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2 **Numerical investigation of thermal discharge to coastal areas: a case study in South Italy**
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23 **HIGHLIGHTS**
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- 25 • Thermal release dynamics in sea was studied by a wave – 3D-hydrodynamics model
- 26 • Sea temperature measurements were used to calibrate the model
- 27 • Sensitivity analyses highlighted the importance of including wave – wind modelling
- 28 • Turbulence, vertical diffusion and wind drag coefficients were found key-parameters
- 29 • Environmental and operational scenarios revealed changes in thermal plume
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61 **ABSTRACT**
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63 Coupled wave – 3D-hydrodynamics model runs are performed to investigate thermal discharge release to
64 coastal areas by means of including nearshore effects of wave-current dynamics. The study area comprises
65 the vicinity of a power plant at Cerano, in South Italy, where cooling industrial waters are released to the
66 sea. The implemented model is calibrated by using temperature measurements and sensitivity analyses are
67 carried out for various relevant drivers and input parameters. Afterwards, the effect of thermal discharge is
68 investigated through distinct hypothetical scenarios for a combination of metocean conditions and
69 operational features of the power plant (modifying water discharge and temperature at its outlet). The model
70 results of this representative array of conditions are intercompared and evaluated on the basis of heat
71 dispersion rate and areas of influence, providing with useful insights on the numerical simulation of the
72 process and the potential effects for the specific coastal area.
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80 *Keywords:* thermal pollution; 3D numerical model; sea temperature; [wave action](#); mixing area.
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120 **1. Introduction**
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122 Sea surface temperature (SST) is considered as one of the most important parameters in observing ecosystem
123 conditions for marine/coastal environments (Azmi et al., 2015; Brando et al., 2015), with the sustainability
124 of their habitats being largely dependent on water quality.
125

126 Thermal pollution is defined as any deviation of the environment temperature due to industrial cooling
127 cycles or natural discharges of cold fluid into water bodies (Dodds and Whiles, 2010). Although thermal
128 pollution may refer to the decrease of water temperature as well, the term is usually associated with the
129 effects of the increase in water temperature in rivers, lakes and coastal areas, as well as the consequent
130 decrease of the concentration of dissolved oxygen (DO) degrading water quality.
131

132 Generally, the mean water body temperature may not be significantly affected by the introduction of thermal
133 discharges due to its large heat capacity, but eventually steep rises in local temperature disturb the aquatic
134 flora and fauna in it, modifying the ecological balance in the affected areas. Indeed, abrupt changes in water
135 temperature, known as “thermal shocks”, deeply damage the marine ecosystem, leading to significant
136 decrease of DO concentration in water up to biodiversity alteration, such as increased bacteria levels,
137 changes in metabolism, reproduction, denaturing of life-supporting enzymes and increase of mortality for
138 aquatic species (Lardicci et al., 1999; Chuang et al., 2009; Li et al., 2014).
139

140 Hence, thermal pollution is seen as a severe threat for ecological composition in coastal waters around the
141 World, and their industrial use as cooling agent is identified as its main cause.
142

143 Indeed, power plants typically use water from nearby bodies to cool their machinery, discharging it back at
144 elevated temperatures, in a range of 5-100°C. Water used in industries for cooling purposes is released back
145 to environment as thermal effluent; nuclear power plants require from 30% to 100% more cooling water
146 rates than other types of plants of comparable power output, and their releases have been often investigated
147 in terms of impacts on biodiversity (Li et al., 2014) and tourism development (Rosen et al., 2015).
148

149 Therefore, governments and international organizations set various standards regarding effluent temperatures
150 from such facilities, in order to regulate their operation and minimize their environmental impacts
151 (Manivanan and Singh, 2013). To address the impacts of thermal shocks on the aquatic environment, it is
152 generally required to analyze the mechanism of dispersion of the thermal effluent in the water body nearfield
153 of its release, and to establish a zone of influence where a certain temperature increment is acceptable.
154

155 Each EU-Country developed its own regulation regarding environmental standards for effluent temperatures
156 in water bodies, implementing the specifics reported in the principal EU Directives, such as Water
157 Framework, Habitats and Marine Strategy Framework Directives. A review of the regulations adopted by
158 some EU Countries is listed in Appendix A.
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179 Considering the above-depicted European framework, Italian regulation follows the general trend as far as
180 both maximum effluent temperature and acceptable ambient-effluent temperature difference are concerned.
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182 D. Lgs. n.152 (2006) dictates that (i) the maximum water temperature at the outlet should not be higher than
183 35°C, and (ii) the maximum temperature increment in the coastal field, at a distance of 1 km from the outlet,
184 should be lower than 3°C.
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187 In temperate coastal and estuarine areas, cooling water discharge from power stations is typically between 8
188 and 12°C above the ambient water temperature, and recirculation of effluent water should be therefore
189 granted by designing intake and outlet structures in order to allow a proper re-cooling of sea water (Durán-
190 Colmenares, 2016).
191

192 The warmer water of the effluent is of course less dense than the receiving body water and therefore it tends
193 to rise at the surface: a persistent interface is so generated because of this density difference, and dynamics
194 like advection and diffusion tend to tone down such an interface, leading to complex mixing mechanisms.
195 Depending on climate conditions, the environmental impact of thermal release into the sea can be more or
196 less localized, and inducing some modifications in nearshore currents by power plant intake and thermal
197 discharge systems (Elwany et al., 1990).
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200 In addition, the diffusion of the cooling fluid in sea could also affect the efficiency of the heat exchangers of
201 the power plants, since the inflow temperature (eventually influenced by the thermal outflow) should be
202 taken into account during the design of the plant machines. More site-specific analysis on the developing
203 thermal plume is then needed for multi-units at the same site to assure sufficient separation between the
204 inflow and outflow waters, to be evaluated together with operational limitations due to the seawater
205 temperature (Kim and Jeong, 2013).
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208 Accordingly, the estimation of the mixing area (or thermal plume) seems to be critical to ensure compliance
209 with the National regulation limits, and is largely influenced by parameters such as outflow discharge and
210 velocity, cooling water temperature, and sea and coastal ambient conditions (SST, currents, tides, wave and
211 wind regimes, infrastructures, economical facilities, etc.).
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214 Furthermore, effects induced by the present climate variability and the expected climate changes should not
215 be neglected, considering the dire consequences those already have/will have on mean sea temperature
216 (Schaltout and Omstedt, 2014), along with the design life time of power plants (exceeding 30-50 years in
217 most cases).
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220 The present study focuses on dynamics induced by thermal discharge release in the coastal area of Cerano,
221 South Italy, in the vicinity of a power plant, which uses seawater as a cooling agent. The investigation is
222 carried out by means of a coupled wave - 3D-hydrodynamics numerical model TELEMAC, and the paper is
223 organized as described in the following.
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238 Section 2 presents the state-of-the art in the numerical modelling of coastal water quality, with a focus on
239 thermal discharge. The case study of Cerano is described in Section 3 where site characteristics, collected
240 field data to implement and verify the model and numerical setup are illustrated. Section 4 presents the
241 model calibration and sensitivity analysis specifics, discussing in detail all data and model parameters
242 involved, by means of typical performance indices. Results of the calibrated model runs are shown in
243 Section 5 for the 3 hypothetical representative scenarios of environmental and operational conditions,
244 namely: SC1, focusing on tidal and wave conditions; SC2, focusing on water temperature stratification in the
245 coastal field; and SC3, focusing on the operational characteristics of the power plant (i.e., water discharge
246 and effluent temperature).

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249 The presented numerical investigation is the first authors' step towards the better understanding of thermal
250 discharge dynamics in coastal areas, by means of numerical modelling of thermal pollution. Furthermore, the
251 study is among the few in relevant literature that focuses directly on thermal discharge dynamics rather than
252 studying it indirectly through its biological impacts, and is deemed to set the bases for future work on the
253 same path.

260 261 262 **2. Modelling coastal water quality with focus on thermal discharge: a state-of-the-art**

263
264 As also mentioned in the previous, coastal water quality is essential for the preservation coastal ecosystems
265 and the sustainable evolution of human activities in coastal and marine areas. As such, it has been
266 extensively studied over the years by various means, ranging from simple observational and monitoring
267 techniques to entire frameworks, and from simple empirical equations to entire computational systems.
268 Given the advances in computational power nowadays, numerical modelling has become the main tool for
269 the investigation of the effects that various natural and/or human forcings have on water quality, by being
270 able to: (i) incorporate the representation of a wide array of processes and interactions, and (ii) examine
271 multiple scenarios of the aforementioned forcings for research and operational purposes. In the following,
272 the theoretical background and advances in coastal water quality modelling is presented, with a clear focus
273 on thermal discharges in coastal/marine waters.

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276 Regarding natural forcings, the ones referred to as “metocean forcings” are quintessential for coastal water
277 quality modelling, comprising wind, air temperature, humidity, precipitation, etc. Accurate meteorological
278 data are required at the water surface to act as boundary conditions (James, 2002), driving the currents
279 through wind stress, changing the temperature through heat fluxes and salinity through precipitation and
280 evaporation. Wave effects are important in the surface layer and in shallow water, where coupled wave-
281 hydrodynamics modelling is required in order to account for increased mixing due to breaking waves and
282 wave-induced enhancement of bed stress. In addition, wave-driven residual flows (such as Stokes drift and
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297 longshore currents) are particularly important when studying thermal discharge in coastal areas, with the
298 second ones constituting probably the strongest drive for thermal plumes within the breaker zone.

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300 Regarding human forcings, one may refer – in general – to the addition of pollutants and/or contaminants to
301 the coastal/marine environment that deteriorate water quality (sediments, metals, oil spills, chemicals, toxins,
302 thermal discharges, plastics, etc.), as results of various economical and recreational man activities. Focusing
303 on thermal discharge studies – and in the context of this work – a basic division can be made into: (i) studies
304 that examine the problem indirectly, though its biological impact on coastal ecosystems, and (ii) studies that
305 examine the direct effects of thermal discharge on water temperature (SST distribution, depth stratification)
306 and local hydrodynamics. The second ones, when based on numerical modelling like the present work, offer
307 a better understanding of the actual processes involved in the studied phenomena and are more versatile, in
308 the sense that they can be used both for quantitative comparative evaluations and as bases for other studies
309 on the indirect effects of thermal pollution.

310
311 Falling into the first of the above categories, one could refer (indicatively but not exclusively) to the works
312 of: Chuang et al. (2009), who studied the effects of elevated water temperatures and residual chlorine from
313 thermal discharge by a coastal nuclear power plant in Taiwan on aquatic flora characteristics; Ingleton and
314 McMinn (2012), who proposed a multidisciplinary approach for assessing effects of thermal pollution on
315 estuaries based on biotic indices and satellite observations; Lardicci et al. (1999) and Li et al. (2014), who
316 studied the impact of thermal discharge on benthic communities based on field measurements and statistical
317 analyses; and Poornima et al. (2005), who studied the impact of thermal effluents from a coastal power plant
318 in India on phytoplankton based on field observations and laboratory experiments.

319
320 Regarding studies falling into the second category, one could start from the ones utilizing field
321 measurements and observational data, referring to the works of: Elwany et al. (1990), who studied the
322 modification of coastal currents by a power plant's intake and thermal discharge systems in Southern
323 California based on current measurements, trajectory experiments and their statistical analyses; and
324 Muthulakshmi et al. (2013), who studied the plume dispersion from the thermal outfall of a nuclear power in
325 India using thermal infrared images along with field measurements. Moving forward, works on the bridging
326 of near- and far- field analysis are also worth mentioning, with the work of Israelsson et al. (2006) and Suh
327 (2001, 2006, 2014) standing out in relevant literature. Israelsson et al. (2006) proposed the use of Lagrangian
328 approaches – independently or along Eulerian models – in order to extend the domain of near field analysis
329 of contaminant mixing near pollution sources in inland/coastal water bodies, while Suh (2001, 2006, 2014)
330 proposed a hybrid technique to simulate the dispersion of heat from thermal discharges combining near-field
331 models (e.g., CORMIX and ADCIRC) and far-field Eulerian-Lagrangian transport models.

355
356 Although the above constitute valuable background knowledge for researchers working on such relevant
357 phenomena, studies on the numerical modelling of thermal discharge are the most essential for research and
358 operational purposes nowadays, and helped formulate the study design and realization of this work as well.
359 Listing a number of different modelling approaches used for the simulation of temperature and
360 hydrodynamics evolutions due to thermal discharge, one could refer to the works of: Wu et al. (2001), who
361 applied the 3D hydrodynamic and transport model GLLVHT (Generalized Longitudinal-Lateral-Vertical
362 Hydrodynamic and Transport; Edinger and Buchak, 1980); Schreiner et al. (2002), who put in test the
363 Cornell Mixing Zone Expert System (CORMIX, Jirka et al., 1996); Kolluru et al. (2003), who used the
364 Generalized Environmental Modelling System for Surface Waters (GEMSS) and a probabilistic approach for
365 the definition of the discharge's mixing zone; Chen et al. (2003), who used the 3D Finite Volume Coastal
366 Ocean Model (FVCOM); Maderich et al. (2008), who used the 3D numerical model they developed, named
367 THREETOX; and Cardoso-Mohedano et al. (2015), who used the Stony Brook Parallel Ocean Model
368 presented by Jordi and Wang (2012).

369 Indicative studies on the comparative evaluation of different models include those of: Stamou and
370 Nikiforakis (2013), who presented an integrated model for the simulation of thermal effluent discharges to
371 coastal waters, consisting of the near field model CorJet and the far field model FLOW-3DL, and compared
372 their results to predictions from the CORMIX model; and Tang et al. (2008), who developed 3D Reynolds-
373 averaged Navier–Stokes model for the simulation of initial mixing in the near-field of thermal discharges,
374 and tested it in various configurations comparing their results to the results of both CORMIX and Visual
375 Plumes (Frick et al., 2003).

376 Finally, and due to its connection to the numerical tools used in this work, reference should also be made to
377 the work of (i) Bedri et al. (2014), who used the 2D and 3D hydrodynamics modules of the TELEMAC suite
378 (TELEMAC-2D and -3D, respectively) in combination to the environmental model SUBIEF-3D (Luck and
379 Guesmia, 2002) in order to investigate the impact of a mixed sewage treatment plant and power plant
380 effluence on coastal water quality and of (ii) Matta et al. (2017), who investigated the 3D flows induced by
381 moderate or extreme winds in a Brazilian bay.

398 **3. The case study of Cerano, South Italy**

399 **3.1 Site description**

400 The study comprises the coastal area in the immediate vicinity of the ENEL Federico II power plant at
401 Cerano, about 12 km south the city of Brindisi in South Italy (see Figure 1).

402 The coastline near Cerano is made up of cliffs with a very small sandy beach at the foot; the cliffs are made
403 up of sandy-clayey soils, sometimes weakly cemented, however easily erodible by the aggression of the
404

414 incident wave motion, with no beach at the foot along the northern sections of Cerano, and very small sandy
415 strips along the southern slope (MATTM, 2017).

416 The coastline is under strong erosion due to the continuous dismantling action of the storms which, abrading
417 the foot of the cliff's sides, establish precarious equilibrium conditions, which result in collapses and erosion
418 tendency.

419 The substantial shoreline retreat has led over time to the construction of some coastal defense works.
420 Already before 1992, the littoral stretch south the plant had been protected by a revetment made from natural
421 boulders, and, some years later, rubble-mound emerged breakwaters and groins were constructed along the
422 coast, inducing modifications in the sediment transport of the area. Indeed, breakwaters induced a
423 considerable accumulation of sediment over the years in the area protected by the cliffs, leading to the
424 formation of typical tombolos, while groins trapped sand on their north side, but caused beach erosion on the
425 south side of the structures, due to the prevailing direction of the solid longitudinal transport from north to
426 south.

427 The wave data collected in the period 1989-2012 by the RON - Italian Data Buoy Network (Franco and
428 Archetti, 1993; Franco, 1995; Archetti et al., 2016) buoy placed offshore Monopoli, around 70 km north the
429 study site, are analytically transposed offshore the study site, according to the geographic fetch-based
430 approach (Contini and De Girolamo, 1998). Therefore, the reconstructed typical wave climate at Cerano is
431 found to be characterized by NNW and ESE storms, mainly generated by Mistral (cold and dry wind usually
432 blowing during the winter) and by Sirocco (warm and humid wind, generally inducing high storm surge),
433 respectively.



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461 **Figure 1. Satellite view of the studied area of Cerano (Italy) from Google Earth, 2018 (left panel) and a zoomed view on the**
462 **area of the cooling water release (right panel).**

463
464 In the study site, the net annual longshore sediment transport is directed from NW to SE, according to the
465 Italian Atlas of beaches (1997), while sediment exchange with nearby coastal areas is limited/constrained by
466 the headland located at the north, i.e. south of Brindisi (Delle Rose, 2015).

Covering an area of about 270 hectares and with a total installed capacity of 2640 MW, the thermoelectric (coal) power plant “Federico II” is one of the largest in Europe, with an electrical mean efficiency estimated to be of 35.6 % in the period 2003-2006 (Environmental Declaration – Enel Production, 2012).

Seawater is withdrawn at around 300 m from the shoreline and at a water depth of 5 m, with an inlet system of four pipelines. Heat exchangers are cooled by this sea water transported by a single pump of 1.000 m³/h capacity and, at the end of the production cycle, the cooling fluid comes back to sea through a discharge channel with an outlet width of 80 m, reaching a total estimated outflow of 3 bn. tons of water per year, corresponding to an annual average rate of 100 m³/s (Environmental Declaration – Enel Production, 2012). Based on the plant’s design conditions, the maximum temperature difference between inflow and outflow waters is therefore estimated to be set to 12 °C.

3.2 Field data

Instantaneous values of conductivity, temperature and density (CTD) have been provided by the environmental agency of the Apulia Region – ARPA - regarding a monitoring campaign carried out on the day 17 July 2002. During this campaign, CTD profiles were obtained at 23 points in the sea offshore the Cerano power plant, as presented in Figure 2; the geographical coordinates (East, North) of the measurement points together to the values of the depth-average temperature and standard deviation are listed in Table 1.

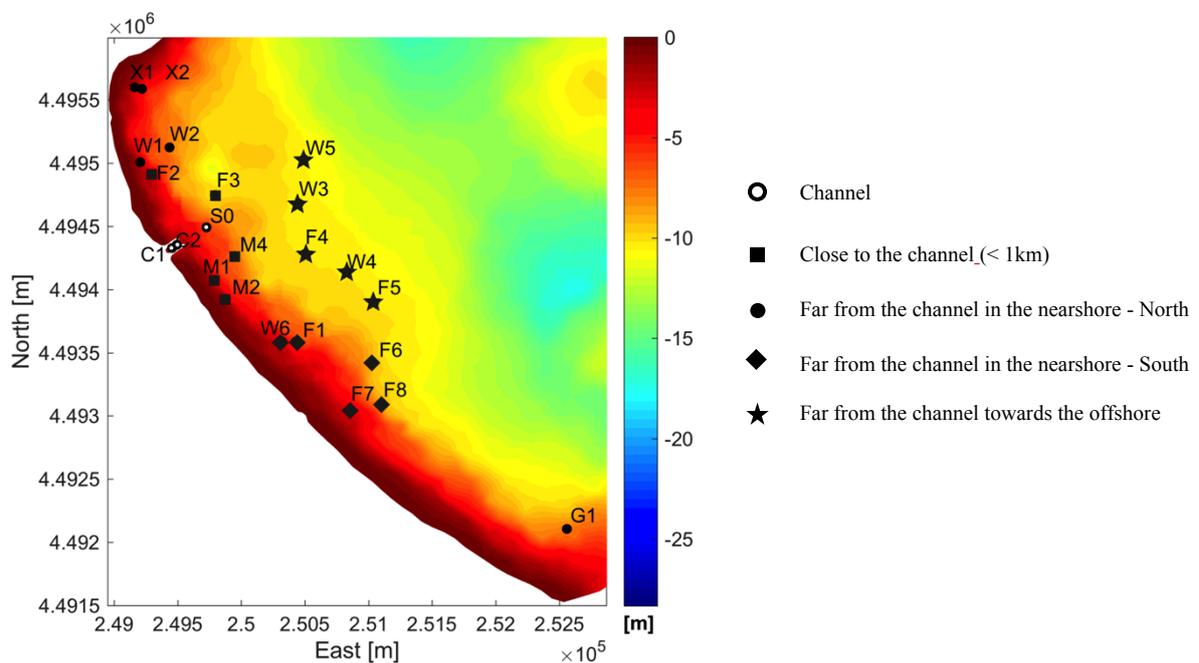


Figure 2. Positions of the 23 points of CTD measurement and legend of their symbols according to the location group in Table 1.

Due to the spatial distribution of the measurement points, the dataset is divided into 5 categories (reported in the last column of the table) in relation to the distance from the outlet channel and the shoreline. Classes are: “Channel”, including the 3 points located inside outlet channel; “Close to the channel (<1 km)”, including points at a distance less than 1 km from the channel; “Far from the channel in the nearshore - North” and “Far from the channel in the nearshore - South”, including points close to the shoreline (water depth < 5 m) and located at north and south of the channel, respectively; and finally, “Far from the channel towards the offshore”, including points offshore (water depth > 5 m).

Table 1. Locations of the ARPA-Apulia points where CTD measurements were collected, depth-average temperature and standard deviation and their location group in the area.

Points ID	East [m]	North [m]	Depth-average temperature [°C]	Std Temperature [°C]	<u>Location group</u>
C1	249456.3	4494329.5	35.4	0.02	Channel
C2	249494.0	4494353.0	33.7	2.12	
S0	249726.0	4494492.0	31.6	0.83	
F2	249293.8	4494909.5	26	0.45	Close to the channel (< 1km)
F3	249792.6	4494748.5	25.8	0.54	
M1	249789.3	4494075.5	26.5	0.67	
M2	249877.1	4493926.5	28.3	0.72	
M4	249947.9	4494264.0	25.8	0.43	
X1	249164.3	4495601.0	26.5	0.79	Far from the channel in the nearshore - North
X2	249219.6	4495588.5	26.4	0.70	
W1	249206.3	4495009.0	26	0.48	
W2	249437.0	4495125.5	25.9	0.57	
F1	250430.3	4493587.5	26.8	0.64	Far from the channel in the nearshore - South
W6	250318.6	4493590.0	27.8	0.32	
F6	251028.7	4493431.0	26.1	0.64	
F7	250859.6	4493046.0	27.1	0.64	
F8	251102.7	4493102.0	26.6	0.54	
G1	252558.3	4492106.5	26.4	0.51	
F4	250503.6	4494285.0	26.3	1.09	Far from the channel towards the offshore
F5	251044.4	4493898.0	26.1	0.75	
W3	250451.9	4494679.5	25.5	0.46	
W4	250830.0	4494141.5	26.2	0.71	
W5	250490.9	4495030.0	25.6	0.55	

Waves were acquired from RON at the Monopoli buoy and propagated at the offshore boundary of study site, wind time series have been retrieved from the Italian National Tide Gauge Network (RMN), while the global database TPXO (Egbert and Erofeeva, 2002) was used for tides.

3.3 Numerical modelling

Approaching the coastal region, waves generated offshore are influenced by shoaling, refraction, and loss of energy either due to bottom friction and wave breaking (Buccino et al., 2014; Cavaleri et al., 2018). To simulate all these physical processes, including wave-induced currents, the present study of thermal discharge dispersion to the coastal area of Cerano is carried out using the numerical modules of the TELEMAC-MASCARET suite (available at TELEMAC, 2018) that is distributed under a General Public License.

The suite comprises finite-element-based solvers to simulate shallow water hydrodynamics and wave propagation, and is able to model inshore water levels and wave spectra under different drivers. The different modules comprised in the suite can simulate wind wave propagation, ground water flows, tracer transport, sediment transport, and morphodynamics.

The wave and 3D hydrodynamics modules of TELEMAC-MASCARET suite are TOMAWAC and TELEMAC3D, respectively and they were implemented in the proposed approach in order to propagate offshore waves and currents and reproduce nearshore dynamics influencing the thermal release at Cerano.

TOMAWAC module (henceforth denoted as TOM; Benoit et al., 1996) solves a simplified equation for the spectro-angular density of wave action by means of a finite-element type method (Booij et al., 1999), in order to describe wave propagation and dynamics in coastal areas. This module is properly set up for the studied area based on previous experience on coupled wave–2D hydrodynamics runs for the representation of nearshore processes, as presented in Samaras et al. (2016), Gaeta et al. (2016) and Gaeta et al. (2018).

The processes included in the wave model simulations are: (i) energy dissipation due to wave breaking according to Battjes and Janssen (1978), (ii) energy dissipation due to bottom friction according to Hasselmann et al. (1973), and (iii) nonlinear transfer of energy due to triad (three-wave) interactions according to Eldeberky and Battjes (1995). No movable seabed, no defense breaching, and no past subsidence-induced movements were assumed in the study.

The 3-D Navier–Stokes equations are solved in TELEMAC-3D (henceforth denoted as TEL3D; Hervouet, 2007), with the option of the non-hydrostatic pressure hypothesis, and includes: (i) the use of a finite element unstructured grid, which allows selective refinement of the mesh at key locations in the domain and boundary fitting method for vertical discretization; (ii) the transport-diffusion equations of intrinsic quantities (temperature, salinity, concentration), in order to reproduce 3-D hydrodynamics including the transport of active and passive tracers; (iii) a wide range of options for vertical turbulence modelling.

The governing equation of the tracer transport is reported in Equation (1), as:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial z} = U_x \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial x} + U_y \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial y} + U_z \frac{\partial(\rho T)}{\partial z} \quad (1)$$

650
651
652 where T and ρ represent the water temperature and the water density, respectively; u , v and w are the water
653 velocity components and U_x , U_y and U_z are the turbulent thermal diffusivity components along the x , y and z
654 velocity components and U_x , U_y and U_z are the turbulent thermal diffusivity components along the x , y and z
655 the spatial coordinate system, respectively; t is time.

656
657 The latest release of TELEMAC (version 7.0) includes the implementation in TEL3D of thermal exchange
658 fluxes between sea and atmosphere, including typical processes of net solar radiation (Cooper, 1969), long-
659 wave radiation (Berliand and Berliand, 1952), sensible heat (Rosati and Miyakoda, 1988) and latent heat due
660 to evaporation (Panin and Brezgunov, 2006).
661

662
663 TEL3D can be directly coupled (two-way coupling) with the spectral module TOM on the same
664 computational mesh in order to reproduce the dynamics of wave-driven currents; the gradients of the
665 radiation stress induced by waves are computed using the theory of Longuet-Higgins and Steward (1964) as
666 part of the hydrodynamics equations. The updated values of current velocities and water depths calculated
667 in TEL3D are transferred to TOM, while TOM solves the wave action density conservation equation, and
668 returns the updated values of the wave driving forces acting on the current to the hydrodynamics modules
669 (Hervouet, 2007).
670
671

672
673 The initialization strategy of the implemented high-resolution model followed the methodology described in
674 Federico et al. (2017), where initial condition fields on temperature were provided by the Mediterranean
675 Forecasting System MFS (produced by data assimilation), which supplies operational forecasting products in
676 the framework of CMEMS (Copernicus Marine Environmental Monitoring Service, available at
677 <http://marine.copernicus.eu/>). Figure 3 shows the sea temperature field at day 17 July 2002, as obtained by
678 MFS, and the profiles at 4 selected nodes, the ones falling into the study area and therefore used to set initial
679 conditions of the present implemented model.
680

681
682 According to the experience and validation shown at large and coastal scale (Cucco et al., 2012; Trotta et al.,
683 2016) and at harbor scale (Gaeta et al., 2016), a spin-up time of 3 days was considered to be a reasonable
684 choice in order to ensure the development of internal dynamics by the nested model. Therefore simulations
685 were carried out for the period between 14 and 17 July 2002, that is the day when measurements were
686 collected.
687

688
689 Interpolating the oceanic fields over the new higher-resolution grid is solved following the procedure
690 suggested in De Dominicis et al. (2013) and validated in Samaras et al. (2014), although the local effects on
691 sea temperature and hydrodynamics field induced by the cooling discharge from the plant are not captured in
692 the MFS model, due both to its large mesh resolution ($7 \times 7 \text{ km}^2$) and the absence of any imposed liquid
693 conditions at the shoreline boundary (no run-off and release into coastal waters).
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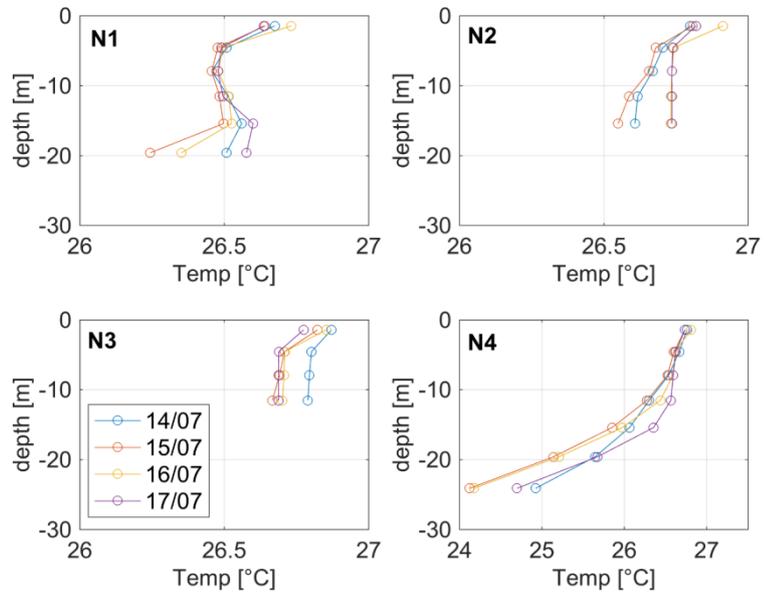
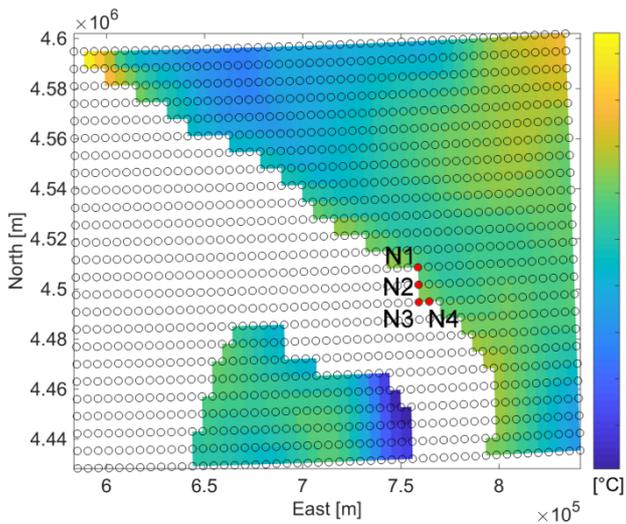


Figure 3. Sea surface temperature on 17 July 2002 extracted by Copernicus Service data (left panel) and daily average temperature profiles for the period 14-17 July 2002, at the 4 MFS nodes (right panels).

Details of the drivers used for the model runs are listed in Table 2, describing the initial conditions (IC), offshore boundary conditions (OBC), surface conditions (SC) and the imposed conditions at the channel (Outlet) of the modelled variables in TEL3D and in TOM, following the implemented multiple nesting procedure (Gaeta et al., 2016).

Table 2. Initial (IC), offshore boundary (OBC), surface (SC) and outlet conditions for the different modelled drivers

	Tide	Current	Wind	Wave ^(*)	Sea Temperature	Meteorological variables
IC	<u>Null</u>	<u>Null</u>	Null	Null	MFS	Null
OBC	TPXO	<u>Null</u>	-	<u>Transposed</u> RON	MFS	-
SC	-	-	RMN	-	-	RMN
Outlet	<u>TPXO</u>	Outflow (discharge constraint)	-	<u>Open flow</u>	Outflow	-

(*) Significant wave height, peak period and mean direction defining a JONSWAP spectrum in TOM.

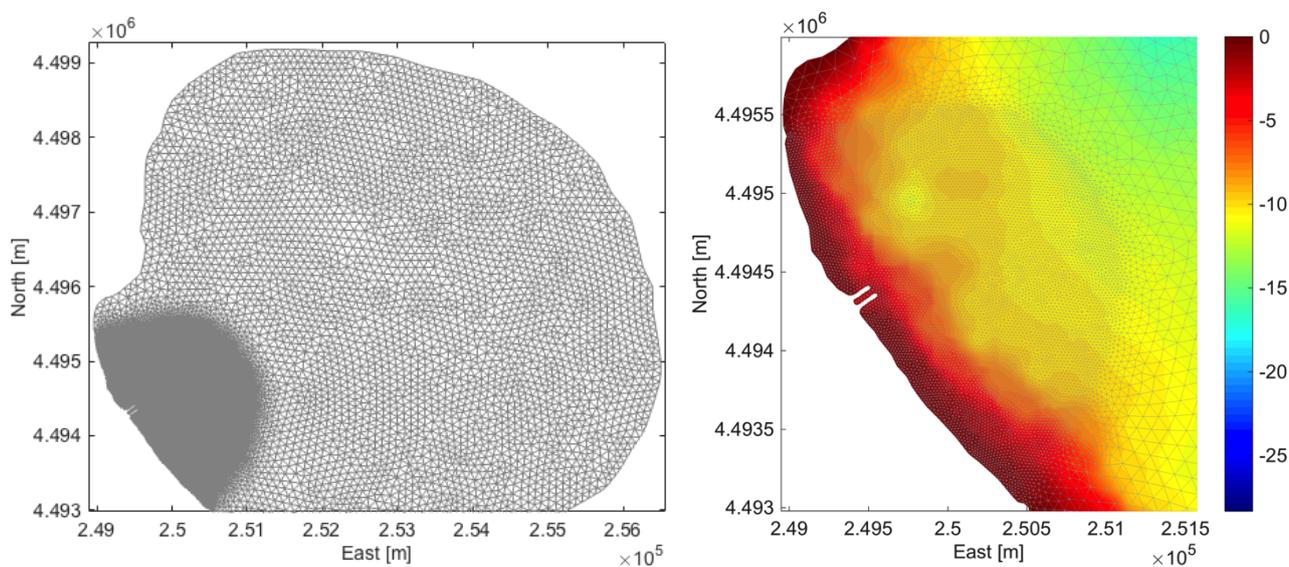
In the model, finite element techniques were used to solve the hydrodynamic equations, adopting the z-vertical discretization to follow the surface and lower boundaries. The Multidimensional Upwind Residual Distribution method was applied for the advection of three-dimensional variables under TEL3D, and the boundary conditions were applied following the method of characteristics.

The advection of tracers was solved using the distributive MURD + PSI method and the prescription of tracers at the open channel was applied using imposition by the Dirichlet boundary condition, while a Neumann type condition at the offshore was prescribed, imposing a zero gradient of temperature.

768
769 The mesh for the implementation of the models in this work was generated using the freely-available pre-
770 processing tool Blue Kenue (CHC, 2010). A series of tests preceded the final mesh generation, in order to
771 evaluate optimal mesh edge-dimension, in terms of both representing the processes of interest satisfactorily
772 and keeping computational times to reasonable levels.
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775 The selected variable density unstructured mesh (see Figure 4), consisted of two density regions: a coarse
776 one (100 m edge length), extending from the offshore boundary and up to the plant outflow area, and a fine
777 one (10 m edge length) in the immediate vicinity of the plant outlet and the nearby area, aiming to better
778 capture the mixing dynamics following the thermal release. The number of nodes in the mesh equals to
779 around 14.000.
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783 The used bathymetric and shoreline data were obtained by digitizing nautical charts acquired from the Italian
784 National Hydrographic Military Service (Figure 4). The resulting map clearly indicates a gradually changing
785 bathymetric pattern moving offshore. In particular: depths (in the range of 2 - 3 m right in front of the
786 shoreline) remain respectively low up to 500 m to the offshore, followed by the central mesh area which is
787 characterized by depths ranging from 12 m to 18 m, eventually transitioning to depth reaching around 30 m
788 near the offshore boundary of the modelled region (i.e., the boundary where waves are generated as well).
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810 **Figure 4. Mesh of the studied area (left panel) and a zoomed view of the interpolated bathymetry (right panel).**

811 812 **4. Model calibration and discussion**

813 814 **4.1 Sensitivity analysis on hydrodynamics drivers**

815 A sensitivity analysis was performed on hydrodynamics drivers included in the simulations, in order to
816 define which of them mostly influenced models performance, as being sensitive to the variation of the
817 simulated processes. The analysis was carried out at the 7 points of the ARPA-Apulia measuring campaign,
818 namely F2, F3, M1 – close to the outlet channel; X2, W6 – far from the channel in the nearshore – North and
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 828 South, respectively; W3 and F4 – far from the channel towards the offshore. These points were selected
 829 among the measurements as they are representative of the defined location groups (Table 1).
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831 The analysis was applied to different drivers included in the simulations, as listed in Table 3, accounting for
 832 wave propagation (W), tidal elevation (T) and wind forcing (U), for a total of 8 performed runs.
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836 **Table 3. Modelled hydrodynamics drivers: wave (W), tide (T) and wind (U).**

Modelled process				
#	Run name	Wave	Tide	Wind
0	W0T0U0	-	-	-
1	W1T0U0	X	-	-
2	W0T1U0	-	X	-
3	W0T0U1	-	-	X
4	W1T1U0	X	X	
5	W1T0U1	X	-	X
6	W0T1U1	-	X	X
7	W1T1U1	X	X	X

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 838
 839 To investigate the model performance, the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) was evaluated allowing a
 840 comparison between the measured and the simulated temperature values. These parameters were calculated
 841 by using the expression:
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$$850 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_1^N (T_s - T_m)^2}{N}} \quad (2)$$

851 where N is the total number of the measured points (Table 1) along the collected vertical profiles, the index s
 852 is for the simulated value and m for the measured CTD data.
 853
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 855

856 For each of the performed simulations, default values as defined by Hervouet (2007), Samaras et al. (2016)
 857 and Gaeta et al. (2016) were kept constant, as well as the number of horizontal layers (equal to 5).
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 859

860 Figure 5 presents the results of the sensitivity analysis in terms of RMSE for temperature values. The
 861 influence of the simulated processes strongly depends on the investigated location's distance from thermal
 862 discharge release point, with minimum errors resulting when all drivers were included in the run, i.e.
 863 W1T1U1.
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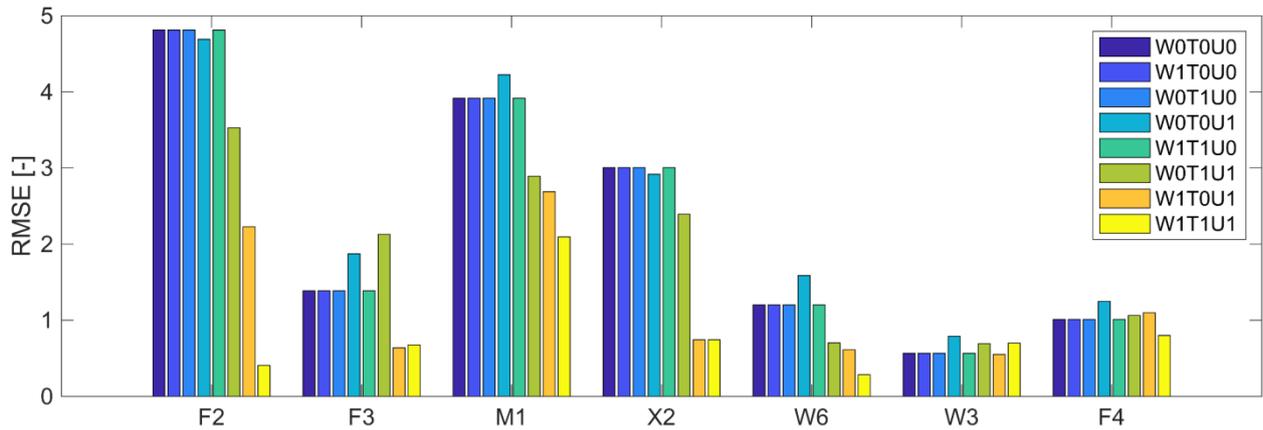


Figure 5. RMSE at different measured points: sensitivity analysis on the included simulated processes, as listed in Table 3.

In particular, points located close the channel, F2 - M1, present the highest errors – (ranging between 2 and 5) when waves and wind were excluded by the simulations, that were reported as crucial drivers to simulate the thermal diffusion in nearshore areas.

Therefore, coupling wave and wind modelling, despite rising the computational time by a factor 10, improves the quality of the results and might be accounted for in these complex coastal processes.

4.2 Sensitivity analysis on governing equations' parameters

A significant array of simulations was run in order to get a proper calibration of the models used in this work, on the basis of the available temperature profiles provided by ARPA-Apulia, by means of investigating the influence of the TEL3D parameters in order to reach the better agreement between data and simulations.

For the local sensitivity analysis, the performed simulations were carried out using the “one-at-the-time” approach (Simmons et al., 2015), by increasing each parameter by a given percentage while leaving all others constant, and quantifying the change in model output.

The parameters identified for the analysis characterize the processes involved in coastal thermal pollution, such as the number of the horizontal layers, the friction bottom coefficient, the horizontal and vertical turbulence models, the diffusion coefficients for velocity, the horizontal diffusion for temperature, and wind drag coefficient. All the other parameters, mainly regarding wave propagation and wave-current interactions, were kept equal to the calibrated values as defined by Hervouet (2007), Samaras et al. (2016) and Gaeta et al. (2016).

Table 4 shows the list of analysed parameters, their tested range and their corresponding final values adopted for the calibrated model runs. For this analysis, the physical processes by coupled wave -3D hydrodynamics

modelling, including wind influence, were simulated according to the results shown in the global sensitivity analysis presented in the previous section.

Table 4. List of the parameters in TEL3D tuned in the sensitivity analysis (run W1T1U1).

Variable name	Variable description	Value range	Final value
nz	NUMBER OF HORIZONTAL LAYERS [-]	5 - 10	5
fs	FRICITION COEFF. FOR THE BOTTOM [$m^{1/3}/s$]	60 - 100	80
Tx	COEFFICIENT FOR HORIZONTAL DIFFUSION OF TRACERS [m^2/s]	10^{-6} - 10^{-1}	10^{-6}
Uz	COEFFICIENT FOR VERTICAL DIFFUSION OF VELOCITIES [m^2/s]	10^{-6} - 10^{-1}	10^{-6}
Ux	COEFFICIENT FOR HORIZONTAL DIFFUSION OF VELOCITIES [m^2/s]	10^{-6} - 10^{-1}	10^{-1}
kv	VERTICAL TURBULENCE MODEL	2 - 5 ^[a]	2
ml	MIXING LENGTH SCALE [m]	2 - 5	5
kh	HORIZONTAL TURBULENCE MODEL	2 - 4 ^[a]	4
cd	COEFF. OF WIND INFLUENCE [m^3/kg]	$2 - 10 \times 10^{-3}$	5×10^{-3}

^[a] 1= constant viscosity; 2=mixing length; 3= Prandt; 4=Smagorinsky; 5=k-ε

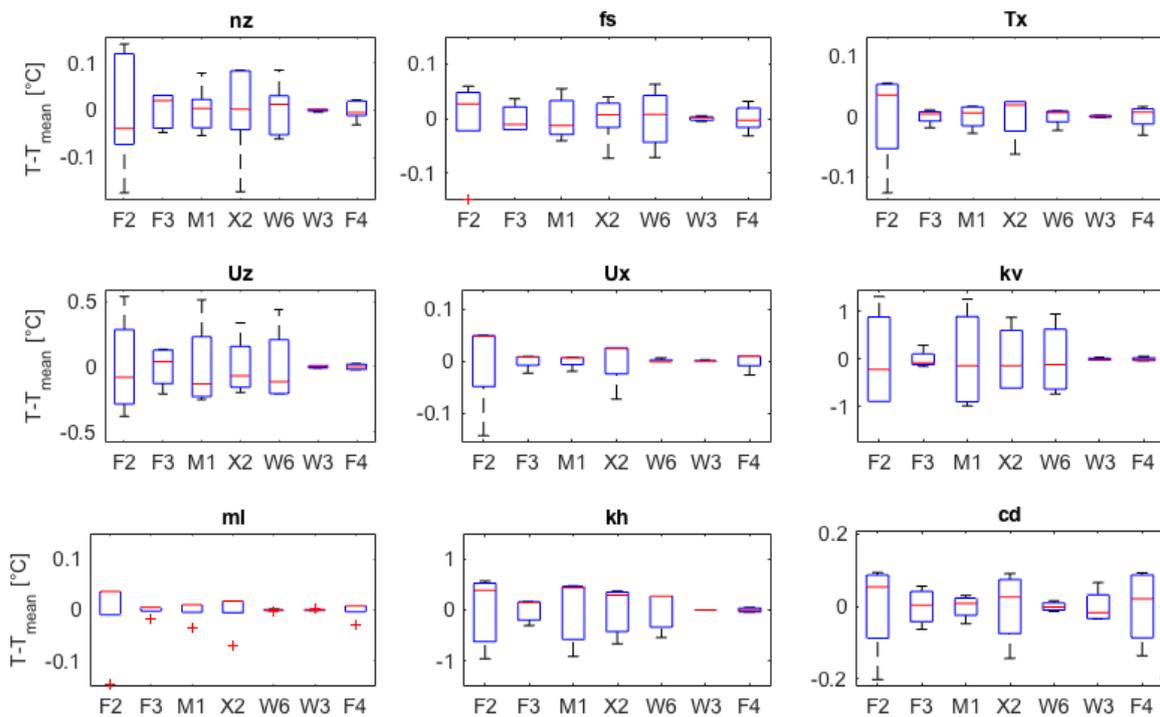


Figure 6. Results of the sensitivity analysis for each analyzed parameters in TEL3D for the 7 selected points.

Results of the 45 runs were summarized for the 7 selected measurement locations in Figure 6, where each panel shows the differences in depth-average temperature between measurements and model results for each

of the 9 investigated parameters. In Figure 6, red lines represent mean values, top and bottom box edges represent the 75th and 25th percentiles, line limits represent maximum and minimum values, and red crosses indicate outliers.

The results show that the parameters that mainly influence the model quality, thus improving the numerical reproduction of the thermal mixing processes, are the choice of the vertical and horizontal turbulence models (kv, kh), the vertical diffusion coefficient (Uz), and the wind drag coefficient (cd).

The model sensitivity to the adopted turbulence models and velocity diffusivity appears to decrease with the increase of distance from the shoreline and from the release channel: points F2, F3 M1, X2 and W6 present the greatest variance in the agreement with measured temperatures. The influence of the drag coefficient for wind appears, on the other hand, to be spatially uniform ranging from -0.2 to 0.1.

Following the analysis on the parameters, the model can be assessed as calibrated, with reference to the thermal dynamics and climate of the study area.

4.3 Discussion on the numerical results from the calibrated model

Results of the final calibrated model as obtained after the sensitivity analysis, i.e. run WIT1U1, are presented in Figure 7, where temperature profiles at the 7 reference points analysed in the previous sub-sections were extracted from the numerical simulation and compared to the measurements.

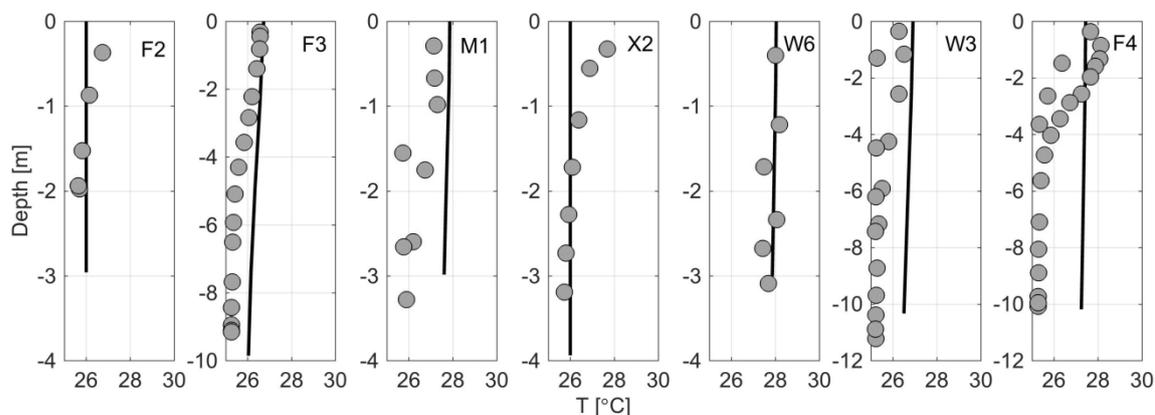


Figure 7. Comparison of temperature profiles: calibrated simulation (solid lines) and ARPA-Apulia measured data (points).

Although some uncertainties are present in the present numerical study about initial and boundary conditions implemented in the simulations, the calibration results in a satisfactory agreement to data, especially considering the complexity of the studied phenomenon, as well as the equally complex dynamics of the various processes' interactions involved in its numerical simulation. In particular, regarding the depth-average temperature, the following convergence results are observed: maximum deviation from data

reaching +2 °C in just 2 of the examined locations; deviation less than +1 °C for 19 points; maximum deviation of +0.2 °C achieved for 6 out of the 23 examined points.

The greater difference is observed at points located offshore, i.e. W3 and F4, where the low temperatures (around 25°C) are not captured well by the model, overestimating them for water depths > 3 m. This can be attributed to the initial conditions used, as temperatures extracted by MFS are overall bigger than 26°C (see Fig. 3).

The temperature increment ΔT due to the power plant release with respect to the ambient values is shown in Figure 8, where the evolution of the plume development as discretized at the 23 points of the ARPA-Apulia campaign is shown the model results and the measured values, at a water depth equal to -1 m.

The overall diffusion of the thermal release is found to be well reproduced by the calibrated model, where the computed mixing area is slightly greater extending to the southern direction, revealing the flow directionality driven by wind and waves is satisfactory predicted in the simulation.

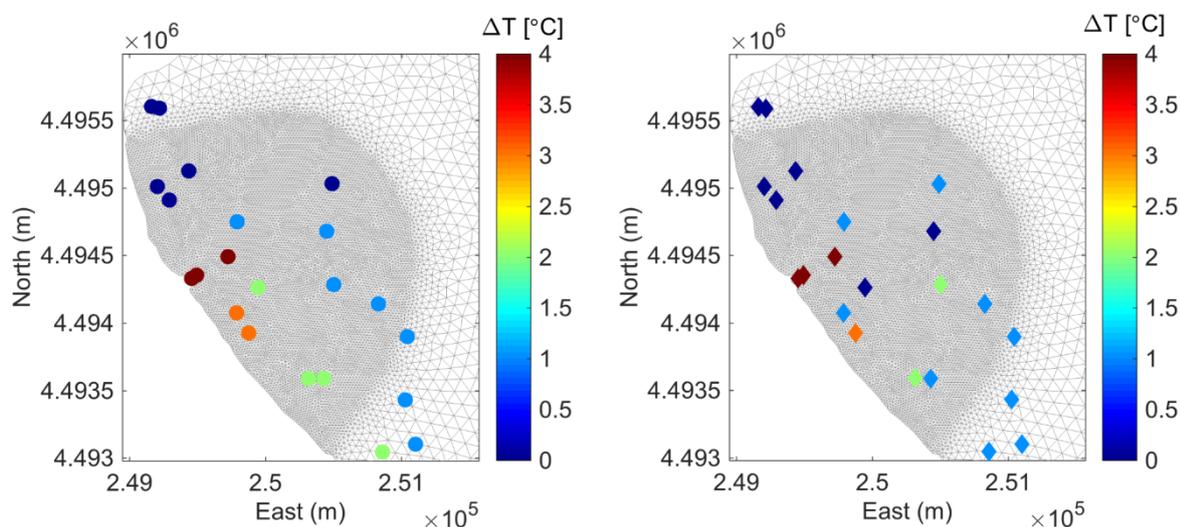


Figure 8. Numerical results (left panel) and measurements (right panel): temperature increment ΔT (colorbar) at a water depth equal to -1 m for the 23 points of the ARPA- Apulia campaign.

In accordance to the previous, Figure 9 shows the computed thermal plume in the studied coastal area, where the sea temperature at the end of the simulation reveals the prevalent dispersion of the cooling waters towards SSE and mainly along the southern shoreline. Arrows represent the velocity vectors: the prevalent longshore current is driven by wind and waves and directed from North to South with speed reaching up to about 0.20 m/s and that strongly affects the direction of the thermal plume. Both the presence of the two groins delimiting the outlet channel and the outflow speed of the cooling waters induce a perturbation in the actual current patterns, resulting in the development of: (i) a seaward directed plume, with a velocity of about 1 m/s and (ii) eddies downward the channel, eventually contributing to the observed shoreline retreat in this specific area. Under the simulated conditions, the directionality developed by the thermal plume is

desirable in terms of power plant efficiency/performance, as the cooling waters move away from the morphologically-constrained area North of the channel (see also Figure 1), which could lead to its entrapment and consequent increment in local temperature, affecting both the water temperature at the intake (i.e., reducing the plant efficiency) and the acceptable thermal increment imposed by the National regulation.

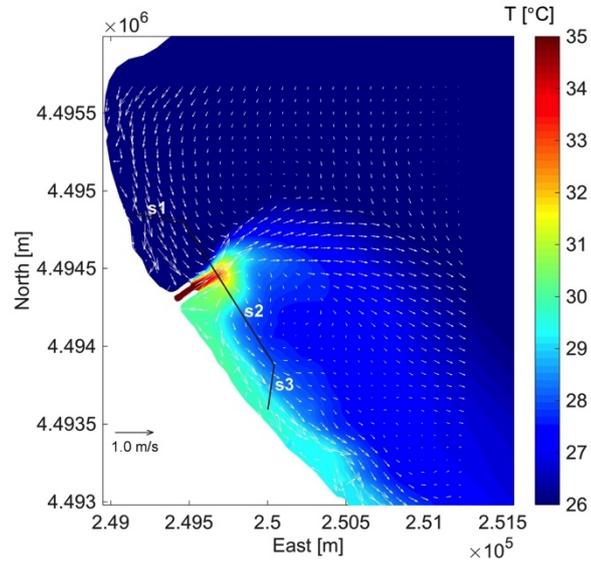


Figure 9. Sea temperature and velocity arrows, at water depth equal to -1 m, on the day 17 July 2002.

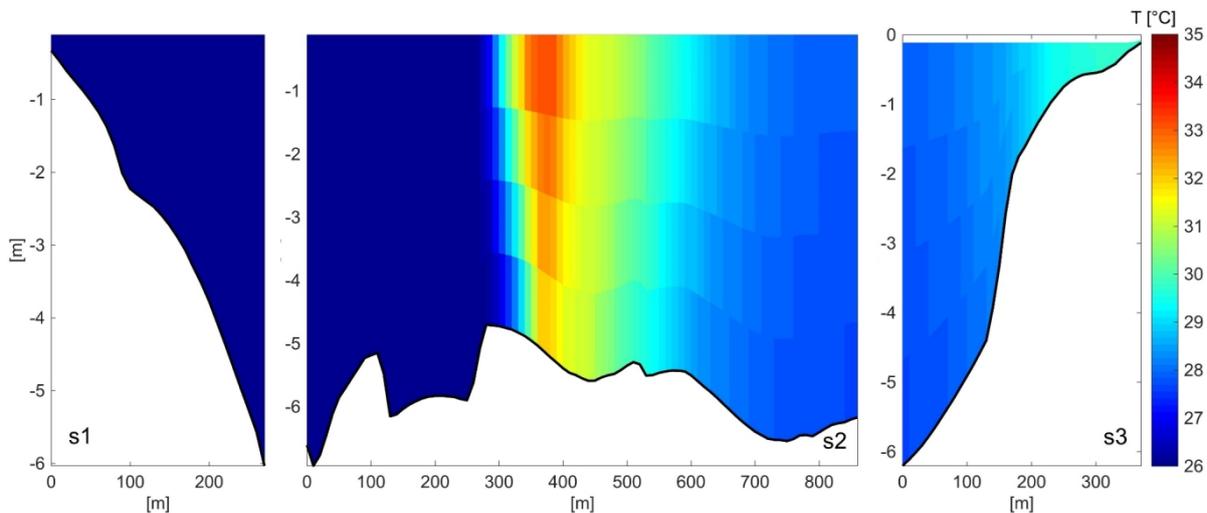


Figure 10. Vertical planes of the sea temperature along sections s1 (left panel), s2 (middle panel) and s3 (right panel), located as shown in Figure 9.

Figure 10 presents the sea temperature along the 3 selected planes, namely s1, s2 and s3, located at the vicinity of the release channel, as shown in Figure 9, for a water depth of around -6 m (section s2, in the middle panel) up to the shoreline for sections s1 and s3 (left and right panels, respectively).

The presence of the cooling waters is clearly observed at the section s2 that is located just in front of the outlet, at a distance of around 100 m. There, the vertical gradient of the temperature slightly develops,

probably due to the low wave intensity occurring during the simulated period. The horizontal dispersion of the thermal plume is observed as well, with temperature decreasing up of 6 °C along a 500 m long stretch. Results along section s3, instead, reveal high temperatures of around 30 °C at shallow waters (from depth of – 1 m up to shoreline), persisting along the 1-km long shoreline at the southeast of the outlet, as also represented in Figure 9.

5. Numerical experiments under different environmental and operational scenarios

After models’ sensitivity analyses and calibration, a set of scenarios for different environmental and operational conditions were setup, so that a proper assessment of the cooling water release from the Cerano power plant could contribute towards: (i) implementing an effective monitoring program of the thermal plume, and (ii) establishing mitigation measures for its eventual environmental effects.

The aforementioned set of scenarios was setup in order to represent expected seasonal and industrial events, in order to test them against the “reference” scenario for the real on-site conditions, described in Section 4.

This set, as listed in Table 5, comprised:

- SC1, representing the worst metocean conditions for dispersion, meaning no wind and therefore no waves, while maintaining the same operational features with the reference scenario;
- SC2, representing the maximum power production conditions of the plant (reference to data during the day 17 July 2002), with cooling waters at the outlet with a temperature of 35 °C and a temperature increment of 12 °C with respect to the ambient temperature, therefore set to be equal to 23 °C, while maintaining the metocean reference conditions;
- SC3, representing Sirocco conditions (i.e., overturning the wind and wave direction), while maintaining the same operational features with the reference scenario.

Table 5. Overview of the modified conditions for the simulated scenarios SC1, SC2 and SC3.

	Wind	Wave	Temperature increment ΔT [°C]
SC1	Null	Null	As in the reference scenario
SC2	As in the reference scenario	As in the reference scenario	Equal to 12°C
SC3	Direction from south to north	Direction from south to north	As in the reference scenario

Figure 11 illustrates the computed sea temperature field at a water depth of -1 m, at the end of each numerical experiment carried out for the period 14-17 July 2002, as in the reference scenario.

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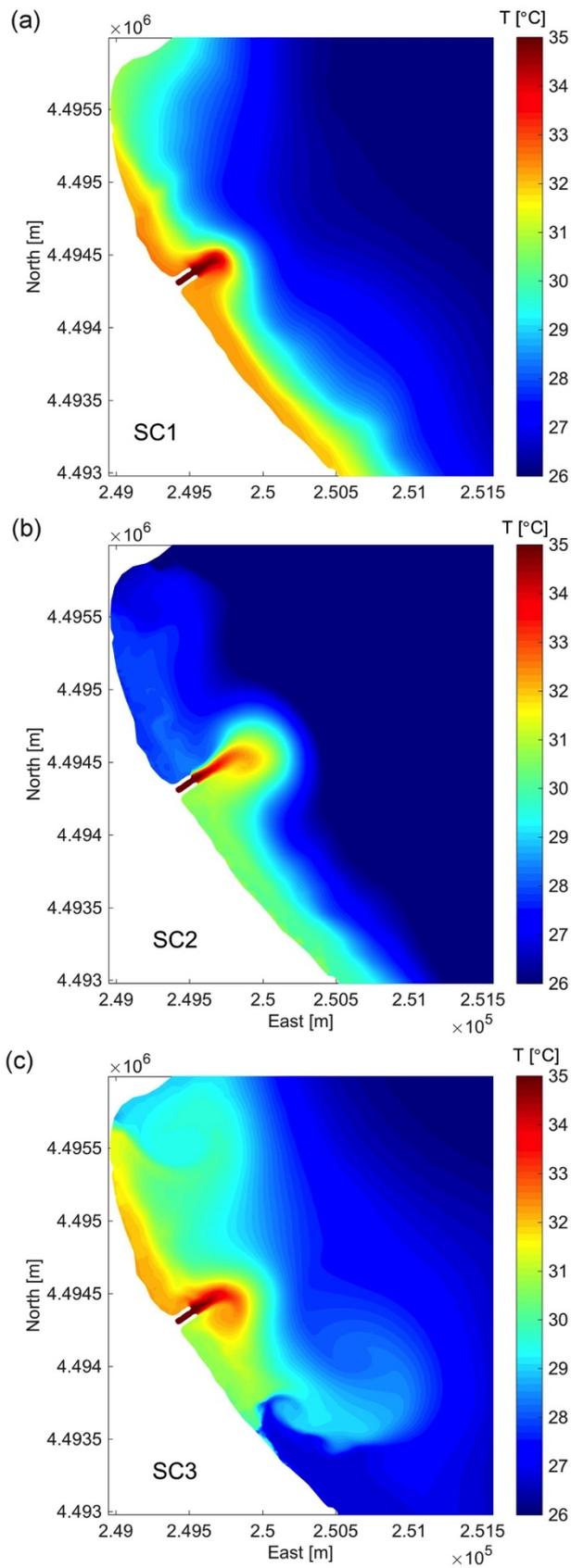


Figure 11. Sea temperature for the scenarios SC1 (panel [a](#)), SC2 (panel [b](#)) and SC3 (panel [c](#)).

For scenario SC1 (Figure 11a), the absence of any metocean forcings tends to make the thermal plume stay in the area, the temperature spread towards the south being lower than in the reference scenario (see Figure 9 for comparison). Furthermore, the plume is limited to the nearshore, spreading out in a similar way towards the areas located north and south of the outlet, consequently affecting the former one which was not polluted in the reference scenario. Scenario SC2 (see Figure 11b), is characterized by a thermal discharge with a temperature increment of 12 °C with respect to the ambient temperature and cooling waters at the outlet with a temperature of 35 °C. In comparison with the reference scenario (see Figure 9), SC2 results reveal a similar plume distribution pattern, although – as expected – a wider zone of influence was present, expanding northwards of the outlet as well (where impact was minimal in the reference scenario).

In SC3 (Figure 11c), the prevalent direction of the thermal plume propagation reverses from south-southeast to north-northwest, although evidence of spreading is observed north of the outlet as well. The Northern area (also mentioned in Subsection 4.3) constrains plume propagation and leads to thermal amassing in the area. In this scenario, the efficiency of the power plant is expected to be significantly affected, due to the dual effect of the water intake’s location being in the area and the environmental implications of the temperature difference increase.

Following the analysis by Durán-Colmenares et al. (2016), the spatial decay of the depth-average temperature with respect to the ambient condition (T_0) was estimated along a cross-shore section starting at the outlet and extending up to 1500 m offshore, for all the 3 scenarios and the reference simulation (i.e., on the day 17 July 2002). The values of the decay, presented in Figure 12, were normalized with the maximum temperature value (T_{max}) at the outlet, changing with the simulated scenarios.

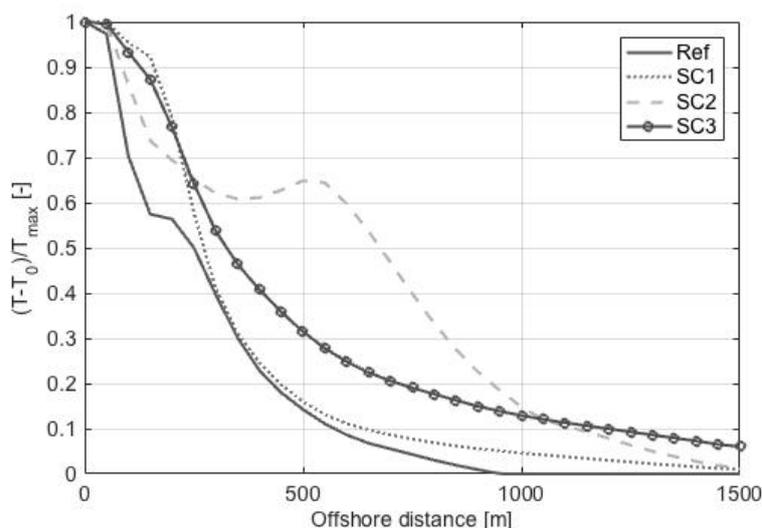


Figure 12. Temperature decay curves along the cross section from the channel for the reference and scenario simulations.

Along the analyzed cross-shore section, for the reference, SC1 and SC3 scenarios, the percentage of dissipated temperature decreases up to 50 % at a distance of around 300 m from the outlet, and arrives to be around null within 1000, 1500 and 1600 m respectively. The change of the metocean forcings in SC1 (null drivers) and SC3 (overturning drivers) is primarily responsible for the lower heat dispersion offshore in comparison to the reference conditions, while closer to the shoreline, the sea temperature increment remains fairly unaltered.

The variation of the industrial conditions in SC2, instead, has the main influence on heat dispersion into the sea, reducing the decay rate of the temperature towards the offshore.

The areas of influence for all scenarios (Table 6) were calculated for each simulation and per range of temperature increment, referring to the computed sea surface temperature. The values were normalized with the total volume of hot waters released by the power plant, since the industrial conditions varied between scenarios.

Table 6 Normalized areas of influence of the thermal plumes per range of temperature increment.

T-T ₀ [° C]	Normalized area of influence [%]			
	Reference	SC1	SC2	SC3
> 8	0.2	0.3	1.5	0.3
> 7	0.3	0.7	6.0	0.7
> 5	0.6	11.0	17.0	7.2
> 3	7.5	30.0	41.0	30.3
> 1	51.0	97.0	69.0	94.0

Considering the geographical extent of the implemented numerical domain (Figure 4), wind from the north allows the greater rates of heat dispersion, mainly occurring towards the south (Figure 11) and giving up to 50% for a temperature increment less than 1 °C, while, still persisting the same metocean conditions, in SC2, areas of influence are greater, from 1.5 % for higher values (greater than 8 °C) up to 69 % for lower values of temperature (greater than 1 °C).

The maximum area of influence for lower temperature increments is then obtained for scenario SC1 (97 %), i.e., in absence of any metocean forcing, and for scenario SC3 (94 %), i.e. for the south wind, the case where the cooling waters would have difficulties to spread offshore (and outside the numerical domain) due to the northern coastal morphology (cove-like formation) of the area that leads to an eventual thermal amassing.

6. Conclusions

This work presents the setup, sensitivity analysis, calibration/validation and implementation of a coupled wave – 3D-hydrodynamics model for the investigation of thermal discharge dynamics in coastal areas. The

1417
1418 model setup is based on the respective spectral and 3D-hydrodynamics modules of the open-source
1419 TELEMAC suite. The implemented case regards a thermal power plant in South Italy, which uses seawater
1420 intake for cooling purposes and releases hot water back to the sea through a coastal outlet. After an extended
1421 sensitivity analysis, the coupled model was calibrated by using the sea temperature data collected during the
1422 field campaign of ARPA-Apulia in the area.

1426 Sensitivity analyses highlighted the importance – for model performance in the representation of thermal
1427 discharge to coastal areas – of: (i) wave – wind combination, regarding model drivers, and (ii)
1428 vertical/horizontal turbulence models, vertical diffusion coefficient and wind drag coefficient, regarding
1429 governing equations’ parameters. Model calibration/validation is deemed to have been successful, managing
1430 to capture satisfactorily both the horizontal and vertical distribution of water temperature variations.

1434 The final runs of the calibrated model regarded scenarios of environmental and operational conditions, in
1435 order to investigate representative “states” of the specific coastal system, in terms of both environmental
1436 issues (i.e., temperature increment in the nearshore area) and plant efficiency issues (i.e., performance
1437 related to inflow temperatures). The 3 simulated scenarios revealed the range of expected changes in the
1438 thermal plume’s distribution for representative conditions in the field (environmental/operational), providing
1439 useful insights on the specific case study’s dynamics.

1444 All in all, the present work is among the relatively few in relevant literature that focuses directly on thermal
1445 discharge dynamics rather than studying it indirectly through its biological impacts and is deemed to
1446 constitute a useful basis for other studies on the topic, either direct or indirect. Future versions of this work
1447 could be further improved by investigating case studies with more extensive field measurement datasets
1448 (e.g., current/wind data) and/or coupling the wave and 3D-hydrodynamics modules with the water quality
1449 module of TELEMAC (available in the suite’s last release), in order to extend this approach’s applicability.
1450 Nonetheless, the systematic literature review, analysis of the studied phenomenon, and modelling approach
1451 followed in this work, contribute to setting the framework for the direct numerical simulation of thermal
1452 discharges to coastal areas, while also setting the bases for the specific case study’s evaluation and
1453 environmental/technical assessment.

1461 **Acknowledgments**

1463 The authors would like to thank Mr. Ungaro from ARPA- Apulia for proving the CTD data of the field
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1466 PON01_02823/2 “Ricerca & Competitività 2007–2013” program of the Italian Ministry for Education,
1467 University and Research.

Appendix A. Regulations in EU Countries for thermal release in coastal area

The principal EU Directives, such as Water Framework, Habitats and Marine Strategy Framework Directives, do not require a trans-European thermal standard, therefore each EU-Country developed its own regulation (British Energy Estuarine & Marine Studies March, 2011) regarding environmental standards for effluent temperatures in estuarine, coastal and marine systems, and in particular their allowed temperature values was here listed and reviewed:

- In France, on the Gironde Estuary, the temperature increment must be not greater than 11 °C at the outflow point, with a maximum temperature of 30 °C, with a permission to reach up to 36.5 °C in summer.
- In Norway, the temperature increment must be not exceeding 10 °C at the outflow point and no more than 1 °C of temperature increment in the mixing zone, with some flexibilities up to 3 °C at particular sites.
- In Spain, 50 m or more from the discharge point in any 1 m layer within the water column the temperature increment must not exceed 3 °C or 1 °C integrated throughout the water column.
- In Germany, maximum limit for cooling water discharges is at 30 °C and the temperature increment must be not exceeding 10 °C for existing sites, and 7 °C for a new plants.
- In the Netherlands, discharges into marine waters must not exceed 30 °C within a mixing zone bounded by the 25 °C isotherm.
- In Italy, the maximum water temperature at the outlet should not be higher than 35 °C and the maximum temperature increment in the coastal field, at a distance of 1 km from the outlet, should be lower than 3 °C.

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