Coastal processes and longshore sediment transport along Kundapura coast, central west coast of India

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Abstract
Longshore sediment transport (LST) is one of the main factors influencing coastal geomorphology. This study examines the variation in the LST estimate using four well known formulae and the sensitivity of wave parameters on LST determination. The study was done along the Kundapura coast, central west coast of India. The Delft3D-wave module was used for obtaining the nearshore wave characteristics from the wave data measured using Datawell directional wave rider buoy at 12 m water depth for a period of one year. Diurnal change and seasonal variation in LST were examined. The study shows that the net LST was towards north for most of the time (non-monsoon period) during the year when predominant wave direction was between SWS and SW, whereas the LST was towards south during the monsoon season when the wave direction was from the west. It was found that the influence of breaker height was more during the non-monsoon period whereas during the monsoon period, breaker angle shows more influence on LST. Estimated annual net LSTR for the region is 3.6, 3.0, 1.6, and 2.6 x 10^5 m^3 based on the CERC, Walton and Bruno, Kamphuis and Komar formulae. The LSTR estimate based on the Kamphuis formula, which also includes the wave period, beach slope, and sediment grain size, was found to be a reliable estimate for the study region. The variation in LSTR estimate considering different data intervals was also examined and found that the difference in monthly LSTR for data intervals of 6, 12 and 24 h with respect to the 3 h interval was up to 11, 13 and 24%. For better and more accurate estimates of LSTR, the data interval should be 3 h or less.

Key words: Longshore currents, sediment transport, nearshore waves, nearshore processes, littoral drift
1. **Introduction**

The coastal environment constitutes a fragile and complex ecosystem that is an important resource for most nations. The littoral drift or longshore sediment transport (LST) is one of the main factors influencing the coastal geomorphology (CERC, 1984). A quantitative understanding and thorough knowledge of LST in the littoral zone is essential for the design of coastal protection measures and operational maintenance of navigation channels. In the normal course, if some beach material is washed away during a rough weather season, the lost material is re-deposited during the next fair weather season and the beach equilibrium is maintained (Komar, 1998). However, when there is an obstruction to littoral drift due to the presence of natural headlands, shoals and/or artificial structures, the equilibrium profile of the natural beach is disturbed (Komar, 1998). Quantitative prediction of coastal processes and coastal evolution through numerical modeling is now possible due to the major advances that have been made in understanding the physical processes and mathematical modeling techniques over the last few years (e.g. Jiang et al., 2010). Because of the complexity of the nearshore processes, accurate estimation of longshore sediment transport rate (LSTR) is still a task for the coastal engineers (Mafi et al., 2013). The accuracy of the prediction depends on the environmental conditions at the nearshore zone, the governing physical processes, and the quality of the data used to calibrate the formulation (Güner et al., 2013).

Generally there are two fundamental approaches for the estimation of LSTR. One is with the bulk formulation which is based on the assumption of simplified physical processes and the other one is the process-based models which include the effects of large number of complex physical processes. The process-based models require a large number of input parameters (Mil-Homens, 2012). In the surf zone of sandy beaches, the LSTR is controlled by the waves through wave breaking and wave-induced currents (Van Rijn, 2002) and hence are mainly related to breaking wave parameters. So the bulk formulation requires wave characteristics in the breaker zone. Also, due to the difficulty of acquiring extensive data in the complex nearshore region using instruments, a commonly used approach is to estimate LSTR through empirical bulk formulation.

LSTR empirical formulations largely dependent on the field measurements and moreover they remained site specific. Hence, it is important to test these formulations in different coastal regions which are subjected to different wave conditions. In the eastern Arabian Sea, during June-September, a time generally referred to as the summer monsoon or SW monsoon or monsoon, the general direction of
winds is south-westerly and its strength is significantly larger than that during the rest of the year (Kumar et al., 2012). During November-March, winds over the region have an overall north-easterly direction. October and April-May are times of transition (Shetye et al., 1985). This seasonal cycle of winds leads to a cycle in wave field off the west coast of India, both over the open sea and over coastal areas (Kumar and Anand, 2004; Semedo et al., 2011). During the monsoon period the maximum significant wave height along the west coast of India is 6 m and during the non-monsoon period it is less than 1.5 m (Kumar et al., 2003; 2006). Hence, a location off the central west coast of India was selected for the study since the wave conditions of the region vary with the seasons.

Along the west coast of India, quantitative estimation of LSTR was reported at different localities. Prasannakumar (1985) studied sediment transport in the surf zone along certain beaches in Kerala. Chandramohan et al. (1991) estimated LSTR along the north Karnataka coast based on 1-year visual observation of breaking parameters and the longshore currents. In order to examine the various physical processes affecting the different coastal environment of Kerala, an investigation of LSTR was completed by Sajeev (1997). Veerayya and Pankajakshan (1988) have reported longshore sediment transport pattern along the Mangalore coast. Hanamgond (1993) investigated the sediment movement on Aligadde beach, Uttara Kannada and stated that the beach morphology undergoes cyclic seasonal changes in response to the changing wind and wave climate. Other studies on selected coastal segments along the west coast of India for the estimation of annual LSTR include Chandramohan et al. (1994), Jayappa (1996) and Kurian et al. (2009). These studies revealed that the LSTR is variable, bi-directional and season dependent.

Variation in geomorphologic condition can cause large uncertainties in the estimated LSTR and hence field measurements are very important to assess the wave characteristics. Only a few field studies have reported the measurement of LSTR along the central west coast of India. Kumar et al. (2003) studied the LSTR based on measurements along the surf zone of a 4 km-long beach in the central west coast of India over a 4-month period.

LSTR estimates in the above-mentioned studies were largely based on predictive empirical formulations calibrated from field measurements or laboratory physical models (Bayram, 2001; Bayram et al., 2007). Most of the studies along Indian coastline were based on ship reported wave data (Chandramohan et al., 1991) or visually observed wave and littoral environmental observations (Chandramohan and Nayak, 1991; Sajeev, 1997), and numerical modeling to quantify LSTR has not been attempted in many studies.
Most of the LSTR estimates were based on single formulae, and one year-long measured nearshore wave data were not used in these studies for the estimation of LSTR.

Neither long-term nor short-term information on nearshore waves and LSTR were available for the study area in question. Hence, a study was carried out to identify the nearshore wave characteristics and quantify the LSTR from well-known formulation with nearshore wave parameters obtained from the numerical model Delft3D-wave module (Delft Hydraulics, 2011). Measured directional wave data at 3 h intervals for a period of one year were used as input to the numerical model.

The research questions addressed in the study were i) what is the variation in the LSTR estimate using four well known LST formulae, ii) how sensitive are the LSTR estimates to wave height, peak wave period and breaker angle during monsoon and non-monsoon periods, iii) what is the diurnal change in LSTR, and iv) what is the influence of data intervals on the LSTR estimate?

2. Study area

Karnataka’s coastline extends over a length of 280 km (Kumar et al., 2006). It is the one of the most indented shorelines with numerous rivers, lagoons, bays, creeks, promontories, cliffs, spits, sand dunes and beaches. Unlike the east coast of India, the coastal stretches of Karnataka have no major delta formation. Also, the coastal zone of Karnataka is one of the better developed regions of the State, with a high degree of economic development and density of population. Areas near the river mouths along the coastline of Karnataka state suffer permanent erosion due to natural shifting and migration of the river mouths (Dattatri, 2007). Erosion becomes severe during monsoon season (June-September) due to high floodwaters in the river and strong wave action (Hegde et al., 2004).

The selected area for study is Kundapura, geographically located at 13°40'0"N 74°38'30"E - 13°36'0"N 74°42'0"E on the confluence of Kollur, Chakkara and Haladi rivers and Arabian Sea (Fig 1). Sandy beaches, lateritic plain, alluvial plain, tidal flat and Channel Islands are the characteristics of Kundapura.

The coastline at Kundapura is inclined 8° to the west with respect to true north, with the depth contours aligned approximately parallel to the coastline. The depth contours of 10, 20 and 30 m occur at 3, 11 and 20 km from the coast. The mean spring tide range is 1.3 m and the mean neap tide range is 0.61 m (Kumar et al., 2011) indicating that the study area falls in a micro-tidal (tidal range < 2 m) coast.
To understand the offshore wave characteristics of the region, long-term climatology of the study area were examined with ERA-Interim reanalyzed data (Dee et al., 2011) from 1979-2012 at deep water location (water depth ~100 m) (Fig. 2). Waves of this region contain both locally generated wind seas and swells from the southern Indian Ocean. It was observed that about 39% of the waves were approaching from SW and SSW direction and these waves were generally of lower energy (significant wave height, $H_s < 1$ m) and were observed during the non-monsoon seasons. Waves in the height range of 1-2 m contribute 36% and were evenly distributed in S-W direction. With the onset of the monsoon season, waves from 255-270° become prominent and were similar to the observation of Sajiv et al. (2012) for the central west coast of India. Relatively higher waves ($H_s \sim 2-3$ m) were approaching from W and WSW and occurred for 16% of time. Higher waves ($H_s > 3$ m), which were due to the strong winds during the peak monsoon season and storm events, were from the direction between W and WSW and occurred for 4% of the time.

Based on the analysis of beach profiles and textural characteristics of beach sediments, Dora et al. (2011, 2014) observed that during 2008 to 2011, the beaches at Kundapura experienced a slow rate of sediment accretion over an annual cycle. Quantitative study on coastal changes along the study area for the period from 1973 to 2008 was undertaken by Vinayaraj et al. (2011) and reported that the area which covered by the tidal flat, decreased by 0.531 km² during 1973 to 1998 and increased by 0.967 km² during 1998 to 2008. In addition, sand bar environments diminished by an area of 0.227 km² from 1973 to 1998, but during 1998 to 2008 the sand bars show an increasing trend. Few studies have reported LSTR along the central west coast of India (Chandramohan et al., 1991; Chandramohan et al., 1994; Kunte and Wagle, 1993; Kumar et al., 2003) and the LSTR along the study area has not been investigated in the past.

3. Data and methodology

3.1 Measurements

The directional wave data was collected at 3 h intervals using a Datawell directional wave rider buoy at Kundapura (13.61746°N, 74.62234°E) from January to December 2011 at 12 m water depth. Since the waves were measured at 12 m water depth, the measured waves are expected to experience some depth influence and are thus transformed waves. The measured wave height and the wave direction is, therefore, expected to be different than that in the deep water offshore.
LSTR measured by Kumar et al. (2003) using traps deployed on a 4 km-long beach along the Karnataka coast was used for the validation of the LSTR estimates obtained from this study. Two types of traps, one with a circular opening (mesh traps) and other with rectangular (streamer traps) were used in the measurements. Measurements were carried out during February to May 1990 and the breaking parameters were estimated from the wave rider buoy deployed at 16 m water depth. Here, a 4-month dataset is used for validation of the LSTR estimate. During the measurement period, the breaking wave heights were 0.5-1.2 m and the wave periods were 3-9 s. The longshore current velocities were also measured at the trap location. The details of the data collection and analysis are presented in Kumar et al. (2003).

3.2 Wave transformation model description

The wave breaker location changes with change in water level due to the tides and changes with seasons due to change in nearshore profile. Hence, measurement of the wave breaker parameters is difficult and carrying out the LST measurements for a one-year period is not possible. In the absence of the breaking wave characteristics required to assess the quantity of LSTR, numerical modeling techniques are widely used to transform the offshore wave characteristics to the selected location in the breaker zone. The Delft3D-wave module (Delft Hydraulics, 2011) developed by WL|Delft Hydraulics was used to model the nearshore transformation of waves along the study region. Shanas et al. (2014) found that the breaker wave height estimated using Delft3D-wave module was comparable to the measured data with correlation coefficient of 0.73 ($p$ value <0.0005) and root mean square error of 0.07 m. This model is a slightly adapted version of the SWAN model (Booij et al., 1999) which is capable of simulating complicated interactions and transformations experienced by waves propagating through space: refraction due to bottom and current variations, shoaling, blocking and reflections due to opposing currents, transmission/blockage through/by obstacles, effects of wind, white capping, depth-induced wave breaking, bottom friction and non-linear wave-wave interactions. The formulation of Delft3D-wave is based on the spectral wave action balance equation and is fully spectral (in all directions and frequencies). These features range from purely convenient options that allow several different formats for input and output data to options that allow control of fundamental physical processes in the model, like wave generation, dissipation and interaction. The wave computations in Delft3D-wave are unconditionally stable due to the fully implicit schemes that have been implemented. In the Delft3D-
wave module, the governing equation of wave transformation is using action balance spectrum, in geographical space as given below (Ris et al., 1998):

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} N + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} C_x N + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} C_y N + \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} C_\sigma N + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} C_\theta N = \frac{S}{\sigma}
\]  (1)

where \( N \) is the action density spectrum, which is equal to energy density spectrum divided by the relative frequency. In this equation, \( \sigma \) and \( \theta \) are wave relative frequency and wave direction, respectively. The first term on the left-hand side of this equation represents the local rate of change of action density in time, and the second and third term represent propagation of action in geographical space (with propagation velocities \( C_x \) and \( C_y \) in x and y space, respectively). The fourth term represents shifting of the relative frequency due to variations in depths and currents (with propagation velocity \( C_\sigma \) in \( \sigma \)-space). The fifth term represents depth-induced and current-induced refraction (with propagation velocity \( C_\theta \) in \( \theta \)-space). The right-hand side term of the wave action balance equation is the source term of energy density representing wave generation, energy dissipation and non-linear wave-wave interaction. The term \( S \) represents:

\[
S = S_{in} + S_{ds} + S_{nl}
\]  (2)

Waves obtain energy input from wind (\( S_{in} \)). The three processes for energy dissipation (\( S_{ds} \)) in SWAN are white-capping, bottom friction and depth-induced wave breaking where bottom friction dominates in shallow water whereas white-capping is the main source of energy dissipation in deep water. Energy is transformed between waves by non-linear interactions (\( S_{nl} \)). In shallow water, triad wave-wave interactions play a major role, whereas quadruplet wave-wave interactions are important in deep water.

### 3.2 Input parameters to the wave transformation model

The significant wave height (\( H_s \)), peak wave period (\( T_p \)) and mean wave direction (\( \theta_p \)) measured at 12 m water depth was used as the input wave parameters to the model. In this case, one year of data are used to assess the seasonal and annual variations in wave climate. The bathymetry of the study area was obtained by merging the nearshore measured bathymetry data with a digitised naval hydrographic chart No.216 (NHO, 2004). Since there is no restriction for the model on the grid spacing, the selected domain was divided into a rectangular 200 x 200 grid points with a grid spacing of 40 m along both x and y direction. The grid generation was done with 'rgfgrid' of the Delft3D-wave module. The offshore boundary was taken at 12 m water depth since the measured wave data were at this depth. The model
has three types of boundary; i) open boundary in the west where the waves with given height, direction and period propagate into the model area, ii) lateral boundaries at the north and south, and iii) closed boundary in the east (land). No wave can enter the model domain through the eastern boundary and the outgoing waves are fully absorbed in this boundary.

Input at the boundary was taken as a fully spectral approach in the model. The spectral resolution consists of 25 intervals from 0.05-1 Hz. Other input variables for the Delft3D-wave module, such as alpha and gamma for the depth induced breaking (Battjes and Janssen, 1978), were 1 and 0.73 (Battjes and Stive, 1985) and the bottom friction coefficient value was 0.067 (Hasselmann et al., 1973). Table 1 provides a summary of the attributes and input parameters used in the wave transformation model. Model simulation was done for a period of one year from January to December 2011 and the breaking wave characteristics were extracted by applying the breaking criteria (H_s/h_b=0.78; CERC, 1984), where h_b is the breaking depth. The extracted breaking parameters were used in the formulae below to estimate the longshore current and LSTR.

3.3. Longshore current

Different formulations for longshore current can produce different predictive capabilities for the study area due to use of different input parameters (breaker height, breaker period and beach slope). A longshore current estimate based on Longuet-Higgins depends on breaker height whereas that based on Galvin depends on the wave period. Brocchini (1997) found that the measured longshore current compares well with that estimated based on Longuet-Higgin’s with about 15% discrepancy in magnitude. Kumar et al. (2001) found that the longshore current estimated by Galvin was 22% greater than that measured, and that based on Longuet-Higgins was 25% more than the measured current. Since Galvin and Longuet-Higgins formulations are the most commonly used (CERC, 1984) and widely accepted longshore current formulations they were selected for the present study.


All present-day longshore current models are based on concepts of radiation stress, first introduced by Longuet-Higgins and Stewart (1964). Longuet-Higgins (1970) and others applied these time-averaging principles to the depth-integrated momentum balance equation to obtain the longshore current profile:

\[ V = 20.7m_b \left( gH_b \right)^{1/2} \sin(2\alpha_b) \]  

(3)
ii) Galvin (Galvin and Eagleson, 1965)

Galvin (1965), based his model on the continuity of water mass, arriving at the following equation:
\[ V = K g m_b T (\sin 2 \alpha_b) \]  

where \( V \) = longshore current velocity (m/s), \( g \) = acceleration due to gravity (m/s\(^2\)), \( m_b \) = slope of the bottom in the surf zone, \( T \) = wave period (s), \( H_b \) = breaking wave height (m), \( \alpha_b \) = angle between the breaking wave crest and the local shoreline (deg), \( K \) = dimensionless coefficient solely depending on the geometry of the breaking wave (value taken as 1).

3.4. Longshore sediment transport

Since there was no recommended formula for assessing LSTR in the study area, we have chosen 4 different formulations for estimating LSTR which are the most commonly used bulk formulations all around the globe (Bodge and Kraus, 1991; Wang et al., 1998; Kumar et al., 2001; Haas and Hanes, 2004; Khalifa et al., 2009; Mohanty et al., 2012). Using different formulation can yield different estimates of LSTR due to the different parameters in the formulations. The formulation which best matches the field data can be considered as offering reliable estimates of LSTR for the study area. Each of the four different LSTR formulations selected utilizes different input parameters: wave height, wave period, wave direction, grain size, sand porosity, beach slope, sand and water density, wave breaker index, current velocity and empirical coefficients. These models differ in terms of complexity, processes considered, and the data required for model calibration and model use. Since all the parameters influencing LSTR are not included in a single formula, we have tested the most commonly used LST formulae listed below. The Komar (1998), CERC (1984) and Walton and Bruno (1989) formulations are based on the energy flux method. Whereas Kamphuis formula (Kamphuis, 2002) is based on dimensional analysis, derived from extensive laboratory and field studies which include the effect of grain size, beach slope and wave period.

3.4.1. CERC formula (1984)

LSTR was calculated from the empirical equation relating LSTR to the longshore energy flux in the breaker zone. One of the commonly used methods for calculating LSTR is the Coastal Engineering Research Centre (CERC) formula (CERC, 1984). As per the CERC formula, the LSTR is given by:
\[
Q = \frac{K\alpha \rho g H_b^2 T \sin(2\alpha_b)}{64\pi}
\]

where \( Q = \text{LSTR (m}^3/\text{yr)} \), \( K = \) dimensionless empirical proportionality constant (taken as 0.39), \( A = \frac{1}{(\rho_s - \rho)g(1-p)} \), \( \rho_s = \) sediment density (2650 kg/m\(^3\)), \( \rho = \) density of water (1030 kg/m\(^3\)), \( g = \) acceleration due to gravity (9.81 m/s\(^2\)) and \( p = \) Porosity factor (0.4).

The advantage of the CERC formula is that, due to its simplicity, it enables one to integrate contributions of waves arriving from various directions and to obtain an analytical expression for evaluation of LSTR, but it does not take into account the sediment size and the longshore current.

3.4.2. Kamphuis (2002)

Kamphuis (1991) developed an empirical formula which includes the beach slope, wave period and sediment grain size based on laboratory experiments and existing field data. With additional laboratory data and further analysis, the formula of Kamphuis (2002) was found applicable to both field and experimental data and is given by;

\[
Q = \frac{2.27H_b^2 T_p^{1.5} m_b^{0.75} d_{50}^{0.25} \sin(\alpha_b)}{(\rho_s - \rho)g(1-p)\sin(2\alpha_b)}
\]

where, \( T_p = \) peak wave period (s), \( d_{50} = \) sediment median grain size (mm).

Grain size analysis of beach sediments was carried out using an electromagnetic sieve shaker which contains six sieves having mesh sizes such as 2000, 1000, 500, 250, 125, 63 \( \mu \text{m} \) along with pan. Median grain size (\( d_{50} \)) was extracted by following geometric (modified) Folk and Ward (1957) graphical measures using GRADISTAT (Blott and Pye, 2001).

3.4.3. Walton and Bruno (1989)

Another important formula which is used to calculate LSTR was put forwarded by Walton and Bruno (1989). Using the breaker height and longshore velocity, LSTR was calculated using the formula:

\[
Q = \frac{K\alpha \rho g H_b W V_C}{0.78(5\pi/2)}
\]
where, \( W \) = Surf zone width (m), \( C_f \) = friction coefficient (dimensionless) taken as 0.005 (Kumar et al., 2003), and \((V/V_0)_{LH} \) = theoretical dimensionless longshore current velocity with the mixing parameters as 0.4 (Longuet-Higgins, 1970).

### 3.4.4. Komar (1998)

In this case, LSTR, measured as a volume using the significant wave height proposed by Komar (1998), is given as,

\[
Q = 0.46 \rho g^{\frac{3}{2}} H_b^{\frac{5}{2}} \sin(a_b) \cos(a_b)
\]

### 4. Results and discussion

#### 4.1 Characteristics of measured waves at 12 m water depth

Significant wave height (\( H_s \)) was low during the non-monsoon period with monthly average value ranging from 0.5 to 0.7 m (Fig. 3). Wave heights were high in the monsoon season with monthly average \( H_s \) ranging from 1.7 to 2.2 m. The average value of \( H_s \) during the monsoon was 1.8 m and was similar to the value (1.6 to 1.9) observed during 2009 along the Karnataka coast (Kumar et al., 2012). \( H_s \) was more than 1.5 m during 22.8% of the time and the average mean direction of these waves was 263° (Table 2). The average \( H_s \) for 2011 was 1 m and that for the deep water region for 34-year period was 1.2 m. The annual average value of \( H_s \) for this region was similar to the value of reported for 100 km north of the study region (Sajiv et al. 2012).

Mean wave period (\( T_z \)) varied from 2.7 to 10.8 s (Fig. 3). The monthly average \( T_z \) during January to April varied between 2.8 and 3.4 s. However, maximum \( T_z \) (10.8 s) was observed in the month of October. Average \( T_z \) during the monsoon was 6.4 s and was similar to the value (6.5 s) reported for the Karnataka coast in 2009 (Kumar et al., 2012). During the monsoon season there was no significant variation in the wave period, and it mostly persisted between 5 and 7 s, but there was considerable variation in the peak wave period during the non-monsoon period. During the monsoon season, peak wave period was found to be low and mostly persisted between 10 and 12 s. During the one-year period, 86.5% of the waves occurred with peak wave period more than 8 s and these swells had an average mean wave direction of 242° (Table 2). Waves from 220°-230° (~SW) dominated during October-May (Fig. 4) and with the onset of monsoon, waves from 250°-270°(WSW-W) became predominant.
wave direction of the highest 10% of the waves was 264°. Mean wave direction was less than 262° during 70% of the time.

Sea breeze has an important influence on alongshore sediment transport in the coastal areas (Pattiaratchi et al., 1997; Masselink and Pattiaratchi, 1998a, 1998b). The studies along the west coast of India has shown that the sea breeze - land breeze system influences the wave parameters during the pre-monsoon period (Glejin et al., 2013). In order to have a clear idea on how the wave parameters in the study area vary throughout the year with sea breeze system, the hourly variation of $H_s$ and $T_z$ in different months was studied (Fig. 5). Strongest sea breezes are generally experienced on hot summer days in tropical and subtropical coastal areas (Masselink and Pattiaratchi, 1998). From the hourly variation of $H_s$ and $T_z$, it was observed that the wave field was excited by the sea breeze in the afternoon, between 12:00 UTC (17:30 local time) and 17:00 UTC (22:30 local time) (Fig. 5). This result was similar to the observation of Glejin et al. (2013) along the coastal region of Ratnagiri, west coast of India. During the non-monsoon period, wave height reached maximum around this time, with a decrease in mean wave period.

After the onset of the sea breeze, typically late morning or early afternoon, nearshore water levels and incident wave height increases, wave period decreases and wave angle may change depending on the direction of the sea breeze (Sonu et al., 1973). During the study period, the sea breeze effect and diurnal variations in wave height and period was observed throughout the non-monsoon season, whereas the monsoon season lacked diurnal variations in wave parameters. Since land breeze effects were small and in the opposite direction its influence on the swell component is likely to be small. The maximum value of mean wave period was observed during the day hours between 05:00 UTC (10:30 local time) and 09:00 UTC (14:30 local time), due to the presence of long period waves and land breeze system. The role of sea breeze on beach processes and morphology is often masked by the presence of high wave energy levels (Inman and Filloux, 1960). During the monsoon season (June-September), the sea breeze and land breeze effect was masked by the presence of high energy waves due to the strong monsoon winds along the west coast of India.

4.2 Nearshore wave characteristics

Based on the model simulation during January to December 2011, breaking wave characteristics were extracted. Wave transformations for both monsoon and non-monsoon seasons are presented in Fig. 6. During the non-monsoon period, the reduction in wave height across the shore was linear and during the
monsoon period it was non-linear. Maximum $H_s$ measured at the 12-m water depth was up to 3.5 m whereas the breaker height estimated was less than 2.5 m.

Breaker height ($H_b$) showed seasonal variation (Fig. 7a) similar to the $H_s$ at 12 m water depth. It was found that most of the time during the year, nearshore wave height was less than 1.2 m especially in the non-monsoon period. The most frequently occurring breakers, as seen from the frequency distribution, were those in the height range of 0.6-1.1 m, constituting 55% of the occurrences. More than 70% of the cases fall within the range 0.5 to 1.5 m. $H_b$ was at a maximum during the monsoon season and gradually decreased in other seasons with a secondary peak of comparatively lower magnitude during the post-monsoon season. Average breaker height showed a progressive increase from pre-monsoon to monsoon season. Wave breaker angle was calculated as the difference between the peak wave direction and the direction normal to the depth contour. The breaker angle persisted between -15 and 15° for most of the time during the year (Fig. 7b). Considerable variation in direction of the breaker angle caused variation in the longshore current direction. During the monsoon season, breaker angle mostly persisted between 5 and -10°. During the post-monsoon season, the breaker angle increased and mostly persisted between 8 and 15°, which caused the reversal of longshore current.

4.3 Longshore currents

The coastline along the study area is oriented 8° to the west from the true north. Longshore current direction towards 172° is taken as the flow towards south and that towards 352° is considered north in the study. Estimated longshore currents show significant variations in their direction and magnitude (Fig. 7c, 7d). During January-March, the longshore current direction was transitional and inconsistent, predominantly in northerly direction. During the onset of the monsoon, reversal of longshore current direction was seen and was towards south. The possible cause for the directional shift was due to the changes in wave direction (250°-270°) at the time of onset of the monsoon, with mean wave direction of the highest 10% of the waves as 264°. Since the coastal orientation was 8° to the west from true north, wave direction greater than 262° generated southerly longshore currents. Intense breakers north of the shore-normal direction during the peak monsoon season resulted in strong southerly currents. Again, a reversal of longshore current direction can be seen during the post-monsoon season, with relatively high magnitude towards north. The current speed estimated based on Longuet-Higgins (eq. 3) and that based on Galvin (eq. 4) varied from -0.3 to 0.4 m/s. Both formulae show almost similar variation, with a correlation coefficient of 0.96 (p value <0.001) and hence Longuet-Higgins formula was used in the
Walton and Bruno formula for estimating the LSTR. Chandramohan et al. (1991) studied the daily variation of longshore current velocity along the west coast of India and reported that at Maravande (10 km north of Kundapura), the average longshore current velocity persisted at about 0.3 m/s in June and 0.1-0.15 m/s during the rest of the year. Kumar et al. (2003) reported that the longshore current along the central west coast of India varied from 0.1-0.6 m/s, with an average speed of 0.3 m/s.

4.4 Longshore sediment transport rate

The net LSTR estimated for each month indicate that the direction of LST was from south to north throughout the year (Fig. 8) except during the peak monsoon period (June and July). During the non-monsoon season the wave activity was low (monthly breaker height ranges from 0.5 to 1 m) and with the onset of monsoon, the breaker parameters varied dramatically, which had a direct influence on the transport rate. The wave direction observed during the monsoon season was from WSW-W. The directional shift in the longshore current (shifting from northerly to southerly) and relatively high wave action (average monthly wave height ranges from 1.4 to 1.9 m) prevailing in the monsoon season caused a large amount of sediment transport in a southerly direction. During the post-monsoon season, shifting of direction occurred again and LST was towards north with relatively high magnitude than that during pre-monsoon. Based on visual littoral environmental observations and using Walton and Bruno formula at Maravanthe (10 km north of Kundapura), Chandramohan et al. (1994) reported the direction of LSTR was always north except in May and August.

Since the average Hₜ during the monsoon period was 3 times the value during non-monsoon period, the estimated LSTR based on the CERC, Walton and Bruno, Kamphuis and Komar formulae during monsoon period (4 months) was 47, 61, 53 and 43%, respectively, of the total LSTR. The non-monsoon period (8 months) contributes to about 53, 39, 47 and 57% based on the same formulae.

The ratio of the monthly net and gross LSTR for the study area was also calculated. The high ratio (~ ±1) of the net and gross LSTR indicates that net LSTR direction is dominating in one direction, predominantly in a northerly direction if the net to gross ratio is close to +1 and a southerly direction if it is close to -1, whereas a low value (~ - 0.5 to +0.5) indicates that northerly as well as southerly transport exist in the area. During the study period, the high net to gross ratio was observed for most of the time (0.75 to 1 during non-monsoon months), which indicates the predominance of northerly LST in the study area. The ratio was found to be low during the monsoon season. During first half of monsoon (June and July), the ratio observed was -0.64 and -0.51 which indicates the bidirectional transport with a
slightly greater southerly transport. In August and September, the ratios observed were 0.64 and 0.69 which also indicates bidirectional transport with a greater northerly transport.

4.4.1 Comparison of estimated LSTR based on different formulae with field data

Inter-comparison between the LSTR estimates based on different formulae (Fig. 9) indicate that the CERC formula overestimates the value by about 1.5, 2.5 and 1.25 times that of Walton and Bruno, Kamphuis and Komar formulae. Reliability of the CERC formula for estimation of LSTR has been discussed over many years (Eversole and Fletcher, 2003; Bayram et al., 2007). One of concerns is the value of the constant K. While K is thought to be affected by the grain size, Komar (1988) could not find a clear relationship because of large scatter of field data. Del Valle (1993) supported the grain-size dependency of K with the field data from a coarse sand coast with a grain size up to 1.5 mm. Schoonees and Theron (1994) calculated the value of K for many field data by grouping them with grain size. For the group with a grain size smaller than 1 mm, the mean value of K is 0.41, while for the group with grain size larger than 1 mm, the mean value is 0.01, although the effect of grain size could not be revealed within the two groups. Van Wellen et al. (2000) used the value of K as 0.07 to fit the data on shingle beaches in their assessment of various longshore transport formulas. In the present study, gross LST of around one million ($8.8 \times 10^5$) cubic meters of sediment per year from the CERC estimate was found to be unusual and can lead to large coastline variations which were not observed along the study area. Wang et al. (1998) recommended using the CERC formula in storm conditions where the wave heights exceed 4 m. However, in Kundapura coastal region based on the measured wave data, the average $H_s$ was 1 m with maximum value of 3.4 m.

Estimation based on the Komar formulae (gross LSTR = $7 \times 10^5$ m$^3$/yr) was also close to the CERC estimate since the parameters in both the formulae were the same and need to be calibrated for the study area. The Walton and Bruno formulae, which includes the longshore current velocity and surf zone width, estimated annual gross LSTR of $6 \times 10^5$ m$^3$/yr. Annual gross LSTR estimated with the Kamphuis formulae gave a value of $3.1 \times 10^5$ m$^3$/yr. Although the predictive magnitude varies widely, all four formulae agree on the seasonal gross and annual net LST direction. Based on daily littoral environmental observations and use of the Walton and Bruno formula, Chandramohan et al. (1994) reported the annual LSTR at Maravanthe (10 km north of Kundapura) as $0.3 \times 10^5$ m$^3$/yr and at Malpe (30 km south of Kundapura) as $1.07 \times 10^5$ m$^3$/yr. The low values reported may be due to the error in the visual observation of the breaker parameters and the observation of a single day’s data.
In order to establish the accuracy of the estimation of LSTR using different formulations, we have compared the estimated LSTR with the measured LSTR. The wave condition at the time of measurement and present study period were compared to illustrate that the wave conditions were similar. The average wave conditions (significant wave height) at the measurement site for pre-monsoon, monsoon and post-monsoon season were 0.8, 1.7 and 0.5 m (Kumar et al. 2012). Similar wave conditions, with average wave height of 0.7, 1.8 and 0.5, were observed during the study period. During their field experiment, Kumar et al. (2003) measured both the lateral and vertical distributions of the sediment transport rate with traps deployed in a line spanning the surf zone during February to May along the central west coast of India. They reported an average gross LSTR of 726 m$^3$/day. In the present study, the average gross transport rate estimated for the same period was 1265, 1092, 694, 1097 m$^3$/day based on the CERC, Walton and Bruno, Kamphuis and Komar formulae, respectively. The comparison of daily average LSTR with measured daily average LSTR for different formulations and similar analysis on a monthly basis was also completed (Fig. 10). The comparison showed very good correlation for the estimated LSTR using the Kamphuis formula, with a small root mean square error in monthly average LSTR of 21 m$^3$/day and high correlation coefficient of 0.98 (p value 0.016). Other formulae showed large scatter with considerable over-prediction in monthly averaged LSTR (Table 4). Since, the Kamphuis formula is in close agreement with the measured data, the same is considered more suitable for the study area. This study shows that the Kamphuis formula can be used for locations with annual average Hs of 1 m. Wang et al. (2002) observed that the Kamphuis formula is preferable in low-wave energy conditions since it gives more consistent predictions for both spilling and plunging breaking wave conditions due to inclusion of wave period in the expression, which has significant influence on breaker type.

4.4.2 Correction applied to LSTR formulae

Comparison of estimated LSTR value with the measured field data shows that with the exception of the Kamphuis formula, the values estimated based on other formulae were more high. Suitable correction factors were determined to make the estimations more realistic and acceptable with the available target (observed) values (Fig. 11). Correction factors (Cor$_{CERC}$=0.38, Cor$_{Walton}$=0.58, and Cor$_{Komar}$=0.49) were applied, which resulted in improved LSTR estimates in closer agreement with the target value for the study area (Table 5). Such studies were also reported for two bulk-type formula (CERC and Van Rijn) for the Egyptian northern coast, where the correction factor for the CERC formula was found to be 0.2
(Khalifa et al., 2009). No correction factor was needed for the Kamphuis formula since its evaluations were close to the measured values.

### 4.4.3 Influence of breaker parameters on LSTR

Along the study area, during the monsoon period, the beaches were strongly influenced by breaking waves, resulting in erosion processes (Dora et al., 2014) and onshore-offshore transport of sand. Smith et al. (2009) observed that LSTR was mainly influenced by the breaker parameters. Direction of LSTR largely depends on the direction of incoming waves with respect to shoreline which, in turn, determines the direction of the longshore current. Since the Kamphuis formula shows close agreement with the field data, LSTR based on this formula was used to study the influence of breaker parameters on LSTR. The analysis was done for both, monsoon (June-September) and non-monsoon periods (Fig. 12). It was found that during the non-monsoon period, most of the waves were low energy long period swells. It was clearly observed that during the non-monsoon period the variation of LSTR largely depends on the breaker height, and the effect of breaker angle on LSTR was small compared to breaker height. During the monsoon season, the variation of LSTR depends more strongly on breaker angle than breaker height (Fig. 12). During the monsoon season, wave energy was high during most of the time and the direction of wave approach was close to shore-normal. Thus, a slight change in the wave direction altered the LSTR, indicating that LSTR was more sensitive to the breaker angle during the monsoon season. About 57% of the waves were long period waves with periods more than 12 s during the non-monsoon period and resulted in high LSTR. During the monsoon season, most of the waves (70%) were swells with intermediate peak wave periods (10-12 s). Hence, peak wave periods in the range 10-12 s drive a large proportion of LSTR during the monsoon season, whereas during the non-monsoon period, peak wave period of more than 12 s contributes significantly to LSTR.

The LSTR shows significant scattering with breaker angle during the non-monsoon period and with breaker height during monsoon period, which underlines the sensitivity of breaker angle and breaker height on the estimation of LSTR in different seasons. Estimated LSTR using the Kamphuis formula with breaker height shows more scatter (correlation coefficient, r=0.76 and p value <0.001) than that based on CERC (r=0.78, p value <0.001), Walton and Bruno (r=0.8, p value <0.001) and Komar (r=0.81, p value <0.001) which shows the influence of other parameters (grain size, peak wave period and beach slope) on LSTR. Monthly variation of median grain size (Fig. 13) also indicates that the grain
size was greater during the monsoon season compared to the non-monsoon season, which in turn slightly decreases the transport rate.

This study shows that 82% of the LSTR was due to the waves approaching from the sector between 225 and 270°, and 83% of this transport was towards the north and the balance of 17% was towards south. For the study area, waves were from the sector between 225 and 270° during 72% of the time (Fig. 4). Waves approaching from the sector between 270 and 315° contribute only 9.5% of the gross LSTR and those from the sector between 180 and 225° contribute 8.5% of the gross LSTR. The estimated annual gross LSTR based on the Kamphuis formula, considering the breaker parameters at 2.2 m water depth, 3% higher than that estimated at the actual breaker point.

4.4.4 Influence of data interval on LSTR estimation

In order to investigate the influence of data interval on LSTR, the 3 h variation of LSTR with different wave parameters was analyzed for different months in a year. Fig. 14 illustrates the 3 h variation of LSTR with breaker angle, breaker height and peak wave period. During the monsoon months, the breaker angle and LSTR shows an almost similar pattern, whereas during the non-monsoon season considerable variation was observed. Relatively small changes in breaker angle during the monsoon season changes the LSTR (Fig. 14). During the February to May, generally the LSTR was high during the day hours and was in accordance with the sea breeze system. The onset of sea breeze increases the wave height, as a consequences LSTR increase dramatically (Fig. 14). During January, variation in LSTR was similar to the variation of Tp, Hb and breaker angle. During February to April and October to December, the variation of LSTR was diurnal and opposite to the variation of Tp (Fig. 14). Southerly transport was observed only in June and July.

Since the hourly variation of wave properties was influenced by sea/land breeze system, we have examined the variation of LSTR based on a single dataset collected at a different time in a day with that based on all data (Fig. 15). The annual net and gross LSTR was less than the estimate based on all data for estimates based on data collected up to 9 h and was more for the estimate based on remaining period. Large variations of up to ~17% in annual net and ~5% in annual gross estimates were observed in the LSTR estimate based on data at different time compared to the estimate based on all data.

Continuous site-specific data collection in the coastal area is costly and difficult due to interferences from fishing vessels. Hence, in the past the annual LSTR were estimated based on the data collected at
daily to monthly intervals. We have examined the variation in monthly net and gross LSTR using the Kamphuis formula by considering different data intervals ranging from 3 to 24 h. The difference in LSTR for data at 3 and 6 h intervals were maximum during the month of July and August (9.9% and 10.8%), whereas the difference was negligible during November. During November, most of the time, waves were approaching from a SW direction and throughout the month northerly transport was observed. The breaker height was also not varying much in November; about 80% of the time breaker height was in the range 0.5-0.8 m and hence, the difference in LSTR based on different data interval was less. However, the LSTR estimates can result in a large error if the wave characteristics change during a short period of time. During the monsoon period, especially during the months July and August, the difference in LSTR based on different data intervals was high due to the large variation in the wave characteristics during a short period of time. On the other hand, data at 12 h resulted in a difference in LSTR up to 13% compared to 3 h. The difference in LSTR at 3 and 24 h intervals was up to 24%. The study shows that the error in LSTR estimate based on different data intervals will be a minimum for areas which are subject to small temporal changes in wave characteristics.

Similarly, the daily average breaker parameters were calculated from the 3 h data for the study period and LSTR was estimated using these daily averaged breaker parameters. The results obtained from the daily average parameter and that estimated using 3 h data were compared. The results show that there was about 16% reduction in annual net LSTR and 12% in the annual gross LSTR if the daily average parameters were used in the calculation.

5. Conclusions

The variation in the LSTR estimate using the four bulk formulae, the CERC, Walton and Bruno, Kamphuis and Komar formulae were examined based on the nearshore wave data measured for one-year period at 12 m water depth and the wave transformation model DElft3d-wave module. The waves from 220°-230° (~SW) dominates during October-May, and with the onset of monsoon waves from 250°-270°(WSW-W) become predominant. The average breaker wave height during pre- and post-monsoon seasons were found to be low (0.7 m) and high (1.7 m) during monsoon season. The study shows that for locations with annual average Hs of 1 m, the Kamphuis formula can be used to estimate LSTR. Estimated transport rates based on other formulae were quite high and require correction. Suitable correction factors (CorCERC=0.38, CorWalton=0.58, and CorKomar=0.49) are determined for making the
LSTR estimates more realistic and acceptable for the study area. Since the average $H_s$ during the monsoon period was 3 times the value during pre- and post-monsoon periods, the LSTR during the monsoon period (4 months) was 53% of the total LSTR and that during the non-monsoon period (8 months) was 47%. LST direction depends on the direction of incoming waves and on the angle between the wave crest and the shoreline, which also determines the direction of longshore current. It is found that the influence of breaker height is greater during the non-monsoon periods whereas during the monsoon period, breaker angle shows greater influence on LSTR. The study emphasizes the need to have closer data interval for estimating LSTR at a particular region. For better and more accurate estimates of LSTR, the data interval should be 3 h or less.

Acknowledgment

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Table 1. Summary of the attributes and some input parameters used in the wave transformation model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delft3d_SWAN Attributes</th>
<th>Variable input</th>
<th>value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basis of model formulation</td>
<td>Action density spectrum</td>
<td>spectral resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector of wave propagation</td>
<td>360° Time interval</td>
<td>Time interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steady state/time dependent</td>
<td>Time dependent Grid dimension</td>
<td>Grid dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind field/tidal forcing</td>
<td>Not included Grid spacing</td>
<td>Grid spacing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current input/wave current interaction</td>
<td>Not included Directional spread</td>
<td>Directional spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave breaking model</td>
<td>Statistical Battjesand Janssen (1978) breaking coefficient</td>
<td>breaking coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottom friction</td>
<td>Jonswap (Hasselmann, 1973) C_{bottom}</td>
<td>C_{bottom}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Statistics of wave parameters. Mean (μ) and standard deviations (σ) are presented for each variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub set description</th>
<th>H_s (m) (μ ± σ)</th>
<th>T_z (s) (μ ± σ)</th>
<th>T_p (s) (μ ± σ)</th>
<th>θ_p (deg) (μ ± σ)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All waves</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.7</td>
<td>5.5 ± 1.3</td>
<td>11.6 ± 3.2</td>
<td>249 ± 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest 10% of waves</td>
<td>2.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td>6.8 ± 0.5</td>
<td>11.1 ± 1.8</td>
<td>264 ± 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves with T_p &gt; 8 s</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.7</td>
<td>5.7 ± 1.3</td>
<td>12.5 ± 2.5</td>
<td>242 ± 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves with T_p ≤ 8 s</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.2</td>
<td>4.3 ± 0.8</td>
<td>5.9 ± 1.1</td>
<td>294 ± 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves with H_s &gt; 1.5 m</td>
<td>2.1 ± 0.4</td>
<td>6.6 ± 0.6</td>
<td>10.8 ± 1.6</td>
<td>263 ± 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves with H_s ≤ 1.5 m</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>5.2 ± 1.3</td>
<td>11.9 ± 3.6</td>
<td>245 ± 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves during pre-monsoon period (February-May)</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.2</td>
<td>4.5 ± 0.9</td>
<td>11.8 ± 3.8</td>
<td>249 ± 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves during monsoon period (June-September)</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.6</td>
<td>6.4 ± 0.7</td>
<td>11.0 ± 2.0</td>
<td>259 ± 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waves during post-monsoon period (October-January)</td>
<td>0.6 ± 0.2</td>
<td>5.5 ± 1.5</td>
<td>12.1 ± 3.5</td>
<td>239 ± 27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Waves with θ_p &gt; 262°</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.8</td>
<td>5.5 ± 1.3</td>
<td>8.5 ± 2.4</td>
<td>282 ± 18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Waves with θ_p ≤ 262°</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.5</td>
<td>5.5 ± 1.4</td>
<td>12.9 ± 2.6</td>
<td>235 ± 13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Estimated annual net and gross longshore sediment transport rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimated LSTR ($10^5$ m³/yr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walton and Bruno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamphuis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walton and Bruno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamphuis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komar</td>
</tr>
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Table 4. Comparison of estimated LSTR with measured field data for different formulations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formula used</th>
<th>RMSE (m³/day)</th>
<th>Mean bias (m³/day)</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>CC</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CERC</td>
<td>1006.75</td>
<td>-878.25</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walton and Bruno</td>
<td>863.89</td>
<td>-845.50</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.94</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kamphuis</td>
<td>71.73</td>
<td>-21.75</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komar</td>
<td>735.60</td>
<td>-623.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Estimated annual net and gross longshore sediment transport rate after applying correction factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimated annual net and gross LSTR after correction ($10^5$ m³/yr)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Walton and Bruno</td>
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<td>Gross</td>
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<td>CERC</td>
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<td>Walton and Bruno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamphuis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komar</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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Figure 2. Long term wave statistics of Kundapura at deep water location using ERA-Interim reanalysed data during 1979-2012
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Figure 13. Monthly variation of median grain size (d$_{50}$) at Kundapura beach.
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Figure 15. a) Annual net and b) annual gross LSTR estimate based on data collected at different time of the day and that based on all data.