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2 Windiness spells in SW Europe since the Last Glacial 3 Maximum

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Dunefields have a great potential to unravel past regimes of atmospheric
14 circulation as they record direct traces of this component of the climate system. Along
15 the Portuguese coast, transgressive dunefields represent relict features originated by
16 intense and frequent westerly winds that largely contrast with present conditions, clearly
17 dominated by weaker northwesterly winds. Optical dating and subsurface stratigraphy
18 document three age clusters indicating main episodes of dune mobilization during: the
19 last termination (20-11.6 ka), Middle Holocene (5.6 ka), and Late Holocene (1.2-0.98
20 and 0.4-0.15 ka).

21 We find reconstructed windfields to be analogous during all episodes and
22 dominated by strong westerlies. Yet, larger grain size diameters and dune volumes
23 documented for the last termination support amplified patterns compatible with a
24 southward shift and intensification of the North Atlantic westerlies during winters.

25 Conversely, dunes deposited after the Middle Holocene are compatible with more
26 variable windfields and weakened patterns controlled by interannual shifts towards low
27 values of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO).

28 This work demonstrates that present windfield regimes in southern Europe are
29 not compatible with past aeolian activity. Indeed, present day analogs indicate that wind
30 intensities compatible with past aeolian activity are rare at present (sediment transport
31 potentials below estimates in the aeolian record), but can occur if the jet stream is
32 diverted to the south (i.e. 30°N with negative NAO index) or if very deep cyclones
33 anchor around 50°N, extending their influence to the western Portuguese coast
34 (relatively low NAO index). However, these conditions represent temporary patterns
35 lasting around one day, while we suggest that the identified episodes of aeolian activity
36 may represent semi-permanent conditions.

37 **1. INTRODUCTION**

38 The Mediterranean region has become a zone of major scientific interest in the
39 context of future climate change as projections anticipate increasing risks of droughts
40 and problems with water availability (Seager et al., 2014). In response to this more and
41 more urgent concern and to better anticipate ensuing consequences, a considerable
42 effort is being devoted to understand the mechanisms governing climate variability in
43 this region under present (Ulbrich et al., 2012) and past climatic conditions (Beghin et
44 al., 2015). Proxy records of past conditions are essential to extend available
45 instrumental datasets, which due to their limited lengths are not able to capture the
46 whole variability of the climate system. Additionally, proxy records are also important
47 to evaluate numerical climate models, which may also be used for projections of future
48 climate. However, recent works have found conflicting evidence when attempting to

49 explain past climate regimes based on present atmospheric circulation patterns (Dawson
50 et al., 2002; Sorrel et al., 2012; Trouet et al., 2012).

51 Disparities between proxy-based signals and modeling simulations may derive
52 from (i) unsolved uncertainties within climate variability, which are often related to the
53 unknown past characteristics of the major modes of atmospheric circulation, such as the
54 North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), and (ii) inconsistencies between different proxies
55 related to the ambiguous character of signals captured by indicators. Within this
56 context, the need for well-resolved palaeoenvironmental records has become more and
57 more important.

58 Dune deposits have a great potential as windfield regime indicators as they
59 record essential characteristics of this element of the climate system during their
60 formation. In turn, the state of the NAO, the major of atmospheric circulation within the
61 North Atlantic (NA), is characterized by an index, which is often interpreted as an
62 indicator of the strength of the westerlies over the eastern NA. Traditionally, dune
63 deposits have been attributed to drier or colder climates contributing to vegetation
64 decline and thus enhanced aeolian mobility (Lancaster, 1981). However, new and
65 improved records suggest stronger links to wind strength proxies (Chase, 2009).
66 Additionally, it is widely accepted that dunes respond to climate variability (Tsoar,
67 2005), confirming their potential as paleoclimate indicators.

68 Within this context, Costas et al. (2012) applied optically stimulated
69 luminescence (OSL) for age determination and ground penetrating radar (GPR) for
70 imaging the internal architecture of a transgressive dunefield at the central coast of
71 Portugal. The explored coast is situated at the southernmost position of the NA jet
72 stream, which in turn explains most of the precipitation within the western
73 Mediterranean, in particular at the Iberian Peninsula (Cortesi et al., 2014). Four phases

74 of major aeolian activity centered at 12.6, 5.6, 1.2, and 0.4 ka were identified and
75 associated to enhanced storminess in southern Europe (Costas et al., 2012).
76 Additionally, a good temporal correspondence was found among aeolian activity events
77 from northern to southern Europe, suggesting simultaneous periods of enhance
78 storminess across Europe. These evidence were reconciled to favorable patterns of
79 atmospheric circulation, suggesting prolonged negative phases of the NAO compatible
80 with enhanced storminess and westerly winds in southern Europe during winter while
81 the same conditions could be recorded during summer across northern Europe.
82 However, if long term reconstructions of the NAO are closely observed, we cannot find
83 periods of prolonged negative phases of the NAO as it is the case for the positive mode
84 (Baker et al., 2015; Trouet et al., 2009). Additionally, Costas et al. (2012) assessment of
85 past aeolian activity lacks information about the major driver of aeolian activity, i.e.
86 wind power, leading to questions such as which are the favorable conditions to promote
87 aeolian activity, and are these conditions compatible with the present-day wind regime?
88 These raise the need for a deeper understanding of the mechanisms behind aeolian
89 activity in the Portuguese coast with implications for local and regional atmospheric
90 circulation.

91 This work aims to develop mechanistic scenarios of enhanced storminess
92 impacting SW European coasts. We extend the data of Costas et al. (2012) back in time
93 to the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), intensively exploring the inland dunefield by
94 providing 24 new OSL dates, and reconstructing past wind conditions and atmospheric
95 patterns. The new dates confirm earlier conclusions suggested by Costas et al. (2012) on
96 the earliest phases (i.e. confirmation of the YD as a phase of aeolian activity and also
97 previous cold phases). In particular, we will focus on: (i) testing the application of
98 modern observations of atmospheric conditions for reconstructing past conditions, (ii)

99 understanding whether or not atmospheric conditions were similar for the different
100 episodes of past dune formation, and (iii) seeking for consistencies with other
101 paleoclimate records in W Europe. Finally, we will test the supportive hypothesis of a
102 common factor driving major episodes of aeolian activity in the past.

103

104 **2. STUDY AREA**

105 This work explores a fixed transgressive dunefield located at the central coast of
106 Portugal, south of the present Tagus ebb delta. Today, this region is characterized by
107 relatively weak average winds of around 5 m/s. Averaged values of precipitation per
108 year for the period between 1900 and 2000 AD was about 725 mm, with values ranging
109 between 500 and 1000 mm (Lima et al., 2005). The latter indicates precipitation values
110 well above the threshold needed for vegetation development.

111 At present, aeolian sedimentation is characterized by small scale processes
112 allowing the formation of relatively low foredunes at the back of the beach. These
113 foredunes are frequently eroded by wave action during severe winters and partially
114 recovered and vegetated as weather conditions improve, leading to the formation of
115 embrionic dunes at the base of the dune scarp. Dune scarping promotes the partial
116 fragmentation of foredunes through small-scale blowouts, which ultimately contribute
117 to the growth of foredune ridges that may reach 10 m above mean sea level (MSL). The
118 coastal plain extends seaward from the toe of a 60 m-high unconsolidated cliff and is
119 characterized by a set of four foredune ridges formed after 900 yrs ago (Costas et al.,
120 2012).

121 The transgressive dunefield developed on top of a terrace located inland of the
122 edge of the cliff, at around 60 m above mean sea level (MSL). The dunefield can be
123 considered as perched dunes formed on top of a pre-existing geological formation, and

124 extends up to 4.5 km inland and is 42 km² in areal extent (Costas et al., 2012). This
 125 dunefield includes the Caparica cliff-top dune and the inland extension of the aeolian
 126 system, the Apostiça transgressive dunefield, constituting a good example of past
 127 widespread aeolian activity along the Portuguese coast. The cliff-top dune consists of a
 128 dune ridge reaching 100 m above MSL and located immediately landward of the edge
 129 of the cliff. This dune ridge was classified as a merged dune included in the compound
 130 parabolic dunes type (Costas et al., 2012). Three different radar units were identified
 131 within the ridge and related to the inland advance of transgressive dunes after the
 132 Middle Holocene (Costas et al., 2012). The Apostiça transgressive dunefield extends 5
 133 km inland of the cliff edge and is represented by partially-filled to filled superimposed
 134 parabolic dunes advancing eastward (Costas et al., 2012).

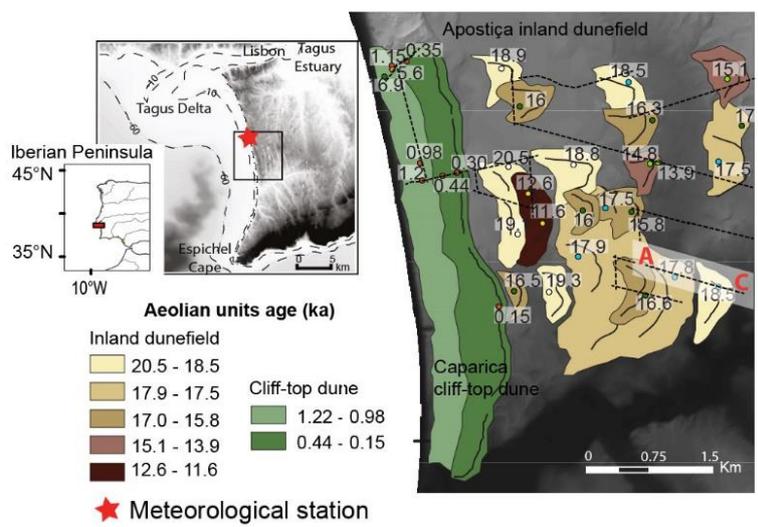


Figure 1. Location of the explored transgressive dunefield inland of the Trafaria-Espichel Cape littoral arch. The right panel shows the ages of the major aeolian units. The location of the GPR panel is pointed out with the letters A and C.

135 3. METHODS

136 Aeolian dunes provide excellent records of windfield variability through time by
 137 combining chronology and aerial photographs (Lancaster et al., 2002). In addition, dune
 138 accretion episodes can be determined if geophysical techniques are used to resolve the
 139 stratigraphy of aeolian deposits. Here, we combine new information from GPR and

140 OSL dates to complete and extend back in time the dataset of Costas et al. (2012) in
141 order to reconstruct past events of aeolian activity at the Portuguese coast (Fig. 1). (For
142 details of GPR survey and data processing see Costas et al. (2012).

143 Sediment sampling strategy was defined based on the results from GPR and the
144 10 m resolution digital terrain model of the transgressive dunefield. The spatial
145 coverage of the samples was designed to determine the temporal distribution of the
146 different dune building episodes. The dominance of isolated units resulting from the
147 advance of individual parabolic dunes, rather than vertically stacked units, obliged to
148 randomly collect the samples to account for age determination in a larger number of
149 individual dune buildings within the inland coversand. This approach was used to avoid
150 sampling bias limitations during the interpretation of the results in terms of age
151 frequency and distribution supporting the reliability of the OSL accumulation
152 chronologies and thus palaeoclimatic interpretation. A total of 22 new sediment samples
153 were collected from the subsurface (about 1.5 m from the surface) within the
154 transgressive dunefield while only two new samples were collected in the cliff-top dune
155 ridge for OSL dating, textural and compositional characterization. Additionally,
156 sediment samples from the foredune were collected and textural parameters estimated.

157 OSL analyses were based on the Single Aliquot Regenerative Dose (SAR)
158 protocol (Murray and Wintle, 2000). The details of the OSL analysis and sample
159 preparation are provided in Costas et al. (2012). All equivalent dose values (D_e) were
160 determined using the Central Age Model (Galbraith et al., 1999), unless data analysis
161 indicates partial bleaching, in which case the Minimum Age Model (Galbraith et al.,
162 1999) was used. All ages are quoted in years before 2012.

163 Atmospheric circulation patterns compatible with past dune migration were
164 evaluated and compared with local winds recorded at the present beach (Meteorological

165 station-773, Fig. 1). The available dataset is represented by a ten year (2002 to 2012)
166 series of local winds measured every 10 min, 10 m above ground level and provided by
167 the Portuguese Institute for Ocean and Atmosphere. Because wind characterization may
168 be biased by the reduced length of the available wind record, we have included a 49
169 year hindcast of surface winds for the Iberian Peninsula (Jerez et al., 2013; Lorente-
170 Plazas et al., 2014). The wind dataset extracted for the study area consists of hourly
171 winds resulting from a dynamical downscaling experiment, with a spatial resolution of
172 10 km, covering the Iberian Peninsula (IP), driven by the ERA40 reanalysis (1959-
173 2001) extended by European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF)
174 analysis (2002-2007) (Jerez et al., 2013; Lorente-Plazas et al., 2014). Simulated winds
175 show generally good temporal correlation with local data, but they systematically
176 overestimate wind magnitude (Lorente-Plazas et al., 2014). Unfortunately,
177 overestimation can be maximum for the zonal wind component in the north of the
178 Iberian Peninsula and some of the worst correlations were observed along coastal areas
179 (Lorente-Plazas et al., 2014). To evaluate the difference between simulated and
180 observed local data, both datasets are compared for the overlapping period (2002-2007).

181 Simulated wind dataset were used to evaluate dune mobility under present-day
182 conditions. For that, we first evaluate local windiness estimating the drift potential of
183 the local and simulated winds to produce the associated sand roses following the
184 methodology proposed by Fryberger (1979):

$$185 \quad DP = \sum q = \frac{U^2(U - U_t)}{100} t$$

186 where U is the wind velocity (in knots), measured at 10 m, U_t is the threshold wind
187 velocity (=12 knots) used in Fryberger (1979) and t is the time the wind blew above the
188 threshold velocity (in percent). Additionally, potential sediment transport compatible

189 with the characteristics of the transgressive dunefield was estimated applying the
190 equation proposed by Lettau and Lettau (1977):

$$191 \quad Q = K (\rho/g) \sqrt{D/D_{ref}} u_*^2 (u_* - u_{*t})$$

192 where K is a surface sediment dependent constant with a value of 4.2; ρ is the air
193 density, 1.25 kg m^{-3} ; g is the acceleration due to gravity, 9.81 m s^{-2} ; D is the median
194 grain diameter representative of the transgressive dunes and the foredune; D_{ref} is
195 reference median sediment grain size (0.25 mm); u_* is the shear velocity; and u_{*t} is the
196 threshold shear velocity. Theoretic threshold wind velocities were estimated applying
197 the Bagnold (1941) equation:

$$198 \quad u_{*t} = A[gD(\rho_s - \rho)/\rho]^{1/2}$$

199 where u_{*t} is the threshold shear velocity; ρ_s is the density of the sediment, 2650 kg m^{-3} ;
200 and A is a constant of 0.085 during active saltation. Other variables such as humidity or
201 vegetation may increase the value of the threshold shear velocity. However those are not
202 considered on our simple approach, leading to results of thresholds below the real ones
203 and to overestimated values of potential sediment transport.

204 Shear velocities can be transformed into wind speeds measured at 10 m applying the
205 logarithmic law-of-the-wall:

$$206 \quad u_z = (u_*/k) \ln(z/z_o)$$

207 where u_z is the wind speed at the elevation z ; k the von Karman's constant, i.e. 0.4 and
208 z_o is the roughness length of the surface defined by Bagnold (1941); $z_o = D_{50}/30$,
209 where D_{50} is the median grain size diameter.

210 **4. RESULTS**

211 4.1 Aeolian activity over the past

212 The stratigraphy and chronology of the dunefields allow us to detect discrete
213 phases of aeolian activity separated by gaps in the overall OSL age errors distribution
214 peaking at 0.35, 1.10, 5.60 and 17.5 ka (Table 1 Supplemental Material, Fig. 2). Time
215 bins of 1000 years were applied to the Late-Pleistocene units (errors ranged between
216 600 and 1200 yrs) while Holocene units were clustered using time bins of 500 (errors
217 ranging between 210 and 10 years). The older identified episode, which represents the
218 encroachment of the inland coversand, was assigned to the last termination (time period
219 between 22.0 to 11.5 ka according to Björck et al. (1998)) and represents an almost
220 continuous event extending from 20.5 to 11.6 ka. Aeolian activity during this episode
221 was maximum at 17.5 ka, decreased after 15.1 ka and stopped after 11.6 ka.

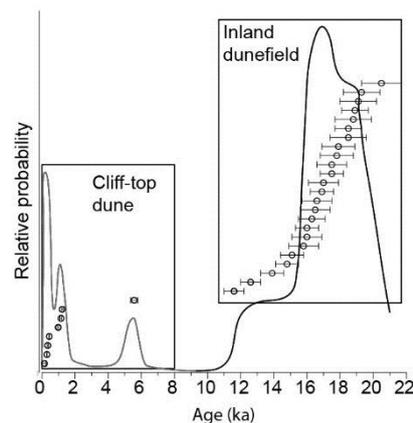


Figure 2. Relative probability plot of OSL ages. The entire dataset includes 24 OSL ages from the explored transgressive dunefield (i.e. the cliff-top dune and the inland dunefield). The peaks represent discrete phases of aeolian activity separated by gaps in the overall OSL age errors distribution. Bin sizes of 1000 years have been applied to identify last termination phases while Holocene phases were separated using 500 years bins.

222 Dune stratigraphy and morphology of the inland coversand indicates that dunes
223 are spatially organized to form superimposed parabolic dunes oriented eastward
224 (orientations between 240 and 270°). The latter suggests successive pulses of aeolian
225 sand as supported by the obtained stratigraphy, which shows aeolian buildings formed
226 by one unit overlaying the Pleistocene terrace (Fig. 3). Internally, units consist of

227 several packages or subunits separated by second order surfaces, which define internal
 228 packages or sub-units interpreted as representing the migration of superimposed dunes
 229 (Fig. 3). Additionally, third order bounding surfaces within the set of cross strata
 230 indicate reactivation surfaces formed by fluctuations in airflow.

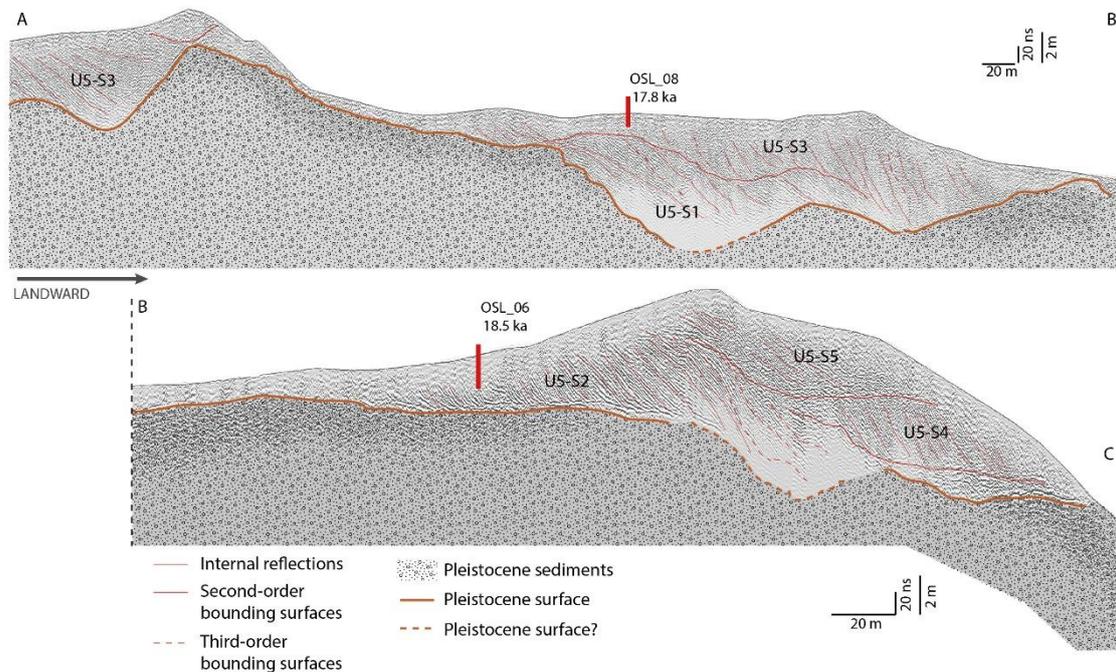


Figure 3. GPR line surveyed within the inland transgressive dunefield. For line location see Fig. 1.

231 The spatial distribution of the ages does not show a clear temporal segregation
 232 (Fig. 1); oldest dunes are partially covered and surrounded by younger dunes. The latter
 233 supports the eastward influx of aeolian sediment during different episodes of dune
 234 building rather than its continuous recycling. On the other hand, the large range of ages
 235 found in this area suggests that this terrace functioned as a trap to the aeolian sand
 236 migrating inland. Sand encroachment on this area could be explained by the
 237 morphology of the Pleistocene terrace, which gently dips landward, creating a shadow
 238 area with wind power reduction that could force the dunes to settle and stop their
 239 landward migration.

240 Following this extensive episode of aeolian activity, new pulses of sand drift
241 during the Late- and Mid-Holocene suggest the onset of new major episodes of aeolian
242 activity responsible for the formation of the cliff-top dune ridge (Costas et al., 2012).
243 The stratigraphy of the cliff-top dune, combined with the analysis of its morphology
244 from a digital terrain model, shows two vertically stacked units resulting from merged
245 parabolic dunes advancing inland simultaneously (Costas et al., 2012). These are fixed
246 once they reach the edge of the cliff to form the cliff-top ridge as they reach an area of
247 flow separation just landward of the cliff. Stacking of units supports successive episodes
248 of dune activity separated by periods of dune stabilization marked by the presence of a
249 super-bounding surface (Costas et al., 2012). The latter marks the stabilization of the
250 aeolian unit deposited 5.6 ka ago, during the Mid-Holocene, and the encroachment of a
251 new sand unit during the Late-Holocene (1.20-0.98 ka). The last unit was reactivated
252 between 0.44 and 0.30 ka, during the Little Ice Age (LIA). Finally, the dune ridge
253 appears locally fragmented as a consequence of the isolation of individual parabolic
254 dunes that continue their migration inland. This was the case of the aeolian unit dated at
255 0.15 ka (Fig. 1). Age determination of two subunits generated during the last
256 reactivation of the dune between 0.44 and 0.30 ka, allowed estimating a migration rate
257 of the dune during this period of time. The latter suggests that the dune was migrating at
258 rates around $16.21 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (i.e. $43000 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

259 A major difference between the dunes within the cliff-top ridge and the inland
260 coversand is the distances that they must have travelled before being fixed. If we
261 assume that sediment is transferred inland through the migration of transgressive dunes
262 fragmented from a former coastal barrier, the distance travelled by Late-Pleistocene
263 dunes should range between 10 and 7 km while Holocene dunes should have migrated
264 about 1 km. The longer transported distances occurred during the last termination when

265 sea-level was lower but rising from about 120 to 50 m below MSL (Lambeck et al.,
 266 2014). Conversely, short distance Holocene transgressive dunes were formed after sea
 267 level reached its present position 7 ka ago (Vis et al., 2008).

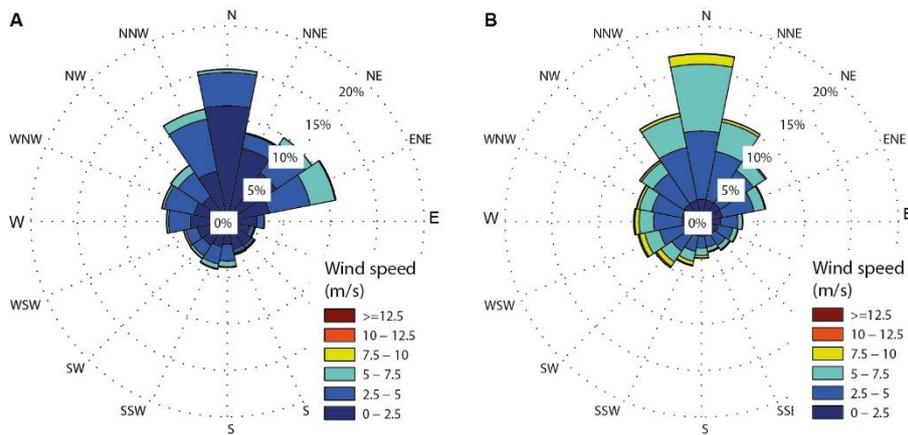
268 **4.2 Building present day analogs**

269 This section explores the conditions for entrainment of past sand dunes and
 270 present day windfield regime to test the following hypothesis: present-day winds are not
 271 compatible with past aeolian activity because of a significant reduction of windiness
 272 (wind power per year) relative to windfield regimes responsible for major past events of
 273 aeolian activity.

274 **4.2.1 Present-day windfield regime**

275 The 10 years wind record of observations obtained from the present beach
 276 shows that the local windfield is dominated by winds approaching from north-northeast
 277 (18%) and north-northwest directions (19%) (Fig. 4A). About 41% of the record is
 278 represented by westerly winds (wind directions between 225 and 315°).

279



284 Figure 4. Wind rose of the 10 year record of local wind observations (A), and of the 49 years hindcast
 285 surface winds (B).

285 Frequent wind velocities are below 3 m s⁻¹ (59%) while winds above 6 ms⁻¹
 286 constitute only 3% of the entire record (Fig. 4). Yet, most intense winds are blowing

287 from the south-southwest when cyclones approach the Portuguese coast, contributing
 288 significantly to the resultant drift direction (RDP, Fig. 5) and to the low ratios of
 289 RDP/DP (Fig. 5A), which are in turn indicative of multidirectional winds.

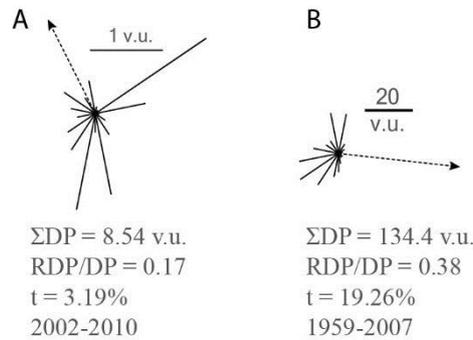


Figure 5. Sand rose showing local drift potential based on the 10 year record of local wind observations (A), and based on the 49 years of surface winds hindcast (B). The arrow shows the magnitude of the resultant drift potential (RDP, dashed line) and the resultant drift direction. *DP* represents the total drift potential, and *t* is the time the wind blew above the threshold velocity (in percent).

290

291 In an attempt to extend the wind record back in time, we examine a 49 years
 292 hindcast for the same location and compare with local observations using the same
 293 sampling interval for the period of time that both dataset overlap (Fig. 6). The
 294 comparison shows a good correspondence despite a weak correlation (R-square 0.30)
 295 and a systematic wind intensity overestimation of about 2 ms^{-1} (Fig. 6). Wind simulated
 296 directions indicate that northerly winds (north-northeast and north-northwest) are more
 297 frequent than observations, suggesting the influence of the local orography on shifting
 298 wind directions towards the west. The latter explains the higher contribution of
 299 southerly winds to RDP (Fig 5). Regarding wind intensities, simulated winds indicate
 300 that the area is dominated by winds below 7 ms^{-1} (83%).

301 Overall, the evaluation of present winds as potential transport agent suggests a
 302 low energy environment ($DP < 200 \text{ VU}$) dominated by multidirectional winds (low to
 303 intermediate RDP/DP, Fig. 5). Potential sediment transport at the study area was
 304 estimated using the simulated winds because: (1) the dataset covers a longer period of

305 time, and (2) it does not account for orographic or other surface roughness effects,
306 which in turn may have changed over time, e.g. as shoreline migrated several kilometers
307 eastward accompanying sea level rise.

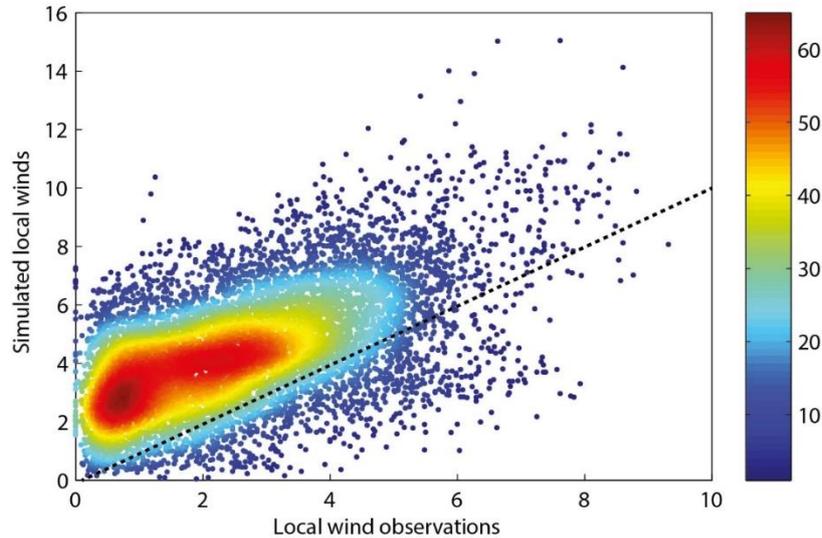


Figure 6. Scatter plot of local wind observations versus wind simulations for the same period of time and using the same sampling interval. Colours indicate data density.

308

309 **4.2.2 Potential sediment transport**

310 Textural analysis of samples representative of the transgressive dunefield
311 indicate that the explored dunes consist of well-rounded and moderately well-sorted,
312 coarse quartz sand (> 90% of SiO₂). Median-grain diameters ranged between 0.40 and
313 0.75 mm with negatively skewed grain size distributions (Table 1, Fig. 7), tailoring
314 towards coarser sediments. Finer sediments were found within the Late Holocene units
315 (Table 1, Fig. 7). Finally, modern dunes are conformed by finer sediments, symmetric
316 and more leptokurtic (peaked) grain size distributions (Fig. 7). Grain size distributions
317 suggest that Holocene sediments are a mix of the sediments within the last termination
318 and the modern dunes.

319

Table 1. Sediment texture.

Age interval (ka)	N° samples	Mean D ₅₀ (mm)	Maximum D ₅₀ (mm)	Minimum D ₅₀ (mm)
20-11.6	13	0.60	0.75	0.50
5.6-0.15	7	0.50	0.62	0.40
Modern	5	0.29	0.33	0.25

320

321 Threshold wind velocities estimated for the sediments conforming the transgressive
 322 dunes indicate critical velocities above 9.11 m s^{-1} and 9.84 m s^{-1} for the Late Holocene
 323 and last termination dunes respectively. Modern dune sediments indicate lower values
 324 with critical velocities around 7 m s^{-1} .

325

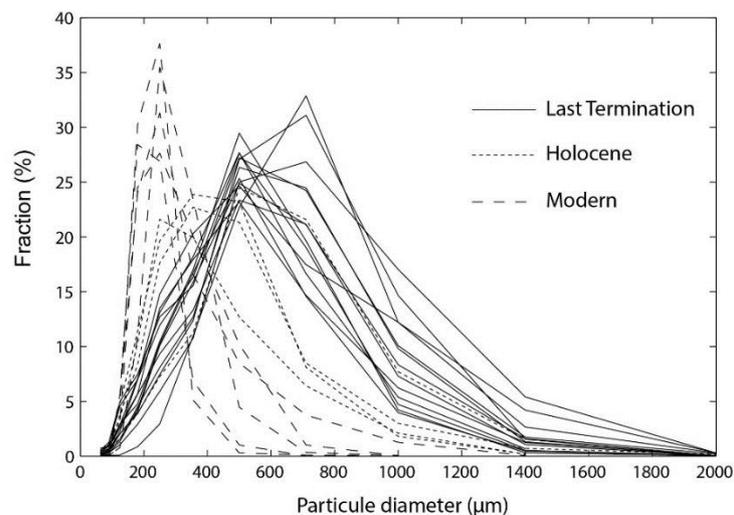


Figure 7. Grain size distribution of the analysed samples collected within the modern, the Late Holocene and last termination dunes.

326

327 Threshold velocities were contrasted with simulated winds to evaluate dune
 328 mobility under present windfield regimes. For that, we have filtered the data for
 329 different threshold wind velocities and favorable wind angle ranges (i.e. between 225°
 330 and 315°). Simulated winds suggest that threshold wind velocities for sand entrainment

331 are rarely reached (Fig. 8A, B). Simulated westerly winds compatible with the
332 migration of the Holocene transgressive dunes (i.e. 225-315° and wind speeds above
333 9.11 m s⁻¹) represented 0.83 % of the total number of records while winds compatible
334 with modern dunes were recorded about 2.5 % of the record. Simulated winds
335 compatible with the last termination dunes were recorded about 0.5 % of the time,
336 explaining very low sediment transport potentials per year. Indeed, maximum sediment
337 transport potentials compatible with the older dunes were estimated for the year 1966
338 (about 2500 kg m⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Fig. 8C), and represent less than one order of magnitude of the
339 sediment transport rates estimated for the LIA (i.e. 43000 kg m⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Estimated
340 transport potentials suggest that values above 2000 kg m⁻¹ yr⁻¹ are rare and have been
341 only reached before the mid-80s. On the other hand, sediment transport potentials
342 compatible with Late Holocene dunes may reach values of 3200 kg m⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Fig. 8C)
343 while estimates assuming present day dune sediments reach values of 5000 kg m⁻¹ yr⁻¹,
344 compatible with the small size of modern dunes.

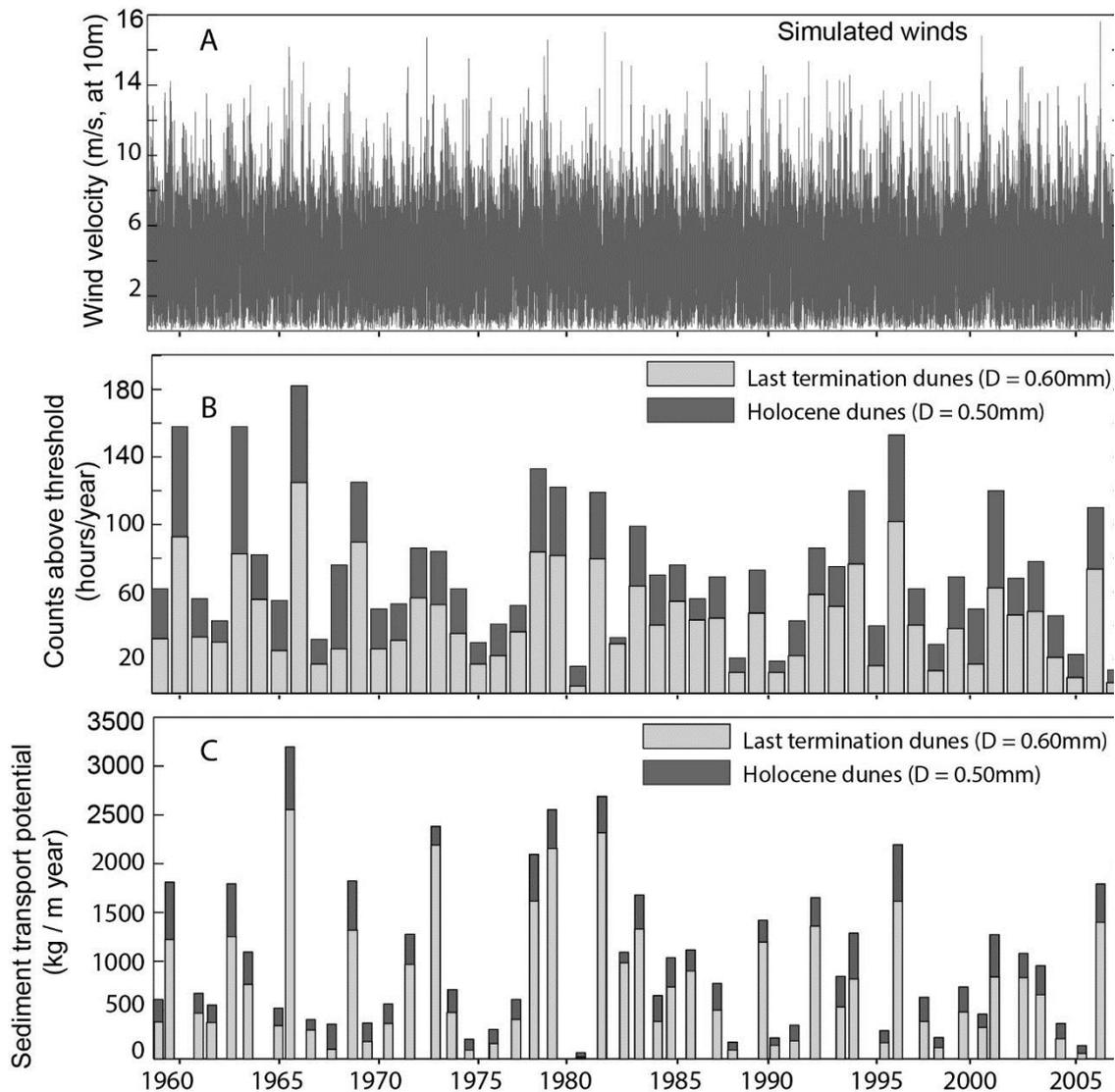


Figure 8. Estimation of the sediment transport potentials per year for the entire simulated dataset. (A) Simulated wind dataset, (B) number of hours or records per year with velocities above wind velocity threshold (i.e. 9.11 m s⁻¹), and (C) estimated potential sediment transport per year.

345 Smaller grain sizes within the modern aeolian system suggest either a change in
346 the sediment source over time, or less powerful winds and waves impacting the study
347 area. Changes in the sediment supply are not easy as the most important source of
348 sediments to the study area depends on the continuous recycling from in situ deposits
349 such as the unconsolidated cliff (Costas et al., 2012). Conversely, finer sediments at the
350 beach could be explained if wave energy is lowered while reduced wind speeds could
351 explain finer grain sizes, the reduced scale of the dunes (maximum dune thickness
352 around 3 meter), and its rapid vegetation colonization.

353 **5. DISCUSSION**

354 **5.1 Atmospheric circulation**

355 Present-day winds have been explored here to identify recent atmospheric
356 circulation patterns compatible with aeolian activity in southern Europe through the
357 Holocene and the last termination. For this, we have selected two representative events
358 from local observations compatible with past aeolian activity (i.e. local wind velocities
359 above threshold and events extending more than 60 min). Once the events were selected
360 (27 February 2010 and 31 October 2003), the corresponding northeast Atlantic surface
361 pressure maps were closely analyzed to find the main patterns susceptible to promoting
362 intense westerly winds over the western Portuguese coast in the present-day climate
363 (Fig. 9).

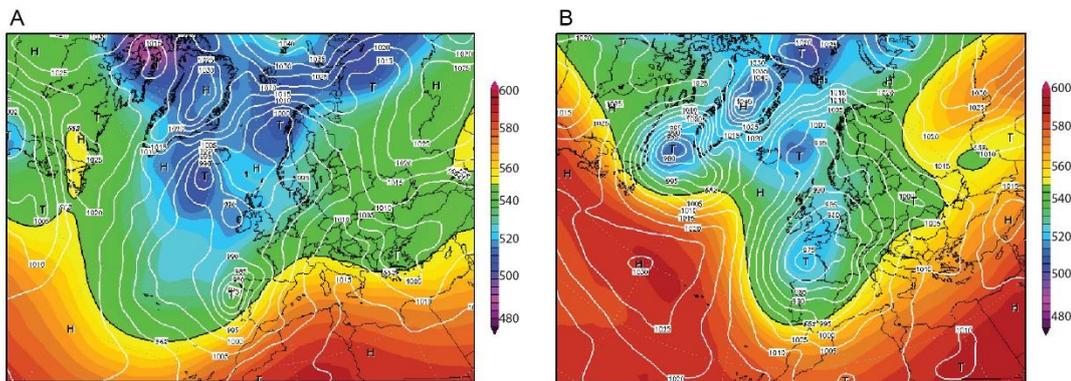


Figure 9. Surface pressure maps for the northeastern Atlantic region showing the patterns that promote the incidence of strong westerly winds over the western Portuguese coast. Contour lines represent surface pressure (in hPa) and the colour shading the 500 hPa geopotential height (in geopotential decametres, or gpdm) (source: www.wetterzentrale.de/).

364
365 The first is represented by surface pressure conditions showing several and
366 fragmented low pressure systems along the Atlantic European coasts from the northern
367 Scandinavia to the Iberian Peninsula, and relatively weak highs around Iceland (Fig.
368 9A). This pattern is compatible with a jet stream diverted to the south by the presence of

369 high pressure blocking ridges in a context of weakened polar vortex. Under these
370 conditions, windy events at the Portuguese coast result from the direct impact of
371 cyclones following a southern track under conditions of persistent negative daily values
372 of the NAO index. This pattern dominated the winter season of 2009/2010. A good
373 example was the severe Xynthia windstorm that impacted western Europe in February
374 2010, claiming dozens of casualties and causing major damage along the Iberian
375 Peninsula, France, Germany and the Benelux countries. During this event, the center of
376 the low pressure approached the Iberian Peninsula coast following an unusual SW-NE
377 path that generated very strong southerly winds (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2011).

378 The second pattern is characterized by the presence of very deep low pressure
379 systems displaced to the south of Iceland and centered over the British Islands. These
380 systems may extend their influence over the entire western coast of Europe, promoting
381 strong westerly winds from northern Europe to Portugal (Fig. 9B). This pattern is also
382 well represented by the conditions that prevailed during the 2013/2014 winter season
383 over the western coast of Europe. As a consequence, very large floods occurred in the
384 United Kingdom and France, while severe coastal damages took place in the Iberian
385 Peninsula with dramatic consequences for local economies. Such conditions are
386 characterized by positive, but relatively low values of the daily NAO index.

387 Both situations represent events during which westerly winds have enough
388 power to promote aeolian sediment transport of medium to coarse sand as storms are
389 enhanced at the end of a southward deflected NA storm track. It is worth noticing that
390 both situations are favorable to the occurrence of “relative” blocking as the Icelandic
391 Low is less deep (but not permanently replaced by an absolute high pressure cell as in
392 “real” blocking). The mechanistic scenarios identified here support the study carried out
393 by Raible et al. (2007), who found the southward shift of the cyclone storm track and a

394 pronounced increase in extreme wind speeds south of 50° during the LIA triggered by a
395 relatively strong cooling over the northernmost Atlantic. However, at present these rare
396 events represent synoptic time scales of short duration (i.e. less 1.5 days) that contrast
397 with more permanent negative conditions reproduced by proxies and simulations during
398 the LIA (Baker et al., 2015; Trouet et al., 2012). Indeed, present-day analogs suggest
399 that dunes sharing the features of the explored record would very unlikely form under
400 present conditions because of the resultant low drift potentials and multidirectional
401 winds. Indeed, the latter are not compatible with the formation of parabolic dunes as the
402 observed within the aeolian record.

403 The two modern events provide a good indication of the conditions that were
404 responsible for dune deposition during the last termination and the Holocene, setting
405 atmospheric circulation patterns compatible with large-scale aeolian activity at southern
406 Europe to more permanent low values of the NAO index. The latter implies the
407 southward shift of the NA the storm track and the associated westerly winds. Indeed,
408 Estimates of potential sediment transport show higher values during the first half of the
409 explored dataset (Figure 8C), which is dominated by negative to relatively low values of
410 the NAO index (Hurrell, 1995).

411 **5.2 Major pulses of aeolian activity in the past**

412 The extended and improved record of aeolian activity from the central coast of
413 Portugal traces favorable conditions for dune building episodes in southern Europe over
414 the last 20.5 ka centered at 0.35, 1.10, 5.60 and 17.5 ka (Fig. 2). The identified episodes
415 suggest the southward deflection of the NA storm track and the strengthening of the
416 westerlies over southern Europe during well-known climatic extremes such as the
417 Heinrich event 1 (HE1) (Hemming, 2004), the 5.6 ka event (Mayewski et al., 2004), the
418 end of the Dark Ages (Helama et al., 2009), and the LIA (Bradley and Jones, 1993).

419 **5.2.1 The Holocene**

420 The occurrence of discrete events of aeolian activity recorded through the
421 Holocene suggests the onset of wind conditions enhancing aeolian activity during short
422 periods of time. The record of aeolian activity represents periods of enhanced
423 storminess (Costas et al., 2012), whose temporal distribution appears in phase with
424 storminess periods affecting northern and central Europe (Orme et al., 2015; Sorrel et
425 al., 2012; Trouet et al., 2012 and references therein). The synchronicity of these events
426 is illustrated in Fig. 10, which compiles the spatial and temporal distribution of
427 storminess periods during the Holocene based on: (i) aeolian activity related to dune
428 mobility (Bateman and Godby, 2004; Clarke et al., 2002; Clemmensen et al., 2009;
429 Costas et al., 2013; Gilbertson et al., 1999; Wilson et al., 2004), loess deposition
430 (Jackson et al., 2005), clastic material concentration on raised bogs (Björck and
431 Clemmensen, 2004; Jong et al., 2006; Orme et al., 2015), or chemical species in polar
432 snow (Mayewski et al., 1997), (ii) occurrence of storm-related coastal deposits (Degeai
433 et al., 2015; Sabatier et al., 2012; Sorrel et al., 2012; Van Vliet-Lanoë et al., 2014), and
434 (iii) glacier evolution (Bakke et al., 2008). The observed distribution claims periods of
435 enhanced storminess across Europe during the LIA, the end of the Dark Ages and
436 during the Mid-Holocene, supporting a pattern that conflicts with the typical dipole
437 configuration displayed by the NAO.

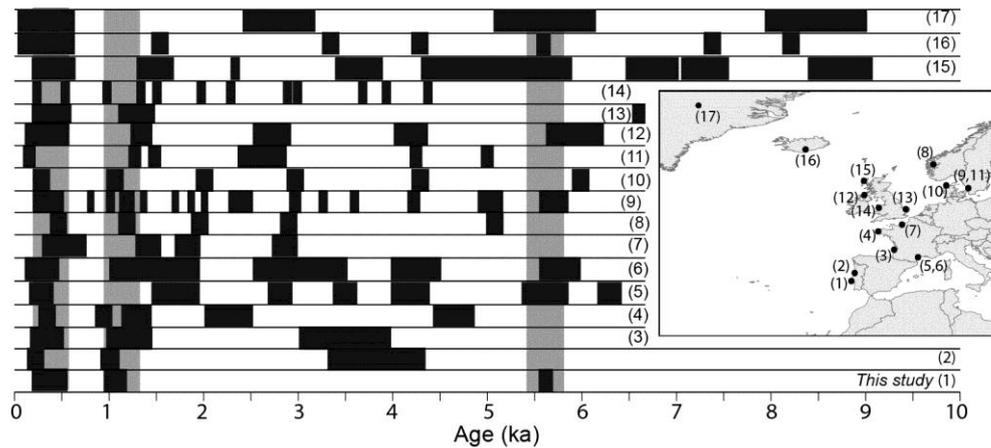


Figure 10. Temporal and spatial distribution of storminess periods over the Holocene (black boxes). The gray vertical bars represent the timing of the episodes identified within the present work and by Costas et al. (2012) over the Holocene. The numbers represent the different selected locations across Europe: 1 (this study), 2 (Costas et al., 2013), 3 (Clarke et al., 2002), 4 (Van Vliet-Lanoë et al., 2014), 5 (Sabatier et al., 2012), 6 (Degeai et al., 2015), 7 (Sorrel et al., 2012), 8 (Bakke et al., 2008), 9 (Björck and Clemmensen, 2004), 10 (Clemmensen et al., 2009), 11 (Jong et al., 2006), 12 (Wilson et al., 2004), 13 (Bateman and Godby, 2004), 14 (Orme et al., 2015), 15 (Gilbertson et al., 1999), 16 (Jackson et al., 2005), and 17 (Mayewski et al., 1997),.

438 The capability of the NAO of reconstructing past and historical climate
439 conditions has been discussed due to inconsistencies in the relationship between the
440 NAO and the proxy-based indices (Dawson et al., 2002). Indeed, it has been proven that
441 the statistical relationship between proxy-based indices and the NAO is non-stationary,
442 but it is highly dependent on the chosen verification periods (Schmutz et al., 2000),
443 which may be characterized by different magnitudes of the variance between
444 hemisphere parameters and the NAO (Schmutz et al., 2000). Indeed, the pattern of
445 storminess distribution across Europe is compatible with the mechanistic scenarios
446 proposed here and characterized by low to negative NAO in a context of Arctic
447 amplification (i.e. the poles cooled more strongly than the Tropics). The latter can
448 provoke changes to the centers of action of the NAO (Raible et al., 2006), and thus
449 modify the expected relationship between proxy-based indicators and the NAO. Our
450 results agree with Orme et al. (2015), who have found that periods of enhanced

451 storminess at the UK could be compatible with low NAO within periods of frequent
452 negative NAO.

453 **5.2.2 The last termination**

454 A major contribution of the present study is the extension of the record of
455 aeolian activity back in time to the LGM, when boundary conditions were markedly
456 different from the Holocene. During the LGM, a large portion of northern Eurasia and
457 North America was covered by ice sheets with significant consequences on the albedo
458 and over the large-scale atmospheric circulation in the Northern Hemisphere (Pausata et
459 al., 2011).

460 The new ages support continuous aeolian activity between 20.5 ka ago and the
461 late YD (11.6 ka) with a maximum around 17.5 ka, coincident with the HE1. These
462 results suggest the southward migration of the NA jet stream, reaching the Iberian
463 Peninsula, with a maximum impact of the westerlies during the peak of aeolian activity.
464 Indeed, the larger mean grain sizes, spatial coverage and volume of sediment within the
465 dunes built during the last termination relative to the dunes assigned to the Holocene
466 (Fig. 1), together with the greater distances travelled by the former, support more
467 intense winds during the last termination than during most of the Holocene period.

468 This scenario implies that substantial amounts of precipitation could be brought
469 to the Iberian Peninsula by the westerlies, especially during winter (Cortesi et al., 2014).
470 However, proxy-based reconstructions do not always agree with the proposed scenario,
471 suggesting alternative scenarios ranging from humid to semi-arid conditions.
472 Reconstructions based on lake levels and speleothems from the Iberian Peninsula
473 document relatively humid conditions during the LGM (Moreno et al., 2012; Moreno et
474 al., 2010). Lake indicators have been primarily linked to relatively humid conditions
475 although alternative interpretations, including a reduction on evapotranspiration or

476 increasing ice melting, have not been totally discarded (Moreno et al., 2012). Indeed,
477 marine pollen sequences suggest overall dry and cold conditions between 27 ka and 15
478 ka (Fletcher and Sánchez Goñi, 2008). The latter is supported by very low precipitation
479 levels documented by other lake and continental pollen sequences during the LGM
480 (González-Sampériz et al., 2006; Morellón et al., 2009).

481 On the other hand, general circulation models consistently show a large scale
482 picture dominated by the southward shift of a stronger, more zonally oriented NA jet
483 stream (Beghin et al., 2015; Laîné et al., 2009; Li and Battisti, 2008; Pausata et al., 2011).
484 Simulated patterns are forced by (i) steep meridional temperature gradients (Beghin et al.,
485 2015; Laîné et al., 2009), and (ii) the ice sheet topography (Pausata et al., 2011).
486 Interestingly, simulations suggest contrasting levels of precipitation. Laîné et al. (2009)
487 simulated an amplification of the synoptic activity to the southeast, around the region
488 between the Azores Islands and the Iberian peninsula while Li and Battisti (2008)
489 performed a reduction of the wintertime eddy activity at all levels of the atmosphere.
490 These results are supported by our records, as in both cases the southward shift of the jet
491 stream and associated westerlies are simulated. However, the ambiguity related to the
492 levels of precipitation remains open. Beghin et al. (2015) found that inconsistencies
493 between proxies could result from contrasting seasonal changes in precipitation (i.e. wet
494 winters and dry summers). Indeed, the authors found that the amount of winter
495 precipitation correlates with to the southward latitudinal shift of the jet. If so, the record
496 of aeolian activity, which has been proven to trace the impact of the NA westerly winds,
497 could contribute to reconstruct not only dominant winds but also precipitation. If so, could
498 we assume that higher precipitation should be expected during the HE1?

499 Most of the existent climate reconstructions based on paleo-climate archives agree
500 to associate the HE1 to drier and colder conditions (Fletcher and Sánchez Goñi, 2008;

501 Moreno et al., 2012; Moreno et al., 2010), with maximum aridity assigned to 17.5 ka
502 (Moreno et al., 2010). Despite this apparent consensus, Naughton et al. (2009)
503 documented colder and wetter conditions during a first phase of the HE1, which was
504 followed by more arid conditions after 17.5 ka, coincident with the reduction of aeolian
505 activity. Model simulations suggest the maintenance of the jet stream at lower latitudes
506 (Roberts et al., 2014). However, uncertainties related to the relative levels of precipitation
507 in southern Europe are elevated as it is highly dependent on the sea surface temperature
508 (Kageyama et al., 2005).

509 Following the peak of maximum activity at 17.5, aeolian activity gradually
510 diminished, showing an apparent stop around 14 ka. This trend suggests a concomitant
511 reduction of the strength of the westerlies along the Portuguese coast and the northward
512 shift of the storm track. Simultaneously, warmer conditions advanced across the Iberian
513 Peninsula leading to rapid forest expansion (Fletcher and Sánchez Goñi, 2008). These
514 environmental responses agree with simulations obtained by Renssen and Bogaart
515 (2003), which suggest the northward relocation of the jet after 14.7 ka with the
516 northward retreat of the sea ice.

517 Aeolian activity, although probably more intermittently, continued until the end
518 of the YD, suggesting the intermittent or less profound visit of the NA westerlies to the
519 Iberian Peninsula. Indeed, proxy-based reconstructions and model simulations suggest
520 the re-advance of sea ice during the YD, promoting the southward shift of the westerlies
521 (Bakke et al., 2009). The YD is documented as a rather complex event with a first phase
522 characterized by dry and cold atmospheric conditions according to marine pollen
523 sequences from southern Iberia (Fletcher and Sánchez Goñi, 2008). This first phase was
524 followed by a relative increase in precipitation after 12.5 ka recorded by speleothems
525 and marine pollen sequences (Bartolomé et al., 2015; Fletcher and Sánchez Goñi,

526 2008). Conversely, Baldini et al. (2015) found an additional and more humid phase
527 between 12.5 and 12.15 ka using speleothems from northern Iberia, suggesting the
528 southward shift of the westerlies and the subsequent northward relocation after 12.15
529 ka. Interestingly, a parallel pattern was documented in northern Europe despite a slight
530 delay on the response (Lane et al., 2013). The YD in northern Europe was characterized
531 by an initial cold phase followed by a second phase of climatic amelioration related to a
532 northward shift of the westerly wind systems (Lane et al., 2013).

533 The above supports the hypothesis that the record of aeolian activity can
534 successfully trace the southward migration of the NA westerly winds. Indeed, the
535 meridional shifts of the jet stream and associated westerlies resemble the leading mode
536 of variability in the instrumental record (i.e. the NAO), and thus the mechanistic scenarios
537 found in section 5.1. However, the sustained episode of aeolian activity through the last
538 termination supports relatively stationary atmospheric circulation regime dominated by
539 strong and zonal westerly winds whose maximum southward excursion occurred 17.5 ka
540 ago. Contrasting boundary conditions (i.e. volume of ice sheets and greenhouse gases)
541 during the last termination could modify the configuration and variability of this NAO-
542 like mode (Pausata et al., 2009). For instance, model simulations provide evidence for an
543 altered atmospheric circulation regime under glacial conditions characterized by a
544 stronger, more zonally oriented Atlantic jet but reduced storminess (Li and Battisti, 2008),
545 and less interannual variability (Pausata et al., 2009) as supported by the aeolian record
546 presented here. The latter suggests, that enhanced westerly winds over the Iberian
547 Peninsula do not necessarily represent higher precipitation. Indeed, comparison with
548 other indicators underlines the limitations of our record, which is a direct indicator of
549 wind strength and direction, but it does not retain information about the amount of
550 precipitation that those winds may have brought to the Iberian Peninsula. Yet, it is worth

551 noticing that the type of dunes identified within the aeolian record (i.e. parabolic dunes)
552 suggests that past dune migration should be dominated by unidirectional winds, relatively
553 abundant vegetation and/or high water table levels.

554

555 **6. CONCLUSIONS**

556 From both our dunefield dataset and present-day wind analogs we can state that
557 in the period between 20 ka and 0.15 ka four events of enhanced aeolian activity have
558 occurred in Southern Europe due to exceptional intensifications of westerly winds
559 visiting the Portuguese coast for sustained periods of time. Identified episodes of
560 aeolian activity have been related here to the equatorward shift of the storm track forced
561 by (1) the migration of the polar front in the same direction, promoting zonal circulation
562 patterns in a context of glacial and transitional conditions, and (2) the onset of high
563 pressures promoting relative blocking of cyclones in northern Europe and intense and
564 sustained westerly winds and storms in southern Europe under interstadial conditions in
565 a context of relative cooling (Arctic amplification) over northernmost Atlantic.

566 Present-day analogs also suggest that dunes sharing the features of the aeolian
567 record attributed to the last termination and the Holocene would very unlikely form
568 under present conditions as they explain the migration of past dunes at much lower
569 rates. In the case of the Caparica transgressive dunefield explored here, Costas et al.
570 (2012) hypothesized the formation of the aeolian system linked to episodic enhanced
571 westerly winds over a retreating former shoreline. The results presented here prove that
572 recent (last 50 years) windfield regimes are incompatible with the landforms observed
573 in the explored aeolian record, but with the smaller scale sedimentation observed
574 nowadays within the present foredune with low sedimentation and mobilization rates.
575 The latter supports the previous hypothesis and proposes that past aeolian activity could

576 only have occurred if windiness (i.e. wind power and its duration over the year)
577 increased along southwestern Europe in combination with high sediment availability.

578

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