

1 **Changes in the *Erica ciliaris* Loefl. ex L. peat bogs of south-western Europe**
2 **from the seventeenth to the twentieth century AD**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 This paper analyses a reconstruction of changes from the seventeenth to the twentieth century

14 in peat bogs with *Erica ciliaris* Loefl. ex L. heathlands in south-western Europe. The

15 reconstruction is performed by means of a multidisciplinary method based on

16 photointerpretation, the examination of historical sources (documentation and maps), and an

17 analysis of microtopography. Historical sources and aerial photos from 1956 and 1987 have

18 also been used to reconstruct the impacts of anthropic activity. In the study area, Doñana

19 Natural Park (SW Iberian Peninsula), peat bogs currently occupy slightly more than 8% of the

20 area that they covered at the beginning of the seventeenth century. A parallel analysis of

21 anthropic activity in the area over the last four centuries reveals the key role of humans in the

22 disappearance of these peat bogs. This drastic reduction of peat bog area during the twentieth

23 century is due to a drop in the water table as a result of the impacts of anthropic activity,

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24 primarily the establishment of monocultures of *Eucalyptus* spp. and *Pinus pinea*. An earlier
25 drop in the water table, before these plantations, is attributable to a process of aridisation
26 associated with post-Little Ice Age warming. Therefore, the impacts associated with climatic
27 trends are synergistically superimposed on those derived from the intense anthropic activity
28 that occurred during the second half of the twentieth century. This synergy resulted in a
29 reduction of the surface occupied by the studied peat bogs and their associated *E. ciliaris*
30 heathlands by 91.1% in SW Europe.

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33 **Keywords**

34 Peat bogs, water table, *Erica ciliaris*, Little Ice Age, anthropogenic impact, historical data,
35 Iberian Peninsula, Atlantic species

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38 **Introduction**

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41 The study of past forest change provides the historical context necessary for assessing the
42 outcome of human-induced climate change and biological invasions (Petit *et al.*, 2008).

43 Climate has been a major driving variable affecting wetland ecosystems throughout
44 geological time, but climatic changes are relatively slow (Álvarez-Cobelas *et al.*, 2001). In
45 contrast, as these authors note, man-made change is a more recent phenomenon, and its
46 effects occur over shorter time periods. Therefore, the knowledge of human impacts on
47 wetland ecosystems is, in our opinion, a prerequisite to addressing the impacts linked to
48 climate change on plant communities. Peatlands and their linked plant communities are

49 particularly vulnerable to climate change (Weltzin *et al.*, 2003). Particularly, the
50 mineralisation rates of carbon and nitrogen in peatlands are affected by temperature and water
51 table level (Keller *et al.*, 2004).

52 This paper focuses on the peat bog areas of south-western Europe and the changes that
53 have occurred during the last four centuries. The southernmost *Erica ciliaris* Loefl. ex L.
54 communities are linked to these peat bog areas, so that changes due to anthropogenic or
55 climatic impacts affecting these wetlands will also affect the distribution area of their linked
56 plant communities.

57 *E. ciliaris* heathland communities are interesting for two reasons: first, the distribution
58 area of this community is affected by climate factors (Rose *et al.*, 1996), and second, *E.*
59 *ciliaris* is a taxon whose distribution has been affected by anthropic activity (Chapman and
60 Rose, 1994); in the case of the SW Iberian Peninsula, this is a very recent process (Sousa and
61 García-Murillo, 2001). Thus, the southern edge of the distribution of *E. ciliaris* heathlands is a
62 space that is unique, not only for studying its dynamics but also for examining what factors
63 (anthropic or natural) have had the greatest effect. We seek to clarify whether, in recent
64 centuries, anthropogenic and climatic impacts have affected the area occupied by peat bogs in
65 SW Europe. Additionally, changes in the peat bogs can serve as proxy data for changes in the
66 same period in these Atlantic communities of *E. ciliaris*.

67 Recent studies (Peñuelas and Boada, 2003; Sanz-Elorza *et al.*, 2003; Jump *et al.*, 2006;
68 Lenoir *et al.*, 2008) suggest that the last few decades have witnessed changes at the southern
69 edge of the ranges of some plant communities, associated with the climatic trends of the
70 twentieth century. Those works are based on altitudinal migrations and are therefore
71 associated with the relief and distribution of the bioclimatic stages. However, studies of
72 latitudinal changes are scarcer than those of altitudinal retractions. Jump *et al.* (2009) argue
73 that the lack of reported latitudinal range retractions is more likely to be due to a lack of

74 research effort, compounded by methodological difficulties, than to the absence of these
75 retractions. Therefore, in their opinion, the investigation of range retractions should become a
76 priority in biogeographical research and most likely also in global change research.

77 According to Thomas *et al.* (2009), the relative lack of previous information about
78 range declining and extinctions appears to stem, at least partly, from a failure to survey the
79 distributions of species at a sufficiently fine resolution to detect declines and from a failure to
80 attribute such declines to climate change. Moreover, as Parmesan *et al.* (2011) note, there are
81 difficulties in attributing biological responses to climate change, such as the complex
82 interplay among habitat destruction, land-use change, exploitation and pollution, in addition
83 to climate change.

84 The aim of this study is to investigate the temporal dynamics of the peat bog areas of
85 SW Europe (Doñana Natural Park, SW Spain) from seventeenth to the twentieth century. We
86 intend to answer the following questions: (1) Have peat bogs and their linked communities of
87 *E. ciliaris* in SW Europe changed in the last four hundred years? (2) What have been the
88 primary factors driving these changes? (3) Have anthropogenic and/or climatic factors played
89 a role in these changes?

90 To achieve these objectives, we shall (1) spatially reconstruct the extent of peat bogs
91 from 1630 to 1987 AD using a multidisciplinary approach; (2) analyse the physical factors
92 (geomorphological, hydrological, climatic, etc.) that may be involved in the evolution of these
93 peat bogs and (3) study and quantify the changes in land use over the last four centuries along
94 with the changes in climate trends in the study area.

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96

97 **Study area**

98

100 The studied zone is located in Andalusia (SW of Spain, approximately 37° 10' N and 6° 45'
101 W and 50-70 m a.s.l.), specifically within the boundaries of Doñana Natural Park (known in
102 its western sector as Abalario), occupying approximately 25,000 ha between the tourist
103 centres of Matalascañas, Mazagón, and El Rocío (Figure 1). In the study area, there is a series
104 of small peat bogs known as Rivatehilos; *E. ciliaris* heathlands are associated with these
105 water bodies (Rivas-Martínez *et al.*, 1980). Despite it forming small, dispersed patches,
106 floristically, the state of conservation of *E. ciliaris* is good. In fact, as indicated by Allier *et al.*
107 (1974) and García-Murillo (2006), the study area has the largest and best-conserved patches
108 of hygrophytic heathlands of *E. ciliaris* in the whole environment of Doñana.

109 *Figure 1 around here*

110 The study area, because of its geographical position, is included within the
111 Mediterranean climate domain, and—because of its closeness to the Atlantic coast—has a
112 marked oceanic influence. This oceanic influence is evidenced by temperate winters (mean
113 minimum temperature of the coldest month: 4.1 °C) and milder summers (mean maximum
114 temperature of the hottest month: 33.2 °C). According to the data of the Bodegones weather
115 station (situated at the edge of the study area), the annual mean temperature for the period
116 1951-1980 was 16.3 °C and the annual mean precipitation 678.4 mm (41% of the precipitation
117 occurring in the autumn months and 15% in the spring).

118 *E. ciliaris* heaths are recognised as Natural Habitats of Community Interest within the
119 “priority” category (Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC) and are denominated “temperate Atlantic
120 wet heaths with *Erica ciliaris*”. This type of heath [community of *Erico ciliaris-Ulicetum*
121 (*minoris*) *lusitanicus*] constitutes one of the most complex and singular plant units for
122 conservation within the Doñana Biosphere Reserve and its environs (Cobo *et al.*, 2002).
123 Kingston and Waldren (2005) consider this taxon (*E. ciliaris*), along with another five species

124 of Ericaceae, important for the conservation of European environments and its study relevant
125 to past and present climate change scenarios.

126 The flora of the studied community, in spite of its location (with a Mediterranean
127 climate and vegetation) is closely related to certain heathlands of Galicia (NW Iberian
128 Peninsula). Thus, many of the species found today — such as various *Sphagnum* taxa,
129 *Molinia caerulea*, *E. ciliaris*, or *Calluna vulgaris* — are dominant or present in the peatlands
130 of the Gallician mountains (Martínez-Cortizas *et al.*, 2000), situated more than 5° north of the
131 study area. Furthermore, the wet meadow communities that share a location with these taxa
132 have species in common, such as *Agrostis stolonifera*, *Potentilla erecta*, *Pinguicula lusitanica*,
133 or *Simethis planifolia*, though the annual rainfall in these areas of Galicia (1200-1900 mm) is
134 much higher than that of the SW Iberian Peninsula. Some taxa present in the *E. ciliaris*
135 heathlands of this region, such as *Calluna vulgaris*, *Potentilla erecta*, *Ulex minor*, *Sphagnum*
136 *auriculatum*, or *Calipogeia fissa*, are even relatively frequent in the floristic tables for *E.*
137 *ciliaris* subcommunities in SW Great Britain (Rose *et al.*, 1996).

138 According to Rose *et al.* (1996), *E. ciliaris* is found in heath and mire communities
139 from the north-west tip of Africa northwards through western Europe to southern England and
140 the west of Ireland (Figure 1a). In the Iberian Peninsula, the distribution of this taxon (Figure
141 1b) is *grosso modo* parallel to the Atlantic coast, and it is found discontinuously along the
142 whole Cantabrian coast, down the Gallician and Portuguese coast, and continues along the
143 coast of Huelva (Doñana and its area) and close to the southern sierras of Cadiz and Malaga
144 (Bingre *et al.* 2007 and Proyecto Anthos - Real Jardín Botánico de Madrid, 2009). This
145 distribution area is enclosed by the 200 mm isoline of winter pluviometry, according to the
146 Lopez-Bustins *et al.* (2008) delineation, and the current 5 °C mean January air temperature
147 isotherm (Kingston and Waldren, 2005).

148 It is complicated to construct maps of the plant communities of SW Spain that enable
149 the outlining and quantification of their dynamics because most of the Mediterranean area has
150 been affected by human activity over several millennia (Stevenson, 1985). This intense and
151 continuous anthropogenic impact has altered the original plant communities, greatly hindering
152 the reconstruction of their distributions earlier than the mid-twentieth century. Therefore, the
153 features of a territory such as Doñana Natural Park, which has not received a great impact
154 from anthropic activity until recent times (Sousa and García-Murillo, 2001), are interesting
155 for the study of natural changes in vegetation. This approach may be useful to clarify the
156 extent to which the changes that have been detected in peat bogs with *E. ciliaris* heathland
157 communities are linked to human activities as opposed to natural causes such as climatic
158 ones. For this purpose, the anthropogenic impacts from the seventeenth to the twentieth
159 century will be studied, and we will analyse whether they alone are sufficiently intense to
160 explain all of the changes in the peat bog areas.

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162

163 **Materials and Methods**

164

165

166 *Changes in peat bogs and associated plant communities*

167

168 The surface area occupied by peat bogs was mapped at the scale of 1:25,000, beginning with
169 its present-day distribution and going back in time to four periods: 1987, 1956, the end of the
170 nineteenth century (*c.* 1869), and the beginning of the seventeenth century (*c.* 1630).

171 Depending on the period, it was necessary to use different data sources: field reconnaissance,
172 aerial photographs and satellite imagery, data from historical sources (fourteenth-twentieth

173 centuries), and a reconstruction of the microtopography at the scale of 1:10,000. According to
174 Stein *et al.* (2010), the approach and challenges of historical analysis are shown as we
175 integrate multiple disparate data sources collected over a variety of spatial and temporal
176 scales. This enabled the reconstruction of the original condition and surface area of the peaty
177 bowls with which the communities of temperate heaths were associated (Rivas-Martínez *et*
178 *al.*, 1980).

179 The various data sources available for mapping the area occupied by this plant
180 community for each of the four periods studied are given in Table I.

181 *Table I around here*

182 The series of aerial photographs consulted were from flights in 1946 (1:40,000), 1956
183 (1:33,000), 1987 (1:20,000), and 2000 (1:30,000) together with Landsat TM (1986), SPOT
184 (1989), and Landsat TM (1990) satellite images.

185 The studied data obtained from archives and documentary sources were mostly from
186 the sixteenth to the twentieth century. For the twentieth century, 49 deeds and forestry reports
187 from the estates of the Forestry Region of southeast Huelva for the period 1932-1978 were
188 examined (see Supplementary Material 1 available online). Additionally, 72 historical maps
189 of the study area, above all for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and the beginning of
190 the twentieth, were also studied. The complete list can be found in Supplementary Material 2
191 (available online), and items explicitly cited in the text are found in Appendix A. The
192 methodological possibilities obtained from combining data from aerial photography or
193 satellite images with historical maps to reconstruct ecosystem changes have been outlined in
194 earlier studies of different regions and ecosystems of our planet (Cousins, 2001; Petit and
195 Lambin, 2002b; Bromberg and Bertness, 2005; Börjeson, 2009; Sousa *et al.*, 2009a, 2010;
196 Stein *et al.*, 2010). Other authors have combined historical land-use maps with pollen records
197 (Andrič *et al.*, 2010) to study environmental changes recorded in alpine peat bogs during the

198 fifteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries. A wealth of different historical sources
199 (drawings, paintings, prints, photographs, maps and written accounts) have been used for the
200 reconstruction of glacier length variations during the Little Ice Age (Nussbaumer *et al.*, 2011).

201 The situation in 1987 and then in 1956 of the peat bogs with which *E. ciliaris*
202 heathlands are associated were mapped from fieldwork and from the photointerpretation of
203 aerial photographs and satellite images. The situations at the end of the nineteenth century and
204 beginning of the seventeenth century was mapped based on the interpretation of the historical
205 documentation, taking as reference or basis the previously constructed map for 1956.

206 However, these data do not allow a standard mapping by themselves, as the historical maps
207 do not have a standardised projection. The information obtained from historical sources
208 should also be contrasted with another, independent source (e.g., microtopographic analysis)
209 to avoid possible inaccuracies and errors in the drawing of the map. To transfer the data from
210 the historical sources to a standardised cartography at the 1:10,000 scale, the microtopography
211 of the lagoon basins was reconstructed by manual interpolation of 250 topographic heights
212 following the method developed in an earlier publication (Sousa *et al.*, 2010). As shown in
213 Figure 2, the 1:10,000 scale map shows topographic isolines only every 10 m but also
214 includes a large number of topographic heights (Figure 2a, b), which enabled us to trace
215 interpolated topographic isolines approximately every 2 metres to construct a hypsometric
216 map (Figure 2c). Thereby, the areas of lower altitude are recognised, thus revealing the
217 original situation of the extinct large lagoons (Figure 2d) and corroborating the historical
218 sources.

219 *Figure 2 around here*

220 In contrast the historical maps, those based on microtopography present a standardised
221 projection, suitable for treatment in a geographic information system and thereby quantifiable.

222 The value of studying the topography in detail to identify changes in vanished or transformed
223 wetlands have been stated by Heimo *et al.* (2004).

224

225

226 *Impact of anthropic activity*

227

228 Most of the sources cited in the previous section were used in the reconstruction of the
229 anthropic changes. The 49 deeds of purchase, sale, and valuation of the 10 forestry estates
230 making up the study area provided much useful information (see Supplementary Material 1
231 available online). This was corroborated with the forestry maps of the area at a scale of
232 1:25,000, produced using the aerial photos from the flights of 1956 and 1987.

233 Soil-use data for earlier dates were compiled from various historical documentary
234 sources and scientific and technical documents from the end of the nineteenth century and
235 beginning of the twentieth (cited in upper case and listed in Appendix B). When the
236 documentary sources are dated earlier than the second third of the twentieth century, generally
237 they do not allow the quantification of the changes, although they do give a clear idea of the
238 primary soil use and its location.

239

240

241 *Impacts linked to climate trends*

242

243 The series of instrumental observations from the stations of Huelva, Bodegonas, Sanlúcar de
244 Barrameda, San Fernando, Cadiz (Cortadura) and Gibraltar were used to reconstruct the
245 primary climatic trends—dry and wet years. The station that presented the longest and most
246 complete precipitation series (1820-2000) was San Fernando. Because of the possible

247 heterogeneities before 1882 suggested by some authors (Almarza *et al.*, 1996), the whole
248 series was rectified. Consequently, the period 1863-1881 was rescaled according to the
249 observatory closer to San Fernando that presented an historical series with simultaneous
250 observations (Gibraltar, Cadiz-Urrutia brothers and Lisbon). Years were classified as dry if
251 the annual rainfall is under the 40th percentile and wet if the rainfall is over the 60th percentile,
252 taking into account the whole series of data. Finally, the accumulated frequency of the
253 different types of years was represented.

254 The evolution of the irregularity of seasonal precipitation has also been studied. To
255 analyse the evolution of precipitation irregularity, the specific disparity index (I_{di}) was
256 calculated (García-Barrón *et al.*, 2011). We used this index to establish the consecutive
257 alternation of dry and wet years. For its calculation we use the following equation:

$$258 \quad I_{di} = [((p_i - p_{i+1})^2 + (p_i - p_{i-1})^2) / 2]^{1/2} / \mu_i$$

259 where p_i is the total precipitation in year i , p_{i+1} and p_{i-1} are the subsequent and previous
260 precipitation, respectively, and finally μ_i is the average of the three preceding values.

261 Other issues related to the primary trends derived from the analysis of climatic
262 variables (relative accumulated deviation of the annual mean precipitation, mean maximum
263 temperature and mean minimum temperature) are studied by García-Barrón (2002), García-
264 Barrón and Pita (2004) and Sousa *et al.* (2010).

265

266

267 **Results**

268

269

270 First, the results relating to land-use changes in the study area over the past four hundred
271 years will be presented, followed by changes in peat bogs during the same period and finally
272 the results related to climate trends will be examined.

273

274

275 *Impact of anthropic activity*

276

277 The impacts of anthropic activity on the natural resources of the study area have been divided
278 into five phases.

279 *Phase 1: AD 1577-1879 (Predatory and gathering period)*

280 The first data come from the hunting book of King ALFONSO XI of Spain (1311-1350),
281 which reports that the area close to the La Rocina brook can be crossed only in very dry
282 winters, as in wet winters there are many quaking bogs. These quaking bogs are in marshy
283 areas associated with emergences of shallow water and generally carpeted by bryophytes.

284 Later, at the end of the sixteenth century, ARGOTE DE MOLINA (1582) refers to the
285 numerous birds breeding on the lagoons and marshes close to La Rocina.

286 In this period, the study area was described as follows: "... *all dead sandy areas without*
287 *use, without land giving pastures for grazing or any return for these expenses...*" (BRABO DE
288 LAGUNAS, 1577a). The idea of this coastal strip as an immense unsheltered sandy zone is
289 also noted by the cartographer of King Felipe IV of Spain (Texeira, 1634).

290 The reviewed historical documentation thus records a territory consisting of unproductive
291 sandy areas that were not usable even for grazing livestock. The analysis of the historical maps
292 of the seventeenth century confirms this situation (e.g., Jodocus Hondius, 1606; Texeira,
293 1634; Blaeu, 1640-1650; Doménico de Rossi, 1696). In addition, the tracks were very rough
294 and difficult to negotiate, and the numerous lagoons that existed were optimal breeding grounds

295 for malaria-transmitting mosquitoes [as reported by the *Relaciones* of Tomás López at the end of
296 the eighteenth century (RUIZ GONZÁLEZ, 1999)].

297 All of this evidences that the study area and its surroundings were a demographic desert.
298 At least from the sixteenth century, human activity was limited essentially to some gathering,
299 fishing, charcoal burning and, only occasionally, hunting. The population was limited to some
300 fishermen (BRABO DE LAGUNAS, 1577b), watchtower keepers and carabineers protecting the
301 coast, generally in marginal nuclei. This situation largely continued until the beginning of the
302 twentieth century (BARBADO, 1940; PATRIMONIO FORESTAL DEL ESTADO, 1941;
303 MORA, 1981).

304 *Phase 2: AD 1879-1936* (Transition to intensive usage of resources)

305 This phase saw a transition from a hunting and gathering period with a very limited effect of
306 human activity on the environment to a forestry period. The trigger for this transformation
307 was the surveying and registration of the territory (1851-52), with the conversion of common
308 uncultivated land into private property. As seen in Figure 3, the territory was divided into a
309 series of estates that became private (“Cotos”) and whose owners began activities intended to
310 increase their profitability.

311 *Figure 3 around here*

312 Therefore, the period 1879-1936 is a transition time, linked to the area’s discovery and
313 conquest by private property after the sale of these lands by the Spanish government between
314 1864 and 1879 (Espina and Estévez, 1993).

315 *Phase 3: AD 1936-1972* (Forestry exploitation period)

316 The attempts of some owners, more or less independently, to make the area productive (DE
317 LA LAMA, 1951) crystallised in an ambitious process of forestry exploitation, during which
318 the lands became state property. This, together with the Spanish political situation—the end
319 of the Civil War (1936-1939)—led to its radical transformation.

320 The primary event triggering these changes was the “Declaration of National Interest”
321 (“Declaración de Interés Nacional”) leading to the afforestation of the lands situated in the
322 “Southeast Huelva Forestry Region” (“Comarca Forestal del Sureste de Huelva”) (Espina and
323 Estévez, 1993).

324 The first purpose of afforestation was to curb the advance of the dunes, as indicated by
325 Espina and Estévez (1993). Then, there was the insalubrious condition of the territory due to
326 the spreading of malaria (KITH, 1936; PATRIMONIO FORESTAL DEL ESTADO, 1941)
327 from the numerous lagoons. In time, this initial idea was transformed into the creation of a
328 forest contributing to the revaluation of an unproductive territory.

329 This intervention was undertaken by three bodies that distributed the territory: the
330 Hydrological-Forestry V Division in the most coastal estates, the State Forestry Heritage, and
331 the National Institute of Industry. As a consequence, new forestry infrastructures (hamlets,
332 nurseries, and small forestry treatment plants; see Figure 3) were generated, connected by a
333 dense network of 30 new tracks at the end of the 1940s.

334 This intense process of forest production has been quantified using essentially two
335 sources: the analysis of the aerial photos of 1956 and 1987 and the purchase-sale-valuation
336 deeds from the various estates or reserves involved. The data from the photointerpretation of
337 the flights not only provides information on and exact mapping of the distribution of the
338 forest crops at two points in time (1956 and 1987), it is also a tool for assessing the reliability
339 of the figures in the estate deeds. The overall result of this analysis is depicted in Figure 4.

340 *Figure 4 around here*

341 The population of the zone reached a peak in the mid-1950s (945 inhabitants in 1955).
342 As seen in Figure 4b, the changes in the area afforested with eucalyptus were parallel to the
343 change in the estimated number of inhabitants (although due to the sample size, it was not
344 possible to establish any statistically significant correlation), concentrated mostly in the forest

345 hamlets. The localisation of the greater part of the monocultures of eucalyptus precisely in the
346 area of the peat bogs and the type of growth of this allochthonous species explain the impact
347 of afforestation on the plant communities associated with the peaty zones.

348 From the 1950s onwards, forestry activity declined, with practically all of the available
349 area having been afforested. By 1956, almost 90% (21,089 ha) of the area was occupied by
350 forest production uses. In the case of eucalyptus, tree felling resulted in a decrease in the area
351 occupied beginning in the early sixties. At the same time, the forest hamlets began to be
352 depopulated, until a demographic vacuum (191 inhabitants in 1986) similar to the original one
353 was reached. Another important fact is that by 1987, nearly 10% (2,468 ha) of the zone was
354 dedicated to irrigated crops on the La Rocina I estate.

355 *Phase 4: AD 1972-1989 (Transition to a less intensive usage)*

356 In 1972, the management of the lands of the State Forestry heritage and the Hydrological-
357 Forestry V Division passed to the Institute for Nature Conservation. At the same time, the
358 stands of eucalyptus were losing their economic profitability.

359 In 1978, the Reformation and Agriculture Development Institute of the Spanish
360 Agriculture Ministry included 1,460 ha of Coto de la Rocina II and 266 ha of Coto del
361 Sacristán in the Almonte Marshland Plan, transforming the NE region of the area of study into
362 an irrigated land for a short time. In 1984, the Regional Government of Andalusia became
363 responsible for the forest issues and created the Natural Park of Doñana in 1989, belonging to
364 the Protected Natural Environments Network.

365 *Phase 5: AD 1989-2011 (Conservationist period)*

366 From 1989 to the present, the repopulation space that includes the study area is dedicated
367 essentially to conservation. In the last decade of the twentieth century, investment was made
368 in a project for the ecological restoration of the lagoons of this natural park, with a gradual

369 elimination of the area growing eucalyptus (García-Murillo, 2006; Custodio *et al.*, 2009).

370 Currently, the forest hamlets are in ruin or abandoned.

371 The usage during this period is basically linked to tourism in the coastal urban nuclei
372 adjoining the protected zone (Matalascañas and Mazagón). The high profitability of such
373 usage has enabled the reduction of most of the pressure on the intensive exploitation of the
374 natural resources in the rest of this space. In addition, part of the (more or less traditional)
375 marginal usage of the area has been revived, although largely sustained by subsidies from the
376 European Union.

377 A summary of the main events and exploitations during these five phases from 1577 to
378 present is shown in Table II.

379 *Table II around here*

380 As shown in Table II, the intensive use of the natural resources of this territory is
381 limited only to the period after 1936 (Sousa and García-Murillo, 2001).

382

383

384 *Changes in peat bogs and associated plant communities*

385

386 Table III displays the changes in the vegetation and associated wetlands present in the study
387 area based on the stereoscopic photointerpretation of the flights of 1956 and 1987.

388 *Table III around here*

389 What stands out most in this table is the significant decrease in the area occupied by
390 peat bogs along with the community of heaths of *Erica ciliaris* and *Ulex minor*, which are
391 essentially replaced by a hygrophyte scrub of *Erica scoparia* and *Ulex australis* (denominated
392 Monte Negro by Ramírez Díaz *et al.*, 1977). A decrease in area of 88.2% in just 31 years is
393 evidenced not only by the data on surface area but also by the number of patches or polygons

394 of mapped vegetation. The peat bogs and the heathlands of *E. ciliaris* decrease in 148
395 polygons, whereas at the same time the heathlands of *Erica scoparia* increase in 143 patches.

396 From these data, and with the help of the historical sources and the microtopographic
397 analysis, the historical evolution of these communities during the last four centuries can be
398 reconstructed, as seen in Figure 5.

399 *Figure 5 around here*

400 The outstanding feature of Figure 5a, aside from the reduction in the period 1956-
401 1987, is that the disappearance of these communities began much earlier. Its origin goes back
402 at least to the beginning of the seventeenth century, and it became more marked at the
403 beginning of twentieth century. This is clearly shown in Figure 5b.

404 With the beginning of the twentieth century, some of the large patches of peat bogs
405 and heaths of *E. ciliaris* disappeared; such is the case for the large Mediana lagoon (which
406 occupied some 197 ha at the beginning of the seventeenth century), and Hilo lagoon (155 ha
407 at the beginning of the seventeenth century; Figure 5a). This can be seen from various
408 historical maps of the period, such as Coello (1869), Gonzalo y Tarín (1870), Valverde (1880,
409 1888), Carrasco y Padilla (1892), and Ibáñez de Íbero (1902); in historical documents
410 (VALVERDE, 1885-1888); and in the historical place names of the area (Sousa *et al.*, 2010).

411 There was, therefore, as seen in Table IV, a regressive process going back at least to
412 the beginning of the seventeenth century (estimated annual rate of decrease: 1.2 ha/year),
413 which intensified at the beginning of the twentieth century (annual rate of decrease: 2.4
414 ha/year). This means that the area originally occupied by these peat bogs decreased by
415 approximately 15% from the seventeenth century to the nineteenth (296.4 ha) and by almost
416 25% up to the mid-twentieth century (502.4 ha).

417 *Table IV around here*

418 This regressive trend intensified exponentially during the second half of the twentieth
419 century (annual rate of decrease: 43.6 ha/year; Table IV), until the area that had been
420 occupied at the beginning of the seventeenth century had been reduced by 91.1%.

421

422

423 *Impacts linked to climate trends*

424

425 Figure 6 shows the evolution of the accumulated frequency of dry and wet years obtained by
426 means of the analysis of percentiles of the annual rainfall—data from the Observatory of San
427 Fernando. In this graph, horizontal segments represent neutral periods. The upward segments
428 characterise the respective dry or wet periods in the two evolution lines. An increase in the
429 accumulated frequency of wet years is evident at the end of the nineteenth century. It can be
430 seen that the slope of the accumulated frequency increased during the last wet pulse of the
431 Little Ice Age (hereafter, LIA) in Andalusia. There is a change in the trend at the beginning of
432 the twentieth century, denoted by an increase in the accumulated frequency of dry years and a
433 decrease in the number of wet years (the slope of the straight line flattens). These results
434 coincide with the reconstruction of this period performed by Rodrigo *et al.* (1999) using
435 proxy data and the dating of the end of the LIA in Andalusia by Castro-Díez *et al.* (2007).

436 *Figure 6 around here*

437 Regarding the availability of water for vegetation, it is also important to consider the
438 rainfall distribution within each year and its irregularity between consecutive years (Figure 7).
439 During the period 1820–2000, the average spring precipitation is 140.3 mm, but over the last
440 sixty years of the twentieth century, that measurement tends to decrease. This declining
441 tendency is close to 50% ($\Delta p_s = -1.25 \Delta t + 165$; where p_s is the spring precipitation of each

442 year in mm, t: years). However, the specific disparity index shows an increasing trend,
443 especially at the end of the twentieth century.

444 *Figure 7 around here*

445 The variation in the availability of water in the ground can be affected changes in the
446 isopiezometric levels caused by climate trends. This is relevant because the peat bogs in the
447 study area, with which the *E. ciliaris* patches are associated, are fed hypogenically. To check
448 for a relationship between the height of the isopiezometric level and the evolution of peat bog
449 patches, the corresponding graphics have been superimposed. The relationship between the
450 isopiezometric levels and the regression of the peat bogs beginning in the seventeenth century
451 is illustrated in Figure 8a. It can be seen that the desiccation of the peat bogs follows the
452 gradient of the water-table — from the southernmost to the northernmost peat bogs. This
453 reconstruction can be compared with the situation in 1987 (Figure 8b).

454 *Figure 8 around here*

455 By comparing these two situations, we can observe that the first peat bogs to be
456 desiccated were those in which the water table was furthest from the surface. This was the
457 case for the Mediana and Hilo lagoons, which completely disappeared at the end of the
458 nineteenth century.

459 The desiccation gradient during the period of greater forestry activity (1956-1987)
460 progressed according to the water table height. In 1987, only those peat bogs with a water
461 table close to the surface still remain (Figure 8b). Therefore, the lowering of the water table
462 correlated with the peat bogs' desiccation, both before and during the intense forestry period.

463

464

465 **Discussion**

466

467

468 Understanding long-term human-environment interactions is essential for understanding
469 changes in terrestrial ecosystems and requires a historical reconstruction of past land-cover
470 changes (Petit and Lambin, 2002a). Specifically, anthropogenic changes to wetland
471 ecosystems are primarily a twentieth century process (Álvarez-Cobelas *et al.*, 2001). The
472 results obtained in the previous sections confirm these statements and allow us to delimit and
473 date the anthropogenic impacts in the study area.

474 Regardless, the results of this study highlight that, from the beginning of the
475 seventeenth century to the end of the twentieth, the extent of the peat bog areas has been
476 gradually reduced (see Figure 5b). Although at the end of the nineteenth century the annual
477 rate of regression of peat bogs was accelerated, it was not until the second half of the
478 twentieth century that this gradual process of aridisation became extremely marked. We will
479 continue by discussing the factors that have intervened throughout these almost 400 years and
480 that have affected the distribution of this community. In the Mediterranean area in Europe,
481 anthropic activity has been the main driver of change and of landscape formation in recent
482 millennia. Therefore, this is the first aspect to be discussed.

483

484

485 *Impact of anthropic activity in peat bogs*

486

487 The Mediterranean area is one of the most significantly altered biodiversity hotspots on Earth
488 (Myers *et al.*, 2000), and it has been affected by anthropogenic impacts for millennia
489 (Stevenson and Harrison, 1992; Geri *et al.*, 2010). As a result, only 4.7% of its primary
490 vegetation remains—the agricultural lands, evergreen woodlands, and maquis habitats that
491 dominate the hotspot today are the result of anthropogenic disturbances over several millennia

492 (Falcucci *et al.*, 2007). In the study area, only 8.9% of the area that had been occupied by peat
493 bogs in the early seventeenth century still remains (see Table IV).

494 Within this general Mediterranean framework, the study area presents some
495 peculiarities: it is a rough territory, historically not very transitable and secularly unproductive
496 [with regard to livestock and agriculture because of its oligotrophic soils (Sousa and García-
497 Murillo, 2001; Custodio *et al.* 2009)], and it is an area where the transmission of malaria is
498 endemic because of the great area and typology of its wetlands (Sousa *et al.*, 2009b). We
499 believe this explains why, despite being part of the Mediterranean environment, the study area
500 was not subjected to intense anthropic impacts until the middle of the twentieth century (see
501 Table II). The intensive use of the natural resources of this territory is limited to the period
502 after 1936. Figures 4a and 5b show the coincidence in the study area between the huge
503 reduction in peat bogs (1352.4 ha) and the phase of peak forest exploitation (1936-1972).

504 Although much of the forest area was planted with *Pinus pinea*, the greatest impact of
505 this anthropic use was from afforestation with different species of eucalyptus on the estates
506 where peat bogs were located. These water bodies are an optimal breeding ground for the
507 culicid transmitters of the parasite that carries malaria. In consequence, these lagoons and
508 other wet areas were subjected to an exhaustive antimalarial treatment (Sousa *et al.*, 2009b),
509 together with a gradual process of desiccation. First, the species of eucalyptus most resistant
510 to swamping (such as *Eucalyptus camaldulensis*) were planted, followed, as the lagoon bowls
511 dried up, by less-tolerant species (such as *Eucalyptus globulus*; BURGUERS, 1949), until
512 most of the peaty formations were dry. The most immediate consequence of this was the
513 replacement of the communities of *Erico ciliaris-Ulicetum (minoris) lusitanicus* by a
514 hygrophyte scrub, less demanding with respect to continuity in swamping levels.

515 Already in 1956 the presence of eucalyptus is very extensive, so the area originally
516 occupied by the *E. ciliaris* community would have been even larger. By 2011, the greater part

517 of the eucalyptus has disappeared, but the *E. ciliaris* communities have not recovered their
518 1956 extent.

519 The desiccation effect produced by the high evapotranspiration of the eucalyptus
520 monocultures led to a loweringfall in the height of the water table, as confirmed by
521 hydrogeological studies (Trick and Custodio, 2004; Manzano *et al.*, 2005; Custodio *et al.*,
522 2009). This process led to the desiccation of most of the peat bogs dominated by *E. ciliaris*
523 and *Ulex minor* and their replacement by a hygrophyte scrub (dominated by *Erica scoparia*
524 and *Ulex australis*) better adapted to seasonal swamping (Ramírez Díaz *et al.*, 1977; Sousa
525 and García-Murillo, 2003). As Gavilán (2005) states, in Mediterranean territories, water
526 availability in soils is a limiting factor for the development of vegetation in spring or autumn
527 as well as in summer. These results seem to coincide with those from studies carried out on
528 more northern peatlands (Weltzin *et al.*, 2003; Keller *et al.*, 2004), where the floristic
529 composition of bogs and fens can be affected in response to warming and/or changes in water
530 table elevation.

531 However, an examination of this desiccation process from the beginning of the
532 seventeenth century yields striking results. Superimposing the sequence of desiccation of
533 these communities and of the lagoons with which they are associated together with the
534 isopiezometric data that indicate the height of the water table reveals that this drop in the
535 water table is prior to the most intense anthropic activity in the zone.

536

537

538 *Impacts linked to climate trends in peat bogs*

539

540 Until the first half of the twentieth century, human presence in the study area was
541 nominal (hunting and gathering activities). However, as seen in Table IV, from the beginning

542 of the seventeenth century until 1956, the area occupied by *E. ciliaris* heaths has decreased by
543 502 ha, some 24.7% of the area estimated for 1630. This downward trend became sharper at
544 the beginning of twentieth century, as the estimated mean annual rate of loss increased from
545 1.2 ha/year to 2.4 ha/year. What, then, are the causes of these changes prior to the intense
546 human activity in the study area? The analysis of the instrumental series of precipitation and
547 temperature reveals significant changes:

548 A. The first change is a trend towards a decrease in the accumulated frequency of wet
549 years compared with the accumulated frequency of dry years. The beginning of the trend
550 towards an increased frequency of dry years is seen at the beginning of the twentieth century,
551 after the third and last wet period of the LIA (see Figure 6). This last wet period has been
552 dated to the end of the nineteenth century in Andalusia by Rodrigo *et al.* (1999) and on the
553 Spanish Mediterranean coast by Barriendos and Martín-Vide (1998) and is coupled with an
554 increase in positive anomalies in annual mean precipitation (Sousa *et al.*, 2010). After this wet
555 period, at the beginning of the twentieth century, the frequency of dry years increases, which
556 would affect the hygrophyte and phreatophyte plant communities more markedly after the
557 summer climate becomes more pronounced as a consequence of the decrease in spring
558 precipitation (especially during the second half of the twentieth century; Figure 7a).

559 B. In parallel with this decrease in wet years and spring precipitation, there is an
560 increase in the mean minimum temperature from the beginning of the twentieth century
561 onwards (García-Barrón and Pita, 2004) and an increase of approximately 1 °C in the annual
562 mean temperature (Castro-Díez *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, the results in Figure 7b show an
563 increase in the disparity of the precipitation of the SW Iberian Peninsula, which could
564 increase erosional and colmatation processes by mobilising sediments that would eventually
565 be deposited over the lowest areas (lagoon basins and peaty areas). Granados *et al.* (1988),
566 Merino *et al.* (1990) and Sousa *et al.* (2003) have studied this process, known as secondary

567 dunification, in some areas of the Biosphere Reserve of Doñana. According to these authors,
568 this process, whose origin is associated with changes in climate trends, would overlap with
569 the impacts resulting from changes in land use. In this context, García-Barrón *et al.* (2011)
570 indicate that, regarding the disparity in rainfall, there is a relative stability during the first
571 third of the twentieth century coinciding with a period of low precipitation and a progressive
572 increase during the last three decades of the twentieth century in the SW Iberian Peninsula.

573 Thus, there are two climatic processes that appear to be synergically superimposed at
574 the beginning of the twentieth century: on one hand, the end of the LIA, and on the other, the
575 beginning of global warming. These biological changes coincide with what Sorvari *et al.*
576 (2002) and Sousa *et al.* (2006) term post-LIA warming.

577 If this interpretation is correct, it should be reflected in hydrogeology. In other words,
578 being a peat-associated shrub, at least in the study area, these climate changes should be
579 reflected in changes in the height of the isopiezometric levels. Therefore, if a climate factor
580 regulates the availability of water at the soil level, the sequence of disappearance of the
581 lagoons should follow the isopiezometric level. This can be observed in Figure 8.

582 The end of the LIA in Andalusia (Castro-Díez *et al.*, 2007) at the end of the nineteenth
583 century is associated with a gradual lowering of the water table, affecting the stenohydric
584 plant communities of the study area. The correlation of the historical climatic data (Granados
585 *et al.*, 1988; Merino *et al.*, 1990; Barriendos and Martín-Vide, 1998; Rodrigo *et al.*, 1999,
586 2000) with the reconstruction of the area occupied by peat bogs in the zone and of the extinct
587 large lagoons suggests that this was a process with a marked point of inflection. The dry
588 phase that occurs after the end of the LIA (at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning
589 of the twentieth) coincides with the desiccation of some wetlands in the southern (Valero-
590 Garcés *et al.*, 2006; Martín-Puertas *et al.*, 2008; Sousa *et al.*, 2009a) and central-eastern
591 (Romero-Viana *et al.*, 2009) Iberian Peninsula. In relation to this, Diodato *et al.* (2011) note

592 that erosive forcing increased towards the end of the Little Ice Age (~1850) in the western and
593 central Mediterranean and that forcing has increased in the recent warming period at low
594 Mediterranean latitudes due to a higher frequency of intensive storms. These changes
595 coincide in time with the waning of the glaciers in all Iberian mountains. The most southern
596 historical glacier in Europe (Sierra Nevada in Andalusia, southern Spain) became extinct in
597 Sierra Nevada during the first years of the twentieth century (González Trueba *et al.*, 2008).
598 Morellón *et al.* (2012), studying multiproxy palaeoclimatic records in the Southern Pyrenees,
599 detected a short-living return towards colder conditions and glacier stabilisation that occurred
600 during the late 19th–early 20th century, followed by warmer and more arid conditions
601 afterwards.

602 The regression of these communities is consistent with the effects on the biomes of the
603 Mediterranean mountainous zones of Montseny (NE Spain; Peñuelas and Boada, 2003).
604 Those authors demonstrate a progressive replacement of cold-temperate ecosystems by
605 Mediterranean ecosystems, involving the displacement of—among others—heath
606 communities. Similarly, Jump *et al.* (2006), studying the southern limit of communities of
607 *Fagus sylvatica*, conclude that increasing temperatures may lead to a rapid decline in the
608 growth of range-edge populations and a consequent retraction of the species distribution in
609 southern Europe. In this regard, the models applied to Spain for the effects of global warming
610 on plant biodiversity predict a “mediterraneisation” in the north and an “aridification” in the
611 south of the Iberian Peninsula (Fernández-González *et al.*, 2005).

612 Keller *et al.* (2004) argue that climate change will directly alter peatland
613 mineralisation pathways through changes in precipitation regimes (leading to changes in the
614 aerobic status of peat) and changes in temperatures. It is also important to consider the
615 changes in the plant communities associated with peat bogs (in this case, the replacement of
616 the communities of *E. ciliaris* and *Ulex minor* by *E. scoparia* and *U. australis*) because

617 climate change may also act indirectly through the contributions of litter due to variations in
618 plant community composition (Keller et al., 2004).

619 The effects of climate change on the heath communities of *E. ciliaris* can also be
620 related to other studies indicating that the recent increase in temperatures has affected the
621 phenology, dynamics, composition, and distribution of very different communities (Walther
622 *et al.*, 2002). Ecosystem responses to past climate change can provide insight into plausible
623 scenarios of response to future change and can elucidate factors that may influence the overall
624 predictability of such responses (Lloyd, 2005). Recent global climate change has already
625 begun to affect species' geographic ranges. Poleward shifts in range limits correlated with
626 climatic warming and changes in precipitation have been documented for a wide spectrum of
627 temperate and subtropical species, and phenological changes portend even more significant
628 poleward shifts (Colwell *et al.*, 2008). However, as noted by Thomas *et al.* (2009), linking
629 extinction and climate change involves problems of detection and attribution. Unless detailed
630 survey data are available, it is difficult to detect the initial stages of decline, so that
631 recognition of the association between extinction and climate change will lag after the event.

632

633

634 **Summary and conclusions**

635

636

637 In this paper, we have reconstructed the changes in the peat bog areas over the last four
638 centuries in SW Europe. These peat bogs have undergone a dramatic reduction (91.1%)
639 compared to their extent in the middle of the seventeenth century. The key factor that has
640 prompted this change is a lowering of the water table, which became especially stressed
641 during the second half of the twentieth century, primarily due to afforestation with eucalyptus

642 and to climate trends. Therefore, the changes in the peat bogs of SW Europe from the
643 seventeenth to the twentieth century are due to both anthropogenic impacts associated with
644 changes in land use and climate impacts, primarily caused by an aridisation process at the end
645 of the LIA.

646 Parmesan *et al.* (2011) state that land-use change can lead to more subtle synergisms,
647 either enhancing or masking responses to climate change. That is, important regional or
648 global alterations in plant communities as a result of climate changes during recent centuries
649 may have remained undetected because of the strong impact that man has had and is having
650 on certain natural spaces. García-Plazaola *et al.* (2008) have demonstrated that most
651 Mediterranean species are able to acclimatise efficiently to heat stress, whereas Atlantic
652 species such as the *E. ciliaris* heathlands associated with these peat bogs will be more
653 strongly affected by climate warming. As those authors note, this could be of special
654 relevance in the context of future climate warming in which Atlantic species are more
655 severely affected.

656 Thus, the results of this study underline the fact that the hygrophytic heathland
657 community of *E. ciliaris*, associated with peaty areas, is sensitive to both anthropogenic
658 impacts and changes in climate trends. Understanding these trends could be a tool of interest
659 not only for studying the dynamics of these oceanically influenced communities but also for
660 analysing the impacts of global change, and recognising the impacts of past and future climate
661 changes. In fact, the forecasted scenarios for the end of the 21st century predict that the
662 Mediterranean climate and grassland ecosystems will most likely experience the greatest
663 proportional change in biodiversity due to the substantial effects of all drivers of biodiversity
664 change (Sala *et al.*, 2000).

665 The changes in the water table have played a key role in the disappearance of the peat
666 bog areas of SW Europe. This becomes even more important if we take into account the

667 projections of the future effects of climate change in the study area. The results of the
668 modelling study of Doñana by Guardiola-Albert and Jackson (2011) indicate that, in general,
669 the changes in climate that will occur by the 2080s will lead to a reduction in groundwater
670 resources. According to Muñoz *et al.* (2012), under future climate change, the summer
671 swamping of *E. ciliaris* heathlands will decrease and the phreatic layer will descend, drying
672 the substrate and modifying the species composition of the community, decreasing the
673 number of specialist species in favour of generalist species. Thus, these ecosystems will lose
674 their ecological identity.

675 Further palaeoecological studies based on information obtained from dating the peat
676 could complete the analysis performed in this article. We believe that the method described in
677 this study can be used as a tool of interest for reconstructing peat bogs and their associated
678 plant communities, especially those acting as indicators of biological changes of anthropic
679 and/or climatic origin. Therefore, regional studies that use an *ad hoc* interdisciplinary analysis
680 to examine the southern boundary of plant communities sensitive to climate changes, as in
681 this case, can be a useful tool for progress in this field.

682

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684

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692

693 **Appendices**

694

695

696 *Appendix A. Historical Maps cited*

697

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726 *Appendix B. Historical documents and unpublished technical reports cited*

727

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730 por Gonzalo ARGOTE DE MOLINA. Reproducción facsímil de la edición de Sevilla

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746 esta ciudad, y al alcalde de la mar y río de la misma, la orden de S.M. para que los

747 barcos sardineros y otros pesqueros que faenan en aguas de Arenas Gordas transporten

748 piedras de Chipiona para las obras de las torres de almenara de la costa. Conformidad

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- 981

982 **Figure Legends**

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985 **Figure 1** (A) The world distribution of the taxon *E. ciliaris* according to Matthews (1937),
986 Rose *et al.* (1996), Kingston and Waldren (2005). (B) The distribution of *E. ciliaris* in
987 the Iberian Peninsula, compiled from the data of the Proyecto Anthos (Real Jardín
988 Botánico de Madrid, 2009) and from Bingre *et al.* (2007). The area where *E. ciliaris* is
989 found is marked by a broken line and highlighted in darker tones. (C) The location of
990 the study area in Spain (SW Europe), within the Doñana Natural Park

991 **Figure 2** The methodological sequence used to obtain the microtopography of the study area.
992 The six numbers that appear in the first figure (A) correspond to the official
993 numbering of the six sheets of the topographical map (1:10,000) that was utilised.

994 **Figure 3** The distribution of forest infrastructure during the critical phase of the period of
995 forest exploitation (AD 1936-1972). Compiled from the interpretation of aerial photos
996 at a scale of 1:33,000 from the flight of 1956, the Spanish Topographic Map, scale
997 1:50,000 (1951), and Espina and Estévez (1993).

998 **Figure 4** (A) Changes in forestry crops in the study area, modified from Sousa and García-
999 Murillo (2003). (B) Scatterplot of the extent of eucalyptus forestry crops and the
1000 population in the study area. The data are taken from municipal censuses of
1001 inhabitants (population of forestry nurseries 1945-1986) in ESPINA and ESTÉVEZ
1002 (1992)

1003 **Figure 5** (A) Maps showing changes in peat bogs in the study area. (B) Changes in the area
1004 occupied by peat bogs in the study area.

1005 **Figure 6** The accumulated frequency of dry and wet years at the San Fernando Observatory
1006 (southern Spain). The date estimated for the end of the Little Ice Age (LIA) in

1007 Andalusia is taken from Castro-Díez *et al.* (2007). The changes in the slope of the
1008 straight line in each section are highlighted with grey broken lines.

1009 **Figure 7 (A)** Evolution of the specific disparity index and spring precipitation **(B)** at the San
1010 Fernando Observatory (southern Spain)

1011 **Figure 8 (A)** Sequence of desiccation of the peat bog areas beginning in the early seventeenth
1012 century. This process begins in the south-westernmost lagoons and continues north-
1013 easterly **(B)**, coinciding with the isopiezometric gradient. The isopiezometric and
1014 underground flow data are for April-May 1989; the source is the Instituto Tecnológico
1015 y Geominero, Spain (1992).

1016

1017 **Tables**

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1020 **Table I** Sources of data used for the reconstruction of the area occupied by [peat bogs](#)

Period	Fieldwork	Aerial photography	Satellite imagery	Forestry archives	Historical documents	Historical maps	Microtopographic analysis
Twentieth century AD (1987)	X	X	X	X	-	-	-
Twentieth century AD (1956)	-	X	-	X	X	-	-
Nineteenth century AD (c. 1869)	-	-	-	-	X	X	X
Seventeenth century AD (c. 1630)	-	-	-	-	X	-	X

1021

1022

1023 **Table II** Phases in the ecological history of the Abalarío area highlighting the primary land-
 1024 use changes

Phase	Period (years)	Main characteristic	Land uses	Population
1 st	AD 1577-1879	Hunting and gathering	Traditional and marginal communal use	Demographic vacuum
2 nd	AD 1879-1936	Transition	Experimental lands aimed at obtaining yields for forestry use	Demographic vacuum
3 rd	AD 1936-1972	Forestry exploitation	Growth of forestry monocultures to obtain raw materials, curb dune advance, and fight against malaria	Forest hamlets
4 th	AD 1972-1989	Transition	Gradual reduction of forestry activity	Reduction in the occupation of the forest hamlets
5 th	AD 1989-2011	Conservationist	Traditional uses, protected natural space, and coastal tourism	Demographic vacuum; urban concentration on the nearby coast (Matalascañas and Mazagon)

1025

1026

1027 **Table III** Evolution of the vegetation and associated wetlands in the study area between 1956
 1028 and 1987 (augmented Sousa and García-Murillo, 2003)

Unit	Community	Indicator species	Number of			
			polygons (bowls or patches)		Area (ha)	
			1956	1987	1956	1987
Peat bogs	<i>Erico ciliaris-Ulicetum</i> <i>(minoris) lusitanicus</i>	<i>Erica ciliaris</i> and <i>Ulex</i> <i>minor</i>	178	30	1533.0	180.5
Seasonal lagoons	<i>Preslio-Eryngium</i> <i>corniculati, Ludwigio</i> <i>palustris-Cyperetum</i> <i>micelianus</i> , among others	Charophytes and oligotrophic pastures	99	114	575.2	626.2
Monte Negro	<i>Erico scopariae-Ulicetum</i> <i>australis</i>	<i>Erica scoparia</i> and <i>Ulex</i> <i>australis</i>	55	198	154.1	907.5

1029

1030

1031 **Table IV** Quantification of the changes in peat bogs in the study area during the period 1630-
 1032 1987

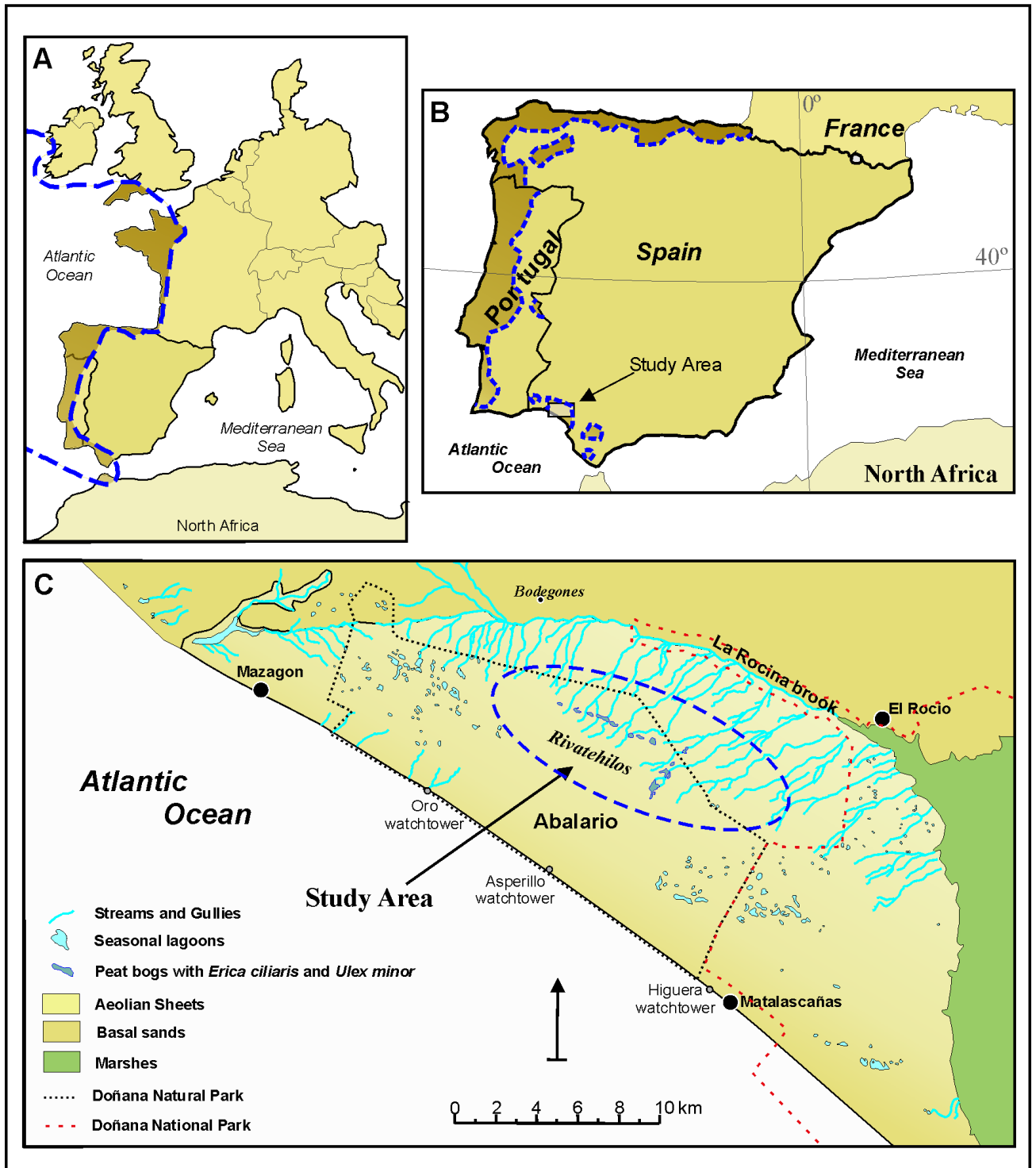
Year	Estimated area(ha)	Area vanished with respect to the previous period (ha)	Percentage remaining with respect to area in 1630 (%)	Percentage vanished with respect to area in 1630 (%)	Mean annual rate of regression in each period (ha/year)
<i>c.</i> 1630	2035.4	-	-	-	-
<i>c.</i> 1869	1739.0	296.4	85.4	14.6	1.2
1956	1533.0	206.0	75.3	24.7	2.4
1987	180.5	1352.5	8.9	91.1	43.6

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Figure 1 (colour):

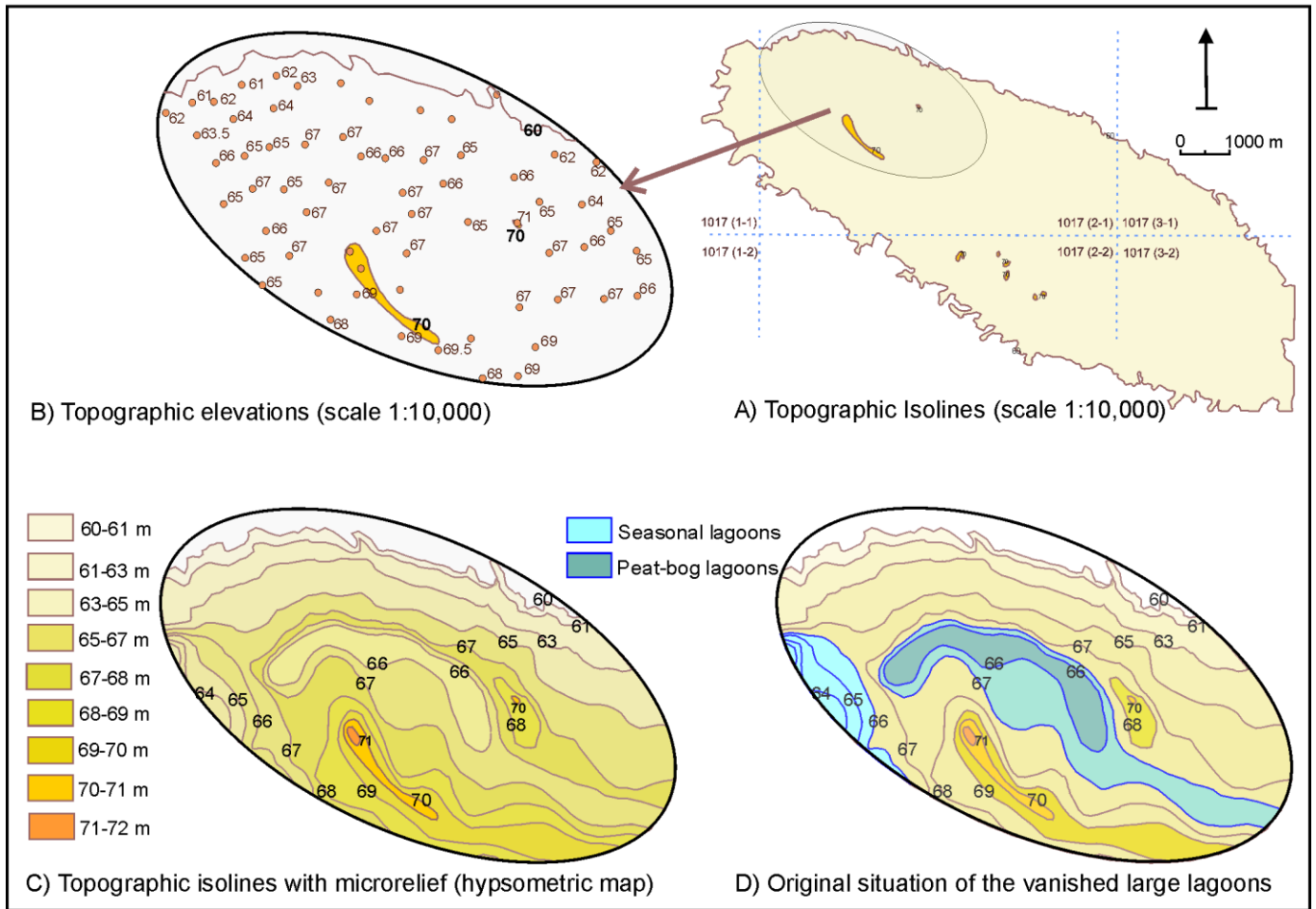


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Figure 2 (colour):

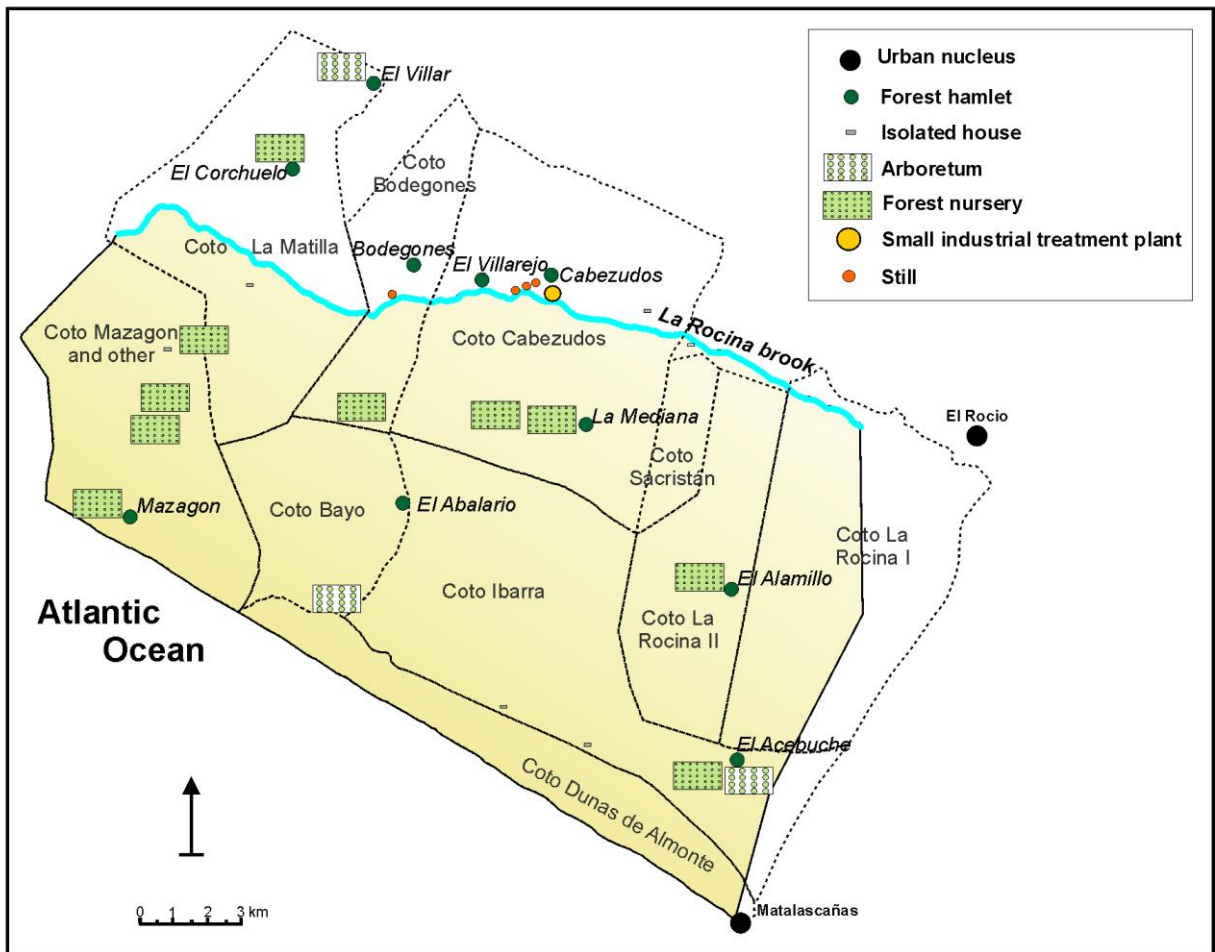


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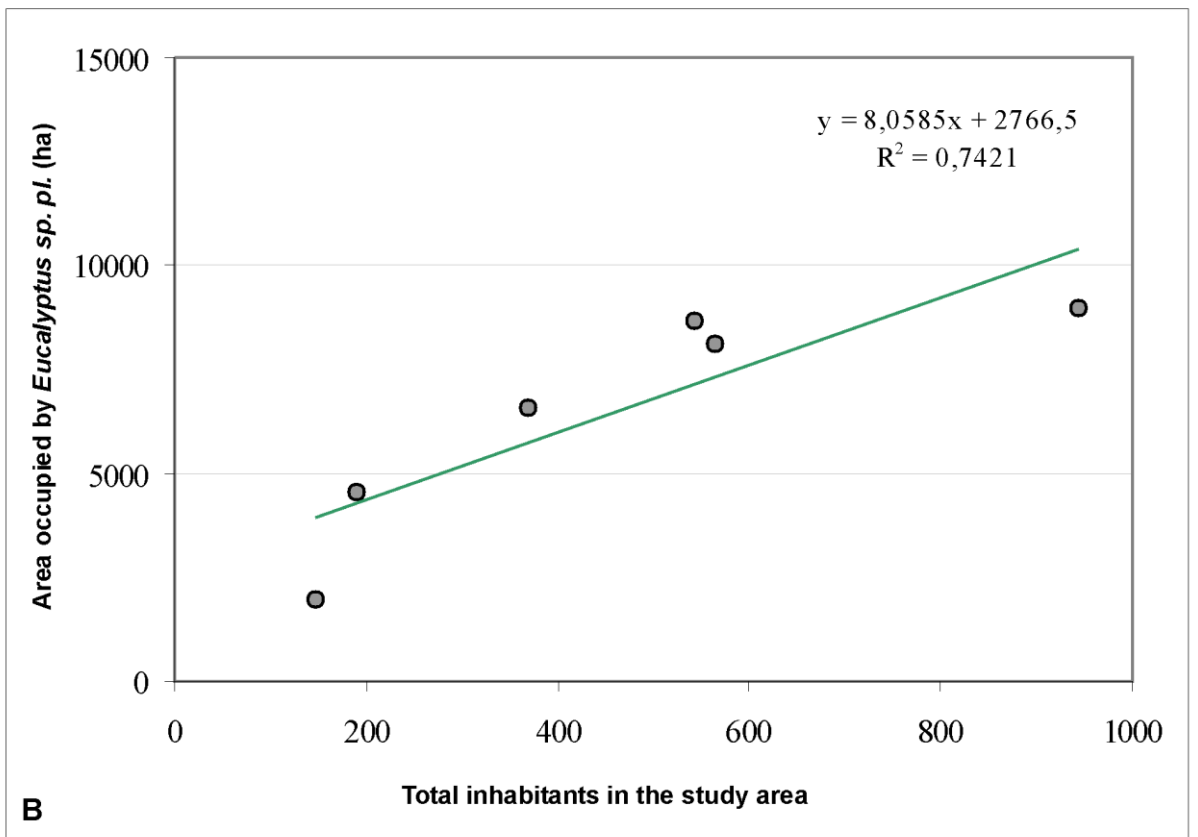
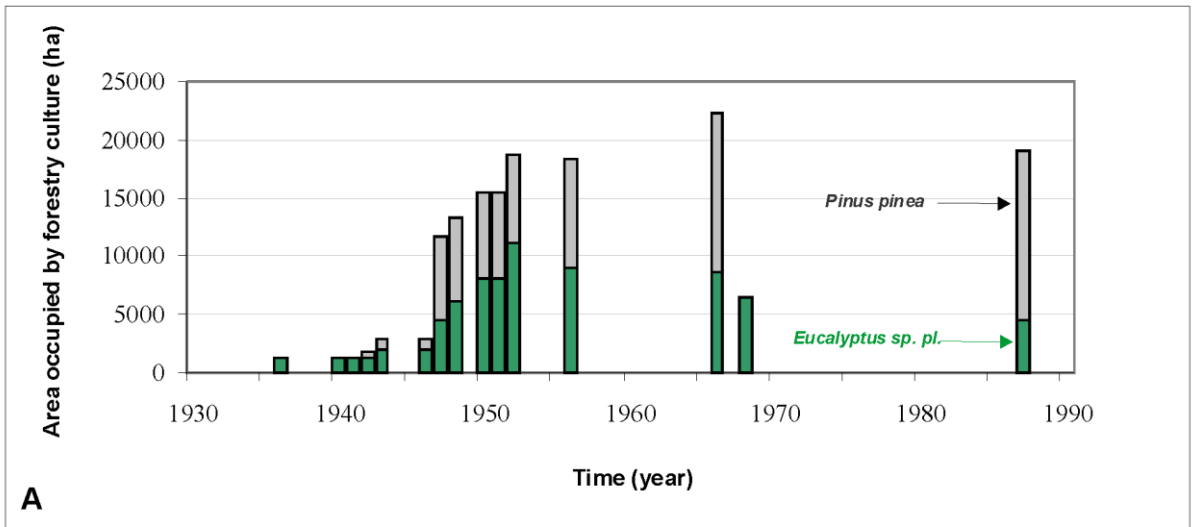
Figure 3 (colour):



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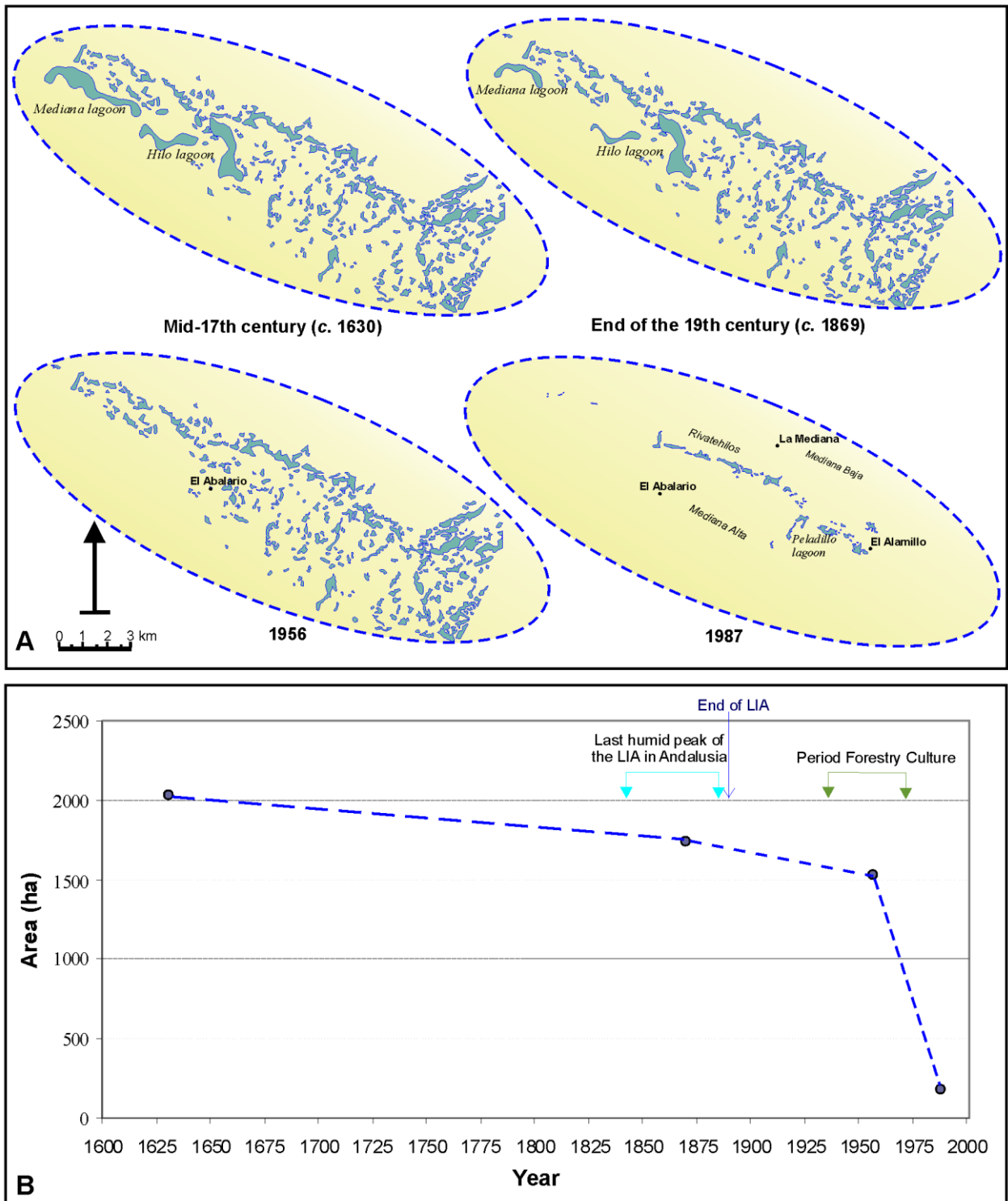
Figure 4 (colour):



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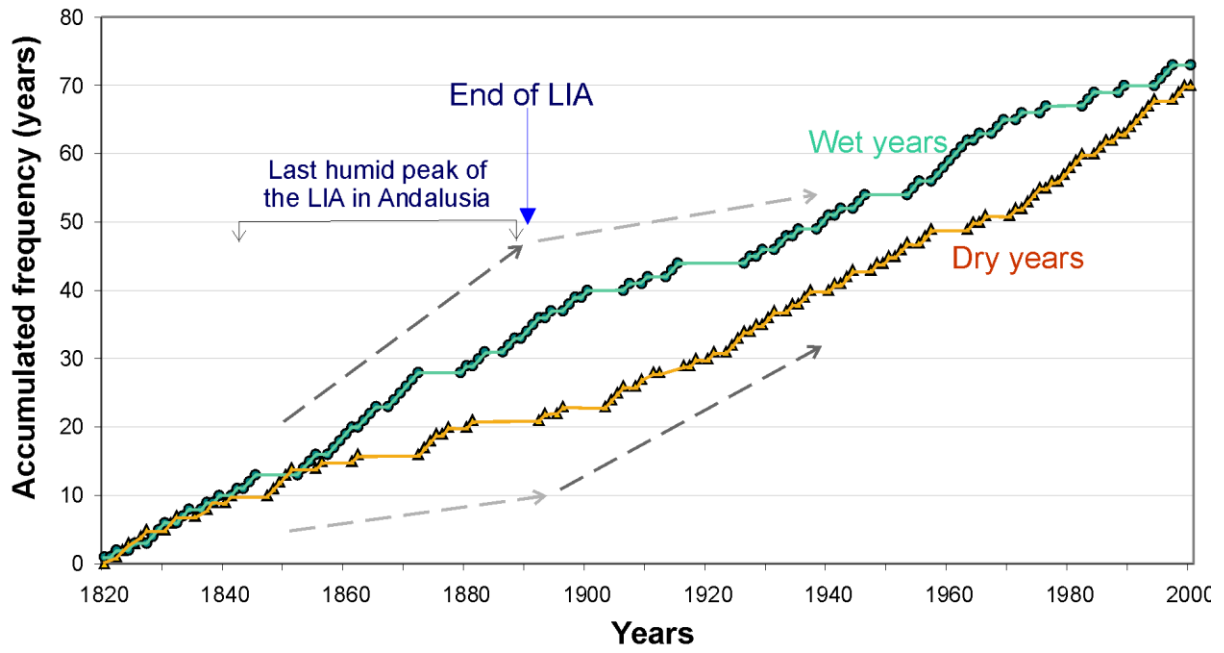
Figure 5 (colour):



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Figure 6 (colour):



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Figure 7 (colour):

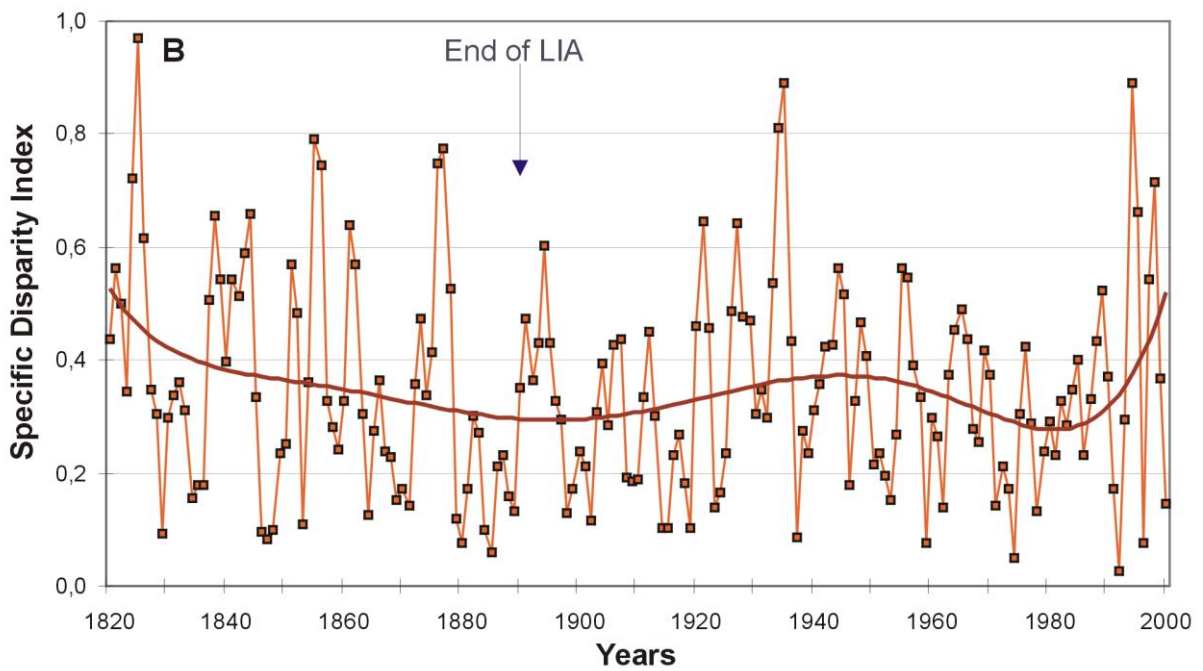
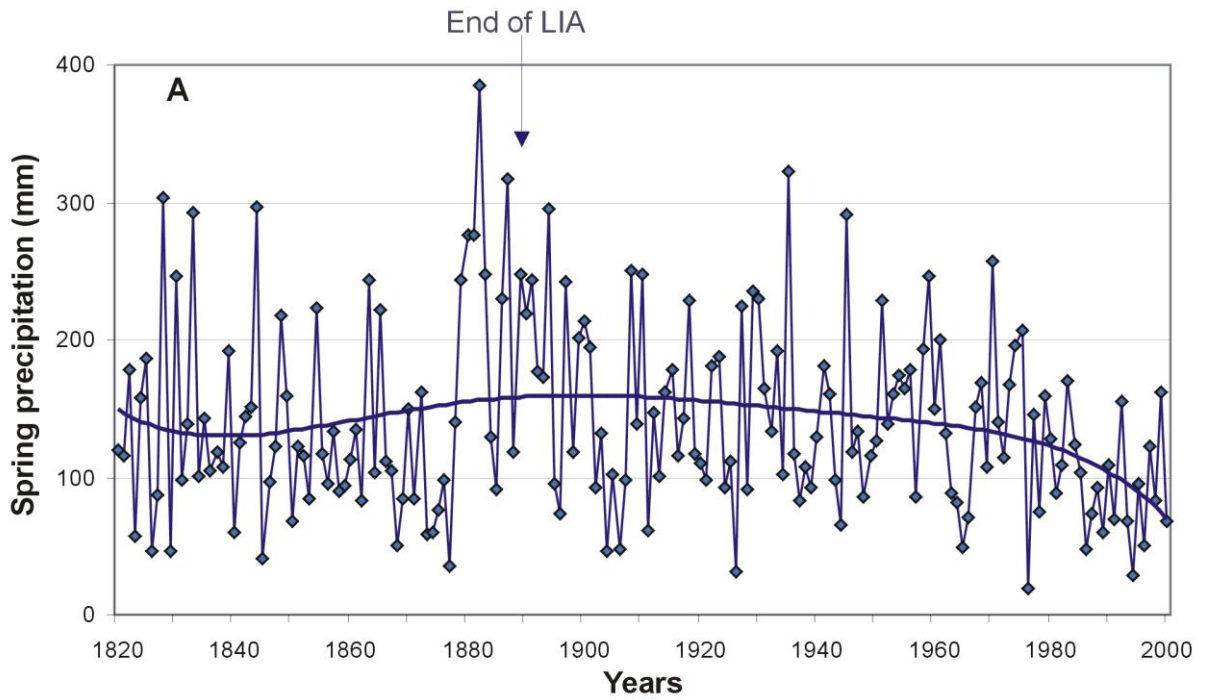
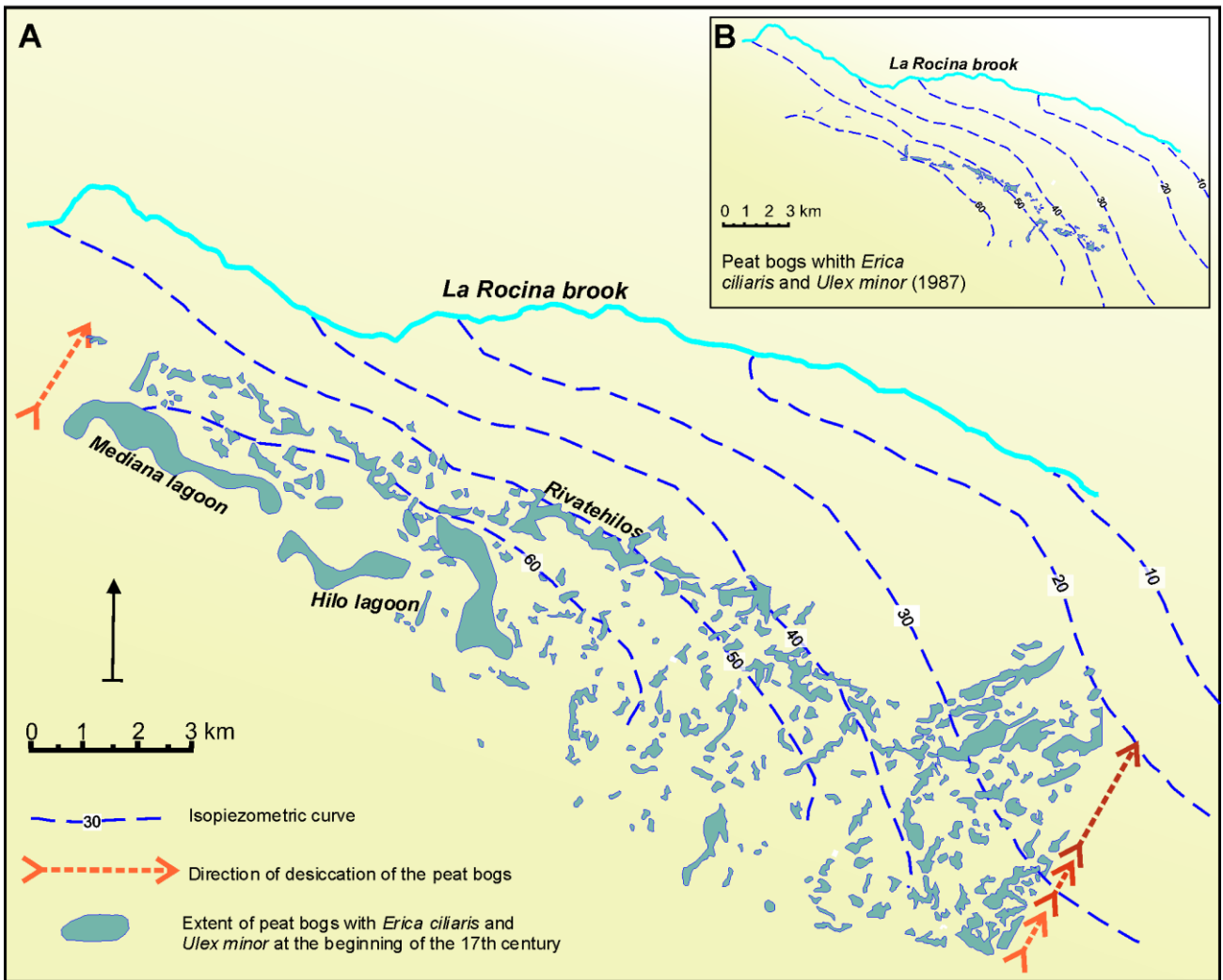


Figure 8 (colour):



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1052

1053 **Supplementary Material**

1054 This supplementary material provides:

1055 • Supplementary Material 1. Historic documents and unpublished technical reports for the
1056 study area not cited explicitly (listed by date).

1057 • Supplementary Material 2. Historic maps reviewed that include the study area (listed by
1058 date).

1059

1060 **Supplementary Material**

1061 **Supplementary Material 1. Historic documents and unpublished technical reports for**
1062 **the study area not cited explicitly (listed by date).**

1063 Brabo de Lagunas, L., 1577. File D-24 que trasmite al Conde de Barajas, Asistente de esta
1064 ciudad, y al alcalde de la mar y río de la misma, la orden de S.M. para que los barcos
1065 sardineros y otros pesqueros que faenan en aguas de Arenas Gordas transporten
1066 piedras de Chipiona para las obras de las torres de almenara de la costa. Conformidad
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