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## 20 **Keywords**

21 Overtopping, Scouring, Shingle foreshore, Impermeable foreshore, Vertical seawalls, Sediment  
22 discharge.

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Shingle or gravel beaches and barriers are an effective approach of natural coastal defence ‘with  
25 high ecological, amenity and aesthetic value’ (Obhrai et al., 2008). Nevertheless, coastal hazards  
26 such as impairment of coastal infrastructure and coastal flooding can occur at shingle beaches and  
27 barriers due to wave overtopping, over-washing, erosion and barrier breaching processes  
28 (EurOtop, 2016; McCall et al., 2015). Beach material contained within the overtopping waves can  
29 be particularly hazardous to personnel.

30 The performance of the coastal structures such as vertical or near vertical seawalls and harbour  
31 breakwaters can be classified in many ways, usually using complex functions of wave and  
32 geometric parameters. For example, many man-made coastal structures are designed to limit  
33 overtopping, in which predictions are derived from general empirical formulae fitted to laboratory  
34 measurements. Whilst these structures may be efficient in the mitigation of wave overtopping, they  
35 may be subject to impulsive wave breaking giving sudden and violent overtopping flows and  
36 scouring at toe, the interactions of which are currently difficult to describe with any degree of  
37 certainty.

38 This research was focussed to improve the physical understanding and description of the key  
39 coastal processes along the wave / structure interface specifically to characterise the overtopping  
40 and toe scouring at vertical walls with a permeable shingle beach foreshore. These key coastal  
41 processes at coastal structures on an impermeable foreshore configuration have been widely

42 described by many researchers over the years, see EurOtop (2016). However, little knowledge is  
43 available on the performance of these processes at vertical structures with permeable shingle beach  
44 foreshores. This study presents the baseline overtopping and scouring characteristics at a plain  
45 vertical wall on an impermeable 1:20 foreshore slope, and compares the results with existing  
46 empirical predictions (EurOtop, 2016). These results are then compared two permeable 1:20  
47 shingle beach foreshores with prototype  $d_{50}$  values of 13 mm, and 24 mm respectively.

## 48 **2. Previous Studies**

49 Over the years, although a number of investigations on coastal morphodynamics were carried out  
50 on sandy beaches, very few studies were undertaken on gravel beaches (De San Román-Blanco et  
51 al., 2006). To predict the cross-shore profile change for a gravel beach, there are some empirical  
52 models available in literature, such as empirical models prescribed by Lorang (2002); Van der  
53 Meer (1992); Van Hijum and Pilarczyk (1982). Apart from these, Gentile and Giasi 2003 described  
54 a methodological approach for the remodelling of shingle beaches which has been then applied for  
55 the evaluation of re-naturalization process of a gravel beach named Torre del Porto in the South-  
56 East of Italy, see Altomore and Gentile 2011, 2013. Besides empirical models, recent physical  
57 model studies have been undertaken to investigate the dynamic response of gravel barriers and  
58 beaches under the combined action of tides and waves and storm. For instance, a large-scale  
59 laboratory studies on gravel barriers and beaches have been undertaken in the BARDEX project,  
60 see details Williams et al. (2012a). Afterwards, the numerical simulations of gravel beaches using  
61 XBeach model were validated with the gathered laboratory datasets combined with field studies  
62 on gravel beaches, see McCall et al. (2015); Williams et al. (2012b).

63 A paucity of parametric studies has been devoted to the breaching, overtopping and overwash  
64 process of gravel beaches and barriers, see Bradbury (2000); Matias et al. (2012); Obhrai et al.

65 (2008); Pearson (2010). Based on the test results of 2D experimental investigations in a wave  
 66 flume, Pearson (2010) reported that a reduction on the mean overtopping rate can be achieved with  
 67 the use of a permeable shingle beach (mobile bed) compared to a fixed impermeable beach (solid  
 68 bed).

## 69 **2.1 Empirical predictions of overtopping**

70 The existing empirical prediction formulae are mainly based on the laboratory measurements with  
 71 the use of an impermeable foreshore slope in front of the structure. Recently, EurOtop (2016), an  
 72 updated version of EurOtop (2007) overtopping manual was published with revised empirical  
 73 equations to estimate mean overtopping discharge rates at plain vertical walls with and without  
 74 foreshores. In general, in a relatively deep water, waves approaching structures are small compared  
 75 to the local water depth and reflected back, usually without breaking, conditions termed ‘pulsating’  
 76 or ‘non-impulsive’. On the other hand, if the waves are large relative to the water depth, then they  
 77 can break onto the structure, conditions termed ‘impulsive’, see Bruce et al. (2010); Pearson et al.  
 78 (2002).

79 For this study, the measured mean overtopping rates are compared with overtopping predictions  
 80 provided by the overtopping manual EurOtop (2016), see Equations 1 – 3 considering a foreshore  
 81 slope in front of the vertical wall.

82 For non-impulsive conditions ( $h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) > 0.23$ ),

$$83 \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.05 \exp\left(-2.78 \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}}\right) \quad (1)$$

84 For impulsive conditions ( $h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) \leq 0.23$ ),

$$85 \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.011 \left(\frac{H_{m0}}{h_t s_{m-1,0}}\right)^{0.5} \exp\left(-2.2 \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}}\right) \quad \text{for } 0 < \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} < 1.35 \quad (2)$$

86 and

$$87 \quad \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.0014 \left(\frac{H_{m0}}{h_t s_{m-1,0}}\right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{R_c}{H_{m0}}\right)^{-3} \quad \text{for } \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \geq 1.35 \quad (3)$$

88 where,  $H_{m0}$  is the spectral significant wave height,  $R_c$  is the crest freeboard of the structure,  $h_t$  is  
89 the water depth at the toe of the structure,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration ( $=9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$ ),  $q$  is the  
90 mean overtopping discharge per meter structure width ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  per m or l/s per m),  $T_{m-1,0}$  is the  
91 spectral wave period calculated from statistical wave spectra analysis,  $L_{m-1,0}$  is the deep water  
92 wave length based on spectral wave period ( $=\frac{gT_{m-1,0}^2}{2\pi}$ ) and  $s_{m-1,0}$  is the wave steepness based on  
93 spectral wave period ( $=\frac{H_{m0}}{L_{m-1,0}}$ ).

94 For the estimation of maximum individual overtopping volume and proportion of overtopping  
95 waves, the empirical formulae provided by EurOtop (2016) are adopted in this work, see Equations  
96 4-9. The maximum individual overtopping volume ( $V_{max}$ ) at a plain vertical structure can be  
97 approximated by knowing the number of overtopped waves ( $N_{ow}$ ) in a sequence for both non-  
98 impulsive and impulsive conditions, see Equation 4 (EurOtop, 2016).

99 Maximum individual overtopping volume ( $V_{max}$ ),

$$100 \quad V_{max} = a(\ln N_{ow})^{1/b} \quad (4)$$

101 where,  $V_{max}$  is the maximum overtopping volume per meter structure width ( $\text{m}^3$  per m or l per m),  
102  $N_{ow}$  is the number of overtopping waves,  $a$  is the Weibull scale factor and  $b$  is the Weibull shape  
103 factor.

104 For non-impulsive conditions, shape factor  $b$

105 
$$b = \begin{cases} 0.66 & \text{for } s_{m-1,0} = 0.02 \\ 0.88 & \text{for } s_{m-1,0} = 0.04 \end{cases} \quad h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) > 0.23 \quad (5)$$

106 For impulsive conditions, shape factor  $b$

107 
$$b = 0.85 \quad h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) \leq 0.23 \quad (6)$$

108 To estimate, the scale factor,  $a$ , EurOtop (2016) proposed the following empirical formula  
 109 (Equation 7) with an empirical relationship between  $\Gamma(1 + 1/b)$  and shape factor  $b$ , see EurOtop  
 110 (2016) for details.

111 
$$a = \left( \frac{1}{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{b}\right)} \right) \left( \frac{qT_m}{P_{ov}} \right) \quad (7)$$

112 where,  $\Gamma$  is the mathematical gamma function,  $q$  is the mean overtopping discharge per m width  
 113 ( $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  per m or  $\text{l}/\text{s}$  per m) and  $P_{ov}$  is the proportion of overtopping waves ( $N_{ow}/N_w$ ).

114 For a known relative crest freeboard ( $R_c/H_{m0}$ ), EurOtop (2016) proposed the following empirical  
 115 formulas (Equation 8 and 9) to determine the proportion of overtopping waves ( $P_{ov}$ ) at a plain  
 116 vertical wall under perpendicular wave attack, subjected to non-impulsive and impulsive wave  
 117 conditions.

118 For non-impulsive conditions ( $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) > 0.23$ ),  $P_{ov}$

119 
$$P_{ov} = \frac{N_{ow}}{N_w} = \exp \left[ -1.21 \left( \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \right)^2 \right] \quad (8)$$

120 For impulsive conditions ( $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) \leq 0.23$ ),  $P_{ov}$

121 
$$P_{ov} = \frac{N_{ow}}{N_w} = 0.024 \left[ \frac{h_t^2}{(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0})} \left( \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \right) \right]^{-1} \quad \text{with a minimum predicted by Equation 8} \quad (9)$$

## 122 2.2 Empirical predictions of toe scour

123 A number of researchers reported that the failure of coastal structures such as seawalls in the UK  
124 very often occurred due to the scour at the toe of the structure, see Sutherland et al. (2003). To  
125 improve understanding of this phenomenon as well as to provide design guidance, many  
126 experimental and field studies, have focused on toe scouring at coastal structures with sandy  
127 foreshores, for example; Xie (1981); Fowler (1992); Kraus and Smith (1994); Sutherland et al.  
128 (2006); Tsai et al. (2009); Pearce et al. (2006). An overview of laboratory and field research on  
129 toe scouring at vertical structures using sandy beach profiles is summarized by Müller et al. (2008).  
130 Alongside experimental studies, a few numerical studies have been performed to understand the  
131 scouring patterns at coastal structures, for example Jayaratne et al., (2016); Pourzangbar et al.,  
132 (2017); Tahersima et al., (2011); Tofany et al., (2014).

133 It has been noted in the literature by many researchers that there is a strong correlation between  
134 the toe scour depth and relative water depth at the structure. For example, Müller et al. (2008)  
135 illustrated a trend line describing the development of non-dimensional toe scour depth ( $S_t/H_s$ ) with  
136 respect to the breaker type ( $h_b/L_m$ ) for the vertical seawalls on a sandy beach. Further, Sutherland  
137 et al. (2008) and Wallis et al. (2009) demonstrated a new empirical relationship between non-  
138 dimensional toe scour depth ( $S_t/H_s$ ) and relative toe water depth ( $h_t/L_m$ ), for the conservative  
139 prediction of scour depth at a plain vertical seawall with a sandy foreshore slope. In which,  $H_s$   
140 significant wave height defined as highest one-third of wave heights =  $H_{1/3}$ ,  $h_t$  is the toe water  
141 depth,  $h_b$  is the water depth at breaking and  $L_m$  is the deep-water wave length based on mean wave  
142 period  $T_m$ .

143 With prototype sediment diameters of  $5 < d_{50} < 30$  mm, and a model scale of 1:17, Powell and  
144 Lowe (1994) derived a non-dimensional scour plot for the estimation of toe scouring depth at  
145 vertical walls with a permeable shingle beach under normally incident irregular wave attack.

146 Jayaratne et al. (2015) conducted a laboratory study on scouring at vertical seawall with a sandy  
147 slope, and two gravel slopes. They suggested an empirical model for the estimation of scour depth,  
148 using the maximum wave height at the toe of the slope, submergence of the berm and local wave  
149 length. However, to date these empirical models, together with new datasets have not been  
150 validated with experimental data.

### 151 **3. Experimental Set-Up**

#### 152 **3.1 Laboratory description**

153 Physical model experiments were undertaken in a 2D wave flume within the school of engineering  
154 at the University of Warwick. The wave channel has a length of 22 m, a width of 0.60 m and an  
155 operating depth of 0.40 m - 0.70 m. The sidewalls and bottom of the wave flume are built of glass.  
156 The flume is equipped with an absorbing piston type wavemaker to generate regular as well as  
157 random waves.

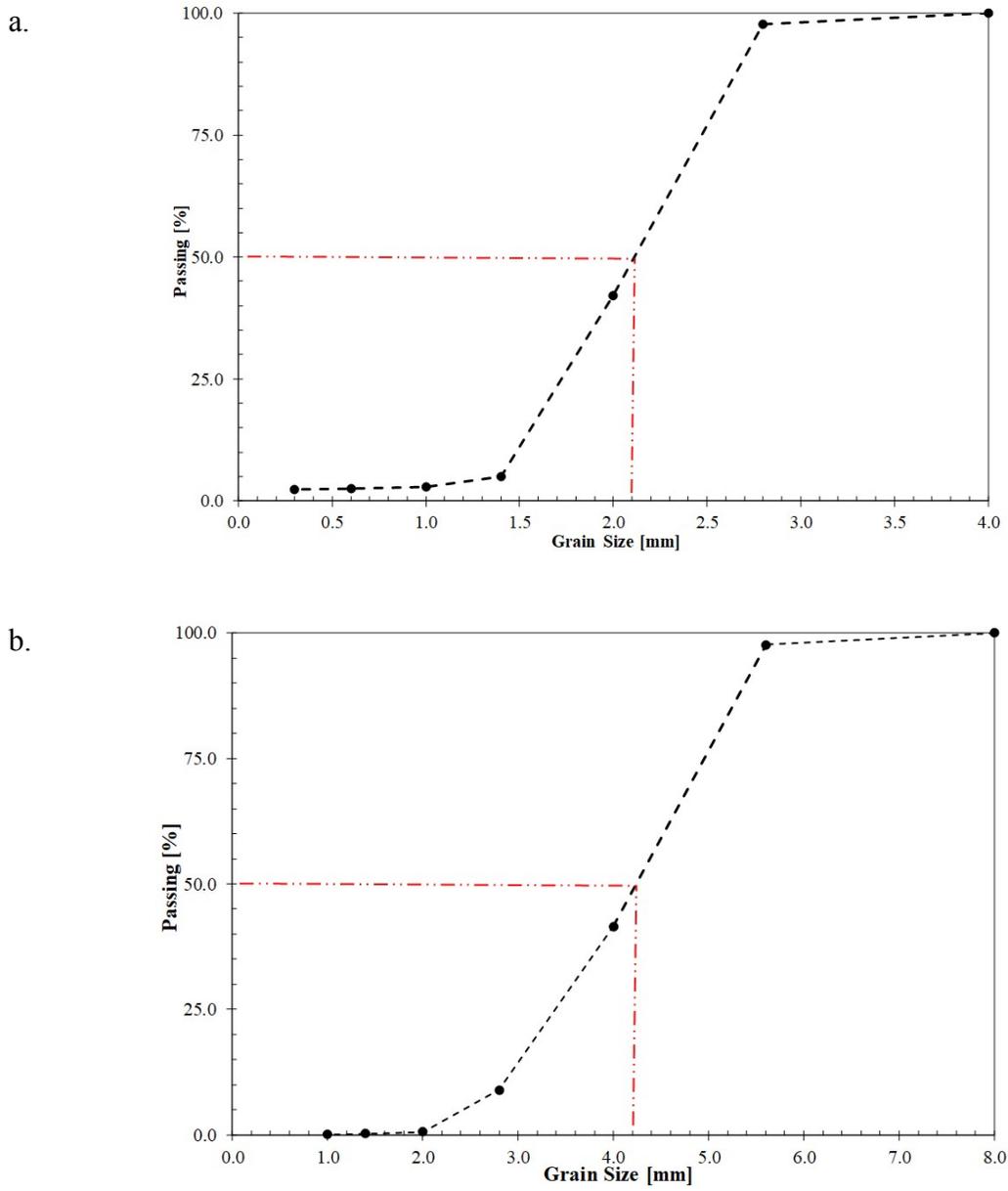
158

159 A 1:50 length scale was applied to generate random sea wave conditions within the flume. A  
160 sloping beach with a uniform slope of 1:20 was constructed in front of the vertical seawall to  
161 generate depth limited waves. A smooth impermeable slope was constructed to perform the  
162 experiments with a solid beach. A permeable shingle beach was made of scaled anthracite to  
163 conduct the experiments for the shingle beach configurations, see Fig. 1.

164 All measurements were undertaken with a model vertical seawall. For the experiments on mobile  
165 shingle beds, two shingle beaches were designed and represented by filtered anthracite crushed  
166 coal with a specific gravity of 1.40. The scaling of mobile shingle beaches was applied, by adapting  
167 the well-established methodology of Powel (1990). For the selection of model beach sediment in  
168 laboratory investigations, Powel (1990) described that model sediment should satisfy the following  
169 three criteria:

- 170 — In physical model tests, permeability should be accurately reproduced to reach the real  
171 beach slope
- 172 — The correct reproduction of the relative magnitudes of the onshore and offshore movement  
173 to evaluate whether the erosion or accretion will occur at the beach
- 174 — To identify the minimum wave velocity for initiating the motion of the beach, the threshold  
175 of movement should be correctly scaled in the experiments

176 Powell (1990) applied the methods published by Yalin (1963), Dean (1973) and Komar and Miller  
177 (1973) to satisfy the permeability, onshore and offshore movement and, threshold of movement  
178 criteria respectively. Adopting the method described by Powel (1990), at a 1:50 scaling, model  
179 beach materials  $d_{50}$  of 2.10 mm and 4.20 mm with a specific gravity of 1.40  $T/m^3$  were designed  
180 to represent assumed prototype grain diameter  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm and 24 mm respectively with a specific  
181 gravity of 2.65  $T/m^3$ . The grading curves of model beach sediments in this study are shown in Fig.  
182 1. To avoid confusion, any reference to the sediment within this manuscript has been quoted as  
183 prototype values.



**Fig. 1.** The grading curves of model beach sediments - a)  $d_{50}$  of 2.10 mm b)  $d_{50}$  of 4.20 mm

184 **3.2 Measurement of wave conditions**

185 The wave heights and periods were calculated by collecting free water surface elevations at the  
 186 different points during the experiments. To separate the incident and reflected condition, a 3-point  
 187 method was applied to determine the wave conditions at the structure as well as at deep water (near  
 188 wave paddle), see Mansard and Funk (1980). To determine the deep water wave conditions, one

189 set of three wave gauges (number 1, 2 and 3) were positioned near wave paddle at relatively deep  
190 water, see Fig. 2. The water surface elevations at the structure were measured by placing another  
191 set of three wave gauges (number 4, 5 and 6 in Fig. 2) close to the structure. The probe spacing  
192 between wave gauges was calculated as following the approach prescribed by Mansard and Funk  
193 (1980). The wave gauge (number 6, see Fig. 2) in front of the vertical seawall was positioned at  
194 750 mm (0.25 times of wave length associated with peak frequency and local water depth) from  
195 the face of the structure. This was executed using the methodology described by Klopman and Van  
196 der Meer (1999) which enables to avoid the effects of a reflective structure on incident significant  
197 wave heights. These authors found that for the vertical walls there is limited influence of the  
198 structure on the incident significant wave heights thus it is possible to place the multi-gauge wave  
199 measurement method adjacent to the structure. This is because vertical structure is almost near to  
200 a perfectly reflective wall thus as per linear wave theory “there are no evanescent wave modes  
201 only the incident and reflecting travelling waves are present” (Klopman and Van der Meer, 1999).

202 To compensate the reflected waves originating from the structure, the wave paddle was equipped  
203 with an active absorption system during the overtopping and scouring tests. Furthermore, the  
204 incident wave conditions were calibrated by repeating the test sequence without the presence of  
205 structure, which enables the effects of wave-structure induced reflection to be evaluated.

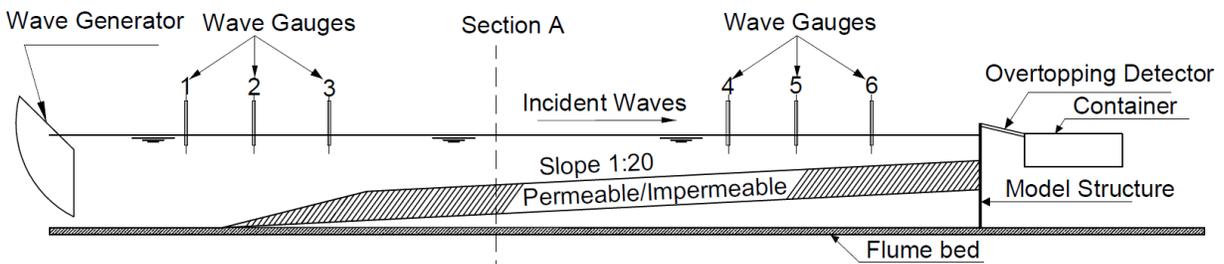
### 206 **3.3 Measurement of overtopping**

207 To collect and measure the overtopping discharges, an overtopping measuring container was  
208 placed on the rear side of the structure, connected with an overtopping chute from the crest of  
209 structure. For the tested conditions on the shingle beach, a perforated sheet made of stainless steel  
210 was positioned on the upper side of container to collect the overtopped sediment particles. The  
211 diameter of the hole of the perforated sheet was smaller than the diameter of model shingle beach

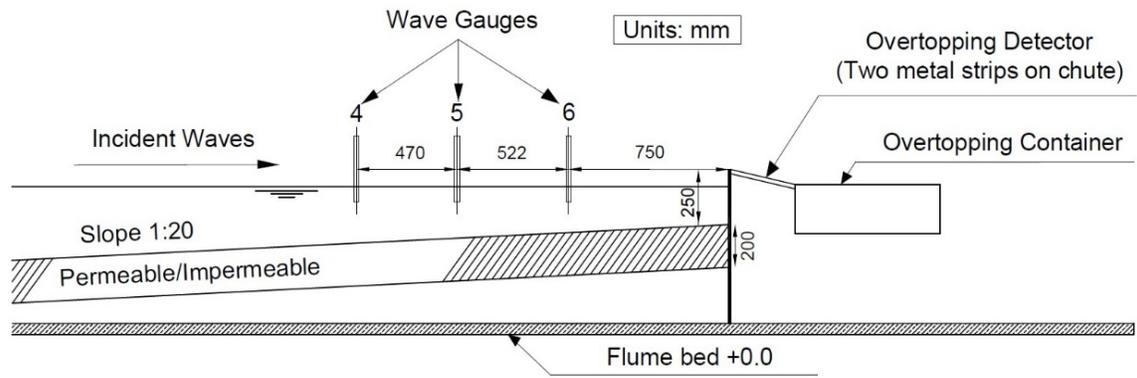
212 which enables the overtopped sediments to be separated from the water. A suction pump was  
213 attached with the measuring container to empty it after or during a test run. The container was  
214 suspended from a load-cell that allows the measurement of overtopping mass as a form of change  
215 in voltage for each overtopping event, during the experimental test sequence. The calibration of  
216 load-cell was performed by measuring the change in voltage in the loadcell corresponding to  
217 known change in weights in the container.

218 Further, to detect an overtopping event, an overtopping detector was made with the use of two  
219 parallel metal strips of metal tape setting along the crest of seawall. During an overtopping event,  
220 water overtops the crest of structure and goes through the metal strips, which is configured to show  
221 a voltage drop, as the overtopped wave passes the strips. Thus, allowing identification of every  
222 wave-by-wave overtopping volume during each test.

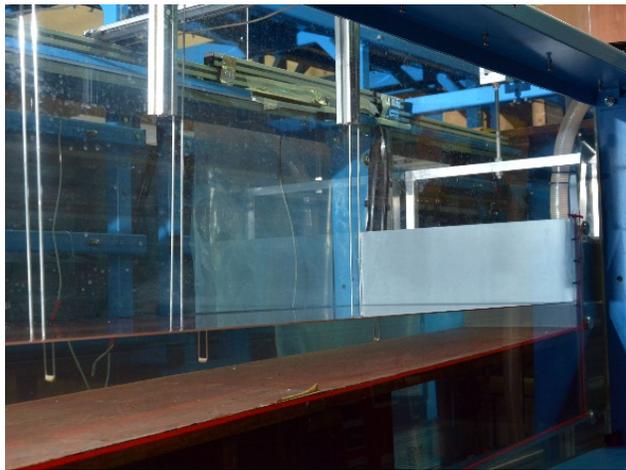
223 The load-cell and overtopping detector were connected with a data logger to process and store all  
224 the output signals at a desired frequency of 20 Hz. At the end of the experiment, collected data  
225 were passed through an algorithm to determine the total overtopping volume and the wave by wave  
226 overtopping volumes for an experiment.



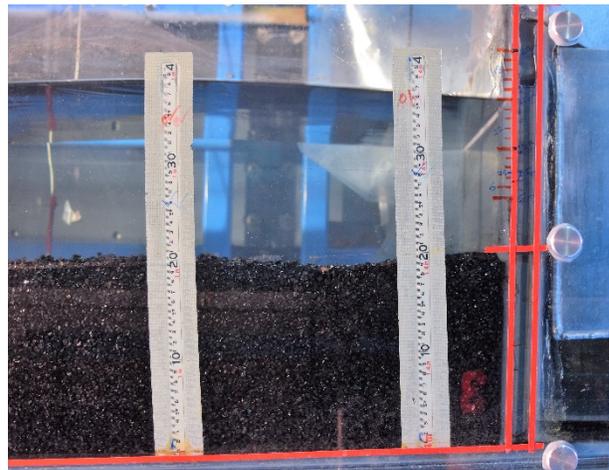
a.



b.



c.



d.

**Fig. 2.** Test set –up: a. A layout of the physical model, b. Detail of the position of wave gauges and overtopping measurement system (Section A), c. Photograph of impermeable bed configuration and d. Photograph of shingle bed ( $d_{50} = 13$  mm) configuration

228        **3.4 Measurement of scouring**

229        Measurements of toe scouring and wave overtopping were conducted simultaneously for tests on  
230        plain vertical seawalls with a shingle foreshore. Due to the simultaneous measurements of  
231        overtopping and toe scouring, all the tests were performed with 1000 random waves and the scour  
232        depth was also calculated for 1000 wave cycles. Prior to the start of each experiment, the shingle  
233        bed was reshaped to the initial profile which was uniform 1:20 permeable foreshore slope in front  
234        of the vertical wall.

235        A depth point gauge was used to measure the scour depths at the end of the test. For each  
236        experiment, scour depth at toe ( $S_t$ ) and maximum scour depth ( $S_{max}$ ) were measured after a test  
237        run. For selected conditions, scour depths were also measured at several locations along the shingle  
238        bed to determine the bed profile of shingle beach after wave attack. This was performed using the  
239        depth point gauges at defined locations as well as a digital camera from a fixed position and  
240        subsequent analysis was applied.

241        **3.5 Test conditions**

242        In general, for a wind sea state wave steepness varies from  $s_{op} = 0.04$  to  $s_{op} = 0.06$  and for swell  
243        wave conditions it is usually  $s_{op} = 0.01$  (EurOtop, 2016). To generate both wind sea state and swell  
244        sea conditions, two constant wave steepnesses ( $s_{op} = 0.02$  and  $0.05$ ) in relatively deep water were  
245        tested in this study. The incident wave conditions at the toe of the structure is presented in Table  
246        1.

247        The JONSWAP energy spectrum is usually applied as the design spectrum by coastal engineers  
248        (Holthuijsen, 2007) and employed in experimental studies by researchers for enabling comparison  
249        of gathered data. The mean values of shape parameters for the JONSWAP energy spectrum, are  
250         $\gamma = 3.3$ ,  $\sigma_a = 0.07$  and  $\sigma_b = 0.09$  (Holthuijsen, 2007; Wolters et al., 2009). To generate a

251 realistic irregular wave field, a JONSWAP energy spectrum was used in this study with a peak  
 252 enhancement factor of  $\gamma = 3.3$  ( $\sigma_a = 0.07$  and  $\sigma_b = 0.09$ ).

253 **Table 1**

254 Summary of test conditions

Structural configuration	Bed configuration	Toe water depth, $h_t$ [m]	Crest Freeboard, $R_c$ [m]	Wave Height, $H_{m0}$ [m]	Wave steepness, $S_{op}$ [-]	Wave Period, $T_{m-1,0}$ [s]
Vertical Seawall on an impermeable bed	solid	0.060	0.190	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	solid	0.075	0.245	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	solid	0.100	0.150	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	solid	0.150	0.100	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
0.05					0.80-1.43	
solid	0.180	0.140	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26	
				0.05	0.80-1.43	
solid	0.200	0.050	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26	
				0.05	0.80-1.43	
Vertical Seawall on a shingle bed	shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.060	0.190	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.075	0.245	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.100	0.150	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.150	0.100	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
					0.05	0.80-1.43
	shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.180	0.140	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26
0.05					0.80-1.43	
shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	0.200	0.050	0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26	
				0.05	0.80-1.43	
shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	- 0.050		0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26	
				0.05	0.80-1.43	
shingle ( $d_{50} = 13$ mm & 24 mm)	- 0.030		0.05-0.16	0.02	1.27-2.26	
				0.05	0.80-1.43	

255

256 For this study, a matrix of 180 test conditions (wave steepnesses, crest freeboards, water depths,

257 shingle sizes) were performed to investigate the wave overtopping at vertical walls on both

258 impermeable and shingle beaches. In total, six depths within the water column at the toe of the  
259 structure, were tested to examine the wave overtopping and toe scouring at vertical walls on  
260 shingle beaches. In addition, tests were conducted with negative toe water depths (water depth  
261 below beach level) to investigate the toe scouring at vertical seawalls with a shingle foreshore.  
262 An overview of test conditions is presented in Table 1.

## 263 **4. Results and Discussion**

### 264 **4.1 Wave overtopping**

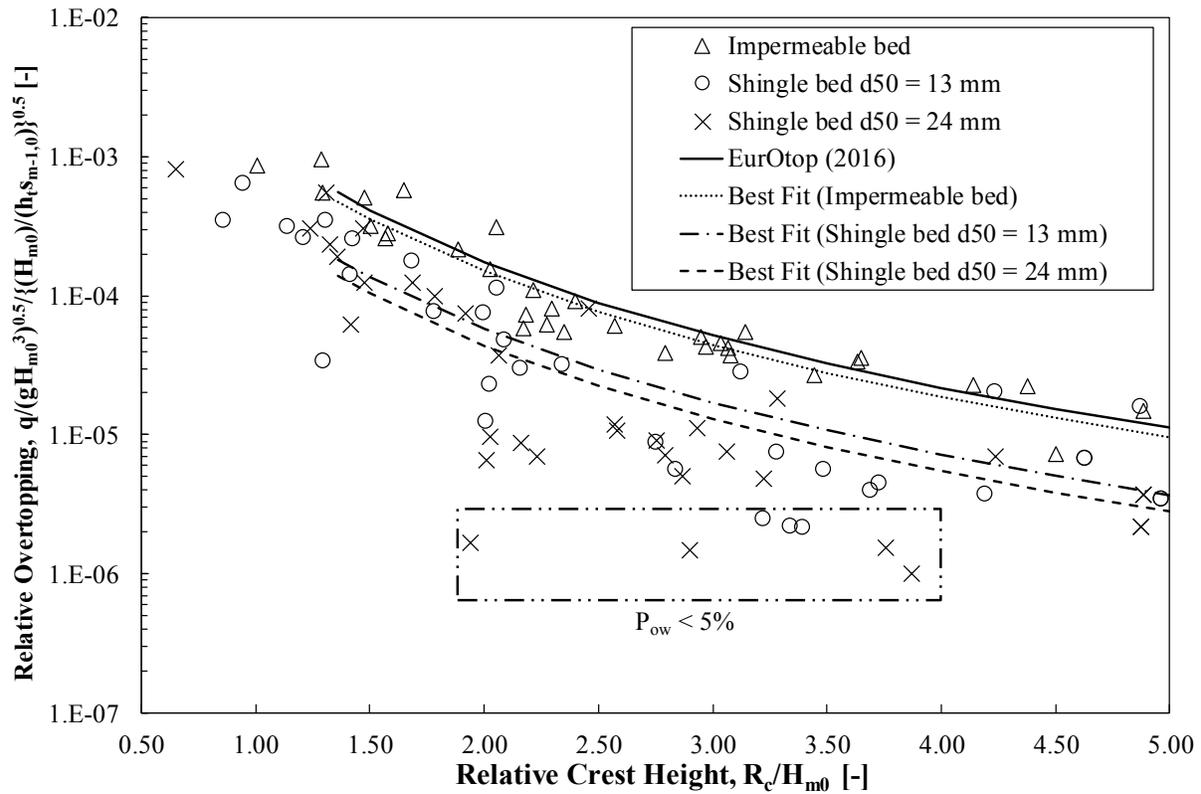
#### 265 *Mean overtopping discharge*

266 The experiments were benchmarked with an impermeable foreshore, subjected to both non-  
267 impulsive and impulsive conditions.

268 In Fig. 3, the resulting mean overtopping discharges at a plain vertical wall on shingle beds are  
269 compared with the empirical formulae (Equation 2-3) proposed by EurOtop (2016), together with  
270 overtopping characteristics observed for the reference case (solid bed). The resulting data points,  
271 which correspond to the solid impermeable bed, show an overall very good agreement with the  
272 predictive method of EurOtop (2016) as observed by dotted lines in Fig. 3 ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ). For the  
273 impulsive conditions tested on the shingle beaches, a noticeable reduction on the mean overtopping  
274 rate is observed compared to the test results on an impermeable bed. When comparing the two  
275 beach foreshore configurations, it was observed that the larger shingle bed of  $d_{50}$  of 24 mm, gave  
276 a greater overall reduction in overtopping discharge, as indicated by the dashed trend lines.

277 It is noticeable from Fig. 3, that experiments with shingle foreshores give more scatter compared  
278 to the impermeable bed configurations, subjected to impulsive wave attack. The higher scatter  
279 values of relative overtopping discharge are observed for the data points corresponding to low

280 overtopping waves (less than 5%), see Fig. 3. These are often associated with a very few number  
 281 of overtopped waves, leading to an uncertainty in the measurement of wave overtopping. Similar  
 282 scatter characteristics of wave overtopping for experiments with less than 5% overtopping waves,  
 283 were also reported by Zanuttigh et al. (2013) in the determination of wave by wave overtopping  
 284 characteristics for smooth slopes and rubble mound breakwaters.



**Fig. 3.** Mean overtopping discharge at plain vertical walls, subjected to impulsive conditions

285 A ‘best-fit’ analysis was performed on the measured overtopping data to determine a reduction  
 286 factor by introducing mobile beds and to propose the empirical overtopping discharge formula for  
 287 the estimation of mean overtopping at vertical seawalls on a shingle foreshore. Following the  
 288 approach suggested by EurOtop (2016), for higher freeboards with impulsive wave conditions,

289 average overtopping discharges at vertical walls on the mobile beds are described by a power law  
 290 function. Based on the ‘best-fit’ analysis on the tested conditions, the overtopping rate is reduced  
 291 by around a factor of 3 for shingle bed of  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm (Equation 10) and approximate factor of 4  
 292 for shingle bed of  $d_{50}$  of 24 mm (Equation 11), when compared to the empirical prediction of  
 293 EurOtop (2016) for solid impermeable bed (Equation 3). It should be noted that for lower relative  
 294 freeboards ( $R_c/H_{m0} < 1.35$ ) less data was collected for impulsive conditions, thus it is not possible  
 295 to give a defined trend through the best-fit analysis.

296 Alongside the  $R^2$  best-fitted analysis, the root mean square error (rmse) analysis has been carried  
 297 out in this study, to observe the reliability of the best-fitted equations. This has been performed by  
 298 adopting the methodologies of Owen (1980) and Victor et al. (2012), using measured and predicted  
 299 values of mean overtopping discharges. For the tested impulsive conditions, the rmse value based  
 300 on the measured, and predicted values of average overtopping rates was derived, with values of  
 301 0.25 and 0.28, for shingle beds of  $d_{50} = 13$  mm and  $d_{50} = 24$  mm respectively. It is important to  
 302 note that the scatter data points which are the experiments with relatively low overtopping (less  
 303 than 5%) as indicated in Fig. 3, are not considered in the rmse analysis of new equations.

304 The best-fit trend line for shingle bed of  $d_{50} = 13$  mm (Impulsive conditions),

$$305 \quad \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.00046 \left( \frac{H_{m0}}{h_t S_m - 1.0} \right)^{0.5} \left( \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \right)^{-3.0} \quad \text{for } 1.35 \leq \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \leq 5.0 \quad (10)$$

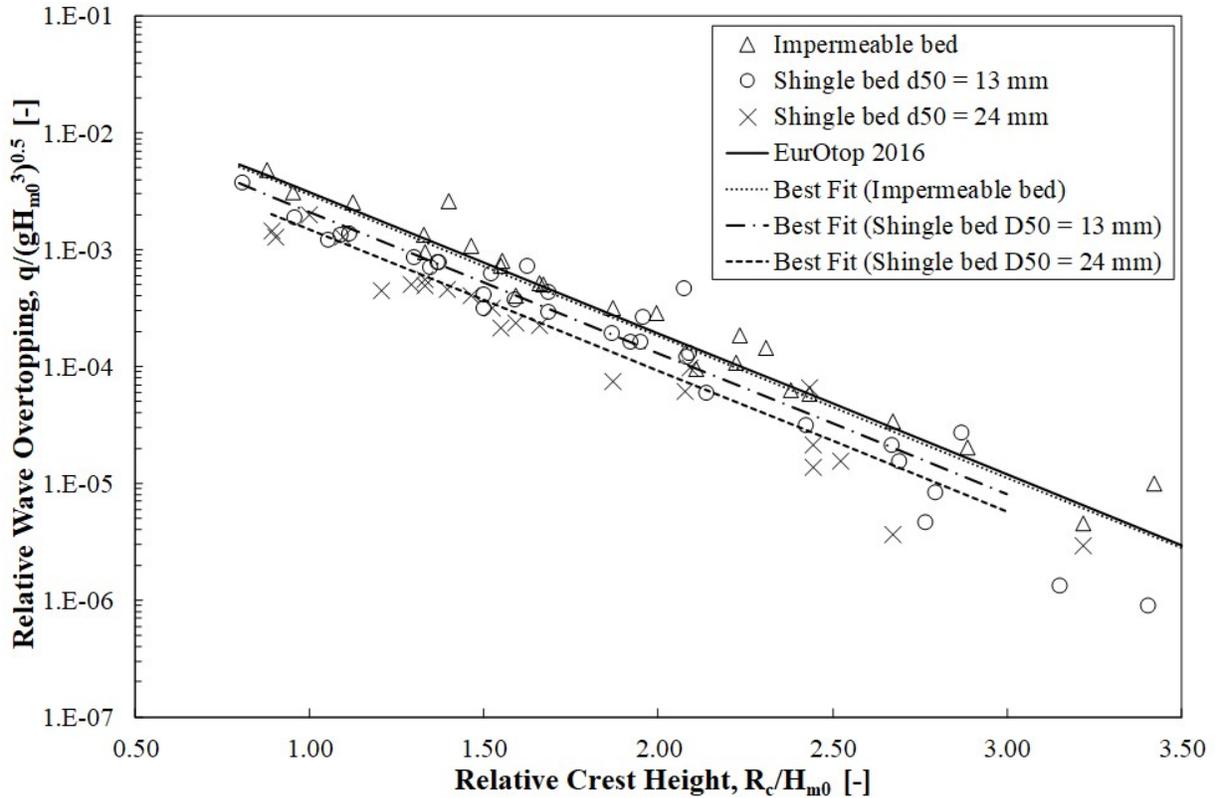
306 With a corresponding least square regression,  $R^2 = 0.63$  and rmse value of 0.25.

307 The best-fit trend line for shingle bed of  $d_{50} = 24$  mm (Impulsive conditions),

$$308 \quad \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.00035 \left( \frac{H_{m0}}{h_t S_{m-1.0}} \right)^{0.5} \left( \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \right)^{-3.0} \quad \text{for } 1.35 \leq \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}} \leq 5.0 \quad (11)$$

309 With a corresponding least square regression,  $R^2 = 0.54$  and rmse value of 0.28.

310 Fig. 4 illustrates a comparison between the mean overtopping discharge for the shingle bed and  
 311 impermeable solid bed configurations, under non-impulsive wave conditions. The empirical  
 312 predictions (Equation 1) by new overtopping manual (EurOtop, 2016) is presented by a solid line.  
 313 The data points corresponding to solid impermeable bed show an overall good agreement with the  
 314 predictive method of EurOtop (2016), as indicated by dotted lines in Fig. 4 ( $R^2 = 0.96$  and rmse  
 315 value of 0.09). For the non-impulsive test conditions on shingle beaches, the results of this study  
 316 demonstrate that permeable shingle foreshore provides a reduction in the overtopping discharge at  
 317 vertical seawalls, compared to an impermeable beach configuration.



**Fig. 4.** Mean overtopping discharge at plain vertical walls, subjected to non-impulsive conditions

318 A ‘best-fit’ analysis was carried out on the shingle bed data under non-impulsive conditions on the  
 319 overtopping discharge trend curve for a plain vertical wall with a permeable shingle foreshore, see  
 320 Equation 12-13. When compared to the empirical prediction of EurOtop (2016) for solid  
 321 impermeable beaches (Equation 1), it appears that under non-impulsive conditions, the mean  
 322 overtopping discharge is reduced by approximately a factor of 1.5 for shingle bed of  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm  
 323 (Equation 12) and around a factor of 2 for shingle bed of  $d_{50}$  of 24 mm (Equation 13). It should be  
 324 noted that the scatter data points corresponding to relative freeboards higher than 3.5 are not  
 325 considered in the ‘best-fit’ analysis. The rmse value is reported as only 0.10 and 0.11 for shingle  
 326 bed of  $d_{50} = 13$  mm and  $d_{50} = 24$  mm respectively, despite the larger scatter, in general the  
 327 predictions with the use of the new equations show an encouraging trend with the measurements.

328 The best-fit trend line for shingle bed of  $d_{50} = 13$  mm (non-impulsive),

$$329 \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.033 \exp\left(-2.77 \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}}\right) \quad (12)$$

330 With a corresponding least square regression,  $R^2 = 0.92$  and rmse value of 0.10.

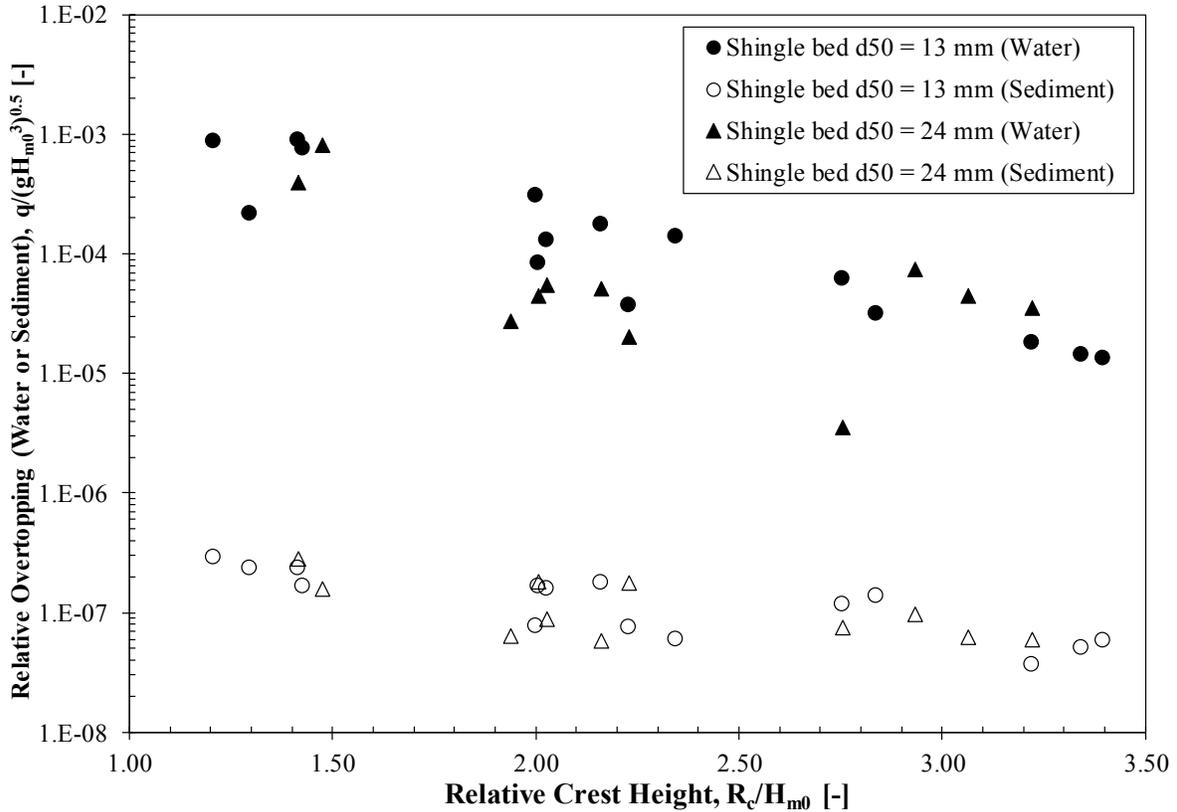
331 The best-fit trend line for shingle bed of  $d_{50} = 24$  mm (non-impulsive),

$$332 \frac{q}{\sqrt{gH_{m0}^3}} = 0.024 \exp\left(-2.91 \frac{R_c}{H_{m0}}\right) \quad (13)$$

333 With a corresponding least square regression,  $R^2 = 0.94$  and rmse value of 0.11.

#### 334 *Mean overtopping sediment discharge*

335 For the experiments with the mobile shingle beds, alongside the mass of overtopped water, the  
336 mass of overtopped sediment was simultaneously measured to determine the average overtopping  
337 sediment discharge. The quoted specific gravity of 1.40 was used to determine the volume of  
338 overtopped sediments from collected dry weight of sediments. Fig. 5 shows the measured average  
339 overtopping rate of sediment and water at a plain vertical wall on a shingle foreshore, plotted  
340 against the relative freeboard of the structure, subjected to impulsive wave conditions. It should  
341 be noted that the overtopping of sediment was not observed for the tested conditions on non-  
342 impacting and impacting waves ( $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) > 0.03$ ). Overall, the data points in Fig. 5  
343 demonstrate that measured volume of sediment passing the crest of the structure is around 0.5%  
344 of the volume of overtopped water, for the conditions where  $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) < 0.03$ . For instance,  
345 if considering the relative freeboard of 2.01 for shingle bed of 24 mm, it is noticeable that the  
346 dimensionless sediment discharge ( $1.83E-07$ ) is 0.41% of the overtopped water ( $4.50E-05$ ).



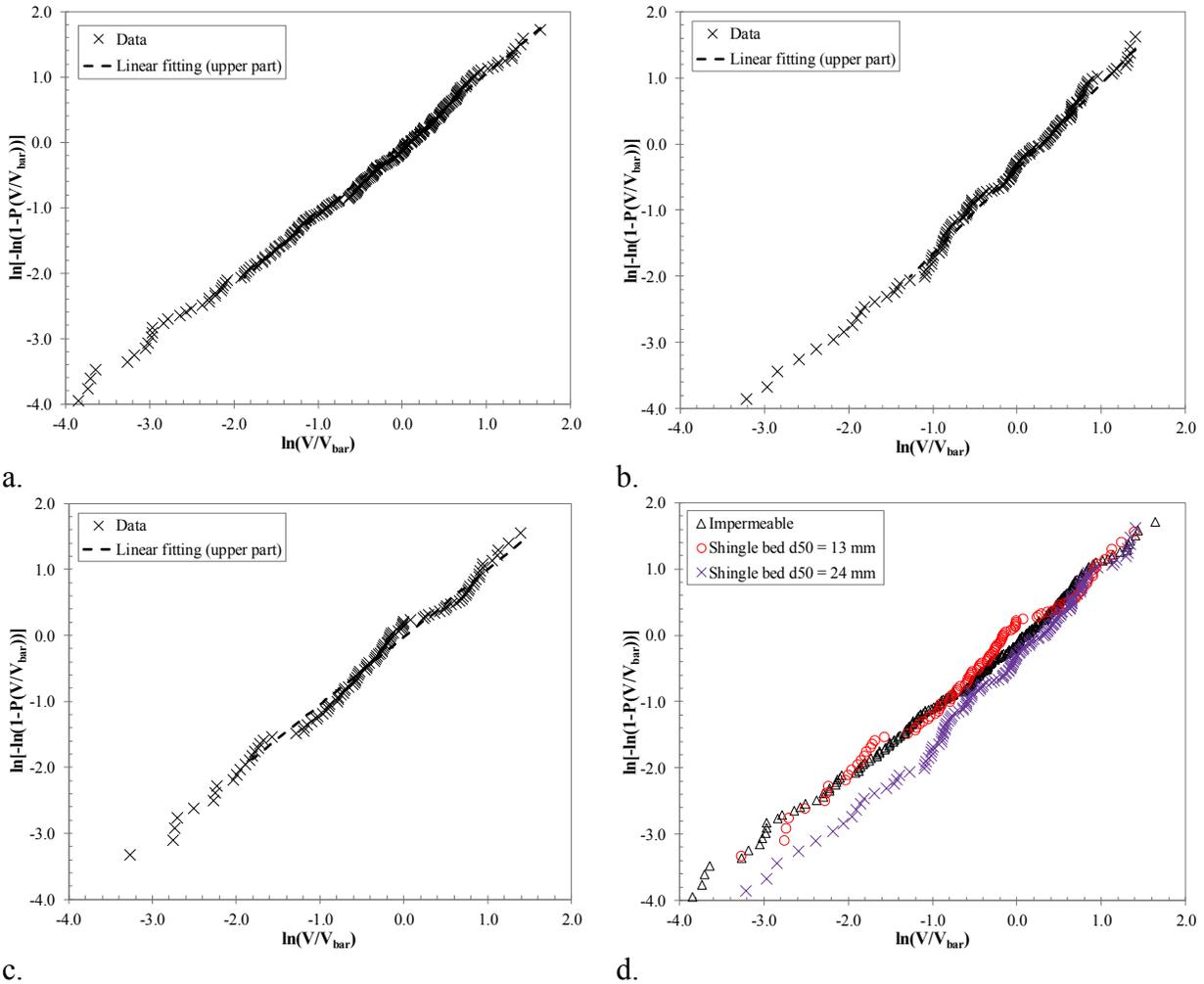
**Fig. 5.** Mean overtopping discharge of sediment and water at a plain vertical wall with a shingle foreshore

347 *Distribution of wave by wave volumes*

348 In the empirical prediction of overtopping volumes, it is generally considered that the wave by  
 349 wave overtopping volumes in a sequence follow a two parameter Weibull distribution (Van der  
 350 Meer and Jansen, 1994; Besely, 1999; EurOtop, 2016). For this study, wave by wave overtopping  
 351 volumes were measured and plotted on a Weibull scale for each experiment to identify the  
 352 distribution of these volumes. For three different tested bed configurations with the same wave  
 353 conditions, distribution of wave by wave volumes on a Weibull scale are presented in Fig. 6, where  
 354  $V$  is the individual overtopping volume,  $P(V)$  is the probability of exceedance and  $V_{bar}$  is the mean  
 355 overtopping volume. Fig. 6 also compares the variation of overtopping volume distribution for  
 356 three different bed configurations.

357 Overall, a linear trend of data points is noticeable from graphs (Fig. 6a -6c), which denotes that  
358 the measured individual overtopping volumes fit a two-parameter Weibull distribution for the  
359 tested conditions within this study. Furthermore, the graph (Fig. 6d) also demonstrate that there is  
360 no apparent effect of permeable foreshores on the distribution of wave by wave volumes.

361 In the Weibull distribution of wave by wave volumes, distributions of the small overtopping  
362 volumes (lower part) in many cases deviate from the inclination of the upper part of the distribution  
363 (Victor et al., 2012; Zanuttigh et al., 2013). Many researchers reported that higher wave by wave  
364 volumes give a good fit to Weibull distribution and provide a reliable estimation of extreme  
365 individual overtopping wave volumes, see Van der Meer and Janssen (1994) and Besley (1999).  
366 Generally, practitioners mainly focus on the largest wave overtopping volumes, hence Zanuttigh  
367 et al. (2013) suggested to use the upper part of distribution to get a good fit at the extreme  
368 overtopping wave volumes. Adopting the procedure of Pearson et al. (2002), the best-fit linear  
369 trend line in Fig. 6 is plotted by considering only the upper part of the resulting distribution of  
370 wave by wave volumes. The shape factor  $b$  of the distribution can be determined from the  
371 inclination of best fitting line.



**Fig. 6.** Distribution of measured wave by wave overtopping volumes for  $s_{m-1,0} = 0.06$ ,  $H_{m0} = 0.10$  m - a) Impermeable bed b) Shingle bed  $d_{50} = 24$  mm and c) Shingle bed  $d_{50} = 13$  mm and d) Variation of wave by wave volumes with different bed configurations

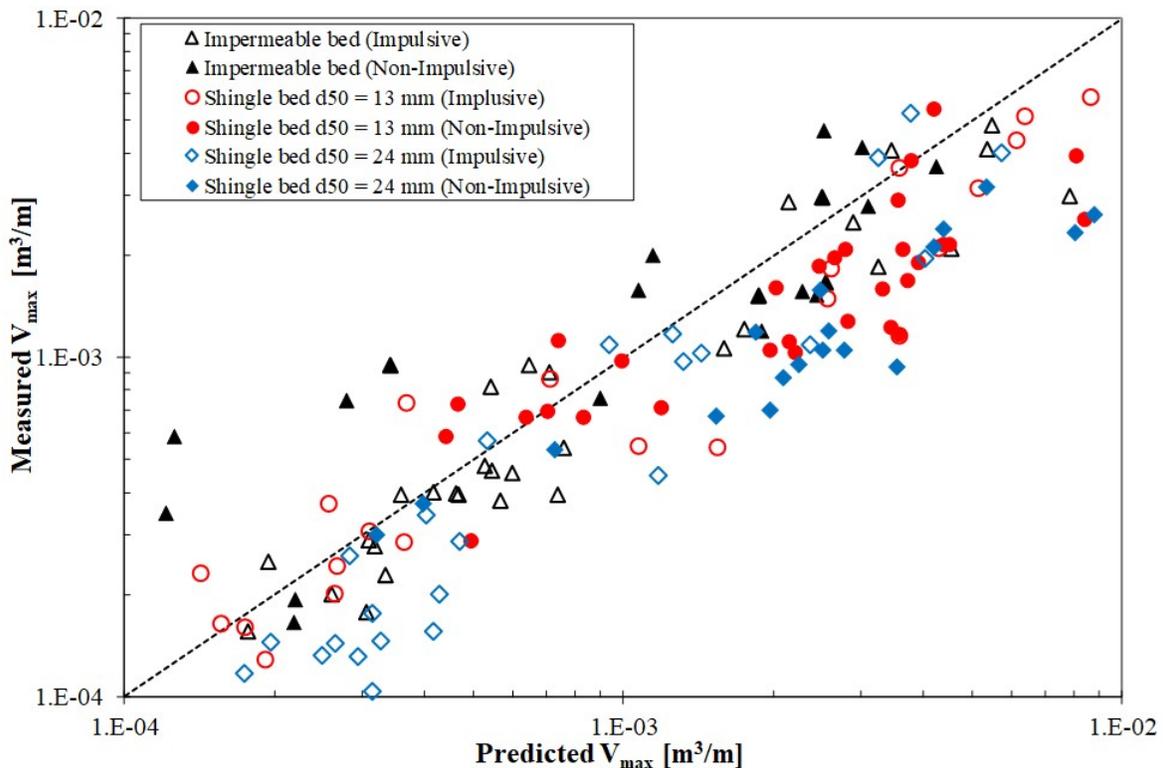
372

373 *Maximum individual overtopping volume*

374 In Fig. 7, the measured maximum individual overtopping wave volumes ( $V_{max}$ ) at plain vertical  
 375 walls on a solid impermeable bed are compared with those predicted values using empirical  
 376 prediction (Equation 4) proposed by EurOtop (2016). The graph also compares the measured  
 377 maximum individual overtopping wave volumes at plain vertical walls on the shingle beds with  
 378 the empirical predictions suggested by EurOtop (2016) for both impulsive and non-impulsive

379 conditions. For both shingle and solid beds, the maximum individual overtopping wave volumes  
 380 were predicted using the empirical formula (Equation 4) for vertical walls given by new  
 381 overtopping manual EurOtop (2016). Overall, the data points corresponding to impermeable beach  
 382 demonstrate that measured maximum individual volume,  $V_{max}$  correlates reasonably well (within  
 383 a factor 2) with the predicted maximum individual overtopping wave volumes under both  
 384 impulsive and non-impulsive wave conditions.

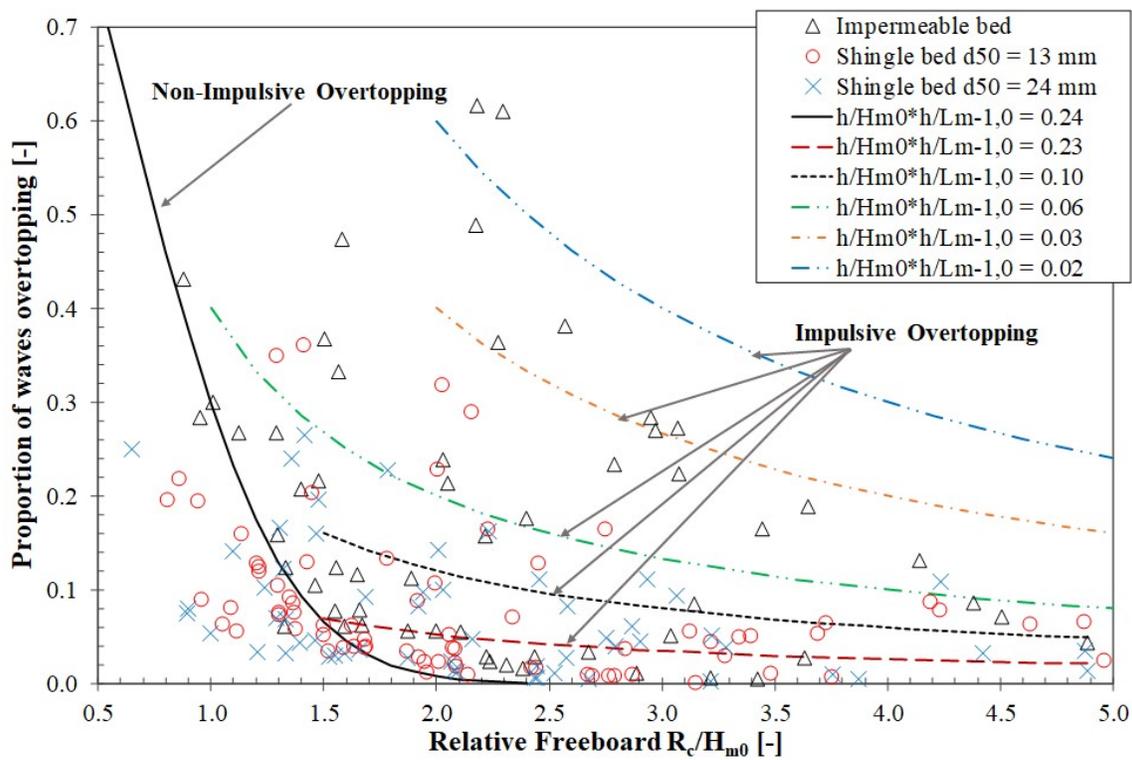
385 In general, the maximum individual wave by wave volumes are somewhat lower than the predicted  
 386 values by EurOtop (2016). Nevertheless, due to the scatter characteristics of the data points, it can  
 387 be concluded that there is no significant difference in the estimation of wave by wave volumes for  
 388 solid and shingle beds in front of a plain vertical seawall.



**Fig. 7.** Comparison of measured and predicted individual overtopping volumes at plain vertical walls on solid and shingle foreshores

389 *Proportion of overtopping waves*

390 Fig. 8 shows the comparison between the measured proportion of overtopping waves at vertical  
 391 walls for both solid and shingle beds with the empirical predictions reported by EurOtop (2016).  
 392 The results from the benchmark tests (solid impermeable foreshore) are plotted in Fig. 8, as the  
 393 reference case. The percentage of waves overtopping predicted with the use of new empirical  
 394 formulae (Equation 8-9) and plotted in Fig. 8 by six different lines showing six values of  
 395 impulsiveness parameter ( $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0})$ ). The solid black line ( $h_t^2/(H_{m0}L_{m-1,0}) = 0.24$ ) represents  
 396 the estimated proportion of overtopping waves for non-impulsive wave conditions reported by  
 397 EurOtop (2016) for plain vertical walls.

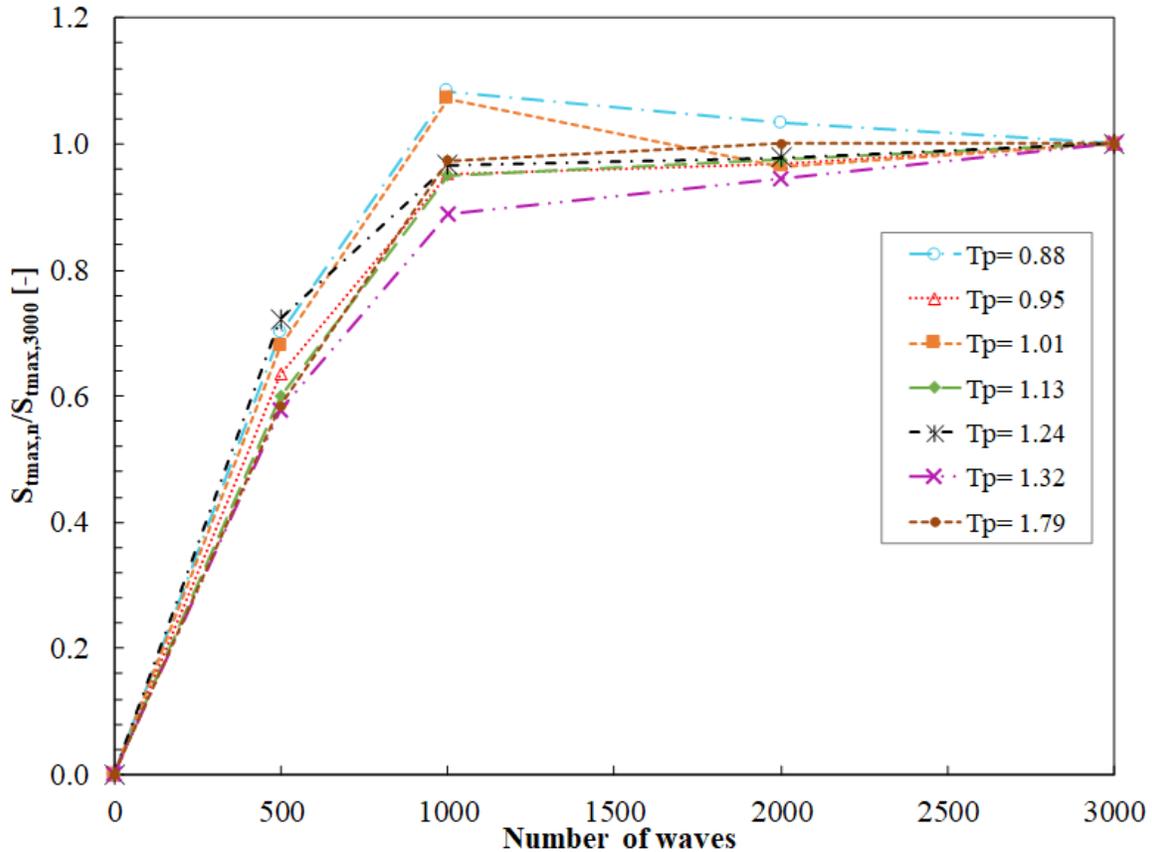


**Fig. 8.** Proportion of waves overtopping at plain vertical walls for both solid and shingle beach configurations, compared to empirical prediction

398 The results show that for the tested conditions on the solid impermeable bed, the measured data  
399 points approximately follow the trend of that described by EurOtop (2016). However, for the  
400 shingle foreshore configurations, it is observed that that probability of overtopping decreases,  
401 indicating that the porosity of the shingle beds has an influence on the proportion of overtopping  
402 waves. For instance, the data points corresponding to experiments with shingle beach of  $d_{50}$  of 24  
403 mm give larger reduction in overtopping proportions compared to data points of shingle beach of  
404  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm.

#### 405 **4.2 Toe scouring**

406 For this study, the initial bed profile was 1:20 plain permeable shingle beach. As noted previously,  
407 tests were performed for 1000 irregular wave cycles, and simultaneous measurements of  
408 overtopping and toe scouring, were measured. To investigate development time for maximum toe  
409 scour depth, an initial selection of experiments was also undertaken for 3000 irregular waves, with  
410 scour depths measured, after approximately 1000, 2000 and 3000 wave cycles. Fig. 9 shows the  
411 measured scour depth, plotted against number of wave cycle. The results show that the maximum  
412 scour depth, occurred at around 1000 wave cycles. Hence the scour depth at 1000 waves, was  
413 adopted for all measured conditions, as the maximum scour depth.



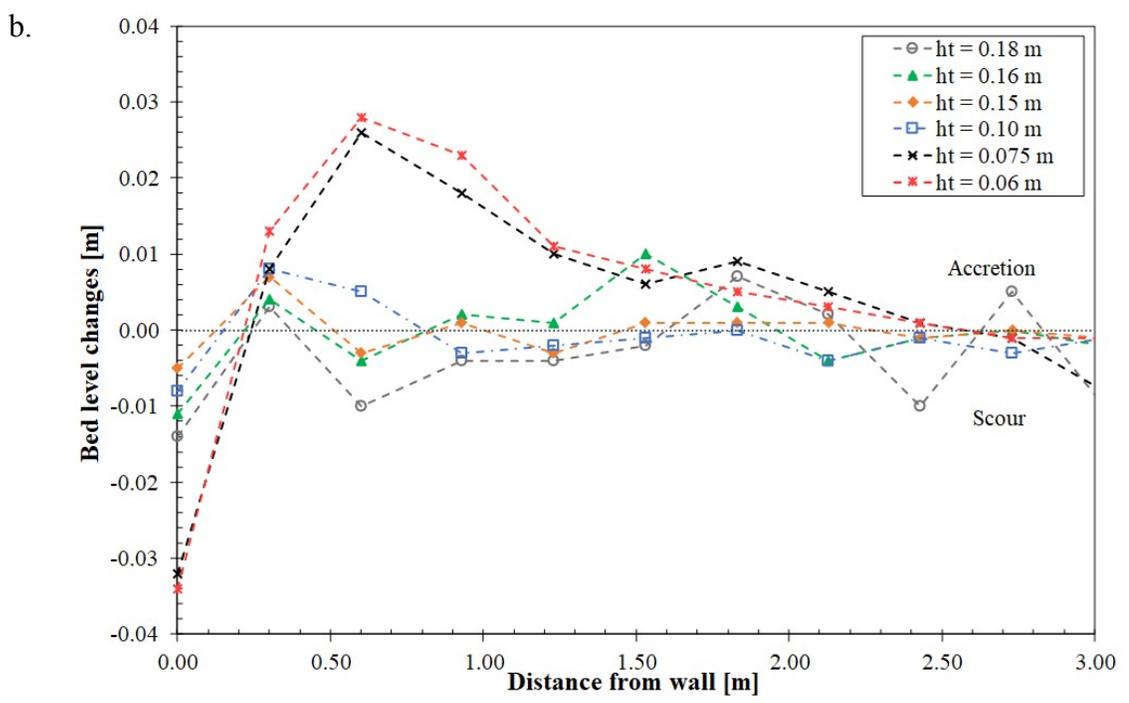
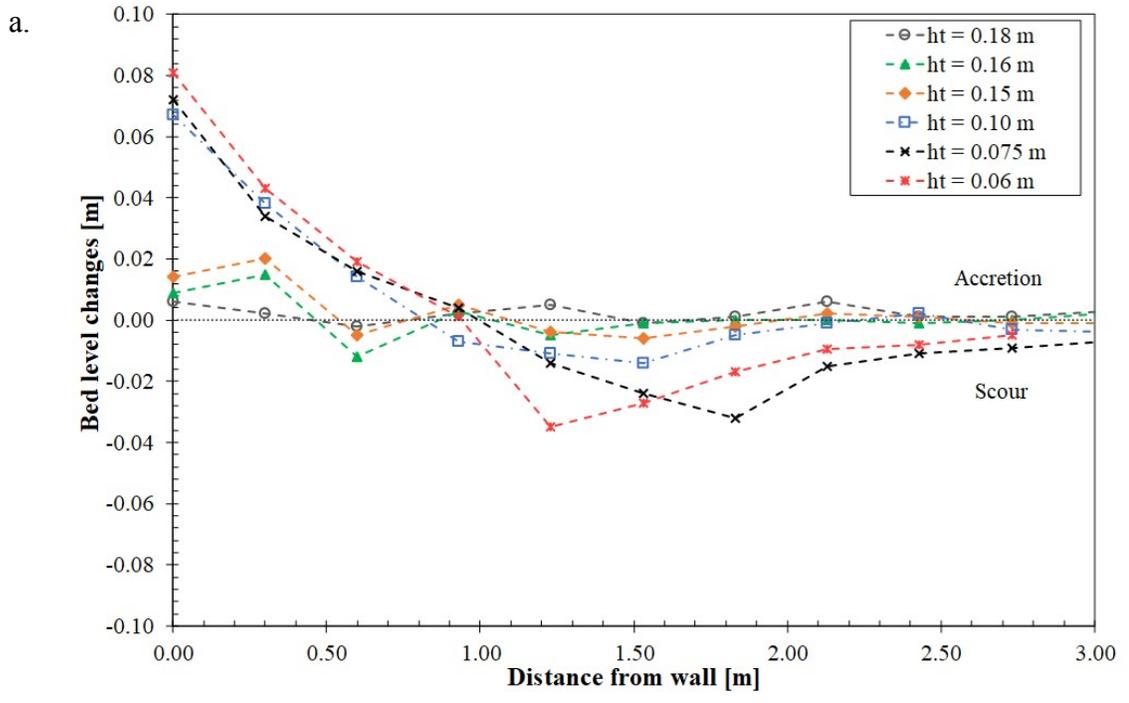
**Fig. 9.** Time development of maximum scour depth

414 *Bed level changes for a vertical wall with a shingle foreshore*

415 Fig. 10 shows the observed bed level changes (final – initial elevation of bed) after 1000 random  
 416 waves for both swell and storm sea state. In Fig 10, negative values of bed level changes represent  
 417 scour while positive values denote accretion. All the tests were performed with same initial bed  
 418 profile (1:20 uniform shingle bed) and same wave conditions but with different toe water depths  
 419 ( $h_t = 0.18$  m,  $h_t = 0.16$  m,  $h_t = 0.15$  m,  $h_t = 0.10$  m,  $h_t = 0.075$  m and  $h_t = 0.06$  m). It should be  
 420 noted that experiments with nominal wave steepness ( $s_{op}$ ) of 0.02 and 0.05 were designed to  
 421 replicate swell sea conditions and storm sea state respectively. The results of this study  
 422 demonstrate that for any given relative toe water depth, accretion at the toe of the structure was  
 423 reported for swell sea state whereas scouring was noted for wind sea state. This can be also related

424 with reality where accretion at the structure is mostly observed for swell sea state and scouring  
425 under storm sea conditions.

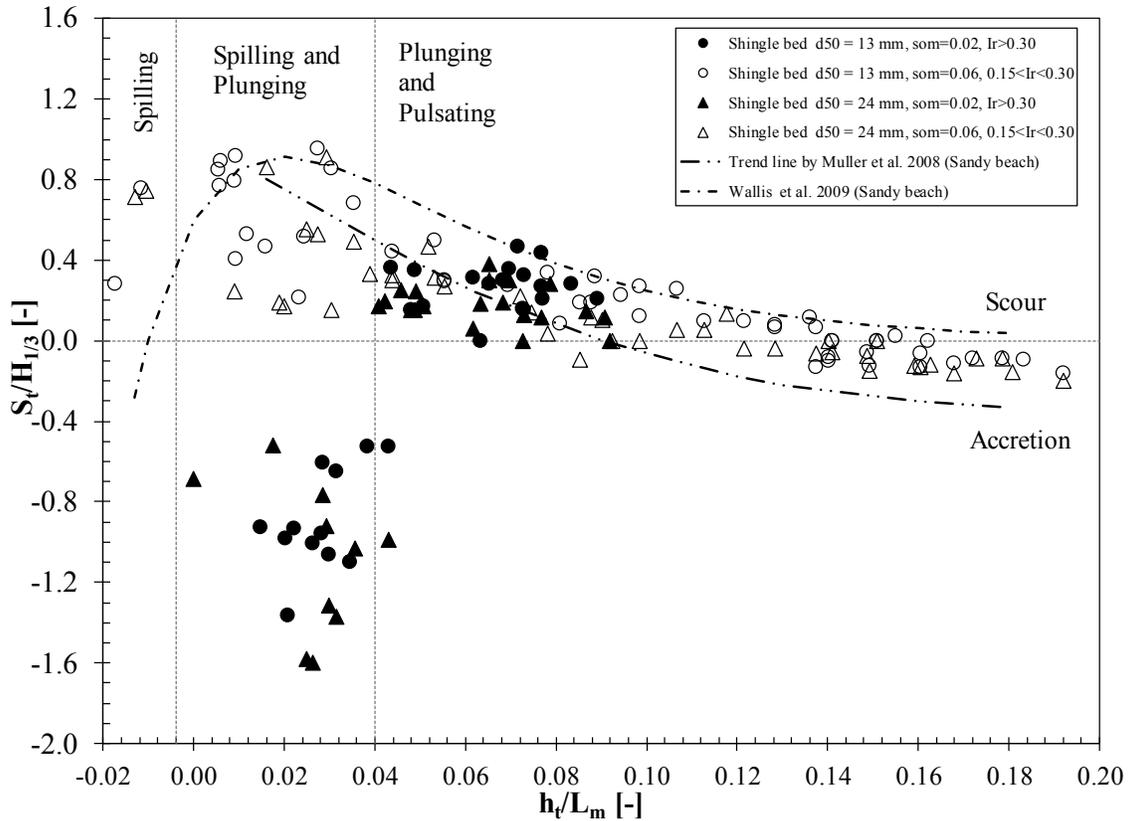
426 Furthermore, it can be also observed from Fig 10 that for any given wave conditions, the maximum  
427 accretion or scouring occurs for lowest toe water depth. For instance, all the tests in Fig. 10(a)  
428 were performed with a nominal wave steepness of 0.02 and with significant wave height ( $H_{m0}$ ) of  
429 0.085 m but with six different toe water depths. The test results showed that maximum accretion  
430 (0.081 m) at the structure occurred for lowest toe water depth of 0.06 m, see Fig. 10(a).



**Fig. 10.** Bed level changes after 1000 waves - a)  $s_{op} = 0.02$ ,  $H_{m0} = 0.085$  m b)  $s_{op} = 0.05$ ,  $H_{m0} = 0.12$  m

431 Relationship between scour depth and relative water depth

432 The non-dimensional toe scour depth ( $S_t/H_{1/3}$ ) at a plain vertical wall on shingle beds as a function  
433 of relative toe water depth is presented in Fig. 11. Negative values of non-dimensional toe scour  
434 depth represent the accretion at the structure.



**Fig. 11.** Variation of non-dimensional toe scour depth at a plain vertical wall with relative toe water depth

435 Based on experimental and field studies, Sutherland et al. (2006) and Müller et al. (2008)  
436 concluded that maximum toe scour depths at a plain vertical seawall on a sandy bed occurs under  
437 plunging wave impacts. Similar trends of the maximum toe scour depths were also observed within  
438 this study, as shown in Fig. 11. Within experimental limitations, the results show that the greatest  
439 toe scour depth (accretion or scouring) occurs for the spilling and plunging waves ( $0.005 \leq h_t/L_m$

440  $\leq 0.04$ ). For example, maximum accretion is observed around  $S_i/H_{1/3} = 1.60$  and maximum erosion  
441 is reported  $S_i/H_{1/3} = 0.95$  at relative toe water depth ( $h_t/L_m$ ) of about 0.025 under spilling and  
442 plunging conditions.

443 For plunging and pulsating breakers ( $h_t/L_m > 0.04$ ), the data points demonstrate that the overall  
444 non-dimensional toe scour depth continued to decrease, as the relative toe water depth increased.  
445 For relatively high-water depths ( $h_t/L_m > 0.10$ ), the results show accretion at the toe of the vertical  
446 wall on a shingle beach with similar features reported by Müller et al. (2008); Wallis et al. (2009)  
447 for a sandy beach. In general, the results demonstrate that the accretion at the toe of the structure  
448 occurred for waves with low wave steepness (long period), whereas scouring at the structure was  
449 observed for high wave steepness, subjected to spilling and plunging conditions.

#### 450 *Relationship between scour depth and Iribarren number*

451 The Iribarren number ( $I_r$ ) or surf similarity parameter is the combination of structure slope and  
452 wave steepness (see Equation 14), which describes wave breaking types.

$$453 \quad I_r = \frac{\tan\alpha}{\sqrt{\frac{H_{m0}}{L_{m-1,0}}}} \quad (14)$$

454 Where,  $\alpha$  is the slope of the structure,  $H_{m0}$  is the spectral significant wave height and  $L_{m-1,0}$  is the  
455 deep water wave length.

456 For the conditions tested within this study, the Iribarren number,  $I_r$  was varied from 0.15 to 0.40  
457 and categorised into two ranges as following:

- 458 •  $0.15 < I_r < 0.30$  and
- 459 •  $I_r > 0.30$

460 The data points in Fig. 11 show that for a certain relative toe water depth, the maximum toe scour  
461 depths occur for the larger Iribarren numbers. Similar characteristics were reported by Müller et  
462 al. (2008); Wallis et al. (2009) on sandy beaches.

## 463 **5. Implications for Design**

464 The preliminary design guidance for the estimation of mean overtopping discharges at a plain  
465 vertical wall under both impulsive and non-impulsive conditions presented in this paper is an  
466 extension to those reported in EurOtop (2016). The new overtopping manual EurOtop (2016)  
467 suggested Equation 1 for non-impulsive and Equation 2- 3 for impulsive wave conditions to predict  
468 average overtopping rate at vertical structures. Within experimental limitations, the results of this  
469 study demonstrate that for both impulsive and non-impulsive wave conditions the mean  
470 overtopping is reduced noticeably with the use of shingle beaches, when compared to an  
471 impermeable beach profile. For a permeable shingle 1:20 foreshore slope, the alternative formulae  
472 (Equation 10-13) can be applied to predict mean overtopping rate at a plain vertical wall under  
473 both impulsive and non-impulsive wave conditions. In the absence of any other information to the  
474 contrary, a conservative approach is recommended, i.e. an impermeable beach configuration, see  
475 prediction formulae (Equation 1-3) reported by EurOtop (2016).

476 Overall, the probability of overtopping waves at a plain vertical wall on shingle beds were slightly  
477 lower than the impermeable bed configuration. However, as observed in Fig 6c. and Fig. 7, it is  
478 noticeable from the present research that the maximum individual overtopping wave volumes  
479 measured for shingle foreshores do not differ from those measured for impermeable slopes. Due  
480 to stochastic nature of wave by wave overtopping, a conservative approach is recommended to

481 estimate the maximum individual overtopping volumes and proportion of overtopping waves, i.e.  
482 empirical predictions reported by EurOtop (2016) considering an impermeable beach profile.

483 Currently, there is no known design guidance to estimate the mean overtopping sediment rates at  
484 a plain vertical seawall, the initial step is to establish whether the waves at the toe of the seawall  
485 are likely to be broken wave conditions. For non-impulsive and impulsive waves with conditions  
486 in the range,  $(h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) > 0.03)$ , sediment within in the overtopping waves are less likely.  
487 Under impulsive conditions, in the range of  $h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) < 0.03$ , it is expected to have up to  
488 0.5% of sediment within the overtopping waves.

## 489 **6. Discussions**

490 The purpose of this small-scale laboratory study was to investigate the wave overtopping and  
491 scouring at a plain vertical wall on permeable shingle foreshores and to develop the design  
492 guidance that can be applied to predict processes at full-scale. It is however apparent that the  
493 outputs of small scale model tests could be perverted by scale and model effects.

494 In 2002, Pearson et. al. concluded that for battered seawalls (near vertical walls) scale and model  
495 effects in small scale physical tests are not significant when compared with large scale laboratory  
496 experiments for the estimation of mean and wave by wave overtopping volumes.

497 In order to keep the scale effects minimal, the laboratory test set up replicated the guidelines of  
498 typical small-scale investigations by EurOtop (2016), Powell (1990) and Wolters et al. (2009). To  
499 minimize model effects by mitigating reflection from model boundaries, an active wave reflection  
500 system was applied. Also, experiments were executed without the presence of the structure to  
501 calibrate the incident wave conditions. It is therefore believed that the design guidance of this small

502 scale physical study can be applied at prototype situations without having any significant scale and  
503 model effects, although further validation would clearly be desirable.

## 504 **7. Conclusions**

505 In this study, detailed measurements have been undertaken to parameterize the mean overtopping  
506 rate, mean sediment rate, individual overtopping volume, probability of overtopping and, scour  
507 depths on a plain vertical seawall, for both impermeable and mobile shingle beach configurations.  
508 Based on the test results of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

### 509 *Wave Overtopping*

- 510 ✓ Within experimental limitations, the resulting overtopping characteristics correspond to  
511 solid impermeable bed showed an overall good agreement with the predictive method of  
512 EurOtop (2016) under both impulsive and non-impulsive wave conditions.
- 513 ✓ For impulsive wave conditions tested within this study, it was observed that the mean  
514 overtopping rate is reduced by factor 3 and 4 for  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm and 24 mm respectively,  
515 when impermeable and shingle beaches are compared. For non-impulsive waves, the  
516 reduction factors were 1.5 for  $d_{50}$  of 13 mm and 2 for  $d_{50}$  of 24 mm.
- 517 ✓ For non-impulsive and impulsive waves with conditions in the range,  $(h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) >$   
518  $0.03)$ , no sediment was reported to pass the crest of the structure. Under impulsive  
519 conditions, in the range of  $h_t^2 / (H_{m0} L_{m-1,0}) < 0.03$ , the measured volume of sediment  
520 passing the crest of the seawall was around 0.5% of the total volume of the overtopped  
521 water.
- 522 ✓ In general, the maximum individual overtopping wave volumes measured for shingle  
523 foreshores did not differ from those measured for impermeable slopes.

524 ✓ The measured probability of overtopping waves at a plain vertical wall on a shingle bed  
525 were slightly lower than the impermeable bed configuration.

#### 526 *Toe scouring*

527 ✓ For the tested conditions, it was observed that the relative toe scour depth at a plain vertical  
528 wall on a shingle beach, is influenced by the relative toe water depth and Iribarren number.  
529 For relative toe water depths in the range  $0.016 \leq h_t/L_m \leq 0.18$ , similar characteristics  
530 were reported by Sutherland et al. (2006) on sandy beaches.

531 ✓ Maximum scour depths occurred for spilling and plunging waves ( $0.005 \leq h_t/L_m \leq 0.04$ ).  
532 Peak accretion was observed  $S_t/H_{1/3}=1.60$  and peak erosion was reported  $S_t/H_{1/3}=0.95$  at  
533 relative toe water depths ( $h_t/L_m$ ), around 0.025.

534 Prior to this study, limited design guidance was available to predict the mean overtopping  
535 discharges and mean sediment rates at vertical seawalls on permeable shingle foreshores.  
536 Therefore, a new set of prediction formulae (adapted from EurOtop, 2016) are proposed in this  
537 study, based on the new laboratory test results, and a comparison with the available prediction  
538 methods in literature for vertical walls on impermeable foreshores subjected to both impulsive and  
539 non-impulsive wave conditions.

#### 540 **Acknowledgements**

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547

Symbol	Meaning	Unit
a	Scale parameter in Weibull distribution	[-]
b	Shape parameter in Weibull distribution	[-]
$d_{50}$	Mean sediment size	[mm]
g	Gravitational acceleration	[m/s <sup>2</sup> ]
$h_b$	Water depth at breaking	[m]
$h_t$	Water depth at toe of the structure	[m]
$H_{m0}$	Significant wave height determined from spectra analysis	[m]
$H_s$	Significant wave height determined from time series analysis (=H <sub>1/3</sub> )	[m]
$I_r$	Iribarren number or breaker parameter	[-]
$L_m$	Mean wave length based on linear theory ( $gT_m^2/2\pi$ )	[m]
$L_{m-1,0}$	Spectral wave length based on linear theory ( $gT_{m-1,0}^2/2\pi$ )	[m]
$N_{ow}$	Number of overtopping waves	[-]
$N_w$	Number of incident waves	[-]
$P_{ow}$	Probability of overtopping per wave ( $N_{ow}/N_w$ )	[-]
P(V)	Probability of exceedance of overtopping volume	[-]
q	Mean overtopping discharge per m width	[m <sup>3</sup> /s per m]
$R_c$	Crest freeboard	[m]
$S_{max}$	Maximum scour depth	[m]
$S_t$	Toe scour depth	[m]
$S_{tmax}$	Maximum toe scour depth	[m]
$S_m$	Wave steepness based on average wave period ( $2\pi H_{m0}/gT_m^2$ )	[-]
$S_{m-1,0}$	Wave steepness based on mean spectral period ( $2\pi H_{m0}/gT_{m-1,0}^2$ )	[-]
$S_{op}$	Wave steepness for spectral peak period ( $2\pi H_{m0}/gT_p^2$ )	[-]
$T_m$	Average wave period calculated from time series analysis	[s]
$T_{m-1,0}$	Average spectral wave period defined from spectral analysis by $m-1/m_0$	[s]
$T_p$	Spectral peak wave period	[s]
V	Volume of overtopping wave per m width	[m <sup>3</sup> per m]
$V_{bar}$	Mean overtopping volume per m width	[m <sup>3</sup> per m]
$V_{max}$	Maximum individual overtopping volume per m width	[m <sup>3</sup> per m]
$\alpha$	Slope of the structure	[radians]
$\gamma$	Peak enhancement factor of JONSWAP energy spectrum	[-]
$\Gamma$	Mathematical gamma function	[-]

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