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Citation: Varela, Miguel, Patrício, Ana, Anderson, Karen, Broderick, Annette, DeBell, Leon, Hawkes, Lucy, Tilley, Dominic, Snape, Robin, Westoby, Matt and Godley, Brendan (2019) Assessing climate change associated sea-level rise impacts on sea turtle nesting beaches using drones, photogrammetry and a novel GPS system. *Global Change Biology*, 25 (2). pp. 753-762. ISSN 1354-1013

Published by: Wiley-Blackwell

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14526> <<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14526>>

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1 **Assessing climate change associated sea level rise impacts on sea turtle**
2 **nesting beaches using drones, photogrammetry and a novel GPS system.**

3

4 **Running head:** Climate change and drone-based photogrammetry

5

6 Miguel R. Varela¹, Ana R. Patrício^{1, 2}, Karen Anderson³, Annette C. Broderick¹, Leon
7 DeBell³, Lucy A. Hawkes¹, Dominic Tilley¹, Robin T. E. Snape^{1 4}, Matthew J.
8 Westoby⁵ ,and Brendan J. Godley¹

9

10 ¹ Centre for Ecology and Conservation, University of Exeter, UK,

11 ² MARE - Marine and Environmental Sciences Centre, ISPA- Instituto Universitário,
12 Portugal

13 ³ Environment and Sustainability Institute, University of Exeter, UK

14 ⁴ Society for Protection of Turtles. PK 42, Girne, Mersin 10, Turkey.

15 ⁵Department of Geography and Environmental Sciences, Northumbria University,
16 UK

17

18 **Corresponding author:** Email: m.varela@exeter.ac.uk ; Tel: +351919195680

19

20 **Type of Paper:** Technical Advances

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22

23 **Keywords:** Climate Change; Sea Level Rise; Sea Turtles; Photogrammetry; Drones;
24 UAV; Piksi; Remote Sensing

25

26 **Abstract**

27 Climate change associated sea level rise (SLR) is expected to have profound
28 impacts on coastal areas, affecting many species including sea turtles which depend
29 on these habitats for egg incubation. Being able to accurately model beach
30 topography using digital terrain models (DTMs) is therefore crucial to project SLR
31 impacts and develop effective conservation strategies. Traditional survey methods
32 are typically low-cost with low accuracy or high-cost with high accuracy. We present
33 a novel combination of drone-based photogrammetry and a low-cost and portable
34 real-time kinematic (RTK) GPS to create DTMs which are highly accurate (<10 cm
35 error) and visually realistic. This methodology is ideal for surveying coastal sites, can
36 be broadly applied to other species and habitats, and is a relevant tool in supporting
37 the development of Specially Protected Areas. Here we applied this method as a
38 case-study to project three SLR scenarios (0.48, 0.63 and 1.20 m) and assess the
39 future vulnerability and viability of a key nesting habitat for sympatric loggerhead
40 (*Caretta caretta*) and green turtle (*Chelonia mydas*) at a key rookery in the
41 Mediterranean. We combined the DTM with 5 years of nest survey data describing
42 location and clutch depth, to identify (1) regions with highest nest densities, (2) nest
43 elevation by species and beach, and (3) estimated proportion of nests inundated
44 under each SLR scenario. On average, green turtles nested at higher elevations
45 than loggerheads (1.8 m vs. 1.32 m, respectively). However, because green turtles dig
46 deeper nests than loggerheads (0.76 m vs. 0.50 m, respectively), these were at similar
47 risk of inundation. For a SLR of 1.2 m, we estimated a loss of 67.3% for loggerhead
48 turtle nests and 59.1% for green turtle nests. Existing natural and artificial barriers
49 may affect the ability of these nesting habitats to remain suitable for nesting through
50 beach migration.

51

52

53 **Introduction**

54 Climate change is recognised as a major driver of ecosystem transformation
55 worldwide (Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno, 2010), and is likely to cause shifts in species
56 ranges and phenology, and potentially threaten the survival of entire species and
57 habitats (Baker et al., 2006, Bellard et al., 2012, Hawkes et al., 2007, Thomas et al.,
58 2004). Global sea level rise, due to ocean thermal expansion, melting of glaciers
59 and ice caps, aggravated by increased storm activity (Pachauri et al., 2014), is
60 expected to have impacts on coastal tropical areas, and to profoundly affect species
61 which depend on these habitats. The latest Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
62 Change (IPCC) projections on global sea level rise (SLR) range from 0.47 m (95%
63 CI: 0.26-0.55 m) to 0.63 m (95% CI: 0.45 – 0.82 m) by 2100 (Stocker et al., 2013),
64 while semi-empirical models, including ice melt, project even more extreme sea level
65 rise for the same period (>1m SLR, Grinsted et al., 2010, Nicholls et al., 2010, 2011,
66 Horton et al., 2014, DeConto and Pollard, 2016, Vousdoukas et al., 2018, Chown et
67 al., 2017). Although global sea level has varied a great deal during glacial/interglacial
68 cycles (Fairbanks, 1989), current SLR is happening at an unprecedented rate
69 (Pachauri et al., 2014), some argue, potentially too rapidly for species to adapt to
70 new conditions (Jezkova & Wiens, 2016).

71

72 All marine turtle species depend on temperate to tropical sandy beaches for
73 reproduction. Nesting turtles generally display natal philopatry; returning to the beach
74 where they hatched to lay their eggs (Meylan et al., 1990). This makes them
75 potentially vulnerable to SLR and enhanced storm activity (Poloczanska et al., 2009),
76 as areas of beach can be lost or degraded by coastal erosion or flooding. Several
77 nesting beaches used by sea turtles have already been assessed with regard to

78 potential SLR impacts, with studies predicting significant losses of coastal habitat,
79 under median SLR scenarios, ranging from 45 to 65% (Baker et al., 2006, Fish et al.,
80 2005, Fish et al., 2008, Fuentes et al., 2010, Katselidis et al., 2014).

81 Concerns regarding the impacts of climate change associated SLR mandates the
82 development of highly accurate modelling techniques that should be cost-effective to
83 be broadly used. To estimate habitat loss due to SLR on marine turtle nesting
84 beaches a range of methods have been employed to create beach DTMs: beach
85 profiles can be measured at transect points across a beach using an Abney Level
86 (e.g. Fish et al., 2005, Fish et al., 2008), which is a low-cost approach requiring only
87 basic equipment. However the estimates obtained from these types of surveys,
88 however, are usually limited to discrete beach transects (i.e. are not capable of
89 delivering spatially-distributed data without considerable time and effort), and may be
90 subject to systematic errors and low accuracy (Isaak et al., 1999). At the other
91 methodological extreme, terrestrial and airborne LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging)
92 uses expensive and heavy equipment to pulse lasers across a surface to create
93 highly accurate DTMs (e.g. Long et al., 2011, Yamamoto et al., 2015), but generally
94 instrumentation and software costs exceed several tens of thousands of pounds per
95 survey, and thus can be operationally prohibitive, even more so for repeat surveys.

96 The ability to obtain a robust DTM of the current nesting habitat, where possible
97 impacts can be projected, is an essential baseline for use in combination with SLR
98 predictions to make informed decisions, and prioritize conservation efforts to mitigate
99 the consequences of SLR to sea turtle populations. What is now needed is a more
100 cost-effective method than airborne and terrestrial LiDAR for scale-appropriate and
101 spatially-distributed estimation of beach terrain.

102 Structure-from-motion (SfM) photogrammetry using aerial photos from drones (also
103 referred to as unmanned aerial vehicle, UAV, or unmanned aerial system, UAS, in
104 literature), has now emerged as a cost-effective tool to generate robust surface and
105 terrain models in geoscience applications (Glendell et al., 2017, Westoby et al., 2012,
106 Capolupo et al., 2015, Cunliffe et al., 2016). It uses multiple overlapping aerial
107 photos and merges them into a 3D model using a computer vision technique known
108 as bundle adjustment (Bolton, 2016). However, to achieve an accurate bare Earth
109 DTM over a beach-type study system typically requires access to a differential GPS
110 (dGPS), or a 'real time kinematic' (RTK) system, to record the locations of a series of
111 deployed ground control points (GCPs) in the survey area which are used to both
112 georeference the 3D model and improve its quality. The purchase of a high accuracy
113 single RTK surveying unit is often high (e.g. in the UK, such a system would cost
114 £5,000-15,000) which means that the costs are again prohibitive for many users.
115 Here we describe a new workflow that was developed to circumvent the requirement
116 for expensive equipment to produce fine-grained and high accuracy DTMs for
117 coastal monitoring applications and how such a workflow can be achieved by
118 combining the use of drones and SfM photogrammetry with an alternative ground-
119 based RTK surveying solution. We used a key sea turtle rookery at Alagadi, northern
120 Cyprus (Broderick et al., 2002), to demonstrate the application of our method and to
121 estimate the future impacts of SLR on nesting beach habitat of two sympatric sea
122 turtle species.

123

124 **Methodology**

125 **Study site and nesting data**

126 Alagadi (35.34° N, 33.49° E) is a major sea turtle nesting area in north Cyprus

127 (Broderick et al., 2002) and is composed of two beaches separated by a rocky point
128 covering a total extension of ca. 1700 m, with Beach 1 to the west, extending for
129 1000 m, and Beach 2 to the east, extending for 700 m (Supplemental Fig. S1). Both
130 beaches are generally made up of fine sand sediment and are micro-tidal, hosting
131 two species of nesting sea turtles (green *Chelonia mydas*, and loggerhead *Caretta*
132 *caretta*; Broderick et al., 2002). During the nesting season, night patrols assure near-
133 perfect attribution of nests to known nesting females (for details in survey methods
134 see Stokes et al., 2014). From 2012 to 2016, we recorded the location of all 767
135 green and 293 loggerhead clutches laid at both beaches using a handheld GPS
136 Garmin eTrex 10 (horizontal accuracy of $\pm 3\text{m}$). Hatched nests were excavated and
137 we measured top clutch depth, i.e. from the surface to the first egg shell found as
138 well as bottom clutch depth, i.e. from the surface to the last egg shell found.

139

140 **Photogrammetry workflow**

141 We used a custom made quadcopter drone equipped with a Canon S100 compact digital
142 camera with 12 megapixel image sensor (Supplemental Fig. S2) to collect aerial
143 photographs of the turtle nesting beaches. The drone was flown in automated survey mode,
144 whereby it followed a GPS-waypointed path pre-programmed into the open-source Pixhawk
145 autopilot software, to avoid human piloting error and to achieve a consistent forward and
146 side overlap of $\geq 80\%$ between the aerial images, which is required for an accurate DTM and
147 orthophoto generation (Haala et al., 2013). The drone flew at 30 m altitude at a velocity of 4
148 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ with the camera triggering a photo every two seconds. The aerial survey resulted in
149 773 photos for Beach 1 and 436 photos for Beach 2. The camera focus was set to
150 automatic, aperture at f4.5, shutter speed 1/1200 and ISO 400. To improve the accuracy of
151 the final model, following Tonkin et al., (2014), we distributed 30 GCPs, (25 x 25cm tiles)
152 evenly along each beach, and selected 10 additional natural features on the ground to serve

153 as control check points to assess the accuracy of the final model. We then proceeded to
154 record their individual centroid coordinates in x,y,z using a novel RTK-GPS system, the Piksi
155 (www.swiftnav.com/piksi-multi).

156 The Piksi is a low-cost, alternative carrier phase RTK GPS with centimetre level relative
157 positioning accuracy consisting of two modules: the rover, which we used to survey the
158 GCPs, and the base station, which we kept stationary in a GCP placed on the high tide
159 mark. Both base and rover were connected to a survey grade Global Navigation Satellite
160 System (GNSS) external antenna to enhance satellite signal. Each GCP was surveyed with
161 the rover in a static position for approximately 1 min in order to assure an accurate
162 measurement. Two field studies have assessed the accuracy of the Piksi, reporting 4.1 – 8.2
163 cm of horizontal accuracy, and 1.1 – 5.2 cm vertically (Fazeli et al., 2016, Zollo & Gohalwar,
164 2016).

165 After manually removing the photos that were captured during take-off and landing phases,
166 and any that were blurred, the remaining images were imported into Agisoft PhotoScan
167 Professional software v 1.3.1 (© Agisoft) which is a software that performs photogrammetric
168 processing of digital images and generates spatially distributed data in 3D point cloud
169 format. Following generation of a sparse point cloud, we manually identified the survey GCP
170 centroids in the input photoset and assigned their real-world, RTK-GPS co-ordinates to
171 simultaneously refine camera calibration parameters, georeference the model, and optimize
172 the geometry of the output point cloud, before generating a dense point cloud using a multi-
173 view stereo algorithm as detailed in previous studies (e.g. Westoby et al., 2012; Gonçalves
174 & Henriques, 2015). The parameters used for SfM processing are shown in supplemental
175 Table S1. The final result was a georeferenced orthophoto and a DTM. In our case we had
176 unvegetated sandy beaches, so the digital surface model (DSM) produced by PhotoScan
177 was treated as a DTM (bare Earth model) since there was no overlying vegetation to
178 remove.

179

180 **Characterization of nesting preferences**

181 The resulting georeferenced orthophoto and DTM were imported in raster format into ESRI
182 ArcGIS software (v10.4), along with GPS coordinates of all green and loggerhead sea turtle
183 nests between 2012 and 2016. To quantify preferred nest sites by species and by nesting
184 season, we applied a Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) interpolation (as described by
185 Macleod, 2014), with an output cell size of 1 m side length and bandwidth (search radius) set
186 to 30 m.

187

188 **Nest elevation**

189 To estimate the elevation of nests (i.e. their height above sea level, from which we could
190 estimate inundation risk from SLR) we overlaid the GPS coordinates of sea turtle nests on
191 the DTM and used the ArcMap 3D Analyst Toolset to extract the beach surface elevation at
192 each nest. We then subtracted from this the depth from the beach surface elevation down to
193 the deepest egg shell found for each nest estimate the nest elevation at the bottom of the
194 clutch (available through a long-term monitoring study established at the site, which
195 excavates and records the fate of all nests). We assume that nests became partly inundated
196 when the bottom nest elevation estimate is below the predicted sea level, and used these
197 data to estimate the proportion of green turtle and loggerhead clutches that would be
198 affected under 0.1 m increments of SLR scenarios, assuming no changes in beach
199 morphology (i.e. passive flooding). We believe this approach is more meaningful than
200 estimating the available nesting area that would be inundated, as it considers the current
201 optimal nest site areas of the two species of turtle.

202

203 **Inundation scenarios**

204 To show the visual impact of this method, we used the final SfM-derived orthophoto to
205 simulate habitat loss under the three SLR scenarios (0.48 m, 0.63 m, and 1.2 m). The former
206 two, were Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) in the Intergovernmental Panel
207 for Climate Change (Collins et al., 2013); one intermediate (RCP6) and one high emissions

208 scenario (RCP8.5). The latter, more extreme scenario was based on semi-empirical models
209 (0.7 - 1.2 m SLR by 2100; Horton et al., 2014).

210

211 **Results**

212 **DTM and orthophoto accuracy**

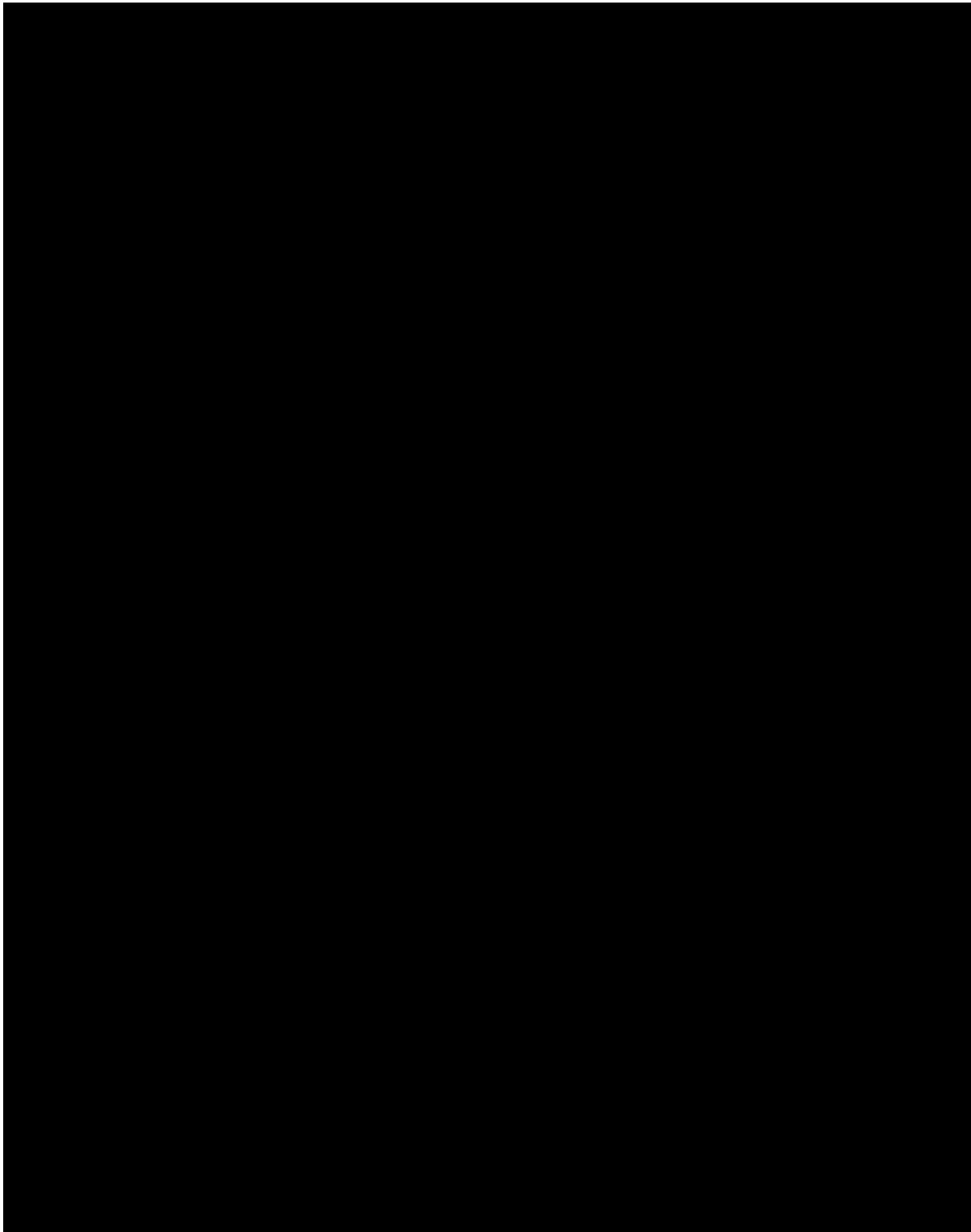
213 From the comparison of the checkpoints coordinates measured with the Piksi against
214 the final DTM we found a mean \pm SD horizontal error of 6.8 ± 0.8 cm (range: 1.2 to 7.5
215 cm, n=10), and a mean \pm SD vertical error of 9.4 ± 1.0 cm (range: 6.9 to 10.0 cm,
216 n=10) for Beach 1 and 6.5 ± 1.8 cm (range: 1.8 to 7.9 cm, n=10), 9.3 ± 1.4 cm (range:
217 5.4 to 9.9 cm, n=10), respectively, for Beach 2.

218

219 **Nesting site preferences**

220 Core areas of green turtle nest distribution were generally centred in the eastern
221 portion of both beaches (Fig. 1a), while the loggerhead core areas were more evenly
222 distributed throughout each beach with a lesser preference for eastern areas (Fig.

223 1b).



224
225 **Fig 1:** Orthophoto with kernel density estimation; shaded according to density of nests per
226 area and showing density of nests of **a.** green turtles, and **b.** loggerhead turtles at Alagadi,
227 northern Cyprus. Dots represent GPS location of 768 green turtle nests (green), and 294

228 loggerhead turtle nests (purple), surveyed from 2012 to 2016. Contour colours get darker as
229 modelled nesting habitat utilisation distribution (UD) increases from yellow (peripheral) to
230 dark brown (core).

231

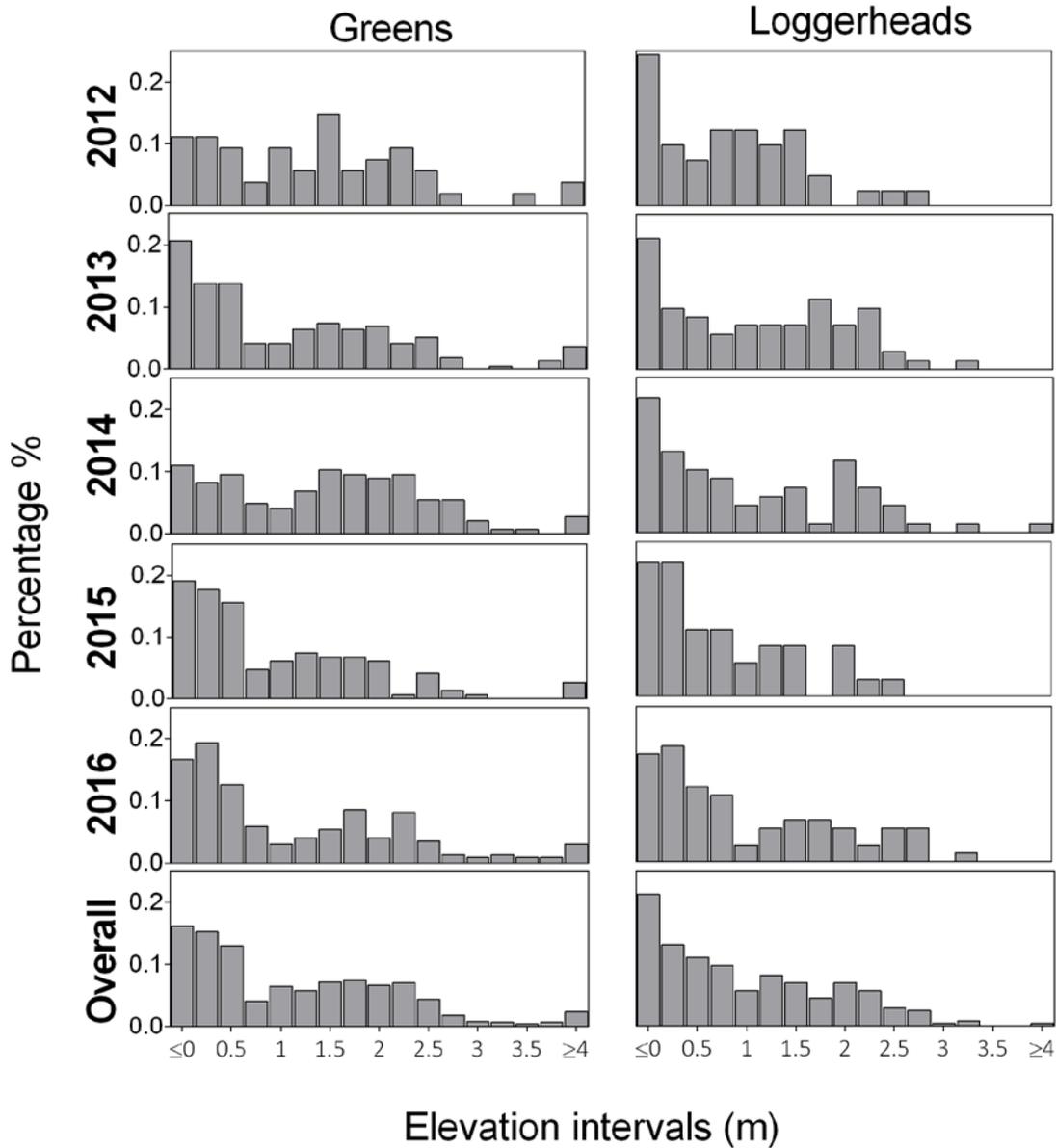
232 The mean bottom elevation of green turtle clutches was approximately 0.76 ± 0.12 m below
233 the sand surface (mean \pm SD, range: 0.36 to 1.20 m, $n=720$ nests or 94% of all green turtle
234 nests laid), while the mean bottom elevation of loggerhead nests were 0.48 ± 0.07 m below
235 the sand surface (mean, \pm SD, range 0.27 to 0.82 m, $n=251$ or 86% of all nests laid by
236 loggerhead turtles). For the remaining nests (which were not measured), we used the mean
237 depth for each species calculated here.

238 Independent-sample Welch's t-tests indicated that there were significant differences in nest
239 surface elevation above the highest tide line (not taking into account the clutch depth) for the
240 five year period between species: Beach 1: $t_{428.85} = 7.2$, $P < 0.0001$, Beach 2: $t_{270.62} = 7.2$, P
241 < 0.0001), and between beaches within the same species. Nest elevation was significantly
242 lower in Beach 2 for green turtles (Fig. 2, Beach 1 = 2.2 ± 0.9 m SD, Beach 2 = 1.4 ± 1.1 m
243 SD; $t_{746.54} = 11.8$, $P < 0.0001$) and loggerheads (Beach 1 = 1.7 ± 0.8 m SD, Beach 2 = $0.5 \pm$
244 0.5 m SD; $t_{250.36} = 13.9$, $P < 0.0001$).

245

246

247



248

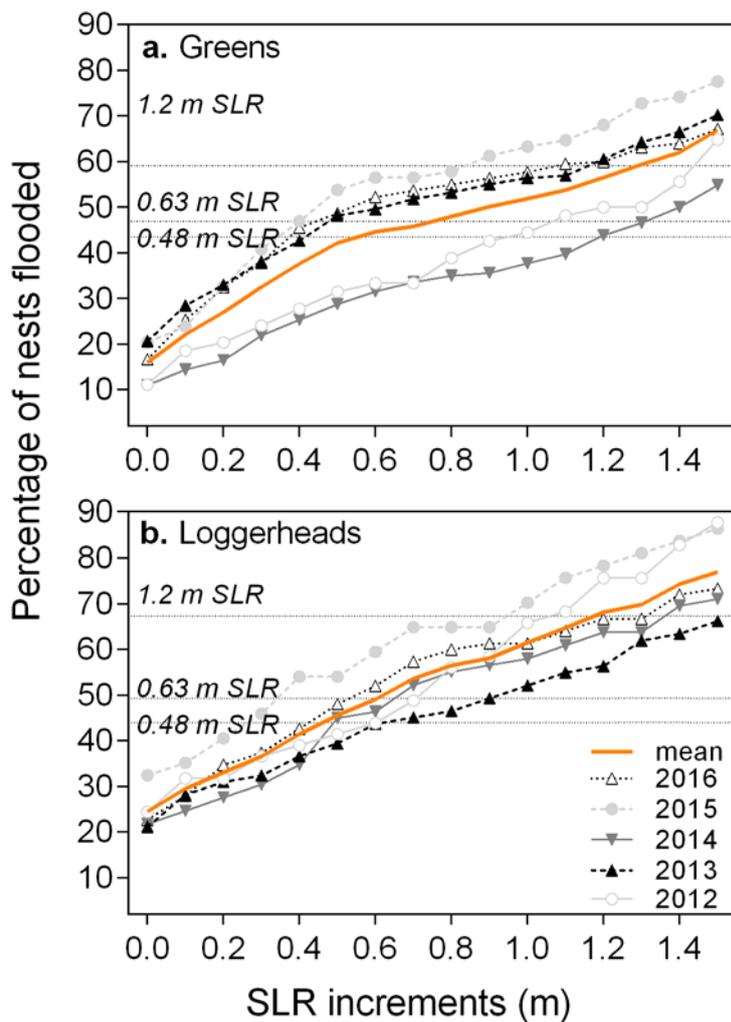
249 **Figure 2.** Clutch elevation distribution (i.e. elevation from surface to bottom of clutch)
 250 of green turtle and loggerhead turtle nests, from 2012 to 2016, and five-year mean
 251 per species, at Alagadi beach, Northern Cyprus.

252

253 **Sea Level Rise**

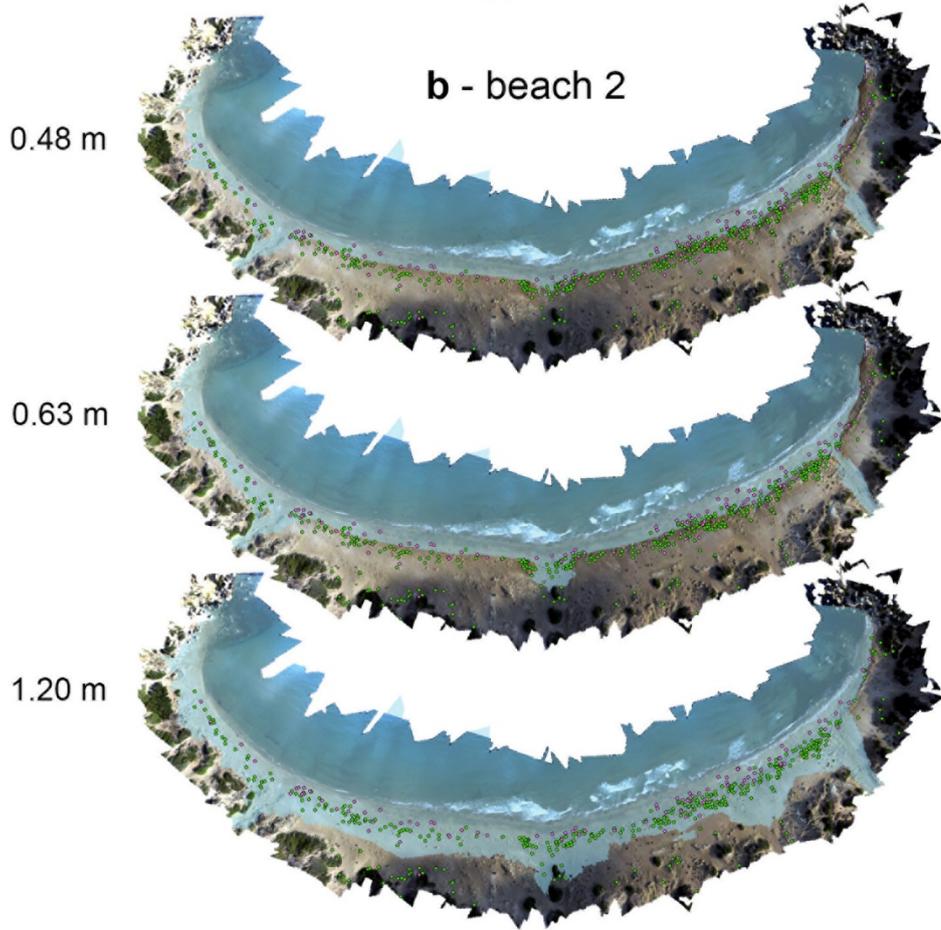
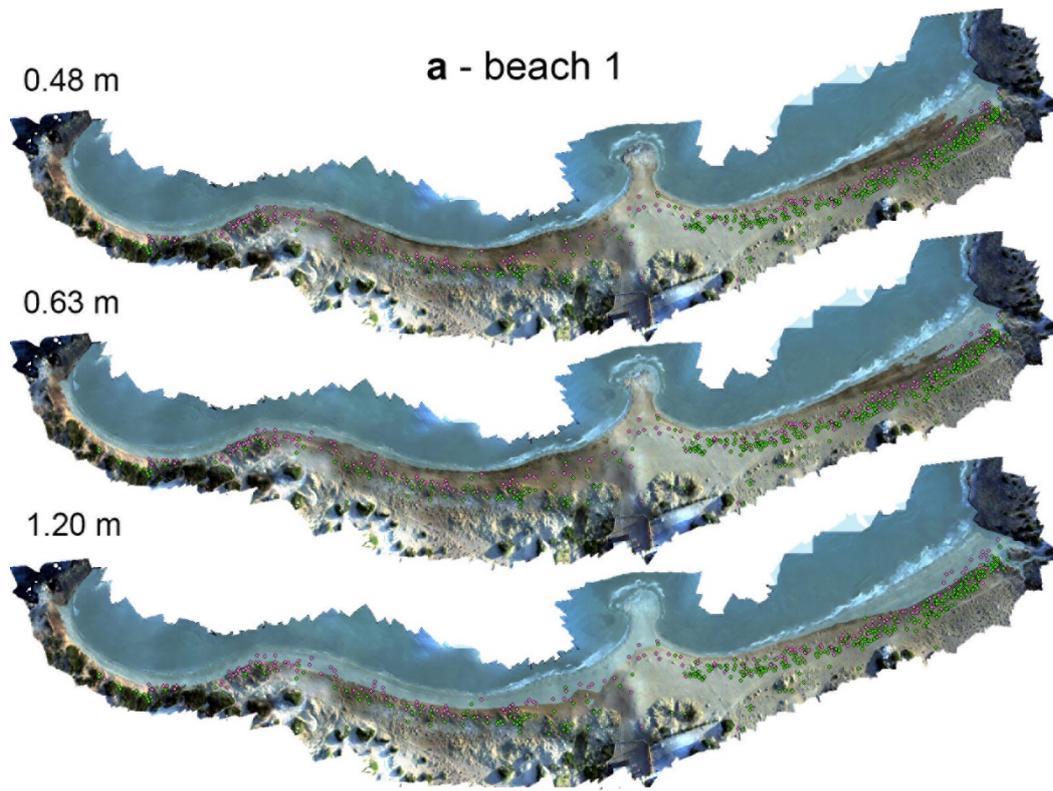
254 For green turtles we estimated that with a 0.48 m SLR scenario, inundation would
 255 affect 33.2% - 43.5% of the clutches (sea water reaching top and bottom of clutch,

256 respectively), 42.3% - 47.0% with 0.63 m SLR and 57.1% - 59.1% with 1.2 m SLR
 257 (Fig. 3a). For loggerheads we project a loss of 36.5% - 44.1%; 43.3% - 49.4% and
 258 62.1% - 67.4%, for 0.48 m, 0.63 m and 1.2 m SLR scenarios, respectively (Fig. 3b).
 259 Nesting beach inundation under each of the three SLR scenarios can be seen on
 260 figure 4.



261
 262 **Figure 3.** Percentage of green (a), and loggerhead (b) turtle clutches expected to be
 263 inundated under increments of 0.1 m of sea level rise (SLR) at Alagadi, Northern
 264 Cyprus, each year from 2012 to 2016, and five-year mean (orange line). Horizontal

265 dashed lines indicate percentage of affected clutches under each SLR scenario
266 (0.48, 0.63, and 1.2 m).



100 m

268 **Figure 4.** Inundation scenarios of 0.48, 0.63 and 1.2 m of SLR projected on
269 orthophoto of **a)** Beach 1 and **b)** Beach 2. Dots represent actual location of sea turtle
270 nests for each species, surveyed from 2012 to 2016 (pink for loggerhead turtles and
271 green for green turtles).

272

273 **Discussion**

274 Recent improvements in the resolution, affordability, and ease of acquisition of
275 remotely sensed data, coupled with new tools for geospatial analysis, can assist with
276 mapping putative anthropogenic threats, such as the predicted consequences of
277 SLR (Fish et al., 2008). Existing methods for creating DTMs of sea turtle nesting
278 habitats, result in models which are not visually realistic and may also be too
279 expensive to implement or lack the accuracy to make robust inferences. Here we
280 present a method to create high resolution and accurate DTMs and orthophoto
281 imagery data of coastal areas, improving on all main aspects of those currently
282 employed - visual impact, accuracy, cost and portability.

283 **1. DTM visual impact, accuracy, cost and portability**

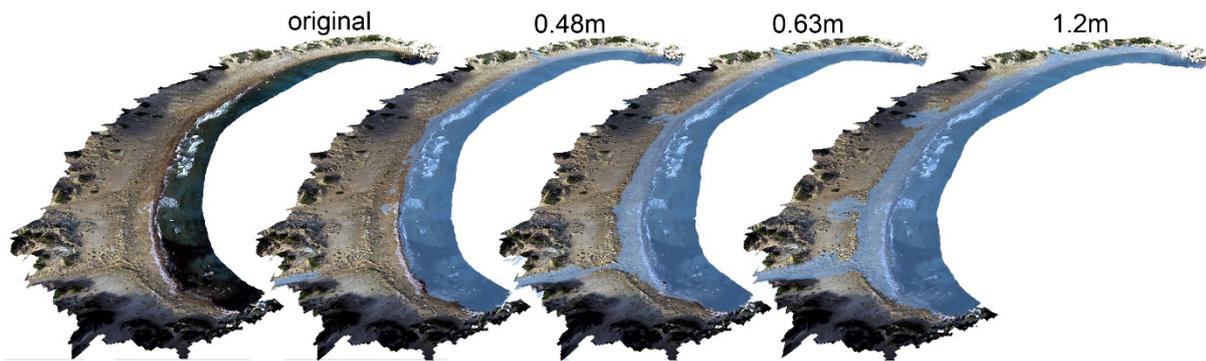
284 Our workflow produced a high-resolution DTM and orthophoto mosaic combination
285 and achieved an error under ± 10 cm which is a similar to high-end survey methods
286 using LiDAR (Stockdon et al., 2017, Yamamoto et al., 2015) or photogrammetric
287 methods incorporating dGPS or total station control (Westoby et al., 2012, Smith et
288 al., 2016), but with a much lower cost and higher portability than either method
289 (Table 1). Although digital photogrammetry is already widely used in other disciplines
290 for creating DTMs, it typically requires a dGPS like a Leica Total Station or similar,
291 weighing over 5kg and costing £5000-15,000 rendering it cost-prohibitive for most
292 conservation projects. The total build cost of the Piksi RTK GPS system was £1500

293 (prices in April 2018).

294 The total cost of our drone survey system (drone, camera) was £850, excluding the
295 licence for Agisoft PhotoScan (£385; educational licence, price April 2018), but there
296 are free software alternatives available that perform the same task (e.g.
297 <http://opendronemap.org>). Each Piksi module fits the palm of the hand and weighs
298 26 grams, making it also extremely portable and therefore ideal for deployment in
299 remote locations.

300 Our final orthophotos (Fig. 5) are photo-realistic and are easier to visually interpret
301 than data obtained through traditional survey methods, making it useful not only for
302 scientific analysis but also as an effective visual aid for enabling science
303 communication and knowledge transfer to the general public and decision makers,
304 including planning professionals addressing other coastal development issues such
305 as water-front tourism development. Similarly, the SfM-derived DTM can be used for
306 virtual 'fly-throughs' to engender a sense of reality (as we shown in supplemental
307 video in Rees et al., 2018) The accurate DTM and orthophoto allow the retrieval of
308 valuable information concerning nest elevation and nest site preferences of each sea
309 turtle population. Additionally, the use of DTM differencing methods, where
310 successive DTMs are subtracted from one another to produce spatially distributed
311 maps of topographic change, would enable the quantification of subtle shifts in
312 beach morphology over time, and facilitate analysis of any impacts on sea turtle
313 nesting activities.

314



315

316 **Figure 5.** Realistic view of the 3D Model of Beach 2, Alagadi, Northern Cyprus,
 317 under three inundation scenarios (0.48, 0.63 and 1,2 m of SLR)

318

319 Looking to the future, it is clear that this method will likely become cheaper and
 320 easier as drones and RTK solutions flood the market at lower prices and with higher
 321 capabilities. In addition to the Piksi, there are other available RTK-GPS alternatives
 322 (e.g. Emlid Reach, <https://emlid.com/reach> Accessed: 2018-07-11.) and several
 323 others in development that can be used in conjunction with a similar SfM-based
 324 methodology and at comparatively low cost. New drone solutions are starting to
 325 integrate on-board RTK-GPS positioning, and in time will likely render the requiring
 326 for ground-based control obsolete, therefore simplifying the process of acquiring
 327 data. However, this is unlikely to be a viable surveying solution for most applications
 328 in the short term.

329

330 **Table 1.** DTM survey methods summary. Photogrammetry + PIKSI is the method
 331 presented in this study.

Surveying Methods	Accuracy in cm	Visual Impact	Equipment Cost in £	Portability of Equipment in kg
Abney Level	± 25	Low / 2D profile	± 25	1
Theodolite	< 1	Low/ 2D profile	> 1000	6
LiDAR	6 – 22	High/ 3D aerial	> 30000	>1000

Photogrammetry + dGPS	< 5	Very High/ 3D aerial + realistic view	> 7000	10
Photogrammetry + PIKSI	< 10	Very High/ 3D aerial + realistic view	± 2500	6

332

333 **2. Nest site selection and SLR scenarios**

334 Green turtles, on average, utilised the nesting habitat at higher elevations than the
 335 loggerheads. However, the risk of inundation under SLR scenarios was comparable
 336 for both species, since green turtles dig deeper nest chambers and thus their
 337 clutches are at similar elevations to those of loggerheads when compared to the
 338 mean sea level. This shows the importance of field measurements of clutch depth,
 339 particularly in sites where relocation of clutches laid at lower elevations is a common
 340 conservation practice.

341 Both species laid their nests at lower elevations on Beach 2. This might be because
 342 this beach is located within a more sheltered cove, so sand at lower altitudes is more
 343 stable as it is less influenced by wind and wind-driven waves action. The nest
 344 density shows the successful nesting areas but not necessarily the preferred areas.
 345 Both species emerge from the water in all available beach extension, but only
 346 manage to nest in different specific areas, showing that the conditions for successful
 347 nesting change between species within the same habitat.

348 Our results also show that while the two beaches in our study vary in their physical
 349 characteristics, they do not vary greatly in their susceptibility to the potential impacts
 350 of SLR. Except for the western section of Beach 1, which will most likely be
 351 inundated under a medium SLR scenario, the rest of the beach extent still offers
 352 room to migrate landward into areas which are currently dunes, despite modest
 353 development behind Beach 1. However it is important to make sure that the current
 354 area for beach migration is safeguarded from future coastal development and that

355 planning accounts for the most extreme SLR scenario and increased storm activity.
356 This is particularly important for the endangered green turtles as these two beaches
357 are key areas for this population. Priority conservation areas where development
358 should be specifically restricted include the highest nest density areas which are also
359 at a higher risk of inundation.

360

361 **3. Limitations**

362 Our methodology highlights the potential area of beach under threat but it does not,
363 however, offer a complete analysis of the potential shoreline response. The lack of
364 data on long-term beach profile changes and knowledge about precise coastal
365 processes, makes it challenging to forecast the response of each beach to sea-level
366 rise. Beach sediments redistribution is dictated by numerous factors, such as
367 substrate type, topographic relief and shelter from wave energy and wind (Wells,
368 1995), and accurate models to project coastal adjustments have proven difficult to
369 produce so far. The most commonly used method has been the Bruun rule (Bruun,
370 1962), which predicts increased erosion and an upward and landward migration of
371 beaches. However this very simple model has limited application, and its ability to
372 provide reliable predictions has been questioned even under ideal conditions (Pilkey
373 & Cooper, 2004). This field of study is however under significant progress and new,
374 more accurate, models working with fine sediment movement may soon become
375 available. Models such as XBeach have already been successfully tested on several
376 study sites with gravel beaches (McCall et al., 2015, Christie et al., 2017, Mickey et
377 al., 2017). Accurate DTMs will be needed to test such future models and our method
378 could be useful here.

379 Field-work limitations such as wind gust conditions or small particles of airborne
380 sand, which could possibly damage the drone engines should also be taken into
381 account (for more details see Duffy et al., 2017). Additionally, restrictions regarding
382 drone transport and local regulations governing the use of drones in specific
383 countries or locales should be considered and require careful pre-survey planning.
384 For sea turtle nesting beaches, however, one of main limitations is the amount of
385 vegetation cover. While small bushes or sparse trees are acceptable, areas with
386 dense vegetation will block the view of the ground from the air, therefore rendering
387 the photos unsuitable for photogrammetric reconstruction of bare earth topography.
388 To overcome this, the Piksi RTK can be used in rover mode to ground-survey what
389 cannot be seen from an aerial perspective the air and combine these data with those
390 acquired from aerial SfM.

391 Future work should include the Piksi (or a similar RTK-GPS based system) as the
392 tool for measuring nest GPS coordinates, thereby reducing the error introduced by
393 handheld GPS. Here we used five years of nests coordinates acquired using an
394 eTrex 10 GPS with ± 3 m horizontal accuracy, but given the large sample size (1062
395 nests) our predictions overall should be robust. However, the vertical accuracy of the
396 eTrex (± 10 m) is clearly unsuitable for the desired accuracy estimates of elevation
397 and thus for this purpose we used estimates from the DTM (under 10 cm accuracy)
398 instead.

399 **4. Future and wider applications**

400 The potential for our low-cost and accurate workflow to augment and improve
401 understanding of climate change associated impacts for sea turtles is quite profound.
402 With cheap, portable, accurate and visually appealing/easily understood results, we
403 have demonstrated it to be a viable solution for assessing the likely damage to

404 marine turtle nesting habitat, from which well-informed and effective management
405 responses to coastal squeeze (Fish et al., 2008), can be made. This workflow can be
406 used for other sea turtle species and populations - as we demonstrate in Patricio et
407 al., (2018), but can also be broadly applied to any vulnerable species or coastal
408 habitats, e.g. mangroves (Ellison, 2015, Spencer et al., 2016, Woodroffe, C. D.,
409 2018), and shorebirds (Thorne et al., 2018, Galbraith et al., 2002, Kane et al., 2015)
410 or forecasting likely extent of oil spill contamination (Lauritsen et al 2017), which
411 require a realistic model for SLR projections. Finally, our surveying solution can also
412 be deployed by researchers in other disciplines where SfM is routinely used for
413 topographic characterisation as it reduces costs while increasing portability when
414 replacing the dGPS with an alternative RTK solution.

415

416 **Acknowledgements**

417 The authors would like to thank all the volunteers from the Marine Turtle
418 Conservation Project, which is a collaboration between the University of Exeter
419 Marine Turtle Research Group, The Society for the Protection of Turtles in Northern
420 Cyprus (SPOT) and the North Cyprus Department of Environmental Protection. The
421 long term monitoring data used in this article is supported in part by fundraising
422 support from Karşıyaka Turtle Watch, Kuzey Kıbrıs Turkcell, Erwin Warth
423 Foundation, the MAVA foundation, Tony and Angela Wadsworth and the English
424 School of Kyrenia.

425

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