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1 Beach recovery from extreme storm activity
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16 Abstract

17 The storm sequence of the 2013/14 winter left many beaches along the At-
18 lantic coast of Europe in their most eroded state for decades. Understanding
19 how beaches recover from such extreme events is essential for coastal man-
20 agers, especially in light of potential increases in storminess due to climate
21 change. Here we analyze a unique dataset of decadal beach morphological
22 changes along the west coast of Europe to investigate the post-2013/14-
23 winter recovery. We show that the recovery signature is site-specific and
24 multi-annual, with one studied beach fully recovered after two years, and
25 the others only partially recovered after four years. During the recovery
26 phase, winter waves primarily control the timescales of beach recovery, as

27 energetic winter stall the recovery process while moderate winter accelerate
28 it. This inter-annual variability is well correlated with climate indices. On
29 exposed beaches, an equilibrium model showed significant skill in reproduc-
30 ing the post-storm recovery and thus can be used to investigate the recovery
31 process in more details.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Sand and gravel beaches may undergo dramatic erosion and recession during
34 sequences of extreme storm wave events (Ferreira, 2006), leaving them in a
35 state of morphological dis-equilibrium. A phase of ‘recovery’ towards pre-
36 storm sediment volume is then a natural morphodynamic response to this
37 depleted state (Brenner et al., 2018). Because the rates of recovery depend on
38 the magnitude of the storm-induced changes, the subsequent hydrodynamic
39 conditions, the sediment availability and the geological setting, predicting the
40 time until full recovery is achieved (if ever) is challenging. Given the current
41 predictions of climate change, the acceleration of sea level rise (Cazenave and
42 Cozannet, 2014) and the potential intensification of storminess (Donat et al.,
43 2011) will increase extreme water levels and may increase the frequency of
44 winter storms in the near future (IPCC AR5 Pachauri et al., 2014). Hence,
45 addressing the timescales of beach recovery to extreme storm winters, such as
46 the 2013/14 winter, can provide a measure of coastal resilience in a changing
47 climate.

48 Beach recovery from severe storms has been shown to spread over years
49 to decades (Morton et al., 1994; Houser and Hamilton, 2009; Castelle et al.,
50 2017a). Since beach morphodynamics are often characterized by a significant
51 seasonal signal (Aubrey, 1979; Masselink and Pattiaratchi, 2001; Davidson
52 and Turner, 2009), the long-term recovery signature is often hard to detect
53 within the shorter-term fluctuations (Thom and Hall, 1991; Stephan et al.,
54 2015). Therefore, high-frequency monitoring of beach morphology over long
55 time periods is crucial to understand better storm recovery (Turner et al.,
56 2016). Unfortunately, such monitoring programmes are scarce, and the few
57 available data sets have been used mostly to characterize extreme storm
58 responses (Scott et al., 2016; Barnard et al., 2017), investigate the param-
59 eters controlling beach morphological changes (Yates et al., 2011) and de-
60 velop semi-empirical equilibrium models able to reproduce these morpholog-

61 ical changes (Davidson and Turner, 2009; Yates et al., 2009; Splinter et al.,
62 2014). However, ongoing field monitoring programmes in France and UK
63 have recently shed some lights on the key mechanisms involved during post-
64 storm recovery (Scott et al., 2016; Castelle et al., 2017a; Burvingt et al.,
65 2018). Scott et al. [2016], investigated the morphological changes at three
66 contrasting sites in SW England during the two years that followed the
67 extreme 2013/14 winter. They found that the recovery mechanisms and
68 timescales were highly dependent on the site characteristics, and that high-
69 energy wave events were essential for the recovery of sediments. Burvingt
70 et al. (2018), found that for a number of very similar beaches in SW Eng-
71 land, recovery from the 2013/14 storm was regionally-coherent, multi-annual
72 (>3 years), and mainly controlled by winter-wave conditions. Castelle et al.
73 (2017a) investigated how the beach-dune system of an exposed site in SW
74 France recovered from winter 2013/14 and found that only after 1.5 year the
75 beach-dune system almost fully recovered to its pre-winter volume. These
76 site-specific recovery rates highlight the need to conduct studies at broader
77 scales, including different beaches, in order to investigate the key parameters
78 that control the recovery timescales.

79 During the 2013/14 winter, a highly unusual sequence of extratropical
80 storms crossed the North-East Atlantic region. This winter was the most
81 energetic winter along the Atlantic coast of Europe since at least 1948 (Mas-
82 selink et al., 2016a), and most of the west European coastline was severely
83 impacted (Castelle et al., 2015; Blaise et al., 2015; Masselink et al., 2016b;
84 Autret et al., 2016). Although winter waves are known to be well correlated
85 with the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index at high latitudes (Bacon
86 and Carter, 1993; Dodet et al., 2010; Bromirski and Cayan, 2015), this ex-
87 ceptional winter was not associated with a particularly high NAO. Castelle
88 et al. (2017b) computed a new climate index based on the sea level pressure
89 gradient between Ireland and the Canary Islands: the West Europe Pressure
90 Anomaly (WEPA). They showed that the 2013/14 winter was associated
91 with the highest WEPA over 1948-2016, which reflects an intensified and
92 southward shift of the sea level pressure difference between the Icelandic low
93 and the Azores high, driving severe storms that funnel high-energy waves
94 toward western Europe southward of 52°N .

95 In this paper, we investigate the post-2013/14 winter recovery of five
96 beaches along the west coast of Europe; these are the same beaches for which

97 the 2013/14 storm response was reported in Masselink et al. (2016a). Our
98 objectives are threefold: 1) to obtain insight into the time scale of recovery
99 for this extreme event for the different locations; 2) to explain the difference
100 in observed recovery time scales by identifying the key factors involved; and
101 3) to determine extent to which extreme erosion and recovery processes can
102 be modeled using present equilibrium models.

103 2 Methods

104 2.1 Wave Modeling

105 Two wave model hindcasts were used in this study. First, a large-scale and
106 low-resolution model was used to characterize the wave climate in the North-
107 East Atlantic, and more particularly the N-S differences in the wave forcing
108 along the west coast of Europe. For this purpose, the spectral wave model
109 WAVEWATCH III V4.18 (WW3, Tolman, 2014) was implemented on a 0.5°
110 resolution grid covering the North Atlantic Ocean and forced with the 6-
111 hourly wind fields of the NCEP/NCAR Global Reanalysis Project (Kalnay
112 et al., 1996) from January 1948 to December 2017. Time series of signifi-
113 cant wave heights (H_s) were extracted at three deep-water locations (shown
114 in Figure 1): north west of Ireland (10.0°W ; 56.0°N), in the Bay of Bis-
115 cay (7.0°W ; 47.0°N), and west of Portugal (11.0°W ; 40.0°N). Details of
116 the model setup and validation of the simulations with wave buoy obser-
117 vations can be found in Masselink et al. (2016a). Second, a smaller scale,
118 high-resolution model was used to simulate the wave conditions close to the
119 breaking point at each study site. Indeed, the offshore wave conditions sim-
120 ulated with the 0.5° model were not necessarily representative of nearshore
121 wave conditions at some of the sheltered study locations. For this purpose
122 we used a WW3 hindcast (1992-2017) implemented on an unstructured grid
123 with a resolution increasing from 10 km offshore to 200 m in the coastal re-
124 gion extending from north of Spain to south of Ireland (Bouidière et al.,
125 2013). This model has been extensively validated with directional buoy and
126 satellite altimeter and showed excellent skill, with correlation coefficients of
127 more than 0.94 and root-mean square errors less than 0.2 m for the whole
128 set of validation points (Bouidière et al., 2013; Ardhuin et al., 2012). Model
129 outputs were extracted for each study site at a distance less than 6 km from
130 the coast, in water depths of 20-35 m. Seasonal means were computed for

131 the winter (DJFM) and for the spring-summer-autumn (AMJJASON).

132 **2.2 Study Sites and Beach Volumes**

133 Five beaches along the Atlantic coast of Europe were surveyed on a monthly
134 basis for more than 10 years. This data set represents one of the most com-
135 plete series of beach profiles along western Europe. The location of the study
136 beaches are shown in Figure 1, and the morphological characteristics of the
137 study sites are given in Table 1. Additional information on the survey meth-
138 ods can be found in Masselink et al. (2016a). Since Slapton Sands displayed
139 a strong alongshore variability in beach profile evolution, two representative
140 beach profiles were analyzed separately, corresponding to the middle (SP10)
141 and northern end (SP18) of the beach.

142 The extension of this data set to November 2017 was used to investigate
143 the morphological recovery of the beaches four years after the exceptionnal
144 2013/14 winter. For this purpose, the beach volume above mean sea level
145 (V) was computed for each site, with no upper limit set except at Perran-
146 porth where data was not collected for elevations higher than approximately
147 3 m above MSL. Beach volume V , which therefore includes the dune system
148 at Vougot, Porsmilin and Truc Vert, was assumed to provide an accurate
149 and integrated measure of the beach system change (see left-hand panels
150 of Fig. 4 in Masselink et al. (2016a)). Then, the beach volume changes
151 ($|dV|$) were divided into four components: 1) beach volume change caused
152 by the long-term trend computed over the period prior to the 2013/14 win-
153 ter; 2) seasonal signal, computed from the detrended signal as the aver-
154 age annual difference between the maximum and minimum beach volume
155 ($\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |V_{i,max} - V_{i,min}|$, where i is a yearly increment and N is the num-
156 ber of years in the time series); 3) 2013/14 winter response, computed as
157 the difference in beach volume prior to and after the 2013/14 winter; and 4)
158 post-2013/14 winter recovery, computed as the difference in beach volumes
159 between April 2014 and November 2017. Note that the long-term trend and
160 the seasonal contribution were only computed over the time period prior to
161 the 2013/14 winter to ensure these signals were not affected by the 2013/14
162 winter storm response. Rates of beach volume changes (dV/dt) were com-
163 puted for the winter and spring-summer-autumn from the observations clos-
164 est in time to December 1 and April 1. When no observations were available
165 within two weeks before or after these dates, the corresponding dV/dt was

166 not computed. In the remaining of the paper, the percentage of recovery is
167 computed as the beach volume changes associated with the post-storm re-
168 covery relative to the 2013/14 winter response, as defined above (components
169 3 and 4).

170 **2.3 Beach Equilibrium Modeling**

171 To assess whether an equilibrium-based model can be used to forecast beach
172 recovery to an extreme storm event, the ShoreFor model (Davidson et al.,
173 2013) was applied. This semi-empirical model predicts shoreface erosion
174 when the wave conditions are more energetic than the equilibrium conditions
175 (computed as a weighted average of past wave conditions) and vice-versa,
176 and the magnitude of change is proportional to the incident wave power and
177 degree of disequilibrium. The model has two free parameters that require
178 calibration: a disequilibrium term and a linear trend term. The linear trend-
179 term crudely accounts for all processes other than wave-driven cross-shore
180 transport, including longshore sediment transport processes. The reader is
181 referred to Davidson et al. (2013) for a full description of the model. For all
182 sites, the model was calibrated with the period of observations prior to the
183 2013/14 winter, and validated during the remaining period that includes the
184 2013/14 winter storm response and the subsequent 4-year recovery period.
185 The model skill was assessed with the correlation coefficient (R) between
186 observed (x) and simulated (x_m) beach volumes, the root-mean-square er-
187 ror ($RMSE$), and the root-mean-square error normalized by the observed
188 variance prior to the 2013/14 winter ($NRMSE$). Because records with a
189 significant linear trend, possibly induced by longshore transport processes or
190 other net source/sinks of sediments, sometimes show high model skill solely
191 attributable to the linear trend component in the model, the model skill was
192 also assessed using the Brier Skill Score (BSS), which allows comparison of
193 the model residuals with a suitable baseline (x_b), taken here as the linear
194 trend component of the model. The BSS is computed as follows:

$$BSS = 1 - \frac{\sum (x - x_m)^2}{\sum (x - x_b)^2} \quad (1)$$

195 A positive BSS indicates an improvement relative to the baseline, and values
196 greater than 0.0, 0.3, 0.6, 0.8 are typically described as ‘poor’, ‘fair’, ‘good’,
197 ‘excellent’, respectively (van Rijn et al., 2003; Sutherland et al., 2004). Note

198 that this modelling approach does not resolve long-shore transport processes
199 and is thus expected to show poor skills when applied to environments dom-
200 inated by long-shore transport.

201 **3 Results**

202 **3.1 Modeled Wave Conditions**

203 The wave conditions simulated with the regional model over the period 2002-
204 2017 for the north-west of Ireland, the Bay of Biscay, and west of Portugal
205 are shown in Figure 1. A clear seasonal signal characterizes the three time
206 series, with winter-mean H_s much larger than spring-summer-autumn-mean
207 H_s (56 % greater on average, and up to 120 % greater locally). Moreover,
208 the winter-mean values display strong inter-annual variability ($\sigma/\overline{H_s} = 0.12$
209 on average, where σ is the standard deviation, and $\overline{H_s}$ is the long-term mean
210 H_s), whereas the spring-summer-autumn-mean values display much lower
211 inter-annual variability ($\sigma/\overline{H_s} = 0.06$). The consequence of these fluctua-
212 tions is that, contrary to spring-summer-autumn means, the winter-mean H_s
213 may differ significantly from one year to another. For instance, the largest
214 winter-mean H_s in the Bay of Biscay and west of Portugal occurred dur-
215 ing the 2013/14 winter, and they were approximately 35 % greater than the
216 long-term mean winter H_s . During the following winter, wave conditions
217 were moderate in the Bay of Biscay and west of Portugal, but obtained their
218 maximum north of Ireland. These trends were inverted during the 2015/16
219 winter as the winter-mean H_s was very large in the Bay of Biscay and west
220 of Portugal, but moderate north of Ireland. The most recent 2016/17 winter
221 was moderate in all three regions. This inter-annual variability of winter-
222 mean H_s was shown to be significantly correlated with the WEPA index
223 southward of 52°N (Castelle et al., 2017b) and with the NAO index further
224 north (Bacon and Carter, 1993; Dodet et al., 2010; Bromirski and Cayan,
225 2015). This dependence on NAO and WEPA indices is confirmed by our
226 results, with the highest (respectively lowest) NAO during the 2014/15 (re-
227 spectively 2009/10) winter correlating with the maximum (respectively min-
228 imum) H_s north of Ireland for this winter, and the two highest WEPA during
229 the 2013/14 and 2015/16 winters correlating with the maximum H_s in the
230 Bay of Biscay and west of Portugal for these winters. Correlation coefficients
231 between the winter-mean H_s and the NAO and WEPA indices are shown on

232 Figure 1.

233 **3.2 Beach Recovery from the 2013/14 winter**

234 Figure 2 shows the complete time series of beach volume changes for the
235 six beach profiles (left-hand column), and the relative contributions of the
236 long-term trend, seasonal signal, 2013/14 winter response and post-2013/14
237 winter recovery (right-hand column). Contrasting behaviors are observed.
238 First, the most exposed sites, Perranporth and Truc Vert, suffered unprece-
239 dented erosion during the 2013/14 winter. Yet, after two years, Truc Vert
240 had fully recovered, while Perranporth had only recovered 70 % after four
241 years. The major difference in these recovery rates occurred during the year
242 2015. From early February to mid-December 2015, the beach volumes at
243 Truc Vert increased steadily and the beach recovered more than 80 % of the
244 sediments lost during the 2013/14 winter within a span of 10 months (see
245 Castelle et al., 2017a, for details). At Perranporth, the beach was in a re-
246 covery phase for a shorter period of time - from late-March to November
247 2015 - regaining only 40 % of the sediments lost during the 2013/14 winter.
248 This contrasting response can be directly related to the difference in wave
249 conditions in January, March, November and December 2015 that were par-
250 ticularly stormy at Perranporth (H_s was 60 % higher than the annual mean
251 at Perranporth and only 30 % higher at TrucVert). Porsmilin was also in its
252 most eroded state after the 2013/14 winter, but after two years the beach had
253 recovered by almost 80 %. This fast recovery was fostered by the relatively
254 calm wave conditions during the 2014/15 winter that did not cause much ero-
255 sion at this sheltered site. The beach volumes at Vougot are dominated by
256 a decreasing long-term trend. Although the coastal dune retreated by more
257 than 5 m during the 2013/14 winter, the sediment remained in the intertidal
258 zone and the beach volume actually increased slightly. After four years, the
259 dune had prograded back by approximately 3 m. At Slapton Sands, the cen-
260 tral (*SP10*) and east (*SP18*) profiles showed opposite behaviors as a result
261 of beach rotation processes. An additional factor that could explain the dif-
262 ference in recovery rates is the difference in tidal range. Large tidal range
263 cause shorter residence time within the upper intertidal profile and subse-
264 quently longer morphological response times. However, no clear conclusion
265 on this process was drawn from our data set, since both slow (Perranporth)
266 and fast (Porsmilin) responses were observed on macrotidal beaches.

267 To investigate the relationship between beach dynamics and incident
268 wave conditions, the rates of beach volume changes (dV/dt) during the win-
269 ter season and during the spring-summer-autumn season are compared to the
270 respective seasonal wave energy anomalies, i.e., the deviation of the season-
271 mean wave energy from the long-term (1992–2017) annual mean wave energy
272 \bar{E} (Figure 3). Overall, dV/dt displays much greater variability during the
273 winter season than during the rest of the year. At Perranporth, Pormsilin
274 and Truc Vert, the winter-mean variability of dV/dt is clearly controlled by
275 the wave conditions ($0.58 < R^2 < 0.65$). The near-zero intercept of the lin-
276 ear trends indicates that the beach profile is close to equilibrium when the
277 winter-mean E is close to the long-term yearly mean \bar{E} . Although winter
278 wave conditions are associated mostly with erosive conditions, low winter-
279 mean E can cause beach accretion. For instance, during the 2009/10 winter,
280 the wave conditions were particularly calm north of 50°N , due to a very low
281 NAO and a modest WEPA, and the sand volume at Perranporth increased
282 by $26 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$. For the spring-summer-autumn season, correlations between
283 dV/dt and wave energy anomalies are much lower and mostly insignificant at
284 the 95% level. One reason is that dV/dt cannot progressively increase when
285 E tends towards zero; very low energy waves contribute less to onshore sedi-
286 ment transport than low to moderate energy waves, hence limiting recovery
287 (Hoefel and Elgar, 2003; Fernández-Mora et al., 2015). At Slapton Sands
288 profiles SP10 and SP18, the winter-mean dV/dt is also strongly controlled
289 by the wave conditions; however, the correlations have opposite signs as a
290 result of beach rotation. Wiggins et al. (2017) showed very high correlations
291 between beach volume changes and the directional wave power at Slapton
292 Sands, and the insignificant correlations for the spring-summer-autumn sea-
293 son are probably because the beach changes were mostly controlled by the
294 wave direction and not by the wave energy. At Vougot, there is no correla-
295 tion between dV/dt and the wave conditions. Indeed, the behavior of the
296 beach-dune system is severely impacted by the presence of a jetty at the
297 north-eastern end of the beach. Since its construction in 1974 the beach has
298 continually lost sediment, independent of the wave conditions (Suanez et al.,
299 2010).

300 Finally, the beach volume changes were compared with the results of
301 the beach equilibrium model ShoreFor (Davidson et al., 2013) to assess the
302 amount of variance attributable to cross-shore sediment transport and to

303 antecedent wave conditions. The analysis completed thus far treats each
304 year independently, while ShoreFor accounts for antecedent wave conditions.
305 It is therefore expected to explain more of the variability in the beach volume
306 at the cross-shore dominated beaches through the disequilibrium term than a
307 simple model based on a linear correlation between dV/dt and the mean wave
308 height. Figure 4 shows the observed versus simulated beach volume changes
309 using the ShoreFor model, as well as the error metrics $RMSE$, $NRMSE$, R ,
310 and BSS . Inspection of this figure reveals that Perranporth and Truc Vert
311 have low $NRMSE$ ($<5\%$) and ‘excellent’ BSS , indicating that ShoreFor is
312 able to reproduce fairly well the storm response and subsequent recovery, and
313 this variance is mostly induced by cross-shore processes. With a $NRMSE <$
314 15% and a ‘fair’ BSS , ShoreFor results are moderate, and beach volume
315 changes at Porsmilin can also be considered as dominated by cross-shore
316 processes. Conversely, the negative BSS scores at Slapton SP18 and Vougot
317 indicate that the model performs worse than predictions based on the long-
318 term trend only. At Slapton SP10, both R and the BSS are relatively high;
319 however, the very large $NRMSE$ (270.4%) reveals that some significant
320 processes are ignored by the model. Hence, Vougot and Slapton Sands cannot
321 be considered as being dominated by cross-shore sediment transport and
322 more advanced numerical models, including longshore sediment transport,
323 must be applied to reproduce extreme storm response and recovery at these
324 sites.

325 4 Discussion and Conclusions

326 The analysis of decadal beach morphological changes along the Atlantic coast
327 of Europe revealed that the dynamics of beaches exposed to a pronounced
328 seasonal wave climate are controlled by processes operating over a variety
329 of time scales. In decreasing order these time scales are: long-term trends
330 (decade), post-storm recovery (years), seasonal changes (months), and storm
331 response (days). Total beach dynamics represent the sum of these compo-
332 nents and for different beaches the relative contribution of each of these
333 components varies significantly, making beach volume predictions challeng-
334 ing and site-specific. Moreover, beach recovery is conventionally thought to
335 be a process that occurs during the calm summer months. However, although
336 beaches do recover during the spring-summer-autumn period at modest and

337 relatively steady rates (not much inter-annual variability), winter conditions
338 that primarily control the time it takes for beaches to recover from extreme
339 erosion. Highly energetic winters stall or even reverse the recovery process,
340 whereas calm winters continue the recovery process. Therefore, climate in-
341 dices such as NAO and WEPA, which are known to explain a significant
342 part of the inter-annual variability of winter wave conditions in the North-
343 East Atlantic (Dodet et al., 2010; Castelle et al., 2017b), are well correlated
344 with the recovery process. For instance, the most exposed sites Perranporth
345 and Truc Vert required calm winter conditions to recover from the 2013/14
346 winter erosion, which correspond to negative values of WEPA. This was the
347 case for the 2014/15 and 2016/17 winters (Figure 1), during which these
348 beaches showed relatively small rates of volume changes (Figure 3). The
349 recovery of these beaches could have been accelerated if the 2015/16 winter,
350 which was characterized by a high WEPA value, had not caused severe ero-
351 sion and slowed down the recovery process (Figure 3). At Slapton Sands,
352 easterlies have been shown to foster beach recovery following storm erosion
353 by (southwesterly) Atlantic storms, and these are promoted in this region by
354 negative NAO values (Wiggins et al., 2017). The systematic positive NAO
355 winters that followed the 2013/14 winter, and the prevailing southwesterly
356 wave conditions, limited beach recovery at this site.

357 Predicting long-term beach morphological change is of great importance
358 to coastal managers. While process-based morphodynamic modeling sys-
359 tems are valuable tools to simulate the morphological impact of single storm
360 events (e.g. McCall et al., 2010; Almeida et al., 2017), their computational
361 cost prevents their application to multi-annual or even inter-annual morpho-
362 logical changes. In contrast, beach equilibrium models are computationally
363 cheap and can be applied for investigating long-term morphological changes
364 (e.g. Yates et al., 2011; Splinter et al., 2014). For cross-shore transport domi-
365 nated sites, the ShoreFor model calibrated with topographic data prior to the
366 winter 2013/14 and forced with nearshore wave conditions simulated with
367 a high-resolution model showed significant skills in reproducing the strong
368 erosion caused by the extreme 2013/14 winter and the recovery phase that
369 followed, particularly at Truc Vert and Perranporth. Not surprisingly, Shore-
370 For shows poor skill at sites where longshore processes and resulting beach
371 rotation signal dominate shoreline variability, i.e. at Vougot and Slapton.
372 At Porsmilin, due to the small elevation of the artificial embankments at

373 the top of the upper beach, a significant fraction of the sediment lost dur-
374 ing the winter 2013/14 was deposited further inland during washover events.
375 We believe this may explain why the model failed in reproducing accurately
376 the volume changes during and after the winter. Semi-empirical models
377 combining the equilibrium-based behaviour owing to variability in incident
378 wave energy with longshore processes are scarce and still under development
379 (Vitousek et al., 2017; Robinet et al., 2017). Although out of scope of this
380 study, the further development of these models will extend the domain of ap-
381 plicability of shoreline change models, making it possible to address coastal
382 vulnerability and resilience in the context of climate change. Mentaschi et al.
383 (2017) analyzed projection of extreme wave energy fluxes under a high emis-
384 sion scenario (Representative Concentration Pathways 8.5) and showed a
385 significant increase in the 100-year return level of wave energy fluxes for the
386 southern hemisphere and for some regions of the northern hemisphere. It is
387 very likely that such changes in the wave climate will significantly impact
388 beach morphodynamics at both event scales (storm response) and long-term
389 scales (post-storm recovery), which will require accurate predictions for im-
390 plementing coastal adaptation strategies.

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Table 1: Summary of beach site characteristics. $\tan\beta$ is the intertidal slope and MSR stands for mean spring tide range

Name	Region	Exposure	Hinterland	D_{50} (mm)	$\tan\beta$	MSR (m)
Perranporth	Cornwall, UK	W Exposed	Dunes	0.35	0.015	4.5
Slapton	Devon, UK	SE Semi-sheltered	Lagoon	2-8	0.1	4.3
Vougout	Brittany, France	NNW Semi-exposed	Dunes	0.2-0.3	0.03	8.5
Porsmilin	Brittany, France	S Semi-shelterd	Seawall, Marsh	0.32	0.05	5.7
Truc Vert	Aquitaine, France	W Exposed	Dunes	0.4	0.025	3.9

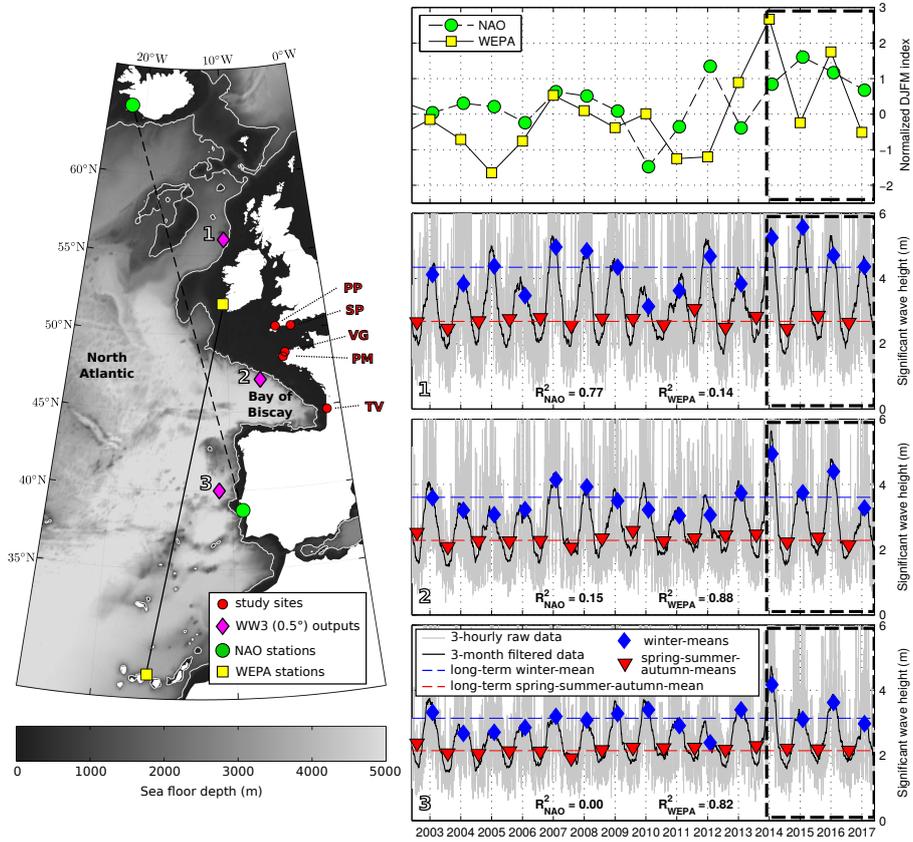


Figure 1: (left) Location map of the Atlantic coast of Europe showing the offshore bathymetry (greyscale), virtual wave buoys (pink diamonds), beach study sites Perranporth (PP), Slapton Sands (SP), Vougot (VG), Porsmilin (PM), Truc Vert (TV) (red circles), and weather stations used to compute the NAO (green circles) and WEPA indices (yellow squares). The white contour line represents the 1000 m isobath. (right) Time series of NAO and WEPA indices (top panel), and time series of raw (grey line), 3-month filtered (black line), winter-mean (blue diamond) and spring-summer-autumn mean (red triangles) significant wave height at the virtual buoys 1, 2 and 3 (bottom 3 panels). The dashed rectangle indicates the 2013/14 winter and the 4-year recovery period that followed. Squared correlation coefficients (R^2) between winter-mean H_s and NAO and WEPA indices are provided for each virtual buoy.

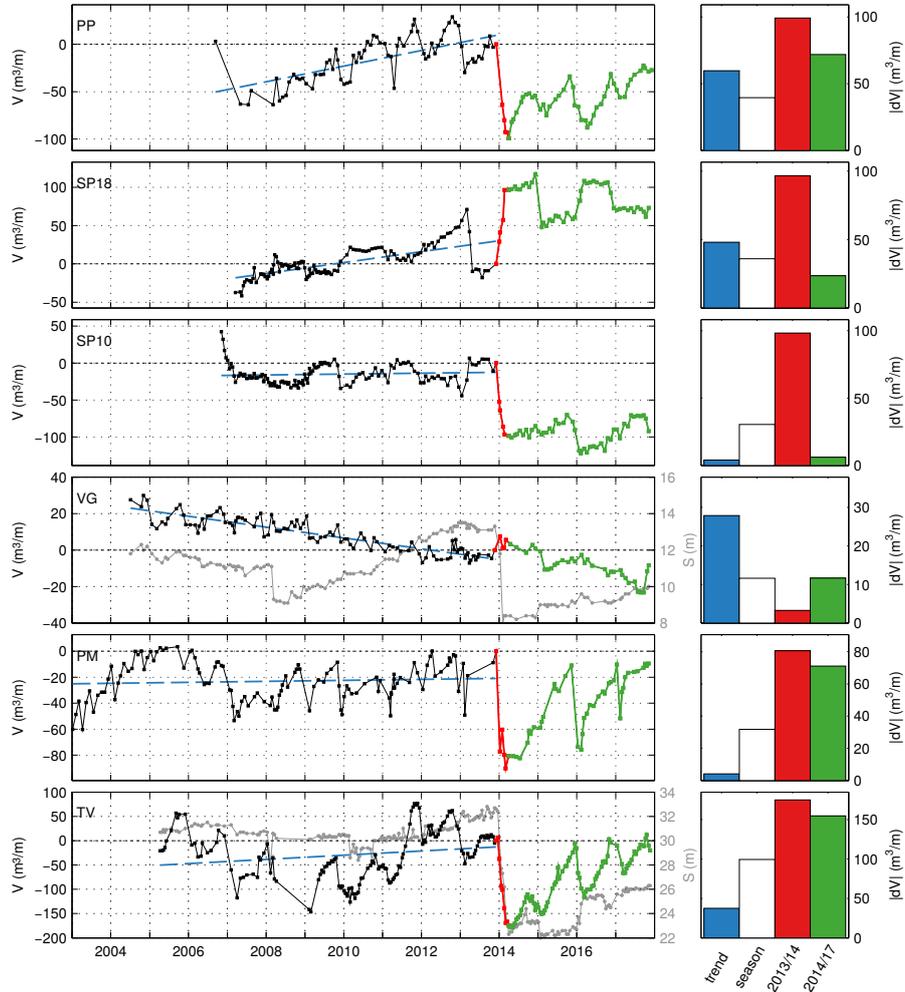


Figure 2: (left) Time series of beach volume at the five study sites (with two profiles shown for Slapton Sands), with the beach volume set to zero on December 1 2013. The dashed blue line represents the long-term trend over the period prior to the 2013/14 winter, the red line represents the 2013/14 winter response, and the green line represents the recovery period. For Vougot and Truc Vert the evolution of the location of the dune foot (grey line) is also shown. (right) Absolute values of the volume change associated with the long-term trend (blue), seasonal variability (white), 2013/14 winter response (red), and recovery period (green).

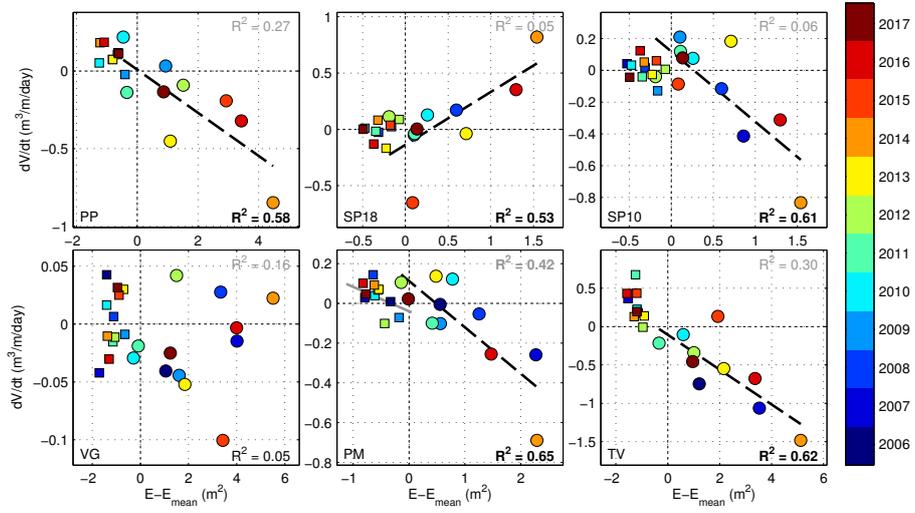


Figure 3: Beach volume changes during winter (circles) and summer-spring-autumn (squares) versus the wave energy anomaly (computed as the deviation of the season-mean wave energy from the long-term (1992–2017) annual mean wave energy), with colors indicating years. The squared correlation coefficients between beach volume changes and wave energy anomaly are given for winter (black) and spring-summer-autumn (grey). Linear regressions for winter (dashed light grey) and summer-spring-autumn (dashed dark grey) are plotted when the correlation is statistically significant at the 95 % level (in that case R^2 is written in bold).

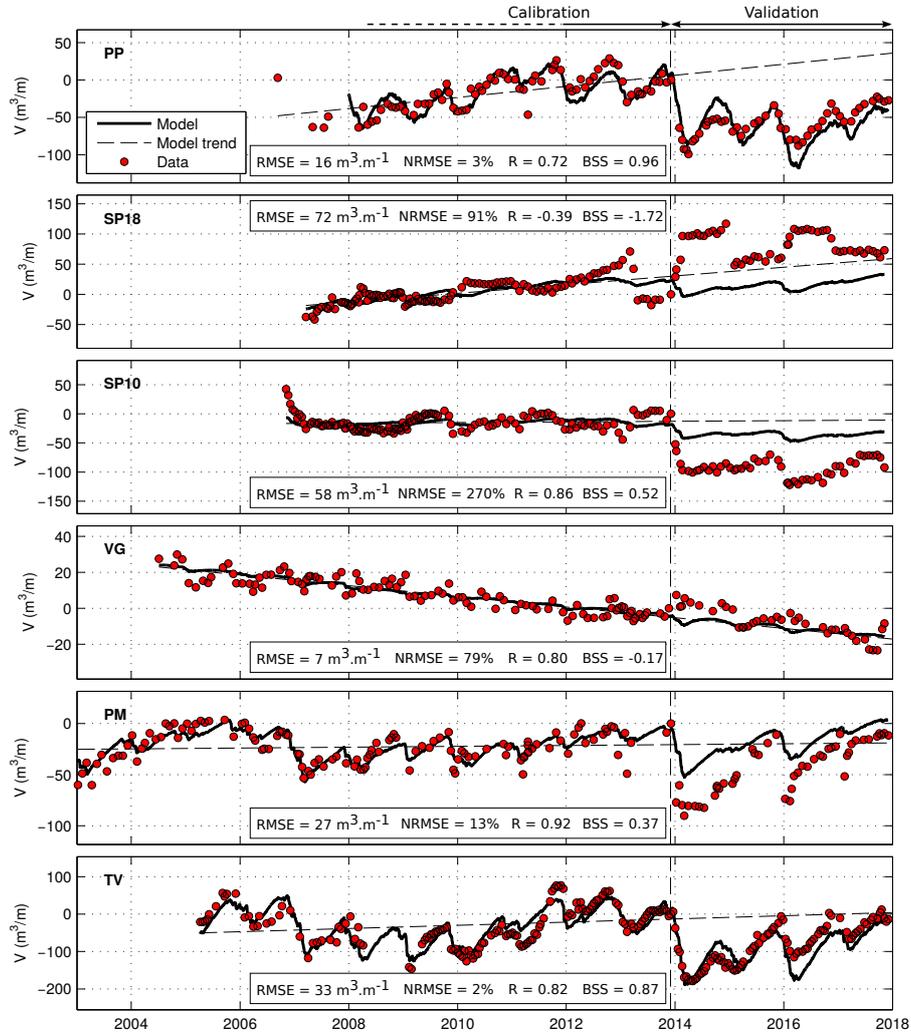


Figure 4: Comparison between ShoreFor model results and observations. Statistical errors are given for the validation period (post-2013/14 winter), and include the root-mean-square error (RMSE), the root-mean-square error normalized by the observed variance (*NRMSE*), the correlation coefficient (*R*) and the Brier Skill Score (*BSS*), with the long-term trend (dash black line) used as the baseline.