1. COVER PAGE

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What can kelp loss processes and beach cast patterns tell us about sandy beach management?

The thematic area in which it falls.

ABSTRACT

The abstract should summarise key elements of the full report and, in particular, highlight the value of the project to knowledge generation in universities and its linkages to the priorities of the CCT.

1. **INTRODUCTION AND AIMS / QUESTIONS**

**Background**

Kelps dominate approximately 25% of global, shallow, rocky reef ecosystems and play a significant role in the functioning of these ecosystems. Kelps are ‘ecosystem engineers’ that provide a critical 3-dimensional habitat for fauna and various flora, and they are also highly productive organisms (Dayton 1985; Steneck et al. 2002). The high productivity of kelps allows important nutrients to be exported to adjacent and distant habitats as allochthonous production, and therefore their role in the food web is not limited to the shallow subtidal zone; instead they are the base for many connected coastal food webs (Stuart, Field, and Newell 1982; Dayton 1985; Bustamante, Branch, and Eekhout 1995; Duggins and Eckman 1997).

Sandy beach ecosystems have low amounts of productivity compared to other ecosystems such as rocky and estuarine mud-flats, with most of the productivity in sandy beach ecosystems represented by diatoms and bacteria (Ince et al. 2007; Koop, Newell, and Lucas 1982; Colombini et al. 2003). Primary productivity of diatoms tends to be higher on beaches with fine sediment grain and low wave exposure, but never reach levels compared to other ecosystems (Ince et al. 2007; Dugan et al. 2011). Macrofaunal communities on sandy beach ecosystems rely heavily on organic inputs from the surf zone (diatoms and flagellates) or from the ocean (kelp-wrack, carrion, dissolved organics and particulates). These inputs are regulated by oceanographic processes such as upwelling, currents, waves and tidal action (Ince et al. 2007; Orr et al. 2008). Primary consumers in the form of suspension feeders and herbivores, consume phytoplankton, particulate organic matter, kelp and seagrasses which in turn become prey items for secondary consumers (invertebrates) (Ince et al. 2007; Krause-Jensen and Duarte 2016). Predatory species (fish, lizards, shorebirds, baboons, etc.) prey upon both primary and secondary consumers as well as drift carrion (Ince et al. 2007; Dugan et al. 2011). Therefore, allochthonous input plays an important role in maintaining sandy beach food webs from a bottom-up perspective. Kelps provide a significant amount to the overall allochthonous input in the form kelp-wrack found on sandy beaches in many coastal areas around the world (Ince et al. 2007; Krause-Jensen and Duarte 2016). When kelp biomass accumulates on a beach is undergoes various biotic and abiotic processes. Examples of such processes are fragmentation, decomposition and remineralisation by bacteria, meiofauna and grazers (Ince et al. 2007). Once kelp biomass has been fragmented and/or remineralised, it can then be transported to the nearshore marine environment, or enter the atmosphere and be transported via wind to adjacent terrestrial ecosystems or stored *in situ* within the beach sediment (Ince et al. 2007; Orr et al. 2008; Krause-Jensen and Duarte 2016). There is also evidence that kelp derived organic matter provides an important energy subsidy into sub-marine canyons (Harrold, Light, and Lisin 1998).

**Beach-cast in South Africa**

Beach-cast kelp biomass around the Cape Peninsula is a consistent characteristic of beaches in the region. Kelps washed up on beaches originate from near or offshore kelp populations. During times of high wave energy or pulse disturbance events such as storms, kelps dislodge or stipes break which essentially kills the plant as it has no way of re-attaching itself. Kelp plants are deposited on beaches by coastal currents on almost a daily basis, and consist mainly of two species, e.g. *Ecklonia maxima* and *Laminaria pallida*; they form what is known as beach-cast kelp or simply beach-cast Anderson2007b. Beach-cast is an important organic input into sandy beach ecosystems, and through wind, may be transported to adjacent and distant ecosystems (Ince et al. 2007; Koop, Newell, and Lucas 1982). In sandy beach ecosystems, kelp detritus is important in sustaining marine invertebrate communities, which in turn are important prey items for various bird species. A study by Koop, Newell, and Lucas (1982) investigated the biodegradation and carbon flow base in a sandy beach microcosm at Kommetjie beach in Cape Town, South Africa. The results showed that carbon flow via grazing invertebrates and through bacteria shows that 23-27% of the carbon in kelp is converted to bacterial carbon. Furthermore some species of nematodes are able to directly absorb kelp derived organic material (Koop, Newell, and Lucas 1982).

Drift kelp that washes up on beaches around the Western Cape are managed by two agencies; the City of Cape Town (CoCT) and the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) (Yoshikawa 2013). These two agencies differ in their perspectives on managing *E. maxima* beach cast. DAFF monitors the collection of beach cast kelp for the South African coastline by issuing permits that allow rights holders to collect kelp for commercial reasons within specific concession areas (Yoshikawa 2013). The commercial demand for beach cast kelp is not consistent and therefore rights holders may only collect during times of high demand (Yoshikawa 2013). Examples of commercial applications of beach cast kelp are alginate production, pharmaceuticals and abalone feed (Yoshikawa 2013).

Within the concession areas, there are regions designated as Marine Protected Areas by South African National Parks (SANParks), and no kelp is collected from these areas (Yoshikawa 2013). This is due to the recognition of the ecological significance of beach cast kelp in coastal ecosystems. Kelp that is washed ashore is an important source of nutrients for invertebrate communities and provides an important bottom-up control mechanism for beach ecosystems (Dugan et al. 2011). Furthermore, research elsewhere in the world has shown that beach cast kelp is important in the formation and stabilisation of dunes (Ince et al. 2007). Although it has a significant role to play in beach systems, the decomposition process of kelp releases a foul odour in the form of hydrogen sulphide (Dugan et al. 2011). This is a point of concern for ratepayers who complain that the kelp needs to be removed for aesthetic reasons. The CoCT recognises both the ecological significance of beach cast kelp and is cognizant of the concern of ratepayers and the possible negative consequences on tourism at specific beaches (e.g. Clifton beach and Camps Bay) due to the smell and other unsatisfactory conditions caused by decomposing kelp. The CoCT, therefore, collects beach cast kelp from predetermined beaches and disposes the kelp in landfills as there is currently no procedures in place to process and dispose of kelp in a sustainable manner (Yoshikawa 2013).

[I’ll insert here a bit about the initial aim, and then talk quickly about why this was changed.]

Since kelp biomass has been shown to be an important detrital input in sandy beach ecosystems, the removal of beach-cast may therefore affect the overall particular organic matter (POM) content available within the sediment of sandy beaches, which could possibly lead to a bottom-up effect on food webs.

**Aims and Objectives**

The aim of this study was to determine if clearing of kelp from beaches affects POM content of beach sediment. This aim will be met through the following objectives:

1) Sample sediment from beaches designated as “cleared”" and “non-cleared” of kelp.

2) Determine if there are any differences in POM content of cleared and non-cleared areas of selected beaches.

3) Determine if differences in POM content are driven by other factors such as kelp biomass and transect length.

4) Make recommendations regarding the importance of kelps for the ecological functioning of sandy beach ecosystems in the CoCT region.

1. **RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHODS**

A short summary of the approach and methods used should be included, but detailed descriptions of highly technical processes may be omitted. A clear description of completed activities should be provided in the progress report. This report should also highlight any challenges faced / delays in the process and / or changes in the project activities.

A section should be included to indicate the nature and extent of the engagement and role(s) of the CCT partner / contact person in the work undertaken.

**Study sites**

Beaches that are regularly visited by beachgoers, and some beaches surrounding residential areas, are divided up into ‘cleared’ and ‘non-cleared’ areas by the CoCT. This study focuses on a subset of these beaches (Figure 1), selected to cover a range of wave dynamics as determined by Dr. Christo Rautenbach, Chief Marine Scientist, South African Weather Service [Figure 2… insert map of study area and wave exposure here].

***Hout Bay east and west***

Hout Bay beach is essentially one beach divided by the mouth of the Disa River. The Disa River is highly polluted, with a clear warning sign in view for beach-goers. Due to residential development adjacent to the estuary, the mouth of the river closes more frequently causing a build-up of polluted water.

On the east side, the cleared area of the beach is characterised by a large parking lot, residential and commercial structures, and forms the “no dogs allowed” of Hout Bay beach. Activity on the beach tends to be high in the morning and slows down in the afternoon. Small dunes with low vegetation cover are located behind the non-cleared area. Shell debris is common in the non-cleared area.

On the west side, the cleared area comprises a small parking lot and wharf which forms one end of the Hout Bay harbour, as well as a storm water pipe mouth in the parking area leading onto the beach. This is the “dog-walking” section of beach, which continues until the Disa River mouth. Activity is high in the morning and weekends, and attract beach-goers due to the wharf and harbour.The non-cleared area is characterised by dunes and little vegetation cover. During the course of this study, the non-cleared area was undergoing stabilisation/rehabilitation construction. The dunes were first graded and then fencing was placed, which covered the entire dune system.

***Muizenberg***

Muizenburg was the largest beach in this study compared to other beaches sampled. The cleared area comprises of a parking lot with commercial structures such as restaurants and various shops, which attracts beach-goers to the area. The non-cleared section has a slightly lower activity and consists of a mixture of structures (beach huts, bridge), and dune system with established vegetation. Shell debris is common closer to the surf zone and litter is common throughout.

***Fishoek***

Fishoek was the smallest beach in the study. The cleared area comprises of a large parking lot and small commercial and public structures (restaurant, playground, police services etc.) and two storm water pipes on either end of the area. The non-cleared area of beach comprises a dune system with established vegetation.

On both areas dog-walking is allowed and activity tends to be lower compared to other beaches in the study. Both areas were also well maintained with no litter found during the course of sampling.

***Strandfontein***

The cleared area is characterised by a large parking lot, beach pavilion and tidal pool. There are also construction activities between the tidal pool wall and beach. Activity was high on the day of sampling relative to the other beaches in the study. The non-cleared area has low activity and characterised by and extensive dune system and established vegetation. The beach is fairly well maintained and very low amount of litter was noted. Shell debris was common in surf zone in both cleared and non-cleared areas.

**Methods**

***Data collection***

The aforementioned beaches were sampled for POM content in the sediment by sampling between the low-tide and high-tide line, or as far as possible if any structures were in the way. Each transect was divided into five sections according to the length of the transect on that particular sampling occasion. Sediment samples, 20cm deep, were taken each time and placed in a small ziplock bag and labelled. Each sample was weighed, dried, re-weighed, placed in a muffle furnace at 400 °C and finally re-weighed. The difference between in grams between the start and end weight (prior to and after placed into the muffle furnace) was used as an estimate as particulate organic matter (POM) content. This method is known as “loss on ignition” (Santisteban et al. 2004; Byers, Mills, and Stewart 1978).

***Data analysis***

All data analyses were done using the R Software for Statistical Computation and Graphics (R Core Team 2018), the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2018), and ggplot2 (Wickham 2016). Summary statistics were calculated and the Shapiro-Wilk normality test was run before any analyses to investigate the distribution of the data. Non-parametric visual comparisons in the form of boxplots and Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test was used to test for any significant differences in POM. Boxplots were also used in each instance to investigate any significant differences in transect length.

*Cleared and non-cleared areas*

The POM data for entire study was pooled into cleared and non-cleared categories. These data included all sampling days of the study. A Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test was used to test for differences in POM between cleared and non-cleared areas. A boxplot was used to visualise any differences in POM between cleared and non-cleared areas.

*Cleared and non-cleared areas in each month*

The data for each sampling date were pooled into months during which the study took place (February, March, April) as well as cleared and non-cleared areas. A combination of scatter plot and boxplot was used to investigate any differences in POM visually and a Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test was used to test any differences statistically.

*Cleared and non-cleared areas between sites*

Data were grouped according to site and area. This allowed investigation into any possible differences in POM between sites. A boxplot was used to allow visual comparison of POM between sites and areas, and a Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test was used to verify findings.

***Correlations***

To investigate if transect length and kelp estimates may be affecting POM content sampled, correlation between paired samples was performed. To investigate whether transect length is correlated to POM, the mean transect length and POM was calculated for cleared and non-cleared areas on a given sampling day. To investigate whether beach-cast kelp influenced POM, the mean POM and transect length was calculated by day, site and area. This approach for the beach-cast kelp estimates and POM correlations was chosen as kelp estimates were performed separately for both cleared and non-cleared areas.

1. **RESULTS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FOLLOW-UP ACTION**

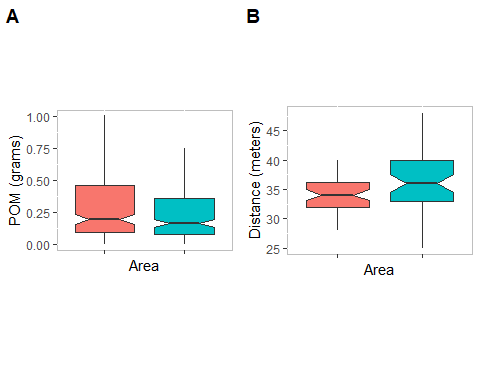
This is the most critical aspect of the report in that it needs to synthesise the findings, draw conclusions and suggest follow-up actions, e.g. for further research, policy development and implementation.

It is suggested that this section of your report be developed and informed through engagement with the CCT partners.

**Results**

***Cleared and non-cleared areas***

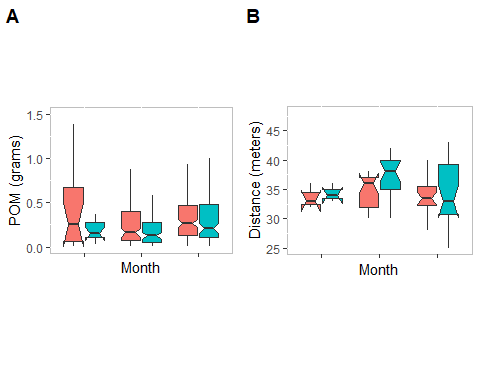
Shapiro-Wilk’s normality test showed that POM data was not normally distributed across samples (*w* = 0.971, *p* < 0.05). Visual comparison and a Kruskal-Wallis test showed no significant difference in total POM (*p* < 0.05, Figure 1) between cleared and non-cleared areas.



*Figure 1. Boxplots comparing POM and transect distance between cleared and non-cleared areas. The horizontal black lines represent the median. If ‘notches’ do not overlap, the medians are considered to be statistically different from one another. The lower and upper ‘hinges’ correspond to the first and third quartiles, and the ‘whiskers’ are the 5th and 95th percentiles. Pink boxes represent cleared areas and blue boxes represent non-cleared areas.*

***Cleared and non-cleared areas in each month***

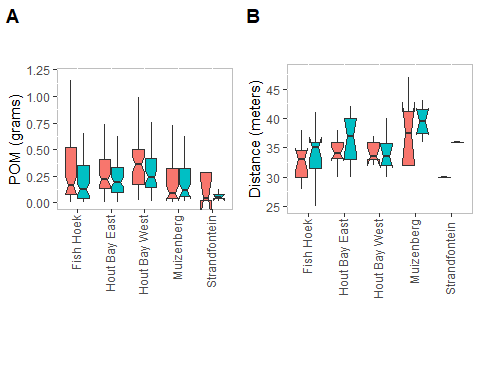
No significant differences between cleared and non-cleared areas were found over the course of the study, and only a significant difference in transect length was found for March (see Figure 2). The POM findings were verified by a Kruskal-Wallis test which showed no significant differences (*p* < 0.05, Figure 2) in POM between cleared and non-cleared areas over the three months sampling took place.



*Figure 2. Boxplots comparing POM and transect distance between cleared and non-cleared areas. The constituents of the box-and-whisker plots, and their interpretation, are described in the caption to Figure 1.*

***Cleared and non-cleared areas between sites***

A visual comparison showed a significant difference in POM content between cleared and non-cleared areas for Hout Bay West only. This was verified by a Kruskal-Wallis test which showed significant differences in POM (*p* < 0.05, Figure 3). Visual comparison showed significantly higher transect lengths for non-cleared areas than cleared areas at Fishoek, Hout Bay East and Muizenberg.



*Figure 3. Boxplots comparing POM and transect length in cleared and non-cleared areas between sites. The constituents of the box-and-whisker plots, and their interpretation, are described in the caption to Figure 1.*

***Correlations***

No significant correlation was found between transect length and POM (*z* = -1.072, *p* > 0.05) or kelp estimates in cleared (*z* = -1.040, *p* > 0.05) and non-cleared (*z* = -0.491, *p* > 0.05) areas.

**Discussion**

Kelp wrack on beaches provides an important energy subsidy into sandy beach ecosystems, and it which drives “bottom-up” control of invertebrates, in turn affecting other organisms such as bird species. Particulate organic matter (POM) is a breakdown product of kelp decomposition, and gets produced by combined physical (abrasion and other forms of mechanical action) and biological decomposition processes. In the absence of *in situ* autochthonous primary production such as microalgae or macrophytes, wrack-derived POM forms the sole source of nourishment for sustaining most species of sandy beach macrofauna and meiofauna [cisneros2011; ortega2017]. The results from this study were surprising as POM content in cleared areas tended to not be different in its POM content compared to that taken from non-cleared areas.

The degree to which POM content gets incorporated into beach sediment has been shown to be determined by the size of sediment grains. Orr et al. (2008) investigated the temporal and spatial variation of kelp wrack on different beach types. The results showed that beaches with cobble stones retained approximately 30 times more kelp wrack compared to sand beaches (Orr et al. 2008). In other words, large grain sizes will have more space between them and ultimately more dissolved organic matter compared to fine grain beaches. Although grain size was fine between all the beaches in the study, which may play a role in the accumulation of POM on beaches, no differences in size of grains was noted between sites.

There was also no significant difference in POM content between sites, with Hout Bay West as the exception. The significanly higher POM content at Hout Bay West may be due to beach activities and point sources of pollution. For instance, the cleared section of Hout Bay West is a popular area for dog walking and a drain pipe leading onto the beach from the parking lot is also present, which may be adding to POM content in this area.

The built-up areas, wind and lack of adjacent sand dunes may be contributing to the slightly higher POM content in cleared areas. Once kelp has been washed onto beaches it begins to degrade through various abiotic and biotic processes. The organic material may also enter the atmosphere through wind action, which transports the organic matter to distant and adjacent marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Ince et al. 2007). However, the human structures in and around the beaches (walls, parking lots, buildings, etc.) may be preventing the transport of POM by wind. In other words, unlike pristine sandy beaches where wind would transport some of the POM to nearby ecosystems, the sandy beach ecosystems in this study were characterised by limited dune systems and human structures. Instead, POM content builds up over time and may also be compounded by point and non-point sources of pollution such as drain pipes and runoff.

Therefore, the beach-cleaning activities by the CoCT may be necessary in order to prevent the build-up of POM in beach soils, as this may become toxic in high concentrations.

1. **BUDGET**

R100,000 was available to the project, and allocated to the following line items:

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| a. | Stipends/bursary for 10 months of data collection | | R60 000 |
| b. | Salary for short term helpers (per data collection days at R250 per day) | | R5 000 |
| c. | Scale and tripod for individual, on site, kelp measurements | | R10 000 |
| d. | Diving boat hire for kelp forest sampling while still embedded on sea floor @ R3 500 per day and 5 dives | | R17 500 |
| e. | Running costs (mainly fuel and car mileage reimbursements) | | R5 000 |
| f. | Miscellaneous expenses | | R2 500 |
|  |  |  |  |

The actual spend included the following:

1. R40 000 paid to Mr Ross Coppin for the field and lab components of the work. Field work consisted of field visits to the four beaches indicated in the Methods, and the collection of sediment samples for POM analysis. In the laboratory additional time was spend for the processing and analysis of the POM samples (weighing, combustions, etc.). Mr Coppin also prepared the full data analysis, as well as an version of the document that forms the basis of this report.
2. R2 650 was paid to Mr Coppin as reimbursement to fuel expenses incurred.

More than half the budget was unspent due to the issues we have encountered, and which we have discussed in 6. LIMITATIONS, below.