

1 **Inter-model variability of projected future**
2 **wave-driven coastal sediment transport along the**
3 **Catalan coast**

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9 **Abstract** In the context of climate change, this study evaluates the impact on
10 the long-shore and cross-shore sediment transport (LST and CST) along the
11 Catalan coast (NW Mediterranean Sea) derived from climate projections ob-
12 tained from five combinations of regional and global circulation models (RCMs
13 and GCMs). Special emphasis is given to how inter-model variability trans-
14 lates from wave projections to wave-driven coastal impacts, which is still poorly
15 known. Results show that the uncertainty is in general larger, especially for
16 LST, for which the discrepancies among regional models are more relevant
17 than those associated to the forcing wave parameters. Such increase in the
18 uncertainty can be explained by the nonlinear processes involved, and the role
19 of the forcing wave parameters having sometimes competing effects (e.g. wave
20 height vs. wave direction). This illustrates that the performance of each RCM-
21 GCM can vary from forcing to impact parameters, hence, the suitability of a
22 particular RCM-GCM to evaluate a certain impact should be assessed based
23 on its ability to properly simulate such impact. In this regard, LST and CST
24 rates computed using empirical formulae that integrate several wave climate
25 parameters, as in this study, can be used as a non-computationally expen-

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sive tool to assess the suitability of a given RCM-GCM to project changes in coastal dynamics.

Keywords climate change · coastal sediment transport · wave climate · Mediterranean Sea

1 Introduction

Coastal areas are a focus for growing populations and economies (Nicholls and Kebede, 2012), in some cases already currently facing issues related to safety and/or recreational amenity. Many studies have provided increasing scientific evidence that ocean waves—one of the main drivers that shape our coastlines—are likely to be affected by a future warmer climate (e.g. Hemer et al, 2013). It is therefore important to assess the wave-driven coastal impacts potentially arising from climate change to design adaptation strategies to minimize the associated negative effects.

In the last decade, some studies have assessed the wave climate change impact on the coastal morphology for some regions. However, many of them are based on simplified wave climate change scenarios, which may not be realistic enough (e.g. Adams et al, 2011; Coelho et al, 2009; Dickson et al, 2009; Hemer, 2009). Some localised studies have explicitly accounted for the greenhouse effect—and some of their sources of uncertainty (e.g. Charles, 2012; Zacharioudaki and Reeve, 2011) but further research is needed to well-understand the regional variability of such coastal impacts.

The location of this study is the Catalan coast, situated in the NW Mediterranean Sea. The European EUROSION project (2002-2004, <http://www.eurosion.org/>, accessed January 2014) classified this coast, home of about three million people—40% of the Catalan population, as an area highly exposed to coastal erosion. Bosom and Jiménez (2011) found many stretches of the central Catalan coast being currently exposed to high levels of vulnerability to erosion. Indeed, during the last 50 years, erosion has been the dominant cause of reported damage along the Catalan coast (Jiménez et al, 2012). Acting on different time scales, long-shore and cross-shore sediment transport (LST and CST) are the main coastal processes that contribute to erosion. In this study we assess how these processes could change in a warmer climate due solely to variations in the wave climate. We do not consider other impacts driven by waves (e.g. coastal flooding, infrastructure damage, etc.) or other coastal drivers (e.g. sea level rise, storm surge, tides, etc.).

Casas-Prat and Sierra (2012) undertook a regional study along the Catalan coast based on extrapolated future wave climate obtained from the trend analysis of hindcast wave data of the second half of the last century. They identified important variations in the long-shore sediment transport, which amounted to a general reduction, but with high uncertainty. In this study we use wave projections that were forced by 10-m wind fields derived from the midline A1B scenario (IPCC, 2007) using five combinations of regional-global

68 climate models (Casas-Prat and Sierra, 2013). Note that the inter-model vari-
69 ability in surface wind speed, which drives the ocean surface waves, has been
70 found to be one of the most important sources of uncertainty in climate change
71 projections (Kjellström et al, 2011).

72 The contribution of this paper is twofold. First, it assesses the future im-
73 pact of the greenhouse effect on wave-driven coastal sediment transport at the
74 Catalan coast—as done for the first time in this area using climate projections
75 that explicitly account for the rise in the greenhouse gas emissions. Second,
76 towards a more general understanding of the range of climate change effects,
77 this study provides insight into how inter-model climate variability translates
78 from climate projections to coastal impacts, in this case, through changes in
79 waves.

80 The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides a descrip-
81 tion of the datasets that are used. In Section 3 the methodology adopted to
82 calculate the sediment transport is explained. Section 4 presents and examines
83 the results and a final discussion is included in Section 5. Supplementary ma-
84 terial is also provided to explain the main features of the study area in terms
85 of both wave projections and geomorphological aspects.

86 2 Datasets

87 2.1 The forcing: wave climate

88 2.1.1 Wave projections

89 To project future long-shore and cross-shore sediment transport scenarios,
90 this study utilizes 30-year regional wave climate projections at high temporal-
91 spatial resolution (3 h and 0.125°). They were obtained by Casas-Prat and
92 Sierra (2013) for the time slices: 1971-2000¹ (baseline period) vs. 2071–2100
93 (future period). Wave parameters were simulated with the SWAN model (Booij
94 et al, 1999), which was forced by 5 wind climate projections, denoted as:
95 HIR_E, RAC_E, REM_E, RCA_E and RCA_H. The first 3 characters of these
96 acronyms stand for the regional circulation model (RCM) used whereas the last
97 one is related to the driving global circulation model (GCM) (see Appendix
98 A of supplementary material). Consequently, we involve a total of 4 RCMs
99 driven by the same GCM and one RCM that is also driven by another GCM.

100 For winter and summer seasons (defined as December–January–February
101 and June–July–August, respectively), Casas-Prat and Sierra (2013) analysed
102 the present and the future mean and extreme wave climates from the median
103 of the significant wave height (H_s) and the 50-year return period of H_s (z_{50}).
104 The distribution of the mean wave direction (θ_m) and the types of sea states
105 were also investigated. A summary of the climate change signals along the
106 Catalan coast observed by Casas-Prat and Sierra (2013) that are relevant for

¹ 1981-2010 for REM.E model

107 LST and CST processes, is detailed in the supplementary material (Appendix
108 A).

109 2.1.2 Wave hindcast

110 Additionally, we make use of the wave hindcast data of the HIPOCAS project
111 (Guedes Soares et al, 2002). We calculate its associated LST and CST to com-
112 pare with those obtained for the baseline period of the wave climate scenarios
113 presented in Section 2.1. The HIPOCAS data set was obtained with the WAM
114 model (Monbaliu, 2000) and forced by the wind output of the regional atmo-
115 spheric model REMO (same RCM as for REM_E), which in turn was forced by
116 the global re-analysis data of NCEP project (Kalnay et al, 1996). With a time
117 resolution of 3 h, this dataset covers the period 1958–2001 but here we use
118 only the last 30-year period (baseline period). Along the Catalan coast, the
119 spatial resolution is 0.125° whereas it is 0.5° offshore. Similar to the majority
120 of simulated data, HIPOCAS data tend to underestimate extreme events but
121 the mean climate is well represented (Ratsimandresy et al, 2008). Casas-Prat
122 and Sierra (2013) found that the median H_s field obtained with HIPOCAS is
123 similar to that of RCA_E and RCA_H (see Section 2.1.1).

124 2.2 The receptor: beaches

125 The sediment transport depends not only on the forcing wave climate but also
126 on the beach geomorphology (eg. van Rijn et al, 2003) The Catalan coast,
127 with a length of about 780 km, encompasses a large geo-diversity of coastal
128 types such as cliffs, bays, pocket beaches, long straight beaches and deltas
129 (Jiménez et al, 2012). In this study we are assessing the impact of wave climate
130 change on the LST and CST, that principally affect sandy beaches. In the
131 supplementary material, a brief description of the main regional features is
132 included (Appendix B).

133 The parameters that characterize the beach and will be used in the LST
134 and CST computations are (see Section 3): the mean beach slope ($\tan \beta$), the
135 median of the sediment grain size distribution (d_{50}) and the mean beach orien-
136 tation (γ) (see Figure SM3 of supplementary material). For the Catalan coast
137 this information was acquired during beach profiling and sediment sampling
138 field campaigns (CIIRC, 2010).

139 In this study we assume that current values of $\tan \beta$, d_{50} and γ will remain
140 valid into the future. This entails a limitation in the analysis because natural
141 beaches gradually tend to re-adapt to changing wave conditions and they also
142 might evolve forced by other drivers (e.g. sea level rise). However, major (long-
143 term) changes in $\tan \beta$, d_{50} and γ are expected to be limited since the majority
144 of the Catalan beaches are significantly engineered and/or human-controlled.

145 3 Methodology

146 As mentioned in the Introduction, the effect of the sediment transport is sepa-
 147 rately assessed by means of the long-shore and cross-shore components, which
 148 usually act at different time scales and are controlled by different wave regimes.
 149 Long-shore sediment transport (LST) is modulated by the mean wave climate
 150 in a seasonal to decadal time frame. On the contrary, cross-shore sediment
 151 transport (CST) tends to occur at a shorter time scale. In this study, we only
 152 consider the beach erosion due to CST, which is an hourly to weekly pro-
 153 cess controlled by the extreme wave climate. The beach recovery that occur
 154 between storms is not assessed.

155 Two widely used approaches to estimate the sediment transport are: (i)
 156 bulk transport formulas and (ii) process based models. The former are com-
 157 monly used in management or engineering applications and are based on sim-
 158 plified representation of physical processes which use empirical coefficients. The
 159 latter are more detailed and include a large number of physical processes but
 160 need a large number of input parameters which need to be calibrated per
 161 application (Mil-Homens et al, 2013). In this study, we use the first type of
 162 empirical (physical-based) approach (ie. i) to compute both LST and CST (see
 163 Sections 3.1 and 3.2, respectively). With this approach, we can easily obtain a
 164 regional picture of the potential coastal impacts and evaluate their sensitivity
 165 to changes in the wave climate without significant computational cost. These
 166 empirical methods have certainly some limitations though. For example, de-
 167 spite reproducing a similar spatial pattern, CIIRC (2010)'s study showed that
 168 the choice of the LST formula can induce deviations of a factors 10. However,
 169 they did not apply the formula used in this study (see Section 3.1), which is
 170 recommended by Leont'yev (2014), as long as the size of the sediment does
 171 not change significantly along the profile. Anyway, the analysis of the results
 172 (Section 4) will not focus on the accuracy of punctual values but in the spa-
 173 tial performance, which can be properly assessed if the same methodology is
 174 consistently applied all along the coast.

175 Recently some studies (Callaghan et al, 2013; Wu and Dong , 2015) have
 176 also accounted for the stochastic nature of the shoreline evolution by means of
 177 using a probabilistic approach. In the present study, however, we focus on the
 178 inter-model variability and we use a deterministic approach to compute LST
 179 and CST.

180 3.1 Long-shore sediment transport (LST)

181 As waves approach the coast, they break and generate a long-shore current
 182 which moves beach material parallel to the coast within the surf-zone. To
 183 estimate this transport we use the well-known CERC formula (see Eq.1) in
 184 which LST is proportional to the long-shore wave energy flux.

$$Q = \frac{K\rho}{16(\rho_s - \rho)(1 - a)} H_{s,b}^2 C_{g,b} \sin(2\alpha_b) \quad (1)$$

185 where Q is the LST produced by the wave conditions at breaking defined
 186 by: the significant wave height ($H_{s,b}$), the group velocity ($C_{g,b}$) and the angle
 187 between the the coastline (α_b) and the wave crest (perpendicular to the
 188 wave direction θ_m) and the coastline (α_b). ρ is the density of water ($\rho = 1026$
 189 kg/m^3), ρ_s is the density of sand ($\rho_s = 2650 \text{ kg/m}^3$) and a is the porosity
 190 index ($a = 0.4$). As in the study of Casas-Prat and Sierra (2012), K is esti-
 191 mated in terms of wave and sediment properties, with the formula of Bayram
 192 et al (2007), which, as mentioned before, has been recommended by Leont'yev
 193 (2014):

$$K = \frac{135}{256} \frac{\gamma_b \pi}{c_f} \varepsilon; \quad \varepsilon = \left(9 + 4 \frac{H_{s,b}}{w_s T_p} \right) 10^{-5} \quad (2)$$

194 where c_f is the friction coefficient ($c_f = 0.005$), γ_b the breaking index ($\gamma_b =$
 195 0.78), w_s the sediment settlement velocity, T_p the peak wave period and ε
 196 the portion of wave energy effective to move the sediment. w_s is estimated in
 197 terms of d_{50} using the formula of Jiménez and Madsen (2003). Mil-Homens et al
 198 (2013) proposed an improved Bayram formula but we prefer to use the original
 199 formula of Bayram et al (2007) because Mil-Homens's proposed coefficient does
 200 not depend on the sediment properties. This could be explained by the fact
 201 that they used a dataset with 94% of the data points having D_{50} smaller than
 202 0.5 mm , which is not the case of the present study (see the D_{50} distribution
 203 along the Catalan coast in Figure SM3). In addition, Mil-Homens et al (2013)
 204 showed that, contrary to other formulations, the original formula of Bayram
 205 et al (2007) already presented a small bias.

206 For each beach n , $n = 1, \dots, N$ (N the total number of beaches, $N=299$ in
 207 this study), the corresponding offshore forcing wave conditions are extracted
 208 from the wave projections described in Section 2, considering the nearest wave
 209 grid point m_0 from those plotted in Figure 1. Particularly, we use the follow-
 210 ing wave parameters (at deep water): significant wave height $H_{s,0}$, mean wave
 211 direction $\theta_{s,0}$ and peak wave period $T_{p,0}$. To obtain the conditions at break-
 212 ing, we use the linear wave propagation (Snell's law) taking into account the
 213 refraction and shoaling processes and assuming a constant peak wave period
 214 ($T_{p,b} = T_{p,0}$). Instead of propagating every single value of the 30-year 3-hourly
 215 wave time series $\{H_{s,0}, \theta_{s,0}, T_{p,0}\}$ of each present/future time period obtained
 216 by each climate model, only a set of representative wave conditions are prop-
 217 agated and used to compute LST. Specifically, we divide the wave data into
 218 k groups: 8 directional sectors $\Delta\theta_i$, $i = 1, \dots, k_\theta$ ($k_\theta = 8$), of 45° each (N, NE,
 219 E, SE, S, SW, W, NW) and 5 groups of H_s , ΔH_i , $j = 1, \dots, k_H$ ($k_H = 5$, [0-1,
 220 1-2, 2-3, 3-4, >4] m). Therefore, $k = k_\theta \cdot k_H = 40$. The LST associated with
 221 each group ($Q_{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i}$), is then computed using the following representative
 222 values: $H_{s,0}^R = [0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 3.5, 5] \text{ m}$, $\theta_{m,0}^R = [0, 45, 90, 135, 180, 225, 270,$
 223 $315]^\circ$ (in this study we use the Nautical convention for θ). The corresponding
 224 $T_{p,0}^R$ are obtained after averaging all period values for each group $\{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i\}$
 225 (R stands for "representative"). As shown in Eq. 3, the annual (net) LST
 226 (Q_{annual}) is finally obtained as the addition of all $Q_{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i}$ values with the
 227 corresponding sign (positive from north to south, and viceversa). Also, they

228 are respectively weighted by the frequency of occurrence of each wave group
 229 $\{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i\}$ (calculated for each wave climate projection and time period).

$$Q_{\text{annual}}(n) = \sum_{i=k_{\theta_1}(n)}^{k_{\theta_2}(n)} \sum_{j=1}^{k_H} Q_{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i}(n) \cdot f_{\Delta H_j, \Delta \theta_i}(m_0(n)) \quad (3)$$

230 Note that $i = k_{\theta_1}(n), \dots, k_{\theta_2}(n)$ in Eq. 3, rather than $i = 1, \dots, k_{\theta}$. This is
 231 to account only for the range of wave directions $[\theta_1, \theta_2]$ that are effective to
 232 generate LST for a certain beach n . In this regard, k_{θ_1} and k_{θ_2} are obtained
 233 taking into account the beach orientation (γ) together with the nearby ob-
 234 stacles, such as coastal infrastructure or natural promontories. Additionally, a
 235 filter is added to LST computation—for beaches shorter than 1 km, directly
 236 $Q_{\text{annual}} = 0$ since waves need a certain distance to generate significant LST
 237 rates.

238 3.2 Cross-shore sediment transport (CST)

239 At event or seasonal time scale, erosion/accretion can also occur due to CST,
 240 which governs the short term beach dynamics and encompasses both offshore
 241 and onshore transport. In this study, the effect on the CST is estimated by
 242 means of the beach erosion potential defined by Mendoza and Jiménez (2006)
 243 in terms of the eroded volume V . Using the beach profile evolution model
 244 SBEACH (Larson and Kraus, 1989), they obtained Eq. 4 to calculate V (in
 245 m^3/m) of a certain beach profile with slope $\tan \beta$, caused by the impact of a
 246 wave storm with mean significant wave height $H_{s,0}$, mean peak period T_p and
 247 storm duration τ . Storms are defined with the peak over threshold method
 248 considering $H_s > 2$ m and $\tau > 6$ h with additional duration requirements in
 249 order to select independent storms (Mendoza and Jiménez, 2006). Also, only
 250 those storms with a mean θ_m within the range of effective wave directions
 251 $[\theta_1, \theta_2]$ (as for LST computation, see Section 3.1) are considered.

$$V = 4.5[(D_0 - D_{0,e})^{0.5} \tau \tan \beta] + 5.02, \quad \text{for } D_0 > D_{0,e} \quad (4)$$

252 where D_0 is the Dean parameter for deep water:

$$D_0 = \frac{H_{s,0}}{w_s T_p} \quad (5)$$

253 and $D_{0,e}$ is D_0 at equilibrium ($D_{0,e} = 2.7$). As for LST computation, the
 254 deep water wave parameters are obtained using the wave grid points plotted
 255 in Figure 1 and w_s is estimated in terms of d_{50} using the formula of Jiménez
 256 and Madsen (2003).

257 For both the baseline and the future periods (and each model configura-
 258 tion), a time series of $\{V\}$ is therefore obtained with Eq. 4. Afterwards, the
 259 (temporal) median of V and the cumulative value over the 30 years (V_{cum})

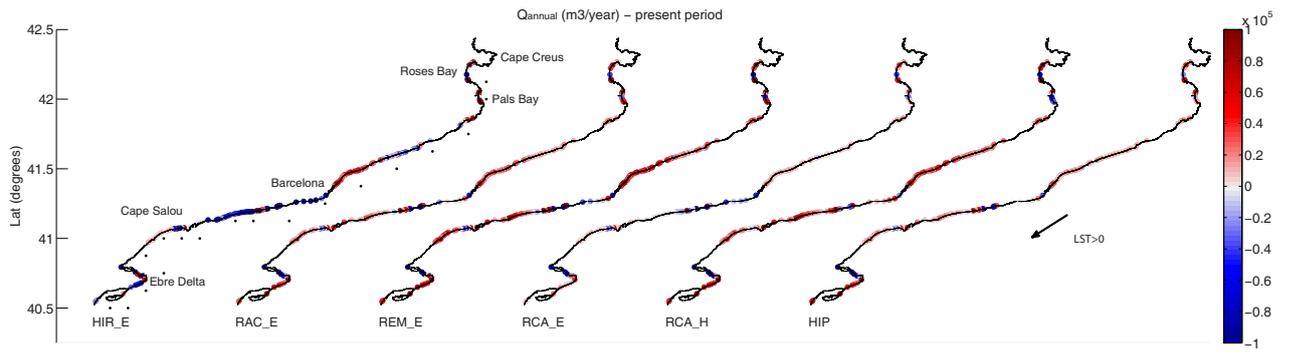


Fig. 1 LST (in m^3/year) for the baseline period corresponding to the 5 RCM-GCM models and HIPOCAS data (HIP). The first coastline plot indicates some relevant locations, as well as the offshore grid points used to derive the forcing wave conditions.

260 associated with each simulation is used to analyse and compare the CST re-
 261 sults. The first parameter gives an idea of the average erosion given a storm
 262 episode. V_{cum} is the total volume of sediment lost over the 30 years and it is
 263 related to the rate of sediment exchange. During mild wave conditions, the
 264 beach would gradually restart the pre-storm beach profile. However, if severe
 265 erosion events are very frequent (which translates into a high V_{cum}), the beach
 266 might not be able to recover completely. As mentioned before, the recovery
 267 between storms due to on-shore sediment transport has not been taken into ac-
 268 count in this study. Therefore V_{cum} is not a real accumulated erosion but it
 269 indicates the total sediment lost in a 30-year time period that needs to be
 270 recovered between storms to be in equilibrium.

271 4 Results

272 In this section, results of LST and CST are presented and related to the driving
 273 wave climate changes, mostly to those occurring in the winter season. In spite
 274 of LST being estimated for the whole year, the most energetic winter waves
 275 are the ones that mostly contribute to the annual LST. Additionally, CST is
 276 controlled by the most extreme waves, which usually occur during winter.

277 With special focus on the inter-model variability, for both LST and CST,
 278 the performance for the baseline period is assessed, first, and, afterwards, the
 279 climate change signals are examined.

280 4.1 Long-shore sediment transport (LST)

281 4.1.1 Baseline period

282 Figure 1 illustrates the LST results for the present (baseline) period associated
 283 with the 5 combinations of RCM-GCM and HIPOCAS data (see Section 2.1).

284 Positive values (red colour) denote LST going from north to south (see arrow
 285 in Figure 1), whereas negative values (in blue) indicate the opposite result. Ex-
 286 cept for HIR_E, the (spatial) 90 percentile of Q_{annual} is below 100,000 m³/year,
 287 which is a reasonable value for this area. Median (absolute) values range from
 288 7,000 m³/year (RCA_E) to 38,000 m³/year (HIR_E and REM_E). The spatial
 289 pattern of HIPOCAS-driven LST is similar to that of RAC_E, REM_E and
 290 RCA_H but with lower intensity.

291 Except for HIR_E (and RCA_E to some extent), all models reproduce a
 292 general positive LST, which is in agreement with current observations (CIIRC,
 293 2010). Zonally, they also correctly reproduce the existing LST spatial pattern
 294 at the Ebre Delta, which is one of the factors that explains the current delta's
 295 beach retreat (see Appendix B of supplementary material): negative(positive)
 296 LST rates north(south) of the river mouth (CIIRC, 2010). The Ebre delta,
 297 which river mouth is roughly located at the most eastward point, is mainly
 298 affected by marine erosional process since the Ebre river is highly regulated
 299 by dams which notably limits the sediment transport along the river (e.g.
 300 Vericat and Batalla, 2006). Also, the negative LST in some beaches south of
 301 Cape Salou that are sheltered from NE waves is well-captured. However, LST
 302 results are in general not very accurate (neither using HIPOCAS data) where
 303 the orography is very irregular like south of Cape Creus. The reason might
 304 be related to the LST computation and, more specifically, to the linear wave
 305 propagation. Even though the shadowing effect of obstacles like Cape Creus
 306 is introduced with the range of effective wave directions (see Section 3.1),
 307 neither the actual bathymetry is accounted for, nor complex wave propagation
 308 processes such as wave diffraction.

309 Given the unrealistic LST spatial pattern obtained with HIR_E for the
 310 baseline period, the associated RCM-GCM combination is considered not to
 311 be suitable to evaluate the future LST in the study area. With respect to the
 312 wave climate, HIR_E already stood out from the other simulations as pointed
 313 out by Casas-Prat and Sierra (2013). However, the discrepancies in terms of
 314 Q_{annual} are higher than in terms of the analysed wave parameters (for example,
 315 major discrepancies were not obtained in terms of the wave direction frequency
 316 distribution, see Casas-Prat and Sierra (2013)).

317 Compared to other simulations, lower (absolute) values of Q_{annual} are ob-
 318 tained for RCA_E (especially for the positive range). This is in agreement
 319 with the lower median H_s obtained using this climate model configuration,
 320 that seems to be caused by the spatial-averaged forcing wind fields associated
 321 with this RCM (Casas-Prat and Sierra, 2013). However, the RCA_H-driven
 322 wave climate, which produced even lower values of the median H_s due to be-
 323 ing forced by the same RCM as RCA_E, has LST rates similar to RAC_E and
 324 REM_E (Figure 1). The reason for this result seems to be related to the dif-
 325 ferences in θ_m induced by the different driving GCMs: ECHAM5 for RCA_E
 326 and HadCM3Q3 for RCA_H. In particular, there is a larger fraction of waves
 327 coming from the east sector for RCA_H-driven wave climate, which generally
 328 contributes to a positive LST along the Catalan coast (see Appendix A of
 329 supplementary material).

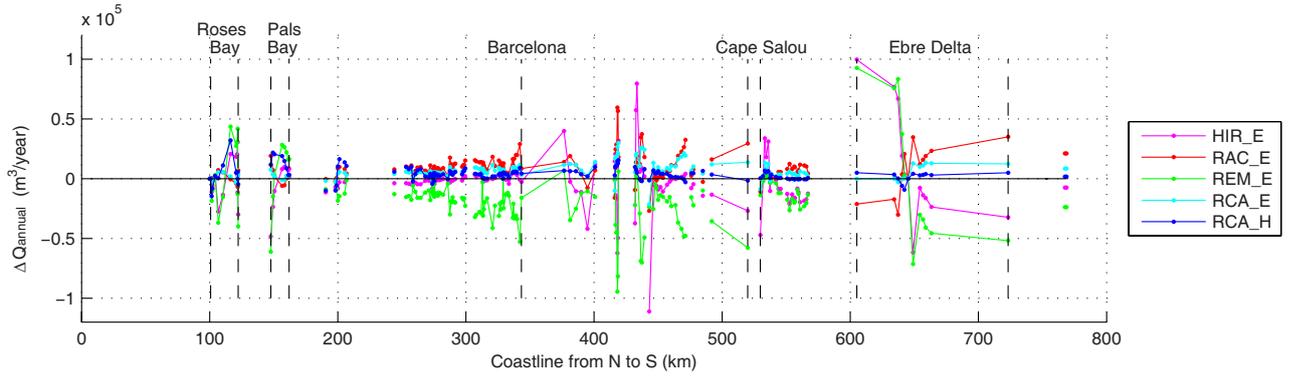


Fig. 2 Projected absolute change in LST (in m^3/year) for the 5 RCM-GCM models. The locations indicated in Figure 1 are also shown.

330 4.1.2 Climate change signals

331 Figure 2 illustrates the projected LST changes (difference between the future
 332 and the present Q_{annual}) along the Catalan coast associated with each climate
 333 model. The location of each beach is plotted as a function of the distance along
 334 the coastline from the northernmost side, projected onto the x-axis. More than
 335 90% of the locations predict a change in Q_{annual} below $30,000 \text{ m}^3/\text{year}$. With
 336 local exceptions, this change is positive for RAC_E, RCA_E and RCA_H, and
 337 negative for REM_E. Their spatial median relative changes are, respectively:
 338 42%, 43%, 7% and -47%.

339 The increase of Q_{annual} associated with RCA_H (dark blue line) was expected
 340 taking into account the general increase of the frequency of E waves
 341 (see Figure SM2 of supplementary material), which contribute to generate a
 342 positive LST. However, it is surprising to see how results corresponding to different
 343 RCMs but the same GCM (RAC_E, RCA_E vs. REM_E—red and cyan
 344 lines vs green line) have such a different response in terms of LST even though
 345 their projected mean wave climate change signal was similar (see Figure SM1
 346 of supplementary material). Indeed, Q_{annual} changes associated with RCA_E
 347 are surprisingly close to those of RCA_H despite the large differences in the
 348 climate change signals of the corresponding wave direction field.

349 RAC_E, RCA_E and REM_E all project for winter more waves in the S-
 350 SW sector accompanied by fewer waves from the NE-E one (see Figure SM2
 351 of supplementary material). Superficially, this would seem to suggest a decrease
 352 in the LST component, as obtained just for the REM_E case. Here it
 353 is worth pointing out that the tendency of Q_{annual} to decrease was also obtained
 354 by Casas-Prat and Sierra (2012) (see Introduction) when performing a
 355 trend analysis with the HIPOCAS data, which uses the same regional model
 356 as REM_E (although driven by different global data) (see Section 2.1.2).

357 To better understand LST changes, we need to get deep insight into the
 358 wave climate signals. On the one hand, we observe that predicted changes

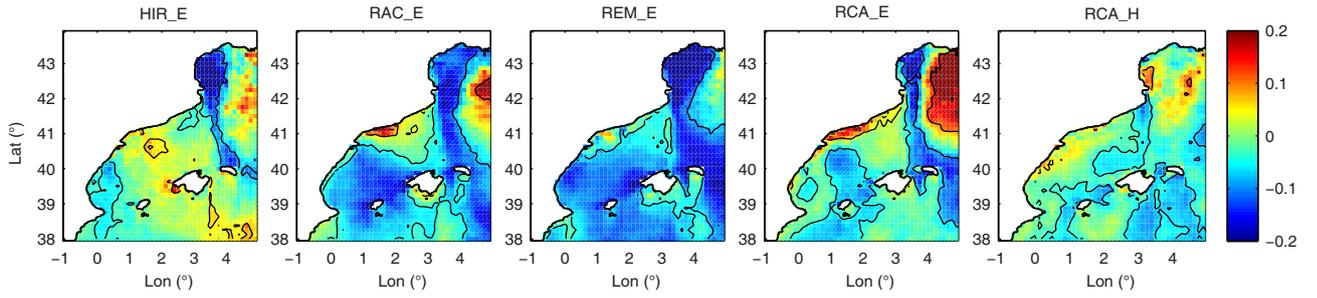


Fig. 3 Projected relative change in the mean H_s (-) for waves coming from NE during winter, for the 5 RCM-GCM models

359 in the frequency of θ_m and the intensity of H_s for a given direction lead
 360 sometimes to competing effects, as similarly found out by Charles (2012).
 361 For instance, Figure 3 illustrates the relative change of the mean H_s during
 362 winter just for those waves coming from NE. Close to the Catalan coast, these
 363 waves are expected to be higher for RAC_E and RCA_E simulations, which
 364 may counteract the effect of having less waves coming from that direction (see
 365 Figure SM3 of supplementary material) and therefore producing an increase
 366 in Q_{annual} for RAC_E and RCA_E, rather than a decrease. On the other hand,
 367 the high uncertainty of the extreme wave climate projections (see Figure SM1
 368 of supplementary material) might give rise to Q_{annual} inter-model variability
 369 despite LST being a process mainly dominated by the mean wave climate. For
 370 example, z_{50} associated with REM_E suffers from a notably more accentuated
 371 reduction than the other models, which further contributes to the Q_{annual}
 372 reduction associated with REM_E.

373 Clearly, the inter-model variability is accentuated in terms of Q_{annual} , if
 374 compared with that of the wave climate, especially the mean wave climate. For
 375 some areas, this variability can lead to important differences in the tenden-
 376 cies of erosion/accretion. At the Ebre delta, for example, REM_E projects an
 377 increase(decrease) north(south) of the river mouth whereas RAC_E predicts
 378 the opposite. Taking into account the present LST pattern, the later response
 379 would lead to an increasing rate of the delta's beach retreat.

380 4.2 Cross-shore sediment transport (CST)

381 4.2.1 Baseline period

382 Figure 4 shows the results of both the median of V (top) and V_{cum} (bottom) for
 383 the baseline period. Compared to Q_{annual} , the inter-model variability is lower
 384 (especially for the median V): the spatial pattern is more or less consistent
 385 among models (although with different magnitudes). The factors that seem
 386 to contribute to enlarge this agreement are the following. First, θ_m —that has
 387 a large degree of uncertainty in the context of climate projections, is not

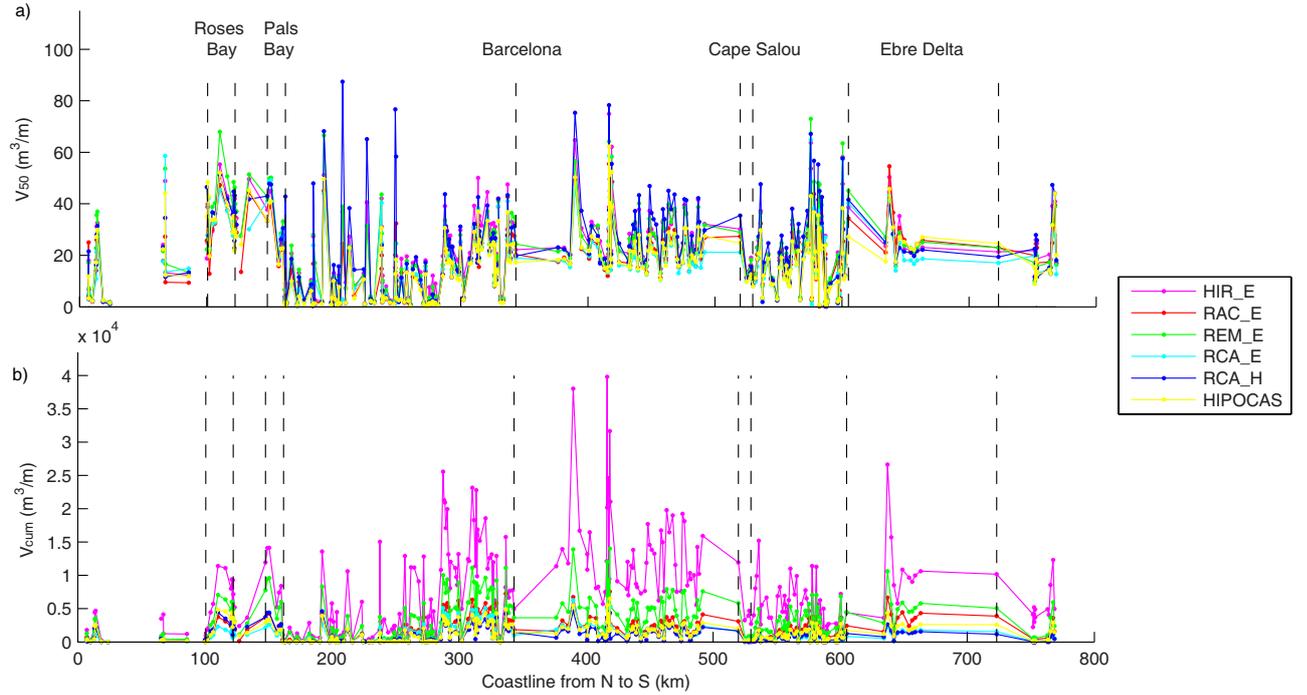


Fig. 4 Simulated V (m^3/m) for the baseline period for the 5 RCM-GCM models and HIPOCAS data. (a) Median of V . (b) Cumulative V

388 considered in CST computation (whereas it plays an important role for LST).
 389 Second, the fact of including the ratio between H_s and T_p —variables with
 390 a close relationship for wind-sea states—contributes to reduce the effect of
 391 model biases because they are highly correlated in this area due to the short
 392 fetches (Casas-Prat and Sierra, 2013).

393 The (temporal) median of V has a spatial median between $16 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$ and
 394 $21 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$ and the 90 percentiles are between $32 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$ and $43 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$. The larger
 395 extreme values of the median of V are achieved by RCA_H. Paradoxically,
 396 this RCM-GCM configuration simulates relatively low(high) median values of
 397 $H_s(T_p)$ for stormy conditions (not shown) but their storms are on average
 398 longer, which highlights the strong dependence of V on τ . Results associated
 399 with REM_E exhibit the second largest extreme values of the median of V (first
 400 ranking in the northern part of the coast), thanks to a combination of relatively
 401 high(low) values of H_s and $\tau(T_p)$ (for stormy conditions). HIPOCAS results
 402 show, in general, a low value of V (especially for extremes), having similar
 403 values to RAC_E and RCA_E. The similarity with these two models is more
 404 or less maintained in terms of H_s , τ and the number of storms but not for T_p
 405 (it is significantly larger for HIPOCAS). For example, the spatial median of
 406 T_p is 8.4 s for HIPOCAS whereas ranges from 7.7 s to 8.0 s for all the other
 407 models. Apart from having a different atmospheric forcing, which influences

408 this result, the disparity in terms of T_p particularly, can be related to the
 409 wave model used. As explained in Section 3, HIPOCAS was obtained with
 410 WAM, whereas the remaining wave projections were simulated with SWAN.
 411 Bolaños-Sanchez et al (2007) already found some discrepancies between these
 412 two wave models in terms of T_p (using the same forcing) and the recent study
 413 of Pallarès et al (2014) has pointed out that, for the study area, SWAN tends
 414 to underestimate T_p (comparing simulations with measurements).

415 As aforementioned, the cumulative value (V_{cum}) shows a larger inter-model
 416 variability. This is the result of this parameter being largely affected by the
 417 number of storms, which exhibit a larger variability among models (especially
 418 between HIR_E and the rest). HIR_E clearly shows the larger values of V_{cum}
 419 because, apart from larger values of H_s for stormy conditions (not shown), it
 420 simulates a greater number of storms (in many locations, more than double of
 421 that of the other models). This result suggests that this model overestimates
 422 the cumulative erosion potential too. The second largest values of V_{cum} are
 423 obtained for REM_E, that combines high values of τ and the number of storms
 424 (not shown).

425 Another interesting conclusion can be yielded from these results: spatial
 426 variability is largely affected by morphological features and that might also
 427 explain the larger consistency of the spatial patterns among models. The two
 428 geomorphological parameters explicitly included in CST computation, Eq. 4,
 429 are $\tan \beta$ and d_{50} and they are usually related: steeper beaches normally have
 430 coarser sediment and viceversa. Mendoza and Jiménez (2006) showed that,
 431 for the same storm, reflective beaches ($d_{50} \geq 0.6$ mm and $\tan \beta \sim 0.1$)
 432 had a larger erosion potential than dissipative beaches ($d_{50} \sim 0.25$ mm and
 433 $\tan \beta \sim 0.01$). On average terms, our results follow this tendency but this
 434 pattern is not always maintained as explained by Eq. 4. According to this
 435 equation, higher values of $\tan \beta$ are associated with a greater erosion potential
 436 but d_{50} induces the opposite effect. Additionally—and this is an important
 437 limiting factor, for a given storm s , there is a maximum grain size that can
 438 be mobilized (say $d_{50}^{\text{max.}}(s)$) independently of the value of $\tan \beta$ (in order to
 439 fulfil $D_0 > D_{0,e}$). This is reflected in the fact that, for example, beaches north
 440 of Barcelona—typically reflective, achieve both very low and very high values
 441 of the median of V (Figure 4). The first case occurs for beaches with a very
 442 coarse sand for which $d_{50} > d_{50}^{\text{max.}}(s)$ for many storms s . For beaches with finer
 443 sand, the threshold condition $D_0 > D_{0,e}$ is fulfilled more often, enabling the
 444 role of $\tan \beta$. Actually, regressing $\tan \beta$ against the median of V (not shown),
 445 we could see that high values of erosion potential are necessarily associated
 446 with relatively steep beaches but not the other way around (steep beaches can
 447 have a low erosion potential).

448 Moreover, the coastal orography plays an important role through the range
 449 of effective wave directions (see Section 3.1). For example, despite the most
 450 energetic waves typically threatening the northern Catalan coast, compara-
 451 tively low values of V_{cum} are obtained along this coastal stretch because the
 452 rugged coastline offers shelter from high waves coming from many directions,
 453 reducing the number of storms capable to erode the beach.

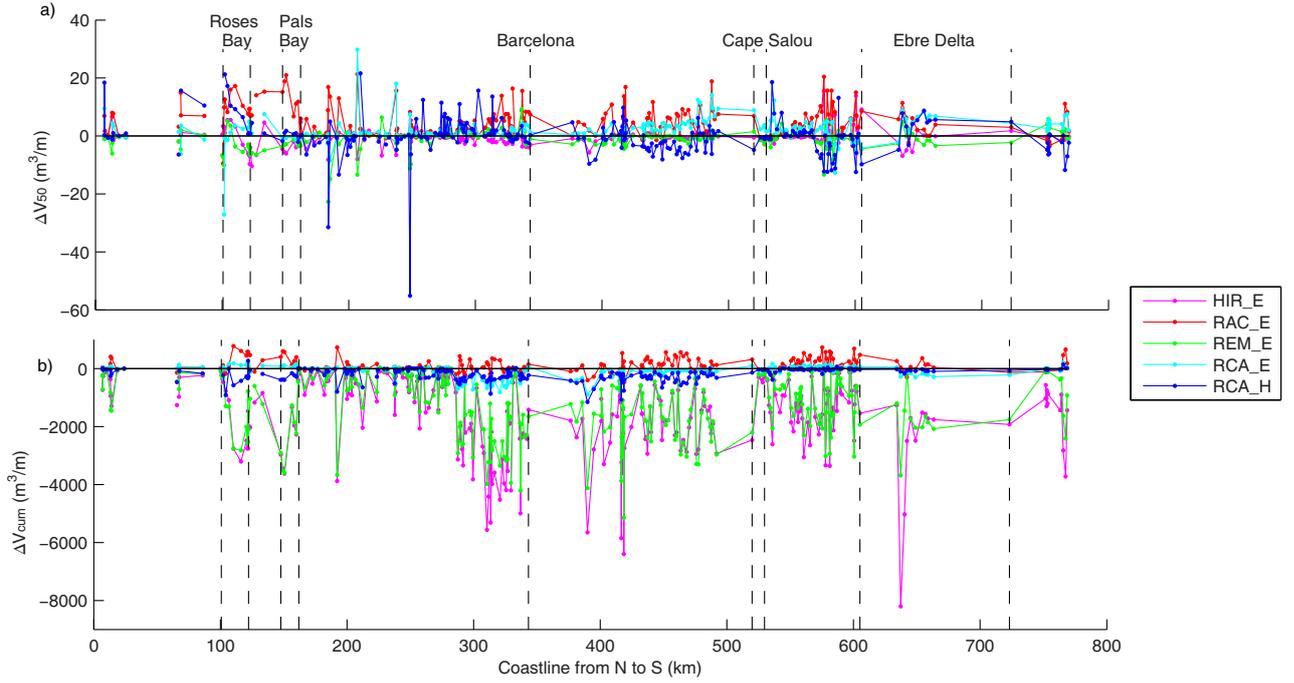


Fig. 5 Projected change of V (m^3/m) for the baseline period for the 5 RCM-GCM models. (a) Median of V . (b) Cumulative V

4.2.2 Climate change signals

Figure 5 shows the projected future changes for both the median of V (top) and V_{cum} (bottom). To better understand the climate change signals, Figure 6 illustrates the changes (difference between the future and the present period) found for the driving (stormy) wave conditions (from top to bottom): the median of H_s , T_p and τ and the number of storms ($\#$ storms).

Along the coastline, most of the simulations oscillate between positive and negative changes for the median of V (especially for HIR_E, REM_E and RCA_H) whereas there is a common tendency for V_{cum} to decrease (except for RCA_E). In terms of the (temporal) median of V , the spatial median is positive only for RAC_E (18%) and RCA_E (11%) but close to zero for RCA_H. Coastal areas showing a more or less consistent positive change for more than two RCM-GCM combinations are the central part of the coast north of Barcelona and the mid-southern part of the Ebre delta, which could enhance the current problems of beach retreat. Simulations driven by RAC_E show the largest percentage of beaches for which the erosion potential rises for both the median of V and V_{cum} . This can be explained by the fact that this model configuration projects the largest increase in terms of H_s and τ (Figure 6), the latter representing a spatial median relative change of 23% (whereas the other

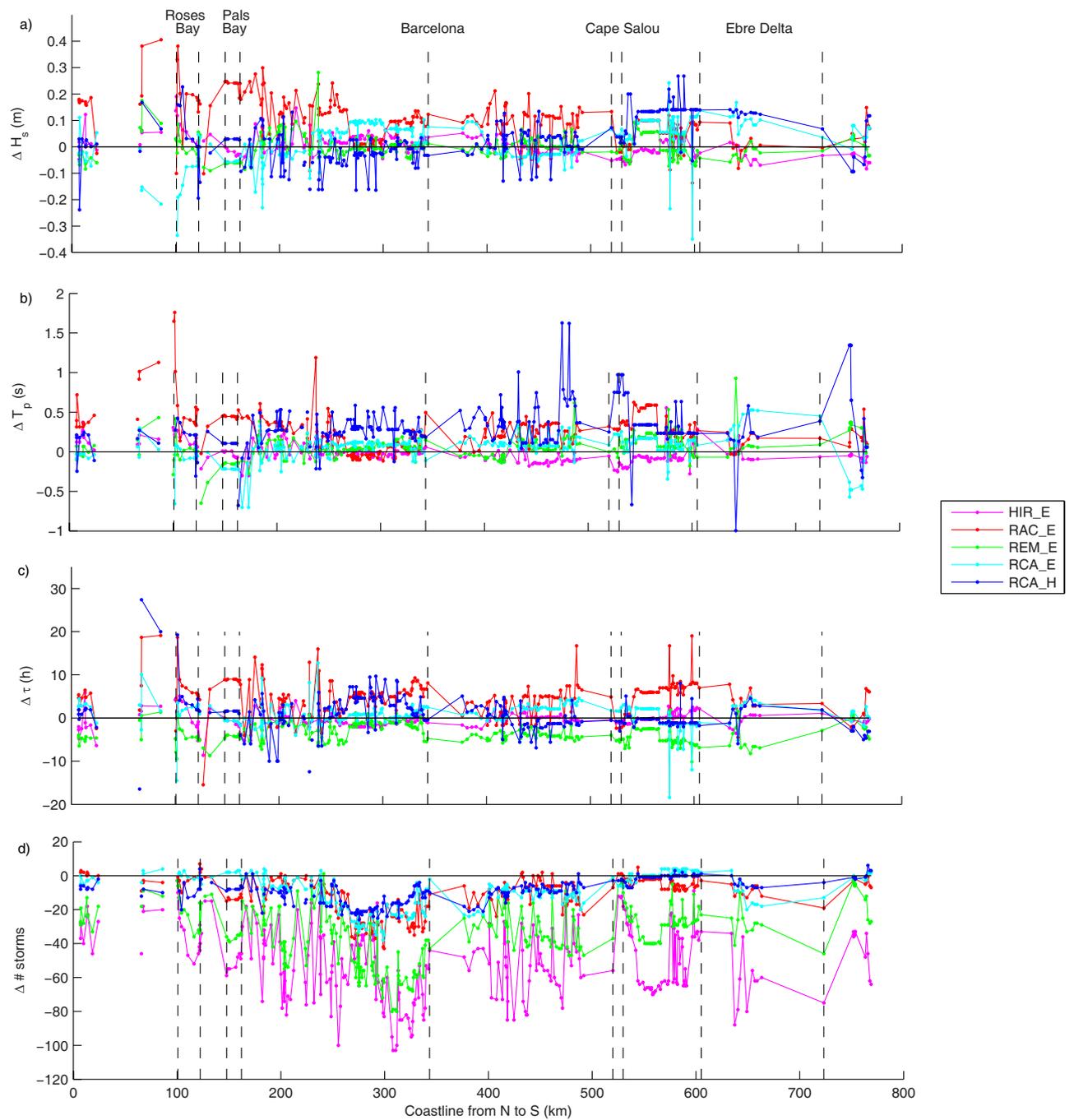


Fig. 6 Projected change for the 5 RCM-GCM models in: (a) the median of H_s , (b) the median of T_p , (c) the median of τ and (d) the number of storms. All these parameters are relative to the storms with effective wave direction

two positive values are for RCA_E and RCA_H which amount to 4% and 1%, respectively).

As aforementioned, V_{cum} has a general tendency to decrease (except for RAC_E) but this reduction is accentuated for HIR_E and REM_E (Figure 5) with a spatial relative decrease of 24% and 38%, respectively. For HIR_E results, this can be mainly explained by a large reduction in the number of storms (spatial median relative change of -23%) and, for REM_E, by both a reduction in the number of storms and τ (spatial median values of -29% and -13% respectively). All models present, indeed, a general decrease in the number of storms, with a median relative reduction of at least 11%. The tendency to decrease is observed not only for the effective number of storms (Figure 6) but also for the total number of storms (not shown), which is consistent with the reported decrease in the number of cyclones in the Mediterranean (Christensen et al, 2007). Actually, a negative trend in the number of storms has already been observed in the Ebre delta between 1990 and 2006 using measured wave data (Sánchez-Arcilla et al, 2011).

The pattern of change of H_s and T_p exhibit some discrepancies, consistent with the uncertainty stated in Christensen et al (2007) about whether or not the cyclones in the Mediterranean will be more intense in the future. Inter-comparing H_s and T_p , we confirm the different behaviour of RCA_H (see Section 2.1.1), showing a notable tendency of T_p to increase whereas H_s moderately increases or even decreases. This is reflected in the spatial median of the relative change: 3.4% for T_s whereas 0.7% for H_s . This is in agreement with the fact that this model project a larger influence of swell waves, as explained in Appendix A of supplementary material. Despite H_s and T_p changes poorly contributing to enhance V in RCA_H case, in some locations (central coast north of Barcelona or Ebre delta) an increase of the median of V is found for this simulation. This can be explained by the rise of τ , pointing out the important role of this storm parameter for the erosion potential, as mentioned in Section 4.2.1.

5 General discussion

Coastlines respond to both mean and extreme wave climate characteristics and so assessing future changes must also consider the changes to both means and extremes. However, the representation of extreme climate characteristics is typically not well described by GCMs due to the limited spatial and temporal resolution of the models. Therefore, higher resolution climate models simulations are usually downscaled using RCMs. As shown in this study, RCMs however add significant uncertainty in the coastal sediment transport responses.

Casas-Prat and Sierra (2013) pointed out that discrepancies in the wind projections could be enhanced in terms of the wave climate due to the non-linear relationship governing the wind-sea states and the favouring character of certain fetch conditions. Nevertheless, except for winter wave extremes, a

516 large amount of the inter-model variability could be explained by GCMs. This
517 study shows how the downscaling procedure from the regional wave climate to
518 the local coastal dynamics further accentuates climate model biases and their
519 inter-model variability, especially for LST, for which wave direction plays an
520 important role. This result highlights that the local-regional scale response of
521 coastline to the broader scale changes in climate is a challenging problem.

522 The rise in the uncertainty can be partly explained by the non-linear rela-
523 tionship governing the sediment transport processes, that can exaggerate the
524 discrepancies present in the wave driving factors. Also, the problem is further
525 complicated because not only one but a set of wave parameters have an im-
526 portant role in coastal dynamics. For example, as observed by Charles (2012)
527 in the LST changes along the Aquitanian coast (France), this study shows
528 that for the Catalan coast as well, the expected changes in wave height and
529 wave direction can lead to opposite changes in LST. This complexity makes
530 difficult to predict beforehand the resulting net effect. In terms of CST, the
531 general effect of the reduction in storms, which alone would be expected to
532 reduce CST, can be countered by increased storm duration.

533 In spite of the uncertainty, we think that this study’s results can serve as
534 a guideline to locate and design further local assessment studies (e.g. beach
535 retreat at the Ebre delta) that can afford the use of more accurate but com-
536 putationally more expensive morphodynamic numerical models, like in the
537 studies of He et al (2015) and Villaret et al (2013), who used DELFT3D and
538 TELEMAC, respectively. The latter approach can give a better estimation of
539 the present and future sediment transport rates and changes in the beach con-
540 figuration, although they will still be affected by the variability in the driving
541 wave projections. In this respect, further research is needed to try to reduce
542 the variability in the future (forcing) projections.

543 Finally, we think that if looking at the problem from a different perspective,
544 LST and CST projections can bring additional value towards the assessment
545 of the underlying RCMs and GCMs. Many studies have pointed out that the
546 capability of climate models to properly reproduce the (atmospheric) climate
547 system depends on the output variable or the physical aspect under evaluation
548 (e.g. Kjellström et al, 2011). This is one of the reasons why it is, in general,
549 so difficult to choose a “top” sub-set of climate models. Moreover, considering
550 how uncertainty propagates to coastal impact parameters as shown in this
551 study, it would be risky to establish a set of “best” climate models only based
552 on their atmospheric or wave climate patterns. The decision whether or not to
553 use a particular climate model to evaluate a certain impact should take into
554 account explicitly the capability of that model to simulate a consistent spatial
555 parameter of the mentioned impact. In this case, Q_{annual} or V —parameters
556 obtained with low computational effort, could be employed as an additional
557 tool to check the use of RCMs and GCMs to assess coastal dynamics. For
558 example, this study’s results suggest that RCM-GCM combination associated
559 with HIR_E is not valid to evaluate LST processes.

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