

1 Modelling dependence and coincidence of storm surges and high 2 tide: Methodology and simplified case study in Le Havre (France)

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8 **Abstract.** Coastal facilities such as nuclear power plants (NPPs) have to be designed to withstand extreme weather
9 conditions and must, in particular, be protected against coastal floods because it is the most important source of
10 coastal lowlands inundations. Indeed, considering the combination of tide and extreme storm surges (SSs) is a key
11 issue in the evaluation of the risk associated to coastal flooding hazard. Most existing studies are generally based
12 on the assumption that high tides and extreme SSs are independent. While there are several approaches to analyze
13 and characterize coastal flooding hazard with either extreme SSs or sea levels, only few studies propose and
14 compare several approaches combining the tide density with the SS variable. Thus this study aims to develop a
15 method for modelling dependence and coincidence of SSs and high tide. In this work, we have used existing
16 methods for tide and SS combination and tried to improve the results by proposing a new alternative approach
17 while showing the limitations and advantages of each method. Indeed, in order to estimate extreme sea levels, the
18 classic joint probability method (JPM) is used by making use of a convolution between tide and the skew storm
19 surge (SSS). Another statistical indirect analysis using the maximum instantaneous storm surge (MSS) is proposed
20 in this paper as an alternative to the first method with the SSS variable. A direct frequency analysis using the
21 extreme total sea level is also used as a reference method. The question we are trying to answer in this paper is
22 then the coincidence and dependency essential for a combined tide and SS hazard analysis. The city of Le Havre in
23 France was used as a case study. Overall, the example has shown that the return levels (RLs) estimates using the
24 MSS variable are quite different from those obtained with of the method using the SSSs, with acceptable
25 uncertainty. Furthermore, the shape parameter is negative form all the methods with a much heavier tail when the
26 SSS and the extreme sea levels (ESLs) are used as variables of interest.

27 **Key-words:** Coastal flooding, Combination, Joint Probability Method, Convolution, Dependence, Coincidence

28 1. Introduction

29 Like any other urban facilities, Nuclear Power Plants (NPPs) can be subject to external influences and aggressions
30 such as extreme environmental events (river and/or marine flooding, heat spells, etc.). Both nuclear and urban
31 facilities have to be designed to withstand extreme weather conditions. During the last few decades, France has
32 experienced several violent storms (the great storm of 1987, Lothar and Martin cyclone in 1999, Klaus in 2009 and
33 Xynthia in 2010, for instance) that gave rise to exceptional SSs. Many coastal facilities was partially or completely
34 flooded when storm Martin struck the French coast in 1999. A combination of an exceptional SS, of a high tide
35 and high waves induced by strong winds led to the overflow of many dikes which were not designed for such a
36 concomitance of events. In the nuclear safety field for instance, a guide to protection, including some fundamental
37 changes in the assessment of flood risks, has therefore been produced by the Nuclear Safety Authority (ASN,

38 2013). However, to be conservative, approaches used in the guide are deterministic which do not take into account
39 all the local specificities of each site. The safety demonstration and protections are periodically reviewed to ensure
40 compliance with the increased safety requirements. The present work could be used to enrich safety verification
41 approaches, by proposing other approaches and confronting them to the reference method currently used in the
42 guide. To supplement knowledge which can be acquired from the deterministic method, the probabilistic approach
43 has been identified as an effective tool for assessing risk associated with hazards as well as for estimating
44 uncertainties.

45 The first probabilistic study in the nuclear safety field was conducted in the United States in 1975 (US-NRC,
46 1975). This report focused on estimating the probability of occurrence of meltdown accidents with associated
47 radiological consequences. Currently, probabilistic approaches are applied in several fields such as medicine,
48 chemical industry, insurance and aeronautics. Many studies have already been conducted for the seismic hazard
49 (IAEA, 1993; Beauval, 2003; Gupta, 2007), the tsunami hazard (IRSN, 2015), and other climatic hazards such as
50 tornadoes (US-NRC, 2007). There are not many probabilistic studies yet in the fields of climate and
51 hydrometeorology, as it is an approach barely used. In fact, very few researches and developments are explicitly
52 referred by their authors as conclusive and operational. Probabilistic Flood Hazard Assessment (PFHA) is
53 identified by Bensi and Kanney (2015) as a first step in a Probabilistic Risk Assessment (PRA). According to the
54 authors, it is an evaluation of the probabilities that one or more parameters representing the severity of the external
55 flood (water level, duration, and associated effects) are exceeded in a site of interest. Also, the authors discuss the
56 joint probability method (JPM) as an alternative to existing deterministic and statistical methods such as the
57 Empirical Simulation Technique (EST). Kügel (2013) proposed a methodology for characterizing the external
58 flood hazard for nuclear sites located alongside rivers and the articulation of this Hazard study with a flooding
59 Probabilistic Safety Assessment (PSA).

60 It is a common belief today that the probability of failure, over an infrastructure lifetime is one of the most
61 important pieces of information an engineer can communicate. The estimation of the probability of exceeding an
62 extreme event should be based on the combination of all flood sources (e.g. Pluvial, fluvial and coastal floods)
63 which are most often dependent because they are induced by the same storm. Mostly, a flood phenomenon can be
64 characterized by several explanatory variables, some of which are correlated. The problem of the surge-tide
65 interactions has been addressed in the literature for many regions and with different approaches (Coles and Tawn,
66 2005; Gouldby et al., 2014; Pirazzoli, 2007; Idier et al., 2012; Idier et al., 2019). It was shown that tide–surge
67 interactions can be relevant in several regions. The tide–surge interactions at the Bay of Bengal (corresponding to
68 the effect of the tide on atmospheric surge and vice versa) were analyzed by Johns et al., (1985) and Krien et al.,
69 (2017). They showed that tide–surge interactions in shallow areas of this large deltaic zone are in the range $\pm 0.6\text{m}$
70 occurred at a maximum of 1 to 2 hours after low tide. Similar results were obtained by Johns et al. (1985), Antony
71 and Unnikrishnan (2013) and more recently Hussain and Tajima (2017). Focusing on the English channel, Idier et
72 al. (2012) used shallow water model to make surge computations with and without tide for two selected events
73 (November 2007 North Sea and March 2008 Atlantic storms). The authors concluded that the instantaneous tide–
74 surge interaction are significant in the eastern half of the English Channel, reaching values of 74 cm in the Dover
75 Strait, which is about half of maximal storm surges induced by the same events. They also concluded that Skew
76 surges are tide-dependent, with negligible values (less than 5 cm) over a large portion of the English Channel, but
77 reaching several tens of centimeters in some locations such as the Isle of Wight and Dover Strait. More recently,

78 Idier et al. (2019) have investigated the interactions between the sea level components (sea level rise, tides, storm
79 surges, etc.) and the tide effect on atmospheric storm surges is among the main interactions investigated in their
80 review. The authors stated that the studies, and other ones, converge to highlight that tide–surge interactions can
81 produce tens of centimeters of water level at the coast.

82 On the other hand, there are some phenomena which are described by other explanatory phenomena. The case of
83 multi-components phenomena, that will receive our attention in the present paper, is the coastal flooding which is
84 a combination of tides with SSs. Indeed, the SS is one of the main drivers of coastal floods. It is an abnormal rise
85 of water generated by a storm (low atmospheric pressure and strong winds), over and above the predicted tide. It
86 should be noted that the effect of waves (runup and setup) on total water level is not discussed in the present paper.
87 Extreme storms can produce high sea levels, especially when they coincide with high tide. The skew storm surge
88 SSS is a sea level component which is often considered as the fundamental input or the quantity of interest for
89 statistical investigations of coastal hazards. It is the difference between the highest observed level and the highest
90 predicted one, for a same high tide. These maximum levels can occur at slightly different times.

91 As more than one explanatory variable are often used in a PFHA and in case these variables are dependent, the
92 dependency structure must be modeled and a consistent theoretical framework must be introduced for the
93 calculation of the return periods and design quantiles with multivariate analysis based on Copulas (e.g. Salvadori
94 et al., 2011). Indeed, numerous studies have shown that, in case of multivariate hazards, a univariate frequency
95 analysis does not allow to estimate in a complete way the probability of occurrence of an extreme event (Chebana
96 and Ouarda, 2011; Hamdi et al., 2016). According to Salvadori and De Michele (2004), modelling the dependency
97 allows a better understanding of the hazard and avoids under/over-estimating the risk. Unsurprisingly, some ideas
98 have been proposed in the literature for combining tides and SSs and to help address such an important issue. JPM
99 is an indirect method that made an improvement in addressing the main limitations of the direct methods (e.g. the
100 annual maxima method (AMM) and the r-largest method (RLM)) (Haigh et al., 2010). Several studies refer to the
101 JPM for the probabilistic characterization of storms (Batstone et al., 2013; Haigh et al., 2010; Pugh and Vassie,
102 1978; USACE, 2015). Tawn and Vassie (1989) proposed a Revised JPM (RJPM) in which the distribution of
103 surges is composed by a left tail defined by an empirical method and a right tail defined by frequency analysis.
104 Dixon and Tawn (1994) made some modifications on the Revised JPM and proposed a new model to take into
105 account the interaction between instantaneous SS and tide. Recently, Haigh et al. (2010) showed the advantages of
106 indirect methods (i.e. JPM, Revised JPM) compared to direct ones (i.e. AMM and RLM). More recently,
107 Kergadallan et al. (2014) proposed an extension of the model proposed by Dixon and Tawn (1994) using skew
108 storm surges (SSSs) at 19 French harbours along the Atlantic and English Channel coasts of France. The authors
109 have used two different approaches (the seasonal dependence and the interaction between SSs and tides) to study
110 the dependence of the SSs on the tides with three methods (the seasonal approach, Dixon and Tawn (1994) model
111 and the revisited Dixon and Tawn model). It was concluded that the interaction between SSSs and high tides affect
112 more significantly the results than the seasonal dependence for more than one-half of the harbours.

113 Some other studies have been proposed in the literature to tackle the PFHA. The most important contribution
114 proposes two methods. The first estimates extreme sea levels (ESLs) with the JPM (Pugh and Vassie, 1980).
115 Indeed, this approach combines separated frequency distributions for the tide (usually deterministic and exact) and
116 the SS (frequency analysis based on the extreme value theory). It is a calculation of the convolution based on the

117 tidal levels density function and of a distribution function of SSs. Duluc et al., (2012) have shown that the quality
118 of the results from this convolution approach for small return periods is questionable. The second procedure uses
119 the data of observed maximum water levels (Chen et al., 2014; Haigh et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2008). This
120 approach was recommended by FEMA's guideline (FEMA, 2004) for coastal flood mapping, in which the GEV
121 model is recommended to conduct the frequency analysis of extreme water levels, if long-term datasets are
122 available. Based on the regional observations, the process of estimation of extreme water levels uses an adequate
123 frequency analysis model to estimate the distribution parameters, the desired return levels (RLs) and associated
124 confidence intervals.

125 Overall, our goal is to build on the approaches and developments proposed in the literature and revive the debate
126 as to how researchers and engineers can combine tide with SS to estimate extreme sea levels. This goal is in line
127 with the recent literature (e.g. Idier et al., 2012, Kergadallan et al., 2014) challenging the use of the SSS and
128 clearly demonstrates the importance of using the maximum instantaneous surge (MSS) instead. In order to achieve
129 this goal, a third fitting procedure to estimate extreme sea levels using the MSS between two consecutive high
130 tides is introduced with an application so that it can be compared with the two first procedures. Mazas et al.,
131 (2014) proposed a review of tide-surge interaction methods and applied a POT frequency model (with the GPD
132 and Poisson distribution functions) to the family of JPM-type approaches for determining extreme sea level values
133 in a single case study (Brest). The authors focused on the use of a mixture model for the surge component, which
134 allows probabilities to be quantified for the entire range of sea level values, not just for the extreme ones, which is
135 not the case here in the present paper.

136 The paper is organized as follows. The section 2 takes up the two fitting procedures proposed in the literature (the
137 JPM with a convolution between tides and SSSs and the frequency analysis directly on sea levels) and proposes a
138 new one based on the convolution between tides and MSSs. In section 3, the fitting procedures are applied on the
139 observed and predicted sea levels at the Le Havre tide gauge in France used as a case study. One of the most
140 important features of this case study is the fact that the lower parts of Le Havre city are likely to be flooded by
141 coastal floods and that the region has experienced important storms during the last few decades.

142 **2. Methods**

143 Tide and SSs are usually the subject of a statistical study to determine the probability of exceeding the water level
144 cumulating the two phenomena. Indeed, the SS is the main driver of coastal flood events. It is an abnormal rise of
145 water generated by a storm, over and above the predicted tide. As it would be analyzed later in the discussion
146 section, the dependency, in an extreme value context, is analyzed but not considered to combine the phenomena in
147 the present work. Indeed, as mentioned in the introductory section and as it will be discussed later in this paper,
148 extreme levels such as MSSs and high tides may be only very weakly dependent.

149 On the other hand, it is commonly known that the tidal signals can be predicted, and are not aleatory like the SSs.
150 What is somewhat odd in the present work is that one thus seeks to combine a distribution function of random
151 variable with a density of tide which is deterministic. In order to estimate extreme sea levels, a JPM is used by
152 making use of a convolution between tide and SSs. So the question that arises here is which variable of interest
153 can be used to better characterize coastal flooding? Three variables are then proposed: (i) the SSS; (ii) the MSS

154 and (iii) the extreme sea level. The theoretical basis for the fitting procedures using these variables is addressed in
155 the following subsections.

156 Relative to some chosen datum, each hourly observed sea level $Z(t)$, may be considered as the sum of its tide $X(t)$
157 and storm surge component $Y(t)$, i.e.:

$$158 \quad Z(t) = X(t) + Y(t) \quad (1)$$

159 Thus if the probability density functions of the tidal and surge components are $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$ respectively then
160 the probability density function $f(z)$ of z , under the assumption that the tide and surge components are
161 independent, is:

$$162 \quad f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(x) \times f_Y(z - x) dx \quad (2)$$

163 As it can be seen in equation 2, the dependence on time, t , is omitted when replacing $X(t)$ by X , $Y(t)$ by Y , and
164 $Z(t)$ by Z . This implies a stationarity assumption for the involved time series. The hourly SS is often considered
165 as a stationary stochastic process, since meteorological and seasonal effects give rise to series of SSs randomly
166 distributed in time, but this is not the case of the hourly theoretical tide signals. It should also be noted that for the
167 case Le Havre the residual part as the surges is not the only one and despite the fact that it is the dominant
168 component, the stochastic signal also contains the fluvial effects.

169 **2.1 Joint SSS - tide probabilistic method**

170 This method is based on the decomposition of the sea level into a sum of two contributions: the tide which is
171 evaluated theoretically and the aleatory component SS obtained by subtracting the predicted tide from the
172 observed sea level. Extreme storms can produce high sea levels, especially when it occurs simultaneously with
173 high tide. The SSS is a sea level component which is often considered as the fundamental input for statistical
174 investigations of coastal hazards. It is defined as the difference between two observed and predicted maximums
175 and is not impacted by the shift of the two signals which may be biased (see figure 1). As shown in the left panel
176 of figure 2, the SSS is defined herein as the difference between the highest observed level and the highest
177 predicted one, for a same high tide (see equations 1 and 2). Further noteworthy features of SSSs are its occurrence
178 with a high tide. Indeed, a SSS occurring with a high tide is likely to induce a high sea level. Thus, for safety
179 requirements, SSS is the most often used in the literature Kergadallan et al. (2014).

180 Still, even if this procedure uses the suitable variable of interest, it has its limitations. Indeed, it is not uncommon
181 that the MSS, which can occur randomly somewhere between two consecutive tides, is greater than the SSS.
182 Widening the window around the high tide, in which extreme SSs are extracted, could improve frequency
183 estimation of extreme sea levels. When this window is maximum (12 hours, for instance), the variable of interest
184 naturally becomes the MSS. Moreover, it was demonstrated in the literature that the tide and SSS interaction at
185 high tide cannot be neglected (Kergadallan et al., 2014).

186 **2.2 Joint MSS - tide probabilistic method**

187 The right panel of figure 2 illustrates the case of an instantaneous SS signal, the variables would be the MSS and
188 the high tide M_n . As mentioned in the previous section, the MSS can occur randomly somewhere in a tide cycle.
189 One of the most important features of MSS is that it is more informative than the SSS. Indeed, the MSS covers the
190 whole instantaneous SS signal. This feature makes the MSS a variable particularly useful for carrying out a PFHA
191 exploring the entire tidal signal, not only the high tide.

192 **2.3 Inference with the ESL: the reference method**

193 For comparison purposes, we also analyzed sea levels signals for which we focused our attention on the frequency
194 analysis on extreme sea levels without decomposing them into tides and surges. This yields to direct statistics and
195 estimates of the RLs without combining tides and surges. The intent of this analysis is only to illustrate and obtain
196 results that can serve as a reference for the comparison of the joint probability procedures. The maximum sea level
197 between 2 high tide values is the variable of interest used for this reference procedure.

198 **2.4 The sampling method**

199 The Peaks-Over-Threshold (POT) sampling method is used to conduct the frequency analyses in the present work.
200 Commonly considered as an alternative to the annual maxima method, the POT method models the peaks
201 exceeding a relatively high threshold. The distribution of these peaks converges to the Generalized Pareto
202 Distribution (GPD) theoretical distribution. In addition, the threshold leads to a sample more representative of
203 extreme events (Coles, 2001). However, the threshold selection is subjective and an optimal threshold is difficult
204 to obtain. Indeed, a too low threshold can introduce a bias in the estimation because some observations may not be
205 extreme data and this violates the principle of the extreme value theory. On the other hand, the use of a too high
206 threshold reduces the sample size (Hamdi et al., 2014).

207 On the other hand, all the simulations were carried out within the R environment (open source software for
208 statistical computing: <http://www.r-project.org/>). The SeaLev library, developed by the French Institute for
209 Radiological Protection and Nuclear Safety (IRSN), was used for the standard approach involving the convolution
210 of the probability density functions of the tidal and surge heights to obtain the distribution of total sea levels. The
211 frequency analyses were performed with the Renext library also developed by IRSN (IRSN and Alpmat, 2013).
212 The Renext package was specifically developed for flood frequency analyses using the Peaks-Over-Threshold
213 (POT) method.

214 **3 Case study and data**

215 The city of Le Havre is an urban city in the Seine-Maritime department, on the English Channel coast in
216 Normandy (France). It is a major French city located in northwestern France. A map showing the location of the
217 Le Havre city in France can be found in figure 3. The name Le Havre means "the harbour" or "the port". The port
218 of Le Havre is, moreover, among the largest in France. For these reasons, the city of Le Havre remains deeply
219 influenced by its maritime traditions.

220 Due to its location on the coast of the Channel, the climate of Le Havre is temperate oceanic. Days without wind
221 are rare. There are maritime influences throughout the year. According to the meteorological records, precipitation

222 is distributed throughout the year, with a maximum in autumn and winter. The months of June and July are
223 marked by some relatively extreme storms on average 2 days per month. One of the characteristics of the region is
224 the high variability of the temperature, even during the day. The prevailing winds are from north-northeast for
225 breezes and, from the southwest sector for strong winds.

226 The joint tide-surge probability and the frequency analysis of extreme sea levels are performed on the city of Le
227 Havre. The 1971-2015 observed and predicted hourly sea levels recorded at the port of Le Havre were provided by
228 the French Oceanographic Service (SHOM - Service Hydrographique et Océanographique de la Marine). Figure 4
229 shows the sea level time series of Le Havre, as well as the studied extreme SSs (SSSs and MSSs). One of the most
230 important features of Le Havre is the fact that it is subject to marine submersions and instabilities of coastal cliffs
231 (Elineau et al., 2013; Elineau et al., 2010; Maspataud et al., 2016). In particular, the lower part of the city (Saint-
232 François district, for instance) is likely to be flooded by marine and pluvial floods. Data characteristics are shown
233 in the table 1. These data were first processed to keep only common periods containing a minimum of gaps. The
234 choice of the variables to be probabilized is done at this stage.

235 **4. Results**

236 Since we need to get comparable annual rates of extreme sea level events, the POT threshold selection process has
237 been adapted to meet this criterion and the thresholds are, even though, checked regarding the stability graphs of
238 the GPD parameters estimated with the maximum likelihood method. The POT model characteristics (threshold
239 and associated average number of events per year) are presented in Table 2. The stability graphs for threshold
240 selection are presented in Figure 5.

241 The main results of the joint surge-tide probability method, with the SSS and MSS based fitting procedures, and
242 the results of the direct frequency analysis of the extreme sea levels as well, with all the diagnostics are presented
243 in terms of RL plots, estimates of the quantiles of interest and associated 95% confidence intervals. In these
244 results, the main focus was set to the 10-, 50-, 100- and 1000-year sea level RLs. Prior to the application of the
245 JPM, the SSSs and MSSs are calculated first from observed and predicted sea levels. The results of the application
246 on the Le Havre are summarized in table 3 and presented in figure 6.

247 The RL estimates obtained with the MSS based convolution are quite different from those of the one based on
248 SSSs. The results of the calculation of confidence intervals (with the delta method) are presented with transparent
249 polygons in figure 6 and in table 3 as well. As it can be noticed, the confidence intervals are relatively narrow.
250 Indeed, the relative width of the intervals around the 1000-year RL obtained with reference method, did not exceed
251 12%. Better yet, the confidence intervals are narrower when using the joint probability procedures. It is interesting
252 to note that the delta method (Ver Hoef, 2012) is a classic technique in statistics for computing confidence
253 intervals for functions of maximum-likelihood estimates. The variance of RL estimates are calculated using an
254 asymptotic approximation to the normal distribution. Furthermore, it can be seen in figure 6 that for a given RL,
255 the return period given by the MSSs-based procedure is much lower than that given by the one based on the SSSs.
256 The RLs are thus more frequently (i.e. on average 10 times more frequently) exceeded randomly in a tidal cycle
257 (i.e. as the MSS can occur randomly somewhere inside a tidal cycle) than at the high tide moment (i.e. if we
258 suppose that SSS often occurs at the high tide moment).

259 It is noteworthy that the shape parameter ξ of the General Pareto Distribution (GPD) is negative for all the cases
260 (i.e. $\xi = -0.2$; $\xi = -0.07$ and $\xi = -0.12$ for the SSS, MSS and ESL based fitting procedures, respectively).
261 This parameter governs the tail behavior of the GPD. The right tail of the distribution is much heavier for the
262 procedures using SSSs and the ESLs than for the one using MSSs.

263 **5 Discussion**

264 To objectively evaluate the merits and shortcomings of each of the methods described in section 2, the associated
265 assumptions must be analyzed first. The JPM is developed under the assumption of independence between the
266 tidal signal and SSs. Tawn and Vassie (1989) found that this assumption was false. Considering that this
267 assumption may be true under certain circumstances as proved by William et al. (2016) for the largest mid-latitude
268 storm surges and the corresponding tide. A tendency to overestimate sea levels, due to the fact that the correlation
269 between tide SSs has been ignored, was recognized in the literature (Pugh and Vassie, 1978, 1980; Walden et al.,
270 1982). However, it should be noticed that extreme levels such as the MSSs may be only very weakly dependent
271 with high tides. This constitutes a distinctive feature and advantage of the MSS based fitting procedure introduced
272 in the present paper. It is a major point of differentiation between the joint surge-tide probability procedures
273 described in sections 2. Furthermore, the hourly theoretical tides are in utmost cases considered as a realization of
274 stationary process. This assumption is the most critical one since sea levels are highly non-stationary due to the
275 storm surge. As previously argued to overcome this limitation, the variability arises from the SSs which can be
276 considered as stationary over the storms season for instance. For this argument to be less subjective, most high
277 tides are similar in term of their value and must be lower than the SS variation in extreme events.

278 The question one can ask is how to improve the modelling in such a way that the bias between the procedures
279 using SSSs and MSSs and the reference one is reduced as far as possible? Indeed, as depicted in figure 6, the
280 second procedure overestimates extreme sea levels for all the return periods (a maximizing envelope). The RLs
281 estimates for MSS based procedure are about 50 to 60 cm higher than those obtained when the SSS are used. The
282 difference between the upper and middle curves increase as the return period goes up. The difference is high for
283 high return periods. Inversely, the difference between the lower and middle curves increase as the return period
284 goes down. The difference is significant for lower return periods. It is noteworthy that the middle curve is
285 supposed to represent the RLs of reference. An objective answer to our question cannot in any case suggest a
286 modification in the reference method. Two methodological issues could provide us with solutions and answers to
287 the question. First, the dependence structure that exists between the high tide and the extreme SSs around the high
288 tide could be modelled. Extreme SSs one hour before the high tide, at the time of the high tide and one hour after
289 can be used. A larger window can likewise be used to consider the SSs around the high tide in a multivariate
290 context.

291 A visual inspection with the scatter graphs and the Spearman's Rho numerical criteria have been used to measure
292 the statistical dependence between storm surges and tide at the moment of the high tide and around it (± 1 hour).
293 This is useful when modeling the coincidence of the high tide with extreme storm surges, for instance. The
294 Multivariate frequency analysis consists in studying the dependence structure of two or more variables through a
295 function that depends on their marginal distribution functions. The multivariate theory is based on the

296 mathematical concept of copula (Sklar, 1959), which allows linking the distributions of the variables according to
297 their degree of dependence. More details can be found in (Salvadori and De Michele, 2004; Nelsen, 2006). A
298 copula-based approach may be used to consider this dependence. In the case of a copula of sea levels, no
299 convolution is needed. The convolution of SSs distribution with a density of tide permits to obtain a distribution of
300 sea levels. This latter solution is proposed herein as an alternative to the multivariate analysis using a copula.

301
302 The figure 7 shows the scatter graphs that provide a visual information about the dependence between the high tide
303 and the other variables (SSS, MSS and ESL). It can be concluded that the dependence with the two storm surge
304 variables SSS and MSS is weak and sufficiently low to consider the variables statistically independents. This
305 finding is supported by the Spearman's Rho coefficients presented in Table 4. The two sea level components (high
306 tide and extreme SSs) are then considered as independent random variables and the distribution of the total sea
307 level can be determined by convolution. Otherwise, a multivariate analysis based on the use of the copulas theory
308 can be used.

309 **6. Further discussion**

310 As show in Figure 6, RLs obtained with the joint MSS-tide method are always higher than those using SSS. This is
311 consistent with the fact that the convolution process based on MSS uses only high water values for the tide density
312 (as it selects the maximum value of instantaneous SSs every 12 hours) and since MSS is always greater than or
313 equal to SSS. It is then logical to consider that the joint MSS-tide method is more conservative than the SSS based
314 one. As expected, figure 4 shows that ESL events at the right tail of the distribution, represented by the middle
315 curve, tend to be close to high SSS RLs which are dominated by the high tide. The results of this procedure
316 confirm the general finding highlighted in the literature (Fortunato et al., 2016; High et al., 2016) that the return
317 level estimations obtained with the convolution tide-SSS are not adapted up to a certain return period (100 years in
318 the case of Le Havre). To overcome this problem, one can use the joint tide-MSS convolution method. Another
319 solution is to use an empirical method to define the left tail of the distribution and an extreme values analysis for
320 the right tail as stated by Tawn and Vassie (1989).

321 On the other hand, the current practices and statistical approaches to characterize the coastal flooding hazard by
322 estimating extreme storm surges and sea levels still have some weaknesses. Indeed, the combination of the tide
323 and the storm surge do not take into account several scenarios in particular those with a time-lag where the tide
324 and the storm surge could give likewise extreme sea levels. The choice of variables (high tide, SSSs, MSS, etc.)
325 would be a decisive step and an integral part of the logic behind the idea of combining the two phenomena.
326 Interestingly, these variables could also include other explanatory variables such as the time-lag between the two
327 phenomena (tide and SS). This time-lag would be an additional variable and it is defined as the difference of time
328 of occurrence of the second variable with respect to the first (e.g. time between a maximum storm surge and a high
329 tide).

330 **6.1 coincidence probability concept**

331 Our interest to the probability of coincidence comes from our belief that a bias is introduced with the joint-MSS
332 convolution because it does not take into account the time difference between the maximum instantaneous SS and
333 the high tide. A probability of coincidence (i.e. the chance that a MSS occurs at the same time with high tide) can
334 be used to better characterize the extreme sea levels using the MSS. In the present paper, we are only interested in
335 the concept of the coincidence probability and the statistical dependence between MSS and tide at the moment of
336 the high tide and around it (± 6 hours). An appropriate coincidence probability concept would then allow to better
337 estimate the probabilities and thus reduce the bias and bring the RLs closer to those obtained by the reference
338 method.

339 Let Δ be the time-lag between the high tide and the MSSs in each tide cycle. When considering coincidence, an
340 additional hazard curve, associated to the variable Δ can be built. The time-lag variable Δ , which would allow us to
341 compute a probability of coincidence, could be involved in a multivariate frequency analysis to consider the
342 dependence structure between the variables. It is also interesting to note that the probability of coincidence would
343 make it possible to conclude if the MSSs occur randomly in a tide cycle or not. The work must be performed for
344 many coastal systems with different physical properties to conclude whether or not there is a systematic temporal
345 dependence, and whether or not the extreme sea levels are overestimated if this is indeed the case.

346 As illustrated in the right panel of figure 2 the MSS can occur randomly somewhere around the high tide M_n . The
347 time difference between the MSS and the high tide is random as well. It is therefore quite legitimate to study it
348 with a frequency analysis method. Then a coincidence probability concept can be drawn as follows:

- 349 • Extract an independent sample of Δ
- 350 • Fit this sample with the appropriate distribution function. “Indeed, Δ s is expressed in hours and it is not
351 an extreme variable, it is bounded between $-6H$ and $6H$ and can take any value within this interval. There
352 is then no tail of the distribution and the extreme value theory is not the appropriate framework to model
353 this random variable. Thus, a uniform distribution would be a good fit for Δ .
- 354 • Use the desired probability to weight the probabilities of the MSSs, assuming that MSSs and Δ are
355 independent. Many scenarios using many of these probabilities can be used in a probabilistic approach.

356 On the other hand and focusing on the statistical dependence, extreme SSs samples around the high tide (at the
357 time Δ of the high tide) was extracted. The largest window (± 6 hour) centered on the time of the high tide was
358 used and the statistical dependence was then studied. Table 5 shows the Spearman’s Rho measuring the statistical
359 dependence between storm surges and tide at the moment of the high tide and around it (± 3 hour). It can be easily
360 concluded that the dependence between SSs and tides is very high around the time of high tide and it becomes
361 weaker as delta increases. As mentioned in the previous section, the dependence structure that exists between the
362 MSSs around the high tide could be modelled with copulas.

363 **6.2 The non-stationary context**

364 It is noteworthy that the climate change in the past and working in a non-stationary context can greatly affect and
365 invalidate the fit of the storm surge and sea level PDFs. Indeed, questions such as: what is the effect of potential
366 trends and jumps in the sea water level time series? And should this affect the results and its confidence? are fair
367 ones and justified. The non-stationary context is not covered by this paper because it moves us further away from

368 the main objective which is the use and the confrontation of different methods for quantifying the exceedance
369 probability of extreme sea levels. It could however be the object of another paper."

370 **7. Conclusions**

371 In the present paper, we provided a reasoning for the need, in a PFHA framework, to combine flood phenomena to
372 better characterize coastal flooding hazard. Few ideas have been proposed in the literature to tackle the
373 combination of tidal signals with extreme SSSs to estimate extreme sea levels. The present work supports these
374 ideas, takes up the tidal signals and SSSs convolution procedure and proposes a new procedure based on the MSSs
375 useful to exploit likewise the extreme SS events occurred during medium and low tide hours. Three fitting
376 procedures have been investigated. The first one employs the SSS as an explanatory variable with the tidal signals
377 which are combined with a JPM using a convolution of the tide density and the SSS distribution function. The
378 second procedure uses the same technique except that the MSSs are used instead of the SSSs. In the third
379 approach, a frequency analysis is performed using ESLs.

380 Another consideration in this paper was applying and illustrating these approaches on the example of the sea levels
381 in Le Havre, northwestern France, over the period 1971–2015. It may be noted that the methodology is not
382 exemplary developed for this case study; it applies to any site likely to experience a marine flooding. Fitting
383 results in terms of probability plots and extrapolated RLs using the three approaches are examined. Overall, the
384 application has shown that the RL estimates for MSS based convolution are quite different from those
385 corresponding to the SSS based one. Indeed, since MSS is always greater than or equal to SSS and since the
386 convolution process using MSS selects the maximum value of instantaneous SSs every tidal cycle, the RLs are
387 systematically higher when the joint MSS-tide method is used. But without properly tackling the probability of
388 coincidence concept (i.e. the chance that a maximum SS occurs at the same time with high tide) concept and the
389 issue of temporal lag between tidal peaks and surge peaks, the results will be probably always overestimated,
390 which may not be useful for PFHA. the results of the MSS based procedure are likely to contain a bias comparing
391 to the direct statistics on ESLs which becomes more and more important as return periods increase. In order to
392 reduce this bias, the coincidence probability concept could be helpful in making a more appropriate assessment of
393 the risk using the MSS. On the other hand and if the MSS based convolution is to be used, the application has
394 shown the utility of modelling the dependence structure that exists between the hourly SS values around the high
395 tide (high tide \pm 6 hours). Figure 6 shows that ESL events at the upper tail of the distribution (the middle curve)
396 tend to occur at the time of the high tide, as expected. The results of this procedure confirm the general finding
397 highlighted in the literature is that the RL estimations obtained with the convolution tide-SSS are not conclusive
398 up to a certain return period (100 years in the case of Le Havre).

399 Perspective: An in-depth study could help to thoroughly improve the proposed procedure based on the use of MSS
400 by developing the concept of coincidence and apply the developed concept on other sites of interest. A concept of
401 coincidence and methodology to be developed should find additional applications for the assessment of risk
402 associated to other combining flooding phenomena (e.g. pluvial flooding and storm surges).

403

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406

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408

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515 **Table 1: Sea level and rainfall data sets**

Type	Station	Period	Time step
Sea level	Harbour	1971-2015	1h

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519 Table 2: POT thresholds for SSS, MSS and ESL variables

	SSS	MSS	ESL
Threshold u (m)	0.59	0.75	0.81
Poisson intensity λ (average N^{br} of events/year)	1.45	1.13	2.83

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Table 3: Sea RLs and 95% confidence intervals for the three fitting procedures (in meters)

Method	T=10	T=50	T=100	T=1000
JPM-SSS	8.31 (8.27-8.35)	8.77 (8.72-8.82)	8.89 (8.84-8.95)	9.20 (9.07-9.32)
JPM-MSS	8.84 (8.79-8.89)	9.29 (9.22-9.36)	9.42 (9.33-9.51)	9.79 (9.58-10.01)
Frequency Analysis - ESL	8.82 (8.74-8.91)	8.99 (8.80-9.18)	9.05 (8.79-9.31)	9.22 (8.67-9.77)

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525 Table 4: Spearman's Rho coefficients as a measure of dependence between the tide and the other variables

	SSSs	MSSs	ESL
tide	-0.02	-0.06	0.96

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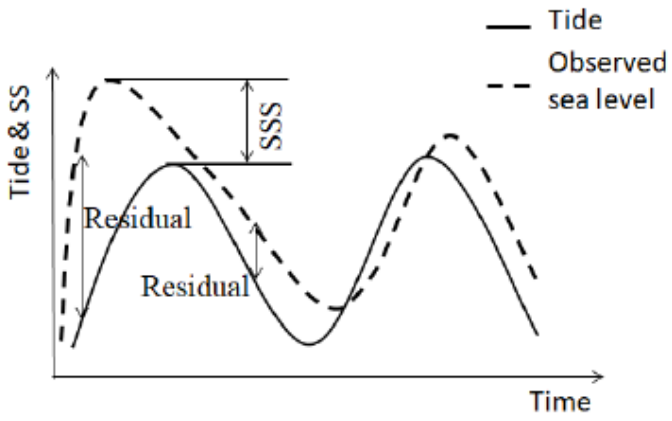
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529 Table 5: Spearman's Rho calculated between high tide and all the instantaneous surges in the tidal cycle

Δ	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5	+6
High tide	0.29	0.28	0.21	0.41	0.61	0.85	0.77	0.60	0.56	0.44	0.33	0.30

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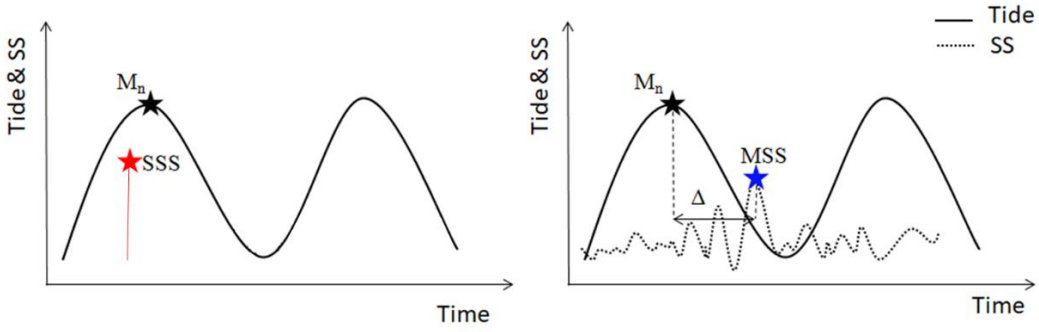
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Figure 1: Definition and schematic representation of a skew storm surge

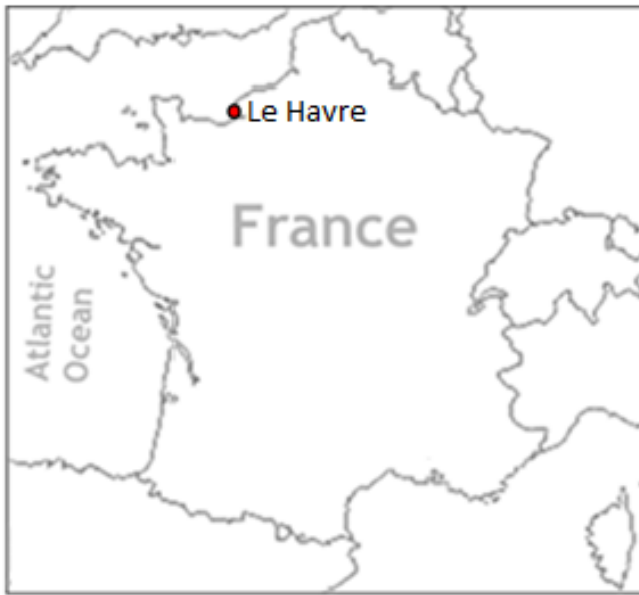
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Figure 2: Illustration of tide and storm surge signals for the of joint surge-tide probability procedures: (left) skew surge-tide combination; (right) maximum surge - tide combination

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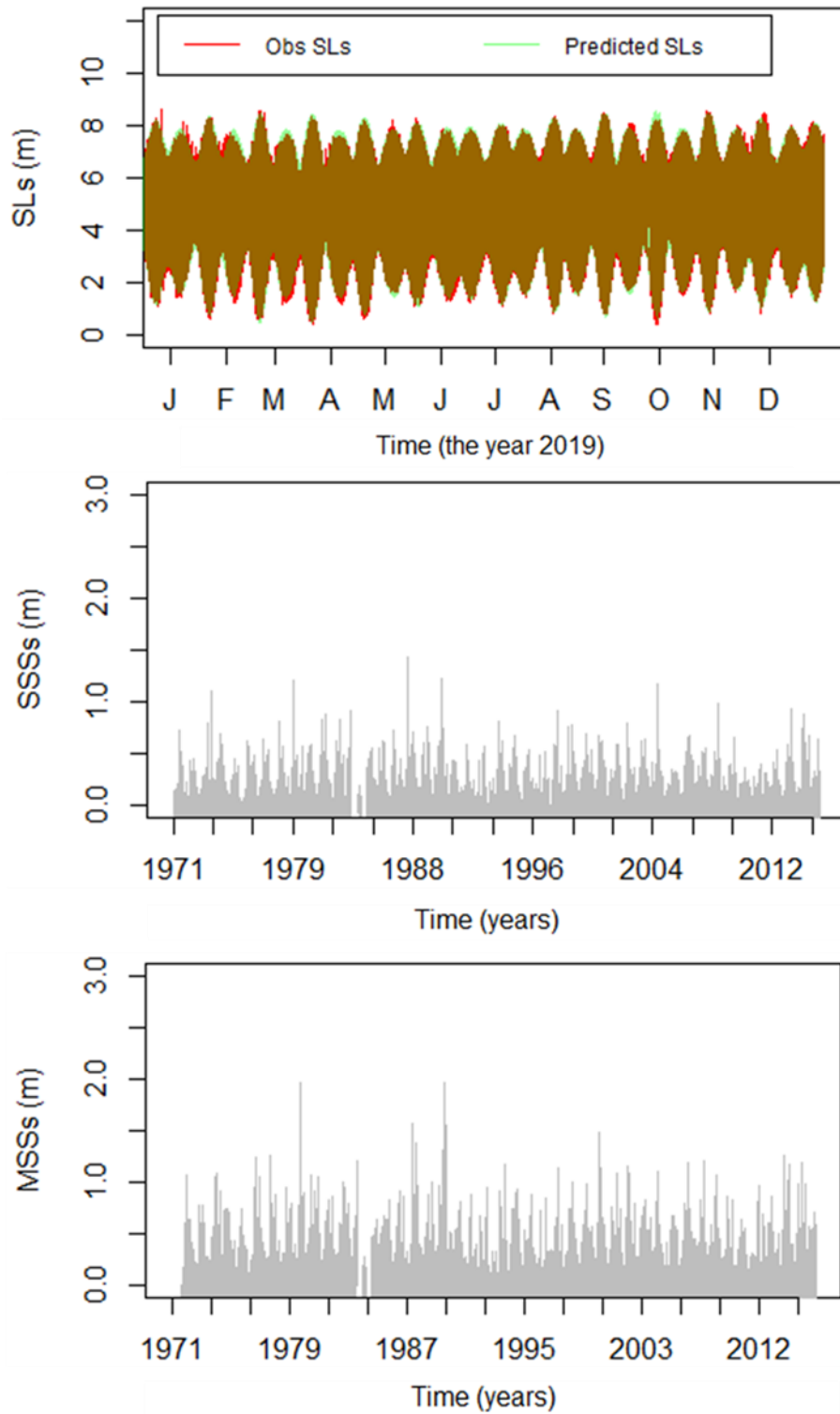


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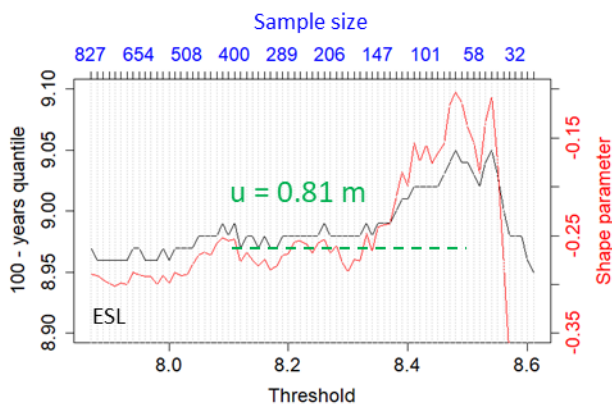
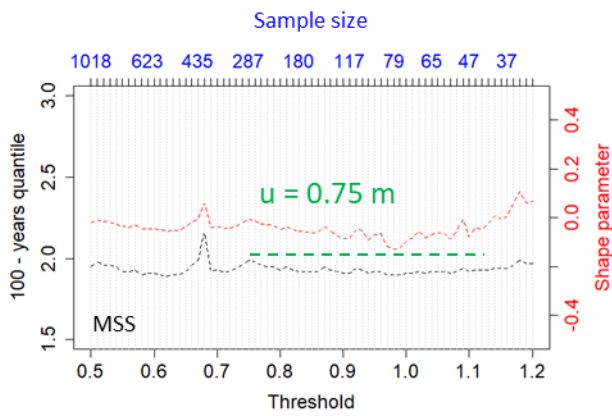
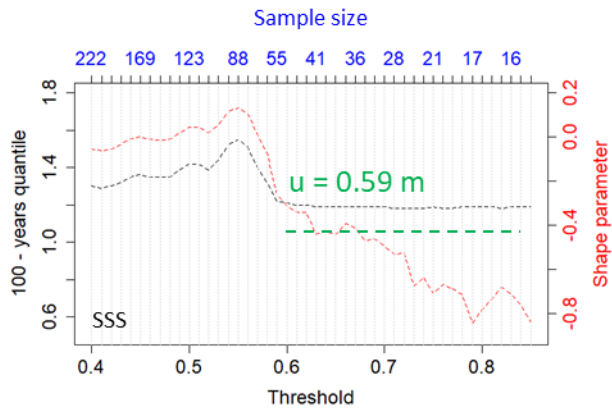
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Figure 3: Case study (Le Havre): location map



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Figure 4: Studied time-series of Le Havre: (top) predicted and observed sea levels; (middle) SSSs data and (bottom) the MSSs.



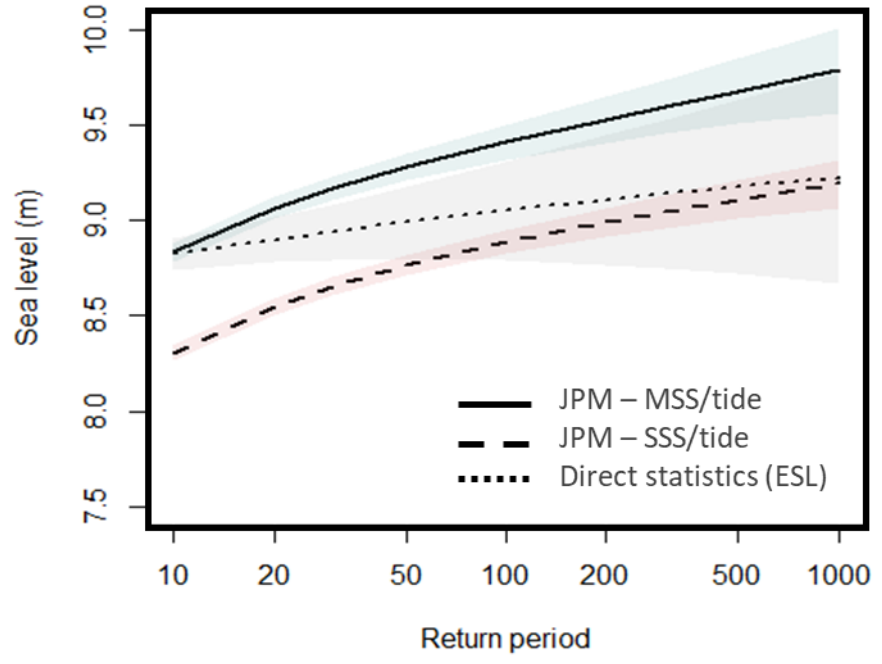
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Figure 5: Stability plots for threshold selection: (top) SSSs, (middle) MSSs and (bottom) ESL

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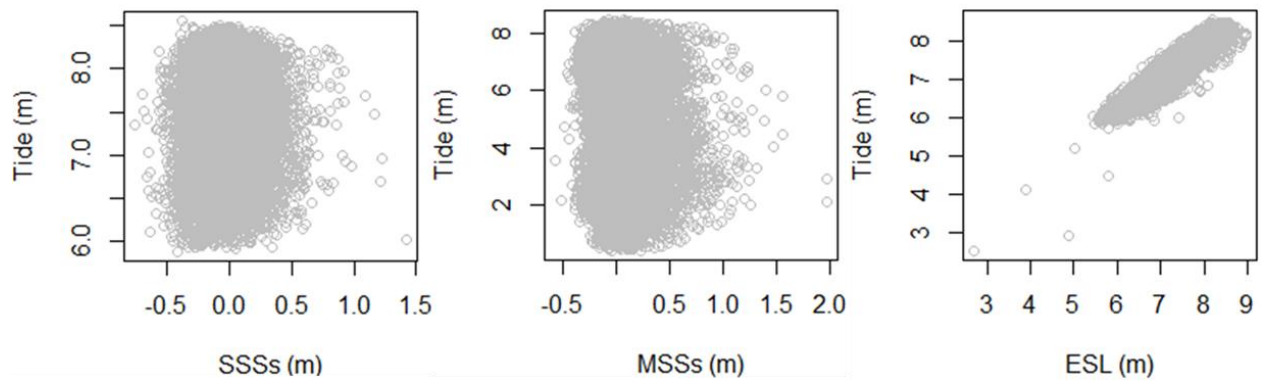


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Figure 6: Sea level quantiles and confidence intervals



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Figure 7: Analysis of the dependence between the tide and the SSSs, the MSSs and the ESL events