

A Comparison of Numerical and Analytical Predictions of the Tidal Stream Power Resource of Massachusetts, USA

Geoffrey W. Cowles^a, Aradea R. Hakim^a, James H. Churchill^b

^a*Dept. of Fisheries Oceanography
University of Massachusetts Dartmouth
New Bedford, MA 02744, USA*

^b*Dept. of Physical Oceanography
Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution
Woods Hole, MA 02543, USA*

Abstract

The coastal waters of Massachusetts, USA encompass tidal phenomena that generate flows of sufficient magnitude for commercially viable power extraction. We examine the tidal power resource of the Massachusetts coastal region with two high-resolution hydrodynamic tidal models: a regional model encompassing the coastal waters of southeastern New England and a local domain model of Cape Cod Canal. Both models have been subject to comprehensive skill assessment using available surface elevation and ADCP measurements. Based on the model results, we identify five high-energy sites (Cape Cod Canal, Muskeget Channel, Quicks Hole, Robinson Hole and Woods Hole) for evaluation of the maximum extractable tidal power. The power extraction at these sites is modeled using linear momentum actuator disk theory applied to a cross-channel array of turbines. Of the sites evaluated, Muskeget Channel has the greatest resource, with an estimated maximum extractable power of 24 MW. The estimated total power available from all five sites is 44 MW. These estimates agree within 21% with predictions from analytical approaches at all sites. Potential applications for the models include: providing developers with an initial assessment of the resource, guiding observation programs for further study of the resource, and facilitating optimization of turbine array design.

Keywords: tidal power, FVCOM, Cape Cod Canal, Muskeget Channel

Highlights:

- A three dimensional barotropic tidal model for Massachusetts has been validated
- LMADT theory is used to evaluate the theoretical tidal stream power resource
- Results compared with values derived from accepted analytical approaches of Garrett & Cummins
- A maximum extractable power of 44 MW is available from five high energy sites

Email address: gcowles@umassd.edu (Geoffrey W. Cowles)

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1. Introduction

The tidal range within the coastal waters of Massachusetts may be characterized as moderate, with the amplitude of the dominant M_2 constituent ranging from 0.4 to 1.5 m [1,2,3]. Nevertheless, strong tidal velocities ($> 1.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) have been observed in the Massachusetts coastal zone [3,4]. Observational and modeling studies [3,4,5,6,7] have revealed two dominant mechanisms responsible for these strong tidal flows. One is the complex interference of two regional-scale tidal waves, and the other is generation of a rapid flow through a narrow passageway by differing tidal regimes bordering the passageway.

As first described by [4], the interference phenomenon is generated by two tidal waves, one which propagates northward from the shelf break south of New England and the other which first passes through the Gulf of Maine before turning south into Nantucket Sound. The result is a rapid variation of tidal phase over a region stretching from Nantucket Shoals to Vineyard Sound (Fig. 1. upper panel). Although the tidal range in this region is small ($< 0.5 \text{ m}$), the resulting tidal currents can be quite strong ($> 1.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). The interference zone includes Muskeget Channel, a well-defined feature of roughly $10 \times 0.6 \text{ km}$ (as delineated by the 15-m isobath) situated between Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket (Fig. 1, lower panel), as well as Vineyard Sound, which separates Martha's Vineyard from the Elizabeth Island Chain (Fig. 1, center panel).

Strong tidal flows generated by elevation differences of separate tidal systems, the second mechanism cited above, appear in the passageways connecting Buzzards Bay with Vineyard Sound. The tide in Buzzards Bay can be described as a standing wave that propagates directly from the open ocean to the southwest [8]. It is separated from the tidal regime of Vineyard Sound by the Elizabeth Island chain (Fig. 1, center panel). The tidal phase and amplitude difference between Buzzards Bay and Vineyard Sound generates strong currents in the four channels (or holes) of the Elizabeth Island chain. Three of these passageways, Woods Hole, Robinson Hole and Canipitsit Channel are less than 0.5 km wide, whereas the fourth, Quicks Hole, is $\sim 1.4 \text{ km}$ in width. Differing tidal regimes also produce strong tidal flows through Cape Cod Canal, an artificial waterway approximately 12.5 km long, 0.2 km

29 wide and 10-23.5 m deep [9] that links Cape Cod Bay and Buzzards Bay (Fig. 1, upper
30 panel). The tidal forcing of the canal is highly asymmetric, with the tidal range at the Cape
31 Cod Bay entrance exceeding that of Buzzards Bay by a factor of 3 and the time of high tide
32 lagging by more than 3 h.

33 Over the past decade several marine renewable energy companies have expressed interest
34 in tapping the tidal stream power potential of Massachusetts' coastal waters. Four pre-
35 liminary permits and one pilot permit have been filed with the Federal Energy Regulatory
36 Commission (FERC) at three sites: Vineyard Sound, Muskeget Channel, and Cape Cod
37 Canal (Fig. 1).

38 An early assessment of the tidal power resource of Massachusetts' waters, employing
39 available velocity measurements, was formulated by [10] of the Electrical Power Research
40 Institute (EPRI). They identified four sites, Cape Cod Canal, Muskeget Channel, Woods
41 Hole, and Blynman Canal (northern Massachusetts), with annual mean power densities in
42 excess of 0.7 kW m^{-2} . Using nearby single point velocity measurements, Hagerman and
43 Bedard estimated the tidal power resource at each site by computing an annual power
44 density and applying this to the cross sectional area of a representative transect at each site.
45 The time-averaged total power available at the four sites was estimated to be 33.8 MW. The
46 estimated extractable power, determined by applying a significant impact factor of 15%, of
47 the four sites totaled 5.1 MW.

48 A second assessment of the Massachusetts coastal zone tidal power resource was formu-
49 lated by [11] as part of a national geodatabase of tidal energy for the entire United States.
50 They employed a hydrostatic, primitive-equation ocean model, ROMS, set up on grid with
51 a horizontal mesh scale of approximately 350 m. They established three criteria for tidal
52 power hotspots: (1) annual mean power density exceeding 0.5 kW m^{-2} , (2) horizontal area
53 greater than 0.5 km^2 , and (3) depth greater than 5 m. Four hotspots were identified in
54 Massachusetts' coastal waters: Nantucket Shoals, Muskeget Channel, and the northern and
55 southern extents of Vineyard Sound (Fig. 1). Using the analytical formulation of [12], they
56 estimated the theoretical tidal power resource of the Massachusetts coastal zone to be 45
57 MW.

58 While the above studies have provided useful initial assessments of the tidal power re-
59 source in the Massachusetts coastal zone, their findings must be viewed with caution, as
60 they are based on a limited number of observations [10] or on results of a low-resolution nu-
61 merical model [11]. In particular, use of coarse-mesh hydrodynamic models limits the skill of
62 assessing tidal power over areas of strong currents, such as in constricted channels and near
63 headlands [13,14,15]. For such areas, higher-resolution, local-domain models are required to
64 provide a detailed assessment of the tidal power resource. Furthermore, [16] demonstrated
65 that because velocities at high-energy sites tend to exhibit significant vertical shear, mod-
66 els with high vertical resolution are required to guide the vertical turbine placement for
67 maximum power extraction. To ensure that the model-derived characterization of the tidal
68 resource is accurate, the model needs to be substantially validated with observations in the
69 vicinity of the tidal resource to be evaluated.

70 While evaluating the details of a tidal power resource clearly requires a high-resolution,
71 and validated, hydrodynamic model, simple analytical formulae derived by Garrett and
72 Cummins ([12,17]; hereafter GC05 and GC07) have proven useful in producing estimates of
73 maximum extractable power from a constrained tidal flow. The estimates are achieved using
74 properties of the flow (i.e., maximum volume flux through a channel) and the sea surface
75 elevation field (i.e., difference in tidal head on either side of a channel) of the area from
76 which tidal power is to be extracted, and entail far less computational effort than required
77 for estimating maximum extractable power with high-resolution numerical models. The
78 formulae are applicable to two different turbine arrangements relative to flow boundaries.
79 GC05 applies to the scenario in which a "fence" of turbines extends across a full channel
80 width, whereas CC07 is derived for the more complicated scenario in which a turbine fence
81 occupies only a portion of the channel. A number of investigators (e.g. [18,19,20]) have
82 tested the GC05 and GC07 formulae by comparing their results with estimates of maximum
83 extractable tidal power computed by representing the effects of turbines in high-resolution
84 hydrodynamic models. In all published cases, the numerically-derived estimates closely
85 agree (generally to within 30%) with those determined from the formulae of GC05 and
86 GC07, establishing the utility of these formulae for determining initial estimates of maximum

87 extractable tidal power. To our knowledge, however, all comparisons have been carried
88 out for environments of relatively high tidal power potential (with estimates of maximum
89 extractable power generally > 400 MW), so the accuracy of the GC05 and GC07 formulae
90 in estimating maximum extractable tidal power for environments with modestly strong tidal
91 power potential, as found in the Massachusetts coastal zone, is currently unknown.

92 Our study was carried out with a principal goal of generating a detailed assessment of
93 the tidal power resource of the Massachusetts coastal zone. Using a high-resolution, three-
94 dimensional barotropic tidal model, we estimated the maximum theoretical tidal power
95 at sites off the Massachusetts coast. The scheme entailed modeling power extraction at
96 designated sites using linear momentum actuator disk theory applied to a cross-channel
97 turbine array, and increasing the level of extraction until peak power removal was achieved.
98 The model was also used to evaluate the impact of tidal power extraction on volume flux,
99 taken as a metric for the effect of power extraction on the local environment. As detailed
100 below, the model was extensively tested using observations of tidal velocities and sea surface
101 elevations distributed throughout the model domain.

102 A second goal of our study was to compare the power resource estimates determined as
103 described above with estimates obtained from the analytical formulae of GC05 and GC07,
104 providing tests of these formulae for environments with modest tidal power potential.

105 **2. Approach**

106 *2.1. Ocean Model*

107 Our study employs a hydrostatic, primitive-equation (HPE) model, known as the Finite
108 Volume Community Ocean Model (FVCOM; [21,22]), as the modeling tool. In FVCOM,
109 the HPEs are discretized on an unstructured horizontal grid and a terrain-following vertical
110 grid. An explicit mode splitting approach is used to advance the model equations [23].
111 The spatial fluxes of momentum are discretized using a second-order accurate finite-volume
112 method [24]. Exact conservation of scalar quantities (e.g., temperature, salinity, turbulence)
113 is achieved by combining a scalar flux formulation with a vertical velocity adjustment. The

114 model is parallelized using an efficient single-program-multiple-data approach [25] that scales
115 efficiently on modern distributed memory computing systems. Domain decomposition for the
116 parallel model is performed using the METIS graph partitioning libraries [26]. Interprocessor
117 communication is programmed using the Message Passing Interface standard using a non-
118 blocking approach. The horizontal eddy diffusivity is parameterized using a Smagorinsky
119 formulation [27]. The General Ocean Turbulence Model (GOTM, [28]) is coupled to FVCOM
120 to compute the vertical eddy viscosity and diffusivity. The two-equation, $k-\epsilon$ eddy viscosity
121 model was selected for the present work.

122 The barotropic tides of the Massachusetts coastal zone are examined using two FVCOM-
123 based models. One, the Massachusetts Tidal Model (MTM), is regional and covers the
124 entirety of the Massachusetts coastal zone. The second, a local-domain model, is employed
125 for the study of the Cape Cod Canal. Referred to as the C³M model, this is nested within
126 MTM using a one-way approach. These models are described in detail in the following
127 subsections.

128 *2.1.1. Massachusetts Tidal Model (MTM)*

129 The MTM encompasses all of the Massachusetts coastal zone as well as the coastal
130 waters off of Rhode Island and New York (Fig. 2). The Massachusetts coastal boundary
131 is derived from a high-resolution (1/2 ") Massachusetts coastline product developed by the
132 Massachusetts Office of Coastal Zone Management. The model bathymetry is interpolated
133 from a composite dataset. The majority of the model domain is covered by the 3-arc-second
134 Gulf of Maine bathymetry product [29] and the 1/3 " Nantucket Inundation Digital Elevation
135 Model (NOAA: [30]). Regional surveys are used to refine the model bathymetry in specific
136 areas of interest. These include a 1-m resolution SWATH bathymetry survey in Muskeget
137 Channel [31] and a directed sounding survey of the Cape Cod Canal [9]. The MTM domain
138 is tessellated using a sequence of grids for the purpose of evaluating the dependence of the
139 flow solution on the model resolution. The finest mesh, MTM-1, contains 228K horizontal
140 grid elements, with a resolution ranging from 25 m along the coast and in areas of interest to
141 10 km at the open boundary. The MTM vertical coordinate is discretized using ten equally

142 spaced sigma-layers. The model is driven by six tidal constituents ($M_2, S_2, N_2, K_1, O_1, M_4$) at
 143 the open boundary. The model forcing does not include buoyancy (heat flux, precipitation,
 144 and river flux) or wind forcing. Free-slip conditions are applied along the lateral boundaries.

145 Values for the phases and amplitudes of the six tidal constituents have been developed
 146 using the following incremental approach. Initial values for the diurnal and semidiurnal
 147 components are interpolated from the FVCOM Gulf of Maine regional tidal model [3]. Initial
 148 values for the M_4 component on the open boundary are derived from the Tidal Model
 149 Driver based on the Oregon State University Tidal Inversion Software (OTIS, [32]). The
 150 constituents on the open boundary are then tuned over a sequence of model runs to minimize
 151 the discrepancy between model-computed harmonics and observed harmonics in the interior
 152 of the domain. Formulation of the spatially-varying bottom roughness, z_0 , follows a depth-
 153 dependent criteria originally formulated by [3]:

$$z_0 = \begin{cases} 3 \times 10^{-3} & \text{for } h \leq 40 \\ 3 \times 10^{-3} e^{-(h-40)/8.82} & \text{for } 40 < h \leq 70 \\ 1 \times 10^{-4} e^{-(h-70)/13.03} & \text{for } 70 < h \leq 100 \\ 1 \times 10^{-5} & \text{for } h > 100 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

154 where h is the static water depth in meters. The fine-grid model (MTM-1) is integrated
 155 with a 2.5 s time step and requires approximately 24 core-hours on an Intel Haswell system
 156 to advance one M_2 period. The model is integrated forward for 60 d of simulation time
 157 in order to provide a sufficient duration for stable computation of the six primary regional
 158 constituents of tidal elevation and velocity.

159 2.1.2. Cape Cod Canal Model C³M

160 The C³M domain, used for the study of tides in the Cape Cod Canal, includes the south-
 161 western portion of Cape Cod Bay, the Cape Cod Canal proper, and the northeastern portion
 162 of Buzzards Bay (Fig. 2). The C³M mesh resolution varies from 10 m within the Canal to 500
 163 m at the open boundaries. The mesh contains 43,682 horizontal grid elements and 10 equally
 164 spaced vertical sigma layers. The C³M bathymetry is derived from a recent survey of the

165 Canal conducted by the Army Corp of Engineers [9]. The model is barotropic and is forced
166 only by sea surface elevation based on the six principal constituents ($M_2, S_2, N_2, K_1, O_1, M_4$)
167 at the open boundaries. On the western open boundary, the harmonics are derived us-
168 ing pressure data from the NOAA Current Measurement Interface for the Study of Tides
169 (CMIST; [33]) station C0D0906, located near Abiels Ledge in Buzzards Bay. The length
170 of this open boundary is short (~ 1300 m) and of relatively constant depth which enables
171 a single observation at a fixed point to be used to establish the elevation along the entire
172 boundary. On the eastern open boundary in Cape Cod Bay the surface elevation forcing
173 is interpolated from the regional MTM model described above. A study of the influence of
174 bottom roughness in the C³M model found that a uniform value of $z_0 = 0.01$ m results in the
175 best agreement of velocity and surface elevation with the available measurements along the
176 canal. Assuming that the roughness scales only with grain size, this value of z_0 corresponds
177 to cobbles in the Wentworth scale. Although it is likely that bedforms may be present in
178 the canal due to the high flow speeds, this grain size is within the range of surficial sediment
179 distribution observed in the region [34]. The C³M is integrated using a time step of 0.4 s,
180 which requires 12 core-hours on an Intel Haswell system to advance the model one M_2 cycle.
181 To reach steady values for the harmonic decomposition of the six constituents, the model is
182 run for 60 d of simulation time.

183 *2.2. Skill Assessment and Model Validation*

184 *2.2.1. Tidal Elevation*

185 The model skill in simulating sea surface elevation is evaluated using a tidal harmonics
186 database derived from several sources: the National Ocean Service [35], the U.S. Geological
187 Survey tidal atlas [1], the Nantucket Shoals Flux Experiment [2,6], the Coupled Boundary
188 Layers Air-Sea Transfer experiment [36], the Coastal Mixing and Optics Experiment [37],
189 the CMIST database [33] and a recent study of Muskeget Channel [38]. Tidal harmonics
190 are computed from the water level time series using the MATLAB routine T-Tide [39].
191 The resulting database contains harmonics at 73 unique locations within the model domain.
192 These tidal harmonics, and those derived from the model simulations (described above), are

193 used to construct year-long time series of tidal elevation. Following recent recommendations
194 for skill assessment methods for tidal resource modeling [15], model skill is evaluated as the
195 root mean square error (RMSE) between the observed and model time series.

196 The mean and maximum RMSE of the annual time series of sea surface elevation over
197 all 73 stations is 5.6 cm and 12.0 cm, respectively (Fig. 3). A geographic pattern of model
198 error is revealed by the distribution of binned RMSE values. The lowest error bin (RMSE \leq
199 3 cm) is populated primarily by stations in deeper water (> 25 m depth), including stations
200 near the open boundary. The majority of stations in the second error bin ($3 < \text{RMSE} \leq 6$
201 cm) are in shallow, nearshore water. The third error bin ($6 < \text{RMSE} \leq 9$ cm) is comprised
202 mainly of shoreside stations. Shoreside stations are also the dominant contributor to the
203 largest error bin ($9 < \text{RMSE} \leq 12$ cm). Three of the seven stations in the bin are found near
204 the line of rapidly varying phase that extends from Woods Hole across Martha's Vineyard
205 to Nantucket (Fig. 1). The mean RMSE for the M_2 sea surface elevation amplitude over the
206 73 stations is 2.86 cm, which is 4% of the mean M_2 amplitude of 68.7 cm. The RMSE for
207 the M_2 phase is 9.4° or 19.5 min. Phase and amplitude for the six primary constituents of
208 the observed and model-computed sea surface elevation at the 73 stations are included in
209 online Supplementary Material (S.1-S.2).

210 *2.2.2. Tidal Ellipses and Power Density at Fixed ADCP Locations*

211 The model skill in simulating currents and power density is evaluated with flow ve-
212 locity measurements obtained from both fixed and shipboard current meters. The fixed
213 current meter data are from the CMIST program [33] and include currents measured by 11
214 bottom-mounted, upward-looking ADCPs deployed within the MTM domain during 2009
215 for durations of 1 to 3 mths. These velocity data were archived at 6-min intervals and extend
216 vertically in 1.0-m bins from 2.5 m above bottom to ~ 2 m below the surface. In addition,
217 the CMIST data include velocities from a sideward-looking ADCP deployed from the south
218 pier of the Cape Cod Canal railroad bridge from 3 June 2009 to 21 July 2009. These data
219 have a horizontal resolution of 4 m. The CMIST records carry the prefix COD09 in the
220 online database, but will be designated here with the prefix CMIST-.

221 Assessment of the model skill in reproducing the orientation, ellipticity, and magnitude
222 of the tidal current is performed using the vertically averaged velocity records from the fixed
223 upward-looking CMIST ADCPs. Tidal ellipses of the vertically averaged flow are derived
224 from these velocity records, and from the vertically averaged model velocities at each CMIST
225 site, by first determining the six principal tidal constituents ($M_2, S_2, N_2, K_1, O_1, M_4$) using
226 T-Tide and then using these constituents to construct annual modeled and measured tidal
227 time series. These annual time series are also used to evaluate the model skill in estimating
228 the vertically averaged power density.

229 The model very closely reproduces the orientation, eccentricity, and magnitude of the
230 vertically averaged tidal flow at the 12 CMIST sites (Fig. 4). However, it should be noted
231 that the orientation of the observed tidal ellipses in the Cape Cod Canal have been adjusted
232 to be parallel to the canal centerline. The measured tidal velocities at two of the three
233 upward-looking ADCP stations in the canal had major axis orientation deviating by more
234 than 20° from the canal centerline. These orientations also shifted during the observation
235 period indicating possible problems with the compass and/or movement of the tripod.

236 Ellipticity of the modeled and measured tidal current is small at all CMIST sites. Ellip-
237 ticities of the model-computed tidal velocities have a mean value of 0.024, with a minimum
238 of 0.002 occurring in the canal at CMIST-2 and a maximum value of 0.11 at CMIST-12.
239 The observed velocities have a mean ellipticity of 0.022 with a minimum value of 0.002 at
240 CMIST-3 in the canal and maximum of 0.090 at CMIST-12. CMIST-12, in the Woods Hole
241 channel, is the only CMIST station with ellipticity greater than 0.04 in either the model-
242 computed or observed records. This is due to a considerable difference in the direction of
243 ebb and flood flows, which is associated with separation of the flood tide (eastward) flow on
244 the downstream side of the sharp bend in the Woods Hole channel.

245 For the skill assessment of vertical structure of the model-computed flows, we focus on
246 comparisons of kinetic power density rather than velocity, as this metric is a better indicator
247 of the ability of the model to capture the theoretical in-stream tidal power resource. As the
248 kinetic power density scales with the cube of the current speed, the power density errors
249 are correspondingly amplified with respect to velocity errors. Kinetic power densities are

250 determined from the six principal tidal constituents, as described above, using the modeled
 251 and measured tidal velocity time series at the CMIST sites. To demonstrate the model skill
 252 in estimating the power density, we present the power density RMSE, the annual mean value
 253 of power density, and a relative average error using a metric defined by [40] as

$$WM = 1 - \frac{\Sigma |P_{model} - P_{obs}|^2}{\Sigma (|P_{model} - \bar{P}_{obs}| + |P_{obs} - \bar{P}_{obs}|)^2} \quad (2)$$

254 where P represents kinetic power density and the overbar denotes averaging over the dataset.
 255 For comparison of vertically averaged velocities at a CMIST station the overbar represents
 256 averaging over the annual time series. The parameter WM (Willmott) ranges from 0 (com-
 257 plete disagreement) to 1 (perfect agreement).

258 Comparison of model- and data-derived vertically averaged power densities at the 11
 259 upward looking ADCP sites gives Willmott scores of 0.89 to 0.99 and RMSE values of 0.03
 260 to 0.48 kW m⁻² (Table 1). The maximum annual mean power density occurs at CMIST-2
 261 (Sagamore Bridge) based on both model-computed and observed time series (Table 1).

262 The vertical profiles of annual mean power density (Fig. 5) reveal some interesting spatial
 263 differences in the model skill. At the sites of the upward looking ADCPs inside the Cape Cod
 264 Canal (CMIST-1 to CMIST-3) the model-observation agreement of power density shear and
 265 magnitude is very good. At the site of the horizontal ADCP (CMIST-4) in the canal, the
 266 maximum kinetic power density compares well with observation but the model-computed
 267 values near the edges of the canal exceed the measurements. At CMIST-5 outside the west
 268 canal entrance, the model-computed power densities are underpredicted at all depths. The
 269 model-derived power density profile at CMIST-6 is in good agreement with the observed
 270 profile, through with a slightly greater shear. CMIST-6, in the upper portion of Buzzards
 271 Bay, is a low energy site with peak annual mean power density of 0.15 kW m⁻². The model
 272 skill at the three stations in Woods Hole (CMIST-10 to CMIST-12) are the lowest of the
 273 set. The model overpredicts the power at both the west (CMIST-10) and east (CMIST-12)
 274 entrances. In the strait where the energy is highest (CMIST-11), the vertical average of
 275 power density is in good agreement but the model fails to predict the significant shear at the

276 site. At the remaining channels through the Elizabeth Islands (CMIST-13 to CMIST-15),
277 the model-computed and observed values of kinetic power density are in good agreement.

278 *2.2.3. Power Density along Transects*

279 Shipboard current data was acquired from a vessel-mounted ADCP during surveys con-
280 ducted in Muskeget Channel on 29 August 2008 and 25 June 2009 [38]. Surveys from both
281 years coincided with stronger than average spring tides. Four transects were surveyed at
282 approximately 1-h intervals over a tidal cycle (Fig 1, lower panel). On average, the ship
283 required 6.5 min moving at 3.5 kts for each transit across the Channel.

284 A specific model time for each transect must be chosen for the skill assessment, as the
285 model velocity field is archived at a 10 min interval. For each transect, we use the model
286 field from a time closest to the measurement time at the midpoint of the transect. The
287 model and ADCP velocity data of each transect are interpolated onto a common grid with a
288 resolution of 10-m in the along-transect direction and 1-m in the vertical. From the gridded
289 data, we compare the kinetic power density profiles at several stations along the transect,
290 and compute RMSE and Willmott scores for the kinetic power density over the transect.
291 In computing the transect Willmott score, the overbar in equation 2 represents a spatial
292 average over the discrete locations in the transect. Total observed and model-computed
293 kinetic power through the transects are also presented during peak ebb and flood.

294 Willmott scores for the ADCP transects (T6-T9) in Muskeget Channel (see Fig. 1, lower
295 panel for locations) range from 0.92 to 0.98, while the RMSE of power density over these
296 transects ranges from 0.08 kW m^{-2} (T9, flood) to 0.72 kW m^{-2} (T7, ebb) (Table 2). Differ-
297 ences in the modeled and observed total power in the transect range from 2% to 25% of the
298 observed power (Table 2). There is notable tidal phase asymmetry of flow in the southern
299 transects (T7-T9) with dominance of the ebb (southward) flow. Within T8, for example,
300 the peak power density during ebb is more than twice that during flood (Fig. 6). In addi-
301 tion, there is a significant flood-ebb difference in the spatial structure of the power density.
302 During flood, the core of maximum power is centered towards the east side of the channel,
303 while during ebb it resides towards the west side of the channel. There is also significant

304 vertical shear in the flow. The model captures the shear in the power density profile very
 305 well in areas of high power and less so outside these regions (Fig. 6).

306 2.3. Resource Quantification

307 2.3.1. Power Density

308 A key metric of the extractable power potential is the kinetic power density. Annual
 309 mean kinetic power density, P_A , is computed at each element in both the MTM and C³M
 310 domains based on the vertical average of the power density in each layer,

$$P_A = \overline{\frac{\rho}{2N} \sum_{k=1}^N \left(\sqrt{u_k^2 + v_k^2} \right)^3} \quad (3)$$

311 where $\rho = 1025 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ is the density of the water, (u_k, v_k) are the horizontal velocities in
 312 layer k reconstructed from the harmonic constituents for one year at ten minute intervals,
 313 $N=10$ is the number of vertical layers, and the overbar indicates an annual mean. For
 314 consistency, this metric is computed as the vertical average of kinetic power density rather
 315 than the kinetic power density of the vertically averaged velocity, although the difference
 316 between these quantities is only a few percent. An average over the water column is used
 317 in place of a kinetic power density determined from surface or near-bottom velocities as
 318 turbines are likely to be placed away from both the surface- and bottom-boundary layer,
 319 making the vertically averaged power a suitable indicator of available resource.

320 The annual mean kinetic power density is used to select the locations for evaluation of
 321 the theoretical in-stream power potential. In prior studies, various power density thresholds
 322 have been employed for identifying promising locations for tidal power extraction. These
 323 include 0.25 kW m^{-2} [41], 0.5 kW m^{-2} [11], 0.7 kW m^{-2} [10] and 1.0 kW m^{-2} recommended
 324 by the Northwest National Marine Renewable Energy Center ([42,43]). For this work, we
 325 use the intermediate threshold value of 0.7 kW m^{-2} . For flows with limited tidal asymmetry,
 326 this corresponds to peak speeds of 1.5 m s^{-1} and instantaneous speeds exceeding a turbine
 327 cut-in value of 1 m s^{-1} for more than half of the tide cycle [44].

2.3.2. Theoretical Power

The theoretical resource within a designated channel is evaluated by placing a row of turbines across the channel, an approach used for investigations of the tidal power resource in British Columbia [18], Minas Passage [19] and the Pentland Firth [20]. Here, a row of turbines is referred to as a fence to be consistent with the terminology of previous theoretical studies [12,17]. For sites with well defined lateral land boundaries, a full channel-width fence is used. In this case, the flow is forced to pass across the fence. For sites where lateral boundaries are poorly defined, a partial fence is used. For this case, the row of turbines spans a channel feature defined by bathymetric contours and the water is able to partially pass around the fence. In all cases, there are no gaps in the fence and momentum is extracted from the entire water column. The mesh is modified locally so that mesh elements align with the strip along which the turbines are placed. The advantage of using a fence is that it avoids the need to properly model the interactions between individual turbines that occur in a staggered array. It should be noted that this provides an estimate of the maximum power potential of a site.

Power extraction is simulated by adding a momentum sink term formulated using the linear momentum actuator disk approach of [45] (see [46] for details on the term's implementation in FVCOM). The only input parameter required to model the power extraction is the turbine thrust coefficient, C_T . Preliminary investigations indicated that the difference in maximum power achieved by varying C_T along the fence as opposed to using a spatially-constant C_T is negligible. Hence, in this work a constant C_T is used along the entire fence. The value of C_T is increased to the point of maximum power extraction. This approach provides an upper bound on the extractable power. The practical extractable power depends on the characteristics of the specific technology installed (e.g. thrust coefficient, cut-in speed) as well as site specific exclusion constraints such as the need to maintain a navigation channel.

In addition to estimation of the theoretical tidal stream resource that can be extracted, we examine the impact of power extraction on the volume flux. Changes in volume flux is an important impact metric as it can be viewed as a proxy for potential alterations in flushing and transport, and can be useful in setting thresholds for acceptable levels of power

357 extraction [19,47].

358 The theoretical resource is computed for forcing by only the M_2 tide only as well as by
 359 all six major constituents. For M_2 forcing, the model is run for four days, and mean power
 360 and other metrics are determined from the last tidal cycle. For runs with all constituents,
 361 the model is run for 60 d, and harmonic analysis is used to construct an annual time series.
 362 Since the M_2 -forced simulations run rapidly, these are used to generate power curves and
 363 explore the relationship between power extraction and volume flux. Runs with the six major
 364 constituents are executed for C_T values near those which produced peak power for M_2 only
 365 and are used only to produce the peak annual mean power at a given site.

366 2.3.3. Analytical Approaches

367 The model-computed maximum tidal stream power is compared with accepted analytical
 368 formulations for maximal power in a 1-D channel extracted with a full (GC05) and partial
 369 (GC07) fence. The formula for a full fence, GC05, is:

$$P_{FF} = \gamma \rho g a Q_o \quad (4)$$

370 where P_{FF} is the time-average power, a is the maximum head difference from one of the
 371 channel to the other, Q_o is the maximum volume flux through the channel with no power
 372 extraction, g is the gravitational acceleration, ρ is the fluid density, and γ is a coefficient
 373 related to the the relative importance of bottom friction in dynamic balance of the channel.
 374 Values of γ range from 0.196 to 0.24, with the larger value representing a channel with no
 375 bottom friction (see Fig. 4 in GC05). The GC05 model assumes that the tidal range in
 376 the channel is small compared to the depth, the bottom friction can be parameterized with
 377 a constant drag coefficient, and the tidal head difference, a , is not influenced by energy
 378 extraction. The GC05 formulation provides a relatively simple means of estimating the
 379 maximum power resource in a channel, and allows for quick identification of areas where
 380 the tidal resource may be worthy of more intensive study. However, the results of the GC05
 381 formulation should be viewed cautiously as not all of its assumptions may be valid in a

382 realistic setting.

383 As noted above, a partial fence is employed in this work for sites in which the area of
 384 power extraction is not a confined channel. For such sites, flow is able to pass around the
 385 turbine array. In the absence of lateral walls and free surface effects, maximum achievable
 386 power is established by the Betz limit [48]. However, for many sites the influence of lateral
 387 boundaries cannot be neglected. This was addressed by GC07, who derived the following
 388 expression for maximum power for a partial fence:

$$P_{PF} = \frac{1}{2} (1 - r_b)^{-2} \eta A_T \rho u_0^3 \quad (5)$$

389 The quantity u_0 is the average velocity magnitude of the natural flow (without power ex-
 390 traction) over a tidal cycle, $\eta = 16/27$ is Betz's coefficient, and $r_b = A_T/A_c$ is the channel
 391 blockage ratio where A_T is the turbine cross sectional area and A_c is the total channel area.

392 The flow properties needed to compute the above power estimates (e.g. a , Q_o , u_0) are
 393 derived from model results under M_2 -only forcing. Computation of the head difference, a ,
 394 in a manner consistent with the assumption of GC05 (that a is unaffected by extraction of
 395 power from the channel) poses a challenge. This is noted by [20], who conformed with the
 396 GC05 assumption by evaluating a from the tidal head at two points where effects of the
 397 turbine fence has been dissipated. To estimate the parameter γ in the GC05 formula for
 398 each site we use the model output to compute the phase lag of the discharge at the position
 399 of the fence with respect to the tidal head in natural conditions (see Fig. 4 in GC05).

400 3. Results

401 3.1. Annual Mean Power Density

402 In the model-computed distribution of annual mean power density (Fig. 7) areas of high
 403 power density are confined to the southern portion of the model domain and are concentrated
 404 in channels and around headlands. Power density is highest in Cape Cod Canal, where there
 405 is significant cross-canal variation in power density marked by a decrease in power towards
 406 the channel edges. This decrease is due to frictional losses in the shallow waters along the

407 lateral boundaries. For any given cross-section, the maximum power density occurs near the
408 canal centerline and the magnitude is inversely correlated with the depth. The kinetic power
409 density along the centerline is greatest at the canal's western entrance, with an annual mean
410 value of 2.7 kW m^{-2} and maximum annual value of 16.8 kW m^{-2} , and is weakest near the
411 eastern entrance, where the annual mean value decreases to 0.5 kW m^{-2} along the stretch of
412 canal where the width increases from 200 to 330 m. The ratio of maximum instantaneous
413 kinetic power density to annual mean kinetic power density is approximately 5.8 throughout
414 the canal, with the exception of the west entrance where it reaches a value of 6.3. The inlet
415 hydraulics near the western entrance generate a slight dominance of the ebb tide (discharge
416 from the canal).

417 The site with the next largest annual mean kinetic power density, with a peak value
418 of 2.35 kW m^{-2} , is Nantucket Shoals to the southwest of Nantucket Island. The power
419 density exceeds 1.0 kW m^{-2} over a roughly 1 km^2 patch situated 2 km from the coast. The
420 water depth over this patch, which is in the vicinity of Old Man Shoal as marked on NOAA
421 charts, ranges from 3 to 10 m. The strong tidal flows in Nantucket Shoals are well known
422 to mariners, as are the hazards posed by the region's constantly shifting and shoaling bars.
423 From an analysis of momentum balance of the barotropic tidal flow, [3] found that the
424 nonlinear advection terms become significant in the vicinity of the Shoals, and attributed
425 this to a large local increase in the bed stress. The relationship of kinetic power density to
426 bathymetric features subject to morphodynamic evolution make this area a poor candidate
427 for power extraction using fixed devices. For this reason, we chose not to examine the
428 power potential of this area further. We also chose to exclude other areas in which high P_A
429 ($> 1.0 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$) is coupled with unstable bedforms from further analysis. These include a
430 region known as Shovelfull Shoal off Monomoy Point in Chatham and Wasque Shoal off of
431 Chappaquiddick Island, Martha's Vineyard, and Middle Ground in Vineyard Sound.

432 Among the Elizabeth Island channels, Woods Hole has the highest annual mean power
433 density, which peaks at 2.13 kW m^{-2} in an area known as the Strait where the passage is most
434 narrow. The annual power density exceeds 0.7 kW m^{-2} in a swath of water approximately
435 0.3 km^2 . The ratio of the maximum instantaneous to annual mean kinetic power density

436 in the vicinity of this enhanced power patch is 5.5. Further south, Robinson Hole has a
437 peak annual mean kinetic power density of 0.9 kW m^{-2} . The area of the hole over which
438 the kinetic power density exceeds 0.7 kW m^{-2} is very small, approximately 200 m on a side.
439 Still further south, Quicks Hole has a peak annual mean kinetic power density of only 0.5
440 kW m^{-2} .

441 Flow in Muskeget Channel has a peak annual mean power density of 1.73 kW m^{-2} and
442 peak instantaneous annual maximum of 9.2 kW m^{-2} . The ratio of maximum to annual
443 mean power density ranges from 5.25 in the eastern side of the channel, as defined by the
444 15-m isobath, to 6.5 on the western side where the flow is strongly ebb dominant (see
445 Section 3.2). Annual mean power densities in excess of 0.8 kW m^{-2} appear within an area
446 extending approximately 2500 m in the along channel direction and 800 m in width. The
447 area enclosed by 1.0 kW m^{-2} power threshold is roughly 50% smaller, stretching ~ 2000 m
448 along the channel and ~ 400 m across the channel. The depth over most of the high-energy
449 region exceeds 15 m.

450 3.2. Theoretical Resource Estimate

451 Based on the model-computed annual mean kinetic power density (§3.1) and prior work
452 in the region [10], we chose to examine the theoretical power potential using turbine fences
453 at five sites: Cape Cod Canal, Woods Hole, Robinson Hole, Quicks Hole, and Muskeget
454 Channel (Fig. 1). The power potential of first four was estimated with a full fence across
455 the respective channels. For Muskeget Channel, the power potential was determined for a
456 partial fence spanning the channel between the 10-m isobaths. Although power density in
457 Quicks Hole did not meet our threshold value of 0.7 kW m^{-2} , the hole was included in our
458 analysis to represent a site with modest power density but with a depth, in excess of 10
459 m, suitable for turbine emplacement. The theoretical resource for each site was determined
460 individually to isolate the power potential of a given site. Several alternative experiments
461 were also run to examine the potential for interaction among the sites. These experiments
462 indicated that the only interaction of note was among Robinson, Quicks, and Woods Hole
463 in the Elizabeth Islands. In comparison with the sum of their individual theoretical power,

464 approximately 5% greater power was achieved when extraction was performed at the three
465 sites simultaneously.

466 The site with the greatest theoretical tidal stream power is Muskeget Channel. Maximum
467 extractable power from the channel is estimated to be 24.24 MW with M_2 -only forcing, and
468 only slightly greater, 24.29 MW, with forcing by all six constituents (Table 3, Fig. 8). The
469 volumetric flow reduction through the channel at maximum power extraction is 44%, the
470 highest of the five sites considered (Table 4). The site with the second largest theoretical
471 tidal stream resource is the Cape Cod Canal. Estimated maximum tidal stream power
472 through the canal is 12.61 MW with M_2 -only forcing and 13.15 with six major constituents.
473 Estimated flow reduction through the canal due to maximum power extraction is 42%.
474 Quicks Hole and Woods Hole had similar maximum powers from M_2 -only forcing, with 2.88
475 MW for the former and 2.85 MW for the latter. Robinson Hole had the smallest tidal stream
476 resource, with an estimated maximum extracted power of 0.58 MW when forced by the six
477 major constituents. The total tidal stream resource from all five sites is 43.8 MW.

478 *3.3. Comparison with Analytical Approaches*

479 Power predictions at the five sites using the appropriate analytical approaches resulted in
480 a total power potential of 36.1 MW which is within 17% of the numerical model prediction
481 (Table 3). By site, the relative differences ranged from a minimum difference of 3.4% at
482 Robinson Hole to 21% at Quicks Hole. The prediction of the numerical model exceeded that
483 of the analytical at three of the five sites (Cape Cod Canal, Muskeget Channel, and Quicks
484 Hole).

485 **4. Discussion**

486 Comparison of the modeled profiles of tidal power density with power density profiles
487 determined from CMIST and Muskeget Channel ADCP measurements gives reasonable con-
488 fidence in the model's skill in estimating kinetic power density within high-flow environments
489 that may be candidates for power extraction. In particular, the model very closely replicates
490 the magnitude and spatial distribution of the measured power density in Muskeget Channel,

491 including the ebb/flood asymmetry of the power density in the along- and across-channel
492 directions (Fig. 6). From the overall model/measurement comparison, it appears that the
493 model closely reproduces annual mean power density and shear within well-defined channels
494 over which the annual mean power density is high. The notable exception is the failure of
495 the model to reproduce the shear of the annual mean power density in Woods Hole Strait,
496 at CMIST-11 (Fig. 5).

497 There are several characteristics of Woods Hole that make it a particularly challenging
498 site for accurately modeling flow and power density. The Woods Hole passage turns by nearly
499 90° , and the navigation channels are bounded by steeply sloping rock ledges. Flow over this
500 irregular and rough bathymetry can generate significant form drag and lateral turbulence,
501 processes that are not well resolved in the terrain-following hydrostatic ocean model used in
502 our study. At other high energy locations, such as Three Tree Point in Puget Sound, this
503 form drag has been estimated to be an order of magnitude greater than the bottom drag [49].
504 The CMIST-11 velocity record has the greatest non-tidal variability ($\sim 5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) of the 12
505 CMIST records, an indication of high level of turbulence intensity in the horizontal velocity
506 field. Greater confidence in the model solution in Woods Hole passage would require more
507 careful observations of the velocity field to provide a better understanding of the frictional
508 control and associated energy losses. Frictional energy losses could be better parameterized
509 in the model through changes in bottom roughness and/or lateral diffusivity. A second factor
510 which may limit model fidelity in Woods Hole is the paucity of bathymetric data outside
511 the navigation channels.

512 A larger-scale concern with our modeling approach is with the treatment of the open
513 boundary conditions. The open boundaries in both the regional (MTM) and local (C³M)
514 model were clamped, constrained to follow elevation changes of the larger-scale model in
515 which they were nested. This practice does not account for the possible effect of energy
516 extraction on the boundary elevation field, and thus may exclude critical impacts of the
517 extraction [50,51]. To examine the potential influence of clamping on the MTM model, we
518 look at the contribution of extraction to the overall energy budget in the domain. The
519 mean bottom dissipation rate under M_2 forcing is 3.8 GW. If the tidal stream resource

520 from all five sites examined in this study (44 MW) was extracted simultaneously, this would
521 represent only 1.2% of the natural bottom dissipation. To examine clamping effects on the
522 C³M model, we performed energy extraction experiments in the Cape Cod Canal using the
523 larger scale MTM model and examined the influence of extraction on the sea level near the
524 location of the C³M open boundaries. The maximum M₂ head in the MTM model between
525 the position of the two open boundaries in the C³M is 1.66 m. At maximum extraction in
526 the Cape Cod Canal in the regional MTM model, this maximum head difference is reduced
527 by only 2.5 cm, which is 1.5% of the natural maximum head. These experiments indicate
528 that clamping the surface elevation at the open boundary has limited effect on the outcome
529 of the simulations.

530 An unexpected result of our study is the close agreement of the tidal stream resource
531 estimations obtained by extracting energy from the modeled flows with estimates determined
532 by the formulations of GC05 and GC07, which require considerably less computational effort
533 than the numerical model. Applied to all five sites, the analytical predictions are within
534 17% of the value determined by the numerical model. This result is somewhat surprising
535 as the analytical formulations are based on assumptions that are not directly applicable to
536 these sites. In particular, assumption of the GC05 1-D approach that spatial variations of
537 the flow occur only in the along-channel direction is counter to the significant vertical and
538 cross-channel velocity shear observed in the fixed and shipboard ADCP data and in the
539 model results (Figs. 5 and 6). Nevertheless, our finding may be taken as evidence for the
540 utility of the GC05 and GC07 formulations in making rapid and inexpensive assessments of
541 tidal-power potential in a given region.

542 Extraction of the maximum power under M₂-only forcing of 43.12 MW is associated with
543 significant reductions in volumetric flow ranging from 36 to 44 percent. A 38% reduction in
544 this power to 26.4MW would generate a volumetric flow reduction at a significantly smaller
545 value of 15% (Table 4). Similar tradeoffs were found by [19] in their study of Minas Passage.

546 Notably our predictions of extractable power differ considerably from estimates of mean
547 available power determined by [10] using point ADCP measurements to determine the energy
548 flux through a given channel (see §1 and locations of ADCP measurements in Fig. 7). Their

549 13.3 MW estimate of mean available power within Muskeget Channel is considerably less
550 than our predictions of maximum extractable power determined using the partial fence
551 approach (24.3 MW) and the GC07 formulation (21.9 MW) (Table 3). Their 3.41 MW
552 estimate of annual mean power in Cape Cod Canal is also significantly below the estimated
553 the tidal stream resource determined by full-fence energy extraction (12.61 MW) or by GC05
554 (10.60 MW). This comparison reveals the potential inadequacy of flux based assessments
555 of a tidal power resource and underscores the need to evaluate tidal power potential using
556 high-resolution hydrodynamic modeling.

557 **5. Summary**

558 A pair of numerical models was setup to resolve the coastline and bathymetry at a scale
559 appropriate for the assessment of the theoretical tidal stream resource of Massachusetts,
560 USA. The model was validated through extensive comparison with sea surface height and
561 both fixed and shipboard velocity measurements. The numerical model predicts a total of
562 44 MW available from five high energy sites. These sites were also studied using accepted
563 analytical approaches which provided predictions that were within 21% of the numerical
564 models at all sites. The numerical models can be used to provide initial power resource
565 assessments for energy developers, offer guidance on placement of velocity measurements for
566 further study of the resource, and facilitate optimization of turbine array design.

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699 FIGURES

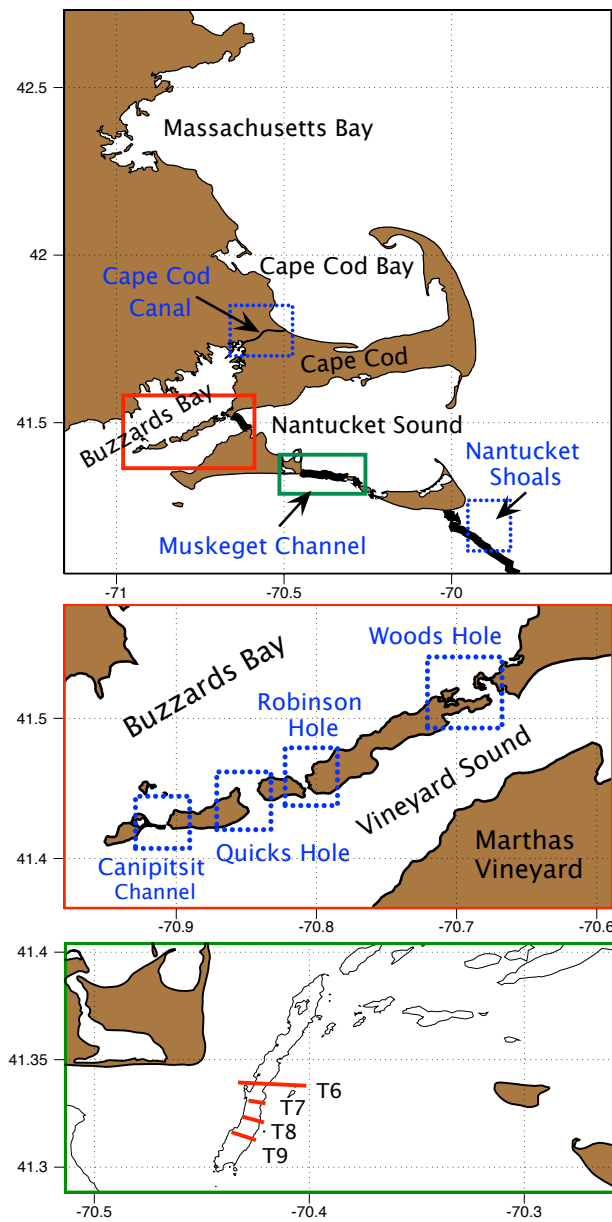


Figure 1: Upper: Coastal waters of Massachusetts with notable areas of tidal resource (boxes) and demarcation of zone of rapidly varying tidal phase (thick black line). Center: Holes and Channels separating Buzzards Bay from Vineyard Sound (see red box in upper panel for location). Lower: Muskeget Channel region with 15-m isobath and location of ADCP transects T6-T9. (see green box in upper panel for location).

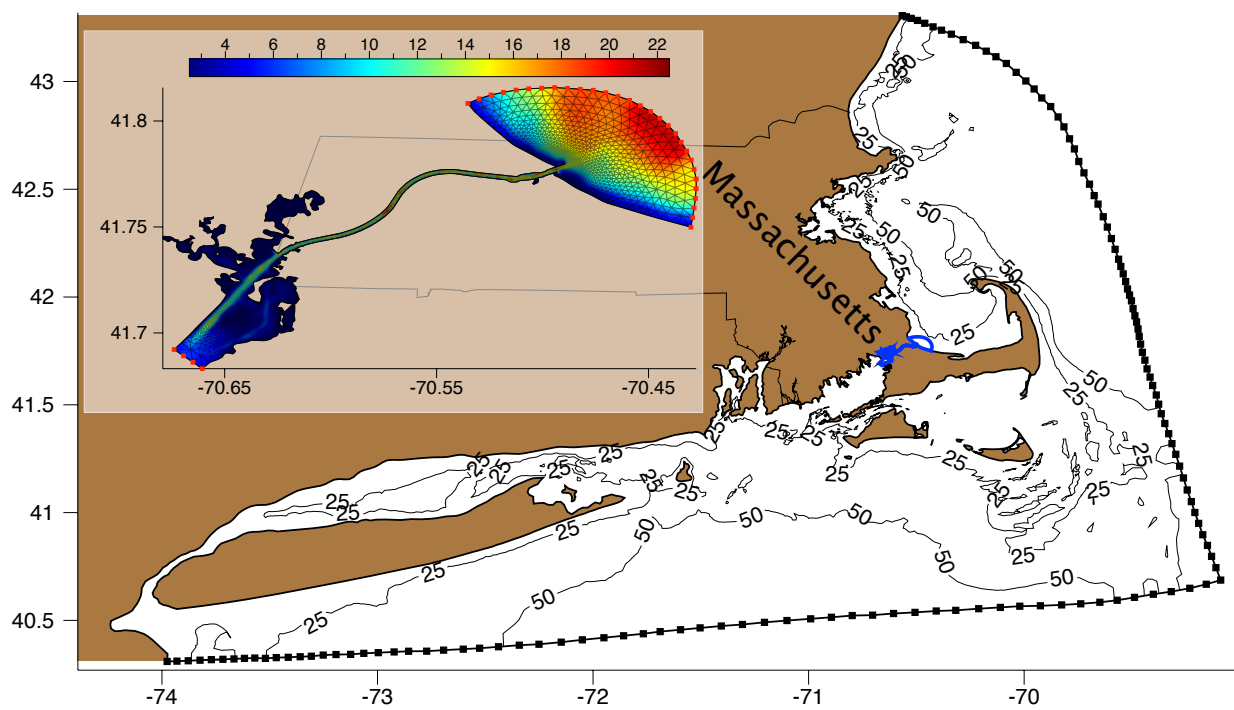


Figure 2: Main: Mass Tidal Model (MTM) domain with Massachusetts state border, 25- and 50-m isobaths, open boundary nodes (black squares), and location of C³M local domain (blue outline). Inset: Cape Cod Canal Model (C³M) domain and bathymetry (m) with open boundary nodes (red boxes).

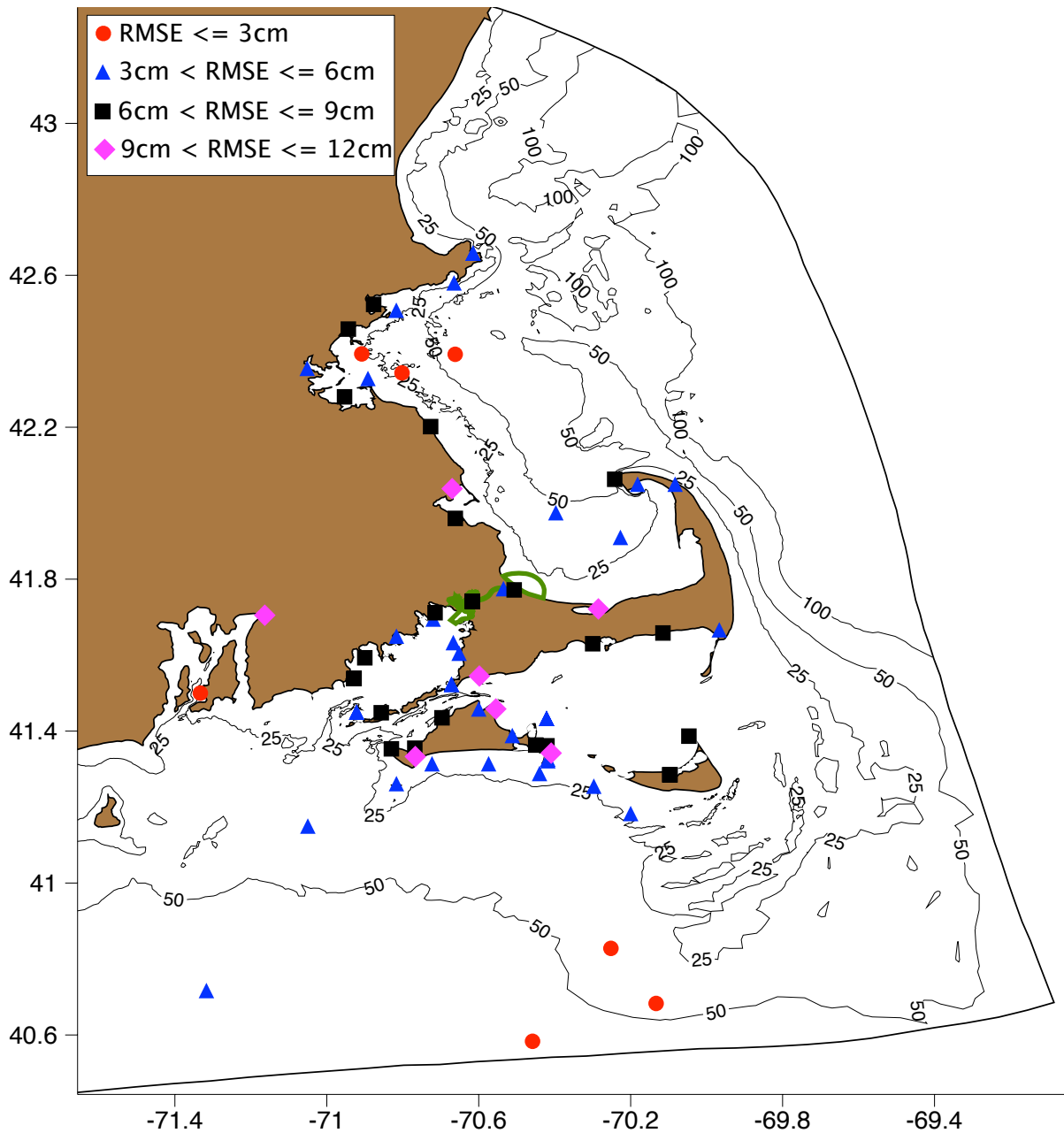


Figure 3: RMSE bins for model-computed and observed annual time series of sea surface elevation reconstructed from tidal harmonics at 73 locations in the MTM model domain and C³M local model domain (green outline). The 25, 50, and 100 m isobaths are included for reference.

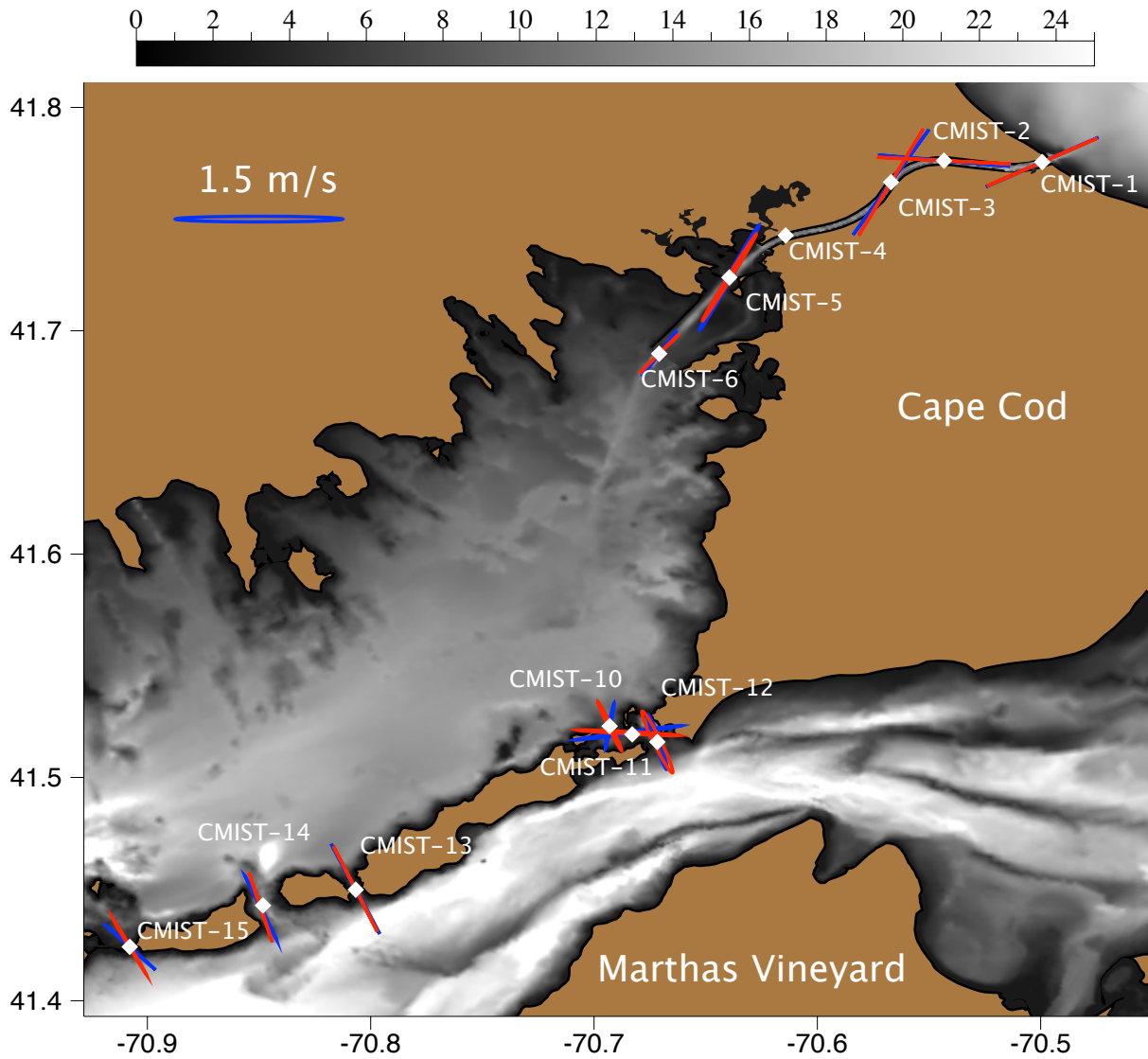


Figure 4: Tidal ellipses of model-computed (red) and observed (blue) vertically averaged velocity at 12 CMIST stations. Bathymetry [m] shown for reference. No data is plotted at CMIST-4, which is a horizontal ADCP station.

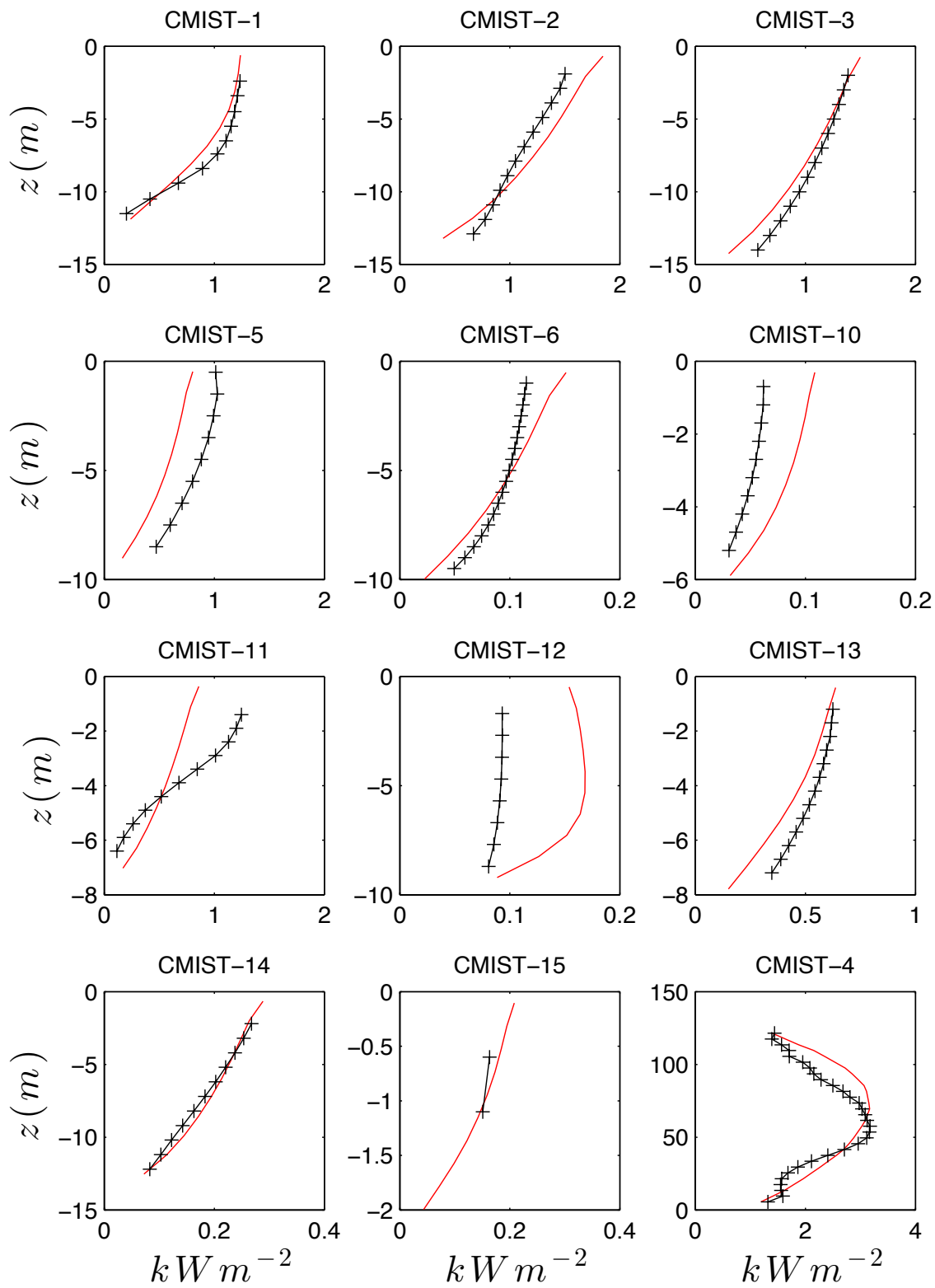


Figure 5: Profiles of model-computed (red solid line) and observed (black line with + symbols) annual mean power density at CMIST ADCP locations. All ADCPs are upward-looking with vertical axis as vertical coordinate (m) with the exception of CMIST-4 which is sideward-looking with vertical axis as horizontal distance (m). See Fig. 4 for station locations.

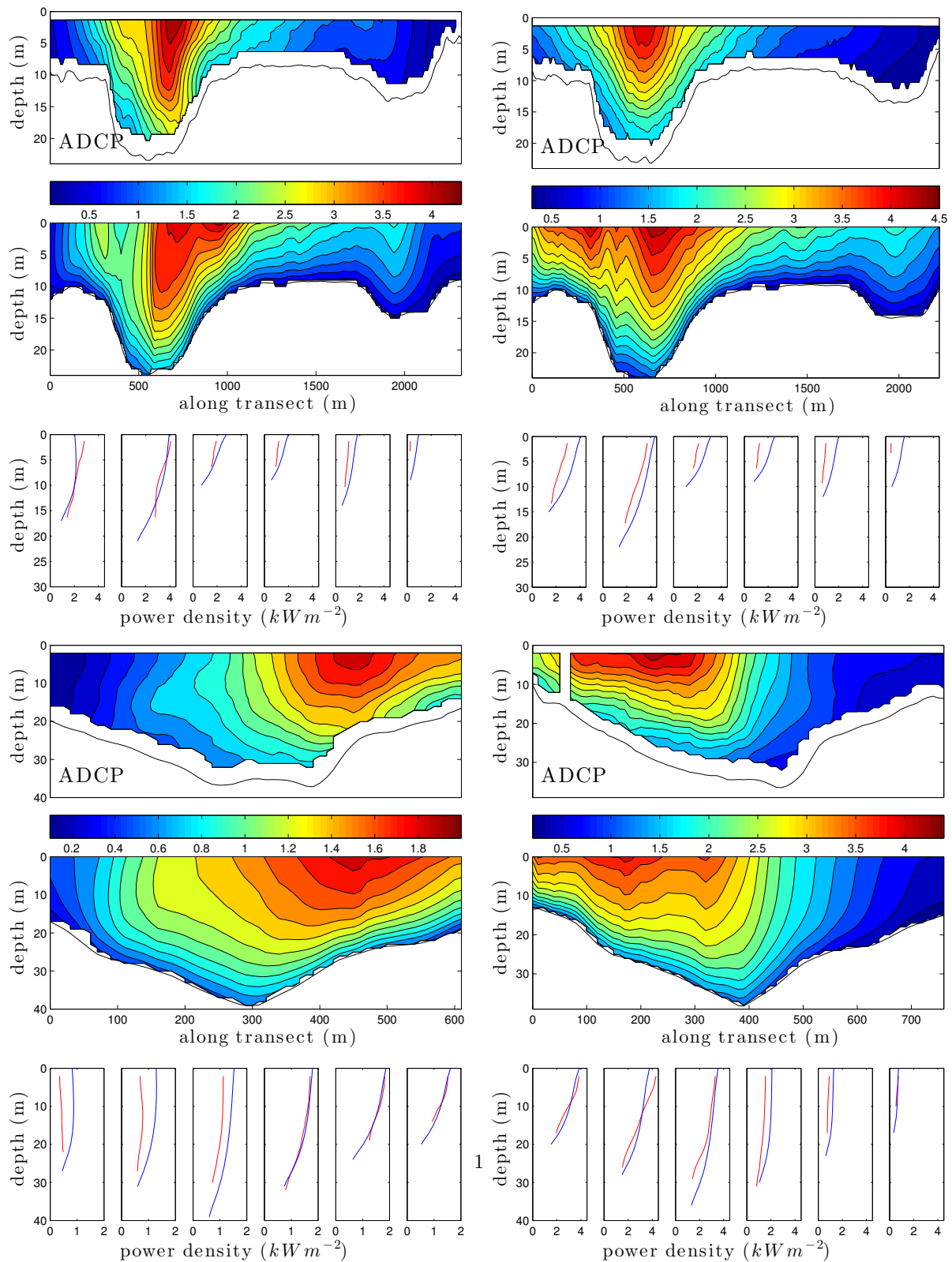


Figure 6: Comparison of model-computed and measured (ADCP) transects of power density at transect 6 (upper) and transect 8 (lower) for flood (left) and ebb (right) at Muskeget Channel. Note the different range in color axis used for flood/ebb. See Figure 1, lower panel, for transect locations. Vertical profiles of measured (red line) and model-computed (blue line) power density along each transect are shown in the lower section of each panel. Panels are oriented from west (left) to east (right).

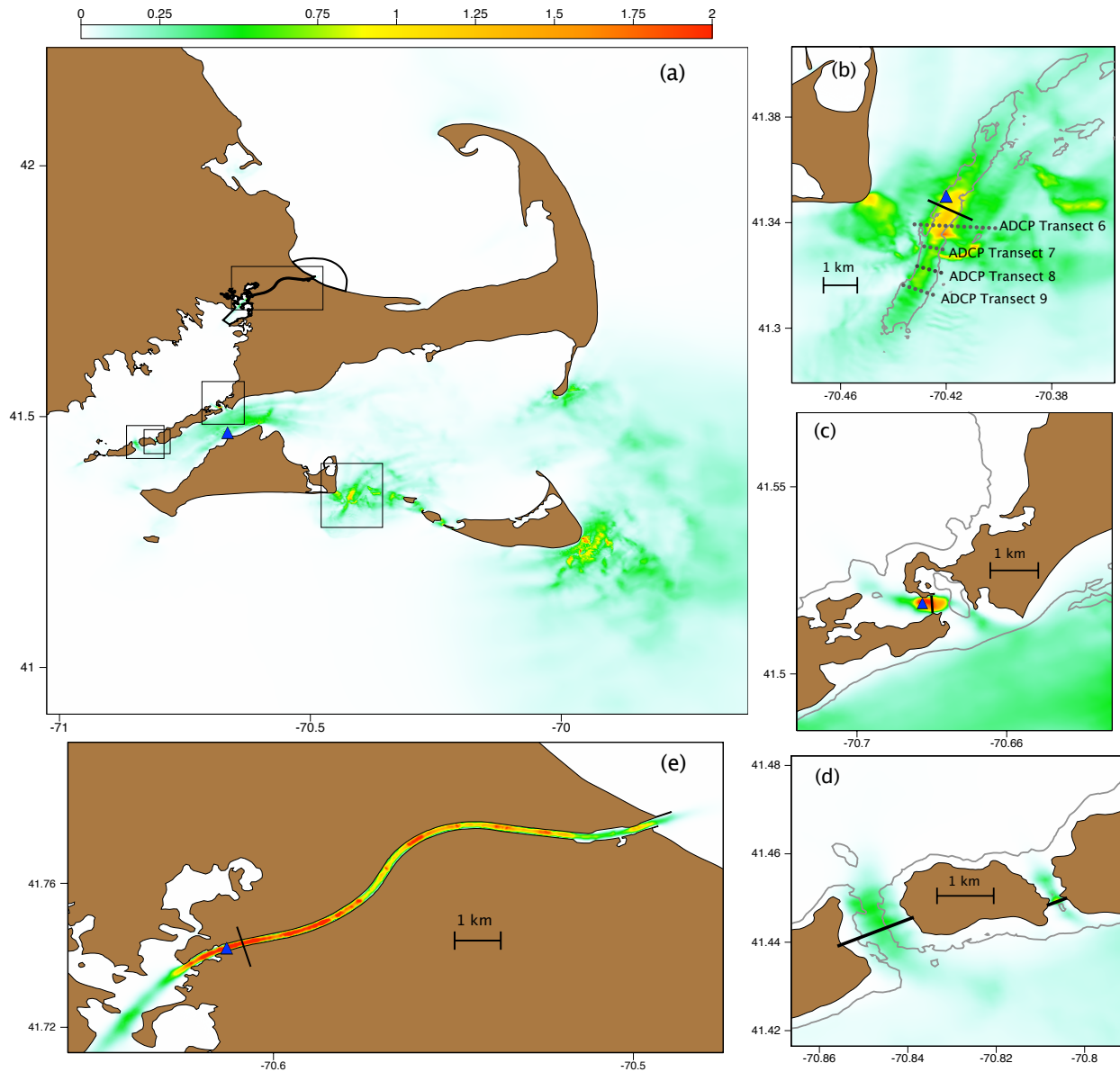


Figure 7: Annual mean vertically averaged kinetic power density P_A [kW m^{-2}] computed using the MTM and C³M models. Clockwise from upper left: (a) southeastern Massachusetts region of MTM domain with C³M boundary (black line) shown for reference, (b) Muskeget Channel with 15-m isobath. (c) Woods Hole with 10-m isobath (d) Robinson Hole (right) and Quicks Hole (left) with 10-m isobath, (e) Cape Cod Canal. Position of the turbine fence used for theoretical power estimation (black lines) and position of the ADCP observations used for the EPRI, 2006 assessment ([10], blue triangles) are shown for reference

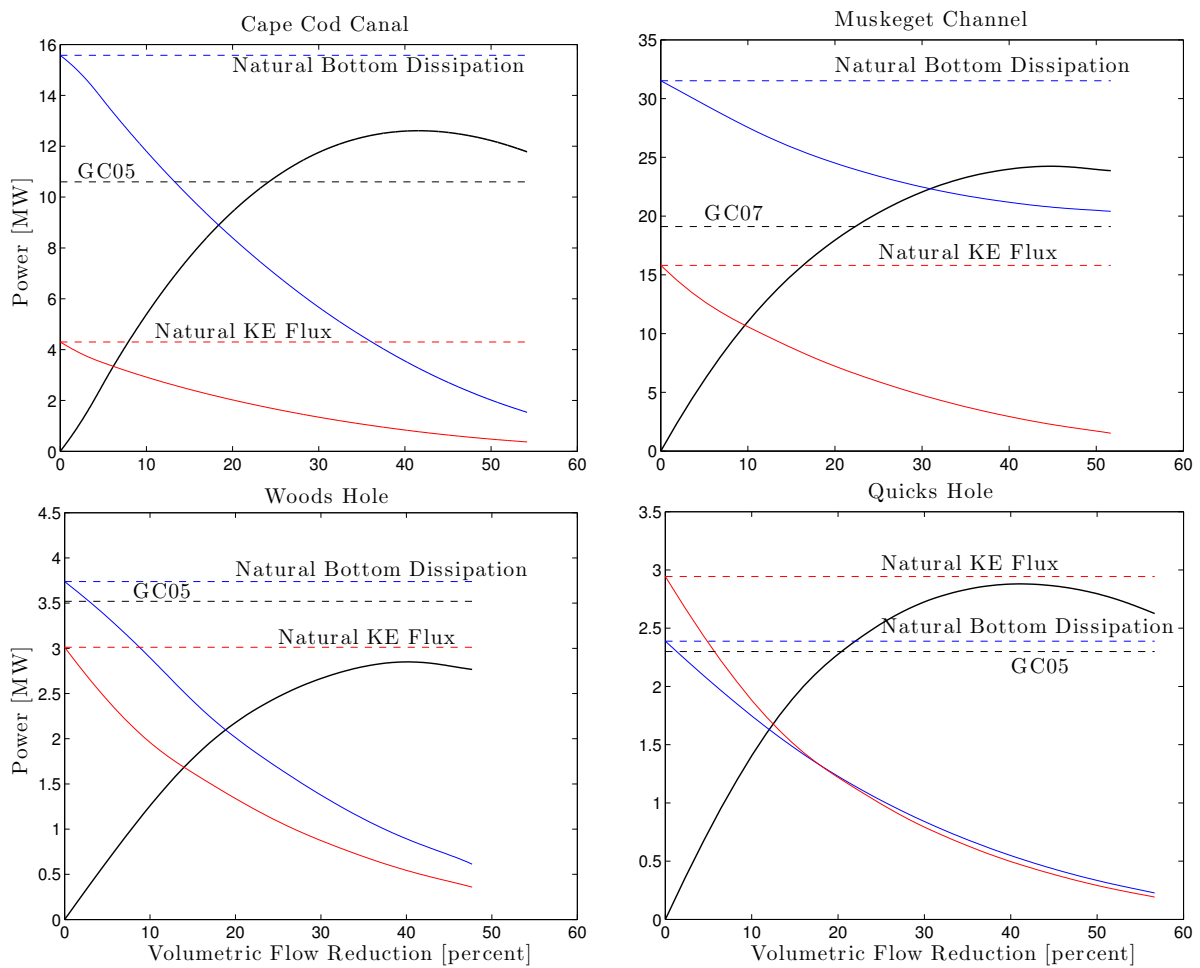


Figure 8: Tidal power components (MW) at four sites compared against percent volume flux reduction. Theoretical tidal stream power resource (black solid line), bottom dissipation (blue solid line), and kinetic energy flux (red solid line). The natural kinetic energy flux (red dashed line) and natural bottom dissipation (blue dashed line), as well as the value of the analytical estimate appropriate for the site (GC05 for full fence, GC07 for partial fence) are included for reference.

700 **TABLES**

Table 1: Skill assessment for the power density computed from an annual time series constructed using the major axis of the constituents of the vertically averaged velocity field at 11 upward looking CMIST stations within the model domains.

CMIST Station No.	Location	Willmott [-]	RMSE [kW m^{-2}]	Mean observed [kW m^{-2}]	Mean modeled [kW m^{-2}]
CMIST-01	Cape Cod Canal, East End	0.99	0.14	0.84	0.80
CMIST-02	Cape Cod Canal, Sagamore Bridge	0.99	0.19	1.08	1.11
CMIST-03	Cape Cod Canal, Bourne	0.98	0.26	1.02	0.90
CMIST-05	Hog Neck	0.89	0.48	0.81	0.49
CMIST-06	Abiels Ledge	0.97	0.03	0.09	0.08
CMIST-10	Woods Hole, North End	0.93	0.04	0.05	0.07
CMIST-11	Woods Hole, The Strait	0.97	0.21	0.58	0.49
CMIST-12	Juniper Point	0.89	0.09	0.09	0.15
CMIST-13	Robinsons Hole	0.94	0.25	0.51	0.41
CMIST-14	Quicks Hole, Middle	0.98	0.05	0.17	0.18
CMIST-15	Canapitsit Channel	0.92	0.09	0.16	0.13

Table 2: Skill assessment for model-computed and observed power density for transects 6-9 in Muskeget Channel (Fig. 7) . RMSE and Willmott scores are computed using observed and computed values for power density interpolated to the discrete transect grid. Values for total tidal stream power (kW) through the transects are compared in columns 5-7.

Transect	Direction	RMSE [$kW m^{-2}$]	Willmott [-]	Observed Power [kW]	Model Power [kW]	Power Diff [Percent]
6	flood	0.29	0.98	40729	44416	9.00
6	ebb	0.51	0.93	40430	49417	22.00
7	flood	0.18	0.98	25367	24100	-5.00
7	ebb	0.72	0.92	37953	47730	25.00
8	flood	0.20	0.94	14046	16132	14.00
8	ebb	0.28	0.98	30297	32955	8.00
9	flood	0.08	0.97	7117	7276	2.00
9	ebb	0.31	0.96	26435	29609	12.00

Table 3: Statistics for the theoretical tidal stream resource at the five sites of interest as well as the total. A_c is the effective cross sectional area of the site and r_b is the blockage ratio. \bar{Q} is the mean natural discharge, Q_o is the maximum mean natural discharge, $\overline{KE_{flux}}$ is the mean natural kinetic energy flux, a is the maximum head under M_2 forcing, and γ is the bottom friction parameter in the GC05 model. P_{GC} is the resource estimate using the appropriate Garrett and Cummins approach. $P_{MAX_{M_2}}$ is the maximum model-computed extractable power (theoretical tidal stream resource) under M_2 forcing and P_{MAX_6} is the tidal stream resource under forcing from the six major tidal constituents.

	Cape Cod Canal	Muskeget	Woods Hole	Quicks Hole	Robinsons Hole	Total
$A_c [\times 10^3 m^2]$	1.9	28.3	2.1	10.4	1.4	44.1
$r_b [-]$	1	0.3	1	1	1	
$\bar{Q} [m^3/s]$	2841	24782	2674	6908	1136	38341
$Q_o [m^3/s]$	4055	37988	4072	10420	1873	58408
$\overline{KE_{flux}} [MW]$	4.30	15.8	3.01	2.94	0.56	26.61
$a [m]$	1.30	0.58	0.42	0.11	0.16	
$\gamma [-]$	0.2	–	0.205	0.2	0.2	
$P_{GC} [MW]$	10.60	19.11	3.52	2.30	0.60	36.14
$P_{MAX_{M_2}} [MW]$	12.61	24.24	2.85	2.88	0.54	43.12
$P_{MAX_6} [MW]$	13.15	24.29	2.90	2.92	0.58	43.84

Table 4: Volumetric reduction under various levels of power extraction for the five sites of interest. Column 2: Maximum power extraction under M_2 conditions and associated volumetric flux reduction (column 3). Power extraction for three volumetric flow reductions (columns 4-6).

	$P_{max_{M_2}}$	VFR	Vol. Flow Reduct.		
			5%	15%	25%
Cape Cod Canal	12.61	42%	2.67	7.64	10.79
Muskeget Channel	24.24	44%	6.32	14.69	20.29
Woods Hole	2.85	40%	0.58	1.75	2.46
Quicks Hole	2.88	40.1%	0.67	1.89	2.53
Robinson Hole	0.54	36%	0.24	0.39	0.49

	M_2		S_2		N_2		K_1		O_1		M_4	
	Obs		Model		Obs		Model		Obs		Model	
	A(m)	σ_G	A(m)	σ_G	A(m)	σ_G	A(m)	σ_G	A(m)	σ_G	A(m)	σ_G
Edgartown	0.27	112	0.25	100	0.02	109	0.02	84	0.09	76	0.07	76
Menemsha Harbor	0.39	14	0.41	4	0.08	34	0.09	19	0.10	359	0.09	343
Nantucket Island	0.44	135	0.42	121	0.05	167	0.04	149	0.11	103	0.11	96
Cape Cod Bay East	1.33	110	1.35	110	0.22	145	0.21	146	0.26	79	0.31	80
Cape Cod Bay West	1.31	109	1.33	109	0.22	145	0.21	145	0.28	79	0.30	79
Boston Outer Harbor 1	1.32	104	1.32	105	0.21	138	0.21	141	0.30	70	0.30	75
Boston Outer Harbor 2	1.31	105	1.31	106	0.20	139	0.20	141	0.30	71	0.30	76
Boston Outer Harbor 3	1.30	105	1.29	106	0.20	139	0.20	141	0.30	72	0.30	76
Marblehead	1.33	102	1.31	105	0.22	137	0.20	140	0.32	72	0.30	75
Gloucester	1.30	105	1.29	105	0.20	140	0.20	140	0.27	79	0.30	74
Provincetown	1.35	110	1.30	110	0.21	145	0.20	146	0.23	84	0.30	80
Cape Cod Light	1.16	113	1.16	111	-99.00	-99	0.17	147	-99.00	-99	0.26	80
South of Nantucket	0.32	1	0.30	2	0.08	21	0.06	16	0.09	339	0.06	347
Nantucket Shoals 1	0.39	356	0.38	357	0.09	18	0.07	15	0.09	340	0.07	341
Cleveland Ledge	0.54	8	0.53	6	0.12	32	0.11	25	0.14	351	0.12	345
Menemsha	0.45	5	0.40	351	0.10	24	0.08	9	0.12	356	0.08	330
Cox Ledge	0.44	1	0.44	355	0.10	0	0.09	15	0.10	334	0.10	334
Picket Ledge	0.51	1	0.50	359	0.12	23	0.11	20	0.12	317	0.10	333
Newport, RI	0.28	110	0.26	106	0.02	108	0.02	97	0.08	76	0.07	79
Muskeget Channel 1	0.27	111	0.26	106	0.03	115	0.02	97	0.07	68	0.07	79
Muskeget Channel 2	0.28	114	0.26	106	0.02	138	0.02	97	0.09	66	0.07	79
Muskeget Channel 3	0.21	21	0.23	17	0.04	47	0.05	21	0.07	358	0.05	4
Muskeget Channel 4	0.32	360	0.32	360	0.09	19	0.07	14	0.08	340	0.07	343
Muskeget Channel 5	0.26	12	0.25	13	0.07	24	0.05	19	0.08	355	0.05	359
Muskeget Channel 6	0.19	82	0.17	42	0.04	54	0.04	30	0.07	46	0.04	33
Muskeget Channel 7	0.18	45	0.16	74	0.05	33	0.02	44	0.07	22	0.05	58
Muskeget Channel 9	0.41	352	0.42	353	0.09	18	0.07	17	0.10	335	0.08	339
New England Shelf 2	0.41	350	0.39	351	0.07	33	0.08	9	0.07	352	0.08	331
CBLAST Site 1	0.39	353	0.37	354	0.07	35	0.08	11	0.06	354	0.08	334
CBLAST Site 2	0.35	356	0.33	359	0.06	37	0.07	13	0.06	358	0.06	342
CBLAST Site 3	0.38	355	0.38	359	0.06	37	0.07	16	0.06	354	0.07	341
CBLAST Site 4												

Table S2: Comparison of Observed and Modeled Tidal Harmonics: Part II/II