

1 **Biogeomorphological processes in an arid transgressive dunefield as indicators of human**
2 **impact by urbanization**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Urban and tourist developments can have long-lasting impacts on coastal environments and
6 fundamentally alter the evolution of coastal dune systems. This is the case of the Maspalomas
7 dunefield (Gran Canaria, Canary Islands), hosting one of the largest tourist resorts in Spain. The
8 resort was built on top of a sedimentary terrace at 25 meters above sea level (El Inglés) in the
9 1960s, and has subsequently affected local winds and therefore aeolian sediment transport
10 patterns. Buildings on the terrace deflect the winds to the south of the dunefield, where the rate
11 of sediment transport accelerated. A shadow zone appeared to the lee side of the resort with a
12 consequent decrease in wind speed and aeolian sediment transport and an increase in vegetation
13 cover. In this paper, first we characterize the environmental changes around El Inglés terrace in
14 recent decades, and describe the changes in the shadow zone through an analysis of the
15 evolution of sedimentary volumes and vegetation characteristics (density, spatial patterns, and
16 plants communities). A series of historical aerial photographs, recent orthophotos and digital
17 elevation models obtained by digital photogrammetry and LiDAR, as well as fieldwork were
18 used to characterize plant communities and spatial-temporal changes in erosive landforms.
19 Results show changes in the pattern and migration rates of dunes located at the southern edge of
20 the urbanization, as well as the formation of blowouts and large deflation areas, where the
21 vegetation increases in density and number of plant communities. We discuss eco-
22 anthropogenic factors that have produced these environmental changes.

23

24 **Keywords:** arid coastal dunes system, aeolian shadow zones, biogeomorphological evolution,
25 blowout, environmental changes, urban-tourist buildings

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28

29 1. INTRODUCTION

30

31 The coast has a great diversity of environments and resources, making it a particularly attractive
32 area for human settlements, both as a place of residence and as an ideal location for multiple
33 recreational and economic activities (Cendrero et al., 2005). The last few decades have seen an
34 accelerated *littoralisation* process (accelerated rate of human occupation at the coast) (Cerdá,
35 2002), with a significant increase in human pressure, which alters natural processes due to
36 human developments, therefore increasing the vulnerability of coastal environments, especially
37 sandy coasts (Brown and McLachlan, 2002; Martinez et al., 2006). This process has accelerated
38 on some arid coastlines, especially those with beach-dune systems, with good climate
39 conditions during the winter driving the development of both tourist and residential urbanization
40 (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014). The poor, or incorrect location of buildings and
41 infrastructure can generate serious impacts, partial to total destruction of coastal dunes and their
42 vegetation, including building on top of the dunes and interfering with natural beach-dune
43 dynamics (Cooper and McKenna, 2009; Nordstrom, 2004). This has significant implications for
44 both society and management of dunefields, decreasing the ecosystem services and the ability of
45 beach-dune systems to act as a natural coastal defense against storms (Everard et al., 2010;
46 Lique et al., 2013). It also creates a paradox, where the impacts of anthropogenic activities are
47 directed towards natural resources that are in turn the base of these anthropogenic activities
48 (Cooper and McKenna, 2008; Cabrera-Vega et al., 2013).

49 Much research has focused on human impacts on beaches and coastal dunes (Bauer, 2009;
50 Jackson and Nordstrom, 2011; Curr et al., 2000; Martinez et al., 2013 a, b) especially in
51 temperate zones. However, studies on the direct impacts of urbanization on coastal dune fields
52 landwards from the foredune are scarce (Jackson and Nordstrom, 2011; Hernández-Calvento et
53 al., 2014; Smith et al., 2017). Buildings located near or inside dune fields act as rigid and
54 impermeable structures that intrude and modify the Internal Boundary Layer (IBL) and alter
55 aeolian sediment dynamics (Nordstrom and Meluskey, 1984; Gundlach and Siah, 1987;
56 Nordstrom and Jackson, 1998; Tsoar and Blumberg, 2002; Wiedemann and Pickart, 2004).

57

58 Recent research on this topic demonstrated the effects of buildings on modifying the airflow
59 regime and aeolian sediment transport patterns reducing the wind speed by 50% in some places
60 at the dune system of Maspalomas, Gran Canaria, Spain (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014;
61 Smith et al., 2017), an excellent example of the conflict between urban-tourist development and
62 conservation (García-Romero et al., 2016). At this location, three different geomorphological
63 areas can be identified based on regional disturbances of the wind patterns: an area of air flow
64 acceleration to the south of a terrace upon which much of the tourist infrastructure has been
65 developed; and two ‘shadow’ areas in the lee-side of the urbanized area, characterized by
66 airflow deceleration, with different degrees of sedimentary stabilization and vegetation growth.
67 All these areas have been described by Hernández-Calvento et al. (2014) and Hernández-
68 Cordero et al. (2017). It has also been shown that these environmental changes have not been
69 produced by a regional climate change: according to Smith et al. (2017), the mobility index
70 (Lancaster 1988) has been maintained since the 1960’s with a value greater than 200, indicating
71 a fully active mobile dunefield or aeolian processes.

72 While airflow patterns in shadow zones within a dunefield have been described in general
73 (Hernandez-Calvento et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2017), little is known about the evolution and
74 temporal dynamics of these aeolian zones, which are determined by a combination of several
75 variables including feedbacks between topographic change, vegetation growth and aeolian
76 processes. Previous research including the combination of geomorphology and biota has aided
77 in the understanding of such dune systems (Stallins, 2006; Corenblit et al., 2011) and can
78 improve our knowledge of, for example, the operation of barrier-island dunes (Stallins, 2001;
79 2002; Stallins and Parker, 2003). Vegetation type and density becomes in these cases a good
80 indicator of environmental changes (Moreno-Casasola, 1986; Hesp, 1988; Arens, 1996;
81 Lancaster and Bass, 1998; Martinez et al., 2001; Hernández Calvento, 2006; Miot da Silva et
82 al., 2008; Hernández-Cordero et al., 2017). Similarly, comprehensive analyses of the combined
83 evolution of vegetation cover and density, plant communities and topographic changes within

84 the shadow zone can provide valuable information on how these previously active areas adapt to
85 new environmental conditions as a result of building and developing infrastructure.

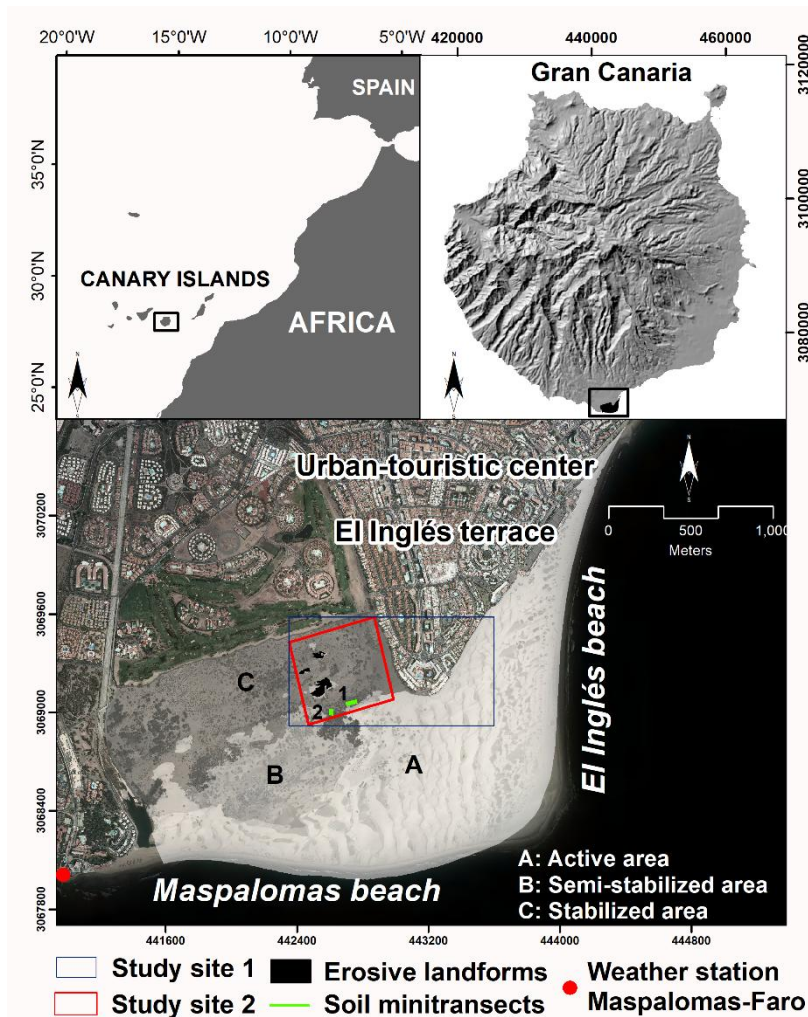
86 This paper analyses the evolution of a shadow zone within an arid transgressive dune field
87 where sediment supply was cut off following the construction of a large resort. First, we
88 quantify volumetric changes and vegetation patterns using a set of orthophotos, historical aerial
89 photographs and digital elevation models (DEMs) since the 1960s. Second, we then focus on
90 the relationship between these parameters, as well as the impact of urbanization on the overall
91 biogeomorphological evolution of this area.

92

93 **2. STUDY AREA**

94

95 The arid transgressive dunefield of Maspalomas (360.9 ha.), is located on the fan-delta of the
96 Fataga ravine at the south of Gran Canaria, in Canary Islands (Figure 1). Sediment input to the
97 dune system comes primarily from its eastern beach (El Inglés), where the foredune is located.
98 Above threshold, effective winds are $>5.1\text{m/s}$ according to Pérez-Chacón et al., (2007) and the
99 aeolian sediment transport is predominantly ENE-WSW (Máyer et al., 2012), with the sand
100 eventually returning to the sea at the southern end section of the dune system (Maspalomas
101 beach; Figure 1). One of its most foremost geomorphological features is the existence of a high
102 Pleistocene wedge-shaped terrace on its north-eastern boundary. Building of one of the largest
103 tourist resorts in Spain started in the 1960's on this terrace (Domínguez-Mujica et al., 2011),
104 with the consequent alteration of local winds and aeolian sediment transport patterns, and the
105 generation of the shadow zone studied here (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014; Smith et al.,
106 2017). A few erosive landforms have been detected in this area at a similar distance from the
107 resort (García-Romero et al., 2017). A *trough blowout* according to the classification of Hesp
108 (2002) has also been identified within these landforms (Mir-Gual et al., 2015). However, the
109 origin and evolution of these landforms have not been studied in detail.



110

111 Figure 1. Location of Maspalomas' dunefield. Areas with different aeolian sedimentary activity
 112 (Hernández-Cordero et al, 2015a) are indicated on the map (A: active area, B: semi-stabilized
 113 area, and C: stabilized area). Study site 1 for examining environmental changes around El Inglés
 114 terrace at a regional scale is indicated in blue. Study site 2 for examining the aeolian shadow
 115 zone at a local scale is indicated in red. The erosive landforms (in black) and soil mini-transects
 116 (in green) in the shadow zone are also shown.

117

118 3. METHODOLOGY

119

120 Analyses were conducted at two spatial scales and at two study sites. First, a regional scale is
 121 used to evaluate if the aeolian shadow zone could be related to disturbances of the sedimentary
 122 dynamics induced by the presence of the urban-touristic buildings, or related to a regional

123 climate change (Study site 1). Second, a local scale is used to analyze the biogeomorphological
 124 processes in the aeolian shadow zone (Study site 2).

125 The cartographic documents (aerial photographs, orthophotos and DEMs) which were used in
 126 this study are listed in Table 1.

127

128 Table 1. Cartographic documents utilized in this study.

Type (source)	Year	Spatial resolution (m)	Use
<i>Historial aerial photographs (1, 2, 3)</i>	1961 (1:5,000)	0.25	Vegetation
	1977 (1:6,500)	0.9	
	1981 (1:4,000)	0.15	
<i>Orthophotos (2, 3, 4)</i>	1987, 2003, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2017(only in the study site 2)	0.15 – 0.25	Topography
<i>DEMs (5)</i>	05/1987, 11/2003	4	
<i>DEMs (6)</i>	10/2006, 03/2009, 03/2011, 03/2015, 03/2017(only in the study site 2)	1	

(1) SDI Gran Canaria; (2) SDI Canarias-Grafcan S.A.; (3) Grupo de Geografía Física y Medio Ambiente (IOCAG, ULPGC); (4) Instituto Geográfico Nacional (IGN); (5) Photogrammetric restitution; (6) LiDAR (2006, 2009, 2011, 2015) and real photogrammetric restitution (2017) from a drone flight (file.las).

129

130 **3.1. Regional scale**

131

132 Precipitation data from the 1950s were analyzed to investigate potential changes to the amount
 133 of rainfall received by vegetation at the study sites. These could affect the growth rates of
 134 vegetation and hence alter the sedimentary dynamics at the study sites, additional to the impact
 135 of urbanization. Smith et al. (2017) observed no changes to the mobility index (Lancaster, 1988)
 136 in Maspalomas since the 1960's using data from a weather station 25 km northeast of
 137 Maspalomas. We have refined previous analyses and used data recorded by a meteorological
 138 station of the Agencia Estatal de Meteorología (Meteorology Statal Agency, AEMET)
 139 Maspalomas-Faro (Figure 1), approx. 2 km southwest of the study sites, and including some of

140 the oldest meteorological datasets on the island (since 1952). Monthly rainfall was analyzed to
141 identify potential seasonal changes. The time series were 85% complete, so some of the missing
142 data was extrapolated from two weather stations at 4 and 11 km from the study site using
143 regression analyses with R^2 of 0.94 and 0.84 respectively.

144

145 *Changes to the sedimentary dynamics*

146 Changes to the sedimentary dynamics of study site 1 were analyzed in two steps: first by
147 calculating changes in the direction of the dune brinks (i.e. the top edge of the dune slipface),
148 and, second, by calculating changes in the volume of sediments. The first step was carried out
149 by mapping dune brinks (vector lines), through visual analysis with GIS support, on the 1961
150 and 1977 aerial mosaics and on the 1987, 2003, 2009 and 2015 orthophotographs (Figure 3,
151 white lines). The direction of each dune brink (each line) was calculated using GIS tools. First,
152 the dune brink lines were converted to points, second, using the central point as the reference
153 and through near-location tools to calculate the direction of the others points corresponding to
154 each dune brink line, the mean direction was calculated to determine the main movement of the
155 dunes. Finally, to show spatially this movement an inverse distance weighting interpolation was
156 carried out, using a local sample (4 points sample), and obtaining a minimum error (4.41
157 degrees). The movement is represented by arrows every 100 meters (Figure 3, red arrows). In
158 addition, the height of the dunes is calculated through topographic profiles on the 1987, 2003,
159 2009, 2011 and 2015 LiDAR derived DEMs noted in table 1. Erosion and accumulation
160 volumes were also calculated between 2006 and 2015 from the DoDs using the methodology
161 (Geomorphic Change Detection software) developed by Weathon et al. (2010a; 2010b). DoD
162 error (%) of the erosion: 7.79 and the accumulation: 7.82 from LiDAR data (Figure 3, A).

163

164 **3.2. Local scale**

165

166 For the local scale, the study is focused on study site 2, which covers 27.76 ha inside the aeolian
167 shadow zone (Figure 1, study site 2). The medium-term evolution of this zone is characterized

168 based on three variables: spatial patterns of plant communities, vegetation density, and
169 sedimentary volumetric changes. Additionally, the shape and volume of the erosive landforms is
170 also studied. Processing and analyses were conducted using a GIS.

171

172 *Vegetation*

173 Vegetation density was calculated following the procedure developed by García-Romero et al.
174 (2018), using black and white and color historical aerial photographs and digital orthophotos
175 (table 1). The green band is the region of the visible spectrum that best captures vegetation
176 characteristics (Chuvieco, 2010) in the absence of a near infrared band (NIR). Hence, this can
177 be used to equate the behavior of digital levels with black and white historical aerial
178 photographs, and differentiate bush vegetation (low digital levels) from bare sand (high digital
179 levels). Bush plants, present in the zone, are perennial, and the method applied only detects bush
180 plants; hence there are no phenological problems associated to seasonality (García-Romero et
181 al., 2018). The digital vegetation density model was resampled to 1 m pixel resolutions so they
182 can be compared due to historical aerial photographs and orthophotos having different spatial
183 resolution, and pixels were subsequently classified into the following four categories: (1) low
184 densities, with vegetation covering between 0 and 10.65% of the area (including sand sheets and
185 isolated shrubs); (2) low-moderate densities, with vegetation covering 10.65-22.35%; (3)
186 moderate-high densities, with vegetation covering 22.35-49.26%; and (4) high densities,
187 including areas with a vegetation cover of 49.26-84.25% (García-Romero et al., 2018).

188 Changes in plant communities were characterized through elaboration of vegetation maps of the
189 years 1961, 2003 and 2017, using GIS and imagery (table 1). The plant communities' maps for
190 the years 1961 and 2003 were obtained from Hernández-Cordero et al. (2017). The vegetation
191 mapping of 2017 was developed through visual interpretation of digital orthophotos (using
192 variables such as color, size, density, texture and spatial pattern) and supported by field work.

193

194 *Topography*

195 Sediment volume changes were characterised using digital elevation models (DEMs). Two
196 DEMs were derived from digital photogrammetry (1987 and 2003), another four from LiDAR
197 (2006, 2009, 2011 and 2015) and the last one from real photogrammetric restitution on
198 photography captured by an unmanned aerial vehicle, UAV (only in the shadow zone) (Table
199 1). The latter included field control from a total station Leica TS06-laser (March, 25th 2017).
200 Occlusion-based methodology (Chang et al., 2008) was applied to produce a digital elevation
201 model (DEM) and a digital surface model (DSM).
202 DEMs of difference (DoD) were calculated from 1987 and 2003 DEMs (4 m pixel), and from
203 2006 and 2017 DEMs (1 m pixel). Although the dates of the DEMs do not coincide, it was
204 considered preferable to work with all information sources available and with the highest
205 precision in order to analyze the trends occurring in the past few decades. The DEMs and DoDs,
206 have been cleaned, corrected and calculated through Geomorphic Change Detection (GCD)
207 software, including the calculation between raw and threshold error (Wheaton et al., 2010a;
208 Wheaton et al., 2010b). DoD error (%): Accumulation (15.49) Erosion (18.32) from
209 photogrammetric restitution (Figure 5, C). DoD error (%): Accumulation (7.06) Erosion (8.80)
210 from file .las data (Figure 5, D).

211

212 *Erosive landforms characterization*

213 Erosive landforms were digitized using historical and current orthophotos and DEMs. These
214 were delimited by visual criteria through photo interpretation and using slope change analyses.

215

216 *Relationships between variables*

217 Geoprocessing tools in GIS (overlay) were used to investigate spatial trends and relationships
218 between variables. For the characterization of the relationship between vegetation and
219 topography, an algorithm implemented in GRASS software, that produces a covariate-
220 correlation matrix between raster data, was used. This analysis was carried out for the period
221 between 1987 and 2017 because DEMs were only available from this period. The areas

222 occupied by the vegetation cover each year were related to their corresponding DEM classified
223 by similar altitude intervals (m.a.s.l.).

224

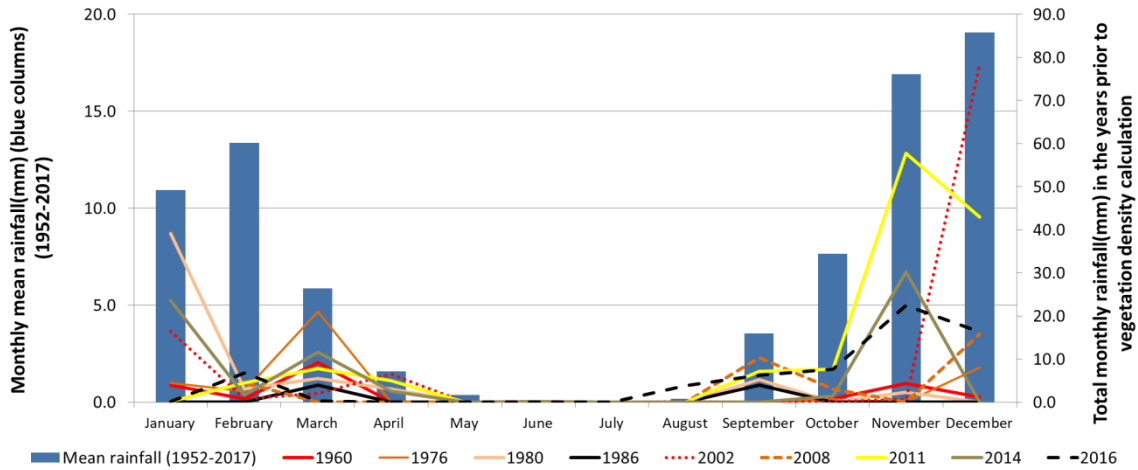
225 **4. Results**

226 **4.1. Regional scale**

227

228 *Rainfall in the Maspalomas dune system*

229 Figure 2 shows the monthly mean rainfall from 1952 to 2017. Rainfall is concentrated in winter
230 and autumn months (November- February). Little rain occurs in spring (0.4-5.9 mm), and in
231 summer the rainfall is close to zero. The total monthly rainfall in the year before the vegetation
232 density calculation is also shown in figure 2. Temporal patterns are similar to the ones for
233 monthly mean rainfall using the entire data set (1952-2017), with rainfall concentrated in winter
234 and autumn. The years 1960 and 1976 were dry with no rainy months. 1980 was also a dry year
235 although in January rainfall reached 39.1 mm. 1986 was also a dry year with rain only in March
236 and September (4 mm). In 2002, December was the highest rainfall (78.3 mm) registered in a
237 month, but the rest of the year the rainfall was not significant. 2008 was also a dry year, with
238 December being the rainiest month (15.3 mm). 2011 was the rainiest year, with a total of 132.7
239 mm year, with November the rainiest month (57.7 mm), followed by December (42.9 mm).
240 Finally, 2014 and 2016 were dry years with November having the highest rainfall recorded,
241 with 30.2 and 22.4 mm respectively. In general, they are dry years, with rainfall concentrated in
242 one month, except 2011, with two rainy months.



243

244 Figure 2. Monthly mean rainfall between 1952 and 2017 (blue columns). Total monthly rainfall
 245 in the years prior to vegetation density calculation (lines).

246

247 *Changes in the sedimentary dynamics*

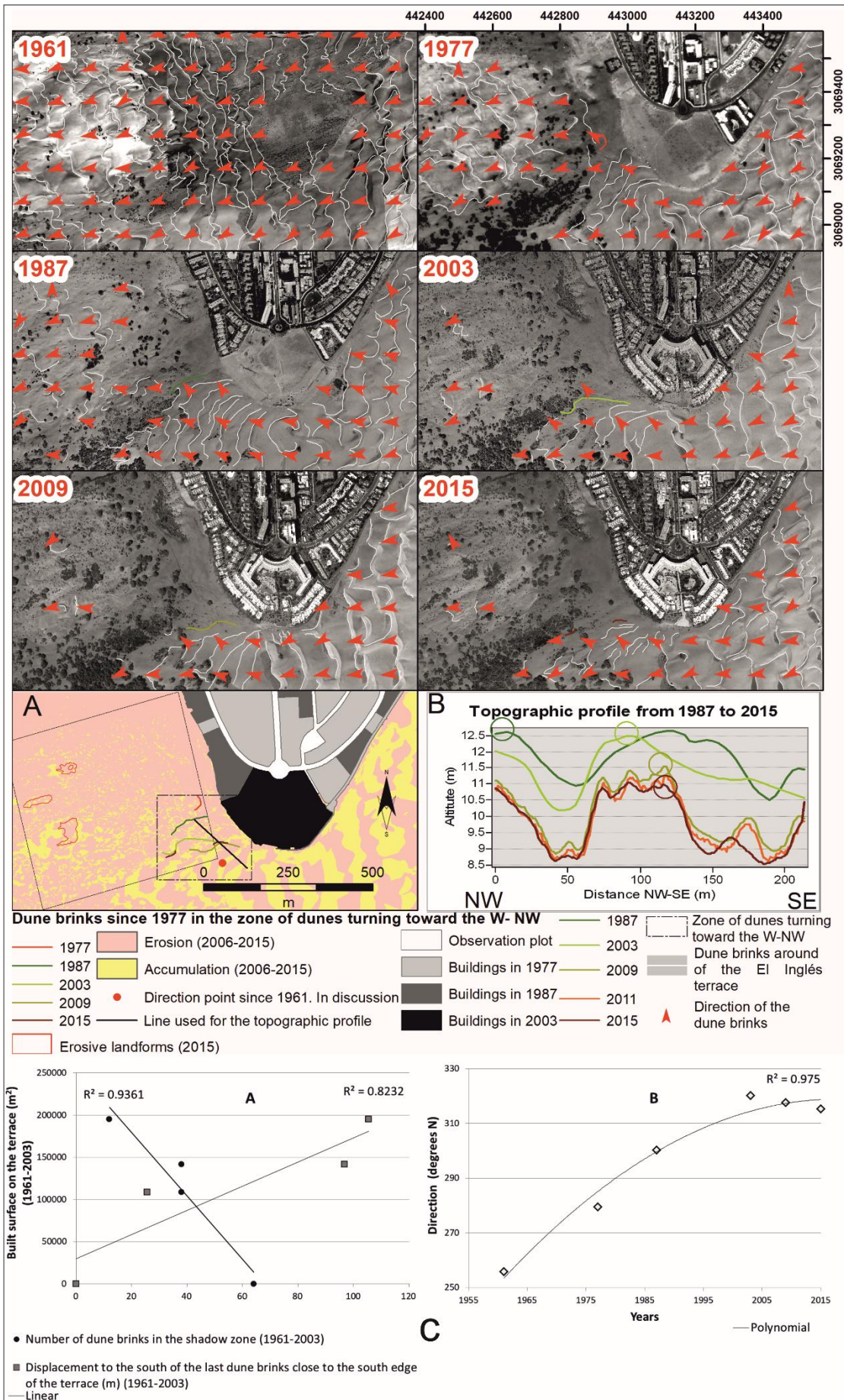
248 Figure 3 shows results for the directions of dune movement indicated by dune brink orientations
 249 and their volumes calculated within study site 1. In 1961 the main dune directions were ENE-
 250 WSW, with only a few dune brinks facing E-W. This year dune brinks were detected practically
 251 throughout the entire area, and continuous, linked barchanoid dunes displayed along-brink
 252 lengths of up to 640 m. Where continuous dune brinks were not observed, Hernández-Cordero
 253 et al. (2018) mapped cliff-top dunes formed by nebkha dunes (not barchanoid dunes) which
 254 were removed to gain agricultural land (Hernández-Calvento. 2006). In 1977, when construction
 255 had occurred on a large part of the terrace, the number of dunes and dune brinks was reduced,
 256 and the maximum brink length is around 360 m. Dune continuity was therefore beginning to
 257 break up. As for the direction of dune movement, three sectors can be observed: i) the dune
 258 brinks to the east and south of the terrace face to the ENE-WSW direction, although some of
 259 them are oriented to the E-W, especially those closest to the terrace; ii) the second sector is
 260 formed by the dunes closer to the southern edge of the terrace. Their dune brinks are clearly
 261 oriented to the W-NW; iii) finally, the dune brinks in the current shadow zone of the terrace
 262 display both orientations, E-W and ENE-WSW. Similar aspects can be identified in 1987,

263 although there is more infrastructure present on the terrace, and the eastern and western sides
264 have been completely occupied by urban development (Figure 3, A). Also on the southern edge
265 of the terrace, the dunes show some changes: the last dune brink facing E-W is located 30 m to
266 the south in relation to the last brink in 1977 (Figure 3, A), and the number of dunes moving
267 westward has reduced slightly. In 2003 the terrace is fully covered with built structures (Figure
268 3, A), and the orientations of the dune brinks maintain the same pattern as in 1987. In addition,
269 the last dune brink facing W-NW is now about 105 meters south of the last dune brink in 1987.
270 Also the number of dunes in the aeolian shadow zone (in the west) have reduced. The same
271 tendency can be seen in the images of 2009 and 2015.

272

273 *Topographic changes around El Inglés terrace*

274 From the DoD between 2006 and 2015 DEMs, three different zones can be observed (Figure 3,
275 A): i) to the east and south of the terrace, accumulation processes predominate over erosion; ii)
276 the erosion predominates in practically the entire shadow zone; iii) erosion predominates on the
277 southern edge of the terrace, as shown in the profile between 1987 and 2015 (Figure 3, B).
278 Elevation differences range from 1 m in some areas and up to 3.5 m height at 150 m from the
279 profile in the NW-SE direction. The circles on the profiles show where the last dune brinks in
280 the zone where the dunes turn to the W-NW were/are located. The location of the circles
281 indicate a migration to the southern edge of the terrace (125 m). The lower height of these dunes
282 also indicates a reduction in the transport of sediments toward the shadow zone since 2003
283 (Figure 3, 2003).



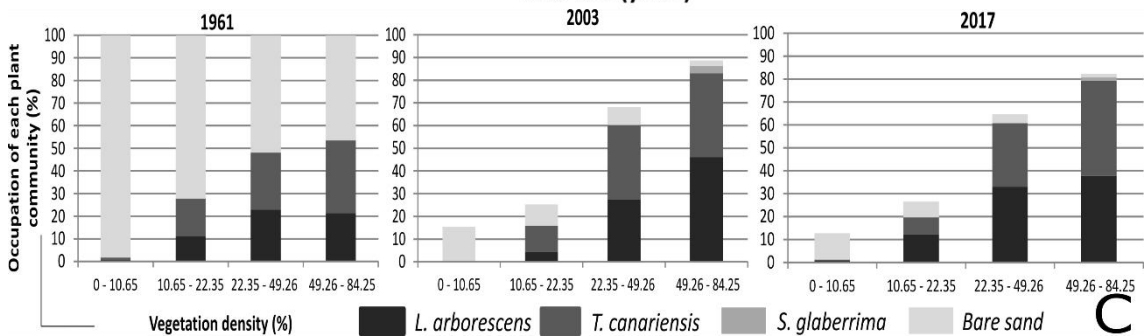
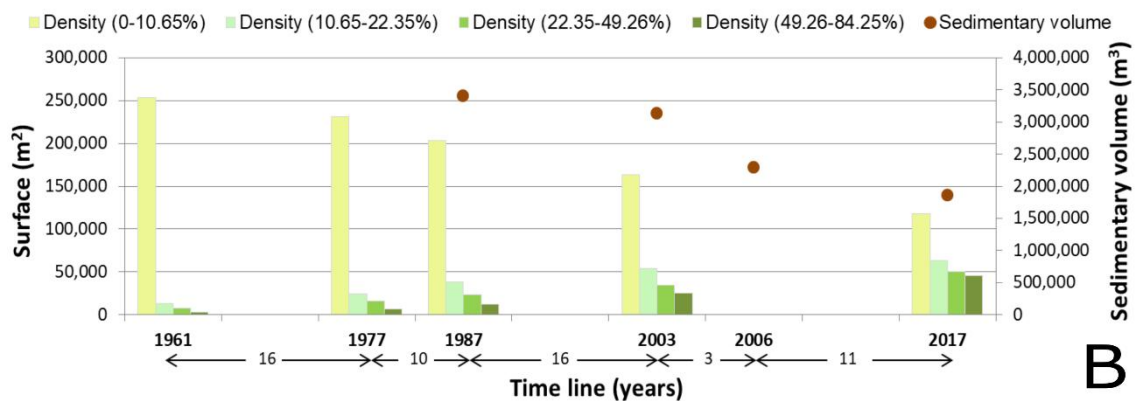
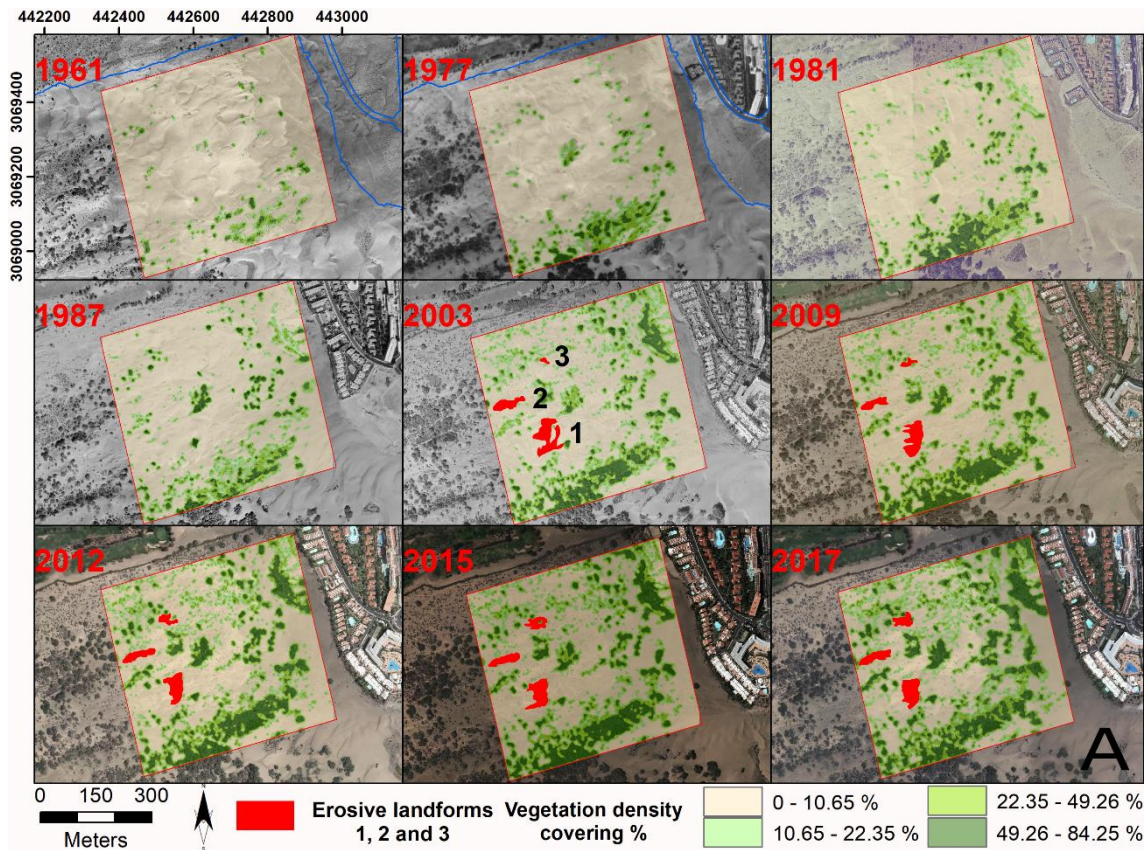
285 Figure 3. Changes in the orientation of the dune brinks and in the dune heights in relation with
286 the building development on El Inglés terrace. C (left, A) Disappearance of the dune brinks in
287 the shadow zone and displacement to the south of the last dune brinks close to the south edge of
288 the terrace, while increasing the built surface on El Inglés terrace. C (right, B) Changes in the
289 direction of the dune brinks (red point in the figure 3, A) close to the southern edge of the
290 terrace over the years before, and during which construction occurred on the El Inglés terrace.
291

292 **4.2. Local scale**

293

294 *Vegetation density in the aeolian shadow zone*

295 Figure 4 shows an increase in vegetation density from 1961 to 2017. 1961 was characterized by
296 lower vegetation densities (0-10.65) and isolated plants, with some aggregate units to the south
297 of the study area. Vegetation density was highest in 2017 where the category 1 (lower
298 vegetation density) decreased -53.58%, while the categories 2, 3 and 4 increased 368.62%,
299 574.51% and 1513.64% respectively, with the species *Tamarix canariensis* and *Launaea*
300 *arborescens* dominating the area (Figure 4, C).



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Figure 4. Evolution of the vegetation density in study site 2. The three erosive landforms first detected in 2003 are shown in red. B: Changes in the vegetation density per categories and variation of the sedimentary volume in the study site. C. Evolution of plant communities and vegetation density in the study site.

306 Vegetation growth was mainly concentrated in the southern and central areas of the study site
 307 between 1961 and 1977. In 1981, isolated plants started to grow to the east, close to the resort.
 308 Moderate-high and high vegetation densities increased to the north of the study area, close to
 309 the golf course bordering the plot, from 2003-2009, with the remaining of the study period
 310 characterized by a general increase in vegetation densities everywhere within the study site
 311 (Figure 4, A).

312

313 *Plant communities and bare sand in the aeolian shadow zone*

314 Vegetation spread widely at the study site from 1961 to 2017 (Figure 4, A) which lost up to
 315 92.28% of the original bare and mobile sand in 56 years (at a rate of 1.6% bare sand loss per
 316 year) (Table 2). Only two plant communities were identified in 1961: *Launaea arborescens*
 317 (xerophilous low shrub), principally located in dry slacks in stabilized and mobile dunes, and
 318 *Tamarix canariensis* (hygrophilous low tree), a typical plant community of wet slacks in
 319 mobile, semi-stabilized and stabilized dunes. In 2003, six additional plant communities were
 320 identified: *Cyperus capitatus-Ononis tournefortii* (psammophilous perennial rhizomatous forb;
 321 psammophilous annual forb), belonging to stabilized dunes; *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*
 322 (nitrophilous annual forb); *Aizoon canariense* (nitrophilous annual forb); *Volutaria canariensis*
 323 (annual forb); *Cenchrus ciliaris* (perennial grass) and *Schizogyne glaberrima* (xerophilous low
 324 shrub), belonging to ruderal areas. All plant communities expanded spatially from 2003 to 2017,
 325 especially the *Cyperus capitatus-Ononis tournefortii* community.

326 Table 2. Changes of the plant communities since 1961 in the aeolian shadow zone.

Plant community	Surface area 1961		Surface area 2003		Surface area 2017		Variation (1961-2017)	
	m ²	%	m ²	%	m ²	%	m ²	%
<i>A. canariense</i>	0.00	0.00	987.26	0.36	960.64	0.35	960.64	100
<i>C. ciliaris</i>	0.00	0.00	262.03	0.09	287.66	0.10	287.66	100
<i>C. capitatus-O. tournefortii</i>	0.00	0.00	190505.87	68.60	173370.23	62.43	173370.23	100
<i>L. arborescens</i>	5420.39	1.95	23685.71	8.53	42893.46	15.45	37473.07	691
<i>M. crystallinum</i>	0.00	0.00	544.31	0.20	510.42	0.18	510.42	100
<i>S. glaberrima</i>	0.00	0.00	904.46	0.33	873.41	0.31	873.41	100

<i>T. canariensis</i>	7795.71	2.81	27299.48	9.83	38126.84	13.73	30331.13	389
<i>V. canariensis</i>	0.00	0.00	224.98	0.08	261.00	0.09	261.00	100
Bare sand	264474.01	95.24	33276.02	11.98	20406.43	7.35	-244067.58	-92

327

328 *Relationships between vegetation density and plant communities in the aeolian shadow zone*

329 The relationships between vegetation density and plant communities were analyzed to identify
330 which communities expanded the most and were more competitive (Figure 4, C). In 1961, only
331 two shrub plant communities were detected (*Tamarix canariensis* and *Launaea arborescens*)
332 scattered all over the study plot (Hernández-Cordero et al., 2017), but forming some groups to
333 the south of it. Bare sand occupied a large part of the low densities range (0-10.65) as one
334 would expect. In 2003, the bare sand had practically disappeared, occupying just around 15% of
335 the lower density range. *Tamarix canariensis* is the community that occupied the most area in
336 the intermediate densities, followed by *Launaea arborescens*. This last community represents
337 the highest density range, followed by *Tamarix canariensis*. That year (2003), a new shrub
338 community was detected, the *Schizogyne glaberrima* community, represented also in the highest
339 density range. These trends are similar in 2017, but with some differences: bare sand has
340 decreased; the *Tamarix canariensis* community has decreased in the highest densities range,
341 while the *Launaea arborescens* community has increased in this range, so both communities
342 have a similar percent cover. Finally, in contrast with 2003, the *Schizogyne glaberrima*
343 community has lost cover in the highest density range.

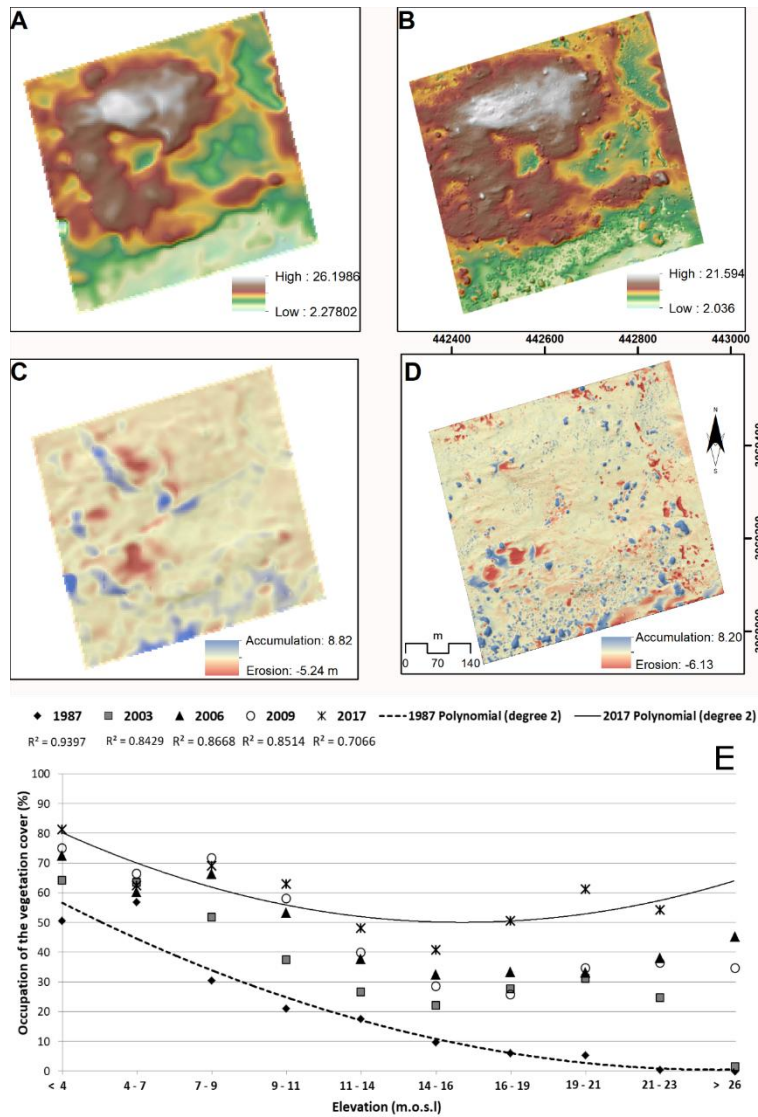
344

345 *Volumetric changes in the aeolian shadow zone*

346 Study site 2 shows a negative sediment budget between 1987 and 2017 (Figure 4, B). The
347 largest erosion rate was registered between 2003 and 2006. Sediment losses of up to 279,445.68
348 m³ (8.19% of its volume above 0 m.a.s.l.) between 1987 and 2003. Erosion was larger from
349 2006 to 2017, with a deficit of 429,791.27 m³ (18.76% of the total sand volume in the study site
350 2; García-Romero et al., 2017). Some sediment accumulation areas are observed locally in
351 zones with topographic lows or dense vegetation, or both. A substantial amount of these

352 accumulation areas are located to the southwest of erosional ones (Figure 5 C, D). Since
 353 regional predominant winds in this area are ENE-WSW, these particular spatial patterns indicate
 354 active aeolian processes in this shadow zone, with wind erosion, sediment transport, and surface
 355 growth as a result of sand accumulation towards the W and in the direction of the predominant
 356 winds.

357 In the erosive zones there is a sector (to the west and southwest of the study site 2) with
 358 significant erosion (Figure 5 C, D). In this sector there have been losses of around 5 and 6
 359 meters depth and these coincide with the erosive landforms that will be explained in the next
 360 section.



361

362 Figure 5. A. DEM in 1987 (resolution: 4 m); B. DEM in 2017 (resolution: 1 m); C. Net
363 topographic changes for the period of 1987 to 2003 (resolution: 4 m); D. Net topographic
364 changes between 2006 and 2017 (resolution: 1 m); E. Relationship between the vegetation cover
365 (%) and elevations in in study site 2. The < 4m altitude zone shows a greater percentage
366 vegetation cover compared to the zone above 26m in 1987. In 2017, the highest elevations do
367 not reach 26 m.a.s.l., and for this reason there are no vegetation data.

368

369

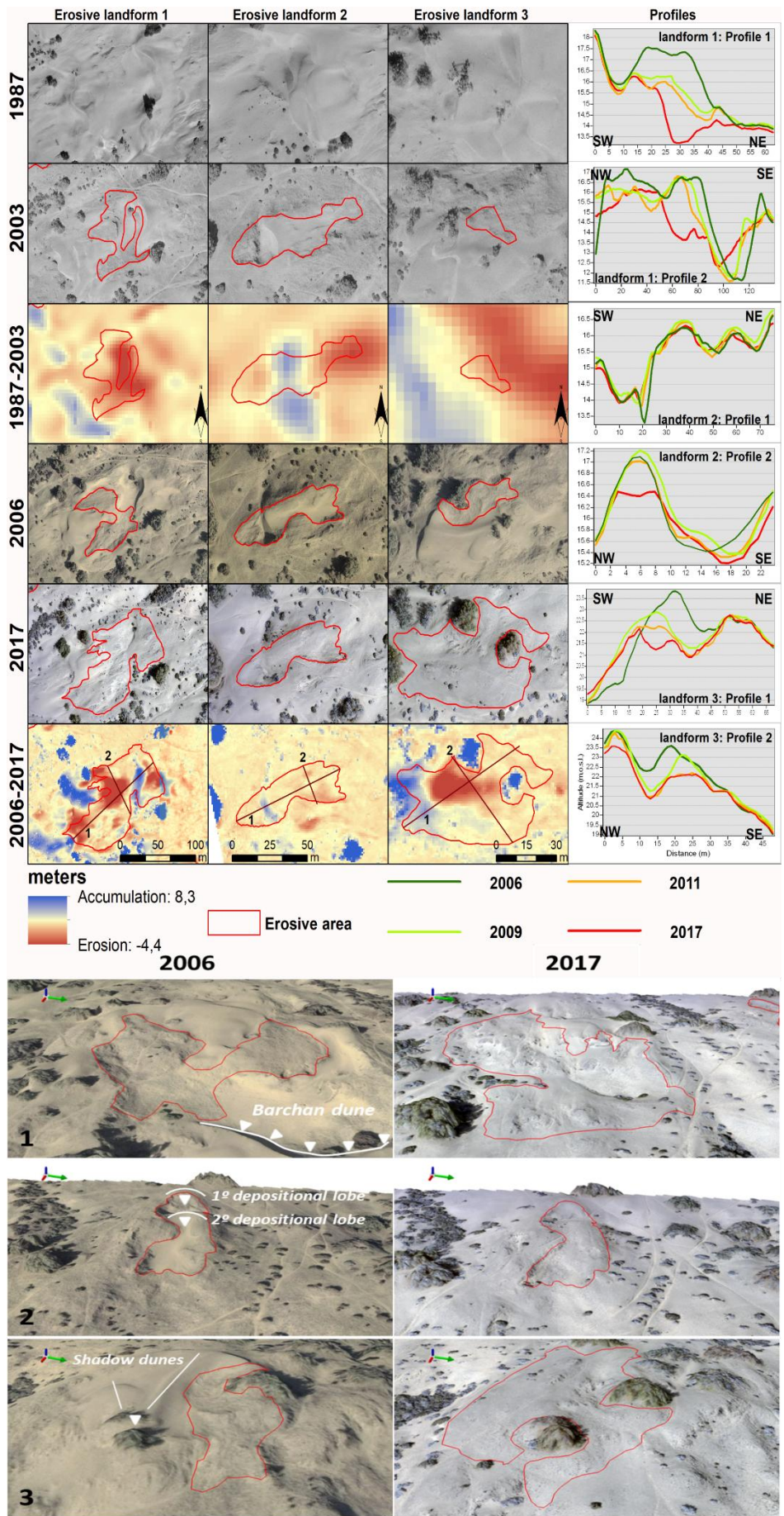
370 *Relationships between vegetation and topography in the aeolian shadow zone*

371 The vegetation cover has increased from 1961 to 2017. As shown in figure 5, E, there is a
372 relationship between the topography of study site 2 and the increase in the vegetation cover
373 from 1987 (first DEM available) to 2017 (last DEM obtained from drone flight). The graph
374 shows that the tendency of vegetation in 1987 was to occupy the lowest elevations, while its
375 presence in relatively high elevations is not significant. However, from 2003 to 2017, vegetation
376 has not only increased its cover at lower elevations by 30%, but also it has done so in the rest of
377 study site 2. Currently, this trend has changed and vegetation also colonizes higher elevations,
378 although between 4 and 7 m.a.s.l. the increase in the vegetation cover has been insignificant.

379

380 *Erosive landform evolution*

381 Since 2003 three erosional landforms were detected at a similar distance from the urbanization
382 area, with an ENE-WSW direction (Figure 1 and 4; erosive landforms 1, 2 and 3). These
383 landforms experienced an increase in surface area and a decrease in volume between 1987 and
384 2017 (Figure 6). They have different morphologies: landform 2 is a trough blowout with a
385 relatively stable shape over time. Landforms 1 and 3 are characterized by aeolian deflation
386 surfaces characterised by exhumation of plant roots, but little development yet of actual
387 blowouts. The sediment eroded from these landforms was deposited around the shrub vegetation
388 that has grown downwind of them.



390 Figure 6. Surface area (in red) and height evolution of the erosional surfaces and landforms
391 between 1987 and 2017 (illustrated in the photographs). Topographic profiles (right hand
392 column) showing differences in elevation from 2006 (dark green) to 2017 (red). 1-3. Erosive
393 landforms in 2006 and 2017. 1. Erosive landform 1 has increased in aeolian deflation area while
394 accumulation landforms, such as a barchan dune, have disappeared or stabilized (pictures 1 and
395 2 are not at the same scale because there is more visible erosional area in 2017). 2. *Trough*
396 *blowout* with two depositional lobes. 3. Erosional landform 3 has increased the deflation area
397 while accumulation landforms, such as shadow dunes, have disappeared. In landforms 1 and 3
398 the scale is different between 2006 and 2017 (lower in 2017) because the deflation areas have
399 increased by the second date.

400 3D views of the erosional surfaces in 2006 and 2017 can be observed in figure 6, 1-3. Erosional
401 surface 1 shows considerable spatial change and it has increased in deflation area, while the
402 principal downwind accumulation landform, present as a barchan dune in 2006 (Figure 6-1,
403 right and bottom) has been stabilized in 2017 due to plant colonization, especially by
404 herbaceous plants. The volumetric deficit measured in the area is 924.23 m^3 (-24.11%). Blowout
405 No. 2 (Figure 6-2) has maintained a similar surface area over time but has eroded by 557.35 m^3
406 (-20.19%). Two depositional lobes are associated with this blowout. The erosional deflation
407 surface 3 has increased while adjacent accumulation landforms, such as the shadow dunes
408 (Figure 6-3) have disappeared or stabilized. The sedimentary volume has decreased by 73.46 m^3
409 (-33.42%).

410

411 **5. Discussion**

412 **5.1. Changes to environmental conditions in the Maspalomas dune system**

413

414 In line with previous climate studies (Smith et al., 2017), there were no significant changes in
415 precipitation levels or patterns from the 1950's in the study area. Figure 2 shows that 1960,

416 1976, 1980, 1986, 2008, 2014 and 2016 were dry years but these were linked to increasing
417 trends in vegetation density. In 2002 and 2011 there was high rainfall but this was mainly
418 concentrated in one or two months (November and December), with close to zero rainfall from
419 April to September as is characteristic of arid climates (Köppen, 1990).

420 In contrast, the development of the urban-tourist infrastructure has been significant as shown in
421 Figure 3, and appears to have been a primary control on the sedimentary dynamics of the dune
422 field. First, the buildings occupied a section of the old bypass dune system on the top of the
423 terrace (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014, García-Romero et al., 2016, Hernández-Cordero et al.,
424 2018). Second, dune directions and movement trends changed around the terrace following
425 development with dune migration directions being steered by the infrastructure as it developed.

426 The geomorphology of the dunes in the shadow zone have changed also, with the number of
427 free and mobile dunes decreasing at site 2 simultaneously with an increase in the number of
428 buildings on El Inglés terrace (Figure 3, C:A). This decrease can be explained by the changes
429 which occurred on the southern edge of the terrace. In this area, the dunes moved to the SW
430 before the terrace was built. The construction of new buildings in the 1970's created a barrier to
431 dune movement, with dunes being deflected around the edge of the terrace and adopting new
432 migration directions towards the W-NW as indicated by dune crest and brinkline orientations in
433 Figure 3. New constructions at the southern edge of the terrace in 1989 had a marked impact on
434 decreasing the number of actively moving dunes (Figure 3, C: B). In the last 13 years, the trend
435 of the dune brinks is not to turn towards the W-NW but instead take a W-WSW direction. This
436 new turn is accompanied by the movement of the dune brinks towards the southern edge of the
437 terrace (Figure 3, C: B), and causing the movement of these active landforms away from the
438 terrace, and a decrease in the sediment inputs to the current shadow zone. These changes are
439 related with changes in the direction of the wind flow, as Smith et al. (2017) explain. Since the
440 original dune migration path across the terrace has been eliminated by development, and the
441 further infrastructure changes have produced a marked shadow zone, dunes can no longer
442 migrate into the shadow zone region. In consequence, vegetation growth has occurred
443 stabilising the region. The existence of some wind corridors between the buildings on the

444 terrace induces limited sand transport in the shadow zone, but overall there is a net reduction in
445 the volume of sand being transported through this portion of the dunefield. In summary, the
446 construction of buildings at Maspalomas has generated an erosive (negative budget) zone in an
447 area that was previously active and had pronounced dune mobility and dynamic aeolian activity.

448

449 **5.2. Spatio-temporal trends in vegetation cover in the aeolian shadow zone and their** 450 **relationship with the topography**

451

452 The results show that the vegetation density has increased between 1961 and 2017. This is
453 common in places where the wind regime has been altered by buildings (Nordstrom and
454 McCluskey, 1985; Nordstrom, 1994), leading to a stabilized dune area (Hernández-Calvento et
455 al., 2014; Hernández-Cordero et al., 2015a). This is unlike other studies, for example, in Israel,
456 where plant colonization was promoted by agricultural and pastoral activity, producing a
457 negative rate in dune advance (Tsoar and Blumberg, 2002), and in China, where the vegetation
458 cover has increased due to the decadal changes in wind strength, interannual fluctuations in
459 precipitation, and large ecological restoration projects implemented in recent decades (Xu et al.,
460 2018). Results of this study indicate that medium to high density vegetation does not first
461 appear close to buildings, but rather to the south and in the central areas of the study site further
462 away from urbanization. This trend could be related to the topography, because these areas are
463 located in the lower elevation and deflation zones (Figure 5, E) where one would expect more
464 shallow sub-surface moisture. Additionally, findings by Hernández-Cordero (2012) across
465 transects in figure 1 and Table 3 suggest a strong correlation between vegetation species and
466 water table heights leading to differences in soil characteristics potentially involved in this
467 process. *Tamarix canariensis* and *Launaea arborescens* communities and *Launaea arborescens*
468 and *Schizogyne glaberrima* communities predominated in areas with a higher water table. Both
469 communities first colonized slack and deflation areas with higher water tables than adjacent
470 areas with lower water tables, and soil and stratigraphic type then determined community type.
471 Slacks or deflation and interdune zones are fundamental sites for plant colonization in mobile

472 dune fields such as Maspalomas (Hernández-Cordero et al., 2015b) and elsewhere in
 473 transgressive dunefields (Hesp et al., 2011; Hesp, 2013). However, since the 1970's and more
 474 clearly during the 1980s, dense vegetation began to colonize other areas closer to buildings. As
 475 shown in figure 5 E, plants first occupied lower elevations followed by higher elevations. Some
 476 of this could be related to aeolian deflation and dune erosion because these result in the local
 477 groundwater table being relatively closer to the surface hence increasing moisture availability to
 478 plants. A reduction in the process of plant burial has also likely favored plant colonization, since
 479 high rates of dune migration and arid climates are the main constraints of vegetation growth in
 480 mobile dunes at Maspalomas (Hernández-Cordero et al., 2015b; Hernández-Cordero et al.,
 481 2017). Additionally, human activities such as garden irrigation and/or the presence of adjacent
 482 golf courses could also have favored vegetation growth similar to other sites in Argentina and
 483 Germany (Grunewald, 2006; Grunewald and Schubert, 2007; Faggi and Dadon, 2010, 2011).

484
 485 Table 3. Soil characteristics in the south of study site 2 (Adapted from Hernández-Cordero,
 486 2012).

Transect (with 2 extractions of 125 cm depth)	Plant communities	Soil layers composition
1	- <i>Launaea arborescens</i> - <i>Schizogyne glaberrima</i>	- 0-5 cm (dry sand) - 5-7 cm and 5-36 cm (wet sand) - >7 cm (wet alluvial deposit) and >36 (wet sand with rocks)
2	- <i>Tamarix canariensis</i> - <i>Launaea arborescens</i>	- 0-8 and 0-10 cm (dry sand) - 8-84 cm and 10-85 cm (wet sand) - > 84 cm (wet alluvial deposit with rocks) and >85 cm (water)

487
 488 Before the tourist development (post- 1970) mobile dunes were present and migrating
 489 downwind of El Inglés high terrace. At the beginning of the study only two plant communities
 490 where found, formed by one bush species and one tree species. As described above, the
 491 construction of new buildings in the 1970s blocked aeolian transport and slowed down dune
 492 migration leeward of the terrace, with vegetation burial being now produced only by local re-
 493 mobilization of sand deposits. A total of eight plant communities have colonized study site 2
 494 since then with marked growth during the 1970's and 1980's. The community that has

495 experienced the greatest expansion has been the *Cyperus capitatus-Ononis tournefortii*
496 community, herbaceous species very common in the dune systems of the Canary Islands (Del
497 Arco Aguilar et al., 2010). Hernández-Cordero et al. (2017) suggested that this plant community
498 benefits and expands the most in stabilized and semi-stabilized dunes of Maspalomas, being a
499 clear indicator of the stabilization of the dune system. This is contrary to what happens in
500 stabilization areas in other climatic regions, such as Israel, where stabilization is produced by
501 shrub species (Levin et al., 2008). *Cyperus capitatus* is thus a pioneer species in the
502 colonization of semi-stabilized dunes in the Canaries (Hernández-Cordero, 2012; Hernández-
503 Cordero et al., 2015a). This species is the only psammophilous perennial rhizomatous species in
504 study site 2, what likely favors its colonization ability. In dune systems, water and nutrient
505 resources are usually very limited, so the clonal growth of these species, mainly through the
506 production of rhizomes, contributes more to the colonization of plants than the reproduction of
507 seeds (Dong and Alaten, 1999). So the responsiveness of clonal growth, due to the scarcity of
508 resources, may allow the rapid occupation of new habitats by plants (Cook 1985; De Kroon and
509 Van Groenendael 1990; Hutchings and De Kroon 1994). *Launaea arborescens* is the second
510 plant community that has increased its cover in the study site 2, as it has in the rest of the
511 Maspalomas dune system, according to Hernández-Cordero et al. (2017). This growth has taken
512 place especially in the new stabilized dunes, but also in ruderal areas due its ecological plasticity
513 (Hernández-Cordero et al., 2017). The *Tamarix canariensis* community has also shown an
514 increase in cover and again is strongly related to the deflation which has occurred in the study
515 area The rest of the plant communities began appearing after 2003 and their increase in cover,
516 although not significant, is observed mainly near, or downwind of the infrastructure/developed
517 area further indicating the impact that development has had on plant growth.

518 The evident plant colonization shows a decrease in the low vegetation density range (0-10.65),
519 which corresponds to bare sand and isolated individuals of plants. However, among the shrub
520 communities that have been detected, and could be related to vegetation density (due to the
521 limitations of the procedure for calculating this last variable) the *Launaea arborescens* and

522 *Tamarix canariensis* communities have been remarkable in colonizing the dune system and
523 establishing intermediate and high density covers. Each community replaced the other
524 community, especially the *Tamarix canariensis* community by the *Launaea arborescens*
525 community, as also detected by Hernández-Cordero et al. (2017), even in the stabilized areas. In
526 the case addressed in this study, the substitution of *Tamarix canariensis* by *Launaea*
527 *arborescens* is around 40%, while the substitutions of *Launaea arborescens* by *Tamarix*
528 *canariensis* is 25% of the cases until 2003 (Hernández-Cordero et al., 2017). In recent years the
529 changes in both communities show a similar percentage change.

530 So far, a relationship between an increase in the vegetation cover and elevation has been
531 observed. This relationship is likely conditioned by the height of the local groundwater table,
532 but also possibly by areas experiencing lower wind speeds. This latter variable should be added
533 into future research to establish what role it truly plays. But potentially, feedback is observed
534 between plant colonization and sedimentary stabilization / erosion as the constructed area has
535 increased. A greater construction of the hotel area triggered a reduction of the local wind speed,
536 and a decrease in aeolian sediment transport, favoring the vegetation encroachment and
537 therefore the dunefield stabilization. These feedbacks produce on the one hand the alteration of
538 the natural environmental conditions, and on the other hand, introduce new unknowns related to
539 the biodiversity and geodiversity of the landscape. To better understand these feedbacks an
540 approach examining the adaptation of diversity indices such as those proposed by Shannon
541 (1948), Shannon and Weaver (1949) or Ferrer-Valero et al. (2017) in the transgressive
542 dunesfield of Maspalomas might be useful.

543

544 **5.3. Topographic changes and erosional landforms in the aeolian shadow zone**

545

546 Net erosion dominated over net accretion in site 2 as a direct consequence of the decrease in
547 wind speed by more than 50%, as well as the blocking/restriction of sediment input by wind

548 because of construction on top of El Inglés terrace (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014). Erosion is
549 common in dune systems where some type of human impact has occurred, regardless of the
550 issue studied (e.g. Tsoar and Blumberg, 2002; Wiedemann and Pickart, 2004; Hilton et al.,
551 2006; El Banna and Frihy, 2009; Kiss et al., 2009; Bochev-van der Burgh et al., 2011; Jackson
552 and Nordstrom, 2011). In this study area, erosion in site 2 is a direct consequence of the
553 presence of buildings and infrastructure. In this case, a well-delimited area where erosion is
554 significant can be detected, corresponding with the location of the erosive landforms detected
555 since 2003 (Figures 4, A and 6) and the re-mobilization of sand deposits. Accretion was also
556 measured in site 2 and was locally related with the presence of vegetation, in line with previous
557 studies (Hesp, 1991; 2013). Finally, there are other areas where the sediment has been fixed, a
558 process that should be considered normal, because this is an aeolian shadow area. The observed
559 erosional landforms have been subject to some mobility and change, despite relatively lower
560 winds in this section of the dune field. This is potentially indicative of some localized wind
561 acceleration or wind 'hot-spots' (García-Romero et al., 2017) leading to sediment erosion in an
562 area that is otherwise subject to low wind flows and limited sediment transport (Hernández-
563 Calvento et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2017). Interestingly, these erosive landforms are all at a very
564 similar distance downwind from the buildings.

565 Future analyses at this location should incorporate detailed records of wind variables collected
566 at a high temporal and spatial resolution in this area, to allow detailed quantification of airflow
567 processes involved in the evolution of this erosional and/or stabilizing landscape. This would
568 permit identifying the reasons for the existence of erosive landforms at the same distance
569 downwind of the buildings/infrastructure. It is possible to speculate that streets between the
570 buildings on the top of El Inglés terrace act as wind corridors that channel the airflow, locally
571 increasing wind speed in the shadow zone. In fact, this hypothesis is reinforced by checking
572 how these processes do not occur in areas located behind the higher-rise buildings (Mir-Gual et
573 al., 2015). Also it is possible to speculate that the blowouts or the other erosive landforms appear
574 due to the topographic influence of the infrastructure (Garés and Pease, 2015). The increase in

575 the area of the erosive landforms and deflation zones with exhumed roots of herbaceous plants
576 at this distance from the buildings, could be an indication that currently, and in the future, a
577 large deflation zone will appear rather than a stabilized zone as has been indicated up to now
578 (Hernández-Calvento et al., 2014; Hernández-Cordero et al., 2015a). This may depend on the
579 functioning of the shrub vegetation.

580

581 **6. Conclusions**

582

583 This work presents a study of the environmental changes on a portion of a transgressive
584 dunefield and the biogeomorphological processes produced in an aeolian shadow zone detected
585 and formed downwind a high terrace completely changed due to tourist infrastructure
586 development between 1986 and 2003. This construction altered the aeolian sedimentary input to
587 the region and created an aeolian shadow zone in the dunefield. Climate change, and
588 particularly rainfall variations do not appear to have had any real effect in driving the changes
589 observed. The effect of the touristic development has been to drive changes in the local wind
590 field and hence the direction of dune movement and migration. The changes in the sedimentary
591 dynamics have also altered dune migration directions with dunes turning more towards the W-
592 NNW than previously, and reduced the volumetric input of sediments into the Maspalomas
593 dune system. In addition, there has been a reduction in the number and length of dune brinks
594 and a displacement of the dune brinks to the south, well downwind of the aeolian shadow zone.
595 For these reasons, the Maspalomas dunefield has been significantly environmentally altered due
596 to the development of a human-induced aeolian shadow zone. If these trends continue, or
597 change to other paths (e.g. expansion of the deflation areas), ecosystem services such as tourism
598 and the protection against storms and possible tsunami provided by the dunes would be
599 adversely affected.

600 With respect to the biogeomorphological processes within the aeolian shadow zone of the
601 Maspalomas dunefield, the following processes and spatio-temporal changes have been
602 observed:

603 Vegetation trends

- 604 1. The vegetation has experienced an increase in cover, density and number of plant
605 communities.
- 606 2. The most successful colonizing plant community is *Cyperus capitatus-Ononis*
607 *tournefortii*, comprising herbaceous species. The case of *Cyperus capitatus* is relevant,
608 since it is the only species detected in this area that reproduces from rhizomes. In other
609 dune environments, due to this rhizomatous characteristic, its reproduction is
610 conditioned by clonal growth, and seed production is unimportant.
- 611 3. Other plant communities, comprising shrub and tree species, namely *Tamarix*
612 *canariensis* and *Launaea arborescens* communities, also play an important role in
613 colonization of the dunefield in the study area.

614 Topographic changes

- 615 1. There is an aeolian sedimentary deficit caused by the urban tourist buildings located on
616 the top of the El Inglés terrace blocking the aeolian sedimentary transport pathway, and
617 reducing overall wind energy and sediment transport in the study area.
- 618 2. Although the sedimentary deficit has been detected throughout the study area, there are
619 areas of accretion associated with deposition within vegetation, as well as other stable
620 areas. Since 2003, when the top of the terrace had been totally covered by buildings,
621 three erosional landforms have developed. All three of them are located at a similar
622 distance from the new urban development area.
- 623 3. These three erosional landforms correspond to a *trough blowout* and two deflation
624 zones currently characterized by surfaces covered with exhumed roots.

- 625 4. The increase of the vegetation is related to the sedimentary deficit, which facilitates the
626 growth of plant species. This process is possible since the sand cannot cover the
627 vegetation, and deflation leads to the presence of groundwater closer to the surface.
- 628 5. The groundwater table can be detected in the lowest elevations of the study area, and
629 therefore, there is a strong relationship between plant colonization and topography.
- 630 6. Plant colonization within about 400 meters of the building/infrastructure development is
631 lower than further downwind, coinciding with the presence of erosional landforms and
632 zones with higher water tables.

633

634 **Acknowledgements**

635 This work is a contribution of projects CSO2013-43256-R and CSO2016-79673-R (National R
636 & D & I Plan) co-financed with ERDF funds and a PhD contract of the Canary Islands Agency
637 for Research, Innovation and Information Society and by the European Social Fund (ESF). The
638 authors also thank Dr. Pablo Máyer Suárez for providing processed rainfall data.

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