

A Study on Oceanic Waves of East Coast, India

Arun Santra

Email-arunsantra682@gmail.com

Abstract

India has a total coastline length of about 7,516 km that includes 2545 km on the East Coast. Various coastal extensions formed at different time scales produce endless variations in the morphologies of the coastal areas through erosion, hydrodynamic, fluvial, Aeolian, and terrestrial processes. Wave dynamics plays a vital role in the whole process. Many studies recorded changes in global wave dynamics under the climate change scenarios, however for smooth enforcing policies and the prevention of extreme coastal erosion and floods, potential changes in the local/regional wave climate are significant. This study will help in future improvements in the environment of a wave will impact the marine ecology, coastal degradation, coastal protection architecture, the activity of close/off-shore infrastructure, and coastal area management policies and may contribute to the coastal regions' potential vulnerabilities to the expected increase in sea levels. Comparing the wave climate with the two-fold trimmings indicates a rise in wave heights and cycles along most of the Indian Coast, with wave maximum heights in certain areas raised by over 30 percent. A significant result is that wave cycles are projected to rise nearly 20 percent in most areas along the East Coast, while the development of only 10 percent is expected in the West Coast. This would change the distribution of shoreline wave energy by adjustments in wave refraction and diffraction with likely consequences for the efficiency and construction of coastal infrastructure and swash-aligned beaches. In addition, the equations indicate variations in content in the directional propagation of waves. This is especially relevant when deciding the transport of long-shore sediments which may contribute to drift-aligned beaches' realignment as erosion and/or siltation issues. This research is a study on tentative contribution to the Indian Ocean region's regional environment forecasts required to prepare and mitigate climate change impacts in the future.

Keywords: Oceanic Waves, East Cost India, Coastal Erosion

1. INTRODUCTION:

The understanding of the wave climate is essential for a broad range of applications, including ocean wave analysis, coastal morphodynamics, maritime activities and offshore and coastal frameworks (Hisaki, 2018). The available data, such as in situ calculation and remotely sensed recording, has increased so that variability of wave surface properties such as wave heights, times, and directions can be defined in addition to their media. Changes in wave patterns are likely to induce changes in shoreline orientation and form balance and variability. Another significant effect of the shifting environment of waves is the disrupted coastal ecosystem (Hoogh-Guldberg and Bruno, 2010), the alteration of the nearshore coastline systems (Zacharioudaki and Reeve, 2011; Chowdhury and Behera, 2017) and variable loading on offshore infrastructure (Weisse et al., 2012). A shifting atmospheric environment may trigger a shift in the oceanic response, which is likely to indicate regional variations of the former. While global studies provide a clear indicator of general patterns, spatial heterogeneity in regional wave climates cannot be overcome. Coastal region strategy includes accurate wave climate measures to include coastal and offshore facilities control thresholds adequately. The potential area wave environment must, therefore, be forecast and the implications of its transition analyzed. Progress was also recorded on the subject in regions such as the North-East Atlantic Ocean (Izaguirre et al., 2011; Aarnes et al., 2017), the North-West Mediterranean (Casas-Prat and Sierra, 2013), the North Sea (Groll et al., 2014), the North-East Atlantic Oceans and the Mediterranean (Perez and al., 2014). In this analysis, we use the GCM wind production to model surface waves along Indian coasts and display the average wave climate in selected locations to better understand the wave parameters for efficient coastal zone management.

Studies in recent years have shown that the Indian Ocean (IO) influences the global wave atmosphere even more than was commonly believed (Schott et al., 2009). After the extreme El Niño outbreaks of 1997, resulting in hundreds of thousands of fatalities, human migration, fires in woods, severe droughts, and floods in several of the countries surrounding the IO, it was recognised that many other rare tropical IO events may have intensified El Niño's impact. The IO association with the environment is the product of global and regional seasonal changes in the wave climate. The Asian monsoon is the most strong of these interactions and produces Se (Schott et al., 2009). Hisaki et al. (2016) stated that these currents influence the coastal ocean ecosystem. The typical annual winds on the equator are also westerly in the IO area (Xie et al., 2002), as compared to the other oceans. All the phenomena

mentioned above suggest that the IO reacts differently to interannual and seasonal temperature events and the IO's reaction to shifting wave climates must be analysed separately.

Past wave climates may be analysed (sparse in time and space) or wave simulation may be studied. But future wind conditions are important to predict future waves. The winds predicted from GCMs or Regional Climate Models (RCMs) are used in this method to compel a wave model. According to McSweeney et al. (2015), however, it is necessary to choose suitable climate model(s) and representative concentration path (RCP) scenarios to deliver policy-relevant and manageable forecasts for build, review and dissemination. In Chowdhury and Behera (2018), it was concluded that RCMs struggle to provide suitable wind inputs for wave simulations over the IO. The nearshore wave climate along Indian Coast is well-known to be strongly affected by the periodic monsoon winds and the south IO's heavy swells (SIO; Aboobacker and Shanas, 2018). The tropical storms in the southeastern IO are produced in the post-summer monsoon season, which in turn reaches the Coast of India as swells, according to Mawren and Reason (2017). Wave simulations with RCM (Domain of South Asia) winds do not produce satisfactory results on the Indian Coast. Therefore, the RCP 4.5 pollution scenario used a community of GCM winds to simulate potential wave environment for the IO.

Ocean waves are typically distinguished by high wave heights when constructing coastal defence and offshore systems (H s). The mean wave path (always m) and mean wave period(T m) are both essential parameters for evaluating beach and coastal structures' reaction to wave conditions induced by accidents. Therefore, we give the average time slice of H s, T m and ~ m for the two chosen time slices as well as the cumulative wave height (Hmax) values for this analysis. In terms of convenience, we render the first portion of 2011–2040 to be "near-term" and the third time slice of 2041–2070 to be "mid-term." These values are computed both at spatial and chosen points along the Indian Coast to understand the coastal wave environment and improve local coastal zone management.

2. STUDY AREA:

The operation of strong-pressure (low and depressive) monsoon systems throughout 2009 are very low compared with previous years. Over the season only two depressions and four low-pressure areas developed over the Bay of Bengal (IMD end-of-season report). One of the deep depressions in Bengal's Bay of Northwest (NW) pushed west-west. On September 5-7, 2009, a depressed depression was developed over the Bay of Bengal on the Coast of Orissa, initially shifting the NW Wards and then west-northwest and reaching the northern Coast of Orissa at 21.5° N and 87.5° E, some 640 km from the study region. In this analysis, the southwest monsoon wind and swell characteristics are posed off Visakhapatnam, East Coast of India. The direction of the field of research is shown in fig (1). The Coast is associated with nearly identical bathymetry contours offshore in the west-south-west and east-north-east. The shoreline characterises diverse forms of sediment, such as grain sand, dispersed rocky crops, rocky protrusions and sand dunes, etc. The tides in this field are half-diurnal, with a typical spring mare range of around 1.43 m and a neap mare range of 0.54 m.



Figure 1: Study area.

3. WAVE CLIMATE:

The Eastern Coast area can be separated into two major water systems, the Northern Indian Ocean (NIO) region and the SIO, depending on its distribution through both hemispheres. The Indian Subcontinent also splits the NIO into the Arab Sea (AS) in the west and the Bay of Bengal (BoB) in the east. The contact between the ocean and land in the NIO, since the Indian subcontinent is present, affects the wave environment in this region. From June to September (JJAS), which is named the Southeast Monsoon, the West Coast of India receives an annual Monsoon, and the eastern Coast has a Monsoon from October to December (OND), which is called the North Eastern Monsoon. Monsoon waves primarily power the wave movement in the AS. The BoB has a higher cyclone frequency than AS, which decides much of the region's wave climate. Aboobacker et al. (2011) noted that the Coast of India's central west is also affected by shamal winds which occur during the winter seasons (November-March) and summer seasons (June-August). Northwestern regions are raising wave heights in the wave setting on India's central west Coast (Aboobacker and Shanasa, 2018). The swelling from SIO also plays an important role in deciding the wave environment on the Indian Coast of the NIO and the coastal wave climate.

The IO wave environment is a mixture of waves from several regional regions and numerous shifting atmospheres. As such, they are forecasting about how climate change impacts the future wave climate is not easy. It is also important to analyse improvements in the future wave environment to the regional/local scale to provide a future perspective on coastal processes such as sediment transport and their effects on shoreline evolution, coastal erosion, habitat management activities, and offshore structure architecture. Studies on potential improvements in wave parameters along the Indian Coast, which are partly inspired by this research, are currently missing. The analysis's principal objective is to ensure a stable potential prediction of the wave parameters on the Indian Coast for enhanced management and preparation. The predicted wave parameters can be used as an input into compound coastal flood models, and the intended directions for wave transport can be used to analyse the future of the sandy beaches. The anatomy of a wave has been shown in Figure 2.

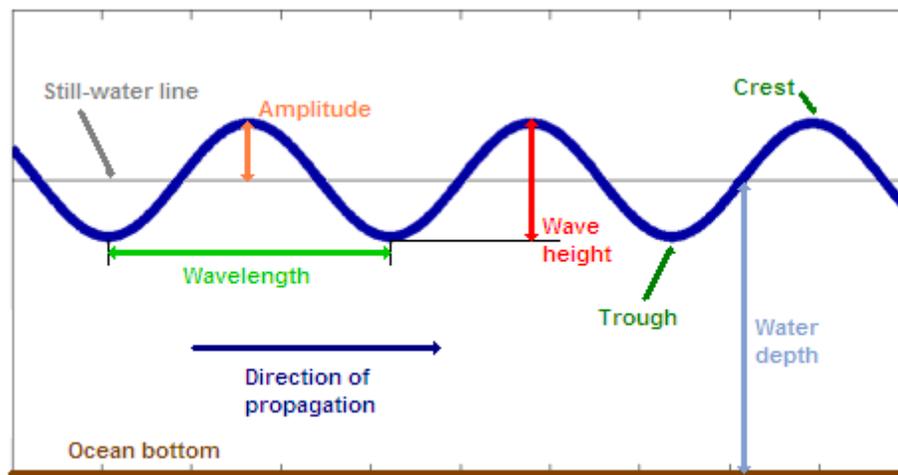


Figure 2: Anatomy of a Wave

4. DOMINANCE OF WIND SEAS AND SWELLS

Identification and isolation of wind and swell energies from the continuum calculated help one to characterise the sea state more realistically (Wang and Hwang, 2001). Using Gilhousen and Hervey (2001), the wind sea and swell parameters can be divided depending on the wave steepness algorithm. It is observed that swells are predominant during the late pre-monsoon season. Wind seas mostly dominate waves during early pre-monsoon season. However, in post-monsoon time, wind waves (45 percent) are dominated at a depth of 30 m (far off the Coast) while swells (61 percent) are dominated at a depth of 15 meters (closer to the Coast) off Dwarka. This is because NE wind seas are created and their growth is in the offshore. Enough fetch is accessible at a depth of 30 m for NE wind seas to rise compared to 15 m, and thus, at this spot, the wind energy is comparatively higher. Major mixed seas were seen in the late pre-monsoon season, while in the early pre-monsoon and post-monsoon seasons it was the least. When swells prevail, the mixed sea is fewer, and this takes place in a completely formed period. However, mixed seas still rise while the winds prevail while the waves are still in the developmental stage.

5. INTERACTION BETWEEN WIND SEAS AND SWELLS

Wind energy results in waves on the sea face, although a small percentage is transformed as wind-driven currents. The creation and development of the wave depend on wind speed, fetch and time. Sea-waves generated in a different place and had travelled far distances from their place of origin are called 'swell-waves'. The wave climate off the East Coast of India is usually rough during the southwest monsoon (June to September) and relatively calm during the rest of the year (Chandramohan et al. 1991, Nayak et al. 1992, Neetu et al. 2006).

Due to the coexistence of locally generated wind seas over preexisting swells, Goa's wave data showed diurnal shifts. Goa's quiet sea during the fair-weather season has been observed for a long time in the afternoon. Wave and model models demonstrate that coastal winds (sea breeze) converge with SW's current swell over a normal period to superimpose locally produced waves from NW. This corresponds to an apparent rise in wave height, with a formal decrease of the medium wave duration arising from the superimposition of two wave structures of entirely different dominant frequencies. The directional wave energy continuum perfectly demonstrates this in both SW and NW wind energy systems with entirely different wavelengths and directions. While comparatively moderate, the cross-sea weather would have major impacts on the local maritime operations and port management.

Conclusions:

In the Bay of Bengal, India's eastern coastal nearshore bathymetry tends to be slightly north of 18° 30'N. The topographic curve along the Coast that lives in the north's coastal area often leads to internal waves. Furthermore, in both horizontal and vertical, the northern Bay of Bengal presents a continuous salinity gradient that enhances the bathymetric effect. The wider northern tidal range also contributes to the increased prevalence of internal waves in the northwestern Bay of Bengal. The simulations are reasonably sound and definitely contribute to a qualitative understanding of inner waves' physics and phenomena. The low-frequency energy is quite well-comparable to observations in most cases. The model could resolve the oscillation frequency from the higher side to 0.162 cph, which is only 6 hours. The energy core of internal waves is essentially in the low-frequency range; however, in various experiments, the number model can reasonably well simulate the same (semi-diurnal, diurnal and inertial) and associated oscillations. In order to mention the limitations of the study, Bay of Bengal satellite data or in-situ observations are few and far between and are not sufficient to produce a definite conclusion. In order to assimilate and appreciate the dynamics of the Bay of Bengal in internal waves, we compile the available knowledge and findings of the current research. Internal waves are omnipresent in the ocean; it is true. But noticeable prevalence is not everywhere.

References:

1. Aarnes, O.J., Reistad, M., Breivik, Ø., Bitner-Gregersen, E., Ingolf Eide, L., Gramstad, O., Magnusson, A.K., Natvig, B. and Vanem, E. (2017) Projected changes in significant wave height toward the end of the 21st century: northeast Atlantic. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 122(4), 3394– 3403. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JC012521>.
2. Aboobacker, V.M. and Shanab, P.R. (2018) The climatology of shamals in the Arabian Sea—part 2: surface waves. *International Journal of Climatology*, 38, 4417– 4430. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5677>.
3. Aboobacker, V.M., Vethamony, P. and Rashmi, R. (2011) "Shamal" swells in the Arabian Sea and their influence along the west Coast of India. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 38(3), 1– 7. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010GL045736>.
4. Battjes, J.A. and Janssen, JPFM (1978) Energy loss and set-up due to wave breaking of random waves. In: *Proceedings of 16th International Conference on Coastal Engineering*. Am. Soc. of Civ. Eng., ASCE, New York, pp. 569– 587.
5. Casas-Prat, M. and Sierra, J.P. (2013) Projected future wave climate in the NW Mediterranean Sea. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 118(7), 3548– 3568. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrc.20233>.
6. Cavaleri, L., Fox-Kemper, B. and Hemer, M. (2012) Wind waves in the coupled climate system. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 93(11), 1651– 1661. <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-11-00170.1>.
7. Chowdhury, P. and Behera, MR (2017) Effect of long-term wave climate variability on longshore sediment transport along regional coastlines. *Progress in Oceanography*, 156, 145– 153. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2017.06.001>.
8. Chowdhury, P. and Behera, MR (2018) Evaluation of CMIP5 and CORDEX derived wave climate in Indian Ocean. *Climate Dynamics*, 52, 4463– 4482. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-018-4391-0>.

9. Dobrynin, M., Murawsky, J. and Yang, S. (2012) Evolution of the global wind wave climate in CMIP5 experiments. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 39(18), L18606. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012GL052843>.
10. Donat, M.G., Leckebusch, G.C., Pinto, J.G. and Ulbrich, U. (2010) European storminess and associated circulation weather types: future changes deduced from a multi-model ensemble of GCM simulations. *Climate Research*, 42(1), 27– 43.
11. Groll, N., Grabemann, I. and Gaslikova, L. (2014) North Sea wave conditions: an analysis of four transient future climate realizations. *Ocean Dynamics*, 64(1), 1– 12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-013-0666-5>.
12. Hemer, M.A., Katzfey, J. and Trenham, C.E. (2013) Global dynamical projections of surface ocean wave climate for a future high greenhouse gas emission scenario. *Ocean Modelling*, 70, 221– 245. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocemod.2012.09.008>.
13. Hisaki, Y. (2018) Wave hindcast in the North Pacific area considering the propagation of surface disturbances. *Progress in Oceanography*, 165, 332– 347. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2018.06.003>.
14. Hisaki, Y., Kashima, M. and Kojima, S. (2016) Surface current patterns observed by HF radar: methodology and analysis of currents to the north of the Yaeyama Islands, East China Sea. *Ocean Dynamics*, 66, 329– 352. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10236-016-0924-4>.
15. Hoegh-Guldberg, O. and Bruno, J.F. (2010) The impact of climate change on the world's marine ecosystems. *Science*, 328(5985), 1523– 1528. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1189930>.
16. Izaguirre, C., Méndez, F.J., Menéndez, M. and Losada, I.J. (2011) Global extreme wave height variability based on satellite data. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 38(10), L10607. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011GL047302>.
17. Kamath, A., AlaganChella, M., Bihs, H. and Arntsen, Ø.A. (2017) Energy transfer due to shoaling and decomposition of breaking and non-breaking waves over a submerged bar. *Engineering Applications of Computational Fluid Mechanics*, 11(1), 450– 466. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19942060.2017.1310671>.
18. Komen, G.J., Cavelli, L., Doneland, M., Hasselmann, K., Hasselmann, S. and Janssen, P.A.E.M. (1994) *Dynamics and Modelling of Ocean Waves*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 560 pp.
19. Kulkarni, S., Deo, M.C. and Ghosh, S. (2016) Evaluation of wind extremes and wind potential under changing climate for Indian offshore using ensemble of 10 GCMs. *Ocean and Coastal Management*, 121, 141– 152. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2015.12.008>.
20. Li, J., Chen, Y., Pan, S., Pan, Y., Fang, J. and Sowa, D.M. (2016) Estimation of mean and extreme waves in the East China Seas. *Applied Ocean Research*, 56, 35– 47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apor.2016.01.005>.
21. McSweeney, C.F., Jones, R.G., Lee, R.W. and Rowell, D.P. (2015) Selecting CMIP5 GCMs for downscaling over multiple regions. *Climate Dynamics*, 44(11–12), 3237– 3260. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-014-2418-8>.
22. Mawren, D. and Reason, C.J.C (2017) Variability of upper-ocean characteristics and tropical cyclones in the south west Indian Ocean. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 122(3), 2012– 2028. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JC012028>.
23. Mori, N., Shimura, T., Yasuda, T. and Mase, H. (2013) Multi-model climate projections of ocean surface variables under different climate scenarios—future change of waves, sea level and wind. *Ocean Engineering*, 71, 122– 129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oceaneng.2013.02.016>.
24. Moss R, Babiker M, Brinkman S, Calvo E, Carter T, Edmonds J, Elgizouli I, Emori S, Erda L, Hibbard K, Jones R, Kainuma M, Kelleher J, Lamarque JF, Manning M, Matthews B, Meehl J, Meyer L, Mitchell J, Nakicenovic N, O'Neill B, Pichs R, Riahi K, Rose S, Runci P, Stouffer R, van Vuuren C, Weyant J, Wilbanks T, van Ypersele JP, Zurek M, Birol F, Bosch P, Boucher O, Feddema J, Garg A, Gaye A, Ibararan M, La Rovere E, Metz B, Nishioka S, Pitcher H, Shindell D, Shukla PR, Snidvongs A, Thornton P, Vilariño V. (2008) *Towards New Scenarios for Analysis of Emissions, Climate Change, Impacts, and Response Strategies*. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change: Geneva; 132.
25. Patra, A. and Bhaskaran, PK (2016) Trends in wind-wave climate over the head Bay of Bengal region. *International Journal of Climatology*, 36(13), 4222– 4240. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4627>.
26. Perez, J., Menendez, M., Mendez, F.J. and Losada, I.J. (2014) Evaluating the performance of CMIP3 and CMIP5 global climate models over the north-east Atlantic region. *Climate Dynamics*, 43(9–10), 2663– 2680. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-014-2078-8>.
27. Remya, P.G., Kumar, R., Basu, S. and Sarkar, A. (2012) Wave hindcast experiments in the Indian Ocean using MIKE 21 SW model. *Journal of Earth System Science*, 121(2), 385– 392. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-012-0169-7>.

28. Sabeerali, C.T., Rao, S.A., Dhakate, A.R., Salunke, K. and Goswami, B.N. (2015) Why ensemble mean projection of South Asian monsoon rainfall by CMIP5 models is not reliable? *Climate Dynamics*, 45(1–2), 161– 174. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-014-2269-3>.
29. Schott, F.A., Xie, S.P. and McCreary, J.P. (2009) Indian Ocean circulation and climate variability. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 47(1), RG1002. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007RG000245>.