

Morpho-sedimentary dynamics of a micro-tidal mixed sand and gravel beach, Playa Granada, southern Spain

Rafael J. Bergillos^a, Miguel Ortega-Sánchez^a, Gerd Masselink^b, Miguel A. Losada^a

^a*Andalusian Institute for Earth System Research, University of Granada, Avda. del Mediterráneo, s/n, 18006, Granada, Spain*

^b*School of Marine Science and Engineering, Plymouth University, PL4 8AA, Drake Circus, Plymouth, UK*

Abstract

This paper addresses the changes in the morphology and sedimentology of a micro-tidal mixed sand and gravel beach (Playa Granada, southern Spain) forced by wave and water-level variations, and human intervention through nourishment. Monthly and storm event-driven beach surveys, consisting of topographical measurements and sediment sampling in two selected areas, were carried out over a one-year period. Three prevailing sediment fractions (sand, fine gravel and coarse gravel) and two end-member morphological states of the upper beach profile (convex with multiple berms and concave with a single storm berm) were identified. Between them, several transitional profiles were formed, characterized by developing berms that progressively overlapped, generating sediment variability both across the beach profile and with depth. The results indicate that the total run-up (including water-level) reached during an event represents a more accurate threshold for differentiating between erosional and depositional conditions than wave height. They also suggest that mixed sand and gravel beaches recover faster from storm erosion than sandy beaches. The long-term benefit of the artificial nourishment that took place at the end of the

*Corresponding author.
E-mail address: rbergillos@ugr.es (R.J. Bergillos)

survey period was very limited and this is attributed to the too fine sediment used for the nourishment and its placement too high on the beach. Clearly, nourishment interventions must take into account the natural sediment distribution and the profile shape to avoid rapid losses of the nourished sediment.

Keywords: Mixed sand and gravel beach, field measurements, beach profile, total run-up, artificial nourishment

1. Introduction

According to Jennings and Shulmeister (2002), two types of mixed sand/gravel beaches can be differentiated: (1) composite beaches, with a gravel high tide beach and a sandy low tide terrace; and (2) mixed sand and gravel beaches (MSGBs), with sand and gravel fractions mixed both cross-shore and at depth. Such beaches are globally less common than sandy beaches, but they are widespread in certain regions, such as previously (para-)glaciated areas (e.g., Ireland, UK, Canada) (Clemmensen et al., 2016) and coastlines with steep hinterlands (e.g., Mediterranean, New Zealand). The composite beach type, where the gravel and sand have been sorted by cross-shore processes, requires a tide range and is more common in meso- and macrotidal regions, whereas MSGBs are more common in micro-tidal coastal settings.

MSGBs are also found when replenishment schemes use a mixture of sand and gravel, often from the shelf, or when gravels are used to protect sandy beaches (López de San Román-Blanco, 2004). Although MSGBs have received increasing attention in recent years, numerous studies highlighted the discrepancy between the advances made for sandy beaches and the lack of similar progress for pure gravel and mixed sand/gravel beaches (Mason and Coates, 2001; Jennings and Shulmeister, 2002; Pontee et al., 2004; Buscombe and Maselink, 2006; López de San Román-Blanco et al., 2006; Horn and Walton, 2007). Foti and Blondeaux (1995) concluded that sediment transport processes and

22 morphological evolution on MSGBs are different and more complex than on
23 sandy and pure gravel beaches.

24 The identification and characterization of the morphodynamic states of MSGB
25 profiles are important for the correct management of these environments. Bus-
26 combe and Masselink (2006) introduced the concept of *morpho-sedimentary*
27 *dynamics* as the mutual interactions of morphology, hydro-hydraulics and sedi-
28 ment properties, highlighting that it is the recommended conceptual framework
29 within which to organise further research for gravel environments. This analysis
30 is also relevant for the design of artificial nourishment to combat beach erosion
31 (Li et al., 2006).

32 Previous studies on MSGBs focused on specific aspects: Horn and Walton
33 (2007) described the sediment distribution before, during and after a nourish-
34 ment program along a section of an MSGB and analysed the effects of sediment
35 recharge with different sedimentary properties. Eikaas and Hemmingsen (2006)
36 performed a field study that focused on some sediment properties of an MSGB,
37 but did not address the morphological characteristics of the beach profile. Ivamy
38 and Kench (2006) and Bramato et al. (2012) analysed the recovery of MSGBs
39 after storms, but did not study the sedimentological aspects.

40 Hence, neither the morphological evolution of the beach as a result of wave
41 and water-level forcing, nor its characteristic morpho-sedimentary states have
42 been studied in depth for MSGBs. In addition, the contribution of wave run-
43 up, astronomical tide and storm surge to the total run-up, and their roles in
44 the beach response has not been explored in detail on micro-tidal coasts. These
45 facts, along with the presence of MSGBs on many worldwide coasts, the frequent
46 use of gravel to protect eroded sandy beaches (Van Wellen et al., 2000; Mason
47 and Coates, 2001) and the expected sea-level rise in the coming years attest to
48 the importance of this study.

49 The main objective of the article is to characterize the morphological and
50 sedimentary dynamics of an MSGB, focusing on the contribution of wave run-up,
51 storm surge and astronomical tide to natural beach response, as well as its be-
52 havior after artificial nourishment. To meet this objective, the evolution of wave
53 and wind conditions and total run-up is analysed; the morphological and sedi-
54 mentary characteristics of the beach are detailed; typical morpho-sedimentary
55 states are identified; and the profile response before, during and after artificial
56 replenishment is investigated. All morphological variability is related to the
57 wave and water-level forcing.

58 **2. Study site**

59 Playa Granada is a 3-km-long micro-tidal MSGB located on the southern
60 coast of the Iberian Peninsula that faces the Alborán Sea (Figure 1a). The
61 beach corresponds to the central stretch of coast of the Guadalfeo deltaic system
62 (Bergillos et al., 2015b) and is bounded to the west by the Guadalfeo River
63 mouth and to the east by *Punta del Santo*, a former location of the river mouth
64 (Figure 1b).

65 The Andalusian littoral of the Alborán Sea is characterized by the presence
66 of high mountainous relief and short fluvial streams. The major contribution of
67 sediments to the beach is provided by the Guadalfeo River. Its basin has an area
68 of 1252 km², includes the highest peaks on the Iberian Peninsula (approximately
69 3400 m.a.s.l.), and is fed by one of the most high hydrological energy systems
70 along the Spanish Mediterranean coast (Jabaloy-Sánchez et al., 2014). The
71 topographic gradients lead to a wide range of sediment sizes in the Guadalfeo
72 river sediment load (Millares et al., 2014).

73 Consequently, the particle size distribution in Playa Granada is particularly
74 complex, with varying proportions of sand and gravel (Bergillos et al., 2015a).

75 This stretch of beach exhibits a broader range of sediment sizes (Losada et al.,
76 2011) and has presented a higher coastline retreat in recent years (Félix et al.,
77 2012) than both western and eastern stretches, known as Salobreña and Poniente
78 Beach, respectively.

79 The climate at the study site exhibits a significant contrast between sum-
80 mer and winter. The region is subjected to the frequent passage of extrat-
81 ropical Atlantic and Mediterranean storms, which generate wind waves under
82 limited fetch conditions (approximately 300 km) with average wind speeds of
83 18 to 22 m/s (Ortega-Sánchez et al., 2008). The prevailing wave directions are
84 west-southwest and east-southeast (bimodal), whereas the 50%, 90% and 99%
85 exceedance significant wave heights in deep water are 0.5 m, 1.2 m and 2.1 m,
86 respectively.

87 **3. Methodology**

88 *3.1. Data*

89 *3.1.1. Maritime data*

90 One year of hourly hindcasted data, corresponding to WANA point number
91 2041080 (Figure 1a), was used for driving the wave-induced coastal morpholog-
92 ical changes. The WANA networks wind fields are obtained through the High
93 Resolution Limited Area Model (Cats and Wolters, 1996) and the wave fields
94 are computed through the WAM model (Booij et al., 1999), on the basis of the
95 wind field data (López et al., 2012). The following variables were extracted
96 from these hindcasted data: deep-water significant wave height (H_0), spectral
97 peak period (T_p), deep-water wave direction (θ_0), wind velocity (V_w) and wind
98 direction (θ_w). Furthermore, the astronomical tide measured by a gauge located
99 in the Motril Port was used to represent the tidal forcing. Both wave and tide
100 data were provided by *Puertos del Estado*.

101 *3.1.2. Field surveys*

102 Field surveys were performed from October 2013 to September 2014 (here-
 103 after referred to as the study period). To analyse the beach morphological
 104 evolution, two study areas within the study site were selected (Figure 2) to
 105 ensure the results were representative for entire beach section.

106 Monthly periodic field surveys were performed during the study period, con-
 107 sisting of topographic and sediment sizes measurements of the beach profile. In
 108 addition, several specific surveys were carried out before and after two signifi-
 109 cant storms (December 2013 and March 2014), and before, during and after the
 110 artificial replenishment of the beach performed in June 2014 (Table 1). Each
 111 survey was carried out under low tide conditions and the measurements were
 112 referenced to the mean low water spring level (MLWS) to avoid negative con-
 113 tributions of the astronomical tide to the total run-up. The two major storms
 114 that occurred during the study period were identified by means of the peaks
 115 over threshold (POT) method (Goda, 2010) considering $H_T = 3.1$ m ($H_{99.9\%}$)
 116 and storm durations lasting longer than 6 hours.

No. Survey	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Date	25/10	22/11	20/12	27/12	10/1	21/1	27/2	10/3	17/3
Type of Survey	P	P	P	S	S	P	P	S	S
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
31/3	25/4	19/5	2/6	13/6	17/6	25/6	24/7	21/8	19/9
P	P	P	S	S	S	P	P	P	P

Table 1: Timeline of the periodic (P) and specific (S) surveys carried out during the study period.

117 The topography was recorded with a highly accurate DGPS (Javad Maxor)
 118 with no more than 2 cm of both horizontal and vertical instrument errors.
 119 Previously, the geodesic coordinates of the vertex *105582 Punta del Santo* were
 120 moved to the positions of the GPS-base in the study areas. Ten profiles were
 121 measured at each study area to obtain an alongshore-averaged profile to reduce
 122 the uncertainty associated with measurement errors and alongshore variability
 123 (Figure 2). Sediment samples, both at the surface and at depth (0-30 cm), were

124 taken at three points of each profile (Figure 2) to capture the spatial variability
125 in the sediment distribution. Sieve analyses of the sampled sediments in each
126 study area were performed following the basic methods of Folk (1980) with grain
127 size nomenclature according to Wentworth (1922).

128 *3.1.3. Bathymetry*

129 A high-resolution multibeam bathymetric survey was carried out in October
130 2013 (beginning of the study period) at the study site. The data were acquired
131 using DGPS navigation referring to the WGS-84 ellipsoid. Accurate navigation
132 and real-time pitch, roll, and heave were corrected. The multibeam data were
133 also corrected for the water column velocity. These bathymetric data were used
134 as the bottom boundary condition for the wave propagation model (Section 3.2).

135 *3.2. Wave propagation model*

136 The WAVE module of the Delft3D model (Lesser et al., 2004; Lesser, 2009),
137 which is based on the spectral wave model SWAN (Holthuijsen et al., 1993), was
138 applied (considering the WANA point data) to estimate inshore wave conditions.
139 Simulated wave heights were obtained at points with depth of 8 m (H_{8m}) to avoid
140 the influence of wave breaking and these inshore wave conditions were related to
141 the beach response. The model domain consisted of two different grids, shown
142 in Figure 1c. The first grid is a coarse curvilinear 82x82 - cell grid covering
143 the entire Playa Granada region, with cell sizes that decrease with depth from
144 88x60 to 48x35 m. The second grid is a nested grid with 82 and 144 cells in
145 the alongshore and cross-shore directions, respectively, and cell sizes of about
146 25x14 m. This model was calibrated and successfully validated for the study
147 site through comparison with field data by Bergillos et al. (2016).

148 *3.3. Total run-up and sediment mobility formulations*

149 *3.3.1. Total run-up*

150 The run-up measured on the beach by means of the DGPS (based on ob-
151 servations of run-up mark) was compared with estimates of the total run-up,
152 obtained as the sum of astronomical tide, storm surge (wind set-up and inverse
153 barometric effect) and wave run-up. The wind set-up was calculated as fol-
154 lows: $\Delta\eta_{\text{wind}} = \tau_{\text{wind}}/\rho gh_0 \cdot \Delta x$ (Bowden, 1983), where the depth of the wave
155 base level is represented by $h_0 = L_0/4$, ΔX is the wave fetch from the centre
156 of the low-pressure system to the coast (estimated through isobar maps) and
157 the tangential wind stress is obtained from $\tau_{\text{wind}} = \rho_a U_*^2$, where ρ_a is the air
158 density and U_* is the friction velocity. The barometric set-up was obtained
159 from $\Delta\eta_{\text{bar}} = \Delta P_a/\rho g$ (Dean and Dalrymple, 2002), where ΔP_a represents
160 the atmospheric pressure variation relative to the long-term average pressure
161 at Motril Port. Finally, the wave run-up was calculated through the equation
162 $\Delta\eta_{\text{wave}} = 0.36 g^{0.5} H_{8,0}^{0.5} T_p \tan \beta$ (Nielsen and Hanslow, 1991), where $\tan \beta$ is
163 the intertidal slope and $H_{8,0}$ is the modelled wave height at 8 m water depth
164 (H_{8m}) de-shoaled to deep water using linear theory and assuming parallel bot-
165 tom contours. This parameter allows accounting for the alongshore variability
166 of the inshore wave height and is consistent with the run-up expression which
167 requires deep-water wave height. This formulation for total run-up was success-
168 fully used and compared with high resolution images from a video camera by
169 Bramato et al. (2012) deployed on another nearby mixed sand and gravel beach
170 along the Mediterranean Spanish coast.

171 *3.3.2. Sediment mobility*

172 Sunamura and Takeda (1984) derived the following relationship to determine
173 the accretion/erosion states of a beach:

$$\frac{H_{s,0}}{L_0} = C (\tan \bar{\beta})^{-0.27} \left(\frac{D}{L_0} \right)^{0.67} \quad (1)$$

174 where $H_{s,0}/L_0$ is the deep-water wave steepness, L_0 is the deep-water wave
 175 length, $C = 18$ is an empirical constant, D is the grain size and $\tan \bar{\beta}$ is the
 176 average nearshore bottom slope to a water depth of 20 m. According to Suna-
 177 mura and Takeda (1984), the beach erodes (accretes) when the left-hand side of
 178 the equation is greater (smaller) than the right-hand side. The difference (S_r)
 179 between both sides of the equation was calculated considering the prevailing sed-
 180 iment sizes measured in Playa Granada for each sea state and the results were
 181 related with the beach evolution. This equation, deduced for sandy beaches,
 182 was tested in the study site to analyse the role of the different fractions and to
 183 discuss its applicability to MSGBs.

184 4. Results

185 4.1. Wave and wind conditions

186 Figure 3 depicts the evolution of the wave and wind conditions during the
 187 study period. The deep-water significant wave height and spectral peak period
 188 were generally $H_0 < 1$ m (73% of the time) and $T_p < 6$ s (76% of the time),
 189 indicating that the beach predominantly experienced low energy waves. This
 190 agrees with the generally calm wave climate of this part of the Mediterranean
 191 Spanish coast (Ortega-Sánchez et al., 2014). The predominant deep-water wave
 192 directions were west-southwest and east-southeast, and the maximum T_p was
 193 12 s and associated with easterly waves (Figure 3). This relatively high value
 194 for T_p (for the Mediterranean) has been exceeded 0.24% of the time since 1958.
 195 The prevailing wind velocity was less than 10 m/s with incoming directions
 196 from the east-southeast and west-southwest. The latter was more frequent and

197 was generally associated with higher velocities. The wind direction was closely
198 related to the wave direction.

199 Applying the POT method, two storms occurred that had maximum H_0 of
200 4.6 m and 4 m, and maximum H_{8m} of 3.6 m and 3.2 m in study area 1 and
201 H_{8m} of 3.8 m and 3.3 m in study area 2. Both storms were associated with
202 westerly waves ($\theta_0 \sim 240^\circ$), with maximum T_p of 9.6 s and 8.8 s (Figure 3).
203 The maximum V_w during storms 1 and 2 was 19.4 m/s and the θ_w was ~ 260
204 $^\circ$. Both two storm events had a very high energy content compared to other
205 storms that occurred in the Alborán Sea. Specifically, storm 1 was the third
206 most severe since 1958 to the end of the study period, based on the WANA
207 2041080 data.

208 4.2. Water-level conditions: contributions to the total run-up

209 Figure 4a shows the time series of the maximum daily total run-up (refer-
210 enced to the MLWS) in study area 1 estimated using the formulations described
211 in Section 3.3.1; the relative contributions of the different contributors (astro-
212 nomical tide, storm surge and wave run-up) to the total run-up are depicted in
213 Figure 4b. The results for study area 2 were very similar (differences less than
214 5%), and are not shown. Comparison of the estimated maximum run-up values
215 with those observed during 21 field measurements (19 during field surveys and
216 2 during storms) yielded high correlation (differences less than 9%), inspiring
217 confidence in the estimated total run-up time series.

218 The measured tidal ranges during storms 1 and 2 were 0.2 m and 0.44 m,
219 respectively, and were considerably less than the maximum tide range of 0.6 m
220 (Figure 4a). This reinforces that the contribution of the astronomical tide to
221 the total run-up under high-energy conditions is relatively minor, representing
222 less than 21% for both storms (Figure 4b). In addition to wave run-up, storm
223 surge is also a significant contributor to the total run-up, contributing more

224 than 30% during both storms (Figure 4b). The contribution of wave run-up
 225 reached values of almost 55% and 70% after storms 1 and 2 (recovery phases),
 226 i.e., between surveys 4-5 and 8-9, respectively (Figure 4b).

227 Waves are frequently considered as the main driver of changes in the profile
 228 of micro-tidal beaches. However, Figure 4b indicates that storm surge resulting
 229 from low atmospheric pressure and wind stress can also be important contrib-
 230 utors to the total elevation under storm conditions and, consequently, to the
 231 erosion of the beach. If wind velocities are high enough ($V_w \sim 15$ m/s) and
 232 pressure gradients are negative, the resulting large storm surge enables waves
 233 to reach the upper parts of the beach profile (backshore), as shown in Figure
 234 4a.

235 4.3. Morphological response of the upper profile

236 A total of 190 upper profiles (beach profile above the MLWS level) were
 237 measured during the study period in each study area: 130 before the artificial
 238 replenishment (natural profile) and 60 both during the nourishment and after-
 239 wards (replenished). Table 2 shows that the beach width (cross-shore distance
 240 between the MLWS level and the nearest building) and unit volume (calculated
 241 by the trapezoidal rule) of the beach typically increases under low energy con-
 242 ditions (LE) and decreases after storms (S). The slope of the natural profile,
 243 defined by the ratio between the height of beach crest and the beach width, was
 244 0.05 – 0.069 and 0.056 – 0.073 in study areas 1 and 2, respectively.

		Study area 1	Study area 2
Natural profiles	Slope	0.05 (LE) – 0.069 (S)	0.056 (LE) – 0.073 (S)
	Beach width (m)	24.74 (S) – 35 (LE)	39.5 (S) – 50 (LE)
	Unit volume (m ²)	27 (S) – 41.40 (LE)	51.19 (S) – 73.56 (LE)
Replenished profiles	Slope	0.057 – 0.059	0.05 – 0.053
	Beach width (m)	33.22 – 34.72	47 – 50
	Unit volume (m ²)	39.17 – 45.38	77.88 – 87.69

Table 2: Morphological characteristics of the natural and replenished profiles in the study areas. LE: low energy conditions, S: storms.

245 Figure 5 depicts both the maximum wave height and total run-up (including

246 astronomical tide, storm surge and wave run-up) before each survey along with
247 the sediment volume of the upper profile in both study areas (in m^3 per unit m
248 beach length per day, or m^2/day). It is observed that beach erosion/accretion
249 not only depends on wave height, but on the sum of the three components
250 that contribute to the total run-up. Actually, a relationship between the maxi-
251 mum total run-up between surveys and the beach response is clearly observed,
252 specially after the two storms (surveys 4 and 8).

253 The differences between the bed elevation in each survey and the average
254 profile in study area 1 are also shown in Figure 5 (lower panel). During storms 1
255 and 2, the erosion rates in study area 1 were 2.06 and 1.09 m^2/day , respectively;
256 whereas they were 3.2 and 1.76 m^2/day in study area 2. If a beach overwashes,
257 erosion tends to be less, because the wave energy is dissipated across the back-
258 shore and sediment is retained within the beach in the form of overwash deposit
259 (Matias et al., 2013, 2015). This occurred in both study areas during storms, as
260 the entire beach was overwashed. On the other hand, the recovery rates after
261 the storm 1 and 2 were at least 0.79 and 0.51 m^2/day in study area 1, and 1.76
262 and 0.94 in study area 2, respectively. It is important to highlight that these
263 values are average rates between surveys, so the maximum erosion/accretion
264 rates were most likely higher.

265 The profiles of both study areas were flattened due to the artificial nour-
266 ishment carried out in June 2014. It consisted of an input of 8.4 m^3/m and
267 14 m^3/m in study areas 1 and 2 over beach lengths equal to 500 and 300 m,
268 respectively. The slope of the replenished profiles was slightly milder than those
269 of the pre-nourished beach, but higher than the slope under low energy condi-
270 tions (Table 2). The sediment volume of the replenished profiles was greater
271 than that of most natural profiles, although the width was similar to those of
272 the natural profiles under low energy conditions (Table 2).

273 Figure 6 shows the evolution of the upper profile in study area 1 since the
274 artificial replenishment to the end of the study period. Only one month after the
275 artificial replenishment, and under prevailing low energy conditions and total
276 run-up lower than 1.4 m until survey 17 (Figures 3 and 4a), the unit volume
277 loss was about 2.6 m^2 in study area 1 and 3.3 m^2 in study area 2. Berms started
278 to appear due to the total run-up attained during this period (Figures 5 and 6).

279 Between surveys 17 and 18, the profile shape also changed significantly in
280 both study areas, but the variation was less between surveys 18 and 19 (Figures
281 5 and 6), most likely due to the smaller magnitude of the forcing agents and
282 the total run-up (Figures 3 and 4a). The attenuation of the system response
283 after the discharge of sediments could be another cause of this lower variation.
284 However, not only wave processes, but also the gusts of wind after the nourish-
285 ment project could contribute to the rapid loss of fine sediments, considering
286 that wind velocities reached maximum values of 14.5 m/s and 13.5 m/s before
287 surveys 17 and 18, respectively (Figure 3).

288 Altogether, the beach width in study areas 1 and 2 decreased by approxi-
289 mately 4% and 6% in the months after the nourishment, respectively, whereas
290 the unit volume loss was $6.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$ in study area 1 and $9.8 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}$ in study area
291 2. Furthermore, despite the artificial replenishment, the unit volumes measured
292 in study areas 1 and 2 in September 2014 (39.16 m^2 and 77.8 m^2) were similar
293 to those measured in October 2013 (38.74 m^2 and 73.03 m^2), as shown in Figure
294 5. Thus, the long-term benefit of the nourishment was very limited.

295 4.4. Beach sediments

296 The average grain size distribution (based on all sediment samples) before
297 the artificial replenishment (Figure 7a) shows that three sediment fractions are
298 predominant in Playa Granada: sand ($D_1 = 0.25 - 0.5 \text{ mm}$, Figure 7c), fine
299 gravel ($D_2 = 2 - 8 \text{ mm}$, Figure 7d) and coarse gravel ($D_3 = 8 - 32 \text{ mm}$, Figure

300 7e). The foreshore (from the MLWS to the maximum total run-up reached
301 under low energy conditions) showed greater sediment size variability than the
302 backshore in both study areas, as shown in Section 4.5. In addition to this
303 cross-shore variability, different levels of gradation at depth were also found.
304 The sand-gravel ratio limits were 30 – 70% and 36 – 64% in study area 1, and
305 33 – 67% and 23 – 77% in study area 2.

306 The nourished material (Figure 8a), shown in Figure 7b, was significantly
307 finer than the natural sediment ($D_{50} = 1.92$ mm *vs* $D_{50} = 4.35$ mm). Coarse
308 sand (1 – 2 mm) and fine gravel (2 – 8 mm) dominated (Figure 7f), with a sand-
309 gravel ratio of about 52.5% – 47.5%. Thus, the sand fraction of the nourished
310 sediment was higher than that of the native sediment. After the nourishment,
311 the sand-gravel ratio progressively reduced from its initial value (52.5% – 47.5%)
312 to about 46.15% – 53.35% and 41.65% – 58.35% in study areas 1 and 2, respec-
313 tively. Therefore, the reduction in the percentage of sand was higher in study
314 area 2, where the unit volume loss was also higher (Table 2).

315 Figure 9 shows the results of applying the formulation of Sunamura and
316 Takeda (1984) during the study period. Considering the three prevailing sed-
317 iment fractions in the study site (D_1 , D_2 and D_3), the erosion ($S_r > 0$) and
318 accretion ($S_r < 0$) states alternated for the sand fraction (Figure 9a, upper
319 panel), while for the two gravel fractions only deposition states occurred (Fig-
320 ure 9a, middle and lower panels). These results are similar to those obtained
321 by Bramato et al. (2012) through application of this formulation and observa-
322 tions based on high-resolution images for an MSGB near the study site: sand
323 was transported offshore during storms and beach recovery was limited to low-
324 energy sea states, whereas only onshore migration took place for the gravels.

325 *4.5. Morpho-sedimentary beach states*

326 *4.5.1. Low energy state*

327 Under prevailing low energy conditions, the upper profile in study area 1
328 has two berms (B1 and B2, Figure 10a) composed of a surface layer of coarse
329 gravels ($D_1 = 8 - 32$ mm), a subsurface layer of fine gravels ($D_2 = 2 - 8$ mm),
330 and a layer of sand ($D_3 = 0.25 - 0.5$ mm) at the base of the deposit (Figure
331 10a). This pattern is repeated at depth, probably reflecting previous berm
332 deposits. The average percentage of sand-gravel along the sampled sediment
333 layer is 35.8% – 64.2%. The backshore (cross-shore distance < 15 m, Figure
334 10a) consists mainly of sand (Table 3), whereas the composition of the sediment
335 in the active swash zone is highly variable (sand-fine gravel) in time and space
336 (Figure 10a), with average proportions of 31.7% sand and 68.3% gravel. The
337 upper profile in study area 2 is similar to that of the study area 1, but the
338 beach is wider (~ 50 m). The average sand-gravel ratio sampled across the
339 entire upper profile for study area 1 is larger than for study area 2 (Table 3).

340 *4.5.2. Storm state*

341 The two storms that occurred over the survey period (1 and 2, Figure 3)
342 induced marked changes to the beach profile. The low energy state berms were
343 eroded and the upper beach profiles assumed a more concave shape (Figure
344 10b). The storms also caused a decrease in the beach width of about 5 m and
345 10 m in study areas 1 and 2, respectively. A storm berm developed on the upper
346 part of the profile and a bar feature was generated in the lower part of the beach
347 with a surface layer of sand over a gravel-dominated substrate (Figures 8b and
348 10b). In both study profiles, higher slopes were generally attained during storm
349 conditions and the percentage of gravel increased by between 6 and 10 percent
350 from the low energy state to the storm state (Table 3).

351 Considering the total number of samples taken after the two storms (18) and

352 during the low energy states of the profile (27) in study area 1 and applying the
 353 *Student's t-test*, the result also confirm that the percentage of gravel is higher
 354 after storms (null hypothesis), with a significance level equal to 0.01. The same
 355 conclusion is drawn after applying the test in study area 2. These results are
 356 consistent with those obtained in Section 4.4: the finer material is selective
 357 transported offshore during storms, whereas under calm conditions the sand
 358 returns, covering most of the lag gravel (Figure 10). This is a mechanism that
 359 differentiate MSGBs from sandy and pure gravel beaches (Mason and Coates,
 360 2001; Bramato et al., 2012).

		Low energy state	Storm state
Study area 1	Backshore	81.8% – 18.2%	34.8% – 65.2%
	Foreshore	31.7% – 68.3%	24.8% – 75.2%
	Entire beach	35.8% – 64.2%	29.2% – 70.8%
Study area 2	Backshore	80.8% – 19.2%	31.1% – 68.9%
	Foreshore	30% – 70%	19.7% – 80.3%
	Entire beach	33.1% – 66.9%	23.7% – 76.3%

Table 3: Sand-gravel percentages for the low energy and storm states on the backshore, foreshore and entire beach.

361 4.5.3. Transitional states

362 After the passing of storms, berms developed and progressively overlapped
 363 under the influence of low energy waves, contributing to the sediment variability
 364 both cross-shore and at depth (Figure 11). The generation of berms represents
 365 a recovery trajectory, which is closely related to the total run-up (Figures 4, 5
 366 and 11), but this development of the berms can be interrupted at any one time
 367 by another storm. Figure 5 shows that the erosion/deposition rates were higher
 368 in the foreshore, where the measured sediment variability was also higher (Table
 369 3). This is consistent with the conceptual model presented in Figure 11, which
 370 suggests that the number of berms depends on the state of the profile and varies
 371 during the recovery process.

372 Figure 12a depicts the contribution of the wave run-up (vertical axis) and the
 373 sum of astronomical tide and storm surge (horizontal axis) to the unit volume

374 variation (circles). Before the replenishment, it is observed that when the total
375 run-up elevation was higher than the height of the upper berm (~ 1.52 m,
376 Figure 10a), the upper profile lost volume, whereas lower elevations increased
377 the volume of the beach (Figure 12a). Hence, beach erosion took place not only
378 during both storms, when overwashing of the entire beach occurred; but also
379 before surveys 2, 6 and 11, when the upper berm was overwashed.

380 Although the total run-up was similar in both study areas and the ero-
381 sion/accretion behaviour of the upper profile was equal (Figure 5, middle panel),
382 the threshold elevation in study area 2 was ~ 1.58 m (Figure 12b), coinciding
383 with the height of the upper berm at this profile. These results indicate that the
384 overwash process plays a key role in the beach dynamics, which is in agreement
385 with previous works, such as Matias et al. (2014). Hence, other variables apart
386 from wave height, such as pressure gradient and wind velocity, are essential
387 in the evolution of the profile on micro-tidal beaches and the total run-up is
388 demonstrated to be a more accurate threshold than wave height to differentiate
389 between erosional and depositional conditions.

390 5. Discussion

391 Although MSGBs have received increasing attention in recent years, the
392 number of field observations on these coastal settings is still limited. This study
393 presents the first detailed field investigation of the morpho-sedimentary dynam-
394 ics of a MSGB under varying wave and water-level conditions.

395 The low energy states found on the studied beach are similar to those ob-
396 served on a sandy beach (Avoca, New South Wales, Australia) and a pure gravel
397 beach (Slapton Sands, Devon, UK) by Weir et al. (2006) and Austin and Mas-
398 selink (2006), respectively. They proposed that berm location(s) is (are) linked
399 to both tide level and wave run-up, and their destruction and construction de-

400 pends on wave height. The location of the upper berm and the process of berm
401 formation in Playa Granada are also related to the maximum water-level eleva-
402 tion on the beach under low energy conditions and the wave action (Figures 4a,
403 5 and 10a). The generation and subsequent overlapping of berms is responsible
404 for the different levels of grain size gradation at depth and cross-shore (Figure
405 11), that is, the evolutionary pathway is responsible for the beach stratification,
406 being the morphological evolution partly stored in the stratigraphy. However,
407 the results indicate that not only wave height, but also storm surge is important
408 for the destruction of berms on micro-tidal beaches.

409 The storm berm and the bar feature observed following the storms resemble
410 the eroded state on other MSGB of the Mediterranean Spanish coast (Carchuna)
411 described by Bramato et al. (2012). They found that the profile after high en-
412 ergetic events promotes wave breaking over a newly formed storm bar, resulting
413 in less capacity to transport sediments and protecting the beach from further
414 erosion. The steeper shape of the upper profile after storm is also similar to
415 the reflective morphodynamic state detailed by Poate et al. (2013) on the gravel
416 beach of Loe Bar (Cornwall, UK), who also measured a depositional feature
417 in the foreshore similar to that of Playa Granada (Figures 8 and 10b). This
418 bar feature could be associated with the landward migration and growth of the
419 beach step during storms coincident with the removal and offshore transport of
420 the sand fractions from the swash zone, according to the morphological response
421 found by Masselink et al. (2010) on Slapton Sands.

422 The evolution of both study areas was similar during the study period (Fig-
423 ures 5 and 12), indicating that they are representative of the beach behaviour
424 of that section of the coastline. Comparing the measured slopes of the natural
425 profiles (Table 2) with other published data, these slopes are generally steeper
426 than on micro-tidal sandy beaches (Jackson et al., 2005), but gentler than the

427 slope on macrotidal gravel beaches analyzed by Austin and Masselink (2006)
428 and Poate et al. (2013), and the slope on the MSGB described in Horn and
429 Walton (2007). The observed slope is slightly steeper than that measured on
430 another micro-tidal MSGB along the southern Spanish coast (Bramato et al.,
431 2012).

432 The results obtained in Section 4.4 for the sand (alternation of erosion and
433 accretion states) are more related with the beach behaviour than those for gravel
434 fractions (only accretion); however, erosion states prevail for the sand fraction
435 (Figure 9) whereas beach accretion was more frequent before the nourishment
436 (Figure 12). They suggest that the overall behaviour of MSGBs cannot simply
437 be determined by a single sediment size. Actually, the recovery periods (rates) in
438 the study site after the third most severe storm since 1958, less than two weeks,
439 were significant lower (higher) than those detailed by Lee et al. (1998), Thom
440 and Hall (1991) and Scott et al. (2015), who measured average recovery rates of
441 about $0.09 \text{ m}^2/\text{day}$, $0.11 \text{ m}^2/\text{day}$ and $0.26 \text{ m}^2/\text{day}$ on the sandy beaches of Duck
442 (US), Moruya (Australia) and Perranporth (UK), respectively. This supports
443 the conclusions of Mason et al. (1997) and Ivamy and Kench (2006): MSGBs
444 may experience more active sediment transport than sandy beaches.

445 Replenished profiles were eroded even under no storm conditions (Figures 3,
446 5 and 6) and the unit volumes of the upper profiles 3 months after the nourish-
447 ment (September 2014) were similar to those measured at the beginning of the
448 study period (October 2013), when no artificial replenishment took place. This
449 may be partly due to the lack of response from the nourished material to waves
450 in the same manner as natural beaches (Horn and Walton, 2007). Dean and
451 Dalrymple (2002) suggested that the fill material should match the native sedi-
452 ment to minimize changes in the beach response. This did not happen in Playa
453 Granada, where neither the sediment sizes nor the morphology of the natural

454 and replenishment profiles were similar (Figures 7 and 6). The variations in the
455 sand-gravel ratio after the artificial nourishment agree with the formulation of
456 Sunamura and Takeda (1984), which establishes that the eroded sediment ap-
457 peared to be selectively transported offshore from the upper profile. However,
458 wind action could also have contributed to the removal of the finer nourished
459 sediment, as has been widely demonstrated in previous works (e.g, Van der Wal
460 (1998, 2000a,b); Jackson and Nordstrom (2011)).

461 **6. Conclusions**

- 462 1. The generation and subsequent overlapping of berms is responsible for
463 the sediment variability cross-shore and at depth on MSGBs. The cross-
464 shore locations of these berms are related to the total run-up, as berms
465 are modified by swash action. Thus, waves play a main role in the beach
466 recovery, and the recovery appears to be occurring at a faster rate than
467 on sandy beaches.
- 468 2. The formation of a storm berm, the more concave shape of the upper
469 profile and the increase in the percentage of gravels after storms all indi-
470 cate reflective behaviour of MSGBs during high-energy conditions, and is
471 dominated by the gravel fractions due to the selective removal of the finer
472 material.
- 473 3. Total run-up elevations that exceed the height of the upper berm gen-
474 erate erosion, whereas lower elevations increase the unit volume of the
475 upper profile representative of beach accretion. Hence, the total run-up
476 represents a more accurate threshold dictating beach response than wave
477 height.
- 478 4. The upper profile was flattened following an artificial input of sediment
479 over June 2014 with different grain size distribution and lower D_{50} than

480 the natural sediment. Three months after the nourishment, and in the
481 absence of significant storms, the upper profile lost between 6 and 10 m²,
482 probably induced by both wave processes and wind action. The beach
483 volumes in September 2014 were similar to those measured in October
484 2013, showing the intervention was not effective.

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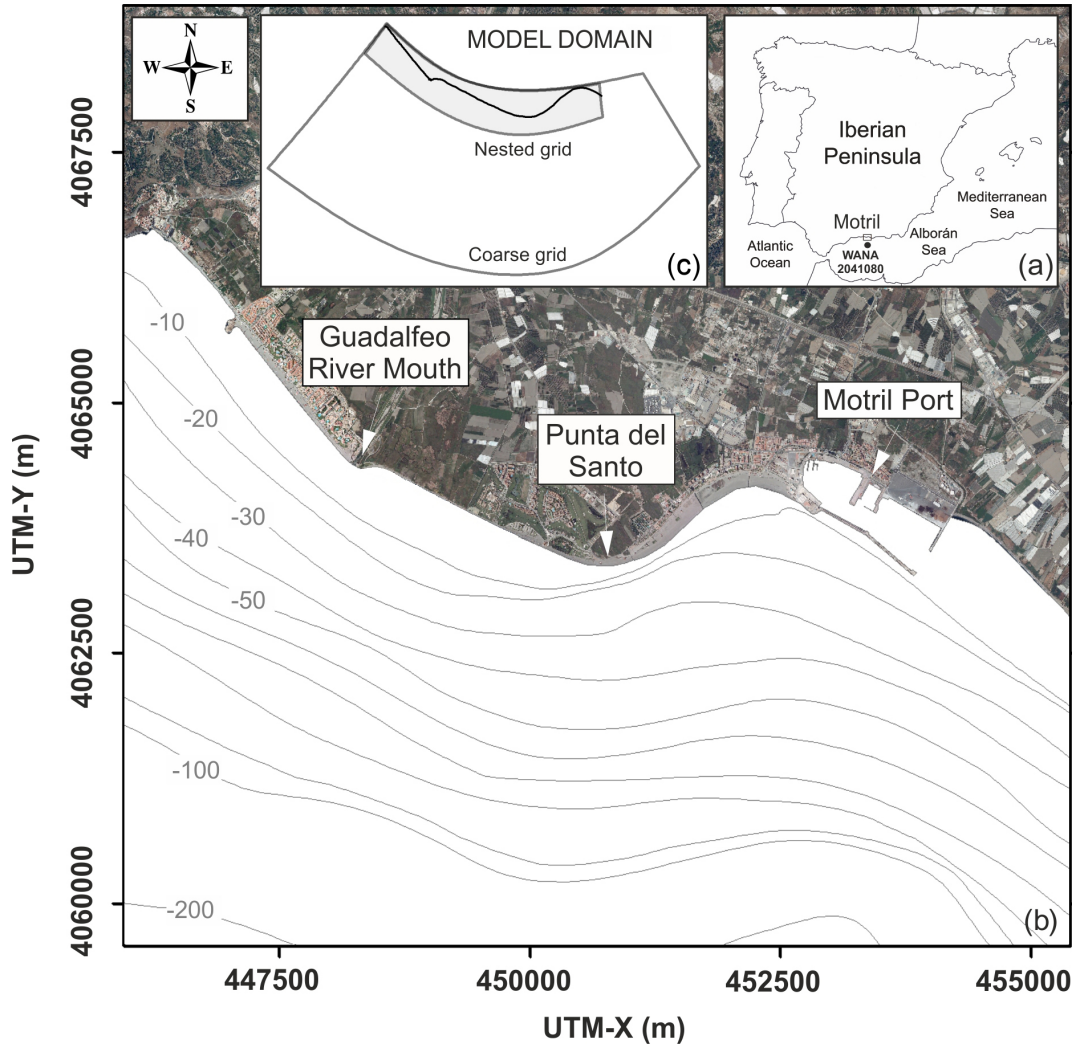


Figure 1: (a) Location of the study site (Playa Granada, southern Spain) and the WANA point 2041080. (b) Delimitation of the study site (Guadalfeo River mouth - Motril Port) and bathymetric contours (in meters below the MLWS level). (c) Boundaries of the computational grids used in the numerical model.

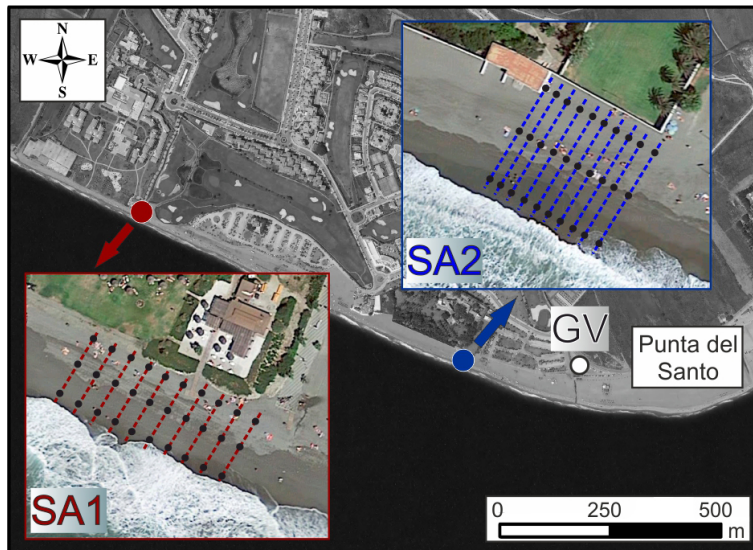


Figure 2: Selected study areas and geodesic vertex *Punta del Santo*. Ten profiles were measured in both study areas (dashed lines) and samples were taken both at the surface and at depth in each profile (dots).

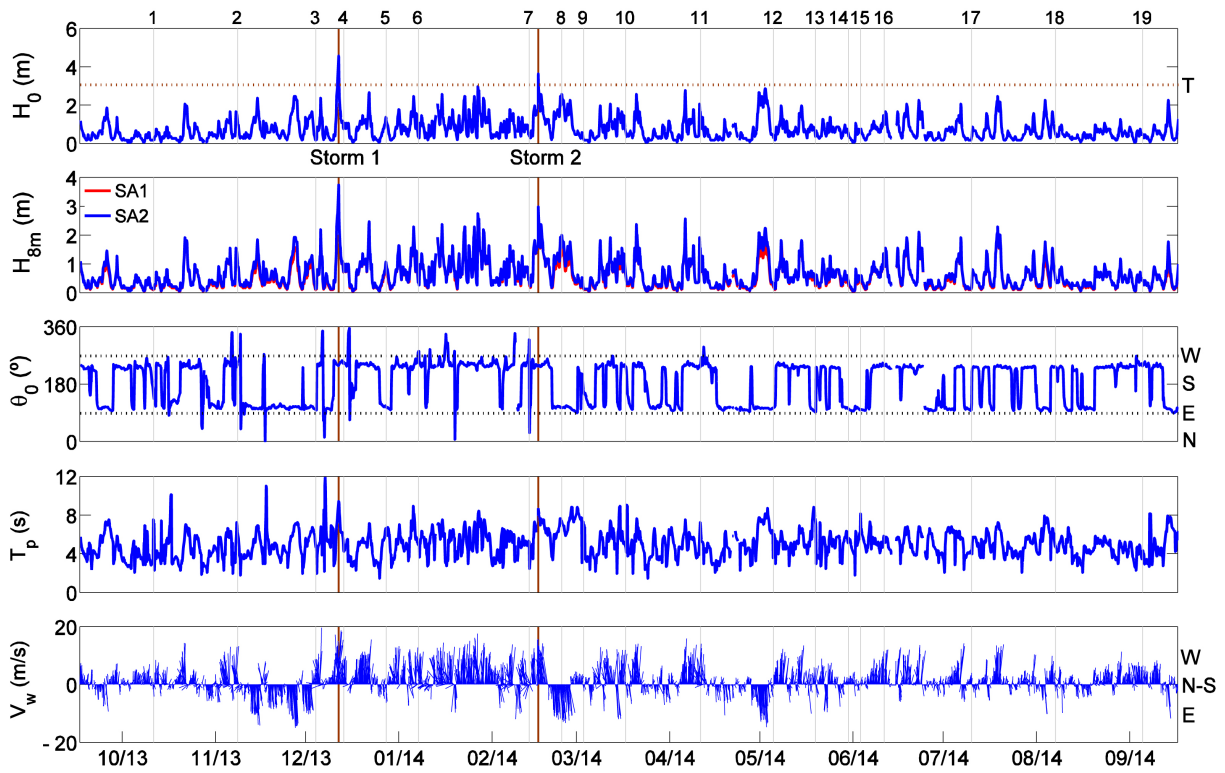


Figure 3: From top to bottom: evolution of the deep-water wave height, wave height at depths of 8 m (red: study area 1, blue: study area 2), deep-water wave direction, spectral peak period, and wind velocity and direction. The vertical lines (grey) indicate the date of the field surveys and storms are marked in brown.

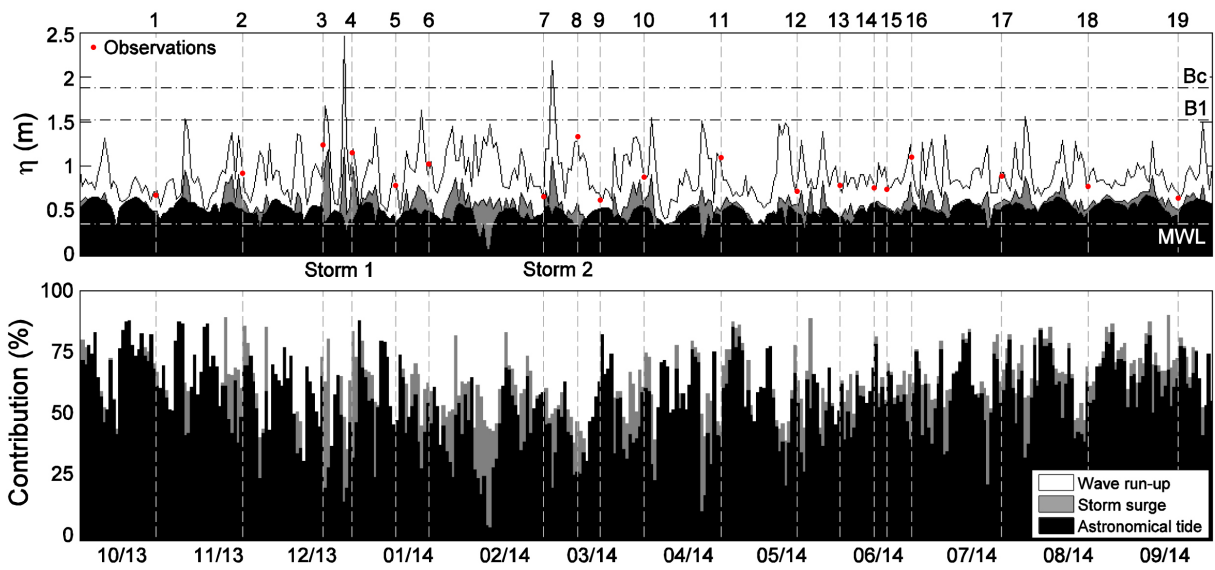


Figure 4: (a) Evolution of the astronomical tide, storm surge and wave run-up and (b) contribution of each in the study area 1 during the study period. $\eta = 0$ indicates the MLWS level and the vertical lines (grey) indicate the date of the field surveys. The observations of total run-up (red circles), height of the mean water-level (MWL), the beach crest (Bc) and the upper berm (B1) are indicated.

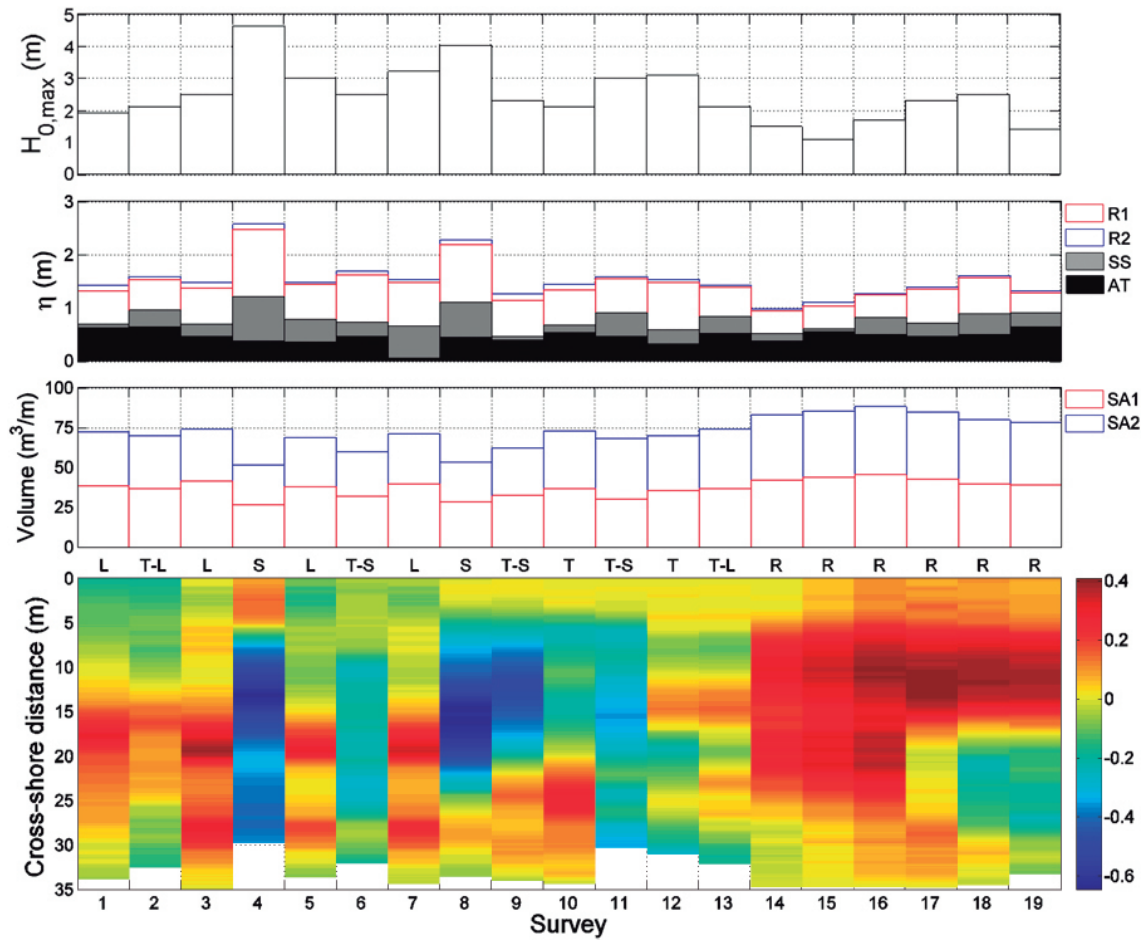


Figure 5: From top to bottom: maximum deep-water wave height before each survey; astronomical tide (black), storm surge (grey) and wave run-up (red: study area 1, blue: study area 2) contributions to the maximum total run-up before each survey; unit volume of the upper profile (red: study area 1, blue: study area 2); and differences between the profile in each survey and the average profile in study area 1. States of the profile, according to Figure 11, are shown.

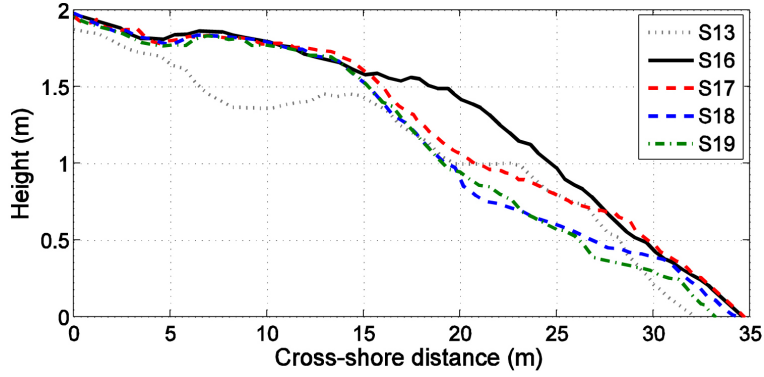


Figure 6: Pre-nourished upper profile and evolution since the artificial replenishment until the end of the study period in study area 1. Height = 0 indicates the MLWS level.

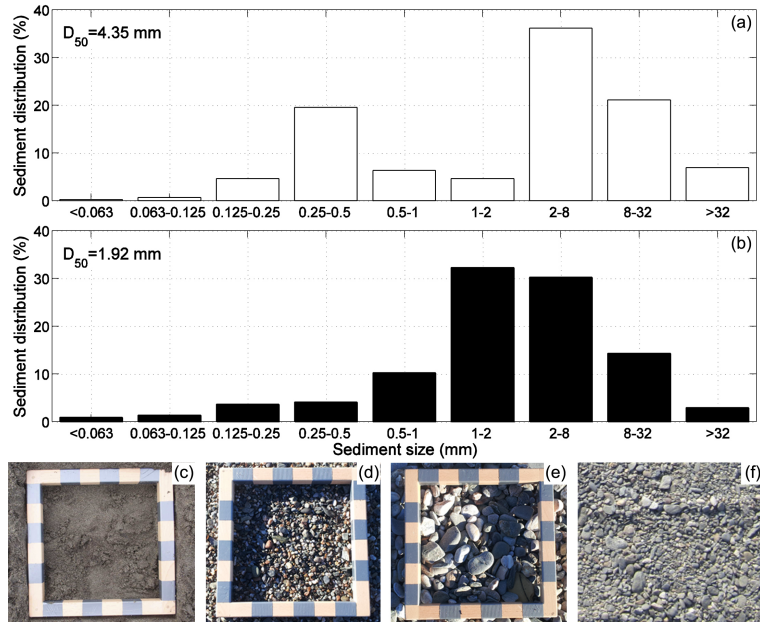


Figure 7: Grain size histograms of the set of samples in both study areas before the artificial replenishment (a) and of the sediments used for the artificial replenishment (b); sand (c), fine gravel (d) and coarse gravel (e) natural fractions; and sediments supplied in June 2014 (f). The D_{50} of the nourishment was lower than that of the natural sediment.

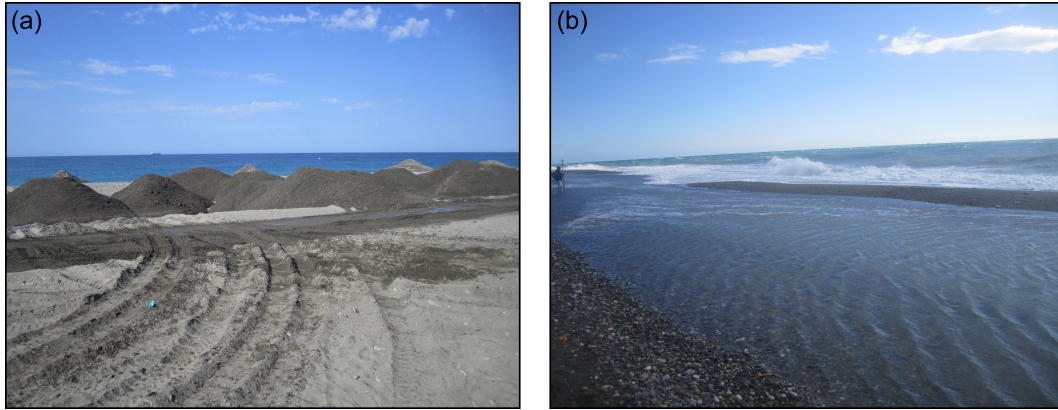


Figure 8: (a) Artificial replenishment done in June 2014, consisting of an input of sediment with uniform distribution. (b) Upper profile after the storm 1: Gravels on the storm berm and the surface layer of sand on the bar feature are observed.

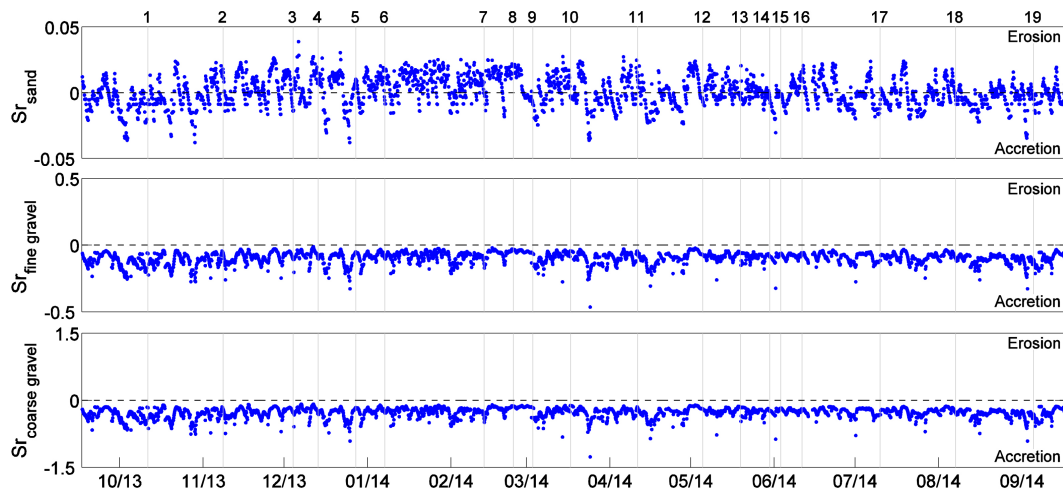


Figure 9: Difference between the terms of erosion and accretion in the Equation 1 (Sunamura and Takeda, 1984) in study area 1. The three prevailing sediment sizes were considered: sand (upper panel), fine gravel (middle panel) and coarse gravel (lower panel). The vertical lines (grey) indicate the date of the field surveys.

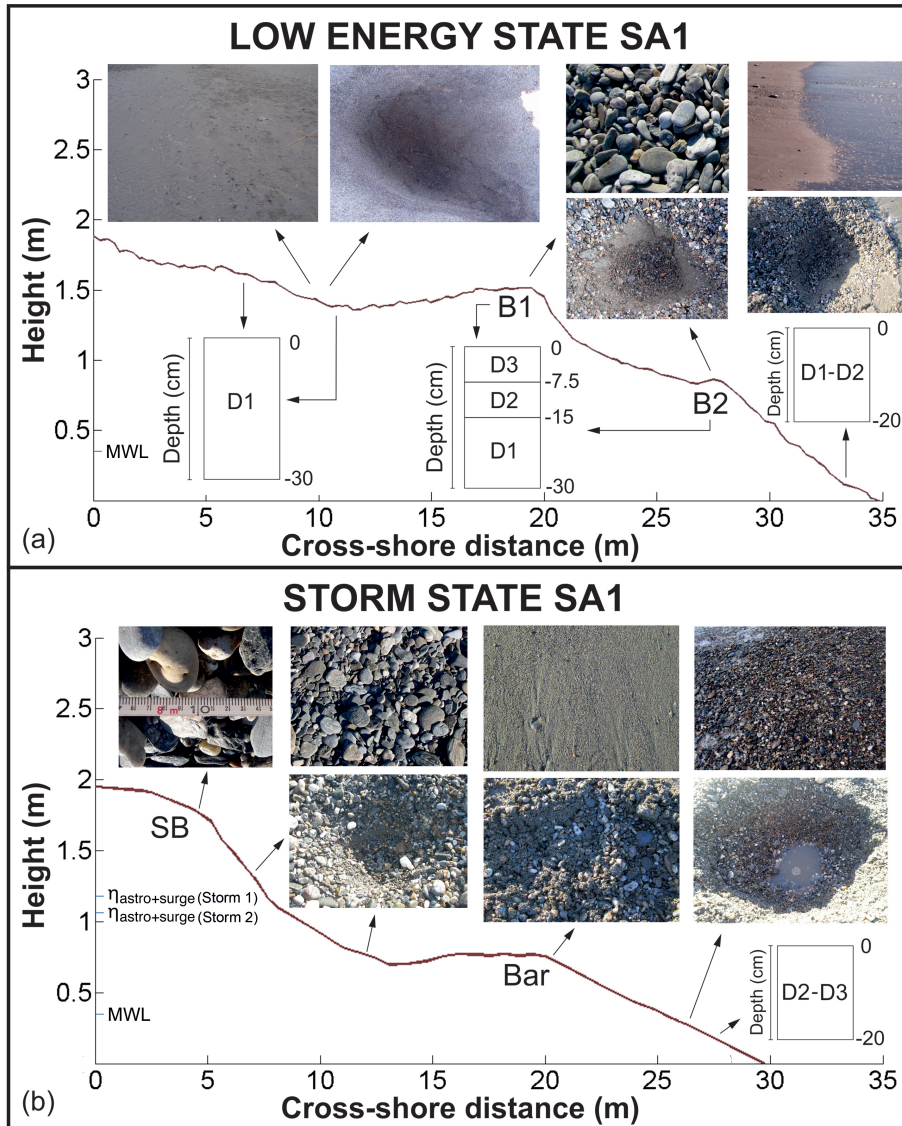


Figure 10: (a) Low energy state in study area 1: morphology (including the berms B1 and B2), sedimentology and photographs. (b) State after storms in study area 1: morphology (including the storm berm -SB- and the bar feature), sedimentology and photographs. Height = 0 indicates the MLWS level.

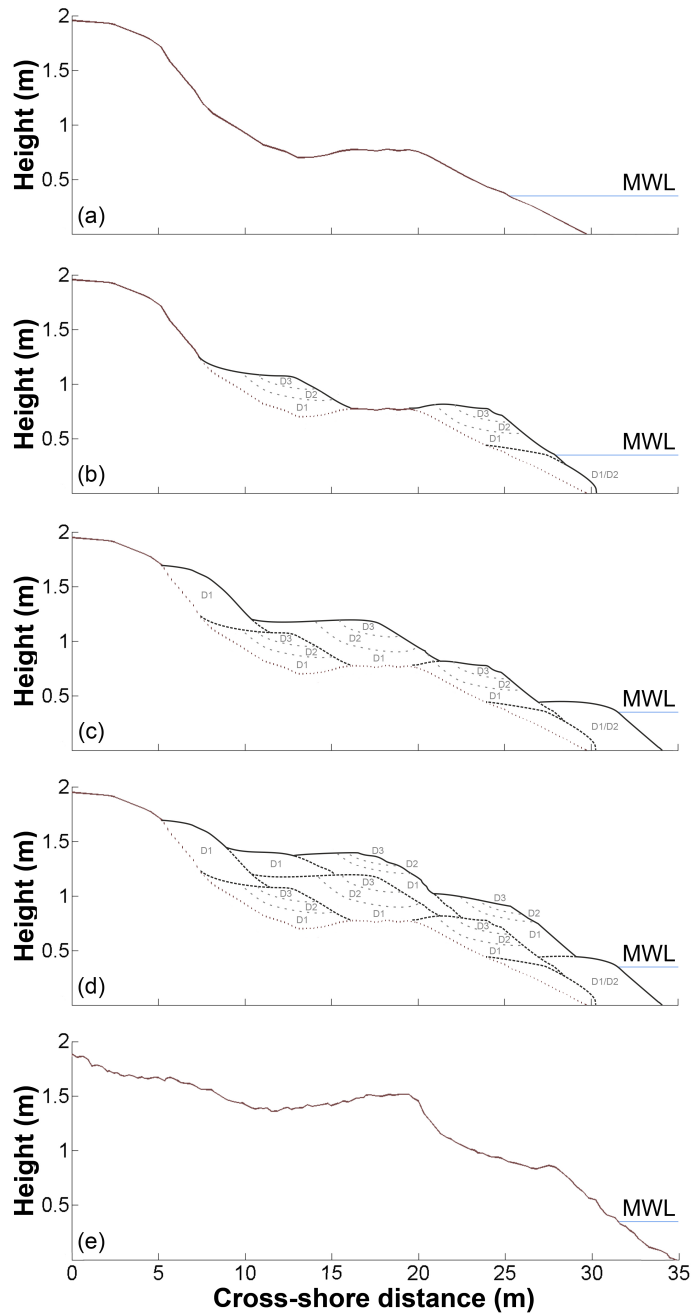


Figure 11: Conceptual model describing the beach's accretionary response in study area 1. From top to bottom: storm (S), transitional-storm (T-S), transitional (T), transitional-low energy (T-L) and low energy (L) states. The number of berms depends on the state of the beach profile.

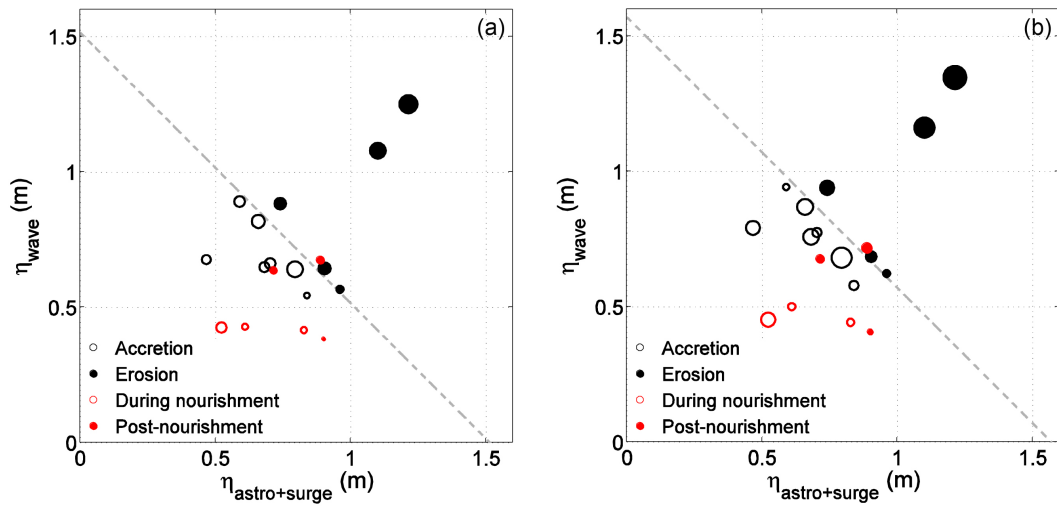


Figure 12: Relationship between the wave run-up and the water-level elevation in study areas 1 (a) and 2 (b). Black circles indicate accretion (unfilled) and erosion (filled) before the replenishment, whereas red circles indicate the artificial accretion (unfilled) and erosion (filled) afterwards. The size of the circles is proportional to the sediment volume change and the dashed grey line represents a total run-up of 1.52 m (a) and 1.58 (b).