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Abstract: High rates of coastal retreat characterise the weakly cemented Plio-Pleistocene rocks and sediments which form much of the cliffed coastline of East Anglia, southern North Sea. The accurate establishment of sediment losses from these cliffs has a regional significance as these sediments are important in maintaining beaches and nearshore bank systems and in feeding nearshore sediment transport pathways. However, the high spatial and temporal variability of cliff failure processes in such materials necessitates fine-scale integration of alongshore variations in cliff retreat over a series of well-established time periods to accurately define cliffline recession rates and sediment volume inputs to the nearshore system. This study applied the DSAS (Digital Shoreline Analysis System) within the GIS software package ArcMap to digitised, georeferenced positions of former shorelines, obtained from historic maps and aerial photographs (after 1992), for the sections of Benacre-Southwold and Dunwich-Minsmere on the Suffolk coast of East Anglia, UK; transects were cast every 10 m alongshore, producing very high spatial resolution upon which to assess shoreline retreat (over 1000 transects along 11 km of shoreline). Long-term (1883-2008) mean shoreline retreat rates varied between 2.3-3.5 m a⁻¹ (Benacre-Southwold) and 0.9 m a⁻¹ (Dunwich-Minsmere). For six cliffed subunits within these larger coastal sections, spatial variations in cliffline recession rates for shorter time intervals (at ca. 20-year intervals) within this longer (125 year) period were established. The combination of recession rates with photogrammetric methods of obtaining cliff top elevation at the same spatial resolution, available using aerial photographs and digital terrain models, along with cliff sediment composition, allowed the calculation of sediment volumetric inputs from cliff retreat in the period 1992-2008. Re-assessment of the magnitude and location of sediment inputs into the nearshore zone, their interaction with regional sediment transport and the growth of inshore bank systems, as well as the implications for contemporary and near-future coastal management strategies are discussed with reference to this section of the Suffolk coast.

1 Temporal and spatial variations in recession rates and sediment release from soft rock cliffs,

2 Suffolk coast, UK

3

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11

12

13 **Abstract**

14

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16 sediments which form much of the cliffed coastline of East Anglia, southern North Sea. The

17 accurate establishment of sediment losses from these cliffs has a regional significance as these

18 sediments are important in maintaining beaches and nearshore bank systems and in feeding

19 nearshore sediment transport pathways. However, the high spatial and temporal variability of

20 cliff failure processes in such materials necessitates fine-scale integration of alongshore

21 variations in cliff retreat over a series of well-established time periods to accurately define

22 cliffline recession rates and sediment volume inputs to the nearshore system. This study

23 applied the DSAS (Digital Shoreline Analysis System) within the GIS software package

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30 Minsmere). For six cliffed subunits within these larger coastal sections, spatial variations in
31 cliffline recession rates for shorter time intervals (at ca. 20-year intervals) within this longer
32 (125 year) period were established. The combination of recession rates with photogrammetric
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41 Keywords: Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS), shoreline retreat, soft-rock cliffs, cliff
42 elevation, NextMap, sediment release, ArcMap, coastal management, Suffolk

43

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46

47 *'the rapid wearing back of the cliffs, especially at Covehithe, is a point of interest; and the*
48 *measurements now given will be of service to future observers'*

49

50

HW Bristow

51

Senior Director, Geological Survey Office

52

London, July 1887

53

54 Notice prefacing W. Whitaker's discussion of the 'waste of the coast' in the Memoir of the
55 Geological Survey on the geology of coastal Suffolk, UK east coast (Whitaker, 1887).

56

57

58 The coastal zone performs important ecological, economic and societal functions, attracting
59 settlements, industry and infrastructure and supporting natural habitats that provide valuable
60 ecological services. It is also highly sensitive to changes in environmental forcing factors
61 (Valiela, 2006). Sea level rise and the increasing frequency and magnitude of extreme weather
62 events, consequent upon global environmental change, are likely to lead to more damaging
63 rain and windstorm events, higher rainfall totals and greater wave energy and thus to
64 accelerated erosion of beaches and coastal margins (Thorne et al., 2007). Such changes have
65 profound implications for human communities whose resource base is at, or close to, the
66 present coastline, raising problems that are likely to increase in importance as the global
67 coastal population grows from 1.2 billion (1990) to 1.8-5.2 billion by the 2080s (Nicholls et
68 al., 2007). Fast eroding, and thus retreating, soft cliff coasts are one coastal environment
69 particularly vulnerable to environmental change and provide an environmental setting that
70 raises serious issues as to appropriate management responses and coastal zone governance in
71 the face of rapid coastline recession (Nicholson-Cole and O’Riordan, 2009).

72

73 Lateral retreat rates of coastal cliffs within the British Isles vary with rock type, ranging from
74 less than 0.001 m a^{-1} in the most resistant rocks, through $0.01\text{-}1.0 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in less resistant chalks
75 and sandstones, to over 10 m a^{-1} for easily eroded glacial tills (French, 2001). Some of the
76 highest rates of cliff recession have been reported from the weakly cemented rocks and
77 sediments of Pliocene and Pleistocene age which form much of the coastline of East Anglia,
78 southern North Sea (HRWallingford, 2002) (Fig. 1). Accounts of lost towns and churches on
79 this coast are ‘partly fabulous but partly true’ (Whitaker, 1907, 98) while ‘exaggerated figures
80 [of coastal land loss] are often quoted without authority, and it is a pity that so few precise
81 measurements are available’ (Steers, 1964, 385). Nevertheless, in 1907, the Director of the
82 national mapping agency of the UK, the Ordnance Survey, used map evidence to argue before
83 the Royal Commission on Coastal Erosion that Suffolk had the greatest loss of coastline of
84 any county in England. Land loss of 148.5 ha took place between 1883 and 1903, with ca.

85 70% of this loss being in the vicinity of Southwold and Dunwich (Hellard, 1907, 46).
86 Furthermore, the accurate establishment of sediment losses from these rapidly eroding cliffs
87 has a regional significance that reaches well beyond this local loss of land. Particularly where
88 the sediment input is predominantly of sand – as is the case of the Suffolk cliffs (James and
89 Lewis, 1996) – cliff erosion both directly nourishes cliff-foot beaches and is implicated in
90 sediment exchanges with the extensive systems of energy-dissipating nearshore sandbanks
91 which lie immediately offshore. Thus the accurate measurement of cliff recession rates is of
92 considerable importance at the regional scale (McCave, 1978; Vincent, 1979).

93

94 Many of the estimates of point-source sediment inputs from the cliff systems of the UK
95 coastline of the southern North Sea and which remain widely-quoted in more recent reports
96 (e.g. Southern North Sea Sediment Transport Study (HRWallingford, 2002)) were developed
97 at a time when heavy reliance was placed upon the use of historic maps, sparse spot heights
98 and interpolated contours for the derivation of sediment release statistics. In spite of
99 subsequent developments in i) the provision of remotely sensed datasets; ii) the adoption, with
100 the establishment of the UK National Rivers Authority / Environment Agency (EA), of
101 standardized field and aerial photographic monitoring; and iii) the availability of analytical
102 GIS platforms, these estimates from the 1970s and 1980s still largely form the basis for the
103 discussion of sediment dynamics around the East Anglian coastline and underpin much of
104 contemporary coastal management decision making. Since 1992, the EA (Anglian Region)
105 has monitored biennial (winter and summer) cliff and beach profile change at 1 km intervals
106 between the Humber and Thames estuaries. Results from these ground surveys provide useful
107 ground control on interpretations of coastal retreat obtained from aerial photography. They
108 have the disadvantage, however, of being widely-spaced at ca. 1 km intervals alongshore.
109 This is a major difficulty in soft rock cliff systems which, as has long been known (e.g. see
110 the evidence of Cooper, 1907; Whitaker, 1907; and Reid, 1907 to the UK Royal Commission
111 on Coastal Erosion), exhibit considerable variability in erosion processes and retreat rates
112 over a range of spatial (<1 km to >10 km) and temporal (<10 to >50 a) scales (e.g. Cambers,

113 1976; Pethick, 1996). This is because cliff recession involves both i) toe erosion by marine
114 action which removes failure deposits allowing undercutting and steepening of the cliff base
115 and ii) a range of mass movement processes, including rotational failures, slumps and
116 spalling. There are often strong spatial variations in materials (both alongshore between sites
117 and vertically within individual cliff profiles) in soft rock cliffs, temporal changes in pore
118 water pressure, and seasonal and non-seasonal variations in basal conditions (including the
119 impact of rare elevated water levels under storm surge conditions), as well as longer-term
120 controls, including shifts in dominant weather patterns and changes in the rate of relative sea
121 level rise. These controls interact in complex ways to influence the patterning of erosion and
122 cliff retreat (e.g. Richards and Lorriman, 1987; Jones et al., 1993).

123

124 Furthermore, as cliffs retreat they expose new cliff stratigraphies, change cliff elevations and
125 establish new relations between the cliff face and the fronting beach. These changes also
126 result in changes in alongshore extent. Over decadal time periods, clifflines can emerge
127 (“switch on”) and disappear (“switch off”) entirely, with implications for sediment sources to
128 the beach and nearshore zone. Hence sediment volume inputs exhibit high spatio-temporal
129 variability in both quantity and location, thus ensuring that volumetric estimates need regular
130 and detailed updating. Any attempt to fully characterise soft cliff behaviour and associated
131 sediment budgets must properly identify and assess this spatio-temporal variability. At the
132 meso-scale, the problem can be resolved by establishing well-constrained dates for the
133 position of former clifflines and then sampling at a fine spatial interval alongshore. Such a
134 methodology effectively integrates the smaller-scale alongshore variability in basal and cliff
135 face processes, and their interaction with local sediment properties, between time markers of
136 known date. However a methodology needs to be developed that allows rapid updating of
137 sediment volume inputs at a high spatio-temporal density.

138

139 Fig. 1 about here

140

141 The primary aim of this paper is to show how modern analytical techniques can be used to
142 derive improved and detailed quantification of the sediment volumes currently being released
143 from a soft rock cliff system. The issue of including a high degree of spatio-temporal
144 variability in cliff retreat can be addressed using the United States Geological Survey's
145 Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS; Thieler et al., 2005) which has been applied in
146 different locations to assess historic shoreline retreat. The methodology is described in more
147 detail below; it should be noted that it has not been used previously in assessment of sediment
148 volumes from rapidly retreating cliffs. In order to provide such an assessment, detailed cliff
149 elevation data are also required. Since 2002 'NextMap' elevation data have been available for
150 the UK at a spatial resolution of 5 m, with elevation detail accurate to within 1 m (see below
151 for further discussion). The ArcMap Surface Spot tool can be used to extract linear elevation
152 data alongshore for any digitised shoreline position, and a combination of retreat rate and
153 elevation can then be used to provide assessment of volumetric change in the retreating cliffs.
154 Hence the combination of DSAS for accurate inclusion of the variable planform of the
155 retreating shoreline, with NextMap elevation data enables detailed assessment of sediment
156 volume inputs which can be readily and rapidly updated. This paper thus develops and applies
157 a new methodology for the rapid and detailed estimation of sediment inputs. It does so with
158 reference to two closely adjacent parts of the Suffolk coast which have been seen as two of
159 the three major sources of sediment input along the East Anglian coastline (the other being the
160 North Norfolk cliffs). The first area of interest is an 8 km long, southwesterly-trending
161 shoreline between the settlements of Kessingland and Southwold and centred near the village
162 of Covehithe. Further south, separated by the estuary of the River Blyth, the second area runs
163 approximately north – south for 3km between the remains of the medieval town of Dunwich
164 and the lagoons of the Minsmere Nature Reserve (Fig. 1). These two areas were chosen for
165 detailed study for four reasons. Firstly, a wide range of data sources, ranging from archival
166 material to contemporary modelling of nearshore processes, is available for this coast to
167 inform the nature of soft cliff erosional dynamics. General rates of shoreline change have
168 been established for the period since the sixteenth century, with more detailed measurements

169 at particular cliffed sections, often associated with pioneering geological studies, from the
170 mid-nineteenth century. Thus at Dunwich, Carr (1979) showed that the long-term pattern of
171 shoreline recession, at 0.68-0.96 m a⁻¹, has incorporated phases of both accelerated coastal
172 retreat (e.g. 1753-1772: 3.48 m a⁻¹; 1863-1880 2.57 m a⁻¹ 1903-1919: 3.53 m a⁻¹) and periods
173 of shoreline stasis (e.g. 1826-1823: 0.06 m a⁻¹; 1882/3-1903: 0.08 m a⁻¹). It is, however,
174 difficult to see a clear pattern of change over space and time along this coast where erosion
175 can be severe but intermittent (Halcrow, 2002). Secondly, because the cliffs most probably
176 fail by a more-or-less instantaneous failure response to removal of beach or basal cliff
177 material (Lee and Clark, 2002), this coastline is characterised by phases of extremely high
178 rates of shoreline recession (as detailed by the Futurecoast (Halcrow, 2002) analysis of the
179 Shoreline Behaviour Unit between Lowestoft and the Blyth estuary). These erosion rates have
180 given cause for serious public concern, as detailed in the 2010 draft Shoreline Management
181 Plan for this region (Suffolk Coastal District Council, 2010). Thirdly, one of the difficulties in
182 assessing soft rock cliff dynamics on the East Anglian coastline is that the majority of the cliff
183 sections have been modified by human activities, either directly through cliff face stabilisation
184 programmes or, and more frequently, indirectly by the alteration of beach volume changes
185 through the construction of shore-parallel seawalls and revetments and/or the emplacement of
186 shore-normal groyne fields (e.g. Clayton, 1989). The cliffs on this coast have not been subject
187 to such interventions (except for very recently (post-2002) at Easton Bavents and, in a more
188 limited fashion, near the village of Dunwich) and thus provide a clear picture of natural
189 fluctuations in cliff retreat rates over time. Fourthly, the Covehithe- Eastern Bavents and
190 Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs have traditionally been identified as one of the major source areas
191 for sediment input into the regional sediment circulation system; thus the correct specification
192 of sediment inputs at these locations is not just of local interest but of regional significance
193 and importance. These inputs have a key role to play in decisions on coastal policy options in
194 this area, as laid out in Shoreline Management Plans (Suffolk Coastal District Council, 2010)
195 and Coastal Habitat Management Plans (Guthrie and Cottle, 2002). Overall, therefore, this
196 coast offers a demonstration site for emerging research methodologies concerned with the

197 interactions between sea level rise; sediment supply and transport; and different types of
198 management intervention (Hanson et al., 2007).

199

200

201 **2. Location**

202

203 The solid geology of coastal East Anglia consists of basin marginal, largely marine Pliocene
204 and Early to Middle Pleistocene strata (shallowing sequence of Crag Group and associated
205 deposits) resting on an eroded Palaeogene and Cretaceous basement (Hamblin et al., 1997;
206 Gibbard and Zalasiewicz, 1988; Gibbard et al., 1998). Calcarenites (Coralline Crag, late
207 Early – Middle Pliocene), which lie offshore in the study region (Balson et al., 1993), and
208 iron-stained, coarse-grained shelly sands (Red Crag, latest Pliocene-early Pleistocene),
209 present below -5 m O.D.N. (Ordnance Datum Newlyn, which approximates to mean sea level)
210 in boreholes between Aldeburgh and Orford (Zalasiewicz et al., 1988), are unconformably
211 overlain by the sands and clays of the Norwich Crag Formation. Importantly, differences in
212 Plio-Pleistocene stratigraphy alongshore are reflected in the likely proportion of different
213 sediment types input into the nearshore zone as a result of cliff retreat (Table 1). In addition,
214 the configuration and character of the deposits is likely to exert a strong control on cliff
215 hydrology and failure mechanisms (as discussed by Gray (1988) to the south of this study
216 region, at the Naze cliffs, Essex), particularly where the cliff base coincides with a transition
217 from silty clay to sands and gravels. At Easton Cliffs, the Crag deposits include an overlying
218 pale grey silty clay stratum with laminae of fine-grained sand, burrowed by worms, small
219 Crustacea and bivalves, indicative of an intertidal mudflat environment (West et al., 1980;
220 Mottram, 1989). Whereas the underlying Crag arenite is thought to represent the warm Antian
221 Stage (Tiglian C1-3 warm stage, Marine Isotope Stage 77 (Gibbard et al., 2007a)), the
222 overlying clays have been correlated with the cold stage Baventian / pre-Pastonian (Tiglian
223 C4c cold stage, Marine Isotope Stage 70 (Gibbard et al., 2007a)) of the pre-glacial Early
224 Pleistocene (Funnell and West, 1962; Zalasiewicz et al., 1988). Crag is also exposed at Easton

225 Wood (Mottram, 1989) and at the southern end of the Covehithe cliffs (Long, 1974); here
226 overlying clays dip northwards for ca. 1000 m and are in turn overlain by sand and gravel
227 deposits of the Westleton Beds, with thin, laminated tidal silts (West, 1980). Representative
228 images from each of the main study locations are shown in Fig. 2.

229

230 Fig 2 about here

231

232 The clay/sand and gravel contact rises to ca. +5.0 m O.D.N. in the northern Covehithe cliffs.
233 Here, and at Easton Cliffs, the overlying deposits include gravel lenses assigned to the
234 Westleton Beds Member by Hey (1967). At Covehithe, these deposits are thought to represent
235 gravel-lined nearshore rip channels cut into beachface sands (Mathers and Zalasiewicz, 1996)
236 whereas further south, at Dunwich and at Minsmere, larger-scale gravel channel fills are
237 regarded as marking the position of tidal inlets between barrier islands (Mottram, 1997). The
238 Westleton Bed gravels are overlain at Covehithe by thin, iron-stained sand and the quartz and
239 quartzite-rich gravels of the Kesgrave Formation (Hey, 1967). These gravels are in turn
240 followed in the cliff face by the Corton Sands, sands with chalk grains and occasional
241 concretions, representing the glacial outwash from the Middle Pleistocene Anglian Glaciation
242 (Ehlers and Gibbard, 1991; Lee et al., 2006; Gibbard et al., 2007b), and finally, below the
243 topsoil, by the decalcified Lowestoft Formation (Anglian) till (Marine Isotope Stage 12,
244 Gibbard et al., 2007b)) which is also present at Dunwich-Minsmere (Mottram, 1989).

245

246 Sea level reached close to its present level at ca. 4 ka BP but then oscillated in the period up to
247 the seventeenth century when it again approached its current position (Carr, 1969). The trend
248 of regional sea level rise over the period 1956-2006, as recorded at the Lowestoft tidegauge,
249 has been 2.47 ± 0.23 to 2.57 ± 0.33 mm a⁻¹, depending on the method of analysis used (Shennan
250 and Horton, 2002; Woodworth et al., 2009). Halcrow (1991), combining geological
251 subsidence with a rate of sea level rise based on a medium emissions scenario, suggest a rate
252 of relative sea level rise of 5-6 mm a⁻¹ in the near-future.

253

254 The regional tidal regime is semi-diurnal in character, with a mean spring tidal range at
255 Lowestoft of 1.9m; the clifflines within the study area experience a slightly higher mean
256 spring tidal range. However, on this part of the East Anglian coastline water levels associated
257 with storm surges (e.g. Pugh, 1987; HRWallingford, 2002) can exceed the tidal range. Thus,
258 for example, whilst Highest Astronomical Tide has been established at 1.4 m O.D.N. at
259 Lowestoft, the surges of 31 January-1 February 1953 and 9 November 2007 reached 4.6 m
260 and 4.1 m O.D.N. respectively at this location (Muir-Wood et al., 2005; Horsbaugh et al.,
261 2008). Surge impacts on cliff recession rates are considered in more detail below. Storms
262 causing significant land loss at Dunwich were recorded in AD 1286, 1328, 1347, 1560, 1570
263 and 1740 (Bacon and Bacon, 1988).

264

265 In general, wave energy is low to moderate, with annual average wave heights ranging from
266 0.4 to 0.5 m (Fortnum and Hardcastle, 1979). The largest (> 2.2 m high) waves come from the
267 northeast, reflecting the extended fetch in this direction (Pye and Blott, 2006; Marine
268 Aggregate Levy Sustainability Fund, 2009).

269

270 Fig. 3 about here

271

272 The 8 km long shoreline between Benacre Ness and the town of Southwold comprises five
273 cliffed sub-units, each up to 1 km in length. From north to south these are: Benacre,
274 Covehithe, Easton Wood, Northend Warren and Easton Cliffs (Fig. 3A), reaching elevations
275 of 9 m, 15 m, 12 m, 9 m and 14 m O.D.N. respectively. The cliffed sections are separated by
276 near-sea level valley bottom lagoons, or Broads. From north to south, these are Benacre
277 Broad, Covehithe Broad and Easton Broad (northern and southern limbs). The Broads contain
278 open water and marginal freshwater marshes and are separated from the backshore by narrow
279 ridges of gravel and coarse sand. These ridges are vulnerable to breaching and saltwater
280 flooding under storm surge conditions (Whitaker, 1907; Steers, 1953; Pye and Blott, 2009).

281 The 3 km long Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs, which form a sixth cliffed subunit (Fig. 3B), rise
282 steeply at both their northern and southern margin to attain elevations of up to 17 m O.D.N..
283

284 The mesotidal range and the availability of gravel-sized sediments, most probably relict
285 (Halcrow, 2002) gives rise to narrow, steep cliff-fronting beaches which show considerable
286 seasonal fluctuations in elevation and width. Using the EA shore profile record, Lee (2008)
287 has shown that the ‘beach wedge’ area that fronts cliffs in this area varies between 5 m² (when
288 the underlying geological basement of Baventian clay is revealed) and 50 m² in extent. He has
289 argued that this wedge exerts a strong control on cliff recession rate. To the north of the study
290 area, near Kessingland, the coastline is characterised by a series of sand and shingle ridges
291 which form the low coastal protuberance of Benacre Ness. These ridges front an old, low
292 cliffline which is being re-activated with the northerly migration of the Ness at an average
293 (1766-1992) rate of ca. 23 m a⁻¹. Considerable fluctuations in beach volumes have also been
294 reported at Dunwich, although with a general maintenance of beach widths of ca. 45 m and
295 gradients of 6-7 °, partly as a result of human interventions (Pontee, 2005).

296

297 Contrasts in offshore water depths between the two locations are potentially significant for
298 wave energy levels at the shoreline. At Benacre, water depths typically increase to 10 m at
299 around 1.5 km offshore. However, offshore from the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs water depths
300 only attain 10 m at 3 km offshore and the immediate nearshore region is occupied by the
301 Sizewell - Dunwich Bank (Pye and Blott, 2009). Hence subtidal gradients are greater in the
302 region of Benacre to Southwold compared to the offshore profile to the south. In the Benacre
303 – Southwold section, shoreline protection from predominant north easterly waves is, however,
304 gained by a change in coastline orientation to a more north – south alignment and by the
305 presence of the southernmost extent of the Lowestoft Bank system (Carr, 1981; Reeve and
306 Fleming, 1997; Horillo-Caraballo and Reeve, 2008). However, it should be noted that both
307 the Lowestoft Bank system in the north of the study region, and the Dunwich – Sizewell bank
308 system in the south, are continuously shifting in extent, height and overall volume, with

309 much-debated consequences for the wave climate at the shore (e.g. Fortnum and Hardcastle,
310 1979; Robinson, 1980; Pye and Blott, 2006).

311

312 **3. Methods**

313

314 The analytical approach employed in this study comprised a two stage process: firstly, the
315 obtaining of reliable estimates of historic shoreline change for different time periods over the
316 past 125 years and, secondly, using the recession of the cliff top edge and associated
317 variations in cliff top elevations in this area to calculate the volume of sediment released from
318 the cliffs over the most recent time periods. Reconstructions of coastal recession on the
319 Suffolk coast of East Anglia have been established since the sixteenth century, particularly
320 through the use of the surveys of Radulphus Agas and Thomas Gardner in 1585 and 1754
321 respectively (Robinson, 1980; Chant, 1986; Pye and Blott, 2009). However, the analysis
322 reported here is restricted to the period from the appearance in the 1840s of the six-inch
323 survey by the Ordnance Survey (OS), the UK national mapping agency (for history see
324 Seymour, 1980). After this time error terms in the fixing of shoreline positions can be more
325 confidently determined (Carr, 1962; Oliver, 1996).

326

327 **3.1. Determination of shoreline retreat rates and areal land loss**

328

329 *3.1.1. Determining alongshore shoreline change, 1883-2008*

330

331 The errors and issues relating to digitising shorelines from historic maps and aerial
332 photographs have been outlined by Moore (2000). The main technical challenge is to define a
333 consistent, time-independent boundary for the shoreline. Many studies comparing shorelines
334 of different age have used the mapped position of mean high water springs (MHWS). Such an
335 approach is, however, problematic as with long historical studies the definition and location
336 of high water changes over time. Fortunately, the positions of clifftop and cliff base are also

337 marked on historic maps. The cliff top or cliff base provides a more consistent marker of the
338 shoreline as they result from field surveys that are neither time-constrained by tidal variation
339 (often the case when mapping high and, especially, low water position) nor are they open to
340 some degree of subjectivity in defining exactly where MHWS is located (Harley, 1972;
341 Oliver, 1996). For many cliffed coastlines, MHWS and the cliff base are coincident and one
342 approach to defining shoreline position takes a combination of MHWS (where there is no
343 cliffline) and cliff base (Cammers, 1975). This approach was also taken here in an initial
344 assessment which looked at the continuous record of alongshore change, between 1883 and
345 2008, encompassing both the cliffed sections and the Broads between them as shown in Figs
346 3A and 3B.

347

348 Historic OS maps surveyed in 1882 - 1883 (plotted as 1883), 1903, 1921 – 1928 (plotted as
349 1925), 1947 (1941 at Dunwich – Minsmere), and 1981 (1974 at Easton Cliffs), and published
350 at a scale of 1:10 560 (available digitally at www.edina.ac.uk/digimap/), were selected for the
351 initial analysis of shoreline change over time. Analyses of this kind can suffer from the delay
352 between field survey dates and the publication dates of particular Ordnance Survey map
353 editions and it is not always clear from the published maps when surveys were undertaken.
354 For this research, the authors have been fortunate in having access to the collections of a legal
355 deposit library, the Map Library of the University of Cambridge, which holds not only
356 published map sources but also copies of provisional, unpublished maps from the Ordnance
357 Survey. By comparing both published and unpublished maps sources it has been possible to
358 better define map survey dates along the Suffolk coast.

359

360 These maps were then supplemented with information on shoreline position (MHWS / base of
361 cliffs) from vertical aerial photographs taken as part of the UK Environment Agency (EA)
362 (Anglian Region) Sea Defence Management Study (SDMS) monitoring programme; eight 1 x
363 1 km photographs covered the coastline between Benacre and Southwold and three 1 x 1 km
364 photographs covered the cliffs between Dunwich and Minsmere. Photographs from the years

365 1992 and 2008 were used in this analysis, thus extending the map-based analysis beyond
366 1981. These were supplied in a georeferenced format via the Shoreline Management Group of
367 the EA (Anglian Region).

368

369 Initially all maps and aerial photographs were individually registered against the 2008
370 Environment Agency aerial photograph, using the software package ArcMap 9.2
371 (www.esri.com), using the British National Grid (OSGB36) co-ordinate system. This initial
372 registration was based upon six ground control points located at road junctions, field
373 boundaries and buildings that have been evident on all maps and photographs since 1883.
374 Each feature was selected on the basis of it being likely to have remained stable since the
375 earliest surveys and having close proximity to the coast. This georeferencing generated a
376 RMSE below 10 in every case. Further independent error estimates were then carried out for
377 every map and aerial photograph used in this study by measuring distances between seven
378 additional ground control points (including St Andrews Church, Covehithe; Porter's Farm,
379 Covehithe Broad; Greyfriars Monastery, Dunwich; and Coastguard Cottages, Minsmere), on
380 every map and photograph used in the study and the same features on the 2008 aerial
381 photograph. For the 1883 map the average distance of the seven points from the locations on
382 the 2008 aerial photograph was 6.46 m. Assuming a rate of shoreline retreat of 3 m a^{-1} , the
383 error compared to the retreat over the period 1883-2008 is 1.7%. The average difference for
384 the seven control points for the 1905, 1928, 1957, 1983, 1992 and 2001 sources (maps and
385 aerial photographs) are 9.01 m, 8.70 m, 4.5 m, 2.0 m, <1 m and <1 m respectively. These
386 differences generate an error relative to total retreat over the respective period of 2.88%
387 (1903-2008), 3.24% (1925-2008), 1.20% (1947-2008), 3.57% (1981-2008), 2.08% (1992-
388 2008) and <4.76% (2001-2008). Pye and Blott (2006) estimated that the errors associated
389 with georeferencing maps over similar time periods for the coast around Dunwich-Minsmere,
390 based upon similar criteria for the ground control points, to be within $\pm 4 \text{ m}$, while Vincent
391 (1979) estimated the accuracy to which coastal cliff retreat might be measured from historic
392 maps to be in general within 5% of the true value. The figures generated here are broadly

393 consistent and suggest shoreline change can be estimated to an accuracy ranging between 1 -
394 5%, even using a relatively conservative rate of shoreline change.

395

396 Shorelines were then digitised from each map and aerial photograph. Where possible the cliff
397 base was used as an unambiguous marker of shoreline position and a surrogate for mean high
398 water springs (MHWS). In between the cliffed sections digitising was problematic due to the
399 effects of changing definitions of the high water position on historic maps as well as changes
400 in datum. For example the earliest maps define high water position as the High Water Mark of
401 Ordinary Spring tides, and this persists until publication of the 1983 OS map where Mean
402 High Water is used. For each map the lines marking mean high water (either ordinary or mean
403 tides) was employed. This will generate some inconsistencies in the shoreline position
404 between the cliffed sections. Beach gradients were found for all Environment Agency bi-
405 annual profiles from 1992–2008. Given the current vertical difference between Highest
406 Astronomical Tide and Lowest Astronomical Tide is around 0.3 m in the study region, these
407 gradients produced a mean a horizontal distance between the HAT and LAT of 3.45 m with a
408 standard deviation of 0.54 m. Compared with an overall retreat of around 400 m since 1883,
409 any possible discrepancy arising from these different definitions of shoreline position is
410 around 0.86 (± 0.27) %.

411

412 The digitised shorelines were analysed in conjunction with the ArcMap extension DSAS
413 Version 3.0 (Digital Shoreline Analysis System) (Thieler et al., 2005) to investigate shoreline
414 change in detail over the past 125 years. This software has formed the basis for a series of
415 United States Geological Survey Open File reports on a national assessment of shoreline
416 change around the coastline of the U.S.A., spanning the period from the 1880s to present and
417 generally utilising four historical shorelines. Other DSAS applications relate to different time
418 periods and locations. For example, a comprehensive historic assessment was carried out for
419 the coastline around Accra, Ghana between 1904 and 2002 where shoreline change rates were
420 found to be on average $1.13 \pm 0.17 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ (Addo et al., 2008). This study also considered the

421 future response of the shoreline to continued retreat. Limber et al. (2007) used DSAS to
422 compare the wet/dry line on aerial photographs with the Mean High Water line as a test of
423 robustness of different markers of shoreline position. In the U.K., DSAS has been used to
424 investigate historic coastline change since 1884 for the coastline between the Ribble and
425 Mersey Estuaries for a range of coastal habitats (Esteves et al., 2009). No previous
426 application, however, has used DSAS as a platform for considering sediment sources into the
427 nearshore zone.

428

429 DSAS is a powerful extension to ArcMap that enables considerable spatio-temporal
430 densification of the analysis of shoreline change. It works by casting shore-normal transects
431 from a baseline located a short distance inland from the most recent shoreline of interest and
432 then calculating the intersection of each shoreline with each transect. In this case, a 10 m
433 interval between each transect was selected, providing a total of 800 transects over the 8 km
434 stretch of coastline from Benacre Ness to Southwold, and 300 transects for the Dunwich –
435 Minsmere cliffs. The simplest reportage of shoreline change using this methodology is
436 through the End Point Rate (EPR), the difference in position between the oldest and youngest
437 shorelines divided by the time elapsed between surveys. In addition, DSAS calculates the
438 linear regression rate (LRR) of change by fitting a least squares regression, using all points
439 where each shoreline intersects each transect. The LRR has the advantage of using all
440 available shorelines and provides a statistically robust analysis but the method is prone to
441 outlier effects (Dolan et al., 1991). For this reason, this analysis used the EPR methodology
442 only.

443

444 *3.1.2. Establishing coastal recession of the cliffed subunits of the Suffolk coast, 1883-2008*

445

446 It is clear from cases where independent mapping and observation has been undertaken, that
447 there can be both locational and chronological differences in the field position of MHWS
448 from that shown on published maps (Oliver, 1996). The line of MHWS is also difficult to

449 identify, and thus fix accurately, on aerial photographs. Where cliffs are present, however, a
450 sharp and consistent line that can be clearly identified on historic maps, and one which is
451 easily visible on recent aerial photographs, is the cliff top edge position. This line was chosen
452 for a more detailed study of the cliffed subunits of the Suffolk coastline. Furthermore, whilst
453 the use of this metric is problematic in cliff systems which are characterised by long erosion
454 cycles, as material is conveyed from upper cliff rotational failures to the cliff toe (as discussed
455 by Bray and Hooke, 1997), the Suffolk cliffs appear to have short erosion cycles (Lee and
456 Clarke, 2002) and thus lagged and/or prolonged cliff line response times were not an issue in
457 this analysis.

458

459 A second level of analysis, establishing shoreline change in up to six time intervals within the
460 entire time period (1883-2008), was restricted to the six cliffed subunits, utilising only those
461 DSAS transects which covered the cliffed sections of the coastline (see Fig. 3 for northern and
462 southern limits of the spatial analysis window for each of the cliffed subunits). The analysis
463 was also restricted to the time periods during which an identifiable cliffline was present. For
464 some subunits (e.g. Covehithe) a cliffline was present throughout the entire time period
465 (1883-2008); for some subunits a cliffline was formed only as the shoreline retreated into
466 higher ground (a cliffline was present on the 1903 map at Northend Warren but not on the
467 1883 map); and at some locations, the cliffline only became present in the very recent past
468 (e.g. seen on aerial photographs at Benacre after 1981). Mean rates of cliff face retreat
469 recorded for the seven EA transects between Benacre Ness (SWD2) and Southwold (SWD8)
470 and the three transects (S1C6, S1C7 and S1B1) along the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs (Fig. 1)
471 for the periods 1992-2008, 1992-2001 and 2001-2008 were used as independent checks on the
472 mean retreat rates of cliff top edge position established from aerial photographs over the same
473 time intervals.

474

475

476 **3.2. Determination of cliff volumetric loss rates**

477

478 *3.2.1. Procedures and error estimates*

479

480 To assess accurately cliff volume change generated by shoreline recession, detailed
481 information concerning ground elevation must be combined with the data on cliff retreat rates.
482 Unfortunately, historical maps provide only limited information concerning height, in the
483 form of relatively sparse individual spot heights and interpolated contour lines between them.
484 In February 2002, the study area was flown using airborne IFSAR (Interferometric Synthetic
485 Aperture Radar) mapping technology, producing elevation data at 5 m horizontal resolution,
486 compatible with the spatial resolution selected when casting the DSAS transects. The
487 elevation data are available as digital terrain model 'NextMap' tiles from the UK NERC Earth
488 Observation Data Centre (NEODC) facility (tiles dtm-tm57 and dtm-tm58 for Benacre-
489 Southwold, dtm-tm46 and dtm-tm47 for Dunwich-Minsmere).

490

491 The vertical accuracy of NextMap data has been examined elsewhere by testing against a
492 range of alternative elevation datasets (Dowman et al., 2003). While a vertical accuracy of 1
493 m is broadly supported for regions of open fields with low vegetation, caution has been
494 advised for built-up areas, areas of woodland or where there are any significant surface
495 features. In such areas there is decreasing accuracy in the elevation data which can lead to
496 errors in height determination of up to 20 m. For much of the cliffline in the study area the
497 landward terrain comprises either open fields divided by hedgerows or areas of low heathland
498 vegetation. However, significant variations in elevation over short distances, such as occurs
499 when moving from near horizontal cliff top surfaces to steeply sloping cliff faces, can
500 compromise the elevation recorded for a 5 x 5 m NextMap pixel. Hence the EA ground
501 survey data from 2008 (except at profile S1C7 (for location see Fig. 1) where, in the absence
502 of later survey, it was necessary to use the winter 2000 profile) were compared with the
503 NextMap elevations at the cliff top edge for each of the 10 EA shore transects in the study

504 area, with the resulting regression equation used to adjust all the NextMap elevations at the
505 cliff top edge (Fig. 4). These revised elevations were then used to provide input into the
506 calculation of cliff sediment volume losses.

507

508 Fig. 4 about here

509

510 Further elevation correction was carried out in the area of Easton Wood, where there is a
511 significant area of woodland vegetation that leads to a clear vertical distortion of the NextMap
512 data. In this region, elevations on NextMap tiles dtm-tm58 and dtm-tm57 reach up to 30 m at
513 150 m inland from the 2008 shoreline, clearly diverging from the contour data and spot
514 heights on the most recent (2006) 1:25 000 OS map. Even though there are 30 pixels between
515 these extreme heights and the position of the shoreline, elevations at the shoreline reached 13-
516 14 m in places. Along this short stretch of coastline (300 m), data were screened to keep
517 elevations to a height of 12.5 m, consistent with OS spot heights and regional cliff elevations
518 of the adjacent cliff systems.

519

520 *3.2.2. Calculation of volumetric sediment inputs to the nearshore zone from retreating cliffs*

521

522 For the Benacre-Southwold and Dunwich-Minsmere shorelines, the DSAS transects cast in
523 the shoreline recession analysis were overlain on the digitised 2008 shoreline. A point-
524 shapefile was created containing a point for each intersection of the 2008 shoreline with each
525 DSAS transect, and converted to a featureclass file within ArcMap. The NextMap tiles were
526 then used to derive a Triangular Irregular Network (TIN) for the coastline and the ArcMap
527 Surface-Spot tool was used to generate an elevation for each of the points where a DSAS
528 transect was cast along the 2008 shoreline. Correction of the derived elevations was carried
529 out as described above. In total this analysis provided 800 spot heights for the coastal stretch
530 between Benacre Ness and Southwold, as well as 300 spot heights for the Dunwich-Minsmere
531 cliffs.

532

533 The spot heights at 10 m spacings were then used to produce an estimate of cliff face area for
534 the cliffed subunits of Benacre, Covehithe, Easton Wood, Easton Bavents (Northend Warren
535 and Easton Cliffs) and Dunwich-Minsmere (Fig. 3). Finally the volume of cliff loss in each of
536 these subunits was found by combining each spot height with its equivalent shoreline
537 recession found from the DSAS analysis, using the EPR for the period 2001-2008. This EPR
538 was chosen to correspond to the years for which NextMap elevation data were available and
539 to ensure that calculated cliff volume losses were based upon a cliff section that was broadly
540 representative of the current (2010) cliffline. Combining the DSAS EPR with the corrected
541 NextMap elevations enabled total volume loss to be found for the period 2001-2008, as well
542 as providing an estimate of average annual sediment inputs from both the Benacre-Southwold
543 and the Dunwich-Minsmere cliff systems.

544

545 **4. Results**

546

547 **4.1. Cliff recession rates, 1883-2008**

548

549 For the Suffolk coast between Benacre Ness and Southwold, coastal retreat has been
550 considerable over the 125 year period since 1883, ranging from 550 ± 4 m at the northern end
551 of the study site (near EA profile SWD2; see Fig. 1) to 250 ± 4 m towards the southern end
552 (SWD8). There is a clear north-south trend in the overall retreat in shoreline position over the
553 time period studied, from a mean annual retreat rate of almost 3.5 m a^{-1} at Covehithe to less
554 than 2.4 m a^{-1} at Easton Cliffs (Fig. 5). Although the Dunwich-Minsmere area has
555 traditionally been thought of as having high rates of cliff recession, it is clear that over the
556 period 1883-2008 retreat rates were far lower than for the coastline between Benacre Ness
557 and Southwold. The overall shoreline retreat varied between $90\text{-}128\pm 4$ m at different
558 locations along this frontage, with mean rates being less than 1.0 m a^{-1} (Fig. 5). For the period
559 between 1826 and 1976, Carr (1979) commented upon the differences between mean erosion

560 at Easton Bavents (1849-1970/72: 2.69-2.95 m a⁻¹) compared with Dunwich – Minsmere
561 (1826-1975/76: 0.91-1.59 m a⁻¹). The N-S trend towards lower retreat rates as well as the
562 contrasting rates between Benacre-Southwold and Dunwich-Minsmere can also be supported
563 in the cliff retreat rates established from the EA shore profiles for the period 1992-2008.

564

565 Figs. 5 and 6 about here

566

567 The DSAS methodology allows these general long-term temporal trends to be viewed in
568 detail alongshore (Fig. 6). For the Benacre Ness-Southwold shoreline, the pattern of annual
569 average shoreline retreat can be divided into five segments: a region of very low (< 1 m a⁻¹)
570 long-term shoreline recession in the vicinity of Benacre; a region of high annual average
571 retreat, in excess of 4 m a⁻¹ between 1.0 and 2.4 km alongshore and reaching 5 m a⁻¹ at 1.4
572 km; a transition zone of declining (4 to < 3 m a⁻¹) recession rates between 2.4 and 3.5 km; a
573 long section characterised by an average annual retreat rate of 3 m a⁻¹ between 3.5 and 6.2
574 km; and, finally a section of declining recession rate (3 m a⁻¹ to 2 m a⁻¹) from 6.2 to 7.6 km
575 (Fig. 6A). The area of land lost for this period in this area can be estimated at 1 944 822 m² (~
576 200 hectares) or 1.6 ha a⁻¹. By contrast, the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs showed an overall
577 lower shoreline retreat rate, as well as lower alongshore variability (Fig. 6B). The annual
578 average shoreline retreat 1883-2008 increased from 0.5 m a⁻¹ at the northern end of the
579 Dunwich cliffs to 1 m a⁻¹ at 1.0 km, thereafter staying close to this recession rate before
580 declining towards 0.5 m a⁻¹ south of 2.6 km alongshore from Dunwich. There was a greater
581 consistency in retreat rates alongshore (0.5-1 m a⁻¹), with much lower overall shoreline
582 change (Fig. 6B). These rates appear to have been characteristic of a much longer time period;
583 Carr (1979) estimates a recession rate of 1.15 m a⁻¹ for the period 1587-1975. From the
584 analysis presented here, the land loss for the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs can be estimated at
585 361 341 m² (36 ha), or 0.3 ha a⁻¹, between 1883 and 2008.

586

587 The Benacre Ness to Southwold EPR for the period 1883-1947 shows remarkable consistency
588 with the data on shoreline recession calculated using a similar methodology and for
589 approximately the same time period, but at 250 m intervals alongshore, by Cambers (1973,
590 1975) (Fig. 6A). The transects from 0 to 0.5 km alongshore in Fig. 6A show that advance (i.e.
591 negative rates of shoreline change) characterised the period between 1883 and 1947 but that
592 there was a major shift towards erosion over the last 60 years. These changes reflect
593 evolutionary changes in the position and morphology of Benacre Ness. A comparison of the
594 1883-1947 EPR with the 1883-2008 EPR, shows a decrease in the retreat rate, of up to 1 m a^{-1}
595 $^{-1}$, over the last 60 years in the region of 1.7 km alongshore. However, south of 2.9 km, until
596 6.7 km, the post-1947 cliff retreat rates were higher than the 1883-1947 mean rates, by up to 1
597 m a^{-1} in places. By contrast for the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs (Fig. 6B), except in the region of
598 1.0 km alongshore, the 1883-1941 EPR lies consistently above the 1883-2008 EPR, indicating
599 a decrease in cliff retreat rates, although generally by less than 0.5 m a^{-1} , over the last 60
600 years. It is noteworthy that here the fit between the results of Cambers (1973, 1975) and both
601 DSAS analyses is highly variable, with a tendency for Cambers' calculations to provide
602 higher estimates of the rate of coastal retreat along the Dunwich cliffs, at several locations by
603 0.5 m a^{-1} and, exceptionally, by 1 m a^{-1} (Fig. 6B). The significance of these differences is
604 discussed further below.

605

606 Figs. 7 and 8 about here

607

608 Figs 7 and 8 disaggregate the mean annual cliff recession rate by time period for the
609 Covehithe to Easton Bavents and Dunwich to Minsmere cliffed sections respectively; further
610 statistics are reported in Table 2. At Covehithe, mean annual cliff retreat rates varied between
611 2.55 ± 1.22 and $3.53 \pm 1.07 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ between 1883 and 1981. However, for the period 1981-1992,
612 the rate of coastal retreat accelerated to $5.10 \pm 0.88 \text{ m a}^{-1}$. Retreat rates remained high, at
613 $4.66 \pm 0.55 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in the period 1992-2008. At Easton Wood, no cliffed shoreline was present in
614 1883 but between 1903 and 1992, the emerging cliffed area showed four phases of

615 progressively increasing shoreline retreat, with mean annual retreat rate rising from 1.17 ± 0.15
616 m a^{-1} over the period 1903-1925 to $3.62 \pm 0.24 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ for 1981-1992. The rate of retreat after
617 1992 fell to $2.88 \pm 0.31 \text{ m a}^{-1}$. At Northend Warren, the northern section of the Easton Bavents
618 cliffs, a similar trend in rising retreat rate was seen from 1883-1903, peaking at $5.13 \pm 0.28 \text{ m}$
619 a^{-1} in the period 1947-1974. Thereafter there was a significant decline in retreat rate to
620 $1.80 \pm 0.14 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in the period 1974-92, before a further rise in retreat rate to $3.25 \pm 0.12 \text{ m a}^{-1}$,
621 back to 1925-1947 levels, in the period 1992-2008. At Easton Cliffs, the pattern of change has
622 been more complex, with a statistically significant trend towards declining retreat rates from
623 $3.33 \pm 0.71 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ between 1883 and 1903 to $0.81 \pm 0.78 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ between 1925 and 1947. There
624 was then a large rise in retreat rate, to $2.65 \pm 0.63 \text{ m a}^{-1}$, in the period 1947-1974. After 1974,
625 retreat rates were broadly comparable if slightly lower, at 2.38 ± 0.40 to $2.23 \pm 0.66 \text{ m a}^{-1}$.

626

627 For the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs, Fig. 8 shows that a significant shift in cliffline retreat rate
628 took place after 1925. In the period 1883-1925 the retreat rate varied between 1.49 ± 0.78 and
629 $1.72 \pm 0.30 \text{ m a}^{-1}$; between 1925 and 1992 it varied between 0.41 ± 0.21 and $0.65 \pm 0.24 \text{ m a}^{-1}$,
630 with a further fall to a retreat rate of $0.25 \pm 0.26 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ between 1992 and 2008. This reduction
631 is particularly noticeable when the long-term (1883-2008) EPR is plotted alongside the EPR
632 calculated for the periods 1992-2008 and 2001-2008, based on cliffline position as recorded
633 by aerial photography (Fig. 9). Whereas the short-term records for the cliffed sections of the
634 Benacre-Southwold coastline have oscillated around the long-term trend (Fig. 9A), the recent
635 cliff retreat between Dunwich and Minsmere falls well below the long-term trend, apart from
636 an area at the southern end of the Minsmere cliffs, and to a lesser extent the most northerly
637 Dunwich cliffs between 1992 and 2001 (Fig. 9B).

638

639 Fig. 9 about here

640

641 The periods of short record in Fig. 9 highlight the 'spiky' nature of shoreline retreat at the
642 alongshore sampling interval of 10 m and show how over time periods of less than ten years

643 (i.e. comparing 1992-2008 with 2001-2008) coherent but large scale shifts in erosional
644 behaviour can take place over alongshore distances of less than 1 km. Measurements of
645 coastline change from the EA shore profiles for the same periods as the aerial photographs
646 (i.e. EA summer profiles for 1992, 2001 and 2008) are also plotted on this figure. As might be
647 expected, the at-a-point correspondence between the DSAS derived retreat rates and the
648 records of profile change are good but the comparison highlights the difficulty in
649 extrapolating cliffline behaviour at 1 km spacings to the coastline as a whole.

650

651 **4.2. Volumetric sediment losses from retreating cliffs**

652

653 Cliff volume loss is the product of the alongshore variation in cliffline elevation and coastal
654 recession rate. The linked methodologies described in this paper – the extraction of cliff top
655 elevation data from digital terrain models and the derivation of retreat rates from the casting
656 of shore normal transects between shorelines of well-constrained age at a sampling interval of
657 just 10 m alongshore – allow a much better estimation of sediment volume inputs into the
658 nearshore zone along the Suffolk coast than has been obtained previously. Table 3 shows the
659 average annual volumetric loss of sediment from each of the cliffed sections on the Suffolk
660 coast over the period 2001-2008. This analysis includes a contribution from shoreline retreat
661 along a coastal section to the north of Covehithe, around Benacre, which was previously
662 undergoing shoreline advance in the period between the 1880s and the 1940s. The northward
663 migration (estimated at 20 m a^{-1} ; Babbie Group and Birkbeck College, 2000) of Benacre Ness
664 has resulted in the re-activation of coastal erosion on a fossil cliffline in the vicinity of
665 Benacre. For the northern part of the study region, volumetric losses totalled an estimated 115
666 $341 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ between 2001 and 2008. For the southern part of the study region, at Dunwich-
667 Minsmere, the greater cliff heights have been more than offset by lower retreat rates, leading
668 to a total annual sediment loss of just $4\,666 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ in the same period. The total mean
669 sediment volume input into the nearshore zone from both parts of the study region was thus
670 estimated at ca. $120\,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$. Using the sediment composition established for these

671 different cliff sections (Table 1), it can be assumed that the overwhelming majority (89.0%)
672 of the sediment input was of sand-sized material, with small contributions from the silt/clay
673 (6.8%) and gravel (4.3%) fractions (Table 3).

674

675 The period 2001-2008 was a period of generally lower cliff recession rates than in the decade
676 preceding it (Table 3; Figs 7, 8). Due to the lack of detailed cliff top height information for
677 earlier periods, it is not possible to accurately estimate sediment losses for earlier time
678 periods. However, of the two main determinants of volume change, the analysis carried out in
679 this study suggests that variation in retreat rate produces a greater response in sediment
680 volume than variation in cliff top elevation. Thus if one assumes a similar cliff height in the
681 recent past at each of the cliffed sections, then it is possible to estimate sediment volume
682 losses for the period 1992-2001, a phase of higher regional cliff recession rates (Table 3).
683 These estimates suggest inputs of $195\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ for the Benacre – Southwold shoreline and
684 $13\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ for the Dunwich – Minsmere cliffs, giving a total mean sediment input to the
685 nearshore zone of $208\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ (i.e. + 73 % on the 2001-2008 estimate). For the period from
686 1992 to 2008, encompassing the periods of both relatively higher and relatively lower rates of
687 cliffline retreat, the total estimated input is suggested to be ca. $160\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ (i.e. + 33% on
688 the 2001-2008 estimate) (Table 3).

689

690

691 **5. Discussion**

692

693 **5.1. Cliff recession rates and patterns of alongshore change**

694

695 This study of coastal cliff recession rates along the Suffolk coast since the late nineteenth
696 century shows that there has been a well-defined and persistent trend towards declining retreat
697 rates from north to south; thus at the largest scale presented here, there is clear evidence for a
698 re-positioning of the East Anglian coastline towards a more N-S orientation. Within this

699 context, it is not surprising, therefore, that much of the concern over high erosion rates on this
700 coast, has focused on land loss near the village of Covehithe (e.g. Robinson, 1966; Steers et
701 al., 1979). In contrast to Robinson's (1966) argument for a progressive decline in shoreline
702 retreat between 1882 and the 1960s, this analysis shows that at Covehithe mean cliff retreat
703 rates have oscillated between 2.5 and 3.5 m a⁻¹ for the almost one hundred year period
704 between 1883 and 1981 (Table 2). As a result, for example, the extensive World War II anti-
705 invasion defences, clearly visible on 1940s RAF aerial photography, have now been
706 completely lost to the sea (Newsome, 2003). It is notable, however, that after 1981 retreat
707 rates increased from this already high level, at first (1981-1992) to rates in excess of 5 m a⁻¹,
708 but still greater than 4.5 m a⁻¹ after 1992 (Table 2; Fig. 7). Furthermore, even these high mean
709 rates hide some remarkable rates of short-term recession. Thus, for example, 18.3 m of retreat
710 was recorded in a single year, 1887 (Whitaker, 1907); 12-27 m of erosion between 1951 and
711 1953, in part associated with the impact of the severe 31 January – 1 February 1953 North Sea
712 storm surge (Williams, 1956); 34.8 m of retreat between 1977 and 1979, related in part to the
713 11 January 1978 storm surge (Steers et al., 1979); and 15.8m of recession occurred between
714 winter 1993 and winter 1994 (Lee, 2008).

715

716 Coastal erosion, in the form of a retreating cliffline, appears to have extended southwards
717 historically along this coast. At Easton Wood, 1.6 km south of Covehithe village, no cliffline
718 is depicted on the 1882-1883 map, suggesting low land elevations and associated low
719 sediment release volumes. However, by 1903, a cliffline was mapped on the OS map,
720 suggesting the 'switching on' of cliff retreat and associated sediment release. Thereafter
721 coastal erosion accelerated at Easton Wood reaching rates of retreat typical of the Covehithe
722 cliffed subunit (i.e. 3 m a⁻¹) in the period 1947-1981 (Table 2; Fig. 7). After 1981, Easton
723 Wood mirrored recessional behaviours at Covehithe, peaking in the period 1981-1992 and
724 remaining high between 1992 and 2008. A similar pattern of erosional 'start up' is evident in
725 the record from the small coastal section of Northend Warren, although here a cliff does
726 appear to have been present since the 1880s. Here, rates of coastal recession accelerated from

727 less than 1 m a^{-1} to in excess of 5 m a^{-1} by the period 1947-1981. It is interesting that whereas
728 further north the period between 1981 and 1992 was a phase of accelerated erosion, here
729 retreat rates declined between 1974 and 1992, to less than 2 m a^{-1} (Table 2; Fig. 7). One might
730 speculate that the increased sediment inputs to the nearshore zone from accelerated cliff
731 retreat 1-4 km to the north, and the southerly drift and nearshore sedimentation of this
732 increased sediment supply, might have resulted in a slowing of the rate of cliff recession at
733 this locality.

734

735 At Easton Bavents, extremely high rates of coastal retreat were recorded in the nineteenth
736 century (Tables 1 and 3). Carr (1979) reports mean annual rates of retreat of between 2.7 and
737 3.0 m a^{-1} between 1849 and 1970/72 and this analysis confirms recession of this order of
738 magnitude between 1883 and 1925. However, the pattern thereafter was more complex (Table
739 2; Fig. 7). The site shows an almost mirror image of the Northend Warren cliff behaviour
740 until the end of the period 1925-47, with rates of cliffline recession progressively falling from
741 in excess of 3 m a^{-1} to less than 1 m a^{-1} (Table 2; Fig. 7). This again suggests, but at a more
742 local scale, shoreline adjustments to patterns of sediment inputs from cliff erosion and
743 subsequent accumulation. There was, however, a strong re-establishment of rates of retreat in
744 excess of 2.5 m a^{-1} in the period 1947-1974 which were maintained above 2 m a^{-1} thereafter
745 (although the most recent (1992–2008) shoreline retreat rates have been influenced by *ad hoc*
746 coastal protection measures emplaced at the cliff foot since 2002).

747

748 Major changes in coastal configuration at Dunwich, including the disappearance of a former
749 peninsula, spit development and the shoaling of a previously wide and deep estuary (Chant,
750 1986; Pontee, 2005; Pye and Blott, 2009), which led to the loss of Roman, Saxon and most of
751 the medieval settlement, have often been used to argue for particularly dramatic rates of
752 concomitant cliff retreat at this locality. However, long-term historical records, often well-
753 constrained by the measured distances of church and monastic buildings from the cliff
754 margin, show a record of unexceptional rates of retreat, albeit punctuated by periods of very

755 rapid recession, often related to severe storm events (and equally periods of cliff line stasis).
756 The long-term (1883-2008) recession rate of 0.94 m a^{-1} sits squarely within these estimates
757 (Table 2). Furthermore, the rates of cliff retreat between 1883-1903 and 1903-1925, at 1.49
758 and 1.72 m a^{-1} respectively, do not represent significant accelerations on this long-term trend.
759 However, the reduction in retreat rates to $<0.5 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in the period 1925-1941, and rates less
760 than 1 m a^{-1} thereafter, is striking and confirms Robinson's (1980, 142) statement that 'since
761 1925 the rate of cliff recession has diminished dramatically and in recent years part of the cliff
762 face has stabilised to the extent that that it has become grass covered ... the present rate of
763 coastal retreat is only a fraction of that taking place in the past' (and see Fig. 2, this paper).
764 How such changes might be explained are considered in more detail below.

765

766 **5.2. Sediment losses from retreating cliffs and regional sediment budgets: a re-appraisal**

767

768 One of the outcomes of the East Anglian Coastal Research Programme in the 1970s
769 (University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK; Onyett and Simmonds, 1983) was the
770 establishment of sediment budgets for the East Anglian coast, estimating both point-source
771 sediment inputs from cliff erosion and inferring subsequent alongshore sediment transport
772 pathways (Clayton et al., 1983). Within this research programme, the research of Gillian
773 Cambers (Cambers, 1973, 1975; Cambers et al., 1977) focussed on establishing the sediment
774 inputs from eroding cliffs. Cambers' methodology was based on establishing cliff recession
775 rates from UK Ordnance Survey map evidence at 250 m intervals along the coast for the
776 period between the 1880s and the 1950s. The re-analysis in this paper of the areas and general
777 time period of Cambers' analysis, but using the DSAS methodology and transects spaced at
778 10 m rather than 250 m intervals, shows the robustness of the two different cliff recession
779 estimates for the Covehithe – Easton Cliffs area (Fig. 6A). However, for the Dunwich –
780 Minsmere cliffs, Cambers' estimates do not correspond to the DSAS calculations, with typical
781 differences in recession rates of 50% and in places differences of over 100% between the two
782 methodologies (Fig. 6B). It is not clear why there is good correspondence between the results

783 of this analysis and the earlier methodology in the northern part of the study area and not in
784 the south, although it might be noted that the fit is good in an area of high rates of coastal
785 retreat and poor where low rates of coastal recession make the fixing of former shorelines
786 from map evidence more challenging.

787

788 Cambers' analysis (Cambers, 1973, 1975; Cambers et al., 1977) went on to provide a
789 sediment input to coastal budget models of $30\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ from the cliffs between Covehithe
790 and Easton Bavents (i.e. as far south as Easton Cliffs in the terminology used in this paper). A
791 further analysis by Carr (1981) estimated the inputs from the cliffs at Easton Bavents as 35
792 $309\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$. It is unfortunate that the lack of detailed elevation data for the land lost in the
793 hundred year period between the late nineteenth century and the availability of high resolution
794 aerial photographs in the 1990s precludes the development of new, more detailed estimates of
795 average annual sediment inputs over a more extended historical period. However, utilising
796 information for the period since aerial photographs became available in 1992, and taking the
797 same coastline lengths as Cambers, this paper suggests sediment inputs over the period 1992
798 – 2008 of ca. $150\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ from the cliffs between Covehithe and Easton Bavents. These
799 figures do not, however, include a component from the recent re-activation of erosion at
800 Benacre Ness; if this sediment input is included in the calculations the total mean annual
801 sediment input rises to ca. $178\,500\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$. For comparison with Carr (1981), the sediment
802 input from Northend Warren/Easton Cliffs is required; this analysis suggests that figure of ca.
803 $38\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$, very close ($\pm 1\%$) to Carr's earlier estimate, over the period 1992–2008.
804 Sediment inputs from the Dunwich-Minsmere cliff system can also be compared between this
805 study and the earlier estimates. Cambers' estimated input (Cambers, 1973, 1975; Cambers et
806 al., 1977) was $40\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$, and Carr's (1981) $56\,249\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$. The comparable estimate in this
807 analysis for the Dunwich-Minsmere cliff system is ca. $9\,500\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ (1992–2008), a four- to
808 six-fold decrease on previous rates. Overall, previous estimates for total (Covehithe – Easton
809 Bavents and Dunwich-Minsmere) sediment inputs into the nearshore zone have ranged
810 between $70\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ (annual average sediment loss 1883–1957; Cambers, 1973) to $91\,500$

811 $\text{m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ (annual average sediment loss 1867–1975; Carr, 1981). In summary, this paper
812 suggests that, over the period 1992–2008, the total sediment input has been of the order of
813 $160\,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ and that the spatial distribution of these inputs has been rather different than
814 that suggested previously.

815

816 These differences are important in the context of the subsequent mobilization and transport of
817 the released sediments about which there has been considerable debate (McCave, 1978;
818 Vincent, 1979; Onyett and Simmonds, 1983; Halcrow, 2001). Vincent (1979) indicates a
819 southward longshore drift potential of around $65\,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ southward from Covehithe for the
820 period 1964–1976, while McCave, from patterns of beach sediment size grading, suggests that
821 sediment may also move northwards from Covehithe. Onyett and Simmonds (1983) modelled
822 a wave induced longshore transport rate of $105\,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ in the southern part of Benacre in a
823 roughly southwesterly direction. However, subsequent modelling by Halcrow (2001),
824 reported in the Southern North Sea Sediment Transport Study (HRWallingford, 2002) and
825 supported by that study, suggests lower net transport rates of $2\,500 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ at the southern end
826 of Benacre, $18\,250 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ around Covehithe and $3\,100 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ at Southwold, with movement in
827 a generally southwesterly direction. The general conclusion, therefore, is that net longshore
828 transport rates are generally southerly from Benacre Ness to Southwold and have a magnitude
829 of around $20\,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$, although the modelled outcomes depend on the bathymetry that is
830 used for model building purposes. For the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs, a net transport rate past
831 the cliffs of $12\,100 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ has been suggested (Halcrow, 2001). For 2 mm and 10 mm gravel,
832 Black and Veatch Consulting Ltd. (2005) modelled a net southerly transport at the cliffs of 13
833 900 and $3\,800 \text{ m}^3 \text{a}^{-1}$ respectively.

834

835 These sediment transports are complicated by the presence of several dynamic offshore bank
836 systems which are thought to act as sinks for much of the sediment source from the eroding
837 cliffs. Furthermore, the banks are likely to play a role in modifying the wave climate and tidal
838 currents (Lees, 1983; Stansby et al., 2006; Horillo-Caraballo and Reeve, 2008), with critical

839 feedbacks existing between eroding cliff sediment sources, longshore sediment movement,
840 dynamic behaviour of the banks as sediment sinks, and continued erosion of the cliffs. Some
841 of this discussion has focussed on the role of the Sizewell and Dunwich Banks which lie
842 immediately offshore from the Dunwich-Minsmere cliffs. Thus, for example, Robinson
843 (1980) argued that the reduction in cliff erosion rates here after 1925, confirmed by this study,
844 could be attributed to the growth of these banks, by changing angles of wave approach and
845 wave heights along the cliffed frontage. Carr (1981) argued that the Dunwich-Minsmere
846 nearshore system is a relatively closed one, with local sediment cycling between the cliffs and
847 the banks immediately offshore, and provided a model balancing inputs from cliff erosion
848 (from Easton Bavents, Dunwich-Minsmere and Thorpeness) and offshore seabed lowering
849 against bank sediment accumulation, with the slight excess of sediment input (of + 17%)
850 explaining bank growth in the period 1867-1965. He had stressed earlier, however, that 'this
851 argument is only partly justified' (Carr, 1979, 8). Similarly, Halcrow (2001) showed that
852 beach volumes at Dunwich remain relatively constant over decadal timescales, suggesting that
853 material added from cliff erosion is balanced by the onshore-offshore and alongshore net
854 fluxes of sediment. Carr's (1981) inputs from the cliff systems at Easton Bavents, Dunwich-
855 Minsmere and Thorpeness totalled ca. $96\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$. It is difficult to test this model in detail
856 because of i) a mismatch in timing between terrestrial mapping of cliff retreat and bathymetric
857 surveys and ii) the long timespan employed in previous studies (1867-1965 by Carr (1981);
858 1868-1992 by Pye and Blott (2009)) which cut across a major shift in cliff retreat rates
859 between 1903-1925 and 1925-1941 (Table 2; Fig. 8). However, for the period 1992-2008,
860 cliff recession rates in Carr's three source areas of cliff sediments (Dunwich-Minsmere,
861 Easton Bavents and Thorpeness (supply assumed unchanged in the latter at $2.5\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$)) have
862 yielded an estimated volume input of ca. $50\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$, only 50% of the cliff input in Carr's
863 (1981) model. With the virtual shutdown of cliff recession in the Dunwich-Minsmere system
864 after 1925, alongside the general growth of the Dunwich-Sizewell Banks between 1868 and
865 1992 (Pye and Blott, 2009), it seems likely that, rather than being a local, closed system,
866 sediments to the Dunwich-Sizewell Banks are most probably being additionally supplied with

867 sediment from the rapidly eroding cliffs immediately to the north of the supply from Easton
868 Bavents. These cliffs (at Covehithe, Easton Wood and Benacre) have had the potential to
869 supply an additional $140\,000\text{ m}^3\text{ a}^{-1}$ of cliff sediments in the period 1992-2008. Particularly at
870 times of high coastal cliff retreat (as in the period 1992-2001; Table 3), there may even be
871 sufficient sediment being released to also feed northward sediment transport, as suggested by
872 both Robinson (1966) and McCave (1978), and growth of the Lowestoft Bank system.

873

874

875 **6. Conclusions**

876

877 There have been considerable changes on the Suffolk coast since Cambers' analyses in the
878 1970s, which was based on map evidence of coastal change between the 1880s and the 1950s.
879 At Covehithe, for example, cliff heights have risen as the shoreline has retreated westwards.
880 In 1907, when giving evidence to the Royal Commission on Coastal Erosion, on the basis of
881 field observations made in the late 1870s to the late 1880s, William Whitaker described the
882 shoreline at Covehithe as a 'low cliff, not, perhaps, more than half the height of this room'
883 (Whitaker, 1907, 98). By 1947 the cliff height was 11 m and that had increased to 15.5 m by
884 2008. In addition, the length of the shoreline affected by cliff retreat expanded by 165 m
885 between 1947 and 2008 and the mean cliff recession rate increased from 3 m a^{-1} (average of
886 EPRs, 1883-1947) towards 5 m a^{-1} (EPR for 1992-2008). All these factors combined to give
887 rise to substantial increases in cliff sediment losses and inputs into the nearshore zone over the
888 period of record. Furthermore, to the south, similar changes have characterised the coast at
889 Easton Wood, Northend Warren and Easton Cliffs and, to the north of Covehithe, coastal
890 erosion has been re-activated at Benacre. Conversely, at Dunwich-Minsmere, cliff heights and
891 the length of the eroding cliffline has remained constant (or even shortened with coastal
892 protection at the northern end of the cliffs) and recession rates, for 1992-2008, declined to
893 only 15% of the rate experienced in the period between 1883 and 1925. It is argued that
894 coastal geomorphologists, modellers and managers should now move away from estimates of

895 coastal sediment inputs to this part of the East Anglian coast derived from pioneering studies
896 over 30 years ago and incorporate in their studies and decision making processes, more
897 contemporary estimates of the magnitude and spatial patterning of sediment inputs along the
898 Suffolk coast (Fig. 10). It is clear that there have been re-organisations of this coast over the
899 last one hundred years, which have involved large-scale changes in coastline orientation, ness
900 dynamics and offshore bank growth and decay, and that these changes have resulted in, and
901 from, changing cliff erosion rates. How the cliffs, nesses and offshore banks will respond to
902 changing water depths, storminess and alongshore sediment transport associated with global
903 environmental change is unclear (Halcrow, 2002) but such studies should start from a firmer
904 base provided by the record of historical morphodynamics.

905

906 Fig. 10 about here

907

908 Quantifying near-future rates of coastal change is highly relevant to those communities that
909 live and work at dynamic coastal margins. Understanding these dynamics, their outcomes and
910 their societal impacts is a major difficulty in soft rock cliff systems which exhibit not only
911 high rates of change but also considerable variability in such rates over space and through
912 time. The methodology outlined in this paper, using the Digital Shoreline Analysis System
913 alongside detailed cliff elevations obtained using the Surface Spot tool with NextMap
914 elevation data, allows spatial variability in cliff behaviour to be identified and assessed,
915 rapidly and at a high level of spatial detail. This approach thus provides, in particular, much-
916 improved estimates of current and future sediment volume release from rapidly eroding cliff
917 systems and, in general, better-informed inputs into coastal management strategies.

918

919

920

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922

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932

933

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1251 Figure Captions

1252

1253 Fig. 1. Location of the study sites, Suffolk coast, UK. Bathymetry taken from Admiralty
1254 Chart 1543 (Winterton Ness to Orford Ness) 17th edition, June 2005. Positions of the UK
1255 Environment Agency (EA) (Anglian Region) Sea Defence Management Study (SDMS) shore
1256 profiles are indicated.

1257

1258 Fig. 2. Cliff topography and stratigraphy. A) 12 m high cliffs to the north of EA profile
1259 SWD4 (for location see Fig. 1), looking north towards SWD3. Note exposure of the basal
1260 Baventian clay; B) 10 m cliff between EA profiles SWD3 and SWD4, looking south. Note
1261 gravel lenses within the Westleton Beds Member; C) 12 m high cliffs at Easton Wood,
1262 looking south towards EA profile SWD5; D) 12 m high cliffs near EA profile SWD7 at
1263 Easton Barents; E) 17 m high cliffs at Dunwich, looking south near EA profile S1C6. Note
1264 vegetated nature of cliff profile; and F) 16 m high cliff at EA profile S1B1 (note profile
1265 marker post at bottom left). Note extensive Westleton Gravel Member deposits near the top of
1266 the profile and the vegetated nature of the lower cliff profile (Photographs: T Spencer, 27th
1267 October, 2008 (A); S Brooks, 9th June, 2009 (B); T Spencer, 27th December, 2009 (C, D); T
1268 Spencer, 15th December, 2009 (E, F)).

1269

1270 Fig. 3. Alongshore transect (1:50 vertical exaggeration) of shoreline elevations, and locations
1271 of EA (Anglian Region) SDMS shore profiles, from A) Benacre Ness to Southwold and B)
1272 Dunwich to Minsmere. Figure shows limits to cliffed areas used for the calculation of
1273 historical shoreline retreat rates and recent sediment volume releases.

1274

1275 Fig. 4. Relationship between cliff margin elevations extracted from winter 2008 (all profiles
1276 except S1C7) and winter 2000 (profile S1C7) EA (Anglian Region) SDMS profile ground
1277 surveys and corresponding elevations derived from February 2002 'NextMap' tiles across the
1278 study area.

1279

1280 Fig. 5. Variation in shoreline recession rate (m a^{-1}) between 1883 and 2008 for the five cliffed
1281 sub-units between Covehithe and Dunwich-Minsmere, Suffolk coast, UK. Exploratory Data
1282 Analysis box-whisker plot (after Tukey, 1977) shows box of inter-quartile range (with median
1283 value) and whisker to hedge representing the lowest/highest data point within 1.5x box length
1284 from the lower/upper quartile respectively. Methodology: EPR (End Point Rate) calculations
1285 from Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS).

1286 Fig. 6. Shoreline change (m a^{-1}) using the Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS) between
1287 A) Benacre and Southwold and B) Dunwich to Minsmere. Analysis based upon digitised
1288 MHWS/cliff base shorelines at a 10m alongshore sampling interval for the time periods 1883-
1289 1947 and 1883-2008. Also shown are rates of shoreline retreat calculated at a 250 m interval
1290 alongshore by Cambers (1973, 1975).

1291

1292 Fig. 7. Shoreline recession rates (m a^{-1}) for intermediate time periods between 1883-2008 for
1293 A) Covehithe; B) Easton Wood; C) Northend Warren; and D) Easton Cliffs. Boxes in box-
1294 whisker plots are placed at the mid-point of the time period covered; see Table 2 for details.
1295 Methodology: EPR (End Point Rate) calculations from Digital Shoreline Analysis System
1296 (DSAS).

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1298 Fig. 8. Box-whisker plots of shoreline recession rates (End Point Rate, m a^{-1}) for intermediate
1299 time periods between 1883-2008 for Dunwich-Minsmere cliff system. Boxes are placed at the
1300 mid-point of the time period covered; see Table 2 for details.

1301

1302 Fig. 9. Shoreline change (EPR m a^{-1}) over three time periods using the Digital Shoreline
1303 Analysis System (DSAS) between A) Benacre and Southwold and B) Dunwich to Minsmere.
1304 Analysis based upon digitised MHWS/cliff base shorelines at a 10m alongshore sampling
1305 interval for the time period 1883-2008. Analysis at a 10 m sampling interval of cliffed

1306 sections only, and based on top-of-cliff position from aerial photography, for the time periods.
1307 Also shown for 1992-2008 and 2001-2008 are rates of shoreline retreat at ca. 1 km spacing
1308 alongshore derived from the EA (Anglian Region) SDMS bi-annual profile surveys.

1309

1310 Fig. 10. Main panel: revised sediment volume inputs (m^3 sediment a^{-1}) for the retreating
1311 Suffolk cliffs (Benacre, Covehithe, Easton wood, Easton Cliff and Dunwich-Minsmere),
1312 2001-2008. Pie diagrams indicate likely sediment composition of inputs on basis of logs of
1313 cliff section materials in May/June 1995 (James and Lewis, 1996). Upper left panel: earlier
1314 estimate of sediment input from Cambers (1973, 1975). Lower panels: 2001-2208 estimated
1315 inputs (left) compared with estimates for periods of intermediate (centre; 1992-2008) and high
1316 (right; 1992-2001) cliff recession rates. See text for detailed discussion.

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Tables

Table 1: Alongshore differences in geological composition of the cliff-forming sediments from sediment logs undertaken by the British Geological Survey in May/June 1995 (for methodology see James and Lewis, 1996)

Location	Sediment composition (%)		
	Silt / clay	Sand	Gravel
Benacre	22	76	2
Covehithe	2	95	3
Easton Wood	6	84	10
Northend Warren	35	61	4
Easton Cliffs	7	92	2
Dunwich	4	93	3
Minsmere	2	86	12

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Sediment composition is predominantly sand of the Norwich Crag, with silt/clay arising from intertidal mudflat environments. Westleton Bed gravels reflect nearshore rip channels (Covehithe and Easton Wood) or tidal inlets between barrier islands (Dunwich-Minsmere)

1330 Table 2: Shoreline retreat rates (m a^{-1}) in the five cliffed sub-units (see Fig. 3 for locations) for intermediate time intervals within the period

1331 1883-2008, based upon the End Point Rate (EPR) statistic, Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS).

		1883- 2008	1883- 1903	1903- 1925	1925- 1941	1925- 1947	1941- 1981	1947- 1974	1947- 1981	1974- 1992	1981- 1992	1992- 2008
Covehithe	Mean	3.49	3.16	2.55		3.53			3.16		5.10	4.66
	St deviation	0.4	0.27	1.22		1.07			0.39		0.88	0.55
Easton Wood	Mean	3.02		1.17		2.06			3.00		3.62	2.88
	St deviation	0.07		0.15		0.23			0.27		0.24	0.31
Northend Warren	Mean	2.75	0.72	1.74		3.11		5.13		1.80		3.25
	St deviation	0.02	0.30	0.20		0.22		0.28		0.14		0.12
Easton Cliffs	Mean	2.33	3.33	2.57		0.81		2.65		2.38		2.23
	St deviation	0.22	0.71	0.26		0.78		0.63		0.40		0.66
Dunwich - Minsmere	Mean	0.94	1.49	1.72	0.41		0.65				0.61	0.25
	St deviation	0.16	0.78	0.30	0.21		0.24				0.40	0.26

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1336 Table 3: Estimated cliff volumetric loss (m³ sediment a⁻¹) for the periods 1992 - 2008, 1992 - 2001 and 2001 – 2008., by cliffed sub-unit (see Fig.

1337 3). For the period 2001-2008 losses calculated by combining DSAS EPR statistic with cliff elevations from corrected NextMap data (see Fig. 5)

1338 are disaggregated by sediment type (see Table 1).

Location	Sediment volumetric loss (m ³ sediment a ⁻¹)			Sediment composition (%)					
	1992 - 2008	1992 - 2001	2001 - 2008	Silt / clay	Silt / clay	Sand	Sand	Gravel	Gravel
Benacre	26974	32653	19629	22	4318	76	14918	2	393
Covehithe	85055	198897	54179	2	1084	95	51470	3	1625
Easton Wood	28166	30468	24665	6	1480	84	20719	10	2467
Easton Bavents ¹	38274	55234	16868	7	1181	92	15519	2	337
Total Benacre - Southwold	178469	317252	115341		8063		102626		4822
Dunwich - Minsmere	9260	13492	4666	3	140	90	4199	8	373
Total	187729	330744	120007		8203		106825		5195

1339 ¹ Easton Bavents = Northend Warren + Easton Cliffs

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Figure 1

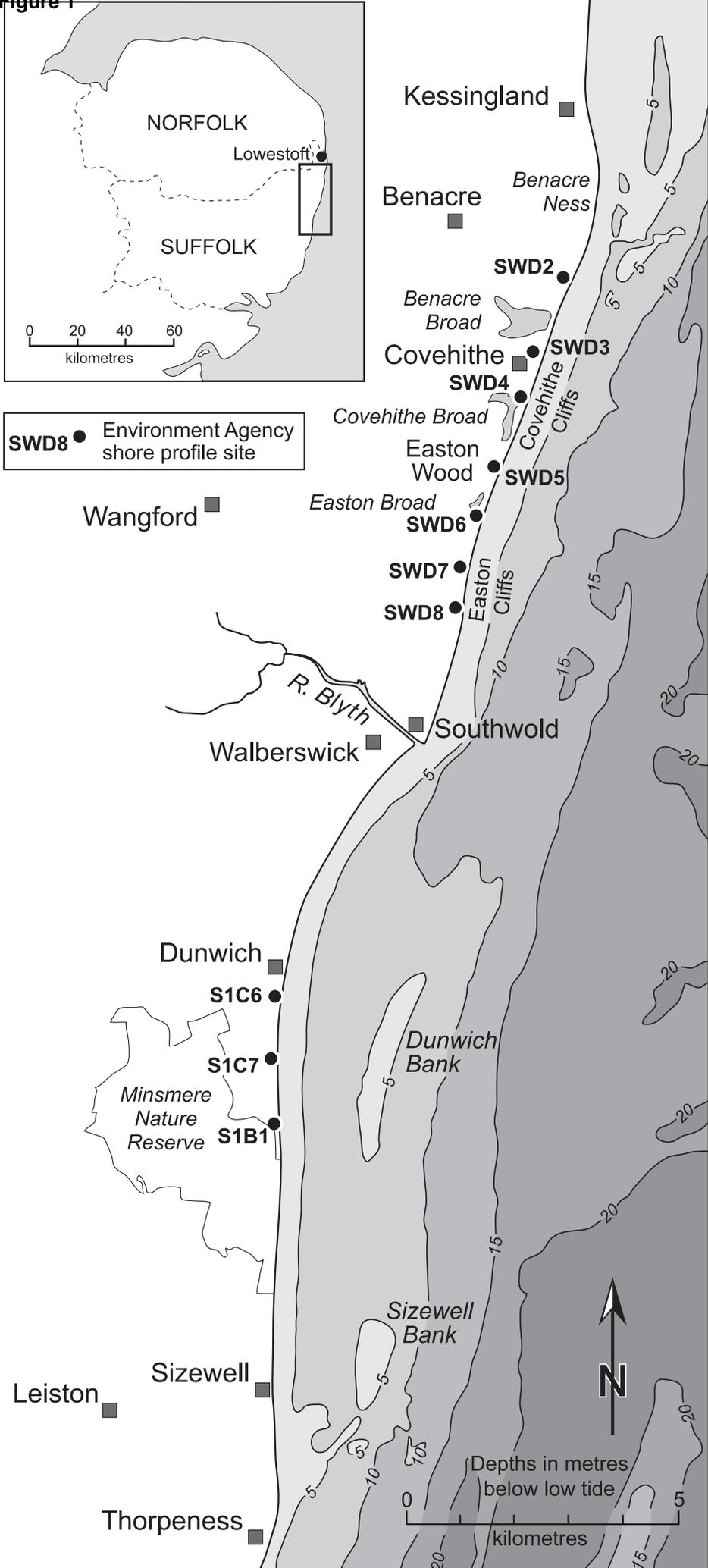


Figure 2 (black and white)



Figure 3

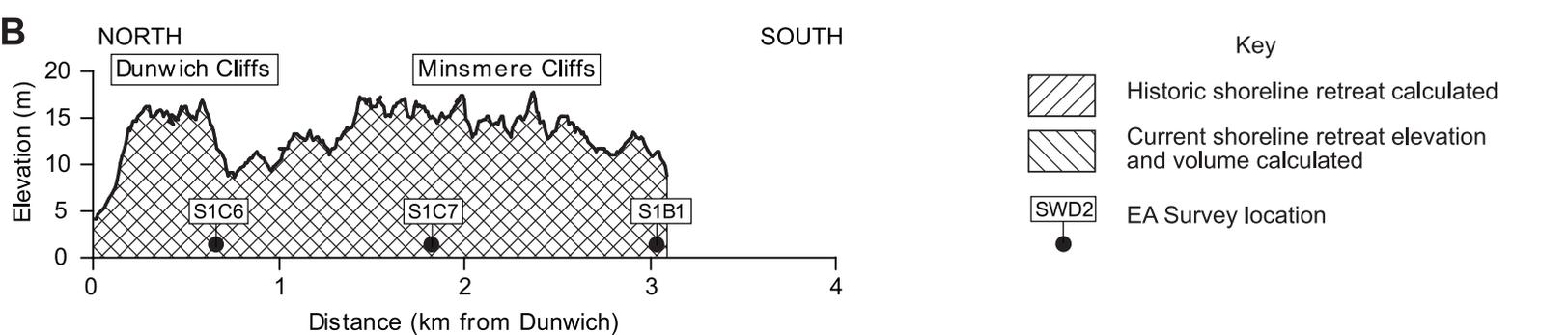
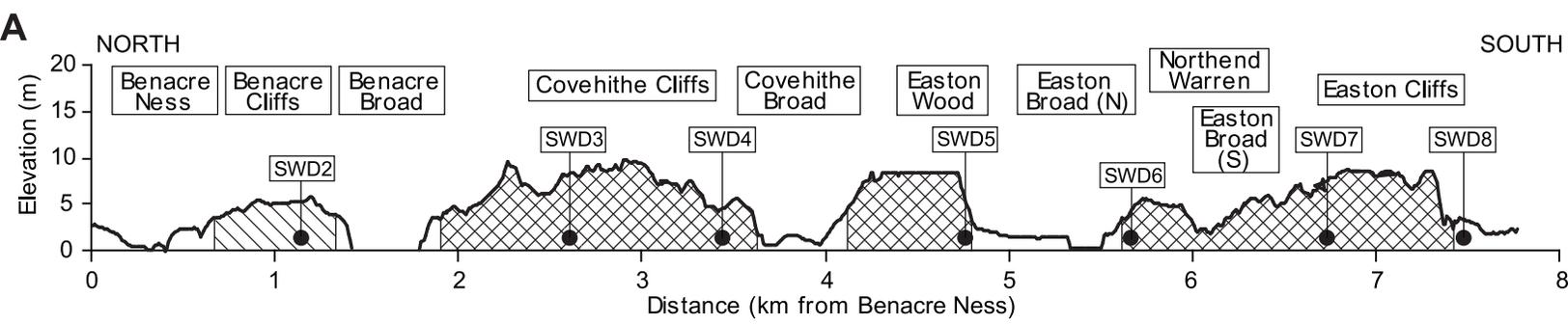


Figure 4

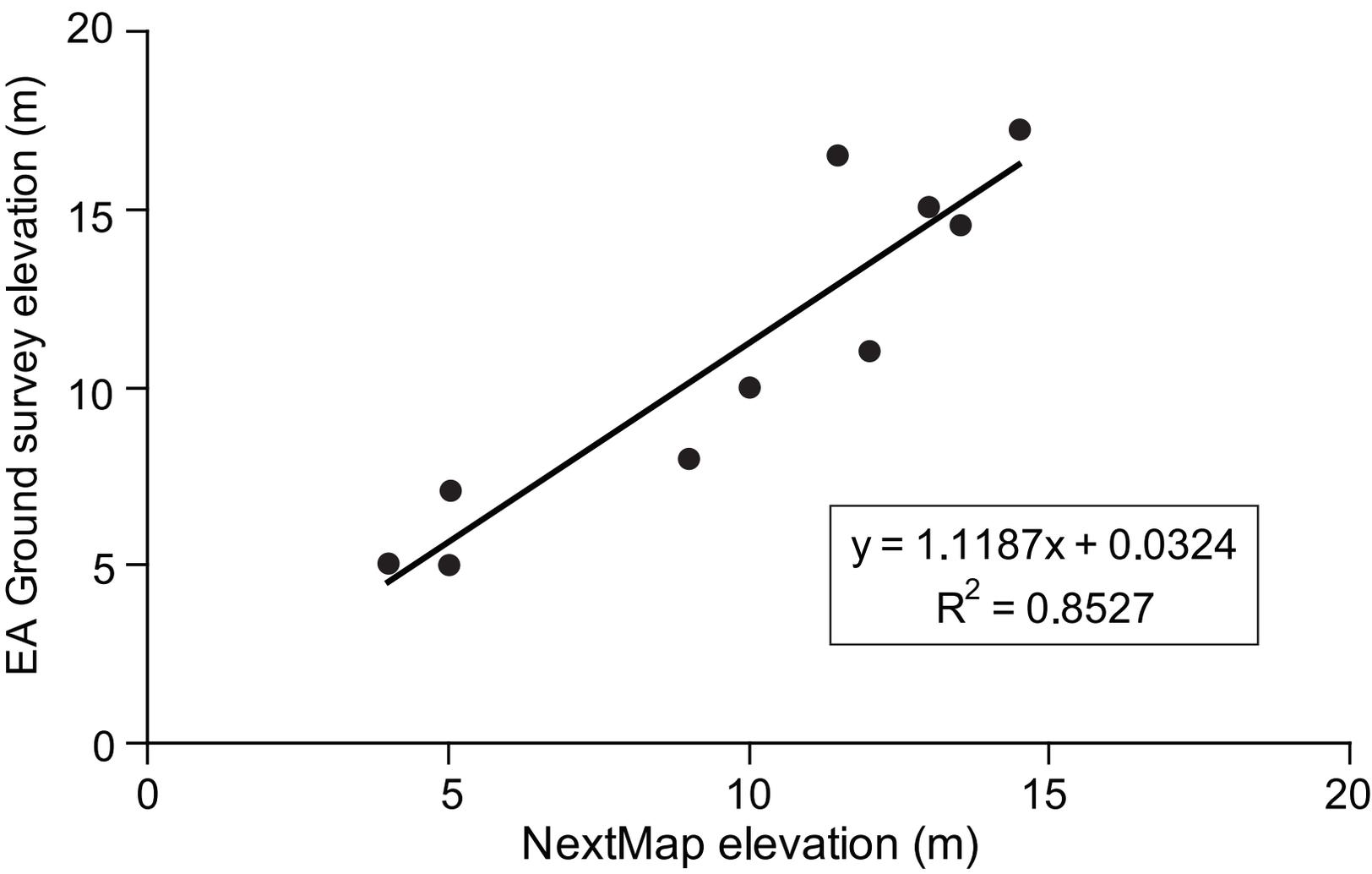


Figure 5

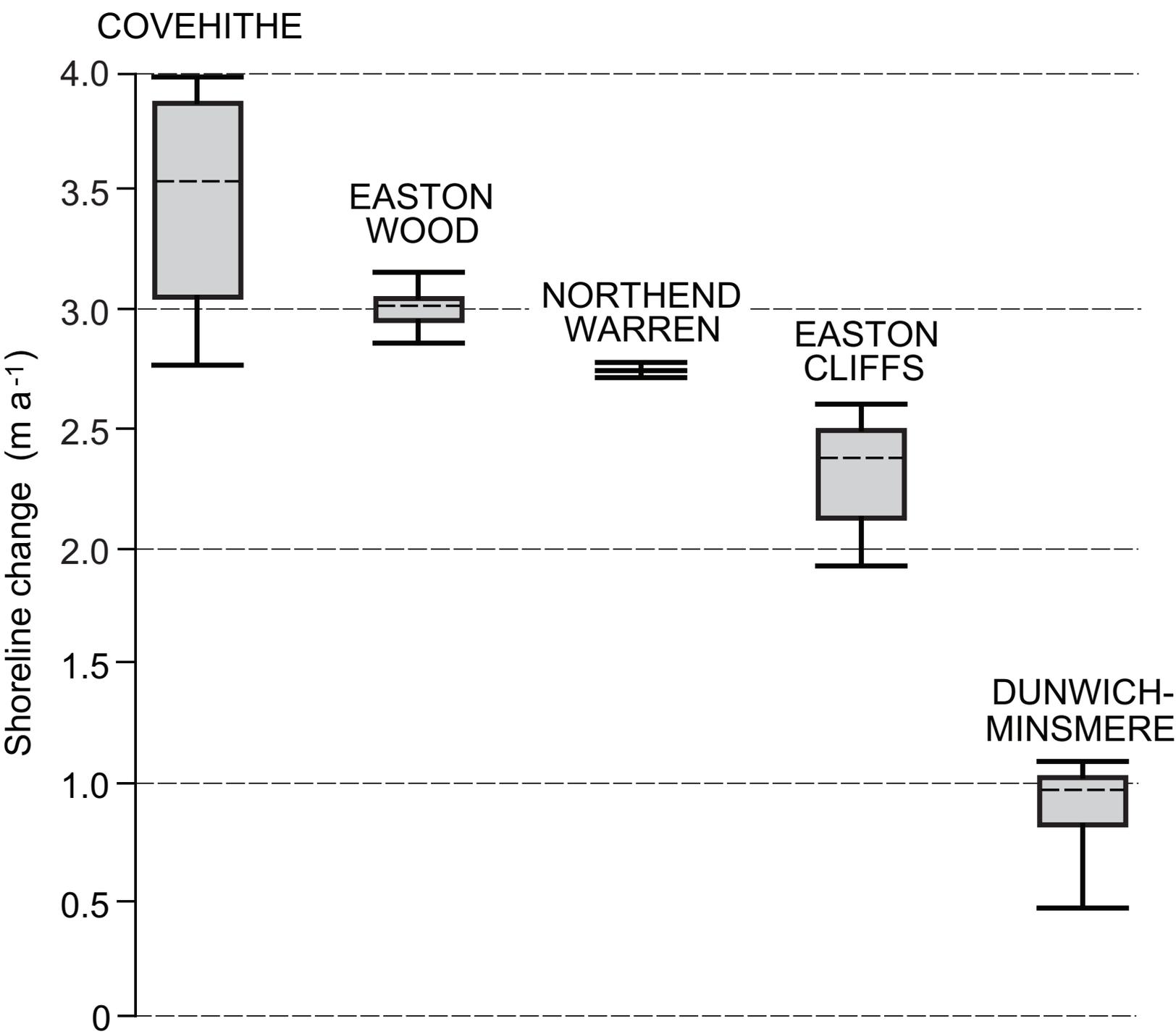
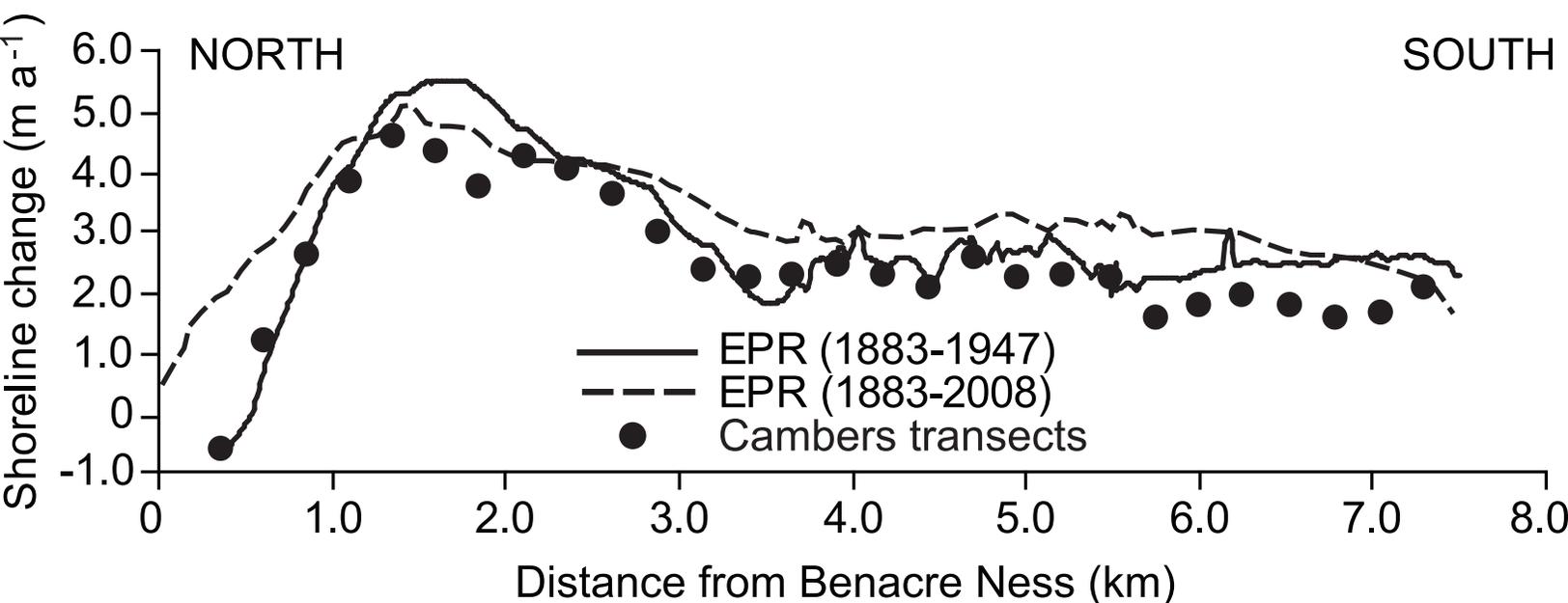
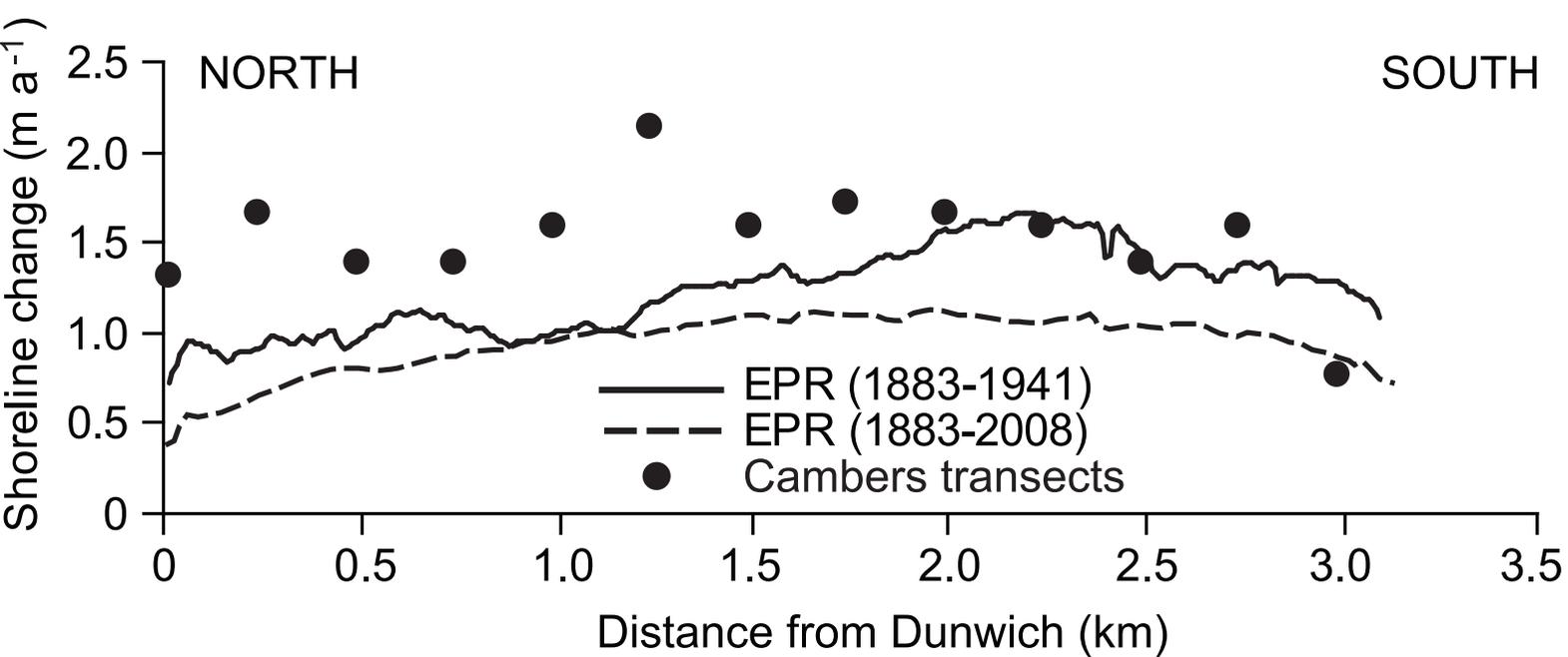


Figure 6

A Benacre-Southwold



B Dunwich-Minsmere



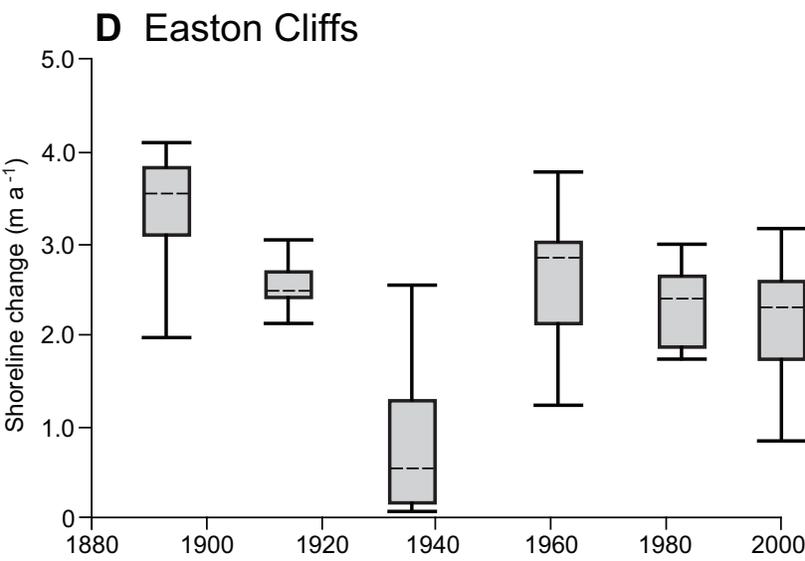
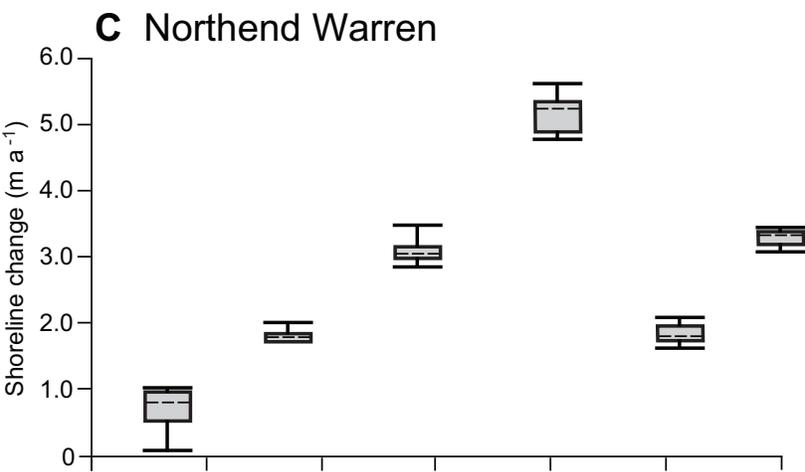
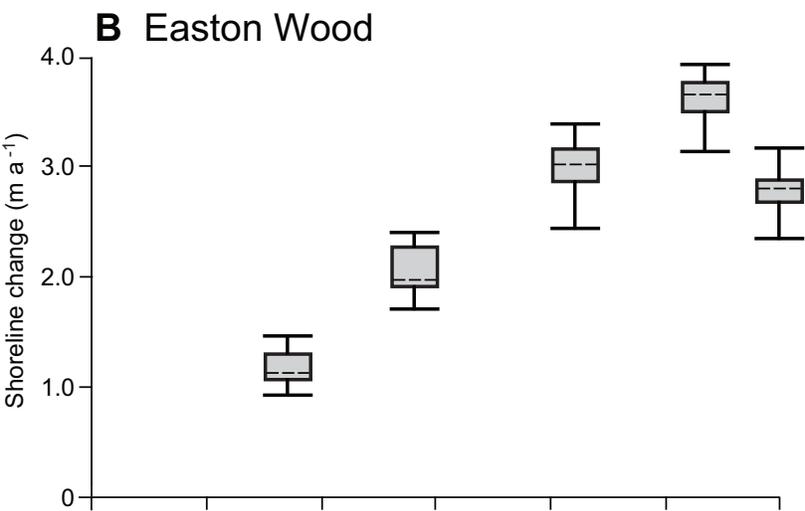
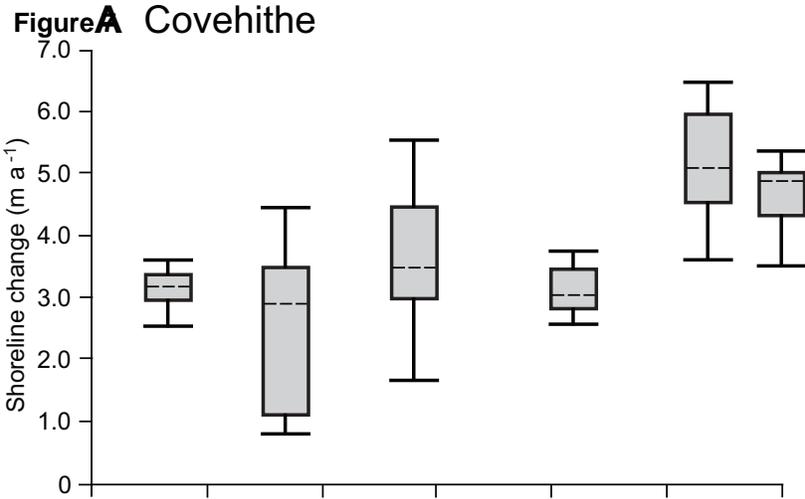


Figure 8

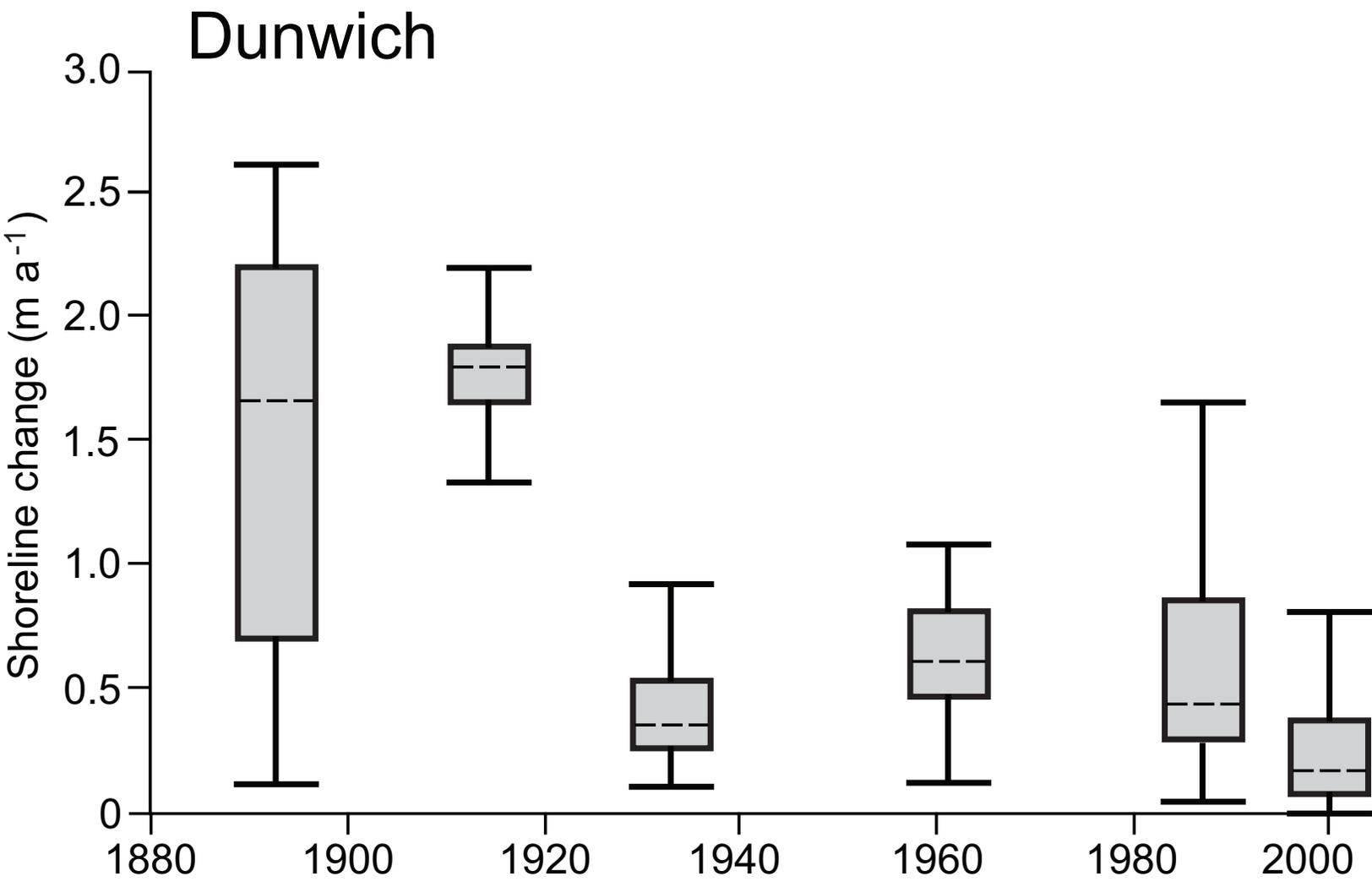


Figure 9

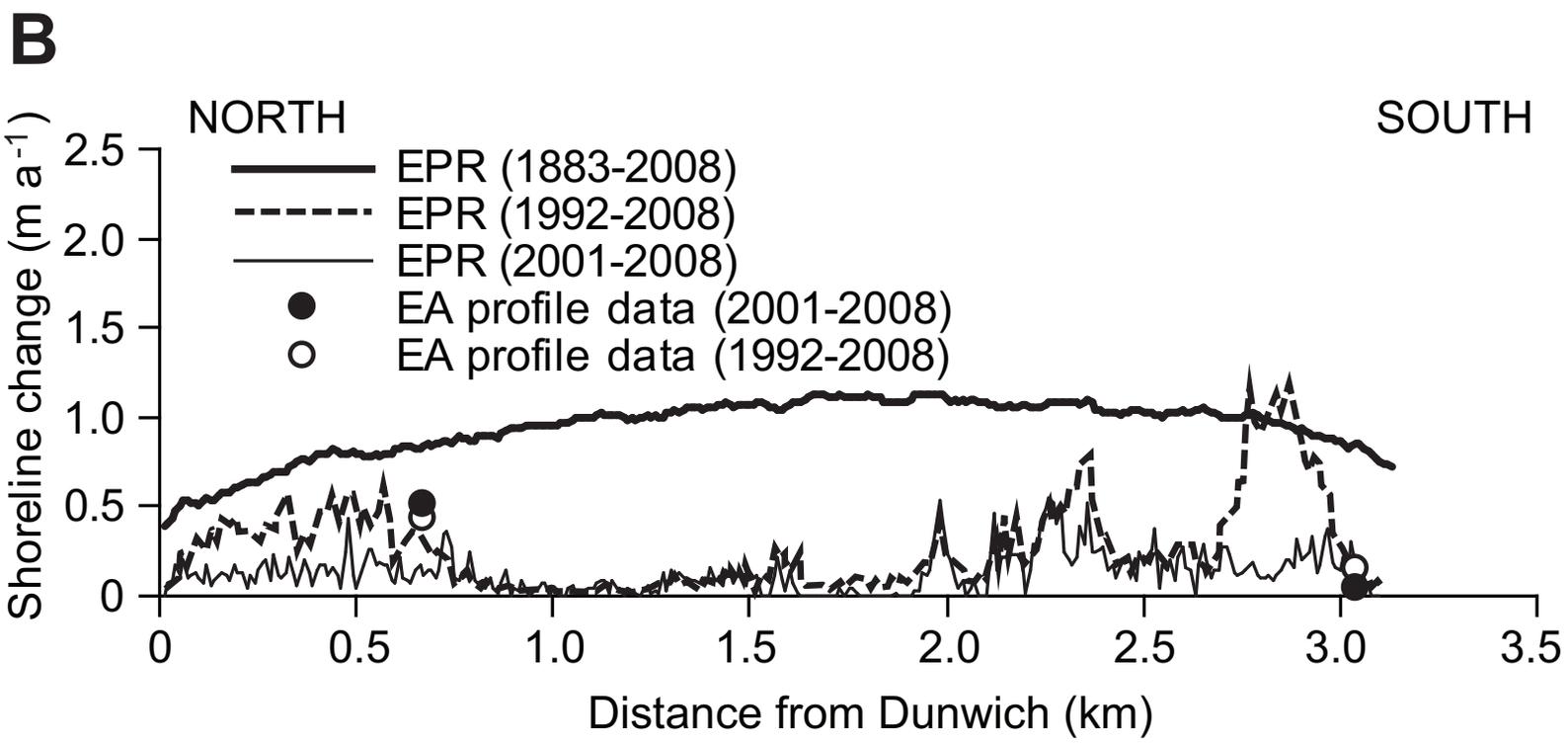
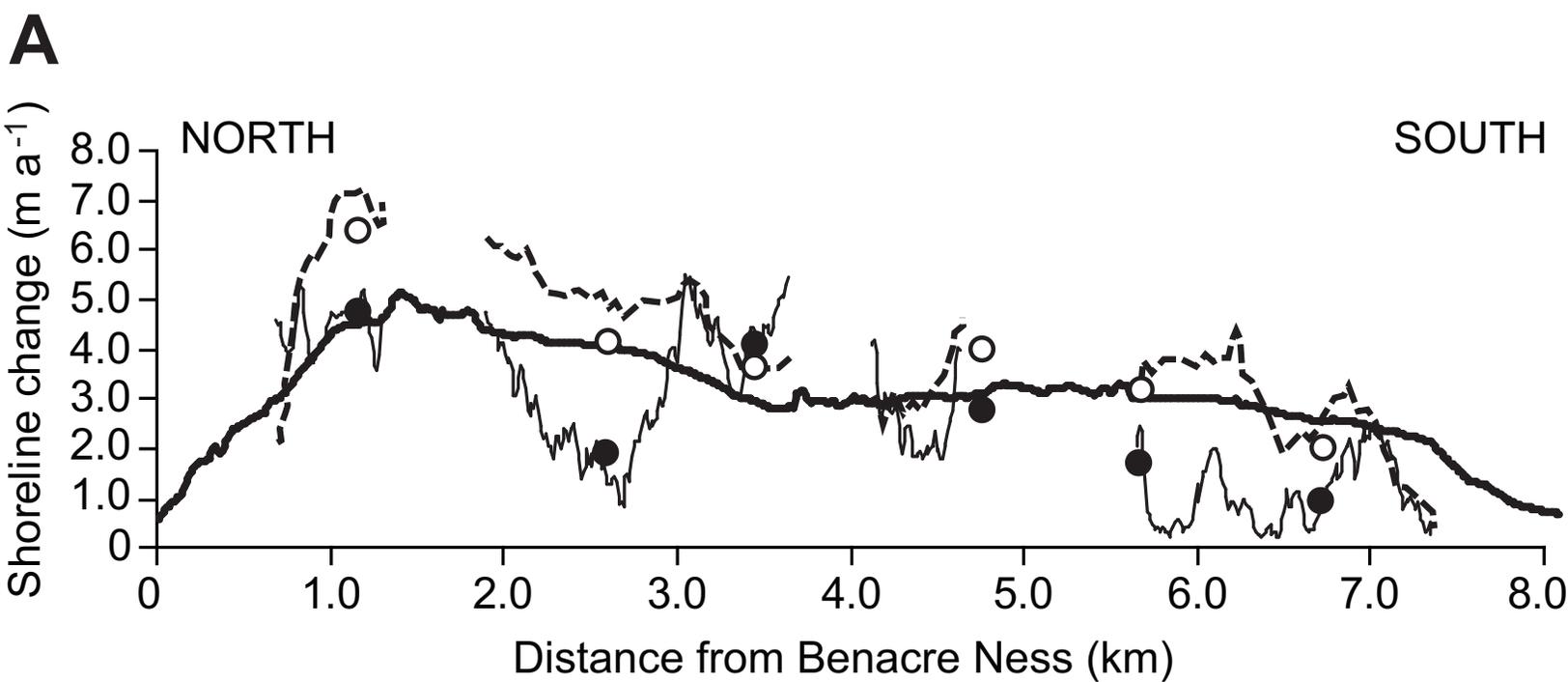


Figure 10

