# A fuzzy model integrating shoreline changes, NDVI and settlement influences for coastal zone human impact classification

Rodrigo Mikosz Goncalves<sup>a</sup>, Ashty Saleem<sup>b</sup>, Heithor Alexandre Araujo Queiroz<sup>a</sup>, Joseph Langat Awange<sup>b,c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Cartographic Engineering, Federal University of Pernambuco (UFPE), Geodetic Science and Technology of Geoinformation Post Graduation Program, Recife, PE, Brazil. <sup>b</sup>Discipline of Spatial Sciences, School of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Curtin University, Perth, WA, Australia.

<sup>c</sup>Geodetic Institute, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Germany

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

R. M. Goncalves acknowledges the financial support of project Universal/CNPq14/2012 number: 482224/2012-6; the Coastal Cartographic Laboratory (LACCOST) at Federal University of Pernambuco (Brazil); the Department of Cartographic Engineering (UFPE); the Department of Spatial Sciences (Curtin University), also the support of Post-Doctoral CNPq scholarship (233170/2013-8) that supports his stay at Curtin University, Australia and the support of CNPq Grant 310412/2015-3/PQ and also 310452/2018-0 level 2. R.M. Goncalves and J.L. Awange are also grateful for the Brazilian Science without Borders Program/CAPES Grant 88881.068057/2014-01, which supported J.L. Awange's stay at the UFPE, Brazil. In addition, J.L. Awange would like to thank the financial support of the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation that supported his time at Karlsruhe Institute

*Email address:* rodrigo.mikosz@ufpe.br, ashty.saleem@curtin.edu.au, heithorqueiroz@gmail.com, J.Awange@curtin.edu.au (Rodrigo Mikosz Goncalves)

of Technology. He is grateful to the good working atmosphere provided by his hosts Prof Hansjörg Kutterer and Prof Bernhard Heck. Last but not least, Queiroz would like to thank his master's scholarship supported by CAPES and Saleem is grateful for the opportunity offered to him by Curtin University to undertake his postdoctoral studies.

# A fuzzy model integrating shoreline changes, NDVI and settlement influences for coastal zone human impact classification

## 3 Abstract

Current approaches for obtaining shoreline change rates suffer from inability to give a specialist interpretation of the numerical results represented by velocities (m/yr). This 5 study proposes a fuzzy model for coastal zone human impact classification that integrates 6 shoreline changes, NDVI, and settlement influences to enhance numerical-linguistic fuzzy 7 classification through Geographical Information System (GIS)'s graphical visualization 8 provess. The model output representing scores are numbers ranging from zero to one, 9 which are convertible into fuzzy linguistic classification variables; i.e., low, moderate, 10 and high on the one hand. On the other hand, use of GIS through NDVI (Normalized 11 Difference Vegetation Index) provide enhancement through graphic visualization. Using 12 Itamaraca Island in Brazil as an example, multi-temporal satellite images are extracted 13 to provide all the required input variables. The resulting output divides the entire island 14 into five sectors representing both quantitative and qualitative outcomes (i.e., fuzzy clas-15 sification composed of both scores and maps), showcasing the capability of the proposed 16 approach to complement shoreline change analysis through physical (map) interpreta-17 tion in addition to the frequently used numbers. The proposed fuzzy model is validated 18 using random *in-situ* samples and high resolution image data that has been classified 19 by a coastal geomorphology specialist. The accuracy of the interpretation show 81% of 20 matches are achievable compared to the results of the fuzzy model. The final results 21 delivered by the proposed fuzzy approach shows the complex behavior of the local dy-22 namics, thereby adding useful and substantial information for environmental issues and 23 Integrated Coastal Zone Management. 24

Keywords: Shoreline, landscape evolution, fuzzy, human impact classification, NDVI,
 remote sensing.

#### 27 1. Introduction

Diagnosing anthropogenic impacts (i.e., those associated with human activities) in 28 coastal zones around the world, e.g., coastal development and planning, overfishing, 29 coastal environmental protection and sustainability endeavour, and tourism activities, is 30 part of the Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) tasks (e.g., Dale et al., 2019, 31 Post and Lundin, 1996, Kenchington and Crawford, 1993, among others). Such diagnosis 32 is relevant to support policy formulation, resources management and conservation, and 33 to pursue sustainable development (Huang and Jin, 2018, Selkoe et al., 2009, Xiqing et 34 al., 2005, Small and Nicholls, 2003, Mazda et al., 2002, Albert and Jorge, 1998). Indeed, 35 efforts to detect the man-made impacts and differentiate their intensities along coastal 36 zones is useful before any stakeholders and government agencies are involved, i.e., once 37 human impacts component related to social economic pressure are identified, practical 38 actions can follow through sequence of interventions (Halpern et al., 2015, Hsu et al., 39 2007, Sánches-Arcilla et al., 2016). 40

Even with this realization, considerable differences still exist between anthropogenic 41 coastal zone impact classification at a particular time and spot on the one hand, and 42 the identification of vulnerability (weaknesses in the system) of erosion (e.g. Andrade et 43 al., 2019, Parthasarathy and Natesan, 2015) or the ecological risk (i.e., the combination 44 of probability and impact) assessment (Yanes et al., 2019) on the other hand. Impacts' 45 classification, risks and vulnerability assessment are all essential ingredients of coastal 46 zone management and as such, require methods that can clearly identify impacts and 47 assess vulnerability within the framework of a given budget. 48

<sup>49</sup> Methods for detecting human impacts along coastal zones include, e.g., shoreline eval-<sup>50</sup> uation of erosion/accretion patterns, which is normally detected through (a) topographic <sup>51</sup> profiles analysis (e.g., Jara et al., 2015, Fanos, 1995, Dally and Dean, 1984) considering <sup>52</sup> cross-shore morphology and the balance between destructive and constructive forces act-<sup>53</sup> ing on a beach, (b) shoreline change rates, e.g., end point rate (EPR), average of rates <sup>54</sup> (AOR), minimum description length (MDL), ordinary least squares (OLS) (e.g. Genz et <sup>55</sup> al., 2007, Dolan et al., 1991, Cenci et al., 2018, Rosskopf et al., 2018, Jin et al., 2015),

and (c), Land Use/Land Cover (LULC) monitoring combined with shoreline change rates 56 that take advantage of GIS visualization, which has been considered as a successful al-57 ternative approach for human impacts detection (e.g., Ghoneim et al., 2015, Guneroglu, 58 2015). In some cases, the weakness of methods (a), (b), and (c) occur when the human 59 impacts focus only in one variable, making the interpretation rather difficult and tedious 60 hence requiring integration that can be achieved by the fuzzy models (Zadeh, 1965), 61 which enable the inclusion of more socio-economic components such as settlement, pop-62 ulation growth, tourism activities, fisheries habitats, and commercial enterprises data, 63 among others (Feng et al., 2006). The fuzzy models have been recognized as alternative 64 methods that combine multiple variables, thereby modeling problems associated with 65 complex environmental systems and eliminating imprecise and subjective concepts is ev-66 idenced, e.g., in the work of Lizarazo (2010) who estimate quantitative land cover. Other 67 applications include evolution detection (Hester et al., 2010), mapping soil pollution risk 68 classes detected by heavy metals concentrations (Lourenco et al., 2010), determining 69 the density of sand (Juang et al., 1996), predicting soil erosion in a large watershed 70 (Mitra et al., 1998), capturing coastal geomorphological changes (Hanson et al., 2010), 71 evaluating coastal scenery (Ergin et al., 2004), elucidating the objectives and priorities 72 of North Lebanon's coastal productive sectors and their coastal zone perceptions and 73 knowledge (Meliadou et al., 2012), detecting mesoscale oceanic structures using satellite 74 images (Piedra-Fernandez et al., 2014), and assessing coastal environmental vulnerability 75 (Navas et al., 2012, Silva et al., 2013). 76

Although fuzzy models can achieve integration and have widely been used as observed 77 above, the problem with them however, is that on the one hand, coastal human impact 78 classification and vulnerability assessments are often undertaken in such manner that 79 the resulting output (i.e., numerical scores that are further converted into linguistic 80 terminologies) lack the visual physical interpretation capability that could easily aid in 81 identification and isolation of the impacts, especially where time and cost are constraining 82 factors. To underscore the importance of integrating numerical/linguistic and physical 83 (i.e., remotely sensed variables that relate directly to anthropogenic interaction), social 84 and economic processes, Klein et al. (1998) and Nicholls and Branson (1998) highlight 85

coastal resilience concept considering the uncertain future that addresses the long term
 needs and vision (Kenchington and Crawford, 1993). On the other hand, the fuzzy models
 differ in configuration, input variables, output and validation process.

This study proposes a fuzzy model that integrates three variables; (i) shoreline change 89 (detected in three stages, i.e., erosion, accretion and stability) of the coastal zone, over 90 time, (ii) vegetation cover status evaluated by the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index 91 (NDVI), and (iii), settlement influence related with the local planning impact consider-92 ing the infrastructure and buildings near the shoreline. The novelty lies in the fact that 93 rather than the traditional numerical fuzzy classification of human coastal zone impacts 94 employing only linguistic variables such as *high*, *moderate* or *low*, the study exploits the 95 potentials of using Remote Sensing (RS) data employed within Geographic Information 96 System (GIS) strengthened by others influencing factors that include socio-economic data 97 to enhance the numerical fuzzy classification by enabling graphical visualization through 98 the resulting spatial maps. This is advantageous in that mapping of geographical features 99 enhances the distinguishing of each sectoral evolution pattern recognition (Mondal et al., 100 2019, Novellino et al., 2019, Valderrama and Flores, 2019, Yan et al., 2019), which may 101 lead to intensive actions of preservation or even regeneration. To demonstrate the feasi-102 bility and potential of our proposed fuzzy model, Itamaraca Island (Pernambuco State, 103 Brazil) is employed as a case study where we focus on classifying the fuzzy model output 104 considering levels of human impact from low to high and providing visual interpretation 105 using the 1989, 1996, 2005, 2011 and 2016 temporal Landsat satellite images. 106

The remainder of the study is organized as follows. In section 2, basics of the fuzzy logic are briefly introduced; Section 3 looks at the input data and the fuzzy modeling's design; Section 4 presents the case study of Itamaraca Island in Brazil. The results are presented and discussed in section 5 and the study concluded in section 6.

### 111 2. Fuzzy Logic Method: Basics

In this section, a brief review of the basic fuzzy sets are presented. This is essential to understand the proposed fuzzy model introduced by this study. More details on fuzzy logic can be found, e.g., in Jantzen et al., (2013); Grafarend and Awange, (2012);
Galindo et al. (2006); Ross et al., (2002), Zadeh (1965), among others.

Definition (*fuzzy set*): A fuzzy set A over a universe of discourse X (a finite or infinite interval within which the fuzzy set can take a value) is a set of pair

$$A = \{\mu_A(x)/x : x \epsilon \ X, \mu_A(x) \epsilon [0, 1] \epsilon \Re\},\tag{1}$$

where  $\mu_A(x)$  is called the *membership degree* of the element x to the fuzzy set A. This degree ranges between the extremes 0 and 1 of the domain of the real numbers. A fuzzy set A in a referral set U is characterized by a *membership function*,  $\mu_A(x)$ , which associates each element u in U to a real number in the interval [0, 1]. It is thus defined as a mapping function

$$\mu_A(x): U \to [0, 1].$$
 (2)

Fig. 1 exposes an example of a boolean set compared to a fuzzy set representing 123 the height could be considered as tall for a male. To define the set of tall men as a 124 classical set, a predicate P(x) can be used, for instance  $x \ge 1.80$  m, where x is the 125 height of a person, in this case, if someone has the height of 1.79 m according to this 126 threshold, the person is considered not being tall. From the fuzzy set of tall men in Fig. 127 1, a membership can be defined as a sigmoid function, with a height corresponding to a 128 number in the interval [01]. In this example, if someone has a height taller than 1.90 m. 129 the membership degree corresponds to 1. On the other hand, for a height between 1.60 130 m and 1.90 m, the membership degree rise gradually and does not jump abruptly. 131

<sup>132</sup> A *linguistic label* is a word, in natural language, that expresses or identifies a fuzzy <sup>133</sup> set that may or may not be formal defined. Thus, the membership function  $\mu_A(x)$  of a <sup>134</sup> fuzzy set A expresses the degree in which x verifies the category specified by A. With <sup>135</sup> this definition, concepts such as tall, young, hot, etc. could be used as linguistic variables <sup>136</sup> for expressing abstract concepts. The *type of a membership function* need to be <sup>137</sup> set for all linguistics variables, which the most commonly used are shown in Fig. 2, e.g.,



Figure 1: Set of tall men, crisp and fuzzy sets

<sup>138</sup> L-function, trapezoidal, triangular and bell.

The L-function is defined by two parameters a and b, in the following way (Galindo et al., 2006):

$$L(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \le a \\ \frac{a-x}{b-a} & \text{if } a < x \le b \\ 0 & \text{if } x > b. \end{cases}$$
(3)

Trapezoidal function is defined by its lower limit c and its upper limit f, and the lower and upper limits of its nucleus, d and e, respectively, as

$$T(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \ (x \le c) \ or \ (x \ge f) \\ (x - c)/(d - c) & if \ x \in (c, d] \\ 1 & if \ x \in (d, e) \\ (f - x)/(f - e) & if \ x \in (d, f); \end{cases}$$
(4)

while the Gaussian function, a typical Gauss bell, is defined by its mid-value m, and the value of k > 0 as

$$G(x) = e^{-k(x-m)^2}.$$
 (5)

The greater k is, the narrower the bell becomes. The triangular is defined by its lower limit g, its upper limit i, and the modal value m, so that g < h < i, with

$$A(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \ x \le g \\ (x-g)/(h-g) & if \ x \in (g,h] \\ (i-x)/(i-h) & if \ x \in (h,i) \\ 1 & if \ x \ge i. \end{cases}$$
(6)



Figure 2: Fuzzy membership types e.g., L-function, trapezoidal, bell, and triangular.

Fuzzy set operations are then defined by means of the membership functions. For example, in order to compare two fuzzy sets, equality and inclusion are defined. Let Aand B be two fuzzy sets defined on a mutual universe U, where the two fuzzy sets A and B are equal if and only if they have the same membership function,

$$A = B \equiv \mu_A(x) = \mu_B(x). \tag{7}$$

A fuzzy set A is a subset of (included in) a fuzzy set B, if and only if the membership of A is less than or equal to that of B,

$$A \subseteq B \equiv \mu_A(x) \le \mu_B(x). \tag{8}$$

153 The fuzzy union  $A \cup B$  is

$$\mu_{A\cup B}(x) \equiv max(\mu_A(x), \mu_B(x)) \tag{9}$$

The fuzzy intersection  $A \cap B$  is

$$\mu_{A\cap B}(x) \equiv \min(\mu_A(x), \mu_B(x)), \tag{10}$$

while the fuzzy complement  $\overline{A}$  of A is

$$\mu_{\overline{A}}(x) \equiv 1 - \mu_A(x). \tag{11}$$

Fuzzy rules were built combining the input variables with the output using "if - then" rule format, e.g.,

if 
$$x_1$$
 is  $A_1$  and ... and  $x_n$  is  $A_n$ , then  $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$   
where:  
 $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are the model variables, and  
 $A_1, \dots, A_n$   
are the linguistic terms (e.g., short, medium, long, low, moderate and high).  
Y is the output variable,  
 $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , is typically a linear function of the input variables, e.g.,  
 $y = c_n x_n + \dots + c_1 x_1 + c_0$ .  
**Defuzzification** can be considered as the last step of the process that maps a fu

Defuzzification can be considered as the last step of the process that maps a fuzzy
 set into a crisp value. Some of the methods that can be used in the defuzzification include,
 e.g., centroid of area, bisector of area, and mean value of maximum, among others. The
 defuzzification method used in this work was the centroid of area.

### <sup>170</sup> 3. Model Design

The structure of the *coastal zone human impact classification* is grouped into three steps (step 1, input data; step 2, fuzzy model design; and step 3, validation) as shown in Fig. 3. The first step is data processing to extract shoreline positions from remotely sensed data, shoreline change, NDVI calculations and settlement influence. Thereafter, the fuzzy model is designed, in this case, with five variables, i.e., *erosion*, *accretion*, *stability*, *NDVI* and *build up*. All linguistics labels (fuzzy sets), membership functions, fuzzy rules, and defuzzification providing the output that is a crisp number representing the *coastal zone human impact classification* which is designed in step 2. Finally, step 3 validates the model using *in-situ* comparison assessment. In what follows, a detailed examination of these three steps is presented.



Figure 3: Structure of the fuzzy model for coastal zone human impact classification. Step 1 shows data input from remotely sensed images, step 2 the model design, and step 3 the validation of the model.

## 181 3.1. Step 1: Input data

The input baseline uses Landsat image (Path/Row, 214/65) to cover the areal ex-182 tend of the study area. Five Landsat images were selected considering the years 1989, 183 1996, 2005, 2011, and 2016, and all Landsat images were downloaded from United States 184 Geological Survey (USGS) (https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/) as Level 1 products 185 (Table 1). The Landsat satellite datasets are selected with consideration to be in the 186 same/nearest months (August and September) for each year, seeking increase the sepa-187 ration of land use classes by minimizing the seasonal variation. Also all selected images 188 should have less than 10% cloud cover over the study area, but this was not possible 189 for 2005 and 2016 images as most of the time of the year, the study area was covered 190 with clouds, almost everywhere and this represented one of the biggest challenges (data 191 availability) for this study. To be able to overcome cloud cover and select images match-192 ing the study criteria, more than one Landsat image was downloaded for 2005 and 2016 193 (Table 1). The new images for each year (2005 and 2016) were created with zero cloud 194

<sup>195</sup> cover using image analysis tool (clip, mask and mosaic techniques over areas covered with
 <sup>196</sup> cloud) in ArcGIS environment.

Image No.	Sensor ID	Scene ID	Date	Cloud cover (%)
1	$\mathrm{TM}$	LT52140651989255CUB00.tar.gz	12/09/1989	28.00
2	$\mathrm{TM}$	LT52140651996243 CUB00.tar.gz	30/08/1996	29.00
3a	$\mathrm{TM}$	LT52140652005251 CUB00.tar.gz	08/09/2005	25.00
3b	$\mathrm{TM}$	LT52140652005267 CUB00.tar.gz	24/09/2005	42.00
4	$\mathrm{TM}$	LT52140652011252CUB00.tar.gz	09/09/2011	24.00
5a	OLI-TIRS	LC82140652016266LGN00.tar.gz	22/09/2016	25.71
5b	OLI-TIRS	LC82140652016250LGN00.tar.gz	06/09/2016	27.45
5c	OLI-TIRS	LC82140652016234LGN00.tar.gz	21/08/2016	37.36

Table 1: List of Landsat images used for Shoreline, built up and NDVI calculation

Since remotely sensed data are influenced by a number of factors such as atmospheric 197 effects, therefore those datasets cannot be used for further analysis (Tyagi and Bhosle, 198 2011). Satellite images can only be used after performing number of image pre-processing 199 steps including atmospheric correction to remove or minimize those atmosphere influences 200 to obtain corrected full spectral information for each image element (pixels) (Tyagi and 201 Bhosle, 2014). The dark object subtraction (DOS) is strictly based on image information 202 having this specific characteristic can be considered ideal for this purpose (Chavez, 1996). 203 Since this study will not integrate any ground-based data to be mapped and compared 204 with satellite image information (e.g. land surface temperature), therefore the DOS 205 method can be used to correct and normalize the Landsat image radiance differences 206 which are due to variations considering solar illumination, sensor viewing geometry, and 207 seasonality (Saleem et al., 2018, Gilmore et al., 2015). 208

The downloaded Landsat images are Level 1 product, therefore the only pre-processing performed after atmospheric correction is the co-registration between Landsat 8 2016 as the reference image and the rest of Landsat images. This process is performed using image registration workflow in ENVI software. This technique defined many tie points between reference image (Landsat 8 2016) and the rest of Landsat images. All the registered Landsat images with reference image have the total RMSE less than 0.5 pixel. A subset image for each Landsat scene is created using the vector dataset for the study area as clipping file in ArcGIS environment.

As input, the fuzzy model uses the satellite images described before to extract information regarding temporal changes, considering three aspects (i) shoreline change; (ii) NDVI; and (iii) settlement evolution.

(i) Shoreline change

Since the study area is surrounded by water in all sides (island), the coastline from 221 each Landsat scene is extracted as polygon shapefile using on-screen manual digitiza-222 tion technique under a similar zooming level (uniform scale of 1:5000). This technique 223 was confirmed by Dewan et al. (2017) to be effective method for coastline and rivers 224 boundaries delineation. Areas of erosion and accretion (sliver polygons) are calculated 225 for every two successive polygons (1989-1996, 1996-2005, 2005-2011, and 2011-2016) us-226 ing the spatial union tool in ArcGIS environment as suggested, e.g., by Dewan et al. 227 (2017).228

Using the five sectors shapefile, the area of erosion, accretion and stability are calculated as percentages in regard to the total area for each sector and those values (%) has been used as three variables (X1, X2, and X3) for the first input (shoreline change).

<sup>232</sup> (ii) Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)

The second input dataset used in the fuzzy model is NDVI, and this index consists 233 new calculated values for each pixel in the image ranging from -1 to +1. The NDVI is 234 calculated by the Equation 12 and two required input bands, i.e., near-infrared (NIR) 235 and red (RED) reflectance. The NDVI is calculated for each image (1989, 1996, 2005, 236 2011, and 2016) after performing image pre-processing including atmospheric correction 237 as the reflectance values are required during this index calculation for more representative 238 vegetation cover. Using the sector shapefile, a mean value of NDVI, for each sector is 239 obtained and has been used as a second input which is representing the fourth variable 240  $(X_4).$ 241

$$NDVI = (NIR - RED)/(NIR + RED).$$
(12)

<sup>242</sup> (iii) Settlement evolution

The third (final) input dataset used is the settlement influence (Built up area). The infrastructure and buildings near shoreline can affect directly coastal erosion as well as flooding. Planning at a local, state or country spheres, a minimum distance for geomorphological aspects preservation near shoreline is very important to reduce the coastal zone human impacts, however, in this study, the opposite can be observed, the increase of settlement advancing near coastline over time.

The object-based algorithm has demonstrated in recent studies its potential in identi-249 fication land cover mapping in heterogeneous areas with better accuracy than pixel-based 250 image classification (see e.g., Singha et al, 2016, Bisquert et al, 2015, Guan et al, 2013). 251 Also, object-based algorithm analyses treat any image as objects by integrating neigh-252 borhood information, which will enhance the analysis and increase the accuracy of the 253 classified image, i.e., LULC. Therefore, for this study, LULC classes (built up, vegeta-254 tion and others) are extracted from each Landsat image using feature extraction tool in 255 ENVI environment using segmentation approach. During this process, many scale and 256 merge levels are tested to obtain the best result for the three classes including built up 257 areas in all Landsat images. The scale level of 30 and merge level of 95 demonstrated 258 visually the best results, which logically agree with 30 m spatial resolution of Landsat 259 data. Since an accurate result are required for the fuzzy input, therefore, the segmented 260 raster is converted to vector dataset to delineate the three LULC classes more accurately 261 using manual attribution for the misclassified polygons (areas) for each year in ArcGIS 262 environment during editing session. 263

The built up area (the third input, Fig 3, settlement influence) classified for each sector and temporal image, and then used as the fifth variable (X5) for the coastal fuzzy classification model.

#### <sup>267</sup> 3.2. Step 2: Fuzzy model design

The fuzzy model design is developed by integrating three inputs: *shoreline change*; 268 *NDVI* and *settlement influence* (built-up area). Those three inputs are consisted of five 269 variables (X1, X2, X3, X4) and X5). All the input variables detected by the baseline 270 information extracted by satellite images which have a different input range and units 271 according to the specific variables characteristics. In this case X1, X2, X3 (shoreline 272 change) ranges from 0 to 100 (%) considering the total (%) of sectoral shoreline varia-273 tions. The NDVI, variable  $X_4$ , ranges from -1.0 to 1.0 and the  $X_5$  (build up) ranges from 274 0 to 100km<sup>2</sup>, which then evaluated by temporal changes. The output of this fuzzy model 275 is a number ranging from 0 to 1 representing a coastal zone human impact classification 276 ranking. When the output number is close to 1 it manifests a high human impact classi-277 fication and close to 0 refers to low human impact classification, between this range, the 278 fuzzy logic could classified according to the model design as low, low/moderate, moderate, 279 moderate/high or high. The inference method used in proposed fuzzy model is based on 280 Mamdani Model, which adopts a concept of fuzzy rules and outputs represented by fuzzy 281 set resulting from aggregation of each inference rule, see e.g., Jang et al. (1997). 282

In the fuzzy model, the first input (*shoreline change*) is divided into three variables (based on the states of the shoreline) erosion (X1), accretion (X2) and stable (X3), considering the changes detected comparing consecutive years e.g. 1989-1996, 1996-2005, 2005-2011 and 2011-2016. The linguistic labels (section 2), considered for this variable is named as *low*, *moderate* and *high*. The type of the membership functions selected is triangular (Equation 6) and L-function (Equation 3) according to the parameters presented in Table 2.

Variable	Linguistic	Label	Membership	Function
Erosion "X1"	Low	(A1)	triangular	[-10 -5 10]
	Moderate	(A2)	triangular	$[4 \ 10 \ 15]$
	High	(A3)	L-function	$[10 \ 12]$
Accretion " $X2$ "	Low	(B1)	triangular	[-10 -5 10]
	Moderate	(B2)	triangular	$[4 \ 10 \ 15]$
	High	(B3)	L-function	$[10 \ 12]$
Stable " $X3$ "	Low	(C1)	triangular	[-40 0 40]
	Moderate	(C2)	triangular	$[30 \ 50 \ 70]$
	High	(C3)	triangular	$[60\ 100\ 140]$
NDVI "X4"	Low	(D1)	L-function	[-0.2 0.3]
	Moderate	(D2)	triangular	$[0.2 \ 0.4 \ 0.6]$
	High	(D3)	L-function	[0.5  0.8]
Build up " $X5$ "	Low	(E1)	triangular	[-10 -5 10]
	Moderate	(E2)	triangular	$[4 \ 10 \ 15]$
	High	(E3)	triangular	$[10 \ 12]$
CZHI* Classification " $Y$ "	Low	(F1)	L-function	$[0.2 \ 0.4]$
	Moderate	(F2)	triangular	$[0.2 \ 0.35 \ 0.5]$
	High	(F3)	L-function	$[0.3 \ 0.6]$

Table 2: Fuzzy sets. These function numbers represent a mathematical function (triangular or L-function) for each specific linguistic labels (*low, moderate and high*) according to a specific range and variables units (X1, X2, X3, X4, and Y).

\*Coastal Zone Human Impact

For the second input NDVI (fourth variable X4) in the fuzzy model (see Fig 3, step 2), the intervals scale background ranging from -1.0 to 1.0 are based on Lillesand et al. (2014), and represents the vegetation coverage for the surface, i.e., land or water. According to Karaburun (2010), negative values of NDVI represent areas with no vegetation cover, i.e., water bodies and sandy beaches, whereas NDVI < 0.1 represent infertile soil. On the other hand, moderated values (0.2 < NDVI < 0.3) represent pasture and shrub, while (0.6 < NDVI < 0.8) refers to tropical and temperate forests, that is, vegetation in healthy conditions (Chouhan and Rao, 2011). The membership functions selected are Lfunction (Equation 3) and triangular (Equation 6), with 3 linguist labels: *low*, *moderate*, and *high* (Table 2).

For the third input (fifth variable X5), the *build up*, the linguistic labels are named (section 2) as *low*, *moderate* and *high*. The type of the membership functions selected are L-function (Equation 3) and triangular (e.g. Equation 6) according to the parameters presented in Table 2.

Table 2 also presents the fuzzy model output called *coastal zone human impact classi*-304 fication (Y). The output uses three linguist labels named as low, moderate and high. The 305 boundaries between the fuzzy sets normally crosses each others, in this case, the coastal 306 zone human impact classification, after the defuzzification process, can be classified into 307 one single linguistic label (low, moderate and high) or also belonging to two classes at the 308 same time, e.g., *moderate* and *high* accordingly to the degree of relevance, considering 309 the interval [0, 1], thus this is one of the advantages of fuzzy models comparing with 310 Boolean model, it is more flexible. 311

Finally, using three inputs (shoreline change, NDVI and settlement influence (builtup areas)) with five variables (X1, X2, X3, X4 and X5), 17 fuzzy rules are achieved. The rules, are composed by five variables (X1, X2, X3, X4 and X5) and the linguistics labels for them (A1, A2, A3), (B1, B2, B3), (C1, C2, C3), (D1, D2, D3), (E1, E2, E3) respectively. The final fuzzy rule output Y(F1, F2, F3) are defined by integrating the five variables with their linguistics labels using "if - then" rule format (Section 2) as followed:

### Rule 1: If $X1 \epsilon A1 And X2 \epsilon B1 And X3 \epsilon C3 And X4 \epsilon D3 And X5 \epsilon E1$

Then  $Y \in F1$  (another way to express the same rule using, e.g., the linguistics variables is: "If erosion is low and accretion is low and stable is high and NDVI is high, and build up is low, then the output coastal zone human impact classification is low"); The whole set of rules are presented in the Appendix A: Fuzzy Rules.

It is important to highlight that all these set of variables and rules needs to be val-

idated, otherwise it might be categorized as arbitrary estimation. In this case, some preliminary testes are done to fine tune the rules and parameters of those functions in an interactive form until satisfied a validation criterion. In this study, a threshold higher than 80% of matches is adopted and considered in the validation process, section 3.3.

329 3.3. Step 3: validation

The validation step is used to determine the accuracy and quality of the final output (fuzzy *coastal zone human impact classification*) which is achieved. This accuracy is determined empirically by comparing *in-situ* samples of ground reference data and high resolution satellite images with the final classification delivered by the fuzzy model. For a complete discussion about the importance of fuzzy assessment, see e.g., Gopal and Woodcock (1994).

#### 336 4. Case Study: Itamaraca, Brazil

The Itamaraca Island (Fig. 4), located at a distance of 48 km from Recife, is an island on Pernambuco State coast in Brazil, belonging to the Metropolitan Region of Recife, separated from the mainland by Santa Cruz channel. According to the records from the *Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística* (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics) (IBGE, 2010), Itamaraca has a total area of 67 square kilometers and a population of 21,884 people.

The coastal ecosystem of Itamaraca Island is marked by the features of mangrove, 343 rainforest and apicum (or salty), which are characterized as areas of permanent preser-344 vation in the *Código Florestal Brasileiro* (in english, Brazilian Forest Code). Itamaraca 345 falls within the scope of small coastal rivers basins. Its main tributary rivers are Paripe 346 and Jaguaribe. The watercourses are perennial with the native vegetations consisting of 347 evergreen forest and sandbank vegetations. The population pressure on natural resources 348 in this region has implications for economic, social, and environmental terms. These im-349 plications justify the need for planning and management actions, which are scarce due 350 to data availability, and the difficulties of acquiring current information. There is also 351



Figure 4: Localization of Itamaraca (a) in Brazil, (b) the island divided in five sectors.

another factors that the region is characterized by strong dynamics involving the rivers, coastal tidal currents, winds and all together have continuous effects on the shoreline status. Fig. 4 (b) also shows the delimitation of the island into five sectors, which are individually examined.

Itamaraca is, however, subjected to remarkable changes of the shoreline, causing sig-356 nificant economic losses to the region, e.g., the destruction of homes and infrastructures 357 as erosion result. The shoreline change is a recurrent phenomenon in the whole Brazilian 358 coast (Souza, 2009) and also around the world. Recent surveys indicate that in addition 359 to the above normal processes in some places, the sea and the sediment transport are 360 constantly changing the coastal zone status and positions (see, e.g., Mendonca et al. 361 (2014), Aiello et al. (2013), Goncalves et al. (2012), Jackson et al. (2012), Smith and 362 Cromley (2012), Baptista et al. (2011), Miller et al. (2011), Banna and Hereheret (2009), 363 Stockdon et al. (2002), Thieler and Danforth (1994)). 364

#### <sup>365</sup> 5. Results and discussion

#### 366 5.1. Shoreline behavior

Fig. 5 combines the results for shoreline change (a1, a2, a3, a4), land cover classes (b1, 367 b2, b3, b4, b5) and final fuzzy classification (c1, c2, c3, c4), which represents the outputs 368 for the fuzzy model: coastal zone human impact classification. Fig. 5 (a1, a2, a3, a4) 369 shows the shoreline change, considering 27 years time-line (1989-2016), divided by sectors 370 along Itamaraca Island. In most scenarios, the shoreline has experience changes between 371 advance and retreats with different rates during the evaluated periods, which is consistent 372 with Martins et al. (2017) who reported some stretches of coastline advancing and others 373 retreating, with the highest rates of erosion found near Itamaraca Island (about 0.4 374 m/year). Table 3 shows the three classes considering erosion, accretion and stability 375 percentages (%) among the evaluated study periods (1989-1996, 1996-2005, 2005-2011 376 and 2011-2016). 377



Figure 5: Results of *shoreline change*, land cover classes, and coastal zone human impact classification using fuzzy model over the sectors during the study periods.

Sectors	1989-1996	1996-2005	2005-2011	2011-2016
	E/A/S	E/A/S	E/A/S	E/A/S
1	27/27/46	16/14/70	15/26/59	25/14/61
2	29/12/60	13/23/64	11/19/69	21/0/79
3	19/16/64	17/17/66	20/19/61	20/20/60
4	22/8/71	7/30/63	16/15/70	15/15/70
5	44/11/45	17/28/55	14/35/51	36/23/41

Table 3: Erosion (E), Accretion (A) and Stability (S) Mean%

On one hand, satellite data utilization makes it possible to detect erosion periods 378 that highlighted sector five between 1989-1996 and 2011-2016 representing 44% and 36%379 of eroded area, respectively. On the other hand, sector two seems to be more stable 380 representing 60%, 64%, 69%, and 79% of stability for the four periods (1989-1996), 381 (1996-2005), (2005-2011) and (2011-2016) respectively. For all these four periods, the 382 third sector has experienced more erosion than accretion, Gomes and Silva (2014) af-383 firm that along Pernambuco's coast unprotected areas (like the east side of Itamaraca 384 Island sectors 2 and 3) and because it is in direct contact with Atlantic Ocean that might 385 cause extreme wave events creating strong wave-induced currents, and consequently, the 386 sediments transport would be in constant changes; also there is the sediment transport 387 influence by the Jaguaribe and Paripe rivers around the island. Corroborating to the 388 presented causes, high waves have been reported by Rodriguez et al., (2016), who pre-389 sented the impacts of Atlantic Ocean on coastal erosion, thus inferring that this could 390 be a direct influence factor on sectors 2 and 3, however, if other parameters are closely 391 observed like the ones proposed in this study (build up and NDVI), it can be seen that 392 erosion is also dependent upon a joined influence parameters. 393

#### <sup>394</sup> 5.2. NDVI spatial distribution over the years

Fig. 6 shows the results for NDVI over the years in each sector. It can be seen that, the sectors 4 and 5 have similar NDVI values and predominantly between 0.57 and 0.67, while, sectors 1, 2 and 3 show values ranging from 0.33 and 0.47.

Regarding these results, the shoreline change can be directly influenced by the pres-398 ence/absence of vegetation cover, such as presented by Amaral et al., 2016 and Wolfe and 399 Nickling, 1993, who affirm that vegetation is used as a means of stabilizing the mobile 400 sand surfaces, thus reduce shoreline erosion, and consequently influencing the level of hu-401 man coastal zone impact. And still, the rates of soil loss under natural vegetation cover 402 are usually low and almost have no variations with time, therefore this fact motivates 403 the adoption of vegetation to quantifying the hazards impacts reduction in coastal zones, 404 see e.g., Guannel et al. (2015), Luhar et al. (2010) and Domínguez et al. (2005). 405

For instance, considering erosion detection (Table 3) and the absence of vegetation cover (Fig. 6 as expressed by NDVI results) for both sectors (1 and 3) and combined with buildings over the beach (Fig. 5 b1 to b5), once can see they are strong indicators for soil and natural vegetation loss. On the other hand, the majority of vegetation coverage in sectors 4 and 5 (Fig. 6) are detected and mapped, and also presents less erosion occurrence and they are mainly predominated by stability coastal status.



Figure 6: NDVI values for each sector over the years under study.

#### 412 5.3. Build up area evolution near the shoreline

Silva et al. (2014) pointed out that in many Latin America case studies the increase of inappropriate settlement next to the shoreline, are associated with coastal erosion problems and sediment supply, which is also detected over sectors 1, 2 and 3, which shows buildings very close to the water line (Fig. 5 b1 to b5), thus affecting the natural vegetation growth and therefore increasing the impact on coastal erosion.

Fig. 7 shows the built-up area in square kilometers for all sectors confirming the rising of the building over sector 3 and the stability detection over sector 4. Fig. 5 b1 to b5 shows the huge difference in buildings areas over sector 3 when it is compared with other sectors, where the man-made areas expanded near the shoreline and this considerably roses over the 27 years of evaluation.



Figure 7: Build up area for each sector over the years under study.

Related with buildings in Itamaraca Island, the presence of Orange Fort in southeastern of the island is remarkable. This landmark first built by the Dutch in 1631 and rebuilt by the Portuguese in 1654, serving as a military stronghold protective structure as shown in Fig. 8 (b). This place needs constant attention to the coastal managers, once it was abandoned for so long and nowadays restoration intention has been mentioned. It is also highlighted around the build location indicatives of coastal erosion processes with *high* coastal zone human impact, which can also be worsened by the tourism activities near the shoreline.



Figure 8: (a) Localization map of Orange Fort in Itamaraca Island, (b) satellite image considering low tide and (c) Orange Fort photograph considering high tide period, presenting the sea almost covering the front wall of it.

#### 431 5.4. Coastal zone human impact classification using fuzzy model

The fuzzy model is implemented to classify coastal zone human impact (Y), and applied along the sectors defined in Fig. 4, based on the input data for five variables named as shoreline change erosion (X1), accretion (X2), stable (X3), NDVI (X4) and *build up* influence (X5). The linguistic classification results are represented in Table 4. Finally, the result is represented by a thematic map shown in Fig. 5 (c1, c2, c3, c4) according to the five sectors in the periods assessed.

The fuzzy classification could belong to two classes at the same time, e.g., sector 2 *moderate/low* over the periods 1996-2005 and 2005-2011. This flexibility represents the main advantage of the fuzzy classification, highlighting the main trends in the sector evaluated. For the periods 1989-1996, 1996-2005, 2005-2011 and 2011-2016 sectors 3, 4 and 5 are with the same classification over time considered *high, low* and *moderate/high*, respectively. Sector 5 indicated vegetation presence and less *build up* and showed *moderate/high* classification, representing an important sector to keep alert the authorities attention regarding settlement and preserving existing vegetation. The ones in red like sector 3 means that particularly problems related to settlement influence nearshore, combined with low vegetation index and shoreline change (erosion) over years are causing the extreme human impact on coastal zone classification. Sector 1 had maintained the status of *moderate/high* during all the evaluated periods.

Sectors	1989 to 1996	1996 to 2005	2005 to 2011	2011 to 2016
1	moderate/high	moderate/high	moderate/high	moderate/high
2	moderate/high	moderate/low	moderate/low	moderate/high
3	high	high	high	high
4	low	low	low	low
5	moderate/high	moderate/high	moderate/high	moderate/high

Table 4: Linguistic classification results

#### 451 5.5. Results Validation

For validation process, a combination of ground reference data, i.e., samples and 452 scenarios documented by photographs with coordinates (latitude and longitude) and a 453 high resolution image (2016) from Google Earth Pro (Hritz, 2013) are used to validate 454 the outcome of fuzzy final classification map (Fig. 5 c4). The field trip data is comparable 455 only for the time when this field data collection took place and this data is not suitable 456 for other temporal data i.e., 2011, 2005, 1996 and 1989. In this case, it is assumed by 457 validating the last period (2011-2016) the outcome of this process could indicate the 458 accuracy of the fuzzy model. 459

For the 2016 a total of 17 samples are collected and documented for sectors 1, 2 and 3. And to cover unaccessible sectors i.e., 4 and 5, a high resolution image of 2016 from Google Earth Pro (using image slider tool) is used to identified 16 samples to complete the ground reference data (Fig. 9). These particular locations representing 33 samples are presented to a coastal geomorphology specialist, who had in mind the variables X1, X2, X3, X4 and X5 to establish the final "matching values" during accuracy assessment process. Table B.5 shows the outcome of this process and 81% of these locations are matching with the same samples obtained from fuzzy model results.



Figure 9: 33 samples (field and high resolution image) for 2016, this referenced data was used to evaluate the results generated from the fuzzy model.

Fig. 10 shows four pictures (a, b, c and d) taken along Itamaraca Island in 2016. Fig. 10 (a) shows an example of destroyed houses by shoreline erosion. The model output ranked this as *high* coastal zone human impact site, a situation confirmed from the *in*- situ data and also by the specialist. Fig. 10 (b) represents a place ranked as high with shoreline erosion shown dying coconut trees due to the salt water bathing its roots (i.e., salinity), Fig. 10 (c) shows a coastal erosion scarp and an erosion evidence, which is ranked by the model as high. Finally, Fig. 10 (d) presents a *low* site classified from the model showing a mangrove protection scenario. This *in situ* data is fundamental for the coastal analysis and also useful to validate the fuzzy model effectiveness.



Figure 10: *In-situ* Assessment (a) destroyed houses, (b) coconut and vegetation affected by salinity (c) coastal erosion scarp, (d) mangrove.

#### 477 5.6. Fuzzy model applicability

This study showed the feasibility of the fuzzy coastal zone impact classification using Itamaraca, Brazil as a case study. The inputs which have been used for the study are available globally for any region and could be obtained by Landsat data as main sources for those inputs. The methodologies which have been applied during this study could be implemented to obtain the required inputs for the fuzzy coastal zone impact assessment, for instance, NDVI, LULC (built-up area) and shoreline change. The rules are simple and make possible to define the human impact levels on Itamaraca Island (Fig. 5). The fuzzy modeling is flexible in terms of inputs configuration, therefore, adapting it for other coastal zone study cases regionally or globally is might possible and feasible. For instance, it is desirable to including new input variables like floods information, population, sea level rise impact, among other variables that may be available and might enhance the final outcomes of the fuzzy model significantly.

#### 490 6. Conclusion

The proposed fuzzy model provided a first attempt for coastal zone human impact classification through the integration of both scores and physical remotely sensed data using Itamaraca Island with five sectors as case study for 27 years of the Landsat data evaluation. The remarks of this work are:

- The proposed fuzzy model provides an alternative way to integrate data (e.g.,
   shoreline change, NDVI, and settlement influence) with ranking (i.e., *low*, *moderate*,
   *high*) for environmental analysis in multidisciplinary teams for detecting regional
   or global problems.
- It is possible for the fuzzy model to give a phenomenon (physical) interpretation to
   the coastal zone human impact classification, thus simplifying the specialists role of
   interpreting the results accurately, thereby adding robustness to the fuzzy model's
   results.
- The implementation of the proposed fuzzy model by integrating shoreline change,
   NDVI, and settlement (i.e., geomorphological aspects, in-situ and satellite images)
   datasets shows improvement in evaluating coastal zone human impacts.
- 4. From this validation, 81% of comparison matched, which corroborates the method ology and its feasibility in the present study.
- 5. Sector 3 was classified as *high* coastal zone human impact for Itamaraca island, where the importance of integrated coastal zone management considering the actual scenario found in this area highlighted that the area required environmental conservation and preservation actions.

# 512 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

#### <sup>513</sup> Appendix A. Fuzzy Rules

- Rule 1: If  $X1 \epsilon A1 And X2 \epsilon B1 And X3 \epsilon C3 And X4 \epsilon D3 And X5 \epsilon E1 Then Y \epsilon F1$
- <sup>515</sup> Rule 2: If  $X1 \epsilon A1 And X2 \epsilon B1 And X3 \epsilon C2 And X4 \epsilon D2 And X5 \epsilon E1 Then Y \epsilon F1;$
- <sup>516</sup> Rule 3: If  $X1 \epsilon A2 And X2 \epsilon B2 And X3 \epsilon C2 And X4 \epsilon D2 And X5 \epsilon E2 Then Y \epsilon F2;$
- <sup>517</sup> Rule 4: If  $X1 \epsilon A2$  And  $X2 \epsilon B2$  And  $X3 \epsilon C2$  And  $X4 \epsilon D3$  And  $X5 \epsilon E3$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$
- Rule 5: If  $X1 \epsilon A3$  And  $X2 \epsilon B2$  And  $X3 \epsilon C1$  And  $X4 \epsilon D1$  And  $X5 \epsilon E3$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- <sup>519</sup> Rule 6: If  $X1 \epsilon A3$  And  $X2 \epsilon B2$  And  $X3 \epsilon C2$  And  $X4 \epsilon D2$  And  $X5 \epsilon E3$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- <sup>520</sup> Rule 7: If  $X1 \epsilon A2$  And  $X2 \epsilon B3$  And  $X3 \epsilon C2$  And  $X4 \epsilon D1$  And  $X5 \epsilon E3$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- <sup>521</sup> Rule 8: If  $X1 \epsilon A2$  And  $X2 \epsilon B2$  And  $X3 \epsilon C3$  And  $X4 \epsilon D3$  And  $X5 \epsilon E1$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- Rule 9: If  $X1 \epsilon A2$  And  $X2 \epsilon B1$  And  $X3 \epsilon C3$  And  $X4 \epsilon D2$  And  $X5 \epsilon E1$  Then  $Y \epsilon F1$ ;
- Rule 10: If  $X1 \epsilon A2$  And  $X2 \epsilon B2$  And  $X3 \epsilon C3$  And  $X4 \epsilon D3$  And  $X5 \epsilon E1$  Then  $Y \epsilon F1$ ;
- <sup>524</sup> Rule 11: If  $X1 \epsilon A3 And X5 \epsilon E3 Then Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- <sup>525</sup> Rule 12: If  $X2 \epsilon B1$  And  $X3 \epsilon C3$  And  $X4 \epsilon D3$  Then  $Y \epsilon F1$ ;
- S26 Rule 13:  $If X3 \epsilon C3 And X4 \epsilon D3 Then Y \epsilon F1;$
- S27 Rule 14:  $If X2 \epsilon B1 And X3 \epsilon C3 Then Y \epsilon F1;$
- <sup>528</sup> Rule 15: If  $X2 \epsilon B3$  And  $X3 \epsilon C2$  And  $X4 \epsilon D1$  Then  $Y \epsilon F3$ ;
- <sup>529</sup> Rule 16: If  $X1 \epsilon B2$  And  $X4 \epsilon D2$  And  $X5 \epsilon E2$  Then  $Y \epsilon F2$ ; and
- Signal Rule 17: If  $X3 \epsilon C1$  And  $X4 \epsilon D2$  Then  $Y \epsilon F2$ .

# 531 Appendix B. Results Validation

	Table B.5: Validatio	<u>pn</u>	
Samples	High resolution image and in situ interpreted by a specialist	Fuzzy model classification	Comparison
1	High	Moderate/High	Differente
2	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
3	Moderate/High	Low	Differente
4	Moderate/Low	Low	Differente
5	Moderate/Low	Low	Differente
6	High	High	Equal
7	High	High	Equal
8	High	High	Equal
9	High	High	Equal
10	High	High	Equal
11	High	High	Equal
12	High	High	Equal
13	High	High	Equal
14	High	High	Equal
15	High	High	Equal
16	Moderate/High	High	Differente
17	Low	Low	Equal
18	Low	Low	Equal
19	Low	Low	Equal
20	Low	Low	Equal
21	Moderate/Low	Moderate/High	Differente
22	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
23	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
24	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
25	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
26	Moderate/High $_{30}$	Moderate/High	Equal
27	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal
28	Moderate/High	Moderate/High	Equal

#### 532 References

- Aiello, A., Canora, F., Pasquariello, G. Spilotro, G. 2013. Shoreline variations and coastal
   dynamics: A spaceetime data analysis of the Jonian littoral, Italy. Estuarine, Coastal
   and Shelf Science n.129, p.124-135.
- Albert, P., and Jorge, G. 1998. Coastal changes in the Ebro delta: Natural and human factors. Journal of Coastal Conservation, 4(1), 17-26.
- Amaral, A. C. Z., Corte, G. N., Denadai, M. R., Colling, L. A., Borzone, C., Veloso, V., ...
  and Rosa, L. C. D. (2016). Brazilian sandy beaches: characteristics, ecosystem services,
  impacts, knowledge and priorities. Brazilian Journal of Oceanography, 64(SPE2), 5-16.
- Andrade, T. S., Oliveira Sousa, P. H. G., and Siegle, E. 2019. Vulnerability to beach
  erosion based on a coastal processes approach. Applied Geography, 102, 12-19.
- Banna, M.M.E., Hereher M.E. 2009. Detecting temporal shoreline changes and erosion/accretion rates, using remote sensing, and their associated sediment characteristics along the coast of North Sinai, Egypt. Environmental Geology, n.58, 1419-1427.
- <sup>546</sup> Baptista, P. Cunha, T., Bernardes, C., Gama C., Ferreira, O., Dias, A. 2011. A Precise
  <sup>547</sup> and Efficient Methodology to Analyse the Shoreline Displacement Rate. Journal of
  <sup>548</sup> Coastal Research, 27, 2 p.223-232.
- <sup>549</sup> Bisquert, M., Bégué, A., Deshayes, M. 2015. Object-based delineation of homogeneous
  <sup>550</sup> landscape units at regional scale based on MODIS time series. International Journal
  <sup>551</sup> of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation, 37, 72-82.
- <sup>552</sup> Cenci, L., Disperati, L., Persichillo, M. G., Oliveira, E. R., Alves, F. L., and Phillips,
  <sup>553</sup> M. 2018. Integrating remote sensing and GIS techniques for monitoring and modeling
  <sup>554</sup> shoreline evolution to support coastal risk management. GIScience and remote sensing,
  <sup>555</sup> 55(3), 355-375.
- <sup>556</sup> Chavez, P. S., 1996. Image-based atmospheric corrections-revisited and improved. Pho<sup>557</sup> togrammetric engineering and remote sensing, 62(9), 1025-1035.

- <sup>558</sup> Chouhan, R; Rao, N. Vegetation Detection in Multispectral Remote Sensing images:
   <sup>559</sup> Protective Role-Analysis of Vegetation i. 0042 Indian Ocean Tsunami. PDPM Indian
   <sup>560</sup> Institute of Information Technology, 2011.
- <sup>561</sup> Dale, P., Sporne, I., Knight, J., Sheaves, M., Eslami-Andergoli, L., and Dwyer, P. 2019.
  <sup>562</sup> A conceptual model to improve links between science, policy and practice in coastal
  <sup>563</sup> management. Marine Policy, 103, 42-49.
- <sup>564</sup> Dally, W. R., and Dean, R. G. 1984. Suspended sediment transport and beach profile <sup>565</sup> evolution. Journal of waterway, port, coastal, and ocean engineering, 110(1), 15-33.
- <sup>566</sup> Dewan, A., Corner, R., Saleem, A., Rahman, M. M., Haider, M. R., Rahman, M. M.,
- <sup>567</sup> Sarker, M. H., 2017. Assessing channel changes of the Ganges-Padma River system in
- <sup>568</sup> Bangladesh using Landsat and hydrological data. Geomorphology, 276, 257-279.
- <sup>569</sup> Dolan, R., Fenster, M.S., and Holme, S.J., 1991. Temporal analysis of shoreline recession
   <sup>570</sup> and accretion. Journal of Coastal Research, 7(3), 723–744
- <sup>571</sup> Domínguez, L., Anfuso, G., and Gracia, F. J. (2005). Vulnerability assessment of a <sup>572</sup> retreating coast in SW Spain. Environmental Geology, 47(8), 1037-1044.
- Ergin, A., Özölçer, İ. H., and Şahin, F. 2010. Evaluating coastal scenery using fuzzy
  logic: Application at selected sites in Western Black Sea coastal region of Turkey.
  Ocean Engineering, 37(7), 583-591.
- Fanos, A. M. 1995. The impact of human activities on the erosion and accretion of the
  Nile Delta coast. Journal of Coastal Research, 821-833.
- Feng Qi, A-Xing Zhu, Harrower M., Burt J.E., 2006. Fuzzy soil mapping based on prototype category theory. Geoderma 136, 774-787.
- Galindo, J., Urrutia, A., Piattini, M., 2006. Fuzzy Databases: Modeling, Design and
  Implementation. Hershey, PA: IGI Global, 321p.

- Genz, A.S., Flethcer, C.H., Dunn, R.A., Frazer, L.N., Rooney, J.J., 2007. The predictive
  accuracy of shoreline change rate methods and alongshore beach variation on Maui,
  Hawaii. Journal of Coastal Research, 23 (1), 87-105.
- Gilmore, S., Saleem, A., Dewan, A., 2015. Effectiveness of DOS (Dark-Object Subtraction) method and water index techniques to map wetlands in a rapidly urbanising
  megacity with Landsat 8 data. Research@ Locate'15, 100-108.
- Ghoneim, E., Mashaly, J., Gamble, D., Halls, J., and AbuBakr, M. 2015. Nile Delta
  exhibited a spatial reversal in the rates of shoreline retreat on the Rosetta promontory
  comparing pre-and post-beach protection. Geomorphology, 228, 1-14.
- <sup>591</sup> Gomes, G., and da Silva, A. C, 2014. Coastal Erosion Case at Candeias Beach (NE<sup>592</sup> Brazil). Journal of Coastal Research, 71(sp1), 30-40.
- Goncalves, R.M., Awange, J., Krueger, C.P., Heck, B., Coelho, L.S., 2012. A comparison
  between three short-term shoreline prediction models. Ocean & Coastal Management,
  v. 69, p. 102-110.
- <sup>596</sup> Gopal, S. and Woodcock C., 1994. Theory and methods for accuracy assessment of the<sup>597</sup> matic maps using fuzzy sets. Photogrammetric Engineering and Remote Sensing 60:
  <sup>598</sup> 81-188.
- Grafarend, E., and J. Awange. 2012. Applications of Linear and Nonlinear Models : Fixed
   Effects, Random Effects, and Total Least Squares. Berlin: Springer. Springer-Verlag,
   Berlin, Heidelberge, New York, 1016p.
- Guan, H., Li, J., Chapman, M., Deng, F., Ji, Z., Yang, X. 2013. Integration of orthoimagery and lidar data for object-based urban thematic mapping using random forests.
  International Journal of Remote Sensing, 34(14), 5166-5186.
- Guannel, G., Ruggiero, P., Faries, J., Arkema, K., Pinsky, M., Gelfenbaum, G., ... and
  Kim, C. K. (2015). Integrated modeling framework to quantify the coastal protection
  services supplied by vegetation. Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 120(1), 324345.

- Guneroglu, A. 2015. Coastal changes and land use alteration on Northeastern part of
   Turkey. Ocean and Coastal Management, 118, 225-233.
- Halpern, B. S., Frazier, M., Potapenko, J., Casey, K. S., Koenig, K., Longo, C., ... and
  Walbridge, S. 2015. Spatial and temporal changes in cumulative human impacts on
  the world's ocean. Nature communications, 6, 7615.
- Hanson, S., Nicholls, R. J., Balson, P., Brown, I., French, J.R., Spencer, T., Sutherland,
  W. J., 2010. Capturing coastal geomorphological change within regional integrated
  assessment: an outcome-driven fuzzy logic approach. Journal of Coastal Research:
  West Palm Beach (Florida), 26(5), p.831-842.
- Hester, D.B., Nelson, S.A.C., Cakir, H.I., Khorram, S., Cheshire, H., 2010. Highresolution land cover change detection based on fuzzy uncertainty analysis and change
  reasoning. Taylor and Francis: International Journal of Remote Sensing. Vol. 31, n.2,
  p.455-475.
- Hritz, C. (2013). A malarial-ridden swamp: using Google Earth Pro and Corona to access
  the southern Balikh valley, Syria. Journal of Archaeological Science, 40, 1975-1987.
- Hsu, T. W., Lin, T. Y., and Tseng, I. F. 2007. Human impact on coastal erosion in
  Taiwan. Journal of Coastal Research, 961-973.
- Huang, Y., and Jin, P. 2018. Impact of human interventions on coastal and marine
  geological hazards: a review. Bulletin of Engineering Geology and the Environment,
  1-10.
- IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics). "Population Map 2010". Availi ble in: <a href="http://www.ibge.gov.br/home/geociencias/geografia/mapas\_doc1">http://www.ibge.gov.br/home/geociencias/geografia/mapas\_doc1</a>.
   shtm> Acess: 13/07/2011.
- Jackson, C. W. Jr., Alexander, C. R., Bush, D. M., 2012. Application of the AMBUR R
  package for spatio-temporal analysis of shoreline change: Jekyll Island, Georgia, USA.
  Computers & Geosciences n.31, p.199-207.

- Jang. J.S.R., Sun. C.T., Mizutani, E. 1997. Neuro Fuzzy and soft computing: A computational approach to learning and machine intelligence. London: Prentice Hall, 614 p.
- Jantzen, J., 2013. Foundations of fuzzy control : a practical approach. Second edition.
   Chichester, West Sussex, United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons Inc, 325p.
- Jara, M. S., González, M., and Medina, R. 2015. Shoreline evolution model from a
  dynamic equilibrium beach profile. Coastal Engineering, 99, 1-14.
- Jin, D., Hoagland, P., Au, D. K., and Qiu, J. 2015. Shoreline change, seawalls, and
  coastal property values. Ocean and Coastal Management, 114, 185-193.
- Juang, C.H., Huang, X.H., Holtz, R.D. E. Chen, J.W., 1996. Determining Relative Density of Sands From CPT Using Fuzzy Sets. Journal of Geothecnical Engineering, ASCE,
  Vol. 122, n.1, p.1-6.
- <sup>647</sup> Karaburun, A. Estimation of C factor for soil erosion modeling using NDVI in Buyukcek <sup>648</sup> mece watershed. Ozean journal
- Kenchington, R., and Crawford, D. 1993. On the meaning of integration in coastal zone
  management. Ocean and Coastal Management, 21(1-3), 109-127.
- Klein, R. J., Smit, M. J., Goosen, H., and Hulsbergen, C. H. 1998. Resilience and vul nerability: coastal dynamics or Dutch dikes?. Geographical Journal, 259-268.
- Lillesand, T., Kiefer, R. W., Chipman, J. 2014. Remote sensing and image interpretation.
  John Wiley & Sons. 7th Edition, p. 763.
- Lizarazo, I., 2010. Fuzzy image regions for estimation of impervious surface areas. Taylor
  and Francis: Remote Sensing Letters. Vol. 1, n. 1, p.19-27.
- 657 Lourenco, R. W., Landim, P. M. B., Rosa, A. H., Roveda, J. A. F., Martins, A. C. G.,
- <sup>658</sup> Fraceto, L. F., 2010. Mapping soil pollution by spatial analysis and fuzzy classification.
- <sup>659</sup> Environmental Earth Sciences 60, 495-504.

- Luhar, M., Coutu, S., Infantes, E., Fox, S., and Nepf, H. (2010). Wave-induced velocities 660 inside a model seagrass bed. Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 115(C12). 661
- Martins, K. A., Souza Pereira, P. D., Silva-Casarín, R., Nogueira Neto, A. V, 2017. The 662 Influence of Climate Change on Coastal Erosion Vulnerability in Northeast Brazil. 663 Coastal Engineering Journal, 59(02), 1740007. 664
- Mazda, Y., Magi, M., Nanao, H., Kogo, M., Miyagi, T., Kanazawa, N., and Kobashi, D. 665
- 2002. Coastal erosion due to long-term human impact on mangrove forests. Wetlands 666 Ecology and Management, 10(1), 1-9.

667

- Meliadou, A., Santoro, F., Nader, M.R., Dagher ,M.A., Indary, S.A., Salloum, B.A., 668 2012. Prioritising coastal zone management issues through fuzzy cognitive mapping 669 approach. Journal of Environmental Management 97, p.56-68. 670
- Mendonca, F.J.B., Goncalves, R.M., Awange, J., Silva, L.M., Gregorio, M.N., 2014. 671 Temporal shoreline series analysis using GNSS. Boletim de Ciencias Geodesicas, v.20, 672 p.701-719. 673
- Miller, E.F., Pondella, D.J., Beck, D.S., Herbinson, K.T. 2011. Decadal-scale changes 674 in southern California sciaenids under different levels of harvesting pressure. ICES 675 Journal of Marine Science, 68(10), 2123-2133. 676
- Mitra, B., Scott, D., Dixon, C. E Mckimmey, J., 1998. Application of fuzzy logic to the 677 prediction of soil erosion in a large watershed. Geoderma, Vol. 86, n.4, p.183-209. 678
- Mondal, I., Thakur, S., Ghosh, P., De, T. K., and Bandyopadhyay, J. 2019. Land 679 Use/Land Cover Modeling of Sagar Island, India Using Remote Sensing and GIS 680 Techniques. In Emerging Technologies in Data Mining and Information Security (pp. 681 771-785). Springer, Singapore. 682
- Navas, J.M., Telfer, T.C., Ross, L.G., 2012. Separability indexes and accuracy of neuro-683 fuzzy classification in Geographic Information Systems for assessment of coastal envi-684 ronmental vulnerability. Ecological Informatics, n.12, p.43-49. 685

- Nicholls, R. J., and Branson, J. 1998. Coastal resilience and planning for an uncertain
  future: an introduction. The Geographical Journal, 164(3), 255-258.
- Novellino, A., Jordan, C., Ager, G., Bateson, L., Fleming, C., and Confuorto, P. 2019.
  Remote sensing for natural or man-made disasters and environmental changes. In Geological Disaster Monitoring Based on Sensor Networks (pp. 23-31). Springer, Singapore.
- Parthasarathy, A., and Natesan, U. 2015. Coastal vulnerability assessment: a case study
   on erosion and coastal change along Tuticorin, Gulf of Mannar. Natural Hazards, 75(2),
   1713-1729.
- Piedra-Fernandez, J.A., Ortega, G.O., Wang, J.Z. Canton-Garbin M., 2014. Fuzzy
   content-based image retrieval for oceanic remote sensing. IEEE Transactions on Geo science and Remote Sensing, Vol.52, n.9, p.5422-5431.
- Post, J. C., and Lundin, C. G. (Eds.). 1996. Guidelines for integrated coastal zone man agement. The World Bank.
- Rodríguez, M. G., Nicolodi, J. L., Gutiérrez, O. Q., Losada, V. C., Hermosa, A. E,
  2016. Brazilian coastal processes: wind, wave climate and sea level. In Brazilian Beach
  Systems (pp. 37-66). Springer, Cham.
- Ross, T.J., Booker, J.M. and Parkinson J.W., 2002. Fuzzy Logic and Probability Applications: Bringing the Gap. ASA-SIAM Series on Statistics and Applied Mathematics,
  409p.
- Rosskopf, C. M., Di Paola, G., Atkinson, D. E., Rodríguez, G., and Walker, I. J. 2018.
  Recent shoreline evolution and beach erosion along the central Adriatic coast of Italy:
  the case of Molise region. Journal of coastal conservation, 22(5), 879-895.
- Saleem, A., Corner, R., Awange, J., 2018. On the possibility of using CORONA and
  Landsat data for evaluating and mapping long-term LULC: Case study of Iraqi Kurdistan. Applied geography, 90, 145-154.

- <sup>711</sup> Sánchez-Arcilla, A., García-León, M., Gracia, V., Devoy, R., Stanica, A., and Gault, J.
- <sup>712</sup> 2016. Managing coastal environments under climate change: Pathways to adaptation.
- Science of the total environment, 572, 1336-1352.
- Selkoe, K. A., Halpern, B. S., Ebert, C. M., Franklin, E. C., Selig, E. R., Casey, K. S., ...
  and Toonen, R. J. 2009. A map of human impacts to a "pristine" coral reef ecosystem,
- the Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument. Coral Reefs, 28(3), 635-650.
- <sup>717</sup> Silva, R., Martínez, M. L., Hesp, P. A., Catalan, P., Osorio, A. F., Martell, R., Ciengue-
- gos, R., 2014. Present and future challenges of coastal erosion in Latin America. Journal
  of Coastal Research, 71(sp1), 1-16.
- Silva, L.M., Goncalves, R.M., Lira, M.M.S., Pereira, P.S., 2013. Fuzzy modeling applied
  to coastal erosion vulnerability detection. Boletim de Ciencias Geodesicas, n.19, p.746764.
- Singha, M., Wu, B., Zhang, M. 2016. An object-based paddy rice classification using
  multi-spectral data and crop phenology in Assam, Northeast India. Remote Sensing,
  8(6), 479.
- Small, C., and Nicholls, R. J. 2003. A global analysis of human settlement in coastal
  zones. Journal of coastal research, 584-599.
- Smith, M. J., Cromley, R. G., 2012. Measuring Historical Coastal Change using GIS and
  the Change Polygon Approach. Transactions in GIS, 16(1), p.3-15.
- Souza, C. R. G., 2009. Coastal erosion and the coastal zone management challenges in
  Brazil. Journal of Integrated Coastal Zone Management. v.9, n.1, p.17-37.
- Stockdon, H. F., Sallenger J.R., Asbury H., Jeffrey, H. List, Holman. R. A., 2002. Estimation of Shoreline Position and Change using Airborne Topographic Lidar Data.
  Journal of Coastal Research 18, 3, p.502-513.
- <sup>735</sup> Thieler, E. R., Danforth W. W., 1994. Historical Shoreline Mapping (I): Improving Tech-
- <sup>736</sup> niques and Reducing Positioning Errors. Journal of Coastal Research, 10, 3, p.549-563.

- Tyagi, P., and Bhosle, U, 2011. Atmospheric correction of remotely sensed images in 737 spatial and transform domain. International Journal of Image Processing, 5(5), 564-738 579. 739
- Tyagi, P., and Bhosle, U, 2014. Radiometric correction of Multispectral Images using 740 Radon Transform. Journal of the Indian Society of Remote Sensing, 42(1), 23-34. 741
- Valderrama-Landeros, L., and Flores-de-Santiago, F. 2019. Assessing coastal erosion and 742 accretion trends along two contrasting subtropical rivers based on remote sensing data. 743 Ocean and Coastal Management, 169, 58-67.

744

- Wolfe, S. A., and Nickling, W. G. (1993). The protective role of sparse vegetation in wind 745 erosion. Progress in physical geography, 17(1), 50-68. 746
- Xiqing, C., Erfeng, Z., Hongqiang, M., and Zong, Y. 2005. A preliminary analysis of 747 human impacts on sediment discharges from the Yangtze, China, into the sea. Journal 748 of Coastal Research, 515-521. 749
- Yang, C., Li, Q., Hu, Z., Chen, J., Shi, T., Ding, K., and Wu, G. 2019. Spatiotemporal 750 evolution of urban agglomerations in four major bay areas of US, China and Japan from 751 1987 to 2017: Evidence from remote sensing images. Science of The Total Environment. 752
- Yanes, A., Botero, C. M., Arrizabalaga, M., and Vásquez, J. G. 2019. Methodological 753 proposal for ecological risk assessment of the coastal zone of Antioquia, Colombia. Eco-754 logical Engineering, 130, 242-251. 755
- Zadeh, L.A., 1965. Fuzzy Sets. Information and Control 8, 338-353. 756



# Fuzzy membership type



# Temporal satellite images (1989, 1996, 2005, 2011 and 2016)











Sector 1 Sector 2 Sector 3 Sector 4 Sector 5

6,00







(a) 7°48'31.32"S; 34°50'14.56"W (b) 7°48



(b) 7°48'23.33"S; 34°50'12.09"W





(c) 7°48'32.40"S; 34°50'14.51"W (d) 7°48'46.96"S; 34°50'49.51"W