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Author

Vieira da Silva, Guilherme, Hamilton, Daniel, Strauss, Darrell, Murray, Thomas, Tomlinson, Rodger

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1 **Sediment pathways and morphodynamic response to a multi-purpose artificial reef –**
2 **new insights**

3 Vieira da Silva, Guilherme^a, Hamilton, Daniel^b, Strauss, Darrell^a, Murray, Thomas^a,
4 Tomlinson, Rodger^a

5 ^a *Coastal and Marine Research Centre Room 2.01, Building G51 Griffith University Gold*
6 *Coast Campus, Queensland, 4222, Australia*

7 ^b *City Assets, Transport and Infrastructure, City of Gold Coast, 833 Southport - Nerang Rd,*
8 *Nerang QLD 4211 Australia*

9 *Corresponding Author: Guilherme Vieira da Silva (g.vieiradasilva@griffith.edu.au)*

10 **Abstract**

11 Multi-purpose Artificial Reefs (MPARs) are structures that may provide aesthetically
12 acceptable coastal protection and improve recreational outcomes. Twenty years after
13 construction of the first MPAR, Narrowneck reef on the Gold Coast of Australia, most of the
14 available literature is still focused on the planning, design and construction of such structures
15 and peer-reviewed publications on their post-construction monitoring, interaction with
16 sediment transport and impacts on coastal morphology are lacking. The aim of this paper is
17 to evaluate how does Narrowneck reef influence the sediment transport, and morphological
18 changes around the anthropogenic structure, two decades after construction. To do so, a
19 combination of ten high spatial resolution topo-bathymetric surveys from the top of the dune
20 to the 10 m depth captured over 21 months and a series of 60 simulations using a calibrated
21 numerical model were used. Our results demonstrate that: although not expected during
22 design or reported in similar structures, sand can bypass the MPAR around its offshore end;
23 under oblique waves, the longshore currents are deflected as they pass the reef, resulting in
24 a shadow zone on the downdrift side where sand deposits; the bar crest tends to be higher
25 on the reef's updrift side compared to downdrift, indicating that the MPAR can act as a store
26 for sediments, as initially designed. Furthermore, the MPAR can act to stabilise the bar as it
27 moves onshore with a downdrift offset of the inner bar as a result of low oblique wave
28 incidence. The results presented here demonstrate that the short-term response to the
29 MPAR twenty years after construction is more closely related to the deflection of longshore
30 currents as they encounter the reef than to the dissipation of wave energy. This is because
31 MPARs are designed to dissipate just enough wave energy so that they can achieve their
32 recreational goal (surfing).

33 **Keywords:** *bar morphology, erosion, beach protection, adaptation, MPAR, multifunctional*
34 *reefs.*

35 **1 INTRODUCTION**

36 Sandy beaches are highly dynamic and these coastlines experience erosion and accretion
37 events over a wide range of time scales (Short and Trembanis, 2004). However, despite the
38 highly dynamic nature of sandy coasts, many coastal cities have been constructed within the
39 region of natural variability of the beach and experience extreme erosion and property loss.
40 Moreover, some locations experience long-term trends in coastal erosion. These factors
41 often result in coastal protection strategies such as beach nourishment and the construction

42 of seawalls as a last line of defence (Tomlinson et al., 2016; Sinay and Carter, 2020; Toimil
43 et al. 2020). In some cases, severe erosion has led to the relocation of residents (Correa
44 and Gonzalez, 2000; Abel et al., 2011). Climate change projections (Pörtner et al., 2019) are
45 predicted to affect the future wave climate (Hemer et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Camus et
46 al., 2017; Young and Ribal, 2019) which has the potential to further impact coastal areas
47 (Ranasinghe et al., 2016) due to anticipated changes in longshore sediment transport (Sierra
48 and Casas-Prat, 2014) and chronic erosion (Greenslade et al., 2020) resulting in an increase
49 in coastal protection works. Ware et al. (2020) highlights that the cost related to the
50 implementation of coastal protection varies significantly depending on the adopted
51 representative concentration pathways (RCP – Pörtner et al., 2019). While relocation of
52 coastal cities is challenging (Abel et al., 2011; Grace and Thompson, 2020), construction of
53 structures such as groynes and seawalls that may help to stabilise the coastline tend to have
54 a negative visual amenity impact and can potentially cause severe downdrift erosion (van
55 Rijn, 2011). On the other hand, beach nourishment has the benefit of increased beach
56 amenity (i.e. recreational width) and enhances the storm buffer. However, nourishment of
57 the visible upper beach needs to be maintained more regularly than coastal protection
58 strategies using hard structures. Antunes do Carmo (2019) suggests that multifunctional
59 structures such as multi-purpose artificial reefs (MPARs) are a good option for coastal
60 protection. These structures stay submerged with no negative visual impact, they can be
61 used in combination with beach nourishment to act as a store for sediment and increase the
62 lifetime of the nourishment deposition with the added benefit of enhancing biodiversity and
63 recreation opportunities.

64 Initial studies by Walker et al. (1972) suggested that artificial surfing reefs could be created
65 and be associated with other benefits such as coastal protection. The first MPAR designed
66 for coastline protection and improved surfing conditions was constructed in between 1999
67 and 2000 at Narrowneck, Australia (Black, 2001; Jackson, 2001; Turner et al., 2001). To
68 date only a few other similar structures have been designed and constructed with the same
69 functional purpose (Mead and Black, 1999; Taranaki Regional Council, 2009; Mead et al.,
70 2010; Atkins, 2010; Yardley et al., 2012; Mortensen et al, 2015). There is no consensus in
71 the literature regarding the construction of these structures and the ones that have been
72 constructed vary in terms of material, construction methods and dimensions. Their impact on
73 surrounding morphology and sediment transport is hard to assess as the published data
74 (particularly in peer-reviewed journals) on their monitoring programs is limited. As a result,
75 there are divergent opinions within the community as to the operational success of these
76 engineering solutions and the claimed success of some of these structures is controversial
77 (Ranasinghe et al., 2006; Jackson and Corbett, 2007; Blacka et al., 2013; Ng et al. 2013,

78 2015, López et al., 2016). Ranasinghe and Turner (2006) indicated that most of the
79 submerged coastal structures that they analysed revealed erosion in the lee of the structure.
80 Additionally, it has been shown that artificial reefs respond differently than emergent offshore
81 breakwaters with most of the morphological impact of the reefs being observed underwater
82 (Vieira da Silva et al., 2020). To our knowledge, no study to date has conducted or reported
83 on successive bathymetric surveys with enough frequency and spatial density to capture the
84 morphological changes around a MPAR and linked them to different environmental
85 conditions. Moreover, no calibrated numerical modelling study of MPAR-related
86 morphological response has been reported following a MPAR construction. The data
87 collected around the first MPAR (i.e. Narrowneck reef) provides a unique opportunity to
88 better understand the impacts of such structures on sediment transport pathways and
89 surrounding morphology. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to evaluate how the MPAR
90 affects the sediment transport, and morphological changes around it twenty years after
91 construction.

92 **1.1 Regional Setting / Study Area**

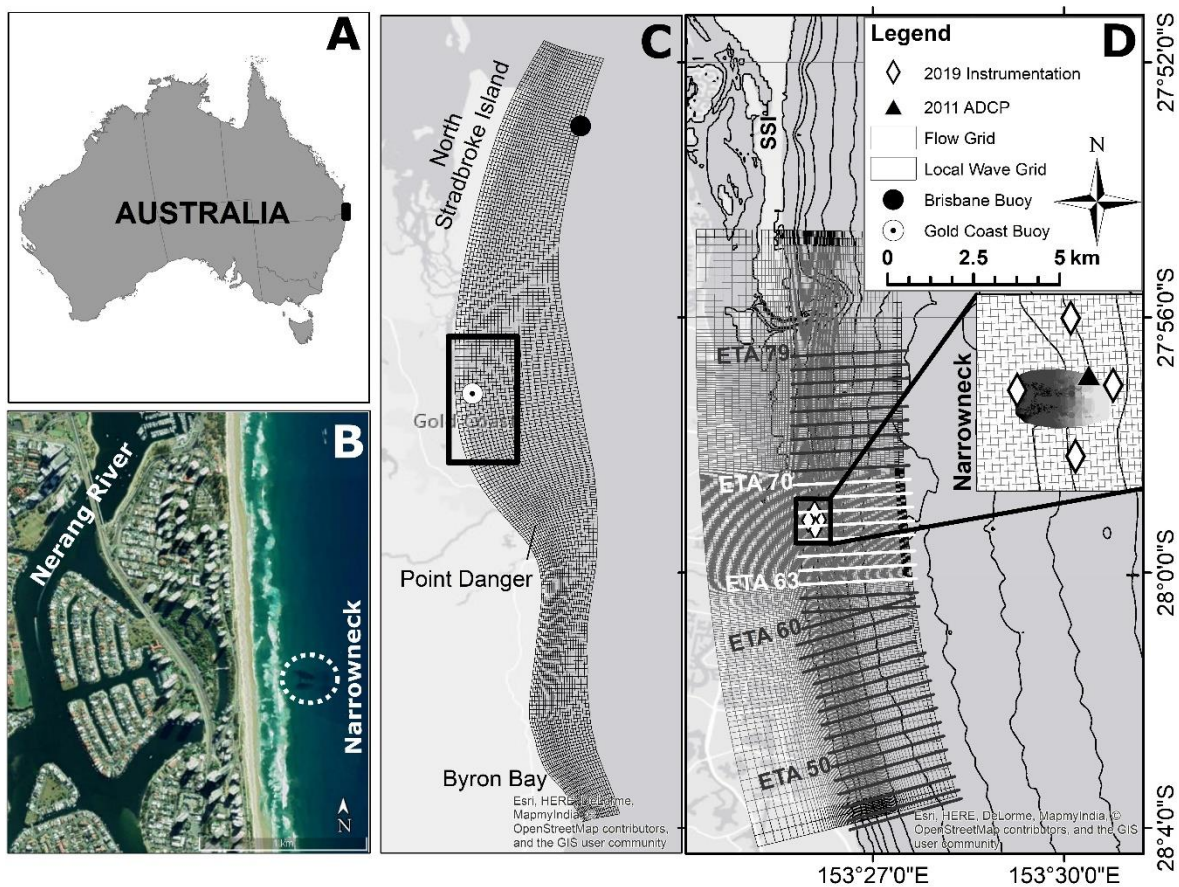
93 The study area is located on the northern beaches of Gold Coast, Australia (Figure 1) within
94 the Surfers Paradise stretch of open ocean coastline, the premier coastal tourist beach in
95 Australia (Short, 2000). Here, the Nerang River meanders and is separated from the ocean
96 by a 100-150 m isthmus of sand (known as Narrowneck). To the north of Narrowneck, a
97 residual relict delta remains from the historical northward migration of the Nerang River. This
98 deposit is reported to currently supply a locally higher volume of sand via onshore transport
99 as the feature tends toward a new equilibrium (Patterson, 2007; Patterson and Nielsen,
100 2016). The sand is fine with d_{50} of 0.2 mm (Castelle et al., 2009) and the region is subject to
101 a semi-diurnal and micro-tidal regime, with maximum tidal range of up to 2.1m with a mean
102 range of 1 m (Kobashi et al., 2014). The coast is exposed to moderate to high waves (H_s at
103 70 m depth can be higher than 7 m) with significant seasonal variability. The north end of the
104 coast here is exposed to all swell directions (Vieira da Silva et al., 2018a). Climatic indices
105 are linked to variability in the longshore sediment transport in the region (Splinter et al.,
106 2012; Silva et al., 2021). Extreme erosion has been recorded in the area since the early
107 1900's leading to a series of measures to protect the area and prevent the breakthrough of
108 the Nerang River to the ocean at Narrowneck (Table 1). These measures range from the
109 construction of a timber wall to prevent further erosion in 1923 (upgraded in 1967 to a
110 boulder wall – known as the A-line), to the development of the Northern Gold Coast Beach
111 Protection Strategy in 1997 (Boak et al., 2000; Jackson, 2001). The strategy included the
112 nourishment of the northern beaches with 1.3 Mm³ of sand and the construction of a
113 submerged reef at Narrowneck to help stabilise the nourishment and improving surfing

114 conditions (Black, 1999; Jackson, 2001; Turner et al., 2001). The reef was designed to
115 provide a coastal control point assisting the maintenance of Surfers Paradise beach and,
116 after achieving its new equilibrium, no more than approximately 80,000 m³/year of
117 nourishment would be required downstream (Black, 1999). To do so, field measurements
118 were conducted in the area (Hutt et al, 1999) which supported both the numerical (Black,
119 1999) and physical modelling of the reef (Turner et al., 2001).

120 The subaerial beach at the study site was nourished in 1999 followed by the construction of
121 Narrowneck reef. The reef was constructed using 408 large sand filled geotextile containers
122 20 m in length that ranged from 3 to 4.5 m in diameter with an overall volume of 60,000 m³
123 (Jackson et al, 2007). It is located between the -2 m AHD (Australian Height Datum - AHD,
124 which is equivalent to the mean sea level) contour (to allow sediment bypassing between the
125 shoreline and the reef) to -10.4 m AHD (Black, 1999). The reef extends 200-350 m
126 alongshore and 400-500 m cross-shore (Jackson and Hornsey, 2002; Ranasinghe and
127 Turner, 2006). The reef crest was initially designed to be at -0.67 m AHD (Black and Mead,
128 2001) however, due to safety concerns and to avoid possible excessive sand retention the
129 crest height adopted was -1.5 m AHD (Jackson et al., 2007). The reef construction occurred
130 after an erosive storm swell event which reset the morphology to an offshore Longshore Bar
131 and Trough beach state (Jackson et al., 2007). As the bar on which the Narrowneck reef
132 construction began migrated shoreward, the crest lowered and so the reef was periodically
133 topped up in subsequent years. Due to safety concerns, the crest was lowered to -2.5m AHD
134 to reduce the frequency of hazardous waves for surfers and to avoid the *sucking dry* or
135 draining of water off the artificial structure, which is commonly observed at natural surf zone
136 reefs during low tides (Jackson et al., 2007). Moreover, under small wave conditions that do
137 not break on the reef, significantly more surfers have been reported in the lee of the reef
138 (Jackson et al., 2007). After the latest reef top-up, completed in 2018, multibeam survey
139 indicates that the reef crest is currently at -2.2 m AHD.

140 Performance of the reef in terms of coastal protection is considered 'good' (Jackson et al,
141 2007; Jackson et al., 2012; Ng. et al, 2013; Ng. et al., 2015) with beach accretion reported
142 (Ranasinghe and Turner, 2006). Formation of a shoreline salient inshore of the reef was also
143 reported under some conditions (Jackson et al, 2007) but it has not been consistently
144 observed over the mid to long term (i.e. 20 years). The largest impact of the MPAR over the
145 long-term has occurred in the nearshore with sand accumulation updrift of the reef (Vieira da
146 Silva et al., 2020). Instruments deployed by the authors measured waves and currents
147 around the reef indicating that the reef tends to attenuate waves higher than 1.5 m (H_s) while
148 an increase in height of waves less than 1.5 m H_s (shoaling) is observed over the reef.
149 Moreover, the longshore currents are deflected, indicating possible sediment pathway

150 changes. Surfing conditions were also reported to have improved with increased wave
 151 breaking both at the reef and inshore of the reef under smaller conditions (Turner et al.,
 152 2004; Jackson et al, 2007) although not as initially predicted (Black and Mead, 2001).
 153 Jackson et al. (2007) reports that public perception regarding surfing conditions were largely
 154 negative for few reasons: a) due to the existence of several nearby world-class surfing
 155 breaks; b) the distance of the take-off area from the beach (300 m offshore) and the frequent
 156 presence of waves inshore of the reef and c) negative press statements even before the
 157 reef's completion. A positive aspect of the Narrowneck reef refers to the ecological impact it
 158 had with attraction of several species resulting in increased fishing and diving (Jackson et al,
 159 2012; Ng. et al., 2015).



160
 161 **Figure 1: A) Rectangle indicates the location of the study area; B) Google Earth image**
 162 **displaying the location of the reef; C) Regional grid and locations of the wave buoys;**
 163 **D) Local grids, the Narrowneck reef, location of instruments used for model**
 164 **calibration and the main survey lines (ETAs).**

165 **Table 1: Narrowneck events chronology – Source: Coastal and Marine Research**
 166 **Centre Knowledge Hub.**

Date	Key Event
------	-----------

1923	Timber seawall constructed at Narrowneck (up to 35m seaward of the general seawall alignment) to protect the highway
1954 (Feb)	'The Great Gold Coast Cyclone'
1967 (Jan - May)	Tropical cyclones Dinah, Barbara, Dulcie, Elaine and Glenda >100-year event.
1967	Construction of boulder wall at Narrowneck
1970 (Dec)	The Delft Report – the basis for coastal protection works and investigations on the Gold Coast - guided Gold Coast beach management > 30 years
1974 (Mar)	Tropical cyclone Zoe
1974	Beach nourishment (Main Beach to southern Surfers Paradise) (1.5Mm ³)
1985	Sand nourishment works (300,000 m ³ , Narrowneck) (142,000 m ³ , Surfers Paradise)
1990's	Decrease in beach width; exposure of boulder wall at Narrowneck
1993	Proposal - Artificial headland (75m) for Narrowneck
1997	Northern Gold Coast Beach Protection Strategy (NGCBPS) initiated
1998	Design studies – Investigation of the reef design for: sediment transport (including sedimentation patterns, net littoral sediment drift, and effects on adjacent beaches); surfing amenity; and the field measurement program ([University of Waikato & National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA)])
1999	Design studies – Physical model study (1:50 scale model) [Water Research Laboratory (University of New South Wales)]
1999	Northern Gold Coast Beach Protection Strategy (NGCBPS) implemented
1999 (Feb – Jun)	Sand nourishment works (1.1 million cubic meters – upper beach)
1999 (Aug – Dec)	Construction - Artificial reef
2000	Sand nourishment works (Surfers Paradise) / completion of reef
2002	Container 'top-up' & replacement
2004	Container 'top-up' & replacement
2006	Container 'top-up' & replacement
2009	Significant storms (1:10 ARI)
2011	Underwater condition survey
2012-2013	Removal of ~10,000m ³ of sand from the dunes at Narrowneck to restore the beaches at Surfers Paradise.
2013	Tropical cyclone Oswald
2017	Design studies – modelling of 2 reef renewal options.[International Coastal Management (2017)]
2017 (Sep)	Commencement of reef renewal (top-up)
2017 (Jun-Sep)	Large-scale nearshore nourishment (over 3 million cubic metres - nearshore)
2018 (Jun)	Completion of reef renewal (top-up).
2019 (Feb)	Tropical cyclone Oma

167

168 2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

169 To achieve the aim of this paper, the methods were divided into two parts: a) high spatial
 170 and temporal topo-bathymetric dataset analysis and; b) numerical modelling. Each part is
 171 described below in detail.

172 2.1 Topo-bathymetric surveys

173 Topo-bathymetric surveys were carried out in the area of interest from the top of the dune to
 174 the -10 m contour (AHD) between the historically named 'ETA lines': ETA 63 and ETA 70
 175 (see **Figure 1**) with alongshore distance between the survey lines varying between 25 and

176 50 m. In total, ten surveys have been carried out over 21 months, the first on the 19th July
177 2018 and the most recent on 23rd April 2020. The upper beach measurements were
178 conducted around low tide using a RTK-GPS while the sub-tidal region was provided by the
179 City of Gold Coast and used a single beam echo-sounder and RTK-GPS. The nearshore
180 survey is weather dependent and ideally happens during low-wave, low-wind and high tide
181 range. Each survey was then interpolated on to a regular grid (2x2 m) so that the bars,
182 trough and rip channels were well represented. Successive surveys were compared to
183 quantify morphological changes around the reef driven by environmental conditions between
184 surveys and the evolution of the upper beach volume was calculated. The beach profiles at
185 the main ETA lines (ETA 63 to ETA 70) are presented in the supplementary material to
186 support the analysis and the offshore (Brisbane buoy, at - 70 m AHD) and nearshore (Gold
187 Coast buoy, at - 17 m AHD) wave data (see location in Figure 1) were used to help with the
188 interpretation of the data.

189 Despite the usefulness of the dataset collected in interpreting the morphological changes in
190 the region and inferring some sediment transport pathways around the MPAR, the data has
191 limitations. In some cases, due to the difficulties of surveying the nearshore region, the
192 interval between surveys is large and encompasses multiple high wave energy events and
193 therefore it is not possible to differentiate the transport patterns related to a single event.
194 Moreover, the dataset does not cover all types of events that could happen in the region.
195 Therefore, numerically simulating key scenarios would provide useful information to fill gaps
196 in the measured dataset.

197 **2.2 Numerical modelling**

198 Numerical modelling provides a detailed understanding of the currents, waves and sediment
199 transport that led to the morphological changes observed in the dataset. To do so, the model
200 chosen was Delft3D (Lesser et al., 2004). Delft3D is considered state-of-the-art in terms of
201 morphological simulations of complex coastal processes such as waves, hydrodynamics,
202 sediment transport and morphological changes (Lesser et al., 2004). The present paper
203 used the wave (SWAN - Booij et al., 1999; Ris et al., 1999) and flow (including sediment
204 transport and morphology) modules running online. This means that waves generate
205 currents that would generate sediment transport that would change the morphology that then
206 would affect the wave propagation in a feedback process. This feature (online simulation) is
207 particularly relevant to the simulation of morphological changes where the feedback process
208 is crucial to obtain realistic results such as during morphological calibration of the model.

209 *2.2.1 Grids and Bathymetry*

210 The wave model used in this paper is based on the wave model presented by Vieira da Silva
 211 et al. (2018a). The model domain spans the east coast of Australia from North Stradbroke
 212 Island, QLD to Byron Bay, NSW increasing its resolution shoreward (Figure 1). The largest
 213 grid provides a relatively coarse bathymetry for propagation of waves from deep water and
 214 the smallest grid resolves shallow water features in progressively more detail.

215 The large grid has 221×25 elements and resolution of approximately 700×600 m. The
 216 local grid differs from the one presented by Vieira da Silva et al. (2018a) to better represent
 217 Narrowneck and the associated bars. It has 306×107 elements and resolution varying from
 218 120×250 m to 20×20 m. The flow grid is similar to the detailed wave grid, being one row
 219 smaller to avoid numerical problems and has 5 vertical sigma layers (quasi-three
 220 dimensional – Q3D).

221 Samples used to establish the nearshore bathymetry and upper beach topography consists
 222 of the data described above. For the morphological calibration, the initial bathymetry was
 223 taken from the survey of the 2nd August 2018, while scenarios were simulated for accreted
 224 (12th September 2018) and eroded (26th March, 2019) conditions to understand the role of
 225 the underlying bathymetry on sediment transport under different conditions. The offshore
 226 part of the grid bathymetry was completed using data from Project 3DGBR (Beaman, 2010).

227 *2.2.2 Waves and Flow Calibration and Validation*

228 The boundary conditions consisted of waves measured at the Brisbane Waverider buoy, with
 229 water levels and winds measured at the Gold Coast Seaway. The wave and flow models
 230 were calibrated using the dataset presented by Vieira da Silva et al. (2020) which consisted
 231 of a series of instruments deployed around Narrowneck reef (see Figure 1 and Table 2). For
 232 more details on deployment and instrument configuration, refer to Vieira da Silva et al.
 233 (2020).

234 **Table 2: Instruments used for numerical model calibration.**

Instrument	Deployment period	Location	Depth
ADCP Linkquest Flowquest 1MHz	14 th March 16 th April 2019	South of the Reef	7.5 m
ADCP Linkquest Flowquest 1MHz	14 th March 16 th April 2019	North of the Reef	5.5 m
Spoondrift Spotter	14 th March 16 th April 2019	Offshore	10 m
RBR	14 th March 16 th April 2019	Offshore	10 m
RBR	2 nd to 7 th to April 2019	Inshore	5.5 m
ADCP Sontek Argonaut 3 MHz	2 nd to 7 th to April 2019	Inshore	5.5 m

235 The instruments above were used to calibrate the model that was then used to simulate a
 236 separate validation period between April and May 2011 when wave and current data was
 237 collected at a depth of approximately – 7m (AHD) (see Figure 1). The dataset for validation
 238 was provided by the City of Gold Coast and consists of one ADCP deployed near
 239 Narrowneck to measure waves and currents (Stuart and Lewis, 2011).

240 *2.2.3 Sediment Transport and Morphological Calibration*

241 Sediment transport modelling is challenging, and transport formulations often contain
242 multiple parameters that are used to calibrate the formulations if measured data is available.
243 Therefore, the simple application of a sediment transport formula without model calibration
244 can lead to results that differ significantly from observations. Measurements of sediment
245 transport in the active zone of the profile are quite challenging (e.g. Kraus, 1987; Vieira da
246 Silva et al., 2016) and are often measured at a single (or very few) points. Due to the hostile
247 nature of the surf zone instruments may become buried while retrieved data may be non-
248 existent or unreliable due to instrument movement. To overcome these challenges, this
249 paper used the morphological changes (differences in bed level between surveys) as proxy
250 for sediment transport (i.e. we considered that if the morphological changes are well
251 represented by the model between surveys then so should the sediment transport be well
252 represented). Moreover, morphological changes are measured over a longer period
253 compared to an instantaneous in-situ sediment transport experiment, therefore also
254 spanning a wider range of conditions. To do so, the morphological changes were evaluated
255 during the calibration period and the wave model was driven with Brisbane Waverider Buoy
256 data at the offshore boundaries. The flow model was forced with observed water levels (at
257 the offshore boundary) measured at Gold Coast Seaway, 5 km north of the study area
258 (provided by the Queensland Government) and winds (spatially uniform over the domain)
259 measured at Gold Coast Seaway (provided by the Bureau of Meteorology, Australia) and the
260 Neumann condition was applied to the lateral boundaries. The simulation was started on 2nd
261 August 2018 and ended on 12th December 2018 and included a relatively calm period
262 followed by an easterly swell event. As for waves and hydrodynamic modelling, a series of
263 sensitivity tests and calibration runs were carried out to obtain the best transport formulation
264 and corresponding set of model parameters that resulted in the best reproduction of the
265 observed morphological changes.

266 Two types of morphological calibration were carried out: 1) the measured shoreline change
267 was compared to the model results and the errors were assessed by the root mean square
268 error (RMSE) at the ETA lines and; 2) the morphological change results from the model at
269 the interest area (from the dune to -10 m AHD between ETA 63 and ETA 70) were
270 compared to the measured morphological changes and the Brier Skill Score (BSS) was used
271 to assess the 'goodness' of the calibration. BSS has been increasingly used by coastal
272 researchers to assess the skill of coastal process models (Sutherland et al. 2004; Roelvink
273 et al. 2009; Vousdoukas et al. 2012; Simmons et al., 2017). It compares the measured
274 changes with the modelled changes and values = 1 represent perfect agreement. van Rijn et
275 al (2003) classified Brier Skill Score according to: $BSS \leq 0$: bad; $0 < BSS \leq 0.3$: poor; 0.3

276 < BSS <= 0.6: reasonable / fair; 0.6 < BSS <= 0.8: good; and 0.8 < BSS <= 1: excellent. The
277 BSS is calculated as follows (eq.02):

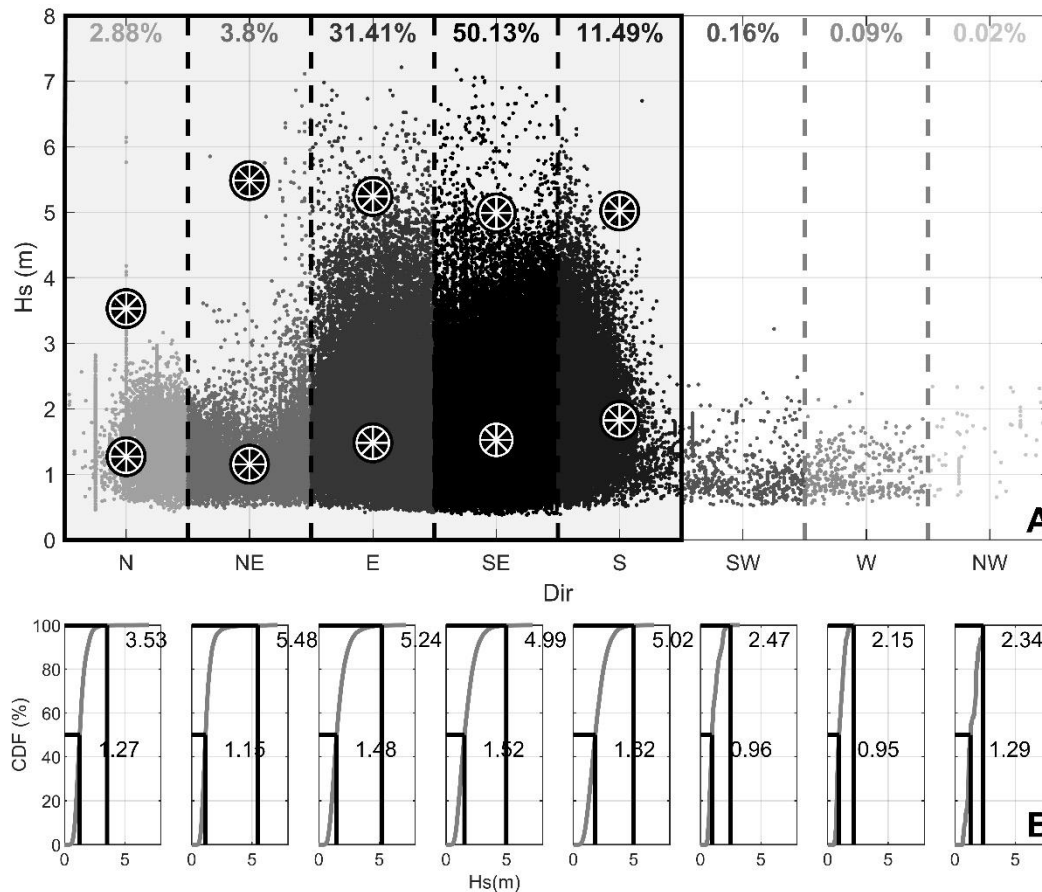
$$278 \quad BSS = 1 - \frac{\sum(z_{mod} - z_{meas})^2}{\sum(z_0 - z_{meas})^2} \quad (\text{eq.02})$$

279 where z_0 is the initial measured profile, z_{mod} is the final model result, z_{meas} is the final
280 measured profile.

281 Following the calibration of the model, it was possible to simulate a variety of scenarios with
282 increased confidence to support the measured dataset and to support the understanding of
283 the interaction of the MPAR with the sediment transport and morphological changes in its
284 surrounding areas.

285 *2.2.4 Scenarios simulation*

286 A series of 60 scenarios were simulated to aid understanding of the sediment transport
287 pathways around the MPAR. To select the wave cases the complete time series was divided
288 into eight directional bins covering the main wave directions. For each direction two wave
289 heights were chosen, a median significant wave condition ($H_{sQ50\%}$) for each direction and an
290 extreme wave for that direction, the $H_{sQ99.86\%}$ for each direction, which is analogous to the
291 H_{s12} (i.e. the wave height that is exceeded 12 hours per year). Wave directions that
292 propagate offshore (southwest, west and northwest) were not simulated. The associated
293 wave period was defined following Kamphuis (2010). The scenarios were simulated over two
294 different initial surveyed bathymetries: an accreted beach (12th September 2018) and an
295 eroded beach (23rd June 2019). Moreover, simulations were carried out at 0 m AHD, low tide
296 (-0.9 m AHD) and high tide (0.9 m AHD) so that the influence of the beach state and tide
297 levels on sediment transport pathways could be assessed.



298

299 **Figure 2: Selected wave cases for each wave direction. $H_{sQ50\%}$ and $H_{sQ99.86\%}$ -**
 300 **significant wave height exceeded 50 and 98.86% of the time, respectively. A) scatter**
 301 **plot of waves and selected wave cases; B) cumulative distribution function for each**
 302 **direction with values representing the $H_{sQ50\%}$ and $H_{sQ99.86\%}$ per direction. Waves to SW,**
 303 **W and NW were not simulated as they propagate offshore.**

304 The sediment transport results from the model were analysed at cross sections along the
 305 model domain (from ETA 63 to ETA 70 – see Figure 1). Moreover, the model results for
 306 waves, currents and sediment transport are presented in the area of interest to support the
 307 findings and aid the understanding of sediment transport pathways in the area.

308 3 RESULTS

309 Results are divided into two sections: topo-bathymetric surveys and numerical modelling
 310 which are described in detail below.

311 3.1 Topo-bathymetric surveys

312 Digital elevation models (DEMs) of the surveys captured between 19th July 2018 and 23rd
 313 April 2020 are presented in Figure 3 while Figure 4 presents the difference in elevation
 314 between successive surveys and the evolution of the upper beach volume. The DEMs were
 315 used to classify the beach morphodynamic state according to Wright and Short (1984). The

316 beach profiles across the ETA lines over time as well as the environmental conditions during
317 the study period are presented in the supplementary material with the vertical lines
318 representing dates of surveys.

319 The period between the first (19th July 2018) and the third (17th August 2018) surveys was
320 characterised by low energy recovery period with the beach transitioning from rhythmic bar
321 and beach (RBB) to transverse bar and rip (TBR). During this period, the highest upper
322 beach accretion is observed shoreward of Narrowneck reef (Figure 4_j), whereas the beach
323 both north and south of the reef presented lower rates of accretion, this is mainly due to the
324 fact that behind the reef the bar is in close proximity to the upper beach and beginning to
325 merge to the shoreline.

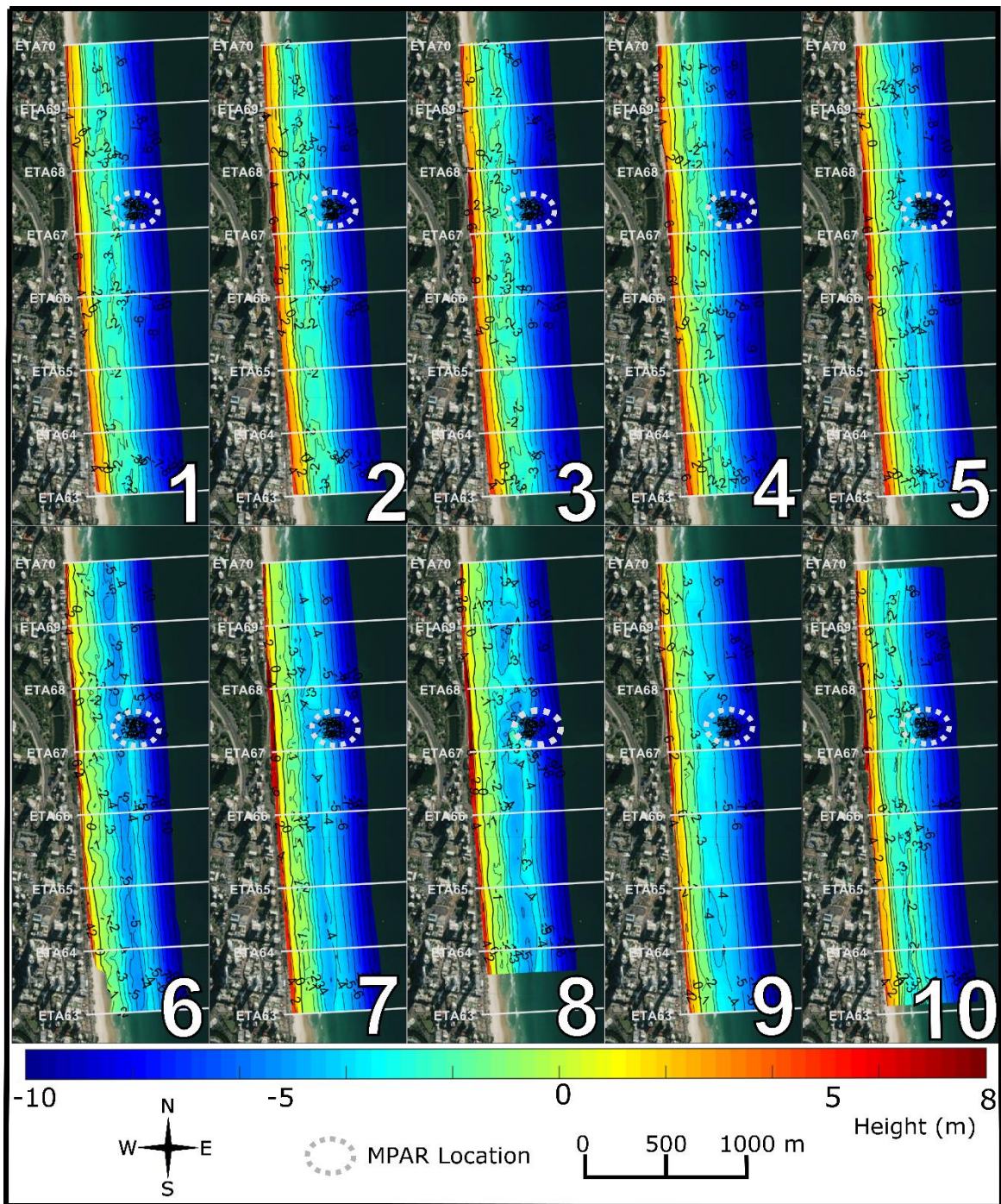
326 Following this, the next two surveys (12th December 2018 and 23rd March 2019) depict a
327 strong erosional period (Figure 3_{5,6}, Figure 4_{d,e}). During this period a series of events with
328 moderate energy occurred, with the most significant ones being: an event in October 2018
329 and Tropical Cyclone Oma (TC Oma) in March 2019.

330 The first event reached 4.5m (H_s) and reset the nearshore morphology to a longshore bar
331 and trough (LBT) and the inner bar presented a RBB state transitioning towards a TBR state.
332 A longshore bar formed in alignment with the inshore part of Narrowneck reef, (i.e. the bar is
333 approximately the same distance offshore as the inshore edge of the reef), particularly
334 towards the south of the reef (400 m to the south of the reef) (Figure 3₅). North of the reef
335 the longshore bar crest only appears 700 m downdrift. A sand accumulation attached to the
336 northeast part of the reef is also revealed between the -6 to -8m (AHD) depth contours. The
337 difference between surveys (Figure 3_d) demonstrates that cross-shore sediment transport
338 occurred during the higher energy events with the bar aligned with the shoreward part of the
339 reef. An increased accumulation of sand is observed in the north part of the reef area while
340 the greatest upper beach erosion is located inshore of the reef (Figure 4_{d,i}), possibly due to
341 the lower crest of the outer bar at this location compared to further north and south of the
342 reef (Figure 3₅) resulting in less attenuation of the easterly waves at this location.

343 Tropical Cyclone Oma also reached H_s of 4.5 m recorded on the Gold Coast buoy.
344 Compared to the October event, TC Oma sustained significant wave heights above 1.5 m for
345 approximately 10 days as opposed to 6 days for the October event, $H_s > 3$ m lasted 3 days
346 during TC Oma and 2 days during the October event yet both events were considered to be
347 1 in 4 year events (with respect to wave height). Furthermore, TC Oma increased the water
348 levels (see supplementary material) and induced increased levels of coastal erosion.
349 Following TC Oma, the bar moved further offshore and extended to join the reef (Figure 3₆).
350 The increased deposition of sand particularly on the north side of the reef indicates the

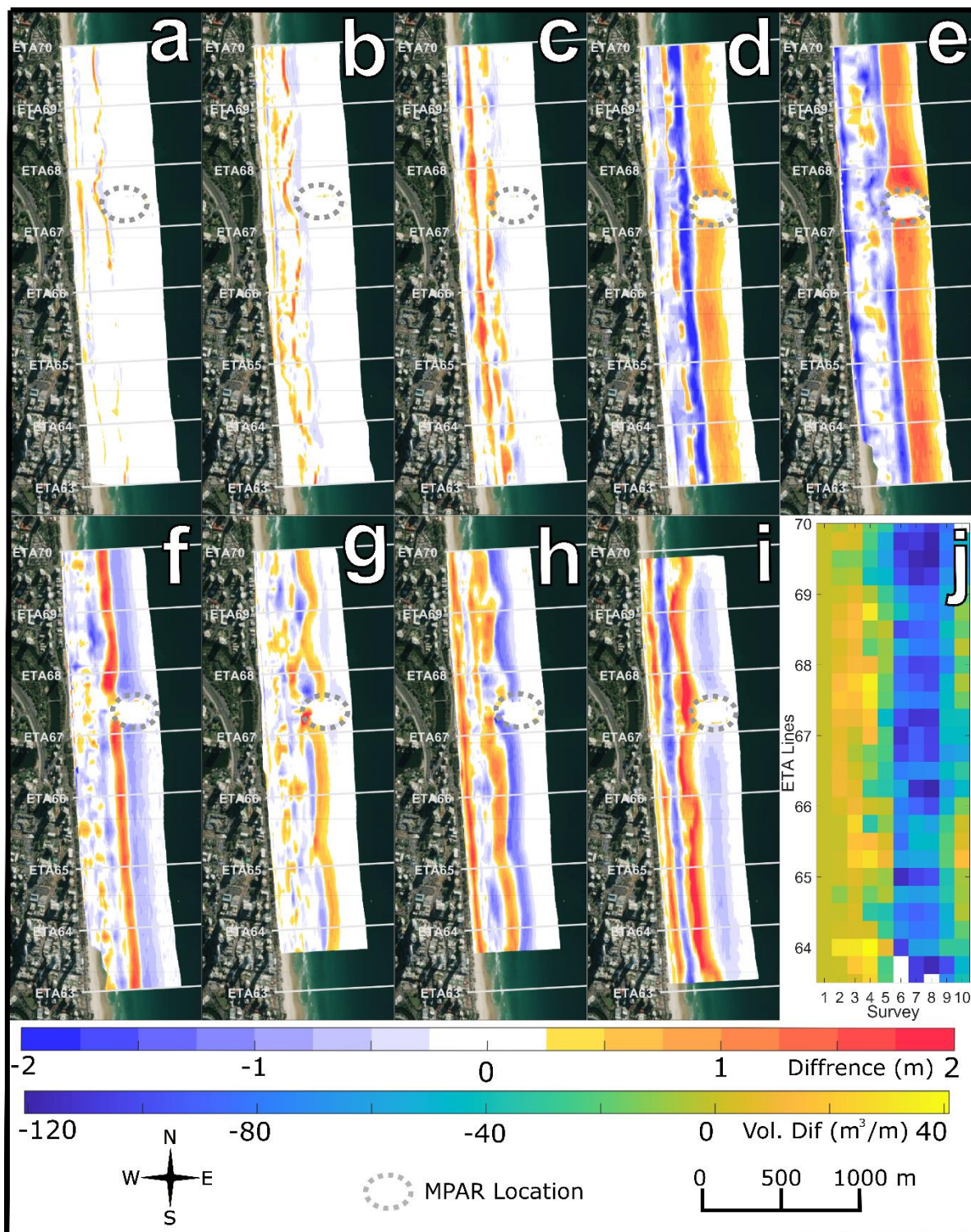
351 possible sand bypassing pathway. Due to TC Oma's wave direction (from southeast) a
352 strong longshore current formed transporting significant amounts of sand northwards and
353 offshore leading to scouring of the beach. During TC Oma little longshore variation of the
354 upper beach erosion was observed (Figure 4_{e,i}) due to the strong longshore currents that
355 formed. Under these very energetic southeast wave conditions the width of the longshore
356 bar increased allowing the sand suspended by these conditions to be transported around
357 (offshore of) the reef by the current.

358 Then, the period following TC Oma was mostly a recovery period with relatively low waves
359 and onshore transport of sand. The survey of 14th June 2019 (Figure 3₇) shows a depression
360 inshore of Narrowneck reef as a discontinuity in the longshore bar as a result of the lack of
361 sand able to migrate onshore at this location due to the presence of the reef. As the sand
362 continues moving onshore, it appears that the MPAR plays a particularly important role in
363 controlling the morphodynamics of the region with the bars in the immediate vicinity of the
364 reef moving onshore, whilst the nearshore bar further to the north and south of the reef are
365 more detached (Figure 3₈). Moreover, Figure 3₉ indicates that both updrift and downdrift of
366 the MPAR (between ETA 66 and 68) the depth contours between around -5 to -9 m (AHD)
367 are further offshore compared to the rest of the survey (south of ETA 66 and north of ETA
368 68), indicating that under these conditions the reef can help to hold sand in its surroundings.



369

370 **Figure 3: Topo-bathymetric surveys. 1) 19th Jul 2018, 2) 2nd Aug 2018, 3) 17th Aug**
 371 **2018, 4) 12th Sep 2018, 5) 12th Dec 2018, 6) 23rd Mar 2019, 7) 14th Jun 2019, 8) 24th**
 372 **Jul 2019, 9) 5th Dec 2019, 10) 23rd Apr 2020.**



373

374 Figure 4: Differences between successive surveys. a) 19th Jul 2018 to 2nd Aug 2018, b)
 375 2nd Aug 2018 to 17th Aug 2018, c) 17th Aug 2018 to 12th Sep 2018, d) 12th Sep 2018
 376 to 12th Dec 2018, e) 12th Dec 2018 to 23rd Mar 2019, f) 23rd Mar 2019 to 14th Jun 2019,
 377 g) 14th Jun 2019 to 24th Jul 2019, h) 24th Jul 2019 to 5th Dec 2019, i) 5th Dec 2019 to
 378 23rd Apr 2020, j) upper beach volume (m³) change through time (x axis) from initial
 379 profile (19th Jul 2018) along the study area (y axis). Values above (below) zero indicate
 380 upper beach volume higher (lower) than the first survey.

381 **3.2 Numerical modelling**

382 The quality of model results is directly related to the quality of the input data and the
 383 available data for calibration. Thus, while uncalibrated models can be used as a first pass
 384 assessment, good quality field data is crucial to reliably simulate coastal processes. The
 385 calibration results are presented for waves, hydrodynamics and morphological changes
 386 followed by the results for the main sediment transport scenarios.

387 *3.2.1 Model Calibration and Validation*

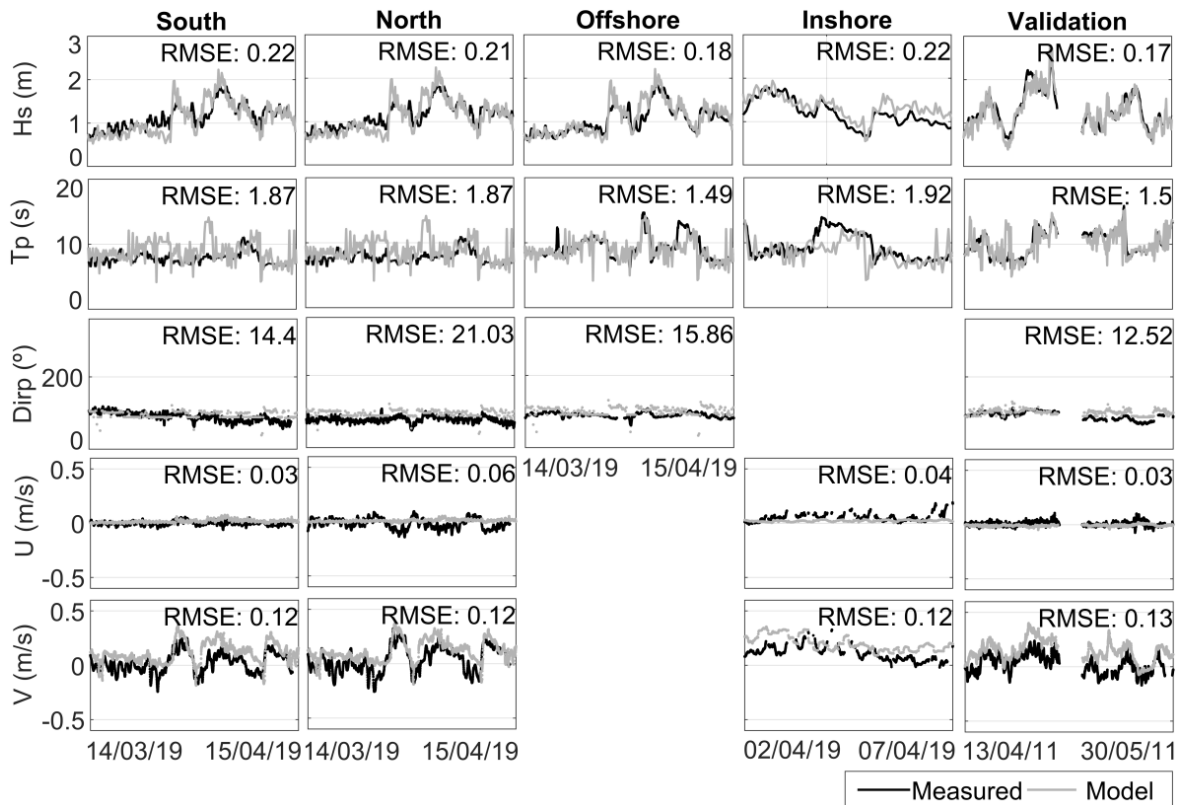
388 The key wave and hydrodynamic parameters that resulted in the best representation of the
 389 measured data are presented in Table 3.

390 **Table 3: Delft 3D wave and flow models key calibration parameters and activated**
 391 **processes.**

	Parameter	Value
Wave model	Depth-induced Breaking	Alpha = 1; gamma = 0.73
	Bottom Friction	0.067 m ² s ⁻³
	Diffraction	activated
	Whitecapping	activated
	Refraction	activated
	Frequency shift	activated
Flow model	Wind drag (breakpoints: coefficient / wind speed)	A: 0.00063 / 0 m s ⁻¹ B: 0.00723 / 100 m s ⁻¹
	Bottom roughness (Chézy)	U = 45 √m s ⁻¹ / V = 45 √m s ⁻¹
	Roller model	Activated

392

393 The model calibration together with the RMSEs are presented in Figure 5 for the instruments
 394 deployed north and south of Narrowneck reef and offshore and inshore of the reef (see
 395 Figure 1 for location of instruments). The results indicate a good agreement between the
 396 model and the measurements at various locations. The same model was used to simulate a
 397 different period (validation) to increase model confidence – results are presented in Figure 5
 398 (far right column). Once again, the figures demonstrate that the model is in good agreement
 399 with the measured data.



400

401 **Figure 5: Model calibration for the ADCPs deployed north and south of Narrowneck**
 402 **reef (columns 1-4) and validation for ADCP deployed in 2011 (far right column). Black**
 403 **lines are the measured data and grey lines are the model results.**

404 *3.2.2 Morphological Calibration*

405 Calibrating coastal area morphological models is more challenging than calibrating
 406 hydrodynamic and wave models because: 1) morphology changes are based on sediment
 407 transport formulas that were mainly developed for different environments; 2) morphological
 408 models rely on accurate representation of waves and hydrodynamics and errors in these
 409 processes propagate to the resulting morphological changes and; 3) small errors in sediment
 410 transport calculations will accumulate over time and will result in poor morphologic
 411 calibration. Nonetheless, a good calibration of a morphological model, when achieved,
 412 provides a quantification of errors that allows a better interpretation of the results and
 413 understanding of the model limitations as well as providing increased confidence compared
 414 to an uncalibrated model.

415 The model calibration process indicated that the Van Rijn et al. (2000) transport formula best
 416 reproduces the morphological changes observed at the study site and the adopted
 417 parameters are described below.

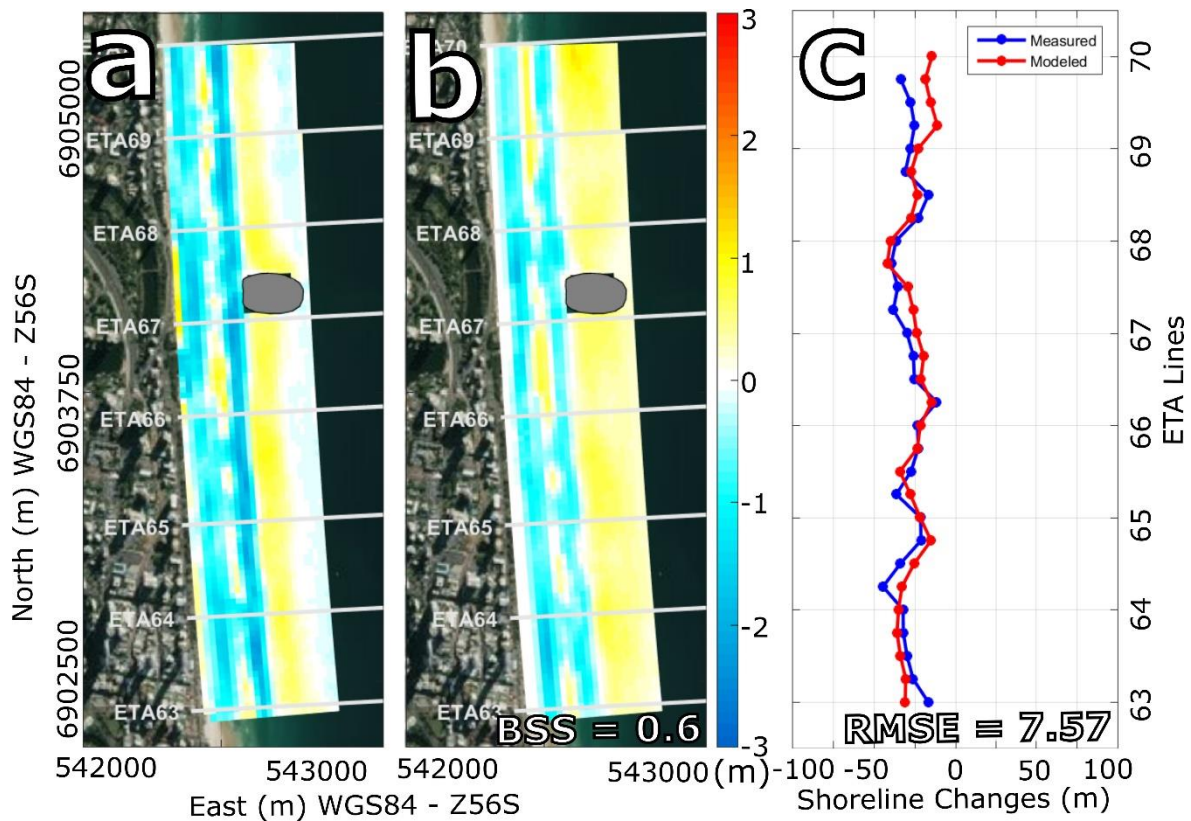
418 **Table 4: Key parameters adopted for morphological calibration.**

Parameter	Value
-----------	-------

Reference height factor	1
Threshold sediment thickness	0.05
Estimate ripple height factor	2
Factor for erosion of adjacent cells	1
Wave-related suspended sediment transport factor	0.1
Wave-related bed-load sediment transport factor	0.1

419

420 Figure 6 presents the measured morphological changes (left) together with the modelled
421 changes (centre) and the shoreline changes (right). The full surveyed area is well
422 represented by the model with a BSS of 0.6, which is considered reasonable/good according
423 to van Rijn *et al.* (2003). Moreover, the morphological changes and bar movements are
424 qualitatively very well reproduced by the model (Figure 6). The offshore transport of sand is
425 clearly identified in both the measurements and the model results. A wider bar, however, is
426 formed in the simulations compared to the measurements. The measured data also
427 indicates onshore sediment transport from offshore (depths between 8-10 m) to the bar
428 (around 6 m) which is not well represented by the model. This is expected as the onshore
429 migration of bars is still poorly understood and the physics concerning this process is not
430 well-reproduced by the models. Nonetheless, a good morphological model calibration and
431 reproduction of the correct patterns in terms of morphological changes indicates that the
432 sediment transport process is well represented around Narrowneck reef. Shoreline changes
433 are quite well represented with RMSE of 7.57 m, which is less than half the size of a grid cell
434 and, therefore, considered excellent. Therefore, the models provide good confidence to
435 simulate sediment transport scenarios.



436

437 **Figure 6: Morphological changes between 2nd August 2018 and 12th December 2018. a)**
 438 **measured, b) modelled and, c) shoreline changes right - measured (blue) vs modelled**
 439 **(red).**

440 3.2.3 Sediment Transport Scenarios

441 A calibrated model can be used to assess the regional conditions, providing a bigger picture
 442 of conditions when compared to the single study site location measurements. The calibrated
 443 model can also be used to simulate scenarios that were not observed during the
 444 measurements. Figure 7 presents the waves, currents and sediment transport for median
 445 waves from northeast (Figure 7_{a-c}), east (Figure 7_{d-f}), and southeast (Figure 7_{g-i}) over an
 446 accreted beach simulated at mean sea level (a water level of 0 m AHD). Similarly, Figure 8
 447 presents the results for extreme waves over an accreted beach simulated at mean sea level
 448 (refer to supplementary material for eroded beach results). Note that the scales for median
 449 and extreme waves are different for H_s (1.5 m for median - Figure 7 - and 4 m for extreme -
 450 Figure 8) and they differ by one order of magnitude for sediment transport (median: $O 10^{-4}$
 451 $m^3/s/m$, extreme: $O 10^{-3} m^3/s/m$). Results for low and high tides as well as waves from north
 452 and south are provided in the supplementary material.

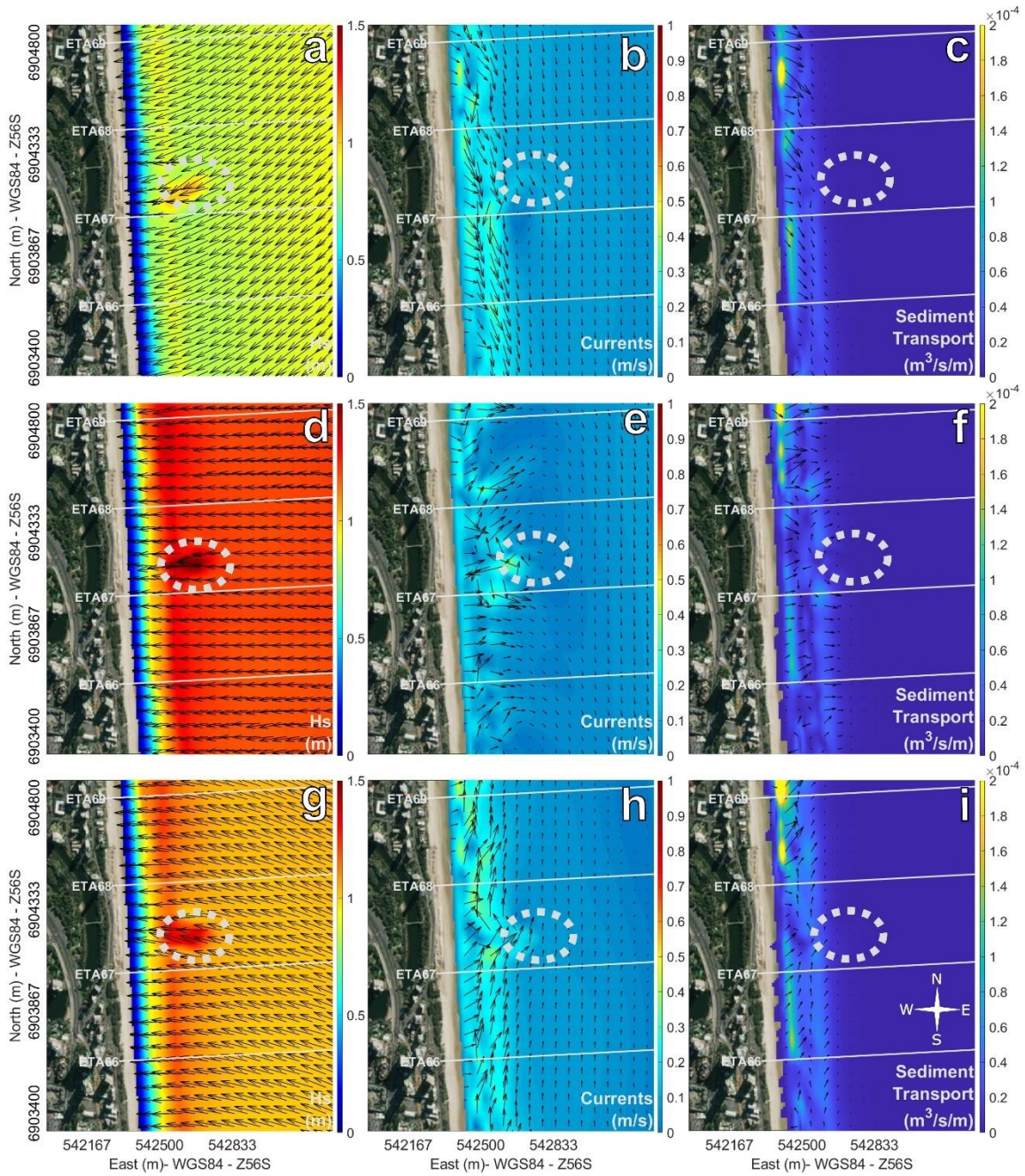
453 Under median conditions, sediment transport is generally observed along the inner bar
 454 (Figure 7). The steepening of the waves is observed over the reef and the waves are
 455 focused inshore between ETA 67 (waves from northeast, Figure 7_c) and to the south of ETA

456 68 under southeasterly waves (Figure 7_i). Easterly waves (Figure 7_{d-f}) tend to create
457 circulation cells along the study area with increased currents around the reef (towards the
458 shore over the reef, deflecting offshore north and south of the reef). Low oblique waves
459 generate alongshore currents that are deflected offshore as they pass the reef, where the
460 sediment transport reduces. The results presented also reinforce the influence of the bar
461 morphodynamic state (antecedent condition) on the development of current patterns and the
462 associated sediment transport.

463 While waves from north and northeast transport sand to the south and waves from southeast
464 and south transport sand to the north, easterly waves tend to present low net longshore
465 transport even under extreme scenarios (Figure 8_{d-f}) with the transport direction often
466 associated with circulation cells. Extreme waves from northeast (Figure 8_{a-c}) and southeast
467 (Figure 8_{g-i}) are the most effective directions for sediment transport, extending the transport
468 zone further offshore (700 m seaward of the A-line). Under these conditions Narrowneck reef
469 deflects the longshore current around it whilst reducing the sediment transport on its
470 immediate downdrift side.

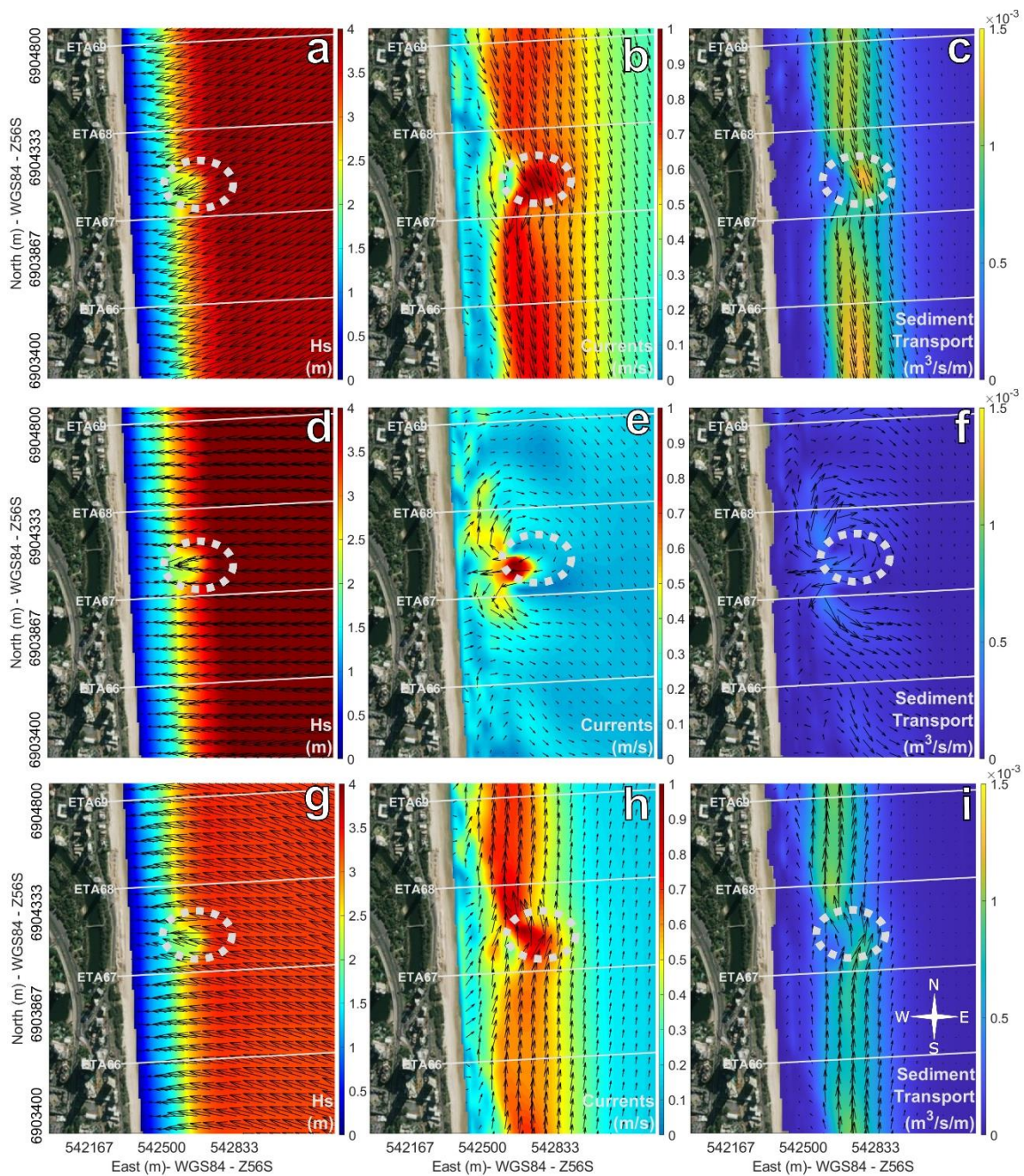
471 The profile condition (eroded/accreted) also has an important role in modulating the
472 sediment transport pathways (see supplementary material). While eroded beaches tend to
473 concentrate most of the sediment transport on the offshore bar (see supplementary
474 material), accreted beaches tend to distribute the sediment transport more evenly across the
475 surf zone. Similarly, the modeled total transport along the cross-sections changes with the

476 water levels - during high tides, it is shifted shoreward while during low tides it shifts seaward
 477 (see supplementary material).



478

479 **Figure 7: Numerical model results (Delft 3D). Waves (left), currents (centre) and**
 480 **sediment transport (right) under median northeast (a-c), east (d-e) and southeast (g-i)**
 481 **wave incidence over an accreted beach condition. Ellipse indicates the approximate**
 482 **location of the MPAR.**



483

484 **Figure 8: Numerical model results (Delft 3D). Waves (left), currents (centre) and**
 485 **sediment transport (right) under extreme northeast (a-c), east (d-e) and**
 486 **southeast (g-i) wave incidence over an accreted beach condition. Ellipse indicates the approximate**
 487 **location of the MPAR.**

488 **4 DISCUSSION**

489 The results presented here were divided into two main components: high resolution topo-
 490 bathymetric surveys and, numerical modelling. The field data captured the morphological
 491 changes in the nearshore encompassing a period of beach recovery followed by two large
 492 events and a second recovery period. Numerical modelling was then used to identify the

493 sediment pathways and understand how the MPAR influences the transport. The analysis of
494 the results indicated that in the short-term, Narrowneck reef locally impacts the surrounding
495 morphological changes by changing the sediment transport pathways and creating
496 circulation cells and shadow zones within the longshore current, where sand deposits,
497 helping to protect the coastline in the lee of the structure.

498 While the topo-bathymetric surveys provide a reliable representation of the bar morphology,
499 capturing such data is time-consuming, resource intensive and weather dependent, thus,
500 regular temporal spacing of these types of surveys are rare in the literature (e.g. de Schipper
501 et al., 2016; Murray et al., 2019; Vidal-Ruiz and Alegria-Arzaburu, 2020). Moreover,
502 conditions that are not captured by the surveys can be analysed with modelling
503 demonstrating that these complementary methods are very useful to understand the
504 sediment pathways around MPARs. A calibrated model was capable of reproducing the
505 waves and currents (Figure 5) as well as the morphological changes (Figure 6) around the
506 reef area. The model presented low RMSE values for waves and currents and a
507 reasonable/good morphological calibration with sedimentation patterns that were well related
508 to the measurements. Patterns of erosion and sedimentation as well as the shoreline
509 position (Figure 6) show that the model can reliably simulate the nearshore processes which
510 are particularly useful to complement the topo-bathymetric dataset collected in the area.

511 With an accreted profile the sediment transport pathways tend to be more evenly distributed
512 across the profile. The sediment transport pathway for eroded profiles however, tended to be
513 more concentrated upon the shore-detached bar, with the majority of transport occurring
514 under higher wave energy (see supplementary material). Under lower waves (that do not
515 break over the bar or the reef), the longshore transport tended to be higher over eroded
516 profiles compared to accreted profiles as less dissipation occurs due to reduced bottom
517 friction (refer to supplementary material sediment transport figures under different beach
518 conditions).

519 Five main patterns of morphological change and sediment pathways have been observed in
520 the measured dataset and are supported by the numerical modelling:

521 1) the reef can act by focusing waves inshore, particularly under lower waves (Figure 7).
522 While this wave focusing may be beneficial for the secondary goal of the reef improving
523 surfing inshore of the reef (Jackson et al., 2007) it could, depending on conditions, create a
524 localised erosion point (particularly if waves persist from the same direction for long periods
525 of time). Typically though, conditions leading to this outcome do not last long due to
526 considerable variability in wave direction (continuously changing the focusing point) and the
527 recurrence of wave obliquity that tends to straighten the shoreline (Price et al., 2013; Garnier

528 et al., 2013). The same factors may also explain the absence of a persistent shoreline
529 salient in the dataset;

530 2) during large easterly waves a net offshore transport is observed (Figure 3₅, Figure 4_d), with
531 a slightly higher erosion rate observed inshore of the reef compared with areas to the north
532 and south of the reef. This observation is due to the area inshore of the reef receiving higher
533 sediment deposition prior to the high energy easterly event and is probably exacerbated by
534 the circulation cells formed by the wave breaking over the reef under these conditions
535 (Figure 8_{d-f}). These types of surf zone circulation cells have been numerically predicted by
536 Ranasinghe et al. (2006) who demonstrated the importance of the distance of the structure
537 from shore on the development of the cell circulation. Additionally, this has been observed in
538 natural reefs (Nemes et al., 2019);

539 3) under oblique waves a longshore current develops and the reef acts to deflect these
540 currents seaward of the reef on the downdrift side, creating a shadow zone where sediment
541 deposition occurs (Figure 3₅). Narrowneck reef was designed to act as a holding point for the
542 longshore sediment transport, however, the positive impact it has on deflecting the current
543 (offshore) and creating a shadow zone where the sand deposition was not initially predicted.
544 The deflection of currents due to the presence of obstacles to the longshore currents has
545 been reported in the literature by modelling and measurements (e.g. Vieira da Silva et al.
546 2016, 2020) and was observed in the initial modelling phase of Narrowneck (Black, 1999),
547 however it was linked to a potential erosion area around the northwest part of the reef rather
548 than the sedimentation area observed by this study. Nearshore currents are also strongly
549 linked to morphological changes, facilitating deposition where the currents reduce speed.
550 Near MPARs, these sand deposits would, in turn, act to further dissipate wave energy,
551 aiding in the MPAR's aim of coastal protection;

552 4) as the reef-aligned offshore bar begins to migrate onshore a deeper area is formed just
553 inshore of the reef (Figure 3₇₋₉). This localised trough or depression forms as a result of the
554 lack of sand locally available to migrate onshore due to the presence of the reef. This
555 depression eventually dissipates in the net direction of the longshore drift (north) and does
556 not appear to have an impact on the shoreline (Figure 4_j);

557 5) the MPAR also acts as a stabilising point for the offshore bar as it moves onshore in a
558 crescentic shape (Figure 3₁₀). Subsequently, there is a downdrift offset (seaward) of the
559 inner bar due to the oblique waves incidence, similar to findings presented by Price et al.
560 (2013).

561 Vieira da Silva et al. (2020) showed that the beach and bars in the region of the MPAR have
562 evolved with increased sedimentation in the updrift side. The data presented here showed a

563 localised effect of the reef on the morphology with limited impact on the shoreline which
564 indicated the re-establishment of the longshore sediment transport as was initially predicted
565 (Black, 1999; Turner et al., 2001). While high frequency video monitoring of the study site
566 has not captured the influence of the MPAR on the cross-shore movement of the nearshore
567 bars (Bouvier et al., 2019), an increased volume of sand on the reef's updrift side has
568 previously been identified in the mid- to long-term (Vieira da Silva et al., 2019, 2020). This
569 finding is supported by the short-term data presented in this study where the surveys (see
570 supplementary material) indicate that the bar crest at survey line ETA 67 (updrift) is
571 consistently shallower than at ETA 68 (downdrift), except when sand accumulates on the
572 north side of the reef driven to the shadow zone by the deflection of longshore currents,
573 locally increasing the bar crest. Twenty years after Narrowneck reef construction, the MPAR
574 has shown a localised effect on the nearshore morphology that helps to maintain the beach
575 in a similar state compared to the adjacent areas whereas it was previously more vulnerable
576 (i.e. a hotspot). Sediment transport pathways are shown to occur both inshore and offshore
577 of the reef, under varying hydrodynamic and morphodynamic conditions. This study has
578 identified scenarios whereby a previously unforeseen deposition of sand downdrift of the reef
579 occurs in the sub-tidal region. Numerical modelling and in-situ field data indicate that this
580 deposition is caused by the deflection of the longshore currents around the reef and the
581 creation of a shadow zone adjacent to the MPAR.

582 This deposition process, associated with the presence of the MPAR, aids in coastal
583 protection by dissipating incoming wave energy, before it reaches the shoreline and provides
584 a temporary sediment store to feed the downdrift areas (Figure 3₆₋₈) in a process that is akin
585 to headland sand bypassing (Short and Masselink, 1999; Klein et al, 2020) and moreover, it
586 is closely linked to the wave height and direction (Vieira da Silva et al., 2018b). This is likely
587 the reason why the downdrift erosion expected during design phase (Turner et al, 2001) has
588 not been observed in the data.

589 To date, only a few MPARs have been constructed (Mead and Black, 1999; Black, 2001;
590 Taranaki Regional Council, 2009; Atkins, 2010; Mead et al., 2010; Yardley et al., 2012;
591 Mortensen et al, 2015) with some reporting failures and all generally considered to
592 underperform in at least one aspect of their design. Twenty years after construction of the
593 world's first MPAR (i.e. Narrowneck reef), there is still much knowledge to be gained from
594 the study of these nearshore coastal protection structures in terms of their performance
595 outcomes and interaction with sediment transport pathways. This has been acknowledged
596 by many authors and the discussion and construction of new similar structures is increasing
597 in the literature (e.g. Mortensen et al, 2015; López et al, 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Antunes do
598 Carmo, 2019). To inform the construction of future coastal protection structures, the

599 monitoring and modelling of existing MPARs that have been in place for several years is
600 crucial for progress and is lacking in peer-reviewed journals. This study represents the first
601 post-construction quantification of the sediment transport and detailed morphological
602 changes influenced by a MPAR based on a combination of topographic surveys and
603 numerical modelling two decades after the MPAR construction.

604 Considering future predicted wave climate change scenarios (Hemer et al., 2013; Wang et
605 al., 2014; Camus et al., 2017; Young and Ribal, 2019) coastal erosion is likely to increase in
606 many areas that were previously considered to be stable. While relocating coastal cities can
607 be very challenging (Abel et al., 2011), the use of coastal protection strategies still appears
608 as a feasible solution. These will most likely include traditional solutions such as groynes,
609 seawalls and beach nourishment, however, the use of multi-purpose artificial structures may
610 be considered.

611 This paper presented the short-term morphological response of a vulnerable sandy open
612 coastline to the presence of a MPAR for a range of commonly experienced wave-climate
613 conditions. This research was underpinned by in-situ field data collected in a highly dynamic
614 surf zone and a calibrated numerical model to contribute to a better understanding of the
615 sediment transport pathways and morphological changes in a full-scale, existing structure
616 two decades after construction. The morphodynamic processes influenced by the MPAR
617 identified in this study will contribute to a better understanding of sediment pathways and
618 morphological changes around such structures.

619 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

620 Most of the information on MPAR design and monitoring to date has been published in
621 technical reports and conference papers. This limits the broader international knowledge
622 base on design outcomes for MPARs for the scientific and coastal management community.
623 Publication in peer-reviewed journals is very important to the growth of this science and to
624 inform future works. In addition, the published literature regarding design and conditions
625 prior to construction of the existing MPARs is significantly higher than post-construction
626 monitoring and performance literature despite the importance of the assessment of long-
627 term monitoring and data to better understand the actual response without the assumptions
628 and simplifications intrinsic of modelling with limited calibration data. This is probably due to
629 a primary focus on capital works, logistics and budgets following construction, a lack of, or
630 under-reported monitoring programs and data availability to the scientific community. This
631 highlights the importance of continuing monitoring and reporting in the literature of these
632 novel structures to better understand the influence that different interventions have on the

633 localised longshore transport and the resulting effects on beach morphology and coastal
634 infrastructure protection.

635 Twenty years after construction, the Narrowneck reef site has more sand deposited updrift
636 and the longshore transport seems to have re-established with minimal impacts on the upper
637 beach. The location of the reef within the active surf zone worked as planned allowing sand
638 to bypass inshore of the reef, particularly under modal wave conditions. Although not initially
639 expected, the results presented in this work demonstrate that the sand bypassing can also
640 occur offshore of the structure under certain conditions (large oblique waves). Whilst a
641 persistent salient at the shoreline inshore of the reef was not observed in the dataset
642 presented here, Narrowneck reef evidently does affect the sediment transport and
643 morphological changes in the short-term, helping to sustain the overall medium to long-term
644 increased volume of sand (due to large scale nourishment campaigns) while allowing sand
645 to also bypass the reef and continue downdrift without significant negative impacts.

646 Low (e.g. H_s lower than approximately 1.5 m) shore-normal waves are focused inshore of
647 the reef and rarely produce localised erosion due to the natural variability of the wave
648 direction that continuously shifts the enhanced energy point along the beach. Furthermore,
649 under oblique waves a longshore current is formed which tends to straighten the shoreline
650 and bar(s). During calmer conditions, the offshore bar migrates onshore, and the reef may
651 act as a holding point for the surf zone bar helping to maintain the beach in the lee of the
652 reef, as waves dissipate over the reef and the adjacent bar. During this onshore movement
653 of the bar, a local depression has been observed inshore of the reef due to the lack of
654 shoreward sand supply at that location, however this feature is readily dissipated alongshore
655 and does not seem to impact the shoreline.

656 Large (e.g. H_s higher than approximately 1.5 m) shore-normal waves tend to transport sand
657 offshore and generate circulation cells as the waves break over the reef. More oblique
658 waves, on the other hand, develop a longshore current that is deflected as it passes the reef,
659 reducing speed immediately downdrift of the structure and favouring sand deposition at this
660 location. As can be seen in the data and modelling this sand deposit may act as a temporary
661 stock (source) of sediment (for the downdrift). This is a novel result, which has not been
662 observed in other MPARs or previously predicted, moreover a direct process has not been
663 suggested until now.

664 The short-term morphological response to the MPAR after two decades is more closely
665 related to the deflection of longshore currents as they encounter the reef than to the
666 dissipation of wave energy, mainly because MPARs are designed to dissipate just enough
667 wave energy so that the wave can still be surfed.

668 **Acknowledgement**

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- Beach morphodynamic state and tide level influence sediment transport pathways
- Sand bypassing occurs mainly inshore of the structure
- Under large oblique waves, sand bypass can occur offshore of the structure
- Deflection of longshore currents influence morphological response to the reef
- Bar crest is usually higher on the reef's updrift side compared to downdrift