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Satellite-derived equilibrium shoreline modelling at a high-energy meso-macrotidal beach

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Abstract

Modelling and predicting the future of sandy shorelines is a key challenge in coastal research and is critical for sustainable coastal management. However, currently the most skillful shoreline models strongly rely on data to calibrate the free parameters, and are thus restricted to a few well monitored sites in the world. Here we address the challenges and opportunities offered by optical satellite imagery to provide useful information for equilibrium shoreline model calibration on cross-shore transport dominated sites. We focus on Truc Vert beach, southwest France, where previous work showed good equilibrium model skill to reproduce shoreline change from the time scales of hours (storms) to decades. Satellite derived waterlines are extracted over 11 years (2009-2020) and further transformed into satellite derived shorelines (SDS) with different water level corrections (e.g. tide and/or run up) and varying alongshore averaging lengths, and thus different uncertainties, in order to test model performance. Successively the timeseries duration and sampling frequency required for model calibration were also investigated. The model calibrated using the SDS data showed similar skill as the model

calibrated using in-situ alongshore averaged shoreline positions, even for the uncorrected SDS dataset which Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) are approximately 30 m. Alongshore averaging was found to be the only necessary processing of the SDS data while any other site-specific corrections did not significantly improve model skill. Finally to further investigate the effect of sampling frequency and noise in the dataset we performed an analysis using a synthetic shoreline. Our results suggest that the effect of noise is negligible as long as the sampling frequency remains high (dt \leq 30 days). Pending further validation, results show the strong potential of using uncorrected SDS dataset for shoreline model calibration at cross-shore transport dominated sandy coasts.

Keywords:

Shoreline, Satellite data, Numerical modelling, Calibration

1 1. Introduction

- 2 Coastal areas constitute some of the most populated and developed land
- 3 zones in the world (Small and Nichols, 2003) with high natural and socio-
- 4 economical significance (Ghermandi and Nunes, 2013). Luijendijk et al.
- $_5$ (2018) found that \sim 24% of the global ice free sandy shorelines are erod-
- 6 ing at rates exceeding 0.5 m/year, while Vousdoukas et al. (2020) suggested
- 7 that these numbers are projected to increase under the influence of climate
- 8 change. Although more in depth analysis is needed (Cooper et al., 2020),
- 9 these findings highlight the importance of monitoring, understanding and
- predicting sandy shoreline evolution.
- Sandy coasts can be highly dynamic environments constantly adjusting

their position in response to a variety of processes spread over a wide spatiotemporal range. Changes in sediment availability and mean sea level influ-13 ence shoreline response on the timescales ranging from decades to millenia 14 (Larson and Kraus, 1995; Murray, 2007). On shorter timescales and on crossshore transport dominated sites, shoreline response is often dictated by vari-16 ations in incident wave conditions from the time scale of single storms to 17 seasonal and interannual variability in the incident wave climate (Castelle 18 and Masselink, 2023). Anthropogenic factors can also have a significant and 19 potentially irreversible impact on the shoreline position (Aagaard et al., 2004; 20 Ranasinghe and Turner, 2006; Ojeda et al., 2008). 21 Reduced complexity shoreline models, such as Yates et al. (2009); David-22 son et al. (2013); Splinter et al. (2014); Vitousek et al. (2017); Robinet et al. 23 (2018); Antolínez et al. (2019); Tran and Barthélemy (2020) to name a few, 24 have enabled the scientific coastal community to successfully simulate sandy 25 shoreline evolution from timescales of days (single storms) to years (seasonal and interannual variability) and even to decades (long term shoreline trends) 27 (Splinter et al., 2013; Castelle et al., 2014; Robinet et al., 2020). Not resolving all the complex processes explicitly reduces the computational cost of these models. While process based models need more data like complete topogra-30 phy and bathymetry of an area, reduced complexity models require mainly 31 shoreline position datasets spanning over several years for their calibration 32 (Montaño et al., 2020). Of particular relevance are equilibrium shoreline 33 models that show very good skill on cross-shore transport dominated sites (Splinter et al., 2014). Splinter et al. (2013) showed that due to the empirical 35 and data driven nature of these equilibrium models, high-quality observa-

tional datasets spanning more than 5 years are needed for the calibration of the free parameters. High-quality observational datasets however are limited 38 to a few surveyed sites (Turner et al., 2016; Ludka et al., 2019; Castelle et al., 30 2020; Bertin et al., 2022; McCarroll et al., 2023), or video-monitored beaches (Splinter et al., 2014; Pianca et al., 2015; Ibaceta et al., 2020) in the world, 41 thus limiting the application of equilibrium data driven models. 42 Publicly available satellite imagery, cradled a new approach in remote 43 sensing and provided long term (more than 30 years) high temporal resolution (approximately bi-weekly) shoreline data covering the entire planet 45 (Vos et al., 2019a). However, Vos et al. (2019a, 2023) recognized issues with 46 shoreline detection on satellite images at gently sloping and meso-macrotidal environments, where low tide images must also be discarded due to the pres-48 ence of complex bar/rip systems. Castelle et al. (2021) showed that satellite 49 derived shorelines (SDS) at a high energy meso-macrotidal coast can deviate 50 by more than 30 m from the surveyed shoreline position and proposed ways to address the issue. While astronomical tide and runup adjustment pro-52 vides the best correction at Truc Vert in southwest France (Castelle et al., 2021), Konstantinou et al. (2023) showed that optimal water level correction (astronomical tide and/or set-up and/or runup) strongly depends on beach 55 state. Konstantinou et al. (2023) also showed that low image availability due 56 to e.g. areas with high cloud cover can dramatically restrict temporally the 57 type of phenomenon that can be detected (e.g., seasonal/interannual variabil-58 ity). Finally, open SDS datasets are often extracted along single transects, 59 which are spaced by hundreds of metres, and may not be representative of the true shoreline variability on intermediate beaches due to the presence of

alongshore variable features like migrating megacusp embayments. Transect spacing and alongshore averaging are therefore important processing parameters affecting SDS accuracy. These observations question the reliability of uncorrected SDS data in gently sloping, high-energy and meso-macrotidal environments, especially when lacking in-situ derived shoreline data to compare with. To which extent such SDS data can be used to calibrate data driven equilibrium shoreline models is virtually unknown.

Most studies using SDS observations to date, focused on interannual 69 shoreline variability (e.g. Castelle et al., 2022) or long term trends (e.g. Lui-70 jendijk et al., 2018), rather than their potential for modelling applications. A 71 handful of studies integrating SDS observations in dynamic shoreline models have emerged recently. Alvarez-Cuesta et al. (2021a,b, 2024) incorporated 30 years of SDS data into a dynamic shoreline modelling system to simulate 40 74 km of the Mediterranean Spanish coast. Ibaceta et al. (2022) assimilated SDS data into their model in order to track variability in model free parameters while simulating 14 years of shoreline evolution at a microtidal beach on the 77 east coast of Australia. Vitousek et al. (2023) integrated SDS observations into their shoreline model to hindcast 20 years of coastal change over the entire coast of California. Vitousek et al. (2023) demonstrated that model 80 calibration with water level corrected SDS yielded similar skill to model cal-81 ibration with in- situ observations at a meso tidal beach. However, the 82 influence of the type of water level correction was not addressed, and the uncorrected SDS were not tested in model calibration. Crucially, uncorrected SDS datasets does not require local beach slope, astronomical tide data and breaking wave parameters for further correction, and can be thus generated

87 at any site globally.

In the present work we investigate the possibility of using SDS datasets to 88 calibrate the state-of-the-art equilibrium shoreline model proposed in David-89 son et al. (2013), by testing different water level corrections at the high energy meso-macrotidal beach of Truc Vert, southwest France. 11 years of 91 SDS data were used and a simulated annealing non-linear optimization algo-92 rithm (Bertsimas and Tsitsiklis, 1993) was systematically applied to various 93 SDS datasets (different water level corrections, alongshore averaging lengths, duration and sampling frequency) in order to find the best fit model parame-95 ters and further address model skill by comparing with field data. The study 96 site, data used and methodology adopted in the present work are detailed in sections 2 and 3. The results are presented and briefly discussed in section 4 while a detailed discussion and the conclusions follow in sections 5 99 and 6. Pending further validation, the findings of the present study suggest 100 that uncorrected SDS data can potentially be used to calibrate data driven 101 equilibrium shoreline models in high energy meso-macrotidal environments 102 without a priori knowledge of the site. 103

2. Field site and data

2.1. Truc Vert beach

The coast of Nouvelle Aquitaine in southwest France (Figure 1b) stretches approximately 250 km along a straight, low-lying shoreline backed by high vegetated coastal dunes (Laporte-Fauret et al., 2020) excluding a few small stretches interrupted by coastal resorts (Castelle et al., 2018b). The offshore wave climate is generated in the north Atlantic ocean predominantly

by eastward tracking extra tropical cyclones (Castelle et al., 2020). In the present work the remote beach of Truc Vert (panel a in Figure 1), located approximately 2 km away from the nearest inland car park beach entry, is chosen as a case study. Besides a mechanical profiling of the coastal dune backing the beach that took place in the early 1980s (Robin et al., 2021), the beach has never been nourished, affected by hard structures or by any direct anthropogenic activity.

Truc Vert is a high energy meso-macrotidal double barred open beach 118 backed by tall ($\sim 20\text{-}25 \text{ m}$ above Mean Sea Level) and wide ($\sim 250 \text{ m}$) coastal 119 dunes (see Figure 1). Tide is semi-diurnal with an annual mean spring tidal 120 range of ~ 3.7 m and largest tidal range of ~ 5 m. The wave climate is 121 seasonally modulated with monthly average significant wave height $\overline{H_s}$ and 122 peak wave period $\overline{T_p}$ ranging from 1.11 m and 9 s in July, with a dominant 123 west-northwest direction, to 2.4 m and 12.8 s in January with a dominant 124 west direction (Castelle et al., 2017). 125

The sediment composition primarily consists of medium quartz sand, with 126 a median diameter of $d_{50} \approx 350 \ \mu m$. The beach sediment displays substantial 127 variability ranging from 200 μm to 700 μm , associated with a wide range 128 of bedforms such as bar/rip channels, megacusps, cusps, and megaripples 129 (Gallagher et al., 2011). The outer bar is subtidal and modally crescentic, 130 while the inner bar, situated in the intertidal zone, is mostly classified as a 131 transverse bar and rip and during the summer months tends to transition 132 into a low tide terrace (see Figure 1). The average spacing between rips is 133 approximately 400 m for the inner bar and 700 m for the outer bar, although 134 these values can vary considerably over space and time. The presence of rip

channels incising the inner bar leads to significant alongshore variations in beach morphology, with pronounced megacusp embayments (Figure 1 a) in the alignment of the rip channels typically evolving on seasonal timescales. The outer bar on the other hand, can drive larger scale beach variability during severe storms which can persist for several years (Castelle et al., 2020).

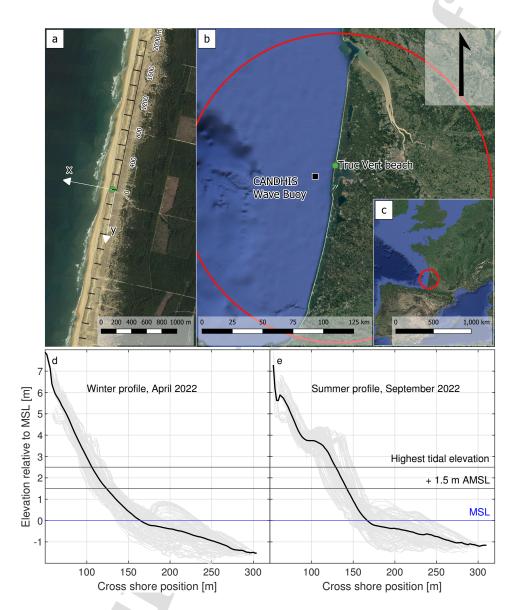


Figure 1: (a) Survey zone and reference frame at Truc Vert beach. (b) Location map of Truc Vert beach, southwest France indicating the position of the CANDHIS wave buoy (Cap Ferret wave buoy 03302). (c) Overview of the area. Winter (d) and summer (e) profiles measured in 2022. The thick black line indicates the alongshore average profile, while the gray lines are the individual profiles extracted every ~ 20 m from the alongshore window considered.

In the long term Truc Vert beach can be considered stable (Castelle et al., 2018a), despite the fact that the highly interannually variable winter wave energy can result in severe beach and dune erosion (Castelle et al., 2015; Masselink et al., 2016). The shoreline evolution is mainly dominated by cross shore processes showing strong seasonal and interannual variability, with moderate and extreme winters alternating (Robinet et al., 2016; Masselink et al., 2016).

148 2.2. Wave Data

Due to lack of continuous wave measurements from the CANDHIS di-149 rectionnal wave buoy, which is moored in ~ 50 m depth offshore of Truc 150 Vert beach (see Figure 1), hourly wave timeseries were extracted from the 151 NORGAS-UG regional wave hindcast (Boudière et al., 2013), at the grid 152 point coinciding with the location of the buoy. The NORGAS-UG regional 153 model covers the Atlantic coast of France on an unstructured mesh. The 154 nearshore is resolved with mesh elements of ~ 200 m while the model resolution becomes coarser further offshore with mesh elements of ~ 10 km in the 156 deepest parts of the domain. 157

The wave model results have been validated against several measured data and yielded correlation coefficients of 0.96-0.99, RMSE of 0.15-0.21 m and a bias of -0.02-0.04 m (Michaud et al., 2016). The significant wave height H_s , peak wave period T_p and mean wave direction (MWD) extracted from the aforementioned wave hindcast are depicted in Figure 2. The timeseries shows the typical seasonal and interannual variability of the incident wave climate at Truc Vert beach with a prevailing W-NW wave incidence. The surveyed shoreline is depicted in panel a of Figure 2 together with H_s .

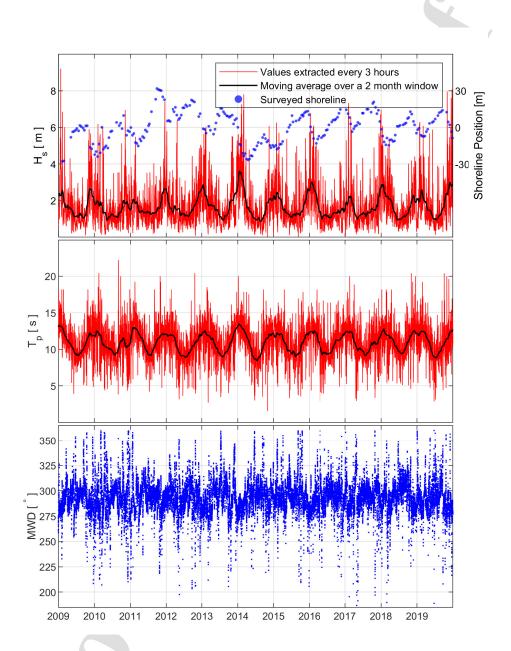


Figure 2: Offshore wave conditions during the period considered in the present work extracted at the location of the buoy (see Figure 1). The significant wave height H_s , peak wave period T_p and mean wave direction (MWD) are depicted in the upper, middle and lower panel of the figure. The alongshore averaged surveyed shoreline positions are plotted on the right axis of the upper panel.

.66 2.3. Shoreline Data

Five different shoreline / waterline datasets extending from January 2009 167 to December 2019 have been considered in the present work, summarized and 168 depicted in Figure 3. The single transect (S_{IS}) extracted at y=0 (see Figure 169 1, a) as well as the alongshore averaged in-situ shoreline timeseries $(\overline{S_{IS}})$, 170 have been derived from monthly to bimonthly sampled topographic GNSS 171 surveys, performed during spring low tide at Truc Vert beach (see Figure 1) 172 in the frame of a long-term monitoring program established in 2003 (Castelle 173 et al., 2020). S_{IS} and $\overline{S_{IS}}$ correspond to the 1.5 m elevation Above Mean Sea 174 Level (AMSL) shoreline proxy (see Figure 1), as this has been found to best 175 correlate with the beach-dune volume (Robinet et al., 2016). The overbar 176 denotes alongshore averaging over the survey domain, which increased from 177 approximately 600 m in 2009 to slightly over 2300 m in 2016. In the present 178 work, the alongshore-averaged in situ shoreline $\overline{S_{IS}}$ is considered as the true 179 shoreline to which both satellite-derived and simulated shoreline data will be 180 further compared. Unless stated otherwise the alongshore domain considered 181 in the present work is the largest available at each point in time which after 182 2016 is stabilized to ~ 2.4 km. 183

The satellite-derived, alongshore-averaged, uncorrected waterline \overline{W}_S , tidecorrected shoreline \overline{S}_{ST} and tide and runup corrected shoreline \overline{S}_{STR} depicted
in Figure 3 were generated by Castelle et al. (2021). These datasets were computed from the waterlines W derived from optical satellite imagery along 4
km of coastline at Truc Vert (see panel a in Figure 1). The extraction of
the instantaneous waterline position W, was performed using the python
toolkit CoastSat (Vos et al., 2019b) which is freely available on GitHub

(https://github.com/kvos/CoastSat). CoastSat is a Google Earth Engine enabled open-source Python toolkit that allows the user to obtain waterline 192 position time-series at any sandy coastline worldwide from publicly available 193 satellite imagery. Landsat 5, 7 & 8 (L5, L7 & L8) images with a spatial resolution of 30 m and Sentinel-2 (S2) images with a spatial resolution of 195 10 m can be retrieved to a user defined window. In succession the images 196 are being processed to remove cloudy pixels and enhance spatial resolution. 197 The methodology for the extraction of the instantaneous waterline position 198 is described in detail in Vos et al. (2019a). 199

Castelle et al. (2021) applied water level corrections by translating hori-200 zontally the waterline W using a constant beach slope of 0.05 and the water 201 level at the coast at the satellite flyover time. The water level at the coast 202 was estimated using a coastal model hindcast of water level (Pineau-Guillou, 203 2013) validated at Truc Vert by Castelle et al. (2020). To estimate the wave 204 run up component of the instantaneous water level at the satellite flyover 205 time Castelle et al. (2021) used the run up formulations proposed by Senechal 206 et al. (2011) that has been calibrated at Truc Vert and can be scaled using 207 offshore wave height alone at Truc Vert. The two waterline datasets, namely 208 W_S and $\overline{W_S}$ include all usable satellite images since 2009. The two water 209 level corrected datasets \overline{S}_{ST} and \overline{S}_{STR} , include all images extracted when 210 total water level η_t exceeds 0.5 & 0.2 m respectively. Although disregarding 211 low tide images improved the quality of the timeseries, it significantly reduces 212 the amount of observations. For a detailed and in depth description of the 213 methodology and analysis resulting to the three satellite derived datasets, 214 the reader is referred to Castelle et al. (2021).

The raw waterline data extracted from the satellite images W_S as well as 216 its 4-km alongshore averaged dataset \overline{W}_S can deviate from the shoreline po-217 sition significantly, especially in a high energy meso-macrotidal environment 218 like Truc Vert. The computed root mean square error for the \overline{W}_S dataset 219 reported in Castelle et al. (2021) is in the order of 30 m and the correlation 220 is poor with $R^2 < 0.5$ (see panel c in Figure 3). The single transect satellite 221 derived waterline W_S shows similar agreement when compared against the in 222 situ derived shoreline position S_{IS} considering the same transect (see panel d 223 in Figure 3) with a slightly smaller error. Alongshore averaging and applying 224 tide and/or wave runup correction on the satellite derived waterline positions 225 can largely improve the agreement with in situ shoreline $\overline{S_{IS}}$ (Castelle et al., 2021; Konstantinou et al., 2023). It is important to note that the comparison 227 $(RMSE, R^2 \& bias)$ consider satellite images and beach surveys separated 228 by up to 10 days. 229

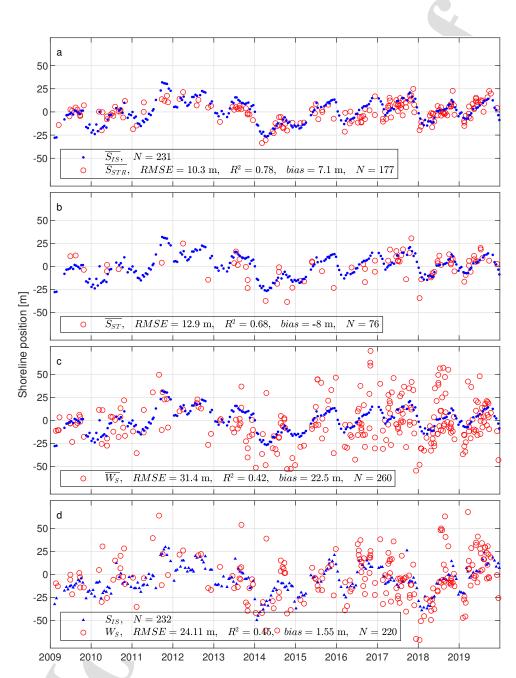


Figure 3: The four different satellite derived shorelines are depicted together with the in situ derived single transect (S_{IS}) and alongshore averaged $(\overline{S_{IS}})$ +1.5 m AMSL shoreline proxy. The RMSE, R^2 and bias compared to the $\overline{S_{IS}}$ and S_{IS} as well as the total number of unique observations N for each data set r_{IS} indicated in the legend.

3. Shoreline numerical modelling

3.1. Equilibrium shoreline model

In the present work the empirical equilibrium shoreline model ShoreFor developed by Davidson et al. (2013) was used to simulate shoreline evolution. In ShoreFor the shoreline displacement is defined as a function of the nearshore wave power and a disequilibrium state of the beach. In the approach of Davidson et al. (2013) the rate of shoreline change dx/dt (m/s) is defined as:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = c^{\pm} P^{0.5} (\Omega_{eq} - \Omega) \tag{1}$$

where the model's forcing term is the product of the incident wave power P (W) computed using linear wave theory, and the model free parameter c^{\pm} representing the response rate of the shoreline with units of velocity per measure incident wave power. The parameter c^{\pm} is separated into accretion c^+ when $\Omega_{eq} > \Omega$ and erosion c^- when $\Omega_{eq} < \Omega$ components, accounting for 242 the fact that accretion and erosion are observed to evolve at different rates. 243 Davidson et al. (2013) included a term b in their formulation accounting for 244 linear trends stemming from longer term processes that are not explicitly 245 addressed in the model. In the present work this term is disregarded due 246 to the relatively small trend calculated from the SDS data, and the absence 247 of significant shoreline trend over the last 70 years (Castelle et al., 2018b). The term inside the parenthesis in equation 1 is a disequilibrium term which 249 is based on the premise that shoreline state and morphological change are 250 inter-related. Ω is the so called dimensionless fall velocity defined as:

$$\Omega = \frac{H_s}{T_n w_s} \tag{2}$$

where H_s and T_p are the instantaneous significant wave height and peak wave period respectively and w_s is the terminal fall velocity of the beach's median grain diameter d_{50} calculated using Stoke's law. The time varying equilibrium condition Ω_{eq} is a weighted average of the antecedent dimensionless fall velocity Ω defined as:

$$\Omega_{eq} = \sum_{j=0}^{2\phi} \Omega_j 10^{-j/\phi} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{2\phi} 10^{-j/\phi} \right]^{-1}$$
 (3)

where j is the number of days prior to the present time and the memory decay ϕ is a model free parameter indicating the number of days it takes for 258 the weighting to reach 10%, 1% and 0.1% of the instantaneous value at ϕ , 259 2ϕ and 3ϕ days prior to the present. The formulation used in the present 260 work and shown in Equation 3 incorporates all past beach state information 261 for the past 2ϕ days, yielding a minimum weighting factor of 1%. 262 Following the work of D'Anna et al. (2022) a constant SLR_{rate} of 3.31 263 mm/year is applied, the contribution of which to shoreline retreat is calcu-264 lated using the Bruun rule (Bruun, 1962). The SLR driven shoreline retreat 265

is negligible in the time scales addressed in the present work.

3.2. Calibration

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The model requires the calibration of two model free parameters, namely the accretion/erosion rate c^{\pm} and the memory decay ϕ . An extra term is added allowing the model to adjust its initial position by dx_0 . This term is introduced to account for uncertainties in the first shoreline data point.

To calibrate the model free parameters the simulated annealing algorithm 272 proposed by Bertsimas and Tsitsiklis (1993) was implemented. Simulated 273 annealing is a non-linear probabilistic method, that can be used to find the 274 global minimum of a cost function without getting stuck in local minima. The 275 implementation of the simulated annealing algorithm was already successful 276 in the calibration of equilibrium models in Castelle et al. (2014), D'Anna 277 et al. (2020), Labarthe et al. (2023) and more. In this contribution, the 278 mean squared error (MSE) between the observed and simulated shoreline 279 was used as a cost function in the optimization without accounting for any 280 sources of uncertainty. 281

A timeseries of simulated shoreline evolution and the corresponding cost 282 function C, are calculated based on a set of initial model parameters \mathbf{P}_0 . 283 Successively, one of the model parameters is randomly selected and modified 284 within the defined range, based on a defined noise. The cost function is 285 calculated for the new set of model parameters P(i) and compared to the 286 initial value. As long as the new solution is an improvement C(i) < C, the 287 same step is repeated with the new solution as initial value $\mathbf{P_0} = \mathbf{P(i)}$ & 288 C = C(i) until the number of iterations defined by the user is reached. In 289 case the new solution is not an improvement $C(i) \geq C$ then the next step is 290 defined based on the following probability: 291

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{P_0}, \mathbf{P(i)}, T(i)) = \exp[-(C(i) - C)/T(i)]$$

where T(i) is a positive integer called the temperature parameter. The temperature controls the probability of accepting worse solutions. Initially, the temperature is high, allowing the algorithm to accept worse solutions with relatively high probability. The algorithm uses a cooling schedule to gradually

decrease the temperature parameter with every iteration based on a defined cooling coefficient. As the temperature decreases, the algorithm becomes more selective, preferring only better solutions. The temperature parameter plays a crucial role in Simulated Annealing. A high temperature allows the algorithm to explore a wide range of solutions, including worse ones, helping to escape local minima.

The initial model parameters $\mathbf{P_0}$ are defined as the average value of the considered range. The noise amplitude used to inflate each parameter, corresponds to 5% of the bounds' difference. Our preliminary analysis showed that in order to achieve an acceptable solution, the algorithm needed to be initialized with a large temperature T_0 , slowly decreasing and allow for a large number of iterations $(O > 10^5)$.

308 3.3. Simulation setup

The present work aims to evaluate the performance of the state of the art 309 equilibrium shoreline evolution model proposed by Davidson et al. (2013), 310 when calibrated against satellite-derived waterline and shoreline datasets 311 with different water level corrections and sampling frequencies, and thus 312 varying uncertainties (see Figure 3). To assess the performance of the model 313 and further explore the requirements in SDS quality and quantity to ro-314 bustly calibrate an equilibrium shoreline model, three different numerical 315 experiments have been designed. All the experiments were conducted under 316 the assumption that there is no a priori knowledge of the simulated coastal 317 environment. This was implemented by investigating a range of calibration 318 parameters (Table 1) beyond the limits found in the literature (e.g. Davidson 319 et al., 2013; Splinter et al., 2014; D'Anna et al., 2020, 2022). 320

Model parameter	Simulated annealing range	Units
c^+ / c^-	$[0; 2.5] \times 10^{-6} / [0; 1.0] \times 10^{-6}$	$\mathrm{m}^{1.5}~\mathrm{s}^{-1}~\mathrm{W}^{0.5}$
ϕ	[25; 1400]	days
dx_0	[-10; 10]	m

Table 1: Range of values considered in the present work.

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As an initial test the model has been calibrated against all five datasets depicted in Figure 3, using the entire period (January 2009 - December 2019) and comparing the model results with the in situ derived shoreline data $\overline{S_{IS}}$ and S_{IS} . This experiment was designed to asses whether the information of the shoreline position can be extracted from the different datasets and to which extent each of the five datasets can be used to calibrate the empirical equilibrium shoreline model and provide accurate hindcast.

Given the alongshore variability in shoreline position due to prominent 328 megacusp embayments, the next experiment was designed to investigate a 329 minimum threshold in the alongshore averaging window necessary to obtain 330 satisfactory model results. To do so, 40 different shoreline datasets were 331 generated from the satellite-derived waterlines W using alongshore averag-332 ing windows extending from 100 m to 4000 m around the origo point (see 333 Figure 1), in increments of 100 m. All of these alongshore averaged datasets 334 were used to calibrate the model against the entire period (January 2009) December 2019). Model performance was systematically assessed against 336 in situ derived shoreline data $\overline{S_{IS}}(y)$ after 2016, using the same window as 337 the calibration dataset. The variable y represents the alongshore distance 338 considered for each window (see Figure 1). Importantly, in order to avoid

erroneous interpretations of the results, account for the stochastic nature of the simulated annealing algorithm and ensure repeatability, the calibration was run 20 times for every dataset.

The final numerical experiments were designed to explore the amount and 343 quality of data required to obtain fair model skill. These experiments were 344 inspired by the work of Splinter et al. (2013), where they investigated the 345 influence of noise, morphological sampling interval and calibration duration 346 in empirical equilibrium shoreline models including Davidson et al. (2013). 347 Similar to the work of Splinter et al. (2013) and more recently Alvarez-Cuesta 348 et al. (2024), in order to properly investigate the influence of sampling fre-349 quency as well as noise in the dataset, a synthetic shoreline was generated S_{SYN} using Eq. 1 and the wave timeseries depicted in Figure 2. Subse-351 quently the synthetic shoreline was inflated by normally distributed noise 352 with a magnitude, equal to 100% and 200% of the standard deviation of the 353 synthetic shoreline timeseries to account for measurement errors and other 354 unresolved processes. Finally the synthetic shoreline timeseries were subsam-355 led in intervals of dt = 1, 7, 14, 30, 60, 90, 182 & 365 days. The resulting 24 356 synthetic shoreline timeseries were used to calibrate the model, which perfor-357 mance was evaluated against the daily subsampled synthetic shoreline with 358 0% noise. The duration of an adequate calibration period was investigated in 359 increments of 6 months for all aforementioned synthetic shorelines as well as 360 the four observed alongshore averaged shoreline timeseries depicted in Figure 361 3. The performance of the models calibrated using the alongshore averaged 362 shoreline and waterline data was evaluated against the true shoreline $(\overline{S_{IS}})$ 363 timeseries of the subsequent period. All simulations for both the synthetic

and observed datasets, were repeated 10 times to account for the stochastic nature of the simulated annealing algorithm.

Lastly the importance of sampling frequency was further investigated 367 using the alongshore averaged uncorrected waterline data $\overline{W_S}$ over the entire 368 period from January 2009 to December 2019. In this experiment, N amount 369 of data points were randomly sampled from the entire dataset which were 370 then used to calibrate the model over the entire period. Successively the 371 model's performance was evaluated against the true shoreline $(\overline{S_{IS}})$. Eleven 372 datasets were investigated in total with the most scarce one being populated 373 by N=25 points randomly distributed over the entire period and increasing 374 the amount of points in increments of 25 arriving at the complete dataset. The experiment was repeated 30 times for each dataset. 376

377 4. Results

378 4.1. Model calibration with different datasets

Figure 4 shows model results when calibrated with each of the five datasets 379 (namely $\overline{S_{IS}}$, $\overline{S_{STR}}$, $\overline{S_{ST}}$, $\overline{W_S}$ and W_S), which are compared against the in-380 situ shoreline proxies $\overline{S_{IS}}$ and S_{IS} . For all five datasets, the model was 381 calibrated using the entire period depicted in Figure 4. All the alongshore averaged datasets, both in-situ and satellite derived, produce an acceptable 383 model with RMSE < 10 m and $R^2 \approx 0.6$ (Figure 4). This is not surprising 384 for in-situ shoreline proxy $\overline{S_{IS}}$, with model skill similar to previous equilibrium model applications at Truc Vert (Castelle et al., 2014; Splinter et al., 386 2014; D'Anna et al., 2020). More unexpected is that similar model skill is 387 obtained with all the alongshore-averaged SDS despite the error and noise 388

in the dataset (see Figure 3). This is particularly true for the uncorrected waterline \overline{W}_S , with RMSE of approximately 30 m and seasonal and interan-390 nual patterns barely depictable (Figure 3). Results improve as uncertainties 391 are reduced with each applied correction (tide and/or runup correction), de-392 spite the fact that both these datasets contain less data points (Figure 3). In 393 contrast, the model calibrated with the single transect waterline dataset W_S 394 (Figure 4e) shows very poor performance with a coefficient of determination 395 of $R^2 \approx 0.2$ and a RMSE > 10 m, which will be discussed later in the paper. 396 Given that only the single transect dataset yielded poor results, the influ-397 ence of alongshore averaging window on model skill was investigated (Figure 398 5). Results show that the minimum window width to obtain good model skill is $L \geq 1.2$ km. Both the RMSE of the model and the correlation coefficient 400 improve significantly with $L \geq 1.2$ km, while a slight further improvement 401 is observed when $L \geq 2.2$ km. These values coincide with approximately 402 1.5 and 3 times the wavelength of the megacusp embayments (~ 700 m) ob-403 served in Truc Vert beach. It should be noted that the in situ data are limited 404 to a window of ~ 2.4 km. Thus, beyond this point the calibration results 405 have been compared against alongshore averaged shoreline positions using the largest available window (~ 2.4 km). The findings of this experiment are 407 discussed in detail in Section 5. 408

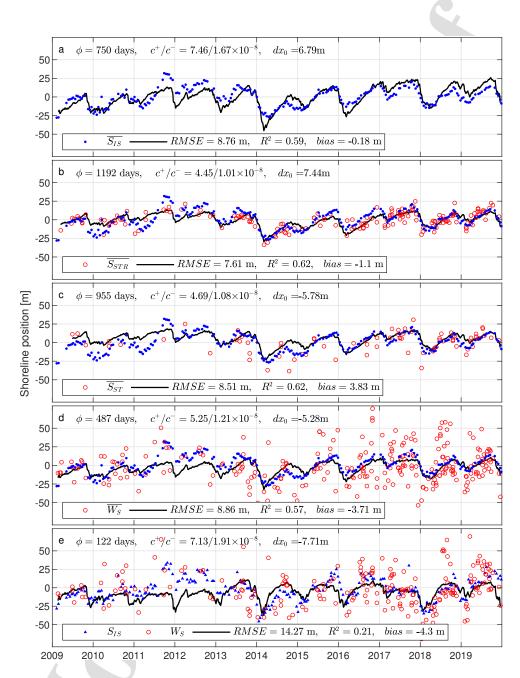


Figure 4: Model results using the simulating annealing algorithm to calibrate the model over the entire period based on the five different datasets and comparing with the in-situ derived shoreline data $\overline{S_{IS}}$ (blue dots) and S_{IS} (blue triangles). Performance metrics and calibrated model parameters are indicated in each panel.

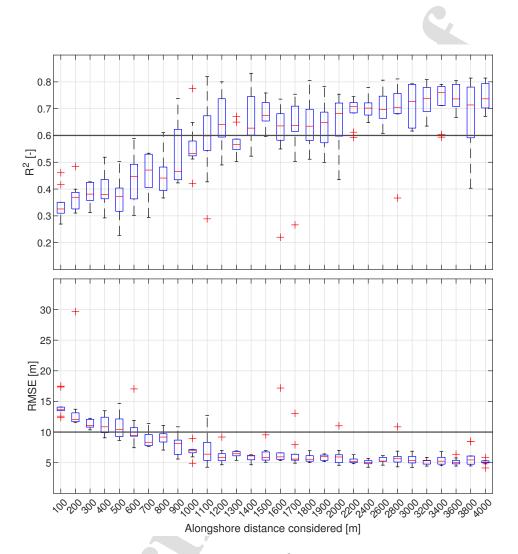


Figure 5: Performance indicators (RMSE and R^2) of the model when calibrated using the alongshore averaged satellite derived waterline (\overline{W}_S) with a varying alongshore window size. The performance indicators of the model results are calculated against in-situ shoreline data with a matching window size ($\overline{S}_{IS}(y)$). Each box summarizes the results of 10 calibration runs. The horizontal red line inside the box, indicates the median value and the top and bottom edges of the blue boxes indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles respectively. Maximum whisker length extends up to 1.5 times the interquantile range and any value outside this range is considered an outlier and depicted as a red cross.

409 4.2. How much data is enough ?

In Figures 6 and 7 the results of the investigation on the adequate calibration period, influence of noise and sampling frequency on model performance using a synthetic shoreline are summarized for the case of 0 % and 200 % noise respectively. The sampling frequency of the shoreline used for calibration is indicated in the upper right corner of each panel. The mean (squares) and standard deviation (circles) R^2 and RMSE of the 10 simulation ensemble are plotted in the left and right hand column respectively.

The influence of sampling frequency is weak in the 0 % noise case for dt \leq 90 days (see Figure 6). Further reducing sampling frequency significantly reduces model skill, especially when less than 4 years of data are used for calibration. Considering a calibration period of 4 years or more, all four datasets enable the generation of models with very similar skill. The larger RMSE around the 5 year calibration duration is due to the model producing an erroneous trend.

The effect of noise in the dataset on model skill is almost negligible as 424 long as the sampling frequency is kept within $dt \leq 30$ days (see Figures 6 425 and 7). Reducing sampling frequency to dt \geq 90 days in the dataset with 200 % noise significantly reduces model skill, however when a calibration 427 period larger than 3 years is considered results improve. Further reducing the 428 sampling frequency to dt = 365 days, yields a model that fails to reproduce 429 the shoreline evolution. When calibrating over 4 years or more, the model manages to capture the shoreline variability while still fails to reproduce the 431 shoreline trend. These findings are very promising and are discussed in detail 432 in Section 5. 433

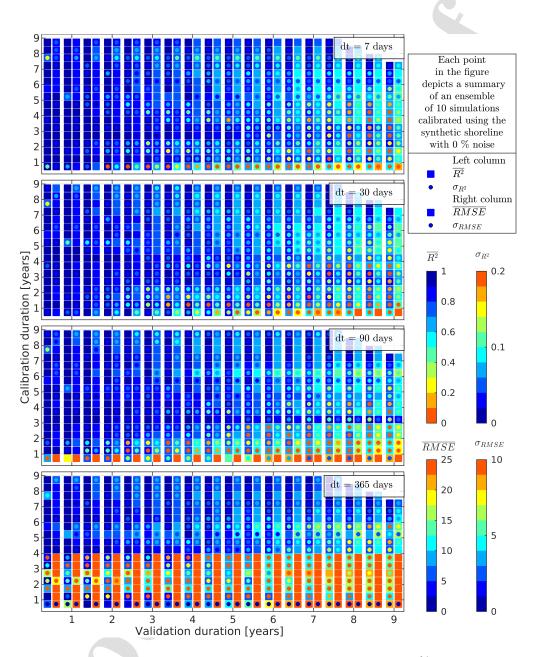


Figure 6: Model performance calibrated using synthetic shoreline with 0 % noise subsampled at dt = 7, 30, 90 and 365 days. RMSE and R^2 plotted in the left and right column respectively, are calculated based on the daily subsampled synthetic shoreline considering the period following the calibration.. The squares and the circles represent the mean and standard deviation of an ensemble of 10 sing attains.

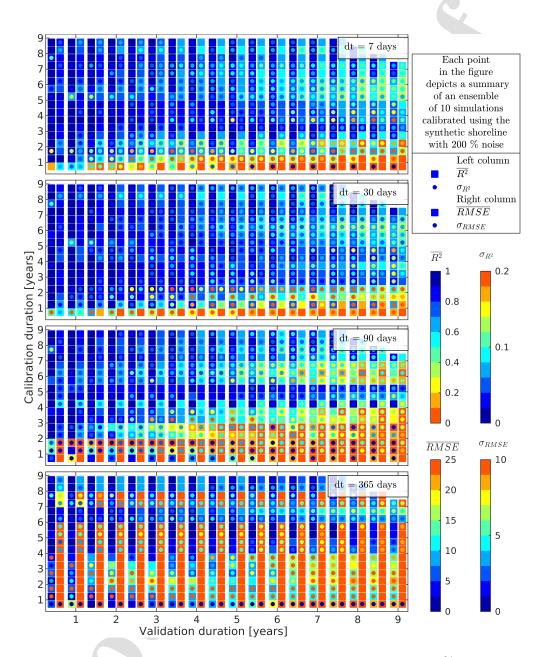


Figure 7: Model performance calibrated using synthetic shoreline with 200 % noise subsampled at dt = 7, 30, 90 and 365 days. RMSE and R^2 plotted in the left and right column respectively, are calculated based on the daily subsampled synthetic shoreline considering the period following the calibration.. The squares and the circles represent the mean and standard deviation of an ensemble of 10 simulations.

In Figure 8 the predicted shorelines from the investigation on the adequate 434 calibration period using the four alongshore averaged datasets are depicted 435 together with the dataset used for the calibration. In Figure 9 the results 436 of the analysis are depicted in the same format as for the synthetic cases. 437 Results for all datasets, indicate a pivot point in model skill when calibration 438 duration exceeds 4 years. This finding agrees with the work of Splinter 439 et al. (2014) and our tests on the synthetic shoreline dataset. Excluding 440 the $\overline{S_{ST}}$ dataset the models produced considering a calibration period of 4 441 years or more, show very good model skill. The increase in RMSE in the 442 model calibrated with the \overline{W}_s considering a 6 year period is attributed to 443 an erroneous trend generated by the model. This trend is present in the \overline{W}_s dataset between 2009 and 2015, leading to model parameters that would 445 reproduce it. These findings open new perspectives for SDS applications 446 which are discussed in more detail in Section 5.

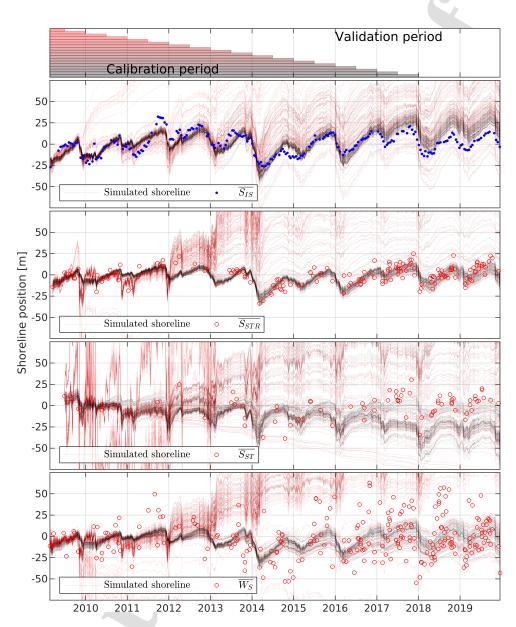


Figure 8: Model results of the investigation on the sufficient calibration window for all four alongshore averaged datasets. The considered calibration periods are indicated in the upper panel The considered calibration periods are indicated in the upper panel, transitioning from red to black as the calibration duration increases. The simulated shorelines are plotted in red for the model calibration finishing at 07/2009 gradually transitioning to black as the calibration window increases. Model performance was evaluated against the $\overline{S_{IS}}$ dataset considering the period following the calibration.

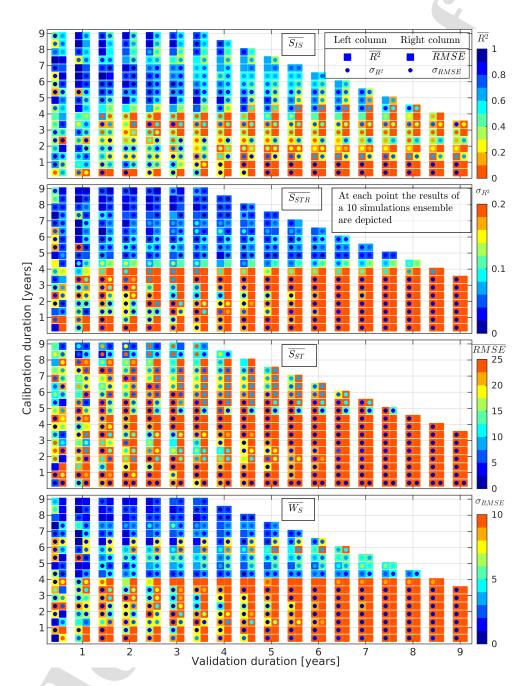


Figure 9: Model performance calibrated using the four alongshore averaged observed datasets, evaluated against the $\overline{S_{IS}}$ dataset considering the period following the calibration. RMSE and R^2 plotted in the left and right column respectively. The squares and the circles represent the mean and standard deviation of an ensemble of 10 simulations.

Finally the results on the influence of sampling frequency in the along-448 shore averaged uncorrected SD waterline $\overline{W_S}$ on model skill are depicted in 449 Figures 10 and 11. In Figure 10 four examples are shown having a total 450 number of observations over the entire 11 year period of N=25, 100, 175 451 and 275 plotted from the upper to the lower panel, respectively. The results 452 are summarised in Figure 11 in terms of performance metrics (RMSE and 453 R^2). These findings indicate that even with a dataset of 25 points distributed 454 randomly over the 11 year period the simulated annealing algorithm man-455 ages to find an acceptable solution. However, the majority of the runs based 456 on calibration with only 25 points yield very poor results. Increasing the 457 number of points shows a significant improvement in the repeatability of the 458 solution. When using the complete dataset ($N_{max} = 275$ points), the algo-459 rithm never fails to find an acceptable solution. These results are discussed 460 in detail in section 5. 461

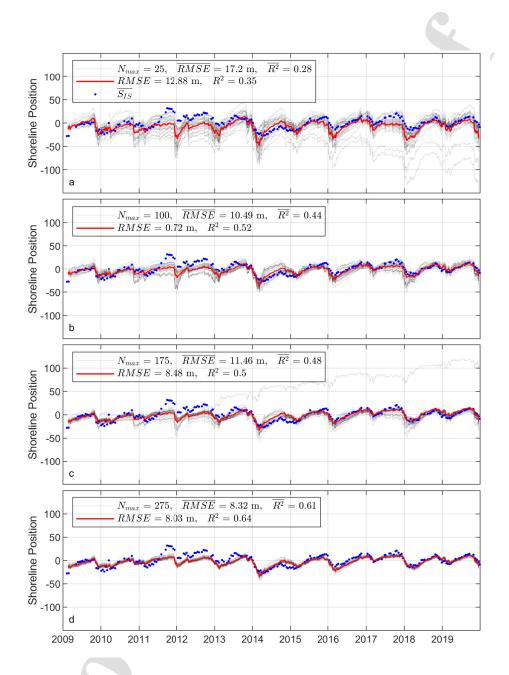


Figure 10: Predicted shoreline obtained from an ensemble of 30 different model calibrations using N number of randomly selected points from the \overline{W}_S data set. The ensemble mean is plotted in red while all the rest are plotted in light grey. The model's performance is evaluated against the \overline{S}_{IS} (blue dots). The amount of data points N_{max} used for the calibration of the model is indicated in the R end together with the average performance indicators \overline{RMSE} and \overline{R}^2 of the ensemble.

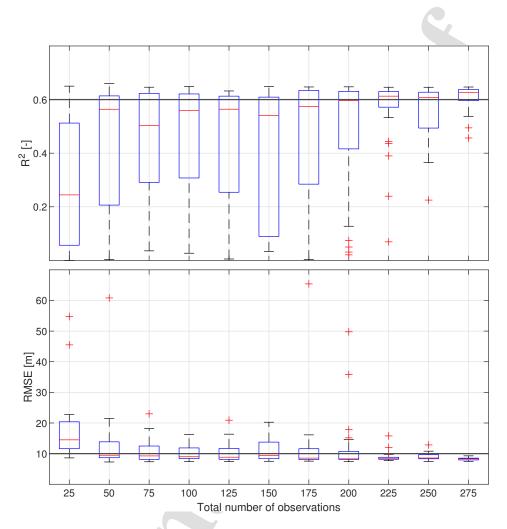


Figure 11: Performance indicators RMSE and R^2 depicted in the lower and upper panel of the figure plotted against the number of data points used for the calibration. Each box corresponds to an ensemble of 30 simulations using N amount of data points randomly selected from the $\overline{W_S}$ dataset. The horizontal red line inside the boxes, indicates the median value and the top and bottom edges of the blue boxes indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles respectively. Maximum whisker length extends up to 1.5 times the interquantile range and any value outside this range is considered an outlier and depicted as a red cross.

5. Discussion

To the authors' knowledge the current study is the first ever successful 463 use of uncorrected SDS data for the calibration of an equilibrium shoreline 464 model in a high-energy, meso-macrotidal environment. Previous studies such 465 as Castelle et al. (2014); Splinter et al. (2014) have used either data collected 466 using traditional survey techniques such as GNSS or video-derived shorelines 467 (e.g. Holman et al., 2003, ARGUS). Existing work using SDS observations in 468 model calibration focused on microtidal environments (e.g. Alvarez-Cuesta 469 et al., 2021a,b; Ibaceta et al., 2022), where SDS RMSE are in the order 470 of 10 m. In their latest contribution Vitousek et al. (2023) applied a SDS 471 data assimilated shoreline model to hindcast and predict coastal change at 472 the entire coast of California. They used almost exclusively SDS data for 473 the calibration of the model, to which they applied water level corrections 474 achieving a RMSE between SDS and in situ observations in the order of 15 475 m. 476

There is a substantial amount of research aiming at reducing uncertainties 477 and improve quality of SDS data (Castelle et al., 2021; Konstantinou et al., 478 2023). In the present application however the amount of data was found 479 to be the most important parameter of the SDS dataset rather than the 480 quality/accuracy of the shoreline position. Without applying any of the 481 corrections proposed in Castelle et al. (2021), SDS data extracted in a meso-482 macrotidal, high-energy environment with a RMSE larger than 30 m, allowed 483 skillful equilibrium shoreline model calibration. The calibrated model showed 484 a very good performance with a RMSE = 8.3 m and a strong correlation of R^2 485 = 0.63. This result was unexpected considering the large RMSE associated 486

with the raw SDS data.

The effect of noise in the datasets (both synthetic and observed) seems 488 to be almost negligible as long as the sampling frequency is kept high (dt \leq 489 30 days) and an adequate calibration period is considered. This observation 490 stemming from the synthetic shoreline analysis experiment clearly explains 491 why the worst model skill is obtained when the tide corrected dataset S_{ST} is 492 used for calibration. The model seems to be sensitive to the period chosen 493 for calibration as this would influence the shoreline trend as well as the phe-494 nomena included. Further analysis considering different calibration periods 495 while maintaining the same duration should be performed to investigate this 496 hypothesis.

It should be stated that the in situ data include a strong accretion spike 498 in 2012 which is due to sandbar-welding and could only be captured at spring 499 low tide which is when surveys take place at Truc Vert. This accretion signal 500 is not as pronounced in the SDS datasets since the satellite flyover time does 501 not necessarily coincide with spring low tide. Furthermore, as previously 502 discussed the water level corrected datasets disregard low tide images, which 503 results in smoothing of the accretion spike. Such an event could not be captured by the physics of the model used, and is believed to have an impact 505 in the performance of the model when calibrated with this period of the 506 in-situ dataset. This could also be partly the reason for increasing model 507 performance as the influence of 2012 gets smoothed with larger calibration 508 period (see Figure 9). 509

The fact that the adopted methodology proved successful even in a very challenging site such as Truc Vert, is very encouraging for potential future

applications of SDS data in equilibrium shoreline modelling even at sites where no in-situ data are available. The spatio-temporal coverage of freely 513 available satellite imagery combined with the no a priori knowledge assump-514 tion adopted in the current study, hint that the proposed methodology could 515 be universally applicable on cross-shore transport dominated coasts. The 516 model used in the present work requires information about the median sedi-517 ment grain size D_{50} of the simulated environment. Although this information 518 is impossible to obtain via remote sensing, a reasonable guess would be suf-519 ficient as this would serve as a scaling factor that would be compensated by 520 the calibration parameters. 521

Alongshore averaging was found to be the only necessary processing of 522 the SDS data prior to their application in model calibration at Truc Vert. 523 This can be explained by the presence of prominent mega-cusps, that typ-524 ically form, migrate alongshore, and decay in time, which physics are not 525 represented by an equilibrium model like Davidson et al. (2013). Therefore 526 these features needed to be filtered out of the dataset, which was achieved 527 by alongshore averaging over a window approximately 1.5 times the features 528 wavelength. This approach does not violate the no a priori knowledge as-529 sumption adopted, since megacusp spacing can be estimated by simply study-530 ing the satellite images, and an averaging window of say 3-4 time this spacing 531 be applied. Alternatively, filtering out megacusps, which are quite common 532 on intermediate coastlines (Wright and Short, 1984), can be performed by 533 applying a conservative alongshore window width in the order of a couple of 534 km as Truc Vert shows larger rip spacing than most of the reported sandy 535 beaches. Critically, our findings are in line with recent work suggesting that

spacial averaging can reduce SDS noise (Castelle et al., 2022; Warrick et al., 2023), and demonstrate that global SDS datasets with transects spaced by 10s of kilometers are not relevant to address shoreline change on most coasts (Warrick et al., submitted).

A dataset covering 4 to 5 years with a monthly sampling frequency was 541 found to be sufficient for the calibration of the model applied to hindcast ~ 6 542 years of shoreline evolution in Truc Vert. This result, obtained with raw SDS 543 data in a high energy, meso-macrotidal shoreline, is in line with the find-544 ings of Splinter et al. (2013) where they investigated the influence of noise, 545 morphological sampling interval and dataset duration in equilibrium shore-546 line model calibration and the recent work of Alvarez-Cuesta et al. (2024) who performed a similar analysis on data assimilation. The fact that similar 548 results with previous studies are obtained in the present work, further illus-549 trates the strength of the simulated annealing algorithm considering that the 550 investigated noise level in the synthetic time series is 4 times larger compared 551 to previous studies (200\% of the standard deviation) and so is the order of 552 magnitude of the observation error ($O \sim 30$ m). It should be noted that the 553 SDS data after 2013, improve both in terms of image quality and sampling frequency. Therefore, the aforementioned result can be considered conserva-555 tive and the models obtained using the methodology presented in this work 556 are only expected to improve. 557

Our findings regarding the adequate sampling frequency indicate that even with as few as 25 points randomly spread over an 11 year period, the simulated annealing algorithm was able to find a very good solution. This is particularly encouraging for applications in higher latitudes where the amount

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of cloud-free satellite images are significantly reduced (Konstantinou et al., 2023). On average however, the performance of the models calibrated with the scarcely populated datasets ($N_{max} \leq 200$) is considered poor. Results could be significantly improved for all datasets by narrowing the range of investigated model free parameters which would guide the algorithm towards a desired solution.

The alongshore averaging window width and adequate spatiotemporal 568 resolution of the SDS data, should be regarded as site specific variables. 569 Given that Truc Vert is a challenging coastline, conservative estimates of 570 these variables are provided in the current work. Exception would be high-571 latitude coastlines where cloud coverage can significantly affect the sampling frequency. The limited availability of cloud free satellite images that would 573 significantly affect the temporal resolution could be addressed through an 574 iterative approach. In addition larger waves associated with higher latitudes 575 would influence the size of cusps and megacusps which in turn would control 576 the width and spatial resolution of the alongshore window. The sufficient 577 width and resolution of the alongshore window are not seen as limitations but 578 rather as site-specific information readily available in the satellite imagery. 579

The present results suggest that the introduced methodology could be potentially applicable to any cross shore dominated sandy shoreline. To verify this hypothesis such approach should be applied to several diverse sites around the world investigating the influence of beach type, wave climate and tidal amplitude in model skill. Furthermore, applying such method to complex coasts where other processes (e.g. longshore sediment transport gradients) are at play should also be explored using one-line models. Finally

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applying the same approach to different model types would further challenge the findings of the present study. Although previous work using several models like Yates et al. (2009); Splinter et al. (2014); Vitousek et al. (2017); D'Anna et al. (2022) suggest similar performance, further validation of the proposed methodology should be conducted.

The simulated annealing algorithm has proven to be a very useful tool, 592 enabling the proposed methodology. The stochastic nature of the algorithm 593 should be accounted for by repeating the experiment enough times such as 594 to achieve convergence of the error statistics. Any application of the intro-595 duced methodology would require accurate inshore wave data (hindcast and 596 or forecast, that capture the wave climate variability (e.g. seasonal, interannual). Such data may be obtained from publicly available global wave 598 hindcasts spanning over several decades such as Mentaschi et al. (2023); 599 Hersbach et al. (2023), and either used directly as a forcing or as a bound-600 ary condition to produce high resolution nearshore wave forcing for shoreline 601 modelling. 602

603 6. Conclusion

The present work introduces a novel approach using uncorrected, noisy,

SDS data for the calibration of equilibrium based shoreline models. The

simulated annealing algorithm proposed by Bertsimas and Tsitsiklis (1993)

guided by high quality wave forcing, extracts information from uncorrected

noisy SDS data, even when assuming no a priori knowledge of the site. Rather

than data quality, the amount of data (e.g sampling frequency) was found to

be critical in the modelling application. The only required processing of the

SDS data for the model calibration was alongshore averaging, while any other site-specific corrections did not significantly improve model skill. Though further validation is needed, our findings suggest that alongshore averaged uncorrected SDS extracted at any cross shore dominated coastline can be applied in the calibration of transect based equilibrium shoreline models. The present work opens new perspectives in modelling, understanding and predicting sandy shoreline change in sites lacking field data.

⁶¹⁸ 7. Acknowledgements

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Satellite-derived equilibrium shoreline modelling at a high-energy meso-macrotidal beach Highlights :

- Model calibration using uncorrected satellite-derived shoreline data.
- Simulated annealing extracts information from raw satellite derived shoreline data.
- New perspective in modelling sandy shoreline change even when lacking field data.
- Sampling frequency more critical than data quality in model calibration.

Declaration of interests
☑ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
☐The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: