vary approximately as $125\cos^3\phi$ Pa,
1001 where ϕ is latitude (e.g., Haurwitz and Cowley, 1973). Modelling of the ocean's dynamic
1002 response to this semi-diurnal pressure loading suggests that the radiational component of S_2 is
1003 about 15% of gravitational S_2 on average (Arbic, 2005). Pugh and Woodworth (2014, Section
1004 5.5) give several determinations of this proportion at locations around the world. The
1005 complication of S_2 having a significant radiational component, while neighbouring constituents
1006 (N_2 , M_2 etc.) do not, introduces difficulties in the tidal analysis using response techniques
1007 (Munk and Cartwright, 1966).

1008 If radiational forcings vary from year to year or with a secular component, the ocean's response
1009 will change. In fact, large-scale modulations of the diurnal pressure cycle (~ 20 Pa) and
1010 concomitant changes in the S_1 ocean tide occur during extreme phases of ENSO (Schindelegger
1011 et al., 2017) but are restricted to time scales of less than a year. Ray (2009) summarizes reports
1012 of secular changes in the atmospheric S_2 tide, none of which points to overly large trends in
1013 available barometric records. Given the ocean's dynamic response at the S_2 frequency, secular
1014 changes seen in tide gauge data might come from pressure loading in any place, including areas
1015 of scarce meteorological observations. Hence, the relevance of radiational forcing for changes
1016 in tides remains to be confirmed by future research.

1017

1018 **3.2.9 Attributing past changes**

1019 As discussed in Section 2.1, on short geological time-scales up to 2 Myr ago, large-scale
1020 changes in tides were mainly due to changes in water depth, and to a lesser extent shoreline
1021 position and ice extent. Further back in time, however, water depth becomes a second-order
1022 effect, because large scale tectonic changes affected basin size, and hence the resonant
1023 properties, more than water depth. Over the instrumental period of the 19th, 20th and early 21st
1024 centuries it is much more difficult to attribute observed changes in the tide, because tide gauge
1025 measurements are affected not only by the above regional mechanisms but also by local
1026 processes (Section 3.1). Overall, it has been difficult to produce unequivocal evidence of the
1027 effects of the individual local and regional mechanisms, because: (i) most changes in observed
1028 tides are modestly correlated with multiple forcing factors (Devlin et al., 2014), (ii) correlation
1029 does not imply causation, and (iii) extensive modelling studies (numerical or analytical) are
1030 needed to verify any one mechanism for any location or region.

1031 In classical tide models, effects of geocentric MSL rise and vertical land movement are
1032 explored in a comparatively simple manner through modifications of bathymetry. Müller et al.
1033 (2011) performed M_2 simulations at low ($1/2^\circ$) and high ($1/8^\circ$) horizontal resolution, with trend
1034 patterns from GIA models and altimetric sea levels scaled to represent water depth changes
1035 over the past 100 years. These simulations demonstrated peak sensitivities of the tide in the
1036 North Atlantic to GIA-related crustal subsidence and increases in MSL, the former accounting
1037 for 30-40% of the magnitude of measured M_2 trends on a basin-wide average. However, spatial
1038 patterns, and thus the sign of simulated M_2 changes, did not agree well with those inferred from
1039 observations. Schindelegger et al. (2018) revisited the issue with a high-resolution ($1/12^\circ$)
1040 global tide model, in which uncertainties related to the self-attraction and loading term (the
1041 "iteration jitters" encountered by Müller et al., 2011) were greatly mitigated using an exact
1042 spectral decomposition of tidal elevations at each time step. With water depths adjusted for
1043 GIA and geocentric MSL changes, the model could reproduce the sign of the observed M_2

1044 amplitude trends at 36 out of 45 analysed tide gauge stations in Europe and Australia (Figure
1045 6), and at the North Atlantic American coasts (Figure 7). Schindelegger et al. (2018)
1046 additionally reported success in capturing large fractions (order 50% or more) of the magnitude
1047 in measured M_2 changes, primarily in shallow seas dominated by frictional effects, e.g., the
1048 Gulf of Mexico, the German Bight, the Northwest Australian Shelf, and the Chesapeake-
1049 Delaware Bay system; see also Ross et al. (2017) for a comparison of tide gauge data with
1050 modelling results in the latter area. Yet, changes in water depth alone appear inadequate to
1051 explain some of the very large trends seen in tidal amplitude on the European Shelf (e.g., the
1052 English Channel and the Irish Sea) as well as the Gulf of Maine. In a calibration experiment,
1053 Greenberg et al. (2012) showed that an inordinate depression of ~ 2 m century⁻¹ at the western
1054 North Atlantic shelf break would be necessary to mimic the M_2 changes observed at coastal
1055 stations in the Gulf of Maine. Hence, the 20th century trends of the tide in that area remain a
1056 vexing signal, possibly related to a small change of the Atlantic tide at the gulf's mouth being
1057 amplified by the resonant nature of the basin (Ray, 2006).

1058 To our knowledge, modelling studies are yet to properly address tidal impacts of past changes
1059 in ocean stratification shorter than geological time scales (i.e., several millennia). However,
1060 such efforts critically rely on quantitative knowledge of temperature and salinity, which is
1061 limited by the paucity of historical water-column measurements. For 2D models, adjustments
1062 of buoyancy frequencies in internal tide drag parameterizations (e.g., Carless et al., 2016) can
1063 provide a rough idea of altered conversion rates and associated modulations of the barotropic
1064 tide. Yet, the wider spectrum of stratification effects on baroclinic wave propagation/generation
1065 and vertical eddy viscosity profiles must be explored in realistic 3D simulations on both
1066 regional and global scales. Tidal changes resulting from these processes may be locally
1067 confined and patchy but of magnitudes comparable to the effects of MSL rise on tidal
1068 amplitudes (~ 1 -2 cm century⁻¹, Colosi and Munk, 2006; Müller, 2012). Another frequently
1069 cited, although yet unproven, hypothesis is that the significant decrease of the S_2 constituent in
1070 the western North Atlantic Ocean relates to large changes in the semidiurnal atmospheric
1071 pressure tide (Ray, 2009), which might undergo modifications in a warming climate with
1072 altered stratospheric absorption characteristics (Covey et al., 2014). However, a very large
1073 ($\sim 40\%$ century⁻¹) change in the air tide would be required to induce the observed S_2 trends, and
1074 similar amplitude decreases evidently occur in the K_2 constituent, which has only minor
1075 radiational component. Thus, as Ray (2009) suggests, attributing observed S_2 trends to
1076 atmospheric dynamics “seems premature, and may well be incorrect”.

1077

1078 **4. Future changes in tides and implications**

1079 **4.1 Projections of future changes in tides**

1080 As Hill (2016) points out, paleo time scales have occupied much of the attention of past
1081 modelling work on large-scale changes in tides (Section 2.1), while navigational impacts over
1082 the last few centuries have been a primary focus of local modeling and data analysis (Section
1083 3.1). However, recent studies have been increasingly geared toward prediction of future
1084 changes in tides over the 21st century and beyond, motivated by concerns regarding climate
1085 change, particularly MSL rise (e.g., Holleman and Stacey, 2014) and changes in coastal
1086 flooding (see Section 4.2). Climate-induced relative MSL rise will lead to increases in water
1087 depth, which will alter tidal dynamics via a range of mechanisms (Section 3.2). However,
1088 studies have also assessed how tides may change in the future with large-scale land reclamation
1089 (Pelling et al., 2013a) and natural and anthropogenic changes in coastal morphology (de Boer

1090 et al., 2011; Passeri et al., 2016), variations in ice-sheet extent (e.g., Pickering, 2014; Rosier et
1091 al., 2014; Wilmes et al., 2017), changes in ocean warming (Carless et al., 2016), which
1092 influences tides via variations in vertical stratification (Müller, 2012) and with the introduction
1093 of tidal power stations (e.g., Ward et al., 2012).

1094 The majority of these future tidal studies have used depth-averaged tidal models to assess
1095 changes in the main semi-diurnal and/or diurnal tidal constituents, and in some cases changes
1096 in tidal high and low waters, tidal range and other parameters (e.g., tidal currents, bed shear
1097 stress, tidal dissipation). Only in a few exceptions have baroclinic models been used (e.g.,
1098 Valentim et al., 2013, Ross et al., 2017), but this has been done only on an estuary scale. The
1099 majority of modelling studies have used finite difference grids. The different studies have used
1100 a wide range of numerical software, boundary conditions and configuration settings, with
1101 model grids of varying horizontal resolution (Hill, 2016). There has also been variability in
1102 treatment of the coastline among the investigations. Studies have considered a wide range of
1103 future projections, with MSL varying from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
1104 (IPCC) typical range by 2100 (i.e. up to 1 m; Church et al., 2013) to the low probability but
1105 high impact end of the scale by 2100 (~2.5 m; Lowe et al., 2009), to very high values of 10 m
1106 out to 2300 and beyond (which would require significantly ice loss from Greenland and/or
1107 Antarctic; DeConto and Pollard, 2016). Studies have also modelled future conditions in
1108 different ways, with some authors using simple spatially constant increases in water depth
1109 (equal to assumed MSL rise), while others have accounted for some assumed spatial variability
1110 in sea level change and vertical land movements (e.g., associated with GIA and other processes,
1111 such as subsidence caused by withdrawal of groundwater). These differences made it difficult
1112 to directly compare and contrast results among the analyses. Some general conclusions that can
1113 be drawn are summarized below.

1114 We start with a review of literature that has predicted future changes in tides on the NW
1115 European Shelf, before switching to other regional and local study areas. Finally, we highlight
1116 recent papers that have predicted future changes in tides on a global scale. The different regions
1117 investigated in these studies are summarised in Figure 8.

1118

1119 **4.1.1 North West European Shelf**

1120 Many studies have investigated future changes in tides on the NW European Shelf and specific
1121 areas within this domain. Results from earlier studies of the NW European Shelf tides (e.g., de
1122 Ronde 1986; Hinton, 1996; Kauker, 1998; Kauker and Langenberg, 2000; Flather and
1123 Williams, 2000; Flather et al., 2001; Plüb, 2004; Lowe and Gregory, 2005; Sterl et al., 2009;
1124 Vellinga et al., 2009; Lowe et al., 2009; Howard et al., 2010) suggest that changes in tidal
1125 amplitudes and levels would only be a few cm under 0.5-2m MSL rise. However, more
1126 dedicated explorations of future tides in this region provide evidence that changes in the M_2
1127 amplitudes might be up to 0.1 m per meter of change in MSL. For example, Pickering et al.
1128 (2012) found significant (up to 30 cm) increases in the M_2 tidal amplitude with 2 m of MSL
1129 rise in parts of the European shelf, but also areas on the shelf where the sign of the changes
1130 was reversed (up to -40cm). Interestingly, Ward et al. (2012) obtained results with opposite
1131 signs of the amplitude changes in some regions to Pickering et al. (2012) in certain areas.
1132 Pelling et al. (2013a) and Pelling and Green (2014) used numerical tidal models alongside
1133 classic tidal theory to explore why there were significant differences in the tidal changes
1134 predicted by Pickering et al. (2012) and Ward et al. (2012). They showed that the way in which
1135 MSL rise is implemented highly influences the modelled tidal response (Figure 9). When
1136 vertical walls are assumed at the present-day coastline (as in Pickering et al., 2012), predicted
1137 changes in tides due to increased water depth differ from the case where coastal areas are
1138 flooded (as Ward et al., 2012 did) and the response is largely controlled by dissipation in the

1139 newly introduced wet grid cells. Pelling and Green (2014) found that the largest changes in
1140 tides with MSL rise occurred, somewhat surprisingly, when flood defences were accounted for
1141 (where they exist) allowing only part of the coastline (currently not protected) to flood. Idier et
1142 al. (2017) considered a greater number of tidal constituents and also non-uniform MSL rise
1143 scenarios and more fully explored the physical mechanisms causing changes in tidal levels on
1144 the NW European Shelf. They found that the patterns of changes in tidal levels are spatially
1145 similar, regardless of the magnitude of MSL rise (up to 10 m), if coastal defences are
1146 constructed along present coastlines. In this instance, the tidal changes are generally
1147 proportional to MSL change, as long as MSL rise remains smaller than 2 m. However, when
1148 flooding of dry land is allowed in the simulations the changes in tidal level are much less
1149 proportional to MSL change. Palmer et al (2018) assess changes in tides on the NW European
1150 Shelf, with MSL rise scenarios of up to 3 m. They also found substantial changes in tidal range,
1151 and a spatially non-uniform response.

1152

1153 **4.1.2 Other regional and local analyses**

1154 Investigations of future tides have also recently been conducted in other regions, on spatial
1155 scales similar to that of the NW European Shelf. Luz Clara et al. (2015) investigated the effects
1156 of uniform 1, 2 and 10 m rises in MSL on the propagation of tides on the Patagonian Shelf. In
1157 contrast to Ward et al. (2012), Pelling et al., (2013a, 2014) and Idier et al. (2017), they found
1158 that predicted changes in tidal levels were not especially sensitive to how the coastline was
1159 implemented, for the southern part of the coastline in this area. This was because the coastline
1160 south of 40°S is mostly characterized by high cliffs, and due to the fact that the tide propagates
1161 northward. However, north of 40°S, where the coastline is dominated by beaches and wetlands,
1162 the response was more highly affected by added dissipation in the inundated cells. Carless et
1163 al. (2016) investigated how tides on the Patagonian Shelf might respond to various levels of
1164 non-uniform MSL change and considering different grid resolutions. They also assessed the
1165 effects of ocean warming over the area, as tides can be influenced by the strength of vertical
1166 stratification (see Section 3.2.6). They predicted a decrease in tidal amplitudes along the coast
1167 as a result of a possibly more stable water column, if the surface layer heats up more than
1168 deeper waters. Rosier et al (2014) ran hypothetical numerical simulations to assess the effect
1169 that removal or reduction in the extent and/or thickness of the Ross and Ronne-Filchner ice
1170 shelves would have on tides around Antarctica. With the removal/reduction in ice shelves
1171 changes in the M₂ amplitude of up to 50 cm in the Weddell Sea were found. These could
1172 potentially lead to tidally induced feedbacks on ice shelf/sheet dynamics which in turn would
1173 influence global MSL (as proposed in Pickering, 2014).

1174 On the scales of large bays and estuaries, Greenberg et al. (2012) showed that the combined
1175 effects of MSL rise (partly attributed to post glacial rebound) and increasing tidal range in the
1176 Bay of Fundy, could produce a significant increase in the high-water levels, much greater than
1177 those seen when considering MSL rise in isolation. Pelling et al. (2013b) investigated changes
1178 in the tidal regime in the Bohai Sea, China over the last 35 years and for the future with 1, 2
1179 and 3 m of MSL rise. They found significant changes in the tidal regime in the Bohai Sea over
1180 the last 35 years, with M₂ amplitudes changing by up to 20 cm in some parts, due to rapid
1181 coastline changes resulting from natural developments of the Yellow River delta and large-
1182 scale anthropogenic land reclamation. In this region, their results suggested that predicted
1183 future changes in tides were sensitive to whether the coastal areas are allowed to flood, or not,
1184 in the model. They also found that changes in tidal amplitudes were not proportional to the
1185 magnitude of MSL rise. Hall et al. (2013) modelled changes in tides in the Delaware Bay (USA)
1186 for future MSL rise scenarios (~1 m and 3.5 m), allowing for land inundation. They found
1187 complex spatial changes, with variations in tidal-range of up to 10%. Holleman and Stacey

1188 (2014) investigated how tidal levels vary in San Francisco Bay (US) with MSL rise of up to 1
1189 m. They showed that tidal levels decrease in most areas, as flooding of adjacent expansive low-
1190 lying areas introduces friction. Passeri et al. (2016) assessed the integrated influence of MSL
1191 change and future morphology on tidal hydrodynamics along the northern Gulf of Mexico.
1192 Unlike previous studies, that tended to ignore changes in morphology, they updated shoreline
1193 positions and dune heights using a probabilistic model. Under the highest MSL rise scenario
1194 (2 m by 2100), tidal amplitudes within the bays along this coastline increase by up to 10 cm,
1195 because of increases in the inlet cross-sectional areas. Lee et al. (2017) and Ross et al. (2017)
1196 investigated how MSL rise and coastal change might impact tides in Chesapeake and Delaware
1197 Bays (USA). They found that when hypothetical sea walls are erected at the present coastline,
1198 tidal range increased, with greater amplification in the upper reaches of the two bays. However,
1199 when low-lying land was allowed to become inundated by MSL rise, tidal range decreased in
1200 both estuaries, similar to the global findings of Pickering et al. (2017). Harker et al. (2019)
1201 assessed how MSL rise might impact tides around the coast of Australia. They found large
1202 amplitude changes in the Arafura Sea and within embayments along Australia's north-west
1203 coast, and the generation of new amphidromic systems within the Gulf of Carpentaria and south
1204 of Papua, once water depth across the domain is increased by 3 and 7 m respectively. Recently,
1205 Feng et al. (2019) investigated tidal changes in the Yellow Sea. They found a notable decrease
1206 in tidal range occurs in the northern shelf, and the tide increases mainly in the southern shelf,
1207 with MSL rise.

1208 Many other studies have predicted changes in tides with MSL change for smaller estuaries
1209 around the world (e.g., Cai et al., 2012; Valentim et al., 2013) and idealised estuaries (e.g., Du
1210 et al., 2017). The results of these are hard to generalise. Du et al. (2017) demonstrated that tidal
1211 response to MSL rise is spatially uneven and differs depending upon estuary length,
1212 bathymetry, and geometry.

1213

1214 **4.1.3 Global scale studies**

1215 Using a relatively coarse (1/6 degree) global tidal model, Green (2010) simulated changes in
1216 the M_2 and K_1 constituents with a uniform MSL rise of 5 m and 60 m (akin to an almost
1217 complete melting of polar ice sheets). He found increases in tidal amplitude in many of the
1218 mixed and diurnal areas, suggesting that these areas would move closer to resonance as MSL
1219 increases. The extreme case of a 60 m MSL rise resulted in weaker global tides, as the larger
1220 shelf seas gives rise to increased tidal damping - a result supported by sensitivity simulations
1221 of the present day tide in Green and Huber (2013). Pickering (2010) investigated uniform MSL
1222 rise scenarios of 1, 2 and 10 m with a fixed coastline and drew a similar conclusion of a
1223 sensitivity of global shelf sea tides to MSL rise, with a change in the global pattern being similar
1224 at 1 m and 2 m MSL rise but differed between the 2 m and 10 m scenarios.

1225 Pickering (2014) and Pickering et al. (2017) used a fully global $1/8^\circ$ forward tidal model to
1226 assess changes in the four primary tidal constituents for MSL rise scenarios ranging from 0.5
1227 to 10 m. With fixed coastlines, they found that tidal amplitudes responded strongly in shelf
1228 seas globally, whereas simulations with coastal recession tended to result in reductions in tidal
1229 range. Therefore, coastal management strategies could potentially influence the sign of the tidal
1230 amplitude change. With 0.5 m, 1 m and 2 m MSL rise, around 10% of the 136 largest coastal
1231 cities analysed experience changes in mean high water in excess of $\pm 10\%$ of the MSL change
1232 imposed (Pickering et al., 2017).

1233 The majority of these studies have used a spatially homogeneous MSL change. When Pickering
1234 et al. (2017) introduced a spatially varying MSL change, induced by large-scale ice sheet melt
1235 of Greenland and/or West Antarctic, they found only modestly altered tidal response in low
1236 latitudes but greater differences at high latitudes. Wilmes et al. (2017) assessed how the M_2

1237 tide responds to non-uniform sea level changes induced by complete collapses of the West
1238 Antarctic and Greenland Ice Sheets. Aside from large heterogeneous changes in tides along
1239 coastlines, these simulations point to a sensitivity of the North Atlantic tides to the West
1240 Antarctic ice sheet extent. Schindelegger et al. (2018) analysed more modest future changes in
1241 the M_2 tidal constituent on a global scale with GIA-induced crustal motion and altimetric MSL
1242 trend patterns averaging 2 m. Again, they found that when allowing for flooding of new areas,
1243 M_2 amplitudes decreased in many basins. In contrast to Luz Clara et al. (2015) and Carless et
1244 al. (2016), their flooding run exhibited considerably larger sensitivity to water depth change
1245 than simulations with unaltered present-day coastlines for the Patagonian Shelf. This hints at
1246 feedback effects between shelf and basin tides which are difficult to account for in models
1247 configured for regional domains, in agreement with Arbic et al. (2009). These simulations
1248 indicate that changes in tidal amplitude occur particularly in shelf seas with increases of up to
1249 15%. A key benefit of global model simulations is their inclusion of changes in coastal tides
1250 on the shelf, in deep water and the coupled interaction between the two (and a finite element
1251 approach may be the most effective way to further examine these interactions).

1252

1253 **4.1.4 Deep-time future investigations**

1254 On long-time scales, MSL changes become a secondary effect in controlling future tides, as is
1255 the case for the past (see Section 2.1 and Green et al., 2018). The reason MSL changes evoke
1256 large responses in today's ocean is the near-resonant state of the North Atlantic – a property
1257 largely set by tectonics. MSL changes can influence the resonant properties by drying or
1258 flooding shallow shelf seas. This effectively modulates the damping of the tidal wave, with
1259 potentially large implications for the tidal system (see Egbert et al., 2004; Arbic and Garrett,
1260 2010; and Green, 2010 for discussions). When large regions of ocean are not in a (near)
1261 resonant state, changes in MSL will have limited ability to influence the tides, and any effects
1262 are mainly local. However, the present resonant state of the North Atlantic is expected to
1263 remain for the next 25 Myr, and investigating the influence of even moderate MSL rise on tides
1264 is therefore justified.

1265 **4.2 Potential implications of future changes in tide**

1266 The influence of tides is pervasive on many aspects of human activity from commerce to
1267 coastal protection to ecosystem services. As mankind moves into an era of adaptation to our
1268 changing climate, we should consider changes to tides as another factor to plan for in our
1269 adaptation strategies. We consider implications in five main areas:

- 1270 1. Coastal flooding;
- 1271 2. Energy;
- 1272 3. Sediment transport;
- 1273 4. Tidal mixing fronts; and
- 1274 5. Intertidal habitats.

1275

1276 **4.2.1 Coastal flooding**

1277 Both trends and variations in tidal levels influence extreme sea levels, and thus coastal flooding
1278 and erosion (e.g., Talke et al., 2018). Globally, up to 310 million people are at risk of coastal
1279 flooding today (Hinkel et al., 2014). Coastal flooding is already a growing threat due to MSL
1280 rise (Church et al., 2013), and changes in tidal levels will affect flood risk: tidal range, in
1281 addition to changes in MSL (Figure 10) determines extreme sea levels so tidal range
1282 amplification will increase extreme sea levels further, exacerbating flood risk (Figure 10b),

1283 while tidal range reduction will reduce it (Figure 10c). Therefore, tidal changes must be
1284 incorporated into future flood risk assessments (i.e. tidal changes should not be treated as
1285 negligible), in areas where the changes are likely large. There are two methods of including
1286 future tidal changes into estimates of extreme sea levels. The simplest is to make a linear offset
1287 to the present-day return periods in line with the projected tidal change, in the same way as is
1288 currently done to include MSL rise itself (e.g., Haigh et al., 2011b). This method assumes the
1289 surge climatology remains unaltered by the changing tide, which is a reasonable assumption
1290 (Mawdsley and Haigh, 2016; Williams et al., 2016), but may not be correct for all coasts. The
1291 second method is to simulate the tide, surge and MSL rise in a single model so that MSL-tide,
1292 tide-surge and MSL-surge interactions are all included, e.g., as done by Arns et al. (2015; 2017)
1293 for the German Bight. Future national flood assessments should include at least the first
1294 method, but it is only through downscaling from global tidal models, via the shelf, to estuarine
1295 models that estuarine tidal changes can be properly quantified. Tidal changes are very sensitive
1296 to coastal management practices along low-lying coasts, based on model scenarios that
1297 maintain fixed model coastlines or allow coastal recession with MSL rise (Pelling et al., 2013;
1298 Pickering, 2014; Pickering et al., 2017). Methods to project coastline change on 100-year
1299 timescales are therefore required; studies such as Passeri et al. (2016) are making progress on
1300 this at regional scales using Bayesian Networks and decision-making trees, and others consider
1301 both geophysical and human factors influencing accommodation space with MSL rise
1302 (Schuerch et al., 2018).

1303

1304 **4.2.2 Energy**

1305 Changes in tides will have important implications for thermal power plants and for tidal
1306 renewable energy schemes. Thermal power plants (which make up 82% of current global
1307 electricity generation) require a continuous water supply for ‘wet cooling’ purposes. Therefore,
1308 tidal range increases could lead to the exposure of the existing intakes at low water. Further
1309 analysis of future tidal levels is required to establish how significant these range changes are
1310 in terms of maintaining a consistent supply of cooling water to power stations: in most cases
1311 increases in the maximum range are less than the MSL rise itself and extension of intake pipes
1312 into deeper water is usually straightforward.

1313 Any economic Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA) to assess the suitability of a potential renewable
1314 tidal energy site should include possible long-term increases or decreases in the usable tidal
1315 energy. Certain locations (e.g., Bristol Channel and St. Malo in Pickering et al. (2012) under 2
1316 m MSL rise) show substantial (-40 to -50 cm) decreases in tidal range with future MSL rise. If
1317 these future range decreases, and associated decreases in current speed, are not considered then
1318 this could lead to overestimates of the net present value of the proposed sites. A 10% reduction
1319 in tidal amplitude would cause approximately a 3% reduction in current velocity (Pickering et
1320 al., 2017). For tidal stream power, the cubic relationship between current velocity and tidal
1321 hydraulic power density (Hardisty, 2008), would lead to a 9% reduction in power generation.
1322 For tidal barrage power, owing to the quadratic relationship between tidal amplitude and
1323 hydraulic power density (MacKay, 2008), this would lead to a 19% reduction in power
1324 generation. Clearly sites with macrotidal conditions are particularly attractive for tidal barrage
1325 energy generation projects; these large amplitudes often occur where tides in estuaries are close
1326 to resonance. However, it is these resonant locations that are especially sensitive to tidal
1327 change. Tidal stream sites, on the other hand, tend to be between islands and around headlands
1328 where tides are strong but not necessarily resonant; tides in these locations may be less sensitive
1329 to non-astronomic changes. This along with the typically shorter lifespan of tidal stream sites
1330 means they may be less affected economically by tidal change than tidal barrages.

1331

1332 **4.2.3 Sediment transport**

1333 Temporal variability of tides could lead to changes in sediment transport, with a potential to
1334 influence coastal morphology in estuaries, and therefore shipping. The magnitude of
1335 sedimentation and erosion rates is correlated to the bed shear stress and hence the square of the
1336 tidal velocity (Gerritsen and Berentsen, 1998). Consequently, even small changes in tidal range
1337 and tidal current velocities can influence coastal morphology (e.g., Chernetsky et al., 2010;
1338 Idier et al., 2017). For example, Gerritsen and Berentsen (1998) found that the MSL rise from
1339 -15 m and -5 m to present day MSL reduced the erosion in the southern North Sea and increased
1340 it in the German Bight due to altered tidal dynamics. Investigations of future effects of MSL
1341 and changes in tides come to similar conclusions; see e.g., Jensen and Mudersbach (2006) and
1342 Masselink and Russell (2013). In estuaries (Bolle et al., 2010) and coastal lagoons (Araujo et
1343 al., 2008), changes to tidal asymmetry (flood-ebb dominance) could lead to associated changes
1344 in the sediment import or export. The link between increased tidal range and increased
1345 suspended sediment concentrations (SSC) has been demonstrated for the Humber Estuary by
1346 Morris and Mitchell (2013). Also, depth changes in estuary may not be as large as the MSL
1347 rise itself because sediment may be imported or retained (rather than exported), depending on
1348 the local sediment supply. Failure of the sediment supply to match the rate of MSL rise would
1349 cause the estuary to ‘drown’ (van Goor et al., 2003) as saltmarshes and spits recede or disappear
1350 as the morphology adjusts (Masselink and Russell, 2013). Furthermore, changes to the tidal
1351 range in estuaries will alter the tidal prism, i.e., volume of water exchanged between the estuary
1352 and the coastal waters, with effects of the residence time for pollutants in the estuary (e.g.,
1353 Dyer, 1997).

1354 Many estuaries are critical arteries for the passage of shipping to major ports, stimulating local
1355 and national economies. Changes to tidal levels and to sedimentation have implications for
1356 both dredging operations and for navigation. For example, in Germany, navigation on the River
1357 Elbe is particularly dependent on water levels, with extended periods of LW reducing the length
1358 of the tidal cycle suitable for passage of deep draft vessels (Muller-Navarra and Bork, 2011).
1359 Plans to manage the sediment transport patterns in the Elbe could be hampered by increased
1360 tidal ranges (von Storch and Woth, 2008). Winterwerp (2013) examined the tidal range
1361 evolution over the last century at five European ports with long narrow channels, where
1362 dredging and canalization has led to substantial (order meters) increases in tidal range. These
1363 increased tidal ranges have caused problems with salt water intrusion, water quality, and
1364 increased turbidity, causing catastrophic changes in the local ecology (Winterwerp, 2013). A
1365 further deepening of an estuary could further exacerbate ecological problems. Many ports, such
1366 as Amsterdam in the Netherlands, are dependent on extensive lock systems as well as discharge
1367 sluices and pumping stations to create safe passage for shipping and to manage the landward
1368 water levels (Swinkels et al., 2010). Some docks have very narrow tolerances for vessel draft
1369 over the dock sills or limited clearance under bridges. Consequently, changes to tidal range, on
1370 top of a change in MSL, could change the length of the window of opportunity where safe
1371 passage could be made to the ports, as well as affecting the volume of water able to be
1372 discharged through sluices.

1373

1374 **4.2.4 Tidal mixing fronts**

1375 Changes in tides could affect processes in shelf seas, which will influence primary production
1376 and fishers. Primary productivity is high in the seasonally stratified areas of shallow shelf seas
1377 due to the vertical mixing induced by (internal) tides (e.g., Sharples et al., 2007). The
1378 stratification of the water column in shelf seas plays an important role in primary productivity
1379 and hence draw down of atmospheric CO₂ through the biological carbon pump (Thomas et al.,
1380 2004). The position of tidal mixing fronts, which separate stratified and well-mixed waters, can

1381 be determined by the Simpson and Hunter criteria (1974): $c=H/U^3$. Fronts in temperate shelf
1382 seas tend to sit on contours of $c=500$, and even small changes in tidal current amplitudes thus
1383 have the potential to alter the position of tidal mixing fronts (Pickering, 2014; Carless et al.,
1384 2016; Wilmes et al., 2017), although to some extent small increases in U may be offset by the
1385 increased water depth. In areas with high freshwater runoff, changes to tidal mixing will also
1386 influence the buoyancy-stirring competition that determines regions of freshwater influence;
1387 future stratification will depend on alterations to estuarine discharge of freshwater (due to
1388 increased precipitation) and changes to the tidal and wind mixing. Changes in stratification also
1389 directly affect primary production in coastal seas (Sharples, 2008), which may have
1390 implications for higher trophic levels such as fish and apex predators that depend on seasonal
1391 phytoplankton blooms (Scott et al., 2010, 2013; Embling et al., 2012). For example, some
1392 species of crustacean are extremely sensitive to the position of tidal mixing fronts: the
1393 Norwegian Lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*) exhibits larval retention over an area of muddy
1394 substrate for settlement and during the post-larval stage for burrowing (Hill et al., 1996). Any
1395 change in the baroclinic flows that retain the larvae could have a detrimental effect on the
1396 stocks of *Nephrops* which have an estimated value of £10 million yr^{-1} to the Irish economies
1397 (Seafish, 2007) and £84 million to the Scottish economy (Scottish Government, 2012).

1398 Another consequence of altered tides is that changes in the tidal driven mixing., especially in
1399 the abyssal ocean, has the potential to modify the strength of the global meridional overturning
1400 circulation (MOC) with ramifications for global climate (e.g., Green et al., 2009). However, no
1401 investigations have yet shown a link between future change in tides and changes to the MOC,
1402 but large-scale changes of paleo-tides have possibly influenced the MOC (e.g., Munk and Bills,
1403 2007; Schmittner et al, 2015; Green and Huber, 2013)

1404

1405 **4.2.5 Intertidal habitats**

1406 Coastal habitats on rocky shores, estuaries and saltmarshes are all strongly influenced by tidal
1407 conditions (Pugh, 1987), and changes in the MSL and MTR may therefore have implications
1408 for species which live in the intertidal zone. MSL rise will shift the intertidal zone inshore and
1409 changes in MTR will alter the spatial extent of the littoral zone, the current speeds, the bed
1410 type, the emersion/submersion curves and the position of areas exposed during daylight. The
1411 natural response of estuaries to MSL rise is landward migration, and although coastal defenses
1412 may temporarily prevent this, the seaward edge of marshes and lower part of the intertidal zone
1413 would still erode, leading to a narrowing of the intertidal zone known as coastal squeeze
1414 (Masselink and Russell, 2013). In such cases, managed realignment of the coastal flood
1415 defences will be required if the intertidal habitat is to be maintained (Schuerch et al., 2018).
1416 Coastal squeeze will become a particular problem along coastlines with hard engineering
1417 schemes. For example, the Dutch and German Wadden Sea is a Ramsar wetland of international
1418 importance (1987) and a UNESCO world heritage site (2009). Substantial changes to the MSL
1419 and tidal range could have large impacts on these flat intertidal habitats, which are home to
1420 over 10,000 species of flora and fauna and a haven for 10-12 million migratory birds every
1421 year. The importance of tidal range in coastal marshes for feeding of wading birds is well
1422 established (Piersma et al. 2005). Coastal squeeze and reduced tidal range could also lead to
1423 the removal of nursery habitats in high velocity environments for macrobenthic fauna such as
1424 juvenile flatfish (Rabaut et al., 2013).

1425 Other diverse habitats, such as mangroves, saltmarshes, and corals, which are all engineered
1426 by their inhabitants (Bertness, 2008) could be negatively impacted if MSL rise and tidal
1427 changes occurs faster than the biology can keep pace. The settling and survival of mangrove
1428 and saltmarsh seedlings depends on short, disturbance-free periods in order for roots to
1429 develop. Altered tidal dynamics could change the duration of these windows of opportunity.

1430 Seedling establishment at lower intertidal elevations is dependent on there being inundation-
1431 free periods which would also be reduced by MSL rise and reduced tidal range (Balke, 2013).
1432 An additional implication of habitat loss in the coastal zone (e.g., mangroves) is the loss of
1433 their natural contribution to coastal flood defences, and beaches where landward migration or
1434 increased erosion occurs may lead to mitigation attempts through beach nourishment programs,
1435 resulting in steeper beach slopes, and loss of subtidal and intertidal habitats.

1436 **5. Conclusions and a way forward**

1437 This review has highlighted the considerable evidence that tidal amplitudes have changed, and
1438 are continuing to change, due to non-astronomical factors. Over longer geological timescales
1439 it has been argued that variations in tides were driven by tectonic changes, which affected basin
1440 size and shape and hence the resonant properties of the basins. On shorter geological time-
1441 scales, however, changes in tides were mainly due to variations in water depth, driven by large
1442 MSL fluctuations associated with glacial and inter-glacial cycles, and due to the extent of
1443 icesheets. Over the 19th, 20th and early 21st centuries, changes in tides are evident from water
1444 level records, with measured rates exceeding by far predictions related to orbital mechanics.
1445 Initially, these changes were observed at individual tide gauge sites and were thought to have
1446 arisen as a result of local natural and anthropogenic factors. However, a growing number of
1447 studies over the last decade have identified widespread, sometimes regionally-coherent,
1448 positive and negative trends in tidal constituents and levels that cannot be attributed to local
1449 mechanisms alone.

1450 It has proved difficult to associate observed changes in tide over the instrumental period with
1451 particular forcing factors because the knowledge of past changes in tide is based on tide gauge
1452 measurements, which are affected by both local and regional mechanisms. We have highlighted
1453 six main factors that can cause changes in measured tidal statistics on local scales: (1)
1454 dissipation and turbulent mixing; (2) depth of channels and flats; (3) surface area, width, and
1455 convergence; (4) resonance and reflection; (5) river flow; and (6) changes in instrumentation.
1456 We have discussed a further eight possible regional/global driving mechanisms: (1) tectonics;
1457 (2) water depth; (3) shoreline position; (4) extent of (sea-)ice coverage; (5) sea-bed roughness;
1458 (6) ocean stratification and internal tides; (7) non-linear interactions (frictional or triad); and
1459 (8) radiational forcing. However, since only a few studies have combined observations and
1460 models, or modelled at a temporal/spatial resolution capable of resolving both ultra-local and
1461 large-scale global changes, the individual contributions from local and regional mechanisms
1462 remain uncertain. It is thought that changes in water depth, due to climate-related MSL rise and
1463 isostatic crustal adjustments, does contribute to the recent observed change in tides. However,
1464 any link between tidal variability and MSL is far from a one-to-one correspondence, and local
1465 factors such as navigational development are clearly dominant in many ports. One might hope
1466 that progress in understanding tidal changes at seasonal and other timescales might lead also
1467 to greater understanding of longer-term changes, but the relationship between MSL variations
1468 and tidal fluctuations is often dependent on time scale. For instance, tidal range and MSL at
1469 San Francisco both show positive, century-scale trends (not necessarily causally related), while
1470 the two are negatively correlated on seasonal scales (Devlin et al., 2017a). This example
1471 emphasizes the importance of determining whether MSL and tidal trends are causally or
1472 incidentally related. Fortunately, modelling studies are beginning to make significant progress
1473 in isolating and assessing the importance of some of the complex suite of mechanisms
1474 influencing the observed tidal signal.

1475 Over the last decade, modelling studies have presented projections of future tidal changes over
1476 the 21st century and beyond with changes in water depth, driven by MSL rise, and other factors

1477 (e.g., ice-sheet extent and, to some extent, ocean warming). This body of work demonstrates
1478 that regionally-coherent increases/decreases in the tide are likely to occur, over the next
1479 centuries in response to MSL rise, changes in coastal morphology, and variations in ice-sheet
1480 extents. These tidal changes will particularly affect shelf seas, and coastal waters. Changes are
1481 likely to be smaller than $\pm 15\%$ of MSL rise along most coastlines, however, at specific (often
1482 resonant) locations they can be larger.

1483 Efforts to directly compare and contrast modelling studies on future tidal characteristics are
1484 complicated by differences in numerical software across studies, boundary conditions,
1485 configuration settings, horizontal resolutions, forcing tidal constituents, MSL rise scenarios,
1486 and analytical tidal metrics. In particular, model predictions are very sensitive to how the
1487 coastline is represented in the model set up, especially in regions with low or moderate
1488 terrestrial topographic gradients where the basins are near resonance. Decisions about
1489 boundary conditions (e.g., river flow/buoyancy input) are also likely important. More
1490 modelling studies in these areas are clearly warranted.

1491 Accurate assessment of the spatial patterns of past changes in tides has been severely limited,
1492 in many regions, by the scarcity of long (>18 years) high-frequency tide gauge records. Hence,
1493 there is a need to continue to increase the number of sea level records available for analysis,
1494 maintain those that exist, and improve their spatial distribution (e.g., in the Southern
1495 Hemisphere). Work has already begun to extend the global tide gauge dataset via a Version 3
1496 update of the GESLA (Global Extreme Sea Level Analysis) database (Woodworth et al., 2017).
1497 Furthermore, we urge the community to continue to extend and improve historic datasets via
1498 data archaeology. Improved methods and expanded networks are also needed to acquire
1499 complementary information on changes in internal tides, and all the parameters likely to be
1500 associated with tidal changes on a regional/global basis.

1501 Finally, we stress that the changes in tides predicted to occur this century and beyond are of a
1502 significant magnitude along certain stretches of coastline. Consequently, they should be
1503 accounted for in future national and international impact assessments of sea level change.

1504

1505

1506 **Acknowledgments**

1507 We would like to thank Richard Ray and an anonymous reviewer for their insightful comments
1508 that greatly strengthened this paper. IDH acknowledges funding from the Natural
1509 Environmental Research Council (grant NE/P009069/1) which also partially supported MDP
1510 and this project has received funding from the *European Research Council (ERC) under the*
1511 *European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme* under grant agreement
1512 No 759677. JAMG acknowledges funding from the Natural Environmental Research Council
1513 (grants NE/F014821/1 and NE/I030208/1). BKA acknowledges support from the US National
1514 Science Foundation, under CAREER award OCE-0351837. TH was supported by the Met
1515 Office Hadley Centre Climate Programme funded by BEIS and Defra. MS thanks the Austrian
1516 Science Fund (FWF) for financial support under grant P30097-N29. SD acknowledges the
1517 German Science Foundation (DFG) for financial support of the project TIDEDYN. DI
1518 acknowledges BRGM and the ECLISEA project which is part of ERA4CS, an ERA-NET
1519 initiated by JPI Climate with co-funding by the European Union (Grant 690462). SAT was
1520 funded by the US National Science Foundation, CAREER award 1455350. SBW was
1521 supported through the National Science Foundation grant OCE-1559153. MDP would like to
1522 dedicate this work to his late grandfather Peter W. Bishop.

1523

1524 **Data availability statement**

1525 No datasets are analysed directly in this paper.

1526

1527 **Glossary**

1528 This glossary has been adapted from Pugh and Woodworth (2014).

1529

1530 **Amphidrome:** a point in the sea where there is zero tidal amplitude due to cancelling of tidal
1531 waves. Co-tidal lines radiate from an amphidromic point and co-range lines encircle it.

1532

1533 **Internal tides:** tidal waves which propagate at density differences within the ocean. They
1534 travel slowly compared with surface gravity waves and have wavelengths of only a few tens of
1535 kilometres, but they can have amplitudes at depth of tens of metres. Their sea surface height
1536 signals are smaller, typically of order 1-5 cm. The associated internal currents are termed
1537 baroclinic motions.

1538

1539 **Mean sea level:** the average height of the sea over longer periods of time (usually a month or
1540 year). Hence the shorter-term sea level variations (e.g., waves, tides, storm surges) are filtered
1541 out.

1542

1543 **Mean high water:** the average of all the high-water heights observed over a particular period,
1544 usually a year.

1545

1546 **Mean low water:** the average of all the low-water heights observed over a particular period,
1547 usually a year.

1548

1549 **Mean tidal range:** the difference between monthly or annual Mean High Water and Mean
1550 Low Water.

1551

1552 **Overtides:** a harmonic tidal component which has a speed that is an exact multiple of the speed
1553 of one development of the tide-producing force.

1554

1555 **Radiational tides:** tides generated by regular periodic meteorological forcing.

1556

1557 **Resonance:** The phenomenon of the large amplitudes which occur when a physical system is
1558 forced at its natural period of oscillation. Tidal resonance occurs when the natural period of an
1559 ocean or sea is close to the period of the tidal forcing.

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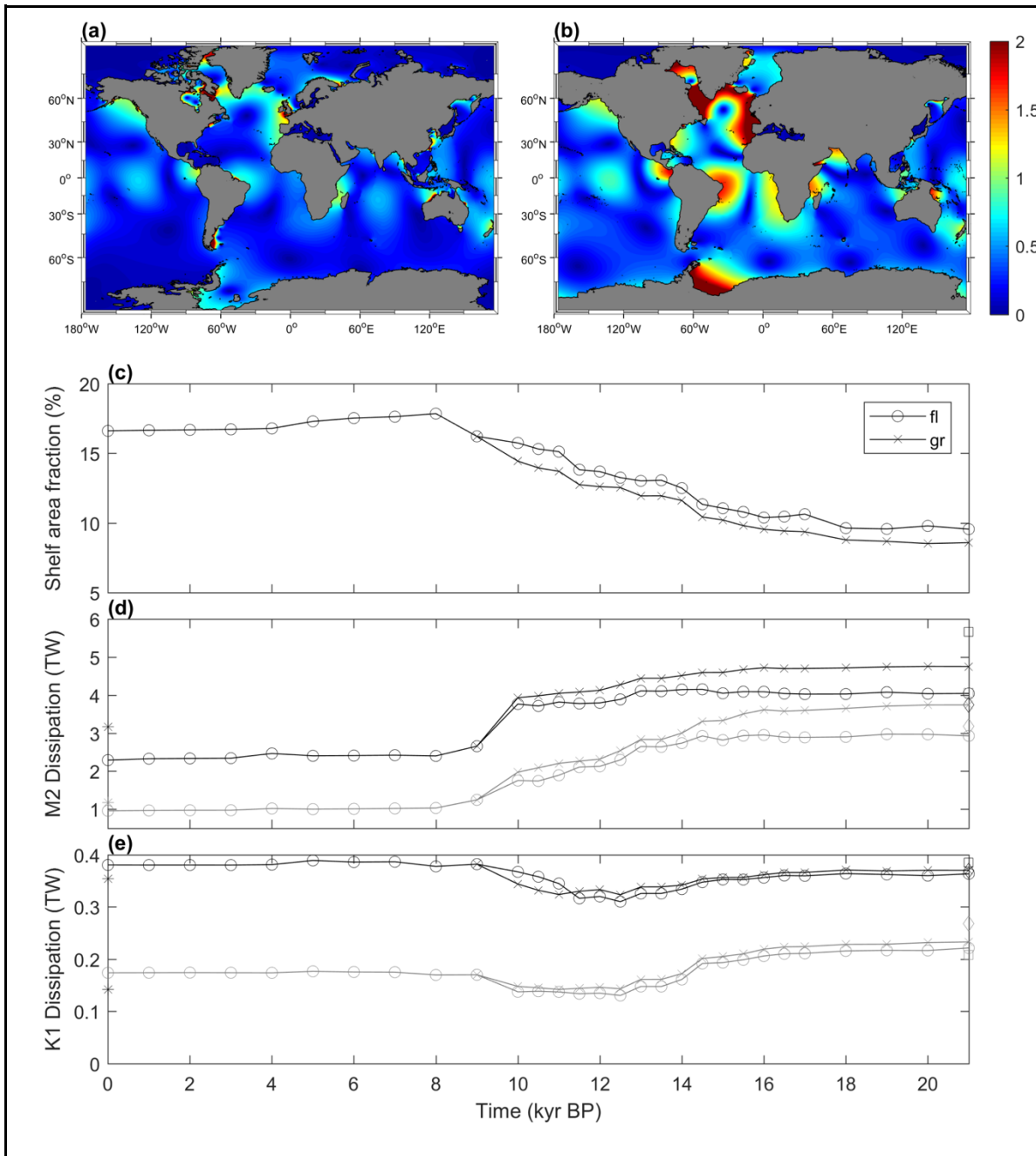


Figure 1: M₂ tidal amplitudes for (a) present-day and (b) LGM (21 kyr BP). (c) Shelf area fraction throughout the deglacial period allowing for grounded ('gr', crosses) and floating Antarctic ice shelves ('fl', circles). (d) M₂ tidal dissipation throughout the deglacial. Black lines denote total dissipation, grey lines deep (water depth > 500 m) dissipation. For 21 kyr BP the squares (diamonds) denote sensitivity experiments with stronger (weaker) stratification and for 0 kyr BP the stars show the effect of a more extensive Antarctic Ice Sheet at present. Adapted from Wilmes and Green (2014), Figures 2, 4 and 7.

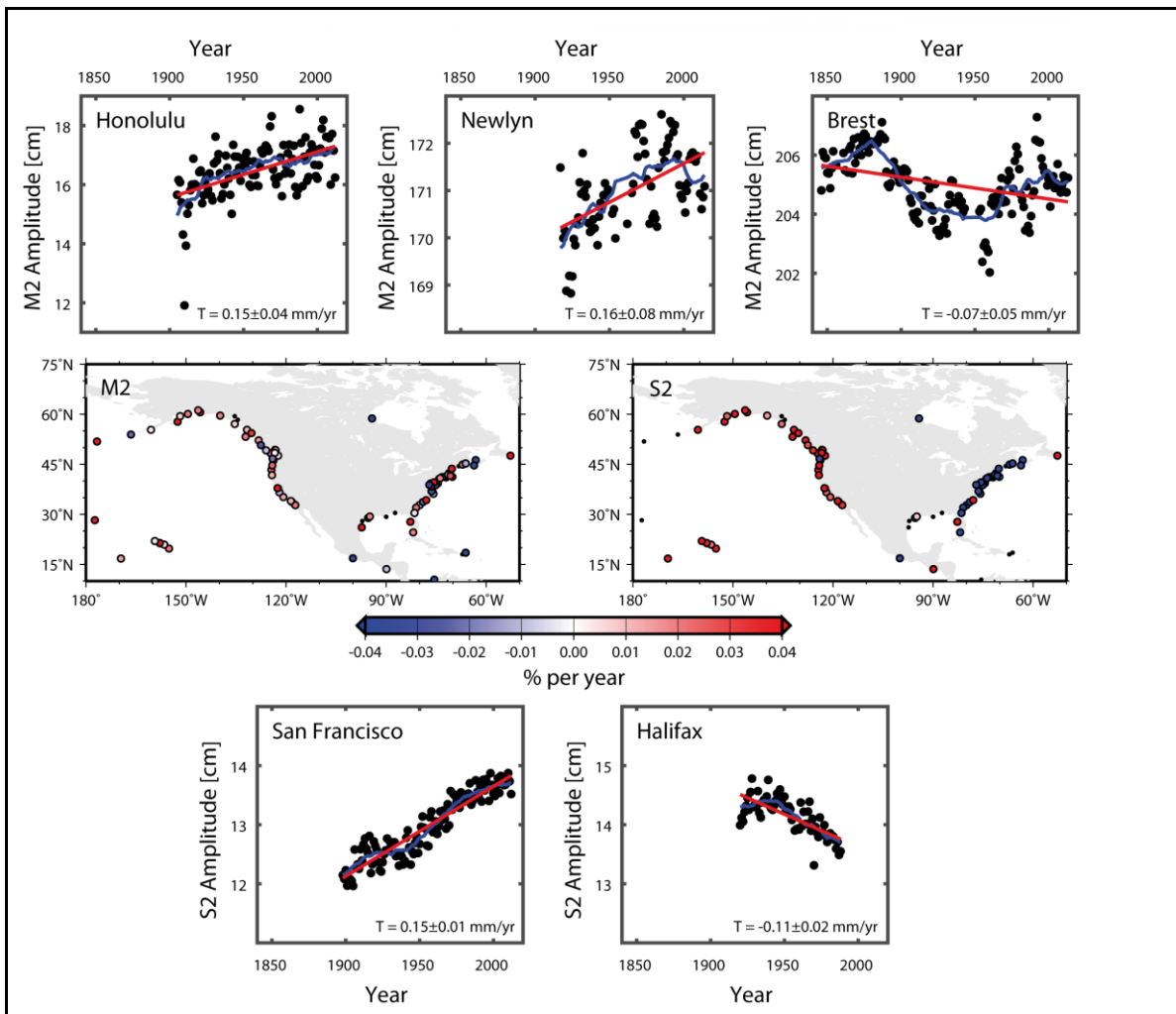


Figure 2: Maps showing percentage changes in M_2 and S_2 tidal constituent amplitudes (middle row) from tide gauge records, with M_2 amplitude time-series changes shown at three sites (Honolulu, US; Newlyn, UK; and Brest, France; upper row) and S_2 amplitude time-series changes shown at two sites (San Francisco, US and Halifax, Canada; lower row). Note, linear trends are shown in red and 19 year moving averages in blue.

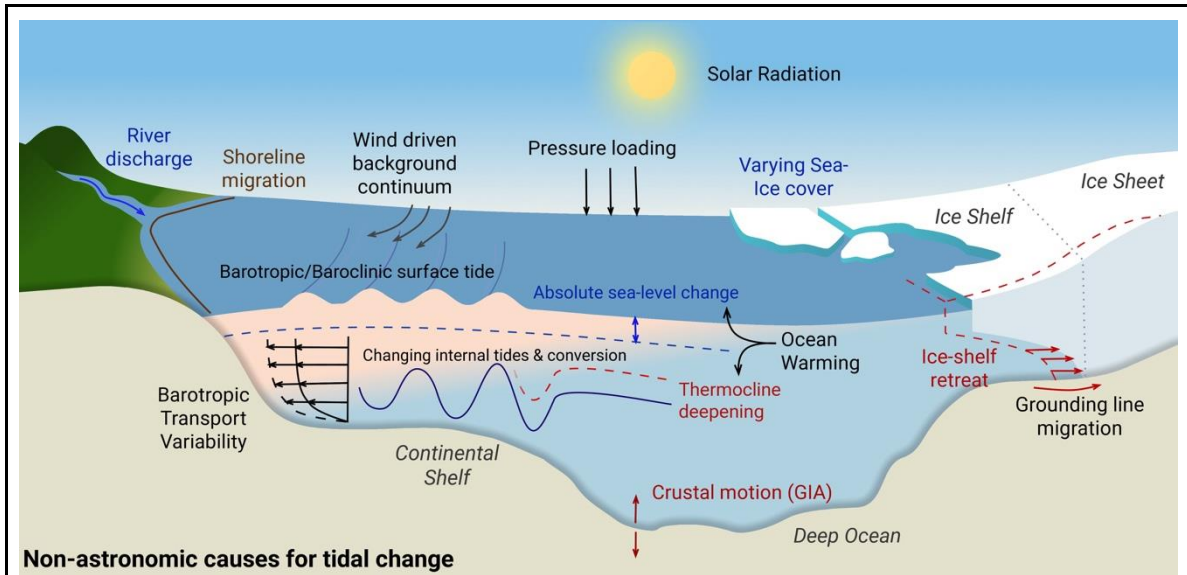
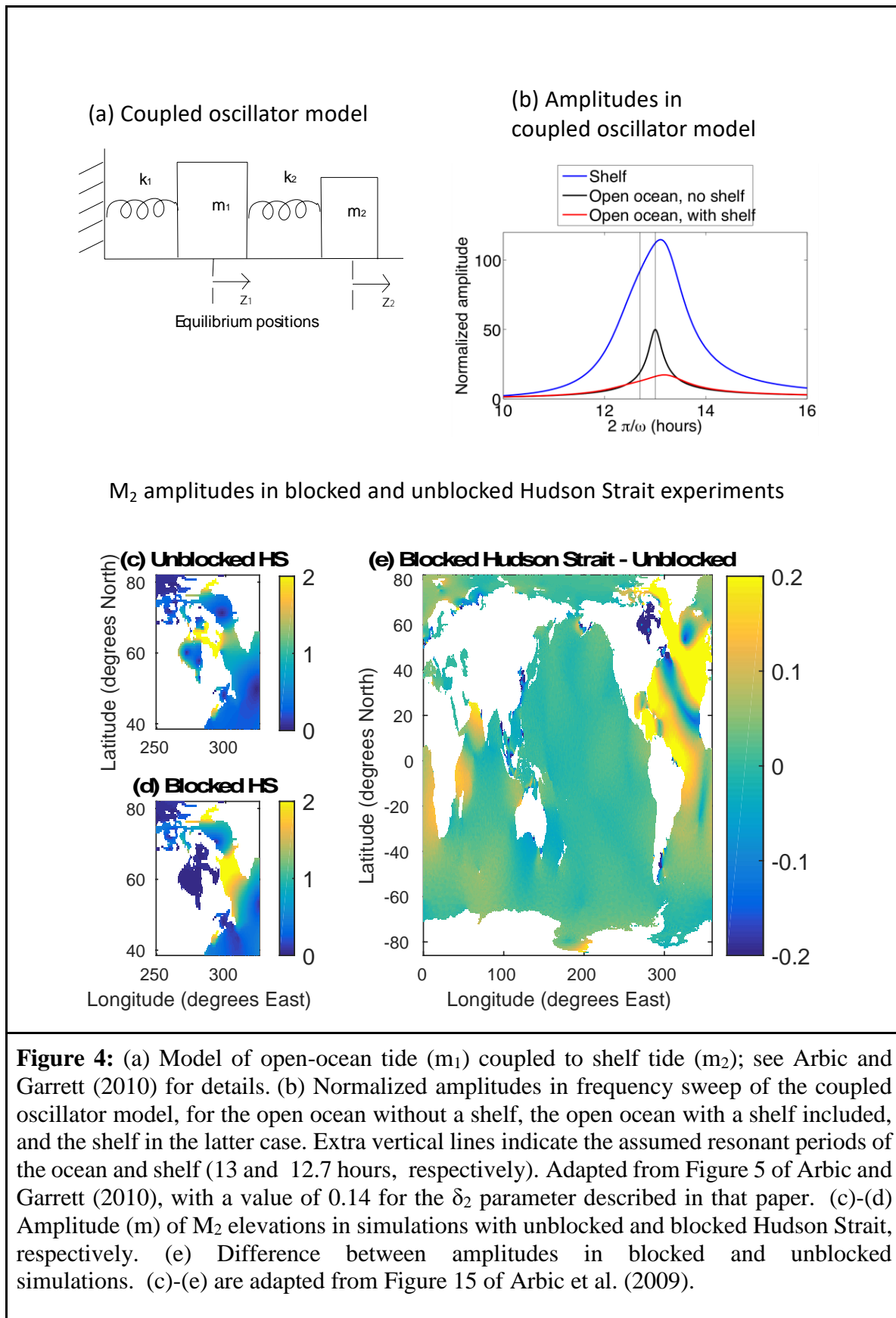


Figure 3: Illustration of the range of possible driving mechanisms have been proposed to explain long-term secular changes in the tides on regional/global scale.

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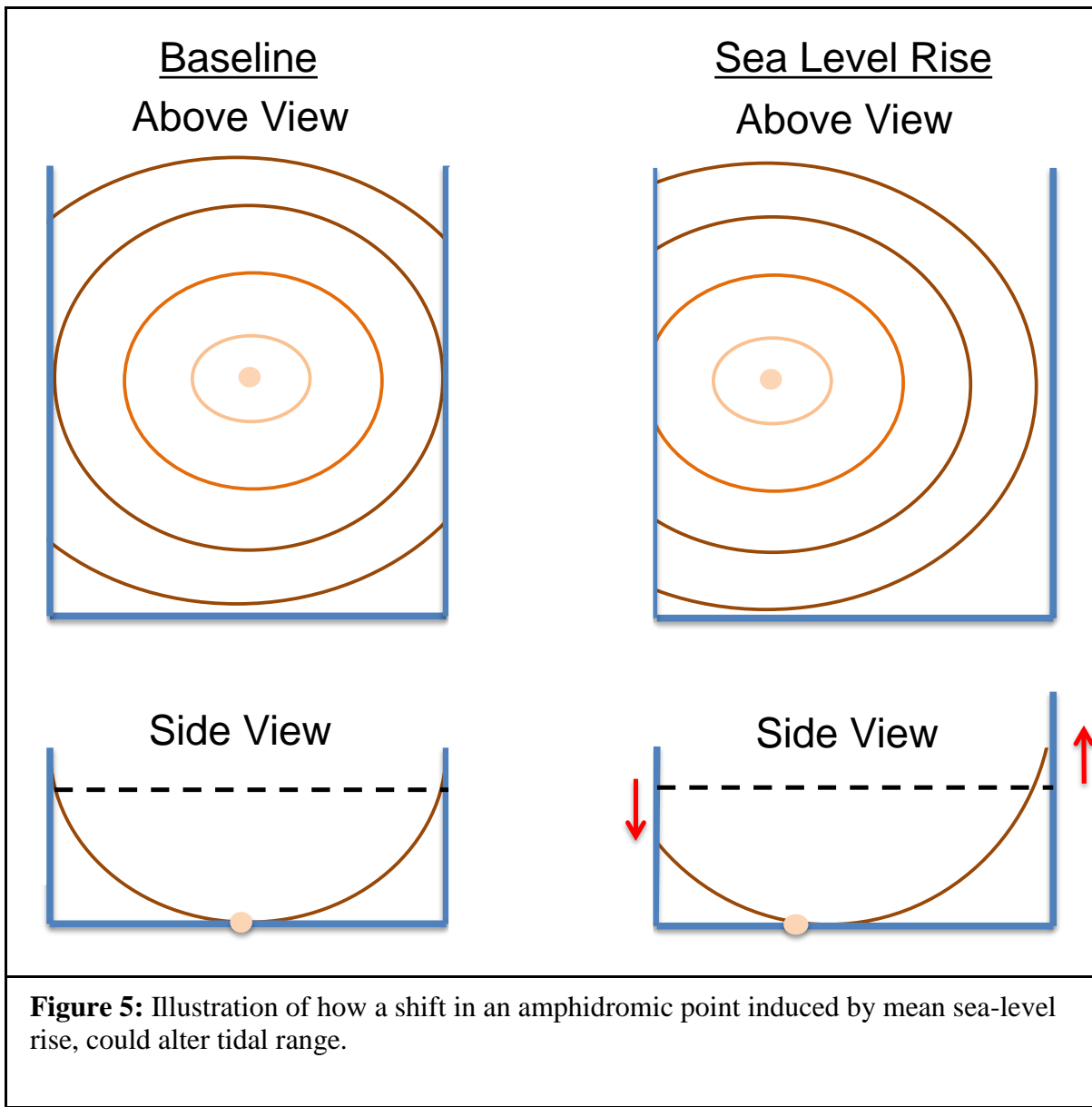


Figure 5: Illustration of how a shift in an amphidromic point induced by mean sea-level rise, could alter tidal range.

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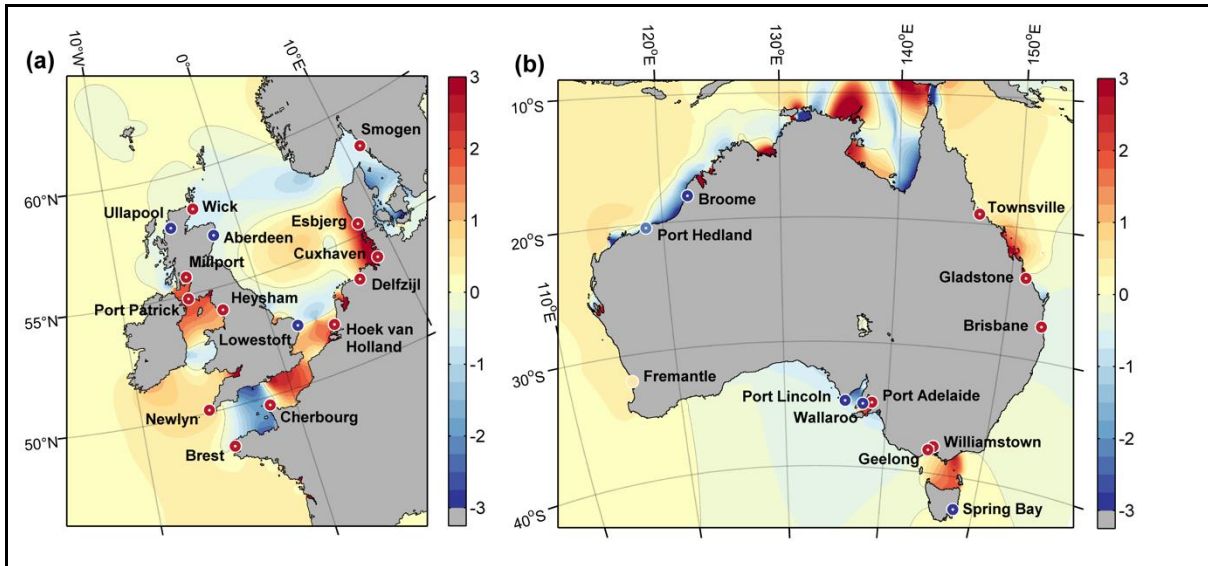


Figure 6: Modelled response of M_2 amplitudes (cm, colour-filled contours) to a 0.5 m, spatially non-uniform increase in global MSL and comparisons with observations at 15 tide gauges on the European Shelf and 12 tide gauges in the coastal waters of Australia. Simulations were conducted with a quasi-global $1/20^\circ$ barotropic model and changes in water depth representing both GIA-induced crustal motion and absolute sea level trends from satellite altimetry. Colours of the tide gauge markers show measured M_2 changes in cm per 0.5 m of local MSL rise; see Schindelegger et al. (2018) for details.

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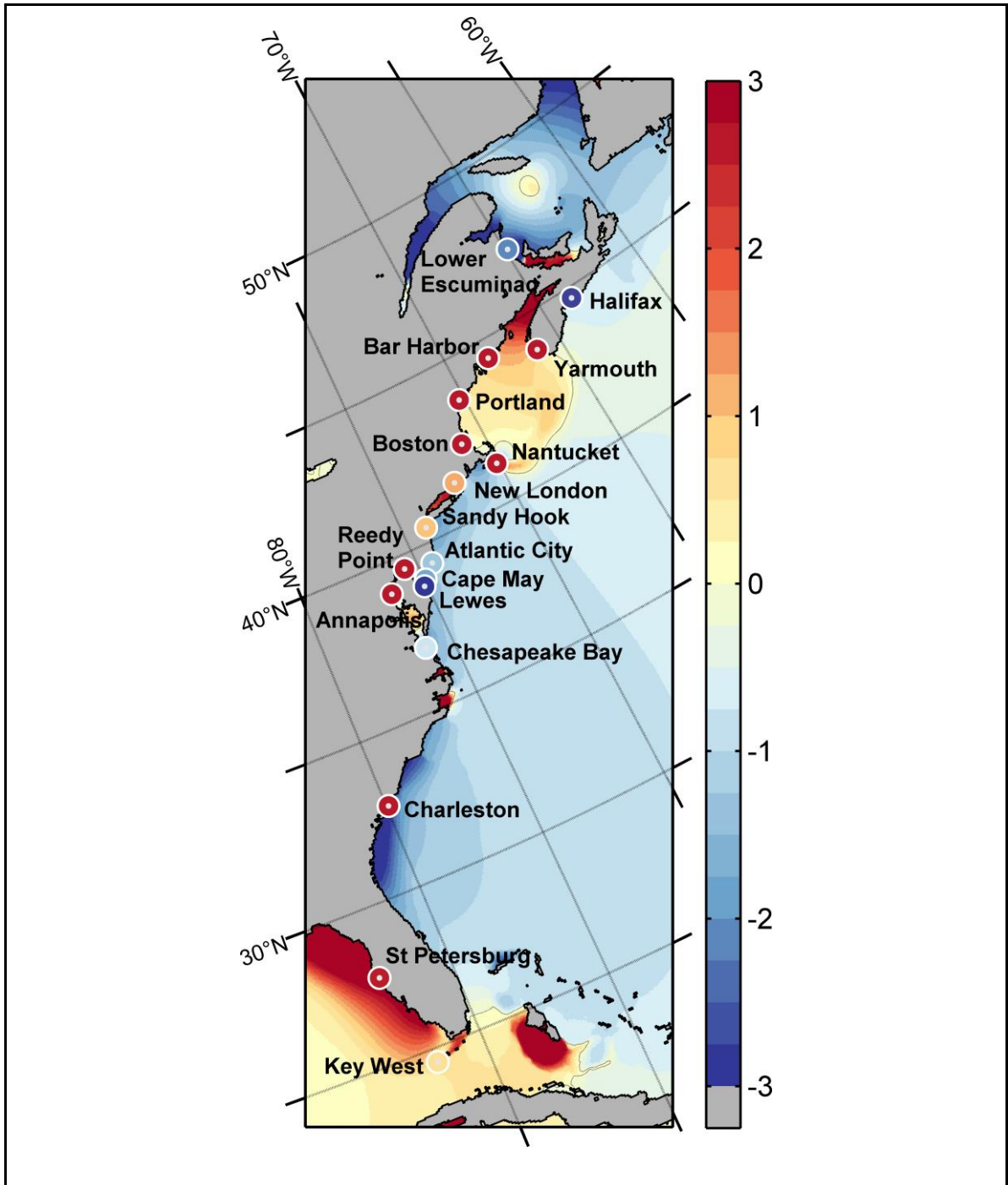
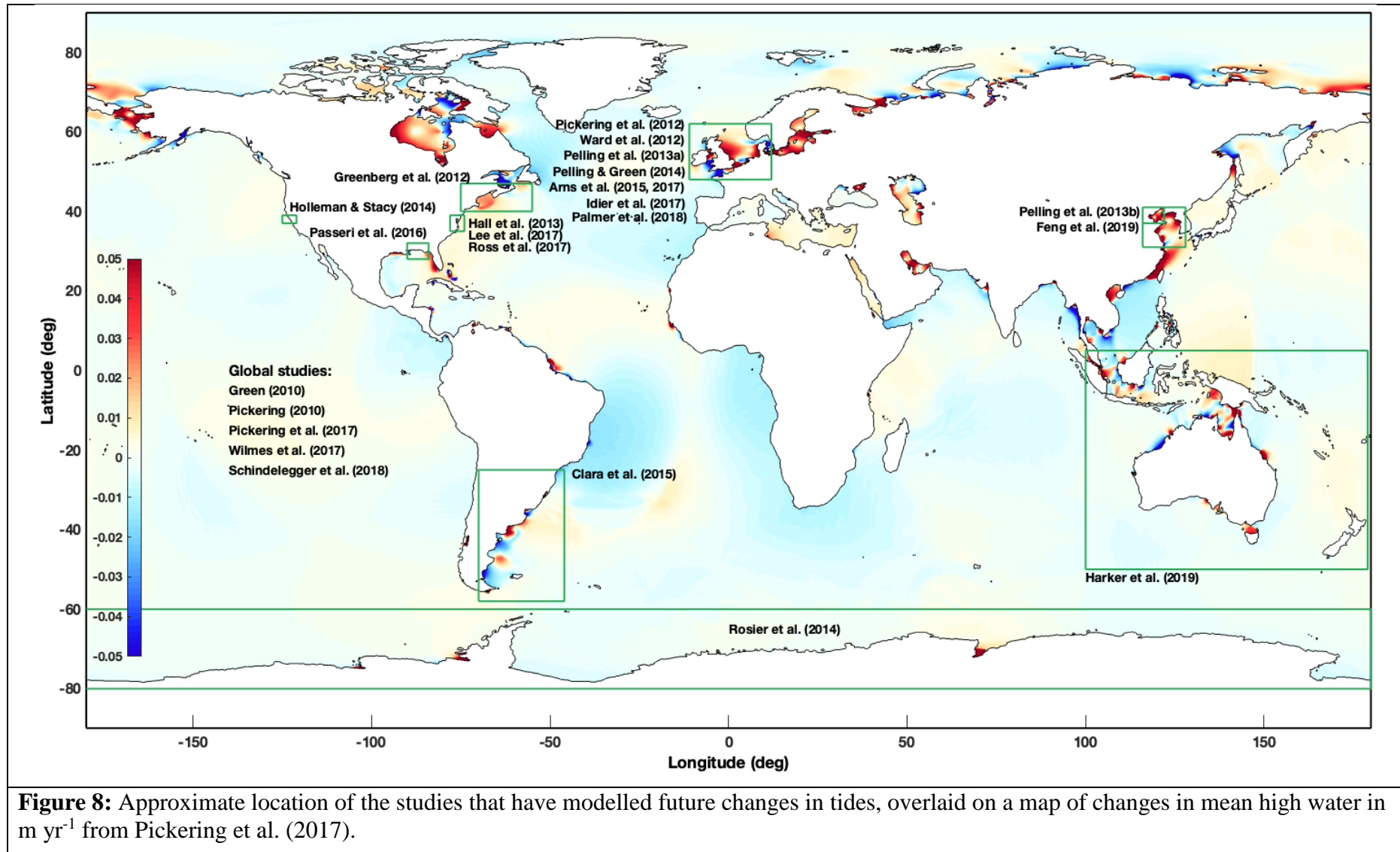


Figure 7: Modelled and observed M₂ amplitude changes (cm) as in Figure 4 but for the East coasts of Canada and the US, accommodating a selection of 17 tide gauges; cf. Schindelegger et al. (2018)

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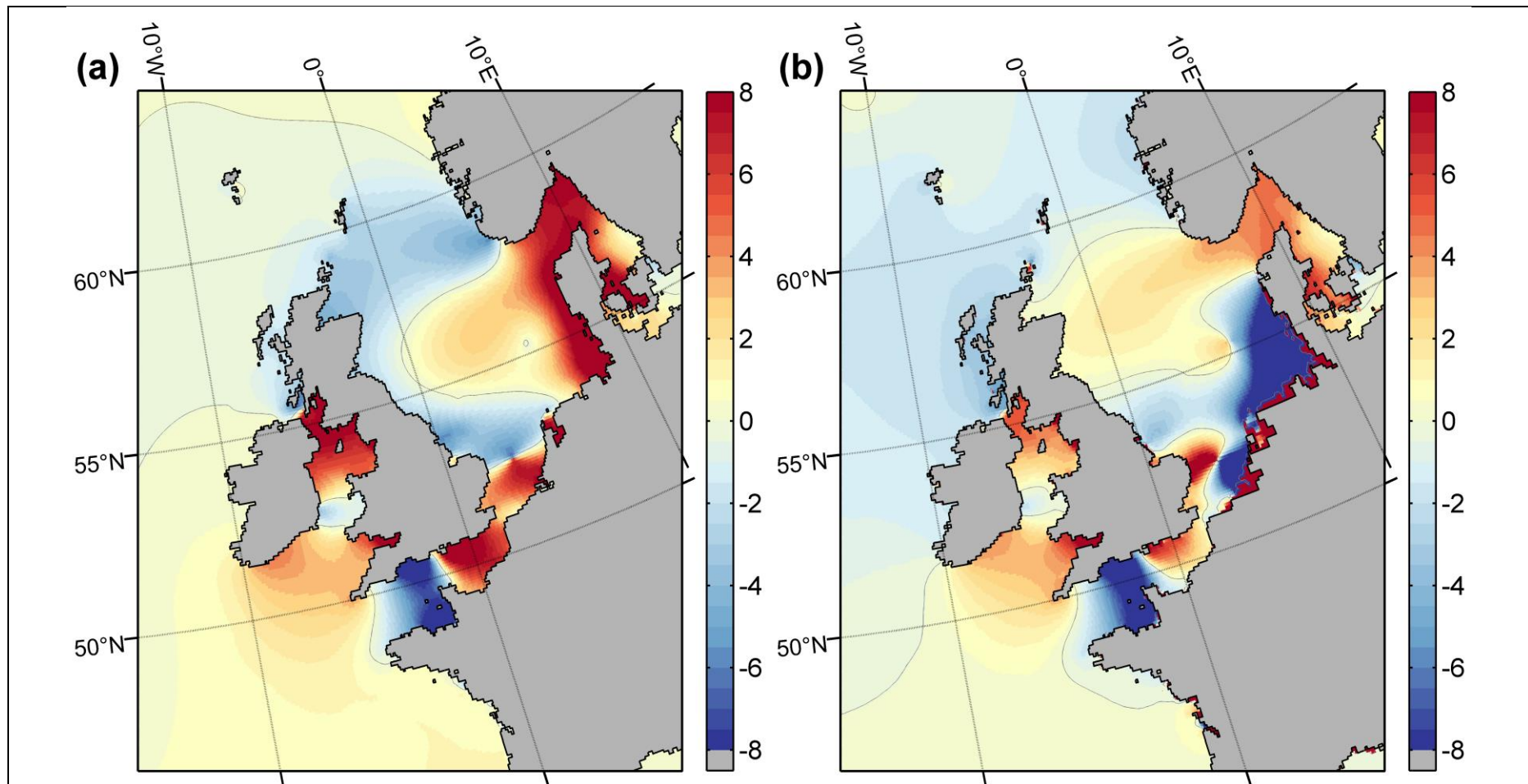


Figure 9: Modelled M_2 amplitude changes (cm) on the NW European Shelf with spatially varying water depth changes averaging 2 m, assuming: (a) invariant present-day coastlines, and (b) inundation of low-lying topography. Modified from Schindelegger et al. (2018). Results were obtained from global $1/12^\circ$ tidal simulations with bathymetry adjustments constructed from altimetric sea level trends and GIA predictions.

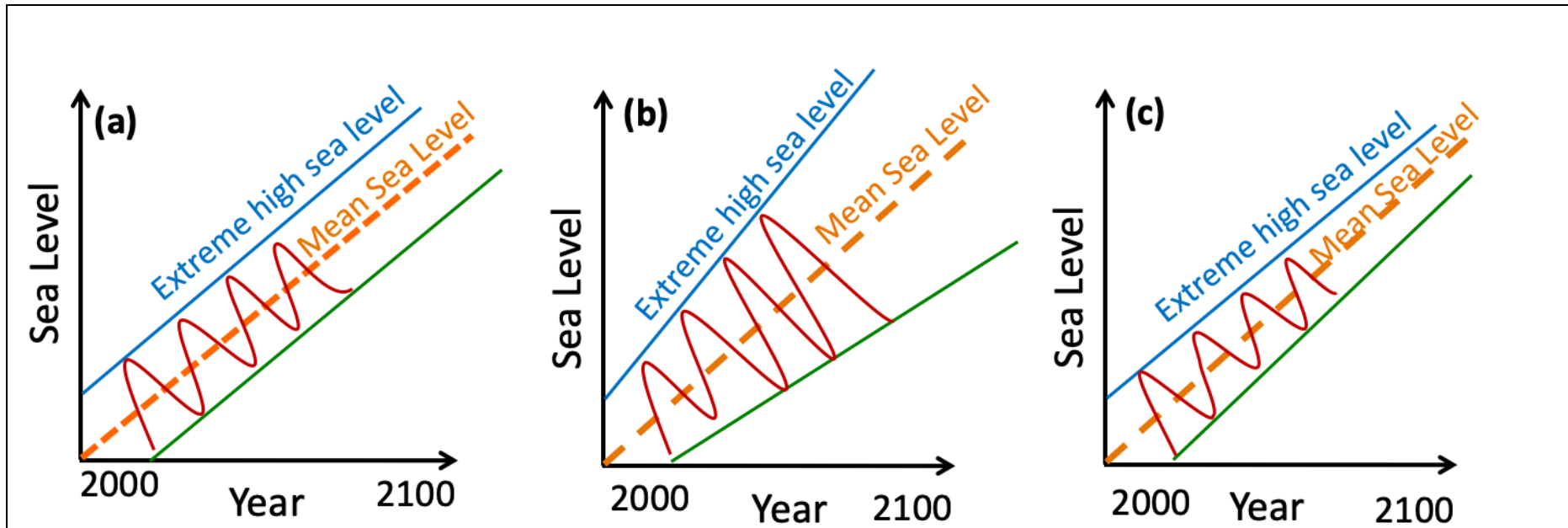


Figure 10: Diagram illustrating increases in flood risk with rises in mean sea level with: (a) no change in tidal range; (b) increases in tidal range which amplifies flood risk; and (c) decreases in tidal range which reduces the increase in flood risk relative to the other scenarios. Effects of land-level movements are in addition (e.g., coastal subsidence will increase rates of mean sea-level rise) and transient weather driven components of coastal flooding such as storm surge are superimposed on these baseline changes.