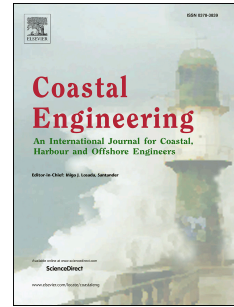


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An integrated physical and cost-benefit approach to assess groins as a coastal erosion mitigation strategy

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1 **TITLE:** An integrated physical and cost-benefit approach to assess groins as a coastal
2 erosion mitigation strategy

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9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Future investments required for the construction and maintenance of coastal defense
11 interventions are expected to increase, due to increasing coastal erosion issues along social,
12 environmental and economically valuable coastal areas. The high costs related with coastal
13 defense interventions require improved knowledge on their performance, considering impacts,
14 costs and benefits. Despite the existence of several cost-benefit approaches applied to coastal
15 zones, in this study a well-defined, sequential and integrated methodology supported by
16 already existent numerical models is developed and applied to assess the effectiveness
17 (shoreline evolution impacts), costs and benefits of different coastal defense interventions.
18 This methodology encompasses three integrated modules, including a shoreline evolution
19 module (to estimate areas of territory maintained, gained or lost over time), a coastal
20 structure pre-design module (to estimate material volumes of coastal works) and a cost-
21 benefit evaluation module (to assess cost-benefit evaluation criteria). The approach allows for
22 the physical and economic comparison of different coastal defense intervention scenarios,
23 helping coastal management and planning entities to define strategies. In this study, the
24 proposed methodology was applied to evaluate the performance of different groin scenarios,
25 based on a hypothetical case study. The case study allowed highlighting the importance of the
26 physical and economic analysis of different scenarios. Results show that the definition of
27 coastal defense interventions is complex where, on the one hand, best physical solutions are
28 sometimes related to very high costs and, on the other hand, best economic scenarios lead to
29 high territory losses. Thus, the innovative approach presented in this study shows that an
30 integrated analysis of shoreline evolution, coastal intervention design and subsequent costs
31 and benefits allows to improve the physical and economic performances of coastal defense
32 interventions.

33 **KEYWORDS**

34 Shoreline evolution, coastal structural design, cost-benefit analysis, coastal defense
35 interventions, numerical modelling

36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

37 A growing trend of erosion issues in coastal areas is being observed worldwide (Basco, 1992;
38 Coelho *et al.*, 2009; Narra *et al.*, 2017; Escudero-Castillo *et al.*, 2018). Sediment deficits,
39 increasing urban pressure and continuous shoreline retreat along coastal areas, are expected
40 to require increased investments to build and maintain coastal protection structures, to
41 perform artificial nourishments or to allow retreat of urban coastal fronts. Hudson *et al.*
42 (2015) refer that construction costs for coastal protection works are highly variable due to the
43 varied nature of required works, site conditions, local prices and values, and availability and
44 sources of materials used. Coastal works involve high costs and, thus, the definition of erosion
45 mitigation measures require integrated studies, namely concerning coastal interventions
46 performance based on cost-benefit analysis (Roebeling *et al.*, 2011; Lima, 2018).

47 Coastal management entities should justify their coastal defense interventions strategies
48 based on scientific knowledge, reasoned analysis and cost-benefit considerations. The choice
49 for specific coastal defense interventions can be based on physical criteria (maximize the area
50 and type of territory to be protected), economic criteria (maximize the returns on coastal
51 defense investment), or through the combination of both. Integrated tools to assess different
52 coastal defense interventions scenarios, helping decision-making and leading to cost
53 reductions, are critical for efficient coastal management.

54 One of the most applied coastal erosion mitigation strategies is based on coastal structures,
55 such as groins. Groins interfere with coastal dynamics (Figure 1) and sediment transport,
56 leading to accretion and sediments accumulation at the updrift side (valuable area to be
57 protected), while at downdrift side (where the provided value of the ecosystems is lower) the
58 erosive process is anticipated due to the lack of sediments (Guimarães *et al.*, 2016).



59

60 Figure 1: Groin impact on shoreline evolution (green hatched area represents accretion while
61 red hatched area represents erosion).

62 Shoreline evolution assessment associated with groins allows to evaluate the benefits,
63 considering the maintained or accreted areas resulting from the groins positive impact, minus
64 the eroded areas caused by the groins. The structures design allows to define the groins
65 dimensions and material volumes and, consequently, the required direct investment and
66 maintenance costs. Finally, by assigning monetary values to the territory (taking into account,
67 simultaneously, social, environmental and/or economic values), it is possible to assess the
68 economic viability based on total costs and total benefits (see e.g. Roebeling *et al.*, 2011).

69 The main objective of this study is to present a well-defined and sequential approach, applied
70 in an integrated way, to assess the effectiveness (shoreline evolution impact), costs and
71 benefits of different coastal defense intervention scenarios. The methodological approach
72 considers a shoreline evolution model (to estimate territory maintained, gained or lost over
73 time), a coastal structures pre-design model (to estimate structures dimensions and material
74 volumes) and a cost-benefit evaluation model (to define values for land and coastal
75 interventions as well as to assess cost-benefit evaluation criteria). To show the sequential
76 approach and highlight the potential impacts of different coastal intervention scenarios, a
77 hypothetical case study is presented. Thus, the proposed approach was applied to assess the
78 effectiveness, costs and benefits of different groins scenarios to mitigate coastal erosion issues
79 in an urban coastal waterfront study area that is characterized by sediment deficits and
80 erosion problems.

81 The next section provides a short review on cost-benefit analyses applied to coastal erosion
82 mitigation strategies. Then, the integrated methodology and underpinning modules of the
83 developed approach to assess the effectiveness of different coastal erosion mitigation

84 strategies are described. Next, the case study is presented, including the reference scenario
85 description, the groin baseline scenario and all assessed groin scenarios. Finally, the obtained
86 results are presented, analyzed and discussed, and key conclusions are derived.

87 **2. COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS APPLIED TO COASTAL EROSION MITIGATION STRATEGIES**

88 Engineering approaches are, traditionally, used to assess coastal erosion problems and
89 responses and, thus, the physical effectiveness of coastal intervention measures are assessed
90 without taking cost and benefit considerations into account (see Roebeling *et al.*, 2018).
91 Shoreline evolution models, such as the Long-Term Configuration (Coelho, 2005), GENESIS
92 (Hanson and Kraus, 1989), ONELINE (Dabees and Kamphuis, 1998), LITMOD (Vicente and
93 Clímaco, 2003), LITPACK (DHI, 2009) and UNIBEST (Deltares, 2018a), and coastal structure
94 design models, such as the Xpress Design of Coastal Structures (XD-Coast; Lima *et al.*, 2013),
95 BREAKWAT (Deltares, 2018b), CRESS (CRESS, 2018), and CLI (CLI, 2018), can be used for these
96 physical effectiveness analyses. However, with the emergence of Integrated Coastal Zone
97 Management (2002/413/EC), the focus of studies moved from physical effectiveness of coastal
98 intervention measures to a more comprehensive management of coastal zones. This gave rise
99 to various economic studies evaluating coastal intervention measures, considering economic
100 tools such as cost-effectiveness, cost-benefit and efficiency analyses (Breil *et al.*, 2007;
101 Roebeling *et al.*, 2018).

102 Cost-effectiveness analyses provide insight in what coastal intervention measures achieve
103 coastal protection objectives at least cost. For example, some studies assessed the expected
104 costs of no interventions, associated with ecosystem service value losses in Central Portugal
105 (Alves *et al.*, 2009) and expected tourism revenue losses in the Greek island of Crete
106 (Alexandrakis *et al.*, 2015). Other studies assessed the cost-effectiveness of groin fields and
107 beach nourishments in Central and South Portugal (Taborda *et al.*, 2005) and the
108 cost-effectiveness of beach nourishments in the U.S. State of Florida (Chu *et al.*, 2014).

109 Cost-benefit analyses provide insight in what coastal intervention measures/scenarios provide
110 largest net benefits, assessing costs (construction and maintenance) and benefits (avoided
111 costs) of intervention measures. Turner *et al.* (2007) evaluated the costs and benefits of
112 various managed realignment scenarios in North-East England. Roebeling *et al.* (2011)
113 performed a cost-benefit assessment of a wide range of hard and soft protection scenarios in
114 Central Portugal. Martino and Amos (2015) assessed the net benefits from a beach
115 nourishment project along the Tyrrhenian coast of Italy. Finally, Coelho *et al.* (2016) assessed
116 the costs and benefits of several longitudinal revetment scenarios in Central Portugal, while

117 Campos *et al.* (2016) and Vizinho (2018) assessed the costs and benefits of stakeholder-
118 defined climate change adaptation pathway scenarios for a case study in Central Portugal.

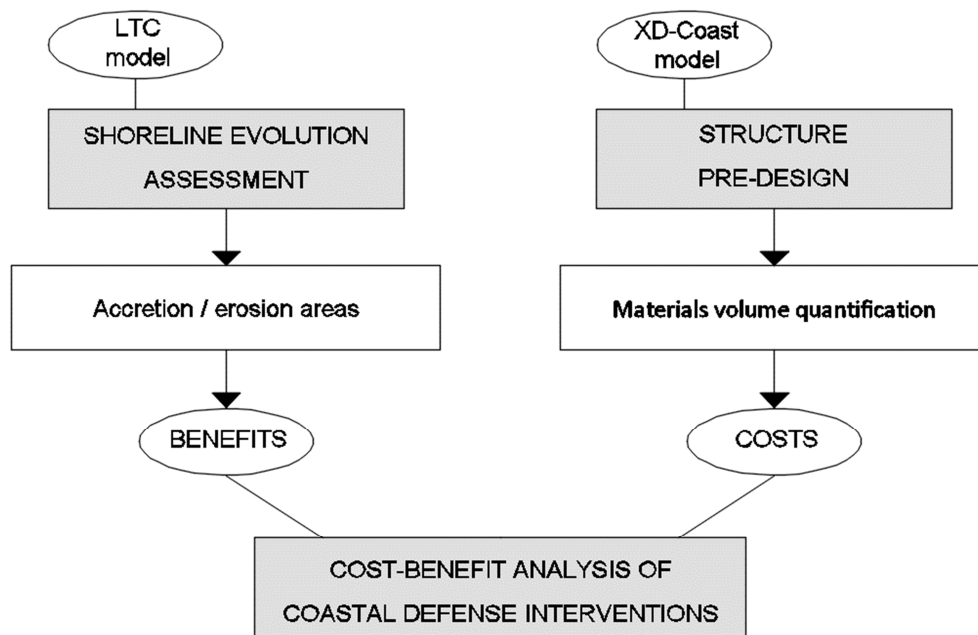
119 Efficiency analyses enable the identification of optimal coastal intervention
120 measures/strategies and, thus, provide largest welfare benefits. Efficiency studies, that enable
121 the identification of optimal adaptation measures/strategies (*i.e.* that provide largest net
122 benefits and, thus, maximize welfare), have mainly been applied at the regional and global
123 scale (Darwin and Tol, 2001; Bosello *et al.*, 2007; Costa *et al.*, 2009; Neumann *et al.*, 2011). Few
124 efficiency studies have been applied at the local and landscape scale. Those include studies by
125 Smith *et al.* (2009) and Landry (2011), that developed conceptual optimization models (capital-
126 theoretic and optimal-control, respectively) to assess optimal artificial beach nourishment
127 sizes and intervals. Tsvetanov and Shah (2013) applied a stochastic optimization approach to
128 assess the optimal investment timing of increases in the height of seawalls/levees in
129 Connecticut (U.S.). Roebeling *et al.* (2018) applied a deterministic combinatorial optimization
130 approach to explore the dimensions and locations of groins that provide largest welfare gains
131 in Central Portugal.

132 The cost-benefit methodology approach and the numerical tool developed and presented in
133 this study differs from the abovementioned costs-benefit analyses in the following three main
134 aspects. Firstly, it is a well-defined, sequential and integrated analysis that entails the impact
135 of the coastal interventions on shoreline evolution (by applying the LTC numerical model), the
136 pre-design of the coastal structures (applying XD-Coast model) and, finally, the quantification
137 of related costs and benefits. The integration of these three components in a single numerical
138 tool adds important value to the global analysis of coastal intervention measures, based on
139 their simultaneous physical and economic performance. Secondly, this numerical tool allows
140 for an easy and quick comparison between different coastal defense intervention scenarios,
141 helping coastal management entities in evaluating coastal erosion mitigation strategies.
142 Finally, it allows to easily perform sensitivity analyses on all relevant variables that determine
143 the intervention scenarios – including physical characteristics (such as length, location, number
144 of structures, crest elevation, volume, etc.) and/or economic features (such as land values and
145 materials unit costs).

146 **3. METHODOLOGY**

147 The proposed integrated methodology to assess the effectiveness, costs and benefits of
148 different coastal defense interventions encompassed three modules (Figure 2). Shoreline
149 evolution in a medium-term scenario (using LTC numerical model; Coelho, 2005) that allows to

150 calculate benefits (territory maintained, gained or lost); pre-design of the coastal structures
 151 and its dimensions for quantification of material volumes (with the support of XD-Coast model;
 152 Lima *et al.*, 2013) that allows to calculate costs (structures construction and maintenance);
 153 and, finally, cost-benefit analysis resulting from the land and materials values, and the
 154 estimates obtained from the previous steps. This section describes in detail the three
 155 integrated modules.



156

157 Figure 2: Integrated methodology to assess the effectiveness, costs and benefits of different
 158 coastal defense interventions.

159 3.1 SHORELINE EVOLUTION ASSESSMENT

160 The effectiveness of benefits from coastal mitigation interventions are estimated through the
 161 shoreline evolution numerical modelling and consequent evaluation of territory maintained,
 162 gained or lost along the time (typically at a decadal time scale). For this purpose, the numerical
 163 model LTC (Long-Term Configuration; Coelho, 2005) was used, a shoreline evolution model
 164 that allows to easily define and evaluate scenarios as well as test sensitivity to different
 165 parameter values. Naturally, the application of the proposed model to specific situations
 166 requires numerical models calibration and validation. Complex morphodynamics models are
 167 not adequate to model the intended spatial and temporal scales required by the approach. LTC
 168 was developed to support coastal zone planning and management in relation to coastal
 169 erosion problems (Coelho *et al.*, 2005; 2007; 2013; Guimarães *et al.*, 2016; Lima and Coelho,
 170 2017). It was firstly presented at the ICCE 2004 (Coelho *et al.*, 2004) and has been improved
 171 and extensively applied since then (Coelho, 2005; Coelho *et al.*, 2006, 2007, 2013, 2016; Silva

172 *et al.*, 2007a, 2007b; Silva, 2010; Roebeling *et al.*, 2011, 2018; Silva *et al.*, 2011; Pereira and
173 Coelho, 2013; Guimarães *et al.*, 2016; Lima and Coelho, 2017; Lima, 2018). LTC combines a
174 simple classical one-line model with a rule-based model for erosion/accretion volumes
175 distribution along the beach profile (Coelho *et al.*, 2007). This model was designed for sandy
176 beaches, where the main cause of shoreline evolution is the alongshore sediment transport
177 gradients, dependent on the wave climate, water levels, sediment sources and sinks, sediment
178 characteristics and boundary conditions. The model inputs are the wave climate, water level
179 and the bathymetry and topography of the landward adjacent zones (updated during
180 calculation).

181 The sediment transport volumes are estimated by formulae that consider the shoreline's angle
182 to oncoming breaking waves (CERC formula; SPM, 1984) and the breaking wave height (Coelho
183 *et al.*, 2009). The sediment volume variation in a coastal stretch is caused by sediment
184 transport gradients between modeled cells where, similar to one-line models, the balance of
185 volumes is defined through the continuity equation. This equation states that the variation in
186 the volume of sand, along an infinitesimal length of the shoreline, is the same as the variation
187 of sediments in transport, in that same length, added or subtracted by eventual external
188 sediments supplements or extractions (Silva *et al.*, 2017b). This difference between sediment
189 transport volumes represents a variation in the depth level of the grid points in the same
190 profile of the modeled domain (Coelho *et al.*, 2007). Thus, these sediment deficits along a
191 coastal stretch represent shoreline retreat over time. LTC assumes a uniform cross-shore
192 distribution of the alongshore sediment transport along the active extension of the beach
193 cross-shore profiles, between the depth of closure (DoC) and the wave run-up limit. Thus, LTC
194 performs a uniform variation of the vertical coordinates of the active profile grid points,
195 adjusting the active profile limits based on the sediments friction angle (Coelho *et al.* 2013;
196 Baptista *et al.* 2014). Thus, the sediment volumes distribution respect the sediment volumes
197 balances but do not correspond exactly to the same accretion and erosion areas defined by the
198 shoreline position, due to the differences between bathymetry and topography (see Coelho *et*
199 *al.*, 2013). Summarizing, the variation of the shoreline position depends, not only, on the
200 sediment volume variation, but also, on the topography and bathymetry associated with each
201 cross-shore profile (Coelho, 2005). With the LTC numerical model, the 3D topographic data are
202 continuously updated during simulation, allowing the model to distribute erosion or accretion
203 sediment volumes for each wave action (computational time step).

204 The wave transformation by refraction, diffraction and shoaling is modelled in a simplified
205 manner (Coelho *et al.*, 2007), always taking into consideration the updated bathymetric data in

206 each time step. According to Coelho (2005), the refraction effects in LTC are estimated through
207 the use of Snell's law, while the shoaling effect is calculated following Airy's linear theory of
208 sinewaves (Airy, 1845). The diffraction effects are calculated for beach extensions located
209 downdrift of groins using a simplified method, based on Sorensen *et al.* (2003).

210 Due to the importance of the boundary conditions in the model simulations, several options
211 can be made: constant sediment volumes going in or out the study area; constant volume
212 variations in the border sections; extrapolation from nearby conditions (Silva *et al.*, 2007b).
213 Moreover, different coastal protection works combinations may be considered with almost no
214 limitation for the number of groins (i.e. the structure considered in this study), breakwaters
215 and seawalls, the number of sediment sources/sinks sites, and artificial nourishments.

216 **3.2 STRUCTURES PRE-DESIGN**

217 The estimation of costs associated with coastal protection works (construction and
218 maintenance) was based on the structures' design and corresponding definition of volumes
219 and materials. This is achieved considering the geometry of the structure (cross-section and
220 length) and its volume (depending on local bathymetry and topography). The numerical
221 pre-design tool XD-Coast was applied (Lima, 2011). XD-Coast software (Xpress Design of
222 COAstal Structures) and developed in Microsoft Visual C# language, whose main objective is
223 the calculation of armor layer blocks unit weight of coastal structures exposed to wave actions,
224 considering different formulations and types of structures. Furthermore, the model allows for
225 the calculation of the main characteristics of the cross-section, in function of the armor layer
226 blocks unit weight (Lima *et al.*, 2013).

227 XD-Coast is divided into two main parts: estimative of the armor layer blocks unit weight; and
228 cross-shore geometric characteristics definition, based on the previous results. In the first part,
229 the user starts by choosing the type of structure in analysis and the formulation required to
230 calculate the block weight of the resistant layer. Afterward, in the second part, depending on
231 the adopted block weight, a schematization of the cross-section can be obtained (Lima,
232 2011). The software allows to consider three different formulations for calculations related to
233 non-overtopped structures: Hudson (1974), van der Meer (1988a) for rocks and van der Meer
234 (1988b) and De Jong (1996) for tetrapods. For low-crested and submerged structures, the
235 model presents one available formulation: van der Meer (1991) for rocks. The coastal
236 structures are exposed to several energetic actions, such as waves, currents and tides, but the
237 software only considers the wave height for block weight calculations. Once the cross-section

238 is defined, knowing the bathymetry and topography at the structures location, the volume of
 239 each structure layer and material is calculated (Lima, 2018).

240 3.3 COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS

241 To compare and assess the economic viability of different coastal intervention
 242 measures/scenarios, a cost-benefit analysis is performed (following Roebeling *et al.*, 2011),
 243 using net present value (NPV) and the benefit-cost ratio (BCR) evaluation criteria (Zerbe and
 244 Dively, 1994). Costs and benefits are estimated relative to the situation without intervention,
 245 where costs (C_t) are defined as the additional initial investment and recurrent maintenance
 246 costs associated with the intervention (in €/year) and benefits (B_t) are defined as the value of
 247 territory maintained, gained or lost due to the intervention (in €/year). Initial investment and
 248 recurrent maintenance costs are determined by applying XD-Coast (Lima, 2011; see Section
 249 3.2), and territory gains/losses are determined considering the LTC numerical model results
 250 (Coelho, 2005; see Section 3.1) .

251 The NPV evaluation criterion is given by the sum of discounted benefits minus the sum of
 252 discounted costs that occur in each period t over the lifetime of the project T (Zerbe and
 253 Dively, 1994), and is given by:

$$254 \quad \text{NPV} = \sum_{t=0}^T \frac{B_t}{(1+r)^t} - \sum_{t=0}^T \frac{C_t}{(1+r)^t} \quad (1)$$

255 where r is the time discount rate. The project is considered economically viable when the
 256 $\text{NPV} > 0$, *i.e.* when the present value benefits (first term on right-hand side of Equation 1)
 257 exceed the present value costs (second term on right-hand side).

258 The BCR evaluation criterion is given by the sum of discounted benefits relative to the sum of
 259 discounted costs that occur in each period t over the lifetime of the project T (Zerbe and
 260 Dively, 1994), and is given by:

$$261 \quad \text{BCR} = \frac{\sum_{t=0}^T \frac{B_t}{(1+r)^t}}{\sum_{t=0}^T \frac{C_t}{(1+r)^t}} \quad (2)$$

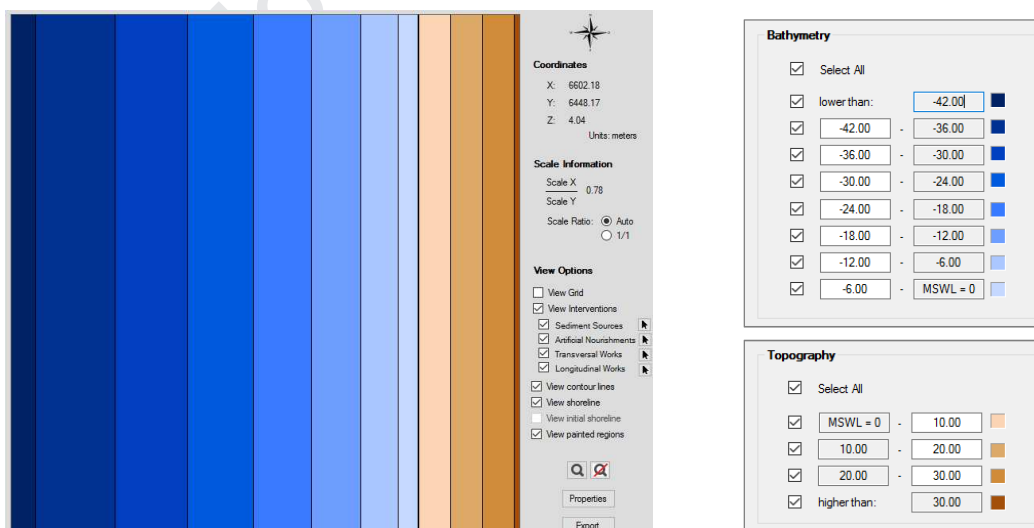
262 A project is considered economically viable when the $\text{BCR} > 1$, *i.e.* when the present value
 263 benefits (numerator on right-hand side of Equation 2) exceed the present value costs
 264 (denominator on right-hand side). Note that the $\text{BCR} = 1$ when the $\text{NPV} = 0$.

4. THE CASE STUDY

265
 266 This study aimed to assess the effectiveness of different groin scenarios applied to a
 267 hypothetical case study, through an integrated cost-benefit analysis. Cost-benefit analysis
 268 requires the comparison of two different scenarios: the reference scenario and the coastal
 269 intervention scenario to mitigate erosion. The reference scenario corresponds to the “do-
 270 nothing” scenario, which represents the natural shoreline evolution without any intervention
 271 in a coastal stretch forced by significant sediments deficit and erosion problems. To allow the
 272 comparison between the different proposed scenarios, a baseline scenario with a single groin
 273 with a length of 200 meters was also defined – i.e. a typical situation along many sandy coastal
 274 areas where groins are constructed in front of urban settlements. Starting from this baseline
 275 scenario, by changing length, location, number of groins, in total 10 groin scenarios were
 276 defined, tested and analyzed.

4.1 REFERENCE SCENARIO

277
 278 The reference scenario represents a hypothetical study area, characterized by a regular
 279 topo-bathymetry, where a regular square grid (spacing 20 meters), with 401 x 501 points
 280 (respectively, in the perpendicular and parallel direction to the shoreline) results in a spatial
 281 domain area of the 8 000 x 10 000 m² (Figure 3). The bathymetry data was generated
 282 according to the Dean profile (Dean, 1991), considering the parameter A and m , respectively
 283 0.127 and 2/3. For the topography data (above reference level, 0.0 m) a constant slope of 2%
 284 was considered.



285 Figure 3: LTC numerical model representation of the topo-bathymetric data.

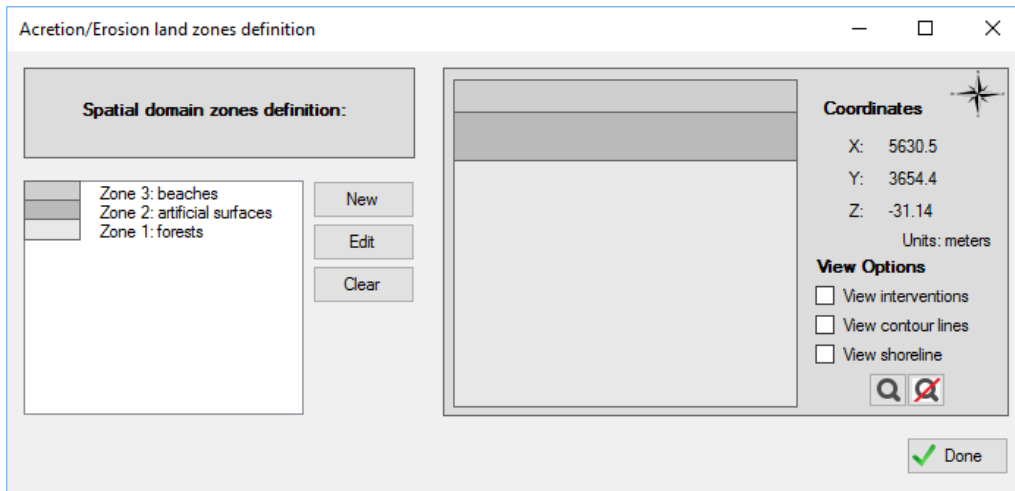
286 To perform the LTC numerical modelling, the wave climate was considered constant along all
 287 the simulations, with offshore characteristics of 2 meters wave height (H_0) and 10 degrees

288 wave direction with West, clockwise (α_0). The active cross-shore profile was limited by the
 289 closure depth ($DoC = 8$ m) and by the wave run-up ($R_u = 2$ m), which result in a total active
 290 height of 10 meters (considered constant along all simulations). The DoC also works as a
 291 calibration parameter of the model, by defining the cross-shore extension of the active profile
 292 width. The uniform cross-shore distribution of the alongshore sediment transport is assumed
 293 to occur in the active width of the cross-shore profile, between the DoC and the wave run-up
 294 limit. The adopted CERC sediment transport coefficient (k) was 0.03. At the northern
 295 boundary, a null input of sediments was considered and in the southern boundary, an
 296 extrapolation of the sediment transport nearby conditions was imposed. The described
 297 conditions correspond to a coastal stretch where a sediment deficit is imposed by the northern
 298 boundary conditions and significant erosion and shoreline retreat is expected to occur along
 299 the domain, propagating from North to South due to the littoral drift corresponding with the
 300 potential longshore sediment transport capacity of the wave climate. A time-step of one hour
 301 and a time horizon of 20 years were adopted for the simulations. Annual model outputs were
 302 registered, allowing the evaluation of every year eroded and accreted areas of territory.

303 To estimate territory values, the provided services of the coastal areas and ecosystems, which
 304 are important to human well-being, health and livelihoods, should be considered. For the case
 305 study, the land value of the territory was divided in three zones along the coast with landward
 306 constant values (see Table 1 and Figure 4), with beaches (Zone 3), artificial surfaces (Zone 2)
 307 and forests (Zone 1) from north to south over an extension of 10 km. Beaches provide coastal
 308 protection and recreational uses, artificial surfaces provide residential, tourism and
 309 recreational uses and, finally, forests provide timber production, climate regulation and
 310 erosion control, habitat for biodiversity, and recreational services (Costanza *et al.*, 1997; 2014;
 311 Martinez *et al.*, 2007; Roebeling *et al.*, 2013). It should be noted that the defined territory
 312 values encompass economic, environmental, social and cultural aspects that may vary largely
 313 between study locations. The time discount rate (r) was considered 3% (following Roebeling *et*
 314 *al.*, 2018).

315 Table 1: Economic land value defined in the case study (based on Roebeling *et al.*, 2018).

	Description (km)	Location	Extension (km)	Value (€/m ² /year)
Zone 3	Beaches	North limit	1.0	2.00
Zone 2	Artificial surfaces	Intermediate	1.5	10.00
Zone 1	Forests	South limit	7.5	0.20



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Figure 4: Territory zones defined in the spatial domain of the case study.

318

4.1.1 Shoreline evolution

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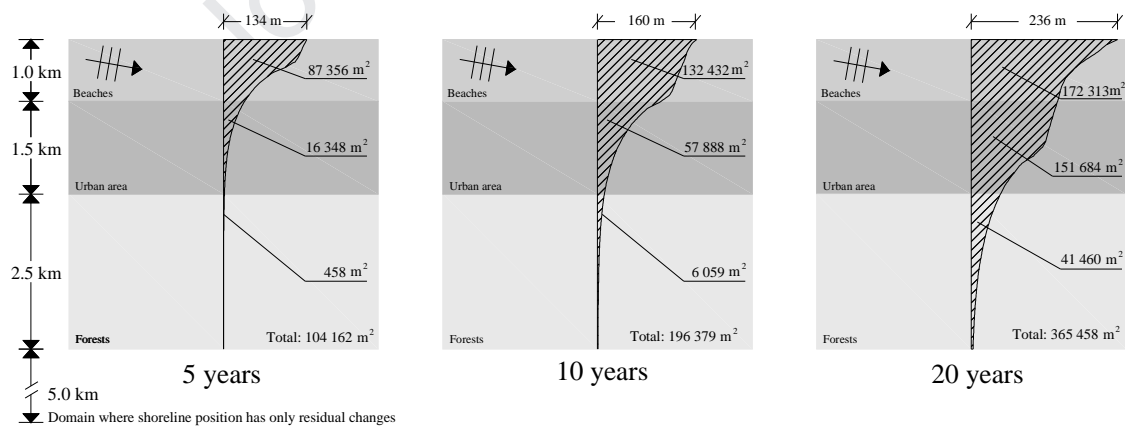
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326

Based on the adopted conditions for the case study, the shoreline evolution results for the reference scenario show great losses of territory after 20 years of simulation, mostly at the northern boundary of the domain. Coastal erosion and subsequent shoreline retreat is propagating downdrift over time. Thus, if no interventions are implemented during the 20 years simulation period, shoreline retreat can reach about 230 meters on the northern border and all the extension of the urban waterfront is affected by erosion. Figure 5 shows the shoreline position after 5, 10 and 20 years of simulation as well as the total area lost in each zone (beaches, urban and forest).



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Figure 5: Shoreline position in the reference scenario, after 5, 10 and 20 years (horizontal scale 10 times greater than the vertical scale).

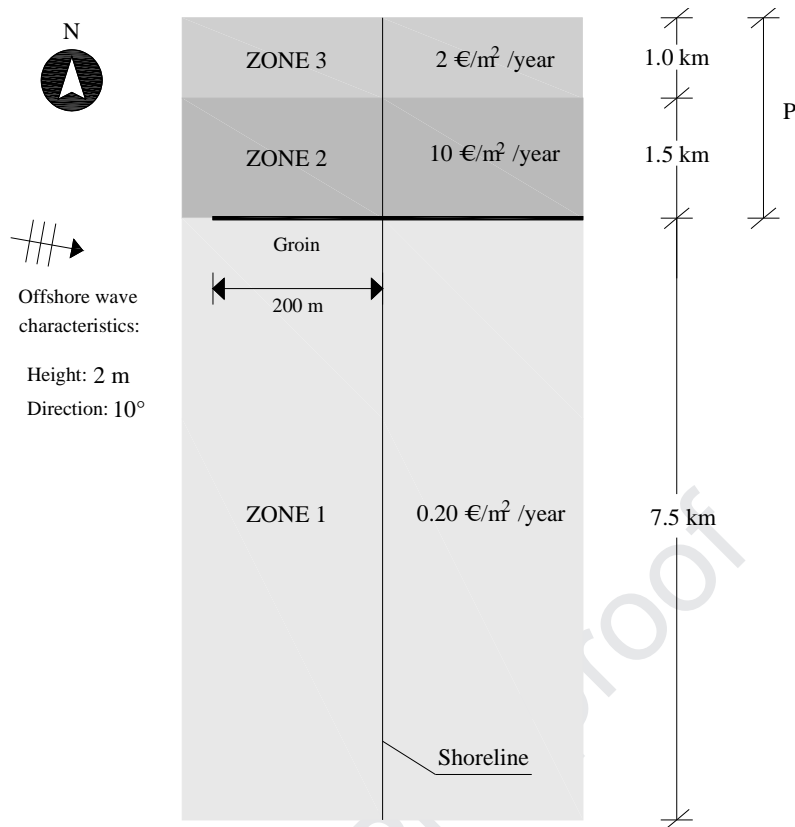
330 4.1.2 Coastal erosion impacts

331 Based on the attributed land values for each zone, the NPV for each year of simulation is
332 calculated. After 5 years of simulation, the losses of territory represent about 0.8 m€, and after
333 ten years the losses already exceed 3 m€. At the end of the 20 years simulation, the results
334 show about 12 m€ losses, representing the erosion trend along the coast and subsequent
335 losses over time.

336 Although representing a hypothetical case study, the reference scenario shows that in sandy
337 coastal areas subject to erosion (i.e. where the sediment volumes available for the littoral drift
338 are below the potential sediment transport capacity), there is a high potential for economic
339 losses if no mitigation strategies are considered. Thus, in this study, different groin
340 intervention scenarios are proposed to mitigate the erosion problems identified in the
341 reference scenario. First, a groin baseline scenario was defined and then, other scenarios
342 considered different groin extensions and locations, and combined different number of groins.

343 4.2 BASELINE SCENARIO

344 The establishment of groins to mitigate coastal erosion does not result in a reduction in
345 sediment deficits along the coastal stretch but, instead, only transfers coastal erosion to lower-
346 value areas. LTC evaluates the active cross-shore width of the beach profile and its relationship
347 with the groin extension (creating a barrier to the longshore sediment transport). This
348 relationship defines the share of sediments trapped by the groin, causing accumulation updrift
349 and accelerating the sediment deficit and erosion downdrift (Baptista *et al.*, 2014; Guimarães
350 *et al.*, 2016; Lima and Coelho, 2017). To evaluate the reasonability of this type of intervention,
351 the baseline scenario was characterized by a groin with 200 meters length located 2.5 km
352 south of the northern border and at the southern limit of the urbanized area (Zone 2; see
353 Figure 6).



354

355

Figure 6: Plan schematization of the baseline scenario.

356

4.2.1 Shoreline evolution

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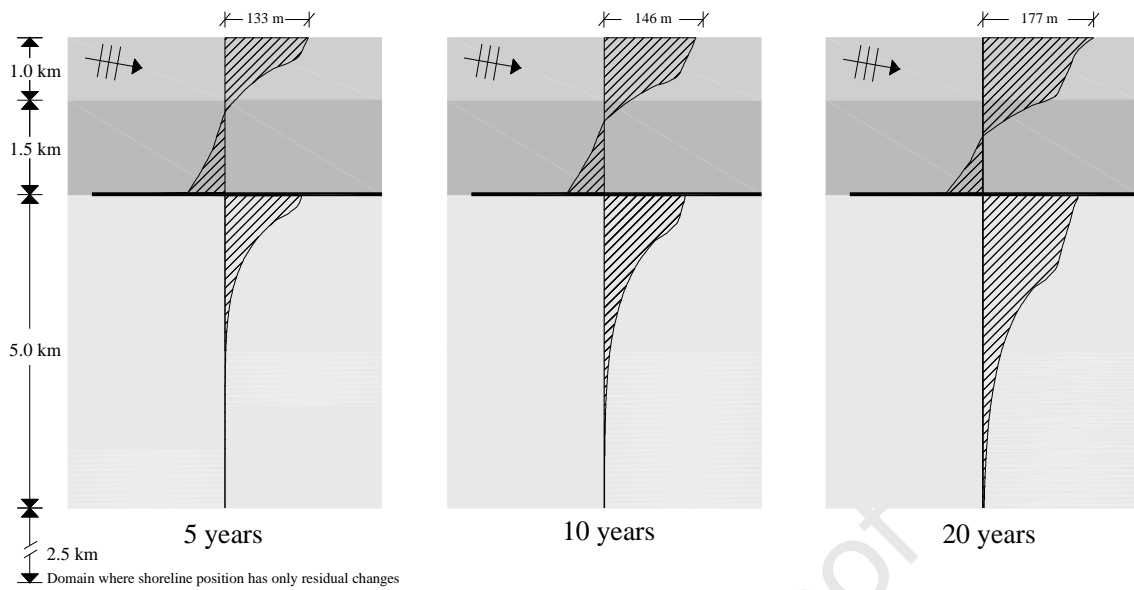
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Considering the parameter values of the reference scenario, LTC was applied to the baseline scenario to predict the shoreline evolution over the 20 years' time horizon. Given the sediment deficit in the study area, a global erosion trend in the modelled domain is again observed. However, results show smaller shoreline retreat rates near the northern border and accumulation of sediments near the urban waterfront, updrift of the groin (Figure 7). In contrast, the sediment deficits, erosion trends and shoreline retreat rates are higher at downdrift (Zone 1), where the erosion impacts represent lower economic consequences. However, to evaluate if the proposed scenario is in fact economically advantageous, it was necessary to estimate the groin construction and maintenance costs, by designing the structure's characteristics (by applying XD-Coast model).



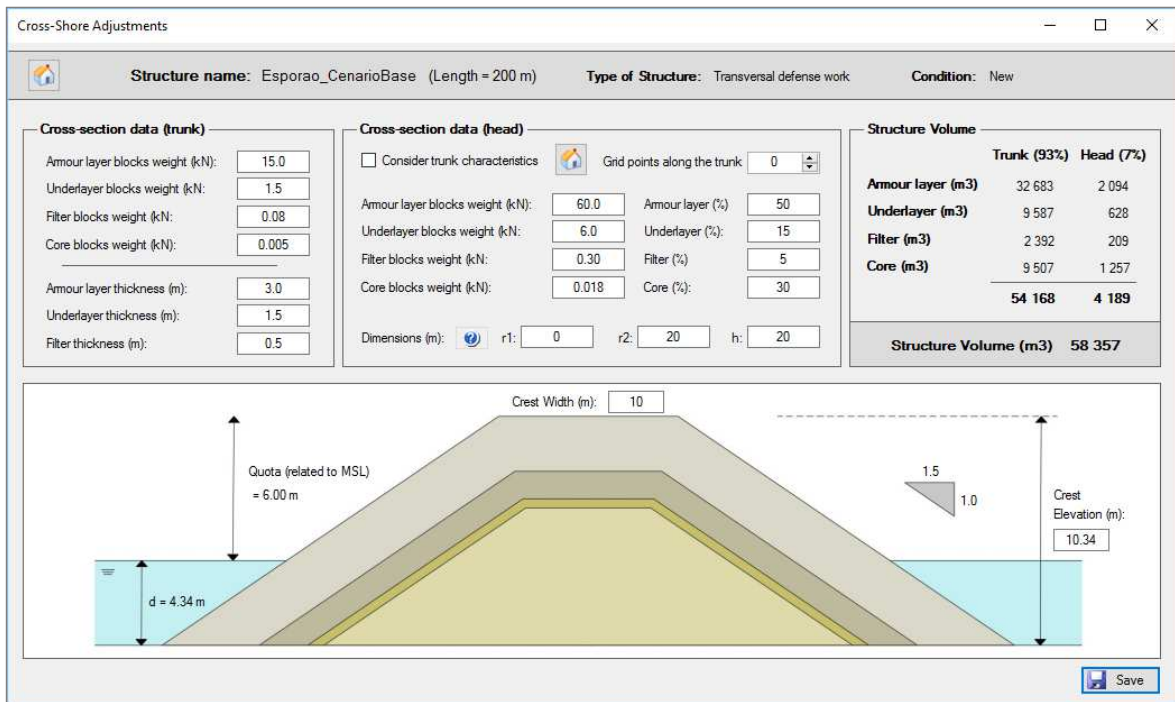
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369 Figure 7: Shoreline position in the baseline scenario, after 5, 10 and 20 years (horizontal scale
 370 10 times greater than the vertical scale).

371 4.2.2 Structure pre-design

372 The groin cross-section corresponding to the head of the structure was defined based on XD-
 373 Coast results. The Hudson (1974) formula was applied, considering a 2 m wave height, a
 374 structure slope of 2/3 (V/H) and the stability coefficient (K_D) of 3.5, characteristic of rock
 375 material. The cross-section characteristics (resistant layer and filters, crest width and
 376 elevation, and slope) were considered constants along the structure length. The structure
 377 height varied, depending on the bathymetric and topographic data. A crest width of 10 m and
 378 a crest elevation of 6 meters were considered (above the reference level). Considering that the
 379 structure head was located at a depth of about 4.5 meters, the total volume of the structure is
 380 around 58 000 m³ (Figure 8).



381

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Figure 8: Groin head cross-section in the baseline scenario.

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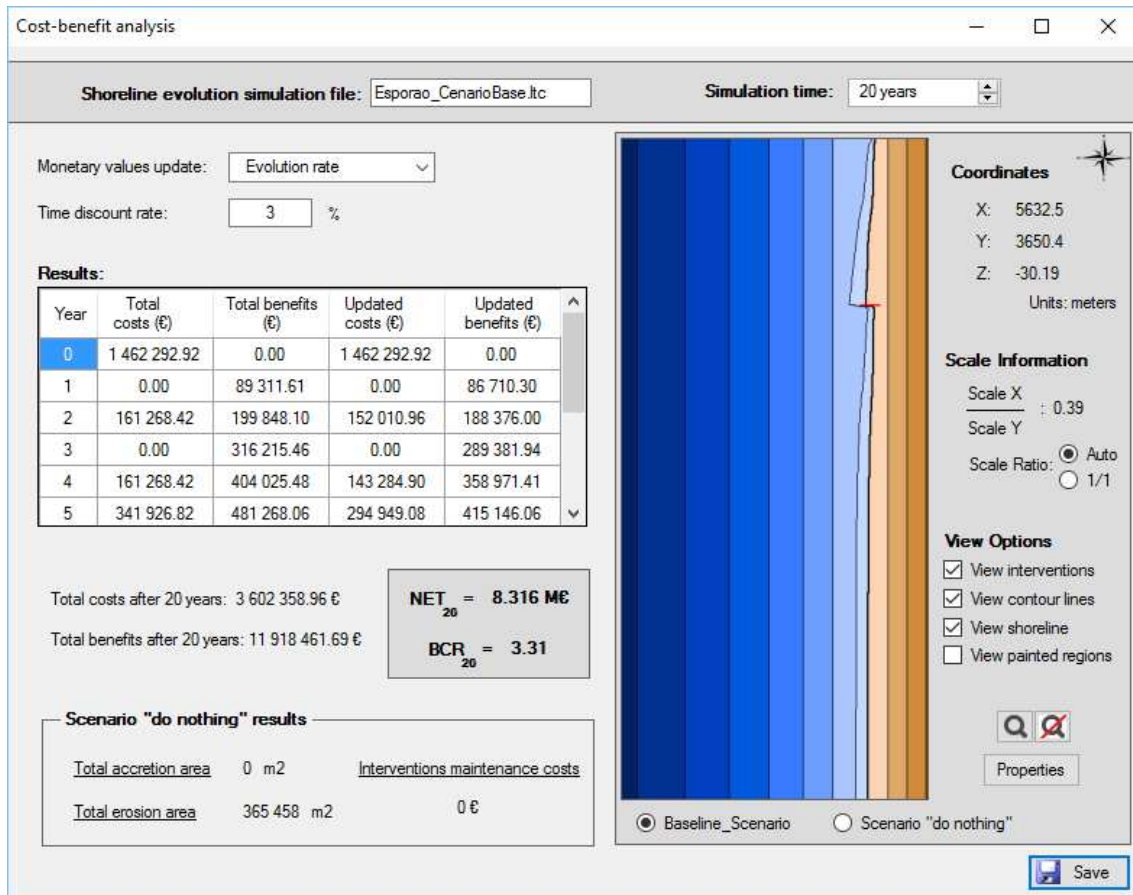
4.2.3 Cost-benefits results

384

385 Considering the groin material volumes, costs were calculated. The total initial investment
 386 costs for the groin construction was € 1 462 200. Maintenance costs were based on a
 387 percentage of the cost of each part of the structure (head and trunk). For the trunk,
 388 maintenance works were considered to take place every five years and corresponding costs
 389 are about € 340 000 (30% of trunk construction costs). For the head, maintenance works
 390 were considered to take place every two years and corresponding costs are about € 160 000 (50% of head construction costs).

391

392 Benefits were defined based on shoreline evolution model results, taking into account the
 393 accretion and erosion areas obtained every year, and the land values defined in the reference
 394 scenario (Figure 7 and Table 1). Given all costs and benefits associated to the baseline
 395 scenario, the economic indicators (NPV and BCR) were determined for every year. Figure 9
 represents the results obtained at the end of the 20 years simulation.



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Figure 9: Cost-benefit results for the baseline scenario.

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4.3 GROIN SCENARIOS

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Three main parameters were considered to test different groin scenarios: length, location and number of groins. Adequate groin length is one of the main issues in its design. Longer structures promote a bigger barrier to the littoral drift and provide effective protection to extensive areas located updrift of the structure, but increase the intervention costs and the negative impacts in the downdrift areas. Global and integrated assessment of groin location should correspond to a groin located at the downdrift limit of the higher valuable zone (which was adopted in the baseline scenario). However, this groin location scenario is not always possible and, thus, structure location was also tested. Depending on the size of the most valuable zones, some interventions may consider the combination of several structures, resulting in different groin field scenarios. In view of the previous, Table 2 presents the 10 different groin scenarios tested: influence of the length of the structure (group *i*, with three different scenarios); influence of the location of the structure (four scenarios in group *ii*); and, finally, influence of the number of the structures (three combinations in group *iii*).

412 Table 2: Definition of groin's scenarios tested (L is the length and P is the distance of the groin
 413 to the northern boundary of the modelled domain).

		1	2	3	4
Groin length	<i>i</i>	$L = 100$ m	$L = 300$ m	$L = 400$ m	-
Groin location	<i>ii</i>	$P = 1.5$ km	$P = 2.0$ km	$P = 3.0$ km	$P = 3.5$ km
Number of groins	<i>iii</i>	2 groins spaced by 500 m	2 groins spaced by 1000 m	3 groins spaced by 500 m	-

414

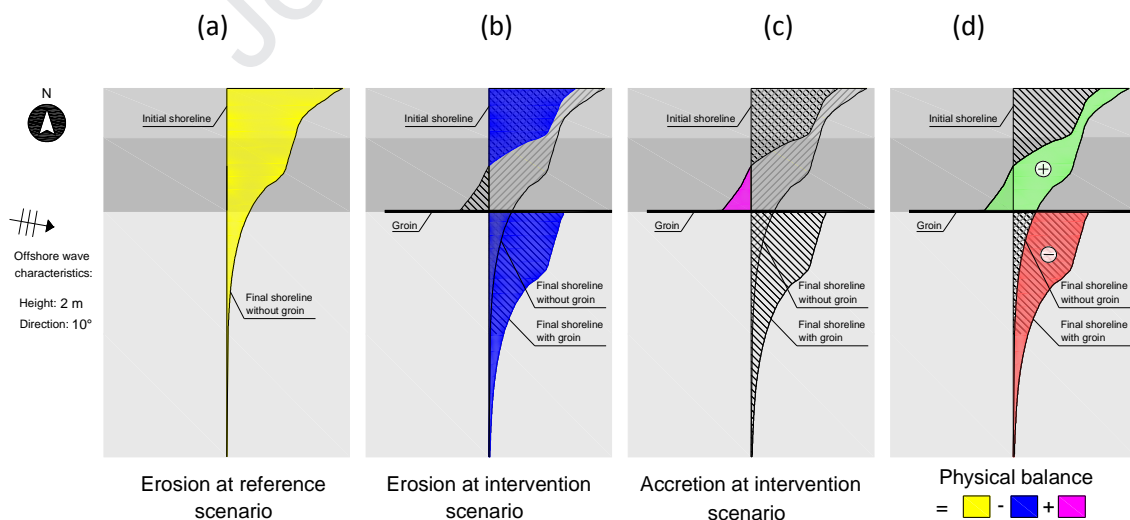
415 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

416 This section presents and discusses the main results obtained for the groin baseline scenario
 417 and the 10 alternative groin scenarios. Final remarks highlight the major outlines of the
 418 obtained results.

419 5.1 BASELINE SCENARIO

420 Baseline scenario shoreline evolution results show the positive updrift impact of the groin,
 421 with an accretion area of 2.4 ha (which partially protects the urbanized zone). However, in
 422 total, the baseline scenario presents higher erosion than the reference scenario, increasing
 423 land losses in around 4 ha, which represents a general negative physical balance. The physical
 424 balance is here understood as the difference between the erosion areas of the reference
 425 scenario and the groin scenario under analysis, added to the accretion area resulting from the
 426 groin scenario under analysis, after the 20 years of simulation (Figure 10).

427



429 Figure 10: Schematization of physical balance and corresponding benefits (reference and
 430 baseline scenarios, after 20 years).

431 The benefits (positive if territory is maintained or gained; negative if territory is lost) are
 432 obtained taking into account the land value and comparing the shoreline evolution of the two
 433 scenarios (Figure 10). In the reference scenario, after 20 years simulation, shoreline retreat in
 434 the most northerly section is 236 meters, which represents an average retreat rate of 11.8
 435 m/year (yellow area). This high erosion rate is due to the absence of sediment input from the
 436 northern boundary and an initial domain far from the equilibrium between wave climate and
 437 sediment input (see Figure 10a). In the case of a groin the northern boundary is also retreating,
 438 as there are no sediments coming into the domain. However, the boundary is near the
 439 influence of the deposition updrift the groin and, thus, the retreat rate is lower than in the
 440 reference scenario (blue area). Due to the barrier effect of the groin, however, part of the
 441 sediments deposited updrift are missing downdrift, where the erosion area increases
 442 significantly (blue area; Figure 10b). The accretion area resulting from the groin effect updrift
 443 the structure corresponds to the pink area (see Figure 10c). The positive benefits (green hatch)
 444 encompass the accretion area and the area that was not lost due to the groin. The negative
 445 benefits correspond to the losses that would not occur in the reference scenario (red hatch;
 446 Figure 10d). Despite the negative physical balance of the baseline scenario, this scenario is
 447 economically advantageous, reaching the break-even point after seven years. Break-even
 448 represents the time instant when the total benefits are equal the total costs of the coastal
 449 protection intervention ($BCR = 1$ and $NPV = 0$).

450 As previously referred, the 200 meter groin represents an initial cost of around 1.5 m€ and a
 451 total cost of about 3.6 m€ (considering maintenance costs) over the 20 years of simulation.
 452 However, the benefits resulting from the groin impact represent economic gains in the order
 453 of 12 m€, at the end of the 20 years of simulation (due to the protection of the valuable
 454 urbanized zones of the coastline). Thus, the groin baseline scenario net present value (NPV)
 455 over the 20-year time horizon was about 8 m€. Table 3 summarizes the total accreted and
 456 eroded areas after 20 years and presents the benefit-cost ratios (BCR) after 5, 10 and 20 years.

457 Table 3: Physical (after 20 years) and economic (after 5, 10 and 20 years) balance of the
 458 baseline scenario.

	Total areas after 20 years (ha)		Benefit-cost ratio		
	Accretion	Erosion	5 years	10 years	20 years
Baseline scenario (<i>BS</i>)	2.4	43.1	0.65	1.51	3.31

459 Despite the global negative physical impact of the groin baseline scenario (increased erosion
 460 area), it is possible to conclude that this is an economically adequate intervention to mitigate
 461 erosion impacts in the medium- to long-term perspective (after 7 years of simulation).

462 5.2 GROIN LENGTH

463 Three different groin lengths were tested and compared to the baseline scenario (*BS*, 200 m
 464 long): 100 m, 300 m and 400 m groin lengths, respectively, scenario i.1, i.2 and i.3 (Table 2).
 465 Groin dimensions are different in each scenario and, thus, XD-Coast was applied to estimate
 466 the material volume in each scenario and corresponding costs (Table 4). Although the
 467 structures extend to different depths, by simplification, the same design wave height was
 468 considered in all scenarios (resulting in the same type of block).

469 Table 4: Groin material volume and construction cost, for different length scenarios.

		Volume (m ³)	Total cost (€)
<i>i.1</i>	<i>L</i> = 100 m	34 600	975 627
<i>BS</i>	<i>L</i> = 200 m	58 357	1 462 293
<i>i.2</i>	<i>L</i> = 300 m	91 334	2 291 617
<i>i.3</i>	<i>L</i> = 400 m	130 756	3 263 128

470 Regardless of the length of the groin, shoreline evolution after 20 years results in a negative
 471 physical balance (Table 5). In the first scenario (*i.1*, *L* = 100 meters), sediment accumulation
 472 updrift of the groin results in a small accretion area (less than 0.1 ha). With increasing groin
 473 lengths, sediment accumulation updrift is larger, increasing protection effectiveness of the
 474 urbanized zone. Significant differences occur for groin lengths of 200 and 300 meters
 475 (accretion area increases by around 200%), while for groins of 300 and 400 meters the
 476 increasing impact is only 10%. Despite the urbanized zone protection, all the scenarios show
 477 generalized erosion at the northern border and downdrift of the groin. The total erosion area
 478 increases with the length of the structure, at an approximately linear rate of about 10 to 15%
 479 per 100 meters of groin length.

480 Knowing groins costs and the gained/lost areas, economic analysis of the different scenarios
 481 was performed (BCR results for 5, 10 and 20 years are shown in Table 5). At the end of the
 482 simulation (20 years), all intervention scenarios are economically viable, while noting that the
 483 baseline scenario presents the highest BCR.

484 Table 5: Physical and economic balance of the groin length scenarios.

		Total areas after 20 years (ha)		Benefit-cost ratio		
		Accretion	Erosion	5 years	10 years	20 years
<i>i.1</i>	<i>L</i> = 100 m	0.9	38.0	0.23	0.57	1.48
<i>BS</i>	<i>L</i> = 200 m	2.4	43.1	0.65	1.51	3.31
<i>i.2</i>	<i>L</i> = 300 m	7.5	47.4	0.47	1.28	2.96
<i>i.3</i>	<i>L</i> = 400 m	8.2	47.9	0.32	0.88	2.06

485

486 The smaller groin is least economically viable, albeit still presenting positive returns to
 487 investment. However, if the initial financial availability is low, the scenario corresponding to
 488 the smaller groin (100 meters) may be a more feasible intervention option (as construction
 489 and maintenance costs are lower). The two longer groins are less economically viable,
 490 however, if the main intervention goal is the beach area increasing along the urbanized
 491 extension of the coast, these options will be more effective.

492 Summarizing, each studied scenario simultaneously presents advantages and disadvantages
 493 and, thus, the best option for the length of the groin will depend on the main objective of the
 494 intervention. The baseline scenario (200 meters) is the solution that most quickly reaches
 495 break-even and represents, at the same time, the greatest negative physical balance. The
 496 100 m groin is the most effective solution in case few economic resources are available to
 497 perform coastal protection works. The groins with 300 and 400 meters results in larger
 498 accretion areas and, consequently, greater effectiveness in the protection of the urban
 499 waterfront, if this is the main goal of the intervention.

500 5.3 GROIN LOCATION

501 Four different groin location scenarios were tested and compared to the baseline scenario.
 502 The scenarios tested the position of the groin, located 500 and 1000 meters north and south of
 503 the groin position in the baseline scenario (resulting in scenario ii.1, ii.2, ii.3 and ii.4, Table 2,
 504 respectively at a distance *P* from the northern boundary of the domain of 1.5, 2.0, 3.0 and 3.5
 505 km). The cost of the groin was considered the same for all the studied scenarios, reason why
 506 the economic indexes are only affected by the erosion and accretion areas. Table 6
 507 summarizes the obtained results, showing the baseline scenario as the most economically
 508 viable albeit not resulting in largest accretion areas.

509 Table 6: Physical (after 20 years) and economic (after 5, 10 and 20 years) balance of the groin
 510 location scenarios.

		Total areas after 20 years (ha)		Benefit-cost ratio		
		Accretion	Erosion	5 years	10 years	20 years
<i>ii.1</i>	$P = 1.5$ km	1.8	40.8	-0.65	-1.09	-0.82
<i>ii.2</i>	$P = 2.0$ km	2.0	42.1	-0.20	0.01	1.20
<i>BS</i>	$P = 2.5$ km	2.4	43.2	0.65	1.51	3.31
<i>ii.3</i>	$P = 3.0$ km	3.0	44.2	0.26	0.85	2.18
<i>ii.4</i>	$P = 3.5$ km	3.8	45.4	0.10	0.47	1.45

511 In the scenarios where the groin location is at the southern positions, the largest accretion
 512 areas will occur in less valuable zones of the domain. On the other hand, if the groin is located
 513 in the northern positions, erosion will occur in the most valuable zones. Thus, considering
 514 scenario *ii.1* (groin located 1.5 km far from the northern border), the solution is not
 515 economically viable in the 20 years simulation. However, this is the scenario that presents
 516 better physical results. Scenario *ii.2* is economically viable after 19 years of simulation and
 517 corresponds to the second best physical balance scenario. The scenarios where the groin
 518 position is located to the south of the groin of the baseline scenario (*ii.3* and *ii.4*), are
 519 economically efficient after 20 years of simulation (although the BCR values are lower than
 520 those obtained in the baseline scenario). However, the erosion areas are larger than those
 521 obtained for the baseline scenario (erosion area increases with increasing distance from the
 522 groin to the northern border of the domain).

523 In sum, the most adequate location for the groin corresponds to the baseline scenario, where
 524 the groin is located at the downdrift limit of the most valuable zone. However, concerning the
 525 physical evaluation of the interventions, this is not the most advantageous scenario, as the
 526 total erosion area after 20 years of simulation increases with increasing distance from the
 527 groin to the northern border of the studied area. If the decision criteria for intervention is to
 528 avoid generalized erosion, the preferred location of the structure should be as far from the
 529 northern border as possible (although decreasing the accretion areas at the urbanized zone
 530 and consequently, obtaining lower protection to this zone).

531 **5.4 NUMBER OF GROINS**

532 Three different groin field scenarios were considered, always keeping the groin adopted in the
 533 baseline scenario: scenario iii.1, adding a groin with the same characteristics, located 500
 534 meters to the north; scenario iii.2, adding a new groin with the same characteristics, located
 535 1000 meters at north; and finally, scenario iii.3 considering three structures, combining the
 536 locations of the two previous scenarios. The number of groins in each scenario has a direct
 537 influence on the total construction and maintenance costs along the 20 years of simulation
 538 (Table 7).

539 Table 7: Groins material volume and construction cost, for different groin field scenarios.

		Volume (m ³)	Total cost (€)
<i>BS</i>	1 groin	58 357	1 462 293
<i>iii.1 e iii.2</i>	2 groins	116 715	2 924 586
<i>iii.3</i>	3 groins	175 072	4 386 879

540 Table 8 shows greater accretion and erosion areas for the groin field scenarios, when
 541 compared to the baseline scenario. In the scenario iii.1, worst physical results were verified
 542 than in the baseline scenario, but scenarios iii.2 and iii.3 present a less negative physical
 543 balance (about 1 ha difference). The three groins scenario is the one that results in less losses
 544 of territory after the 20 years of simulation, representing a negative physical balance of about
 545 3.3 ha.

546 Table 8: Physical (after 20 years) and economic (after 5, 10 and 20 years) balance of the groin
 547 field scenarios.

		Total areas after 20 years (ha)		Benefit-cost ratio		
		Accretion	Erosion	5 years	10 years	20 years
<i>BS</i>	1 groin	2.4	43.2	0.65	1.51	3.31
<i>iii.1</i>	2 groins spaced by 500 m	3.8	44.7	0.32	0.87	2.01
<i>iii.2</i>	2 groins spaced by 1000 m	3.6	43.5	0.18	0.63	1.79
<i>iii.3</i>	3 groins spaced by 500 m	3.4	43.3	0.16	0.47	1.24

548 Although the largest accretion areas are associated with the groin field scenarios, the scenario
 549 with the highest BCR value corresponds to the baseline scenario. The three groins scenario

550 presents the worst economic results, allowing to conclude that the increased investment
 551 associated with the construction and maintenance of the three groins, despite reaching break-
 552 even after 17 years, is not as economically viable as the baseline scenario.

553 In summary, the groin field scenarios (with two or three groins) do not provide economic
 554 benefits as compare to the baseline, because the benefits from the not eroded areas are not
 555 compensated by the increased construction and maintenance costs of the additional groins.
 556 However, all analyzed scenarios are economically adequate within the considered time horizon
 557 and the three groins field scenario corresponds to smaller losses of territory.

558 5.5 FINAL REMARKS

559 Considering all the assumptions adopted in the presented case study, several groin scenarios
 560 to mitigate coastal erosion were evaluated. A reference scenario was analyzed, corresponding
 561 to the “do-nothing” scenario, which would represent the natural shoreline evolution without
 562 coastal protection interventions. To allow the comparison between tested scenarios, a
 563 baseline scenario with a groin of 200 meters, was also defined. In turn, 10 other scenarios
 564 were defined and assessed, varying lengths, location and number of groins.

565 Table 9 summarizes the physical and economic results of all the scenarios: 1) 20 years physical
 566 balance, that is, the area lost as compared to the reference scenario (negative represents
 567 erosion); 2) net present value after 20 years; 3) initial and total investment costs; and 4) break-
 568 even points.

569 Table 9: Physical and economic summary results (after 20 years), for the analyzed groin
 570 scenarios.

Scenario		Physical balance (ha)	NPV _{20 yr} (€)	Costs		Break-even ^{**} (years)
				Initial (€)	Total* (€)	
<i>BS</i>	Figure 6	-4.2	8 316 103	1 462 293	3 602 359	7
<i>i.1</i>	<i>L</i> = 100 m	-1.4	1 263 061	975 627	2 615 491	15
<i>i.2</i>	<i>L</i> = 300 m	-3.4	11 612 679	2 291 617	5 925 785	9
<i>i.3</i>	<i>L</i> = 400 m	-3.1	9 150 555	3 263 128	8 670 313	11
<i>ii.1</i>	<i>P</i> = 1.5 km	-2.5	-6 556 228			-
<i>ii.2</i>	<i>P</i> = 2.0 km	-3.5	714 226	1 462 293	3 602 359	19
<i>ii.3</i>	<i>P</i> = 3.0 km	-4.7	4 259 681			11
<i>ii.4</i>	<i>P</i> = 3.5 km	-5.1	1 624 686			16

iii.1	2 groins spaced by 500 m	-4.3	7 291 156	2 924 586	7 204 718	11
iii.2	2 groins spaced by 1000 m	-3.4	5 678 216			13
iii.3	3 groins spaced by 500 m	-3.3	2 560 639	4 386 879	10 807 077	17

571 *Values updated for initial simulation time, according to the discount rate (r).

572 ** The **break-even** instant represents the instant, in the simulation time, when the investment balance is reached,
573 that is, when the total benefits equal the total costs of the intervention (BCR = 1 and NPV = 0).

574 Table 9 shows that: 1) all scenarios result in a negative physical balance, with the 100 meter
575 groin scenario showing the best global results at the physical level; 2) the largest net present
576 value after 20 years of simulation was obtained for the 300 meters groin scenario; 3) lower
577 initial and total investment costs are associated with the shorter groin (100 meters); and 4) the
578 scenario that most quickly reaches break-even is the baseline scenario (groin with 200 meters,
579 located at the south border of the urbanized zone).

580 Although the implementation of the groin induces greater losses of territory than that
581 obtained in the reference scenario (after the 20 years of simulation), it provides economic
582 benefits. Looking at the NPV value (Table 9) and based on the economic losses verified in the
583 reference scenario (around 12 m€), after the 20 years of simulation almost all the economic
584 losses can be avoided by the groin construction (11.6 m€ in the scenario i.2).

585 Results also show that it is difficult to combine, in the same intervention scenario, the best
586 option taking into account both physical and economic factors. Thus, groin scenario definition
587 depends on the main goals of the intervention, considering the urban waterfront extension to
588 protect, the land values, the initial investment, the generalized erosion of the study area, the
589 time required to reach the return to investment, the general physical balance or net present
590 value, etc. All obtained cost-benefit results are dependent on defined territory values, which
591 encompass economic, environmental, social and cultural aspects that may vary largely
592 between study locations and, hence, a sensitivity analysis with respect to these values is
593 recommended.

594 6. CONCLUSIONS

595 A well-defined and sequential cost-benefit analysis methodology, supported by existent
596 numerical models to evaluate shoreline evolution and coastal structures design, was applied in
597 an integrated way to a hypothetical case study. The main purpose of this study was to present
598 the proposed approach by assessing the effectiveness of different groin scenarios to mitigate

599 coastal erosion issues. The integrated methodology allowed to define, evaluate and discuss
600 different scenarios, based on their physical and economic performance.

601 The proposed methodology considers that costs encompasses the investment and
602 maintenance costs and that benefits are based on not eroded or accreted areas resulting from
603 shoreline evolution. A reference scenario corresponding to the “do-nothing” scenario was
604 defined, which represents the natural shoreline evolution without any intervention. This
605 scenario resulted in a significant loss of territory (around 37 ha) and large economic losses
606 (above 12 m€). To compare different groin intervention scenarios, a baseline scenario with a
607 200-meter groin was also defined. Starting from this baseline scenario, 10 alternative groin
608 scenarios were defined, tested and analyzed.

609 The groin baseline scenario results showed that with an initial cost of around 1.5 m€ (which
610 represents a total cost of about 3.6 m€, when including maintenance costs), it is possible to
611 obtain economic returns of about 11.9 m€, after 20 years. The net present value of this
612 scenario is around 8 m€ and the break-even point was reached after 7 years. However, this
613 solution results in a negative physical impact (additional 4 ha of land loss, as compared to the
614 reference scenario). It should be noticed that groins do not solve the sediment deficit and,
615 hence, to mitigate erosion the sediment deficit needs to be balanced. Nevertheless, the
616 presented results show that it is possible to intervene with benefits by transferring the erosion
617 from a more valuable area to a less valuable area. Lengths, locations and number of groins
618 were analyzed, being possible to conclude that the preferable scenario will depend on the
619 main goal of the intervention (e.g. lower cost, accretion areas or quicker economic return). The
620 previous was evident when discussing the groin length scenarios. Regarding groin location, the
621 baseline scenario is economically most advantageous, but physically not the best solution. It
622 was verified that the groin field scenarios do not provide benefits as compared to the baseline
623 scenario as the benefits from the gained areas are not compensated by the increased groin
624 investment and maintenance costs. Therefore, the definition of the intervention scenario is
625 complex, because sometimes the best physical solutions are associated with higher costs and
626 economically advantageous solutions lead to higher land losses. However, the evaluation of
627 the characteristics variation that defines the baseline scenario allowed to understand how the
628 physical and economic performances can be improved, and shows that, with the same
629 investment, significant improvements in the physical and economic performance of the
630 adopted intervention scenarios can be achieved.

631 Worldwide, coasts present increasing erosion trends, regardless of the investments made. The
632 preferred intervention is, generally, the solution that leads to least physical impacts and,
633 simultaneously, largest economic benefits. In this process, the well-defined, sequential and
634 integrated cost-benefit approach presented in this study can be very useful and important to
635 help entities in coastal management, as it allows for: i) the easy definition and comparison of
636 scenarios, ii) the performance of sensitivity analyses, and iii) the integrated assessment of
637 several coastal defense scenarios from a physical and economic perspective. This approach
638 allows to easily define and evaluate scenarios as well as test sensitivity to different parameter
639 values – making it applicable to other study areas with similar coastal characteristics.
640 Moreover, albeit not considered in the presented case study, the proposed method allows
641 defining different land values in the landward direction and the land value can be updated
642 over time, considering the socio-economic development of the coastal zone over the
643 simulation time horizon. Those are important aspects to test, with implications for the
644 decision-making process results.

645 As a final note, it must be noted that the values attributed to the different territories should
646 include, simultaneously, all social, environmental and economic values. Also, the results
647 obtained for this case study are dependent on the assumptions related to the shoreline
648 evolution model and the structure design model, as well as the conditions of the considered
649 spatial domain, namely, wave climate, topo-bathymetry data and land values. The potential
650 application of the results from the presented hypothetical case study to real world situations
651 is, naturally, limited by the specific conditions of each situation. However, the developed
652 approach allows for easy and quick parametrization, calibration and sensitivity analysis to
653 those conditions, allowing the approach to be easily applied to other study areas with similar
654 coastal characteristics. Thus, the proposed methodology has the potential to contribute to a
655 well-supported decision-making process, aiding in integrated coastal engineering,
656 management and planning.

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Highlights

1. An innovative integrated cost-benefit methodology and software application is developed and applied to analyze the impact of coastal defense interventions;
2. Three stages encompassed in the integrated methodology: shoreline evolution in a medium-term perspective; coastal structures pre-design; and finally, the cost-benefit assessment;
3. Groins performance was analyzed by assessing the effectiveness of different scenarios, in a physical and economic point of view;
4. Integrated global assessment of coastal defense interventions, discussing at the same time the best physical and economical solutions;
5. Worldwide coasts present increasing erosion trends, regardless the investment made, and when an intervention is performed, the solution simultaneously with less physical impact and economically more attractive performance is sought.

Conflict of Interest and Authorship Conformation Form

Please check the following as appropriate:

- X All authors have participated in (a) conception and design, or analysis and interpretation of the data; (b) drafting the article or revising it critically for important intellectual content; and (c) approval of the final version.
- X This manuscript has not been submitted to, nor is under review at, another journal or other publishing venue.
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