

1 **Human use and modification of beaches and dunes are linked to ghost crab (*Ocypode***
2 ***spp*) population decline in Ghana**

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14

Abstract

15 The increasing urbanization of many of the world's coasts threatens irreversible damages to
16 beach ecosystems, if unchecked. However, beach monitoring programmes for immediate
17 remediation is uncommon, especially for several less developed nations where infrastructural
18 development and socio-economic goals are regarded as more important than environmental
19 goals. This study aimed at obtaining information about the effects of the modification and use
20 of beaches and dunes on beach biota using ghost crab burrow density and size as variables.
21 This study tested the hypothesis that the mean densities and sizes of ghost crab burrows on six
22 beaches under three categories of human use in the Central Region of Ghana are different.
23 Results indicated that low use beaches had significantly higher numbers of burrows and larger
24 burrow sizes compared to medium use and high use beaches. Since physical and environmental
25 parameters were consistently the same amongst the six surveyed beaches, the paper concluded
26 that the differences in the observed beach use and dune modifications were responsible for the
27 observed differences in ghost crab abundance and sizes. Major beach use such as high level
28 trampling and clearing of dune vegetation for infrastructural developments are most likely
29 responsible for the observed differences. On account of ecological considerations, it is
30 recommended that beach land use reforms by coastal Municipal authorities in Ghana should
31 ensure that infrastructure development along undeveloped sections of the coast consider natural
32 vegetation barriers between development and the beach to enhance natural beach-dune
33 ecosystem interaction.

34 Keywords: human impacts; beach management; beach ecology; ghost crab populations; Ghana

35

36 1. Introduction

37 Beaches and associated dunes provide essential habitat for plants and invertebrates, as well as
38 feeding and nesting sites for birds and sea turtles (Baird and Dann, 2003; Lastra *et al.*, 2010).
39 Beaches are also well sought-after by people for recreational, tourism and residential purposes
40 (Klein, Osleeb and Viola, 2004; Noriega *et al.*, 2012). These multiple competing uses have
41 contributed to the escalating pressures on beaches and dunes from increased demands for
42 recreational access and development of coastal lands (Defeo *et al.*, 2009). Indeed, the
43 degradation of beaches has been a matter of global concern in recent years (Ramsay and
44 Cooper, 2002; Payet *et al.*, 2009). It is also confirmed that 70 % of the world's beaches are
45 experiencing coastline retreat as a result of coastal erosion due largely to human-induced
46 impacts (Anthony, 2005). The multiplicity of users lead to competing demands for beach and
47 dunes resources, which has ultimately made most coastal dunes and beaches around the world
48 severely modified (Nordstrom, 2000; Coombes *et al.*, 2008). People worldwide use sandy
49 beaches than any other type of coastal shore. However beaches are not just piles of sand, they
50 support a wide range of biodiversity that require conservation, management and for the
51 ecological roles they play.

52 Limited management interest has traditionally been directed towards ecological damage to
53 beaches and dunes caused by human development and over-exploitation of sandy coastlines

54 (Nordstrom *et al.*, 2000; Noriega *et al.*, 2012). However, more attention has been given to
55 shoreline stabilization, erosion management and maintaining aesthetic appeal of beaches over
56 the years (Schlacher *et al.*, 2008). Environmental monitoring and assessments of sandy beach
57 ecosystems is rare across the globe despite the great social, economic and environmental
58 importance of sandy shores (Lucrezi, Schlacher and Walker, 2009). The effects of the massive
59 trampling that metropolitan beaches may endure either seasonally or year-round remain largely
60 unexamined (James, 2000). Poor management of coastal ecology is even more evident along
61 the coastlines of developing nations, where there are often trade-offs between development
62 goals and environmental protection. However, development and implementation of monitoring
63 programmes on coastal systems may aid in the timely detection and remedy of possible
64 irreversible ecological damages as a result of human use of beaches and dunes.

65 Ghost crabs (Fam. Ocypodidae, Gen. *Ocypode*), are one of the biological indicators that can be
66 used to monitor human disturbances on sandy beaches (Barros, 2001; Lucrezi, Schlacher, and
67 Walker, 2009; Aheto *et al.*, 2011). It has been applied to measure the effects of various human
68 disturbances on sandy beach ecology, including off-road vehicles (Blankensteyn, 2006; Moss
69 and McPhee, 2006; Schlacher, Thomson and Price, 2007), shore armouring (Barros 2001;
70 Aheto *et al.*, 2011), beach nourishment and bulldozing (Peterson *et al.*, 2000), tourism
71 (Schlacher, de Jager, Nielsen, 2011) and urbanization (Noriega *et al.*, 2012). In all these studies,
72 ghost crabs densities were reported to be lower at human affected areas. Most researchers have
73 accepted ghost crabs as useful bio-indicators because they occur at both unvegetated beach and
74 dunes (Noriega *et al.*, 2012), they are the top invertebrate predator leaving on beaches (Barrass
75 1963; Schlacher, Thompson and Price, 2007), changes in their density and population structure
76 are easy to estimate by counting and measuring the burrow openings (Barros, 2001; Schlacher,
77 Thompson, and Price, 2007) and indeed, they are widespread and abundant on tropical to
78 warm-temperate beaches (Quijon, Jaramillo, and Contreras, 2001; Noriega *et al.*, 2012).

79 This paper uses ghost crabs as bio-indicators to measure beach health. This approach may be
80 perceived to be expensive due to the labour-intensive nature of estimating beach biodiversity
81 by coastal authorities in developing countries. However, recent studies such as Aheto *et al.*
82 (2011) and Jonah *et al.* (2015b) have established this technique to be inexpensive, simple to
83 undertake and could be easily funded by coastal authorities in developing nations taking
84 cognisance of the useful ecological benefits of such programmes.

85 In Ghana, beaches of the Central Region are the most sought-after for tourism, with a
86 combination of other human stressors leading to severe transformations of beach and dune
87 systems. This is particularly important also in the context of sea level rise resulting from
88 climate change and poor land use in coastal areas of the country (Adotey *et al.*, 2015). Other
89 human pressures include urbanization in the active coastal strip, sand mining on a commercial
90 scale, destruction of beach vegetation, fishing activities, waste disposal and beach nourishment.
91 Unfortunately, the environmental impacts of these activities have received little considerations
92 in the past (Armah, 1991; Appeaning-Addo, 2009). This makes it essential for studies to be
93 conducted on these beaches to gauge the ecological change resulting from these multiple
94 human use and stressors to inform beach management decisions at the district and national
95 levels.

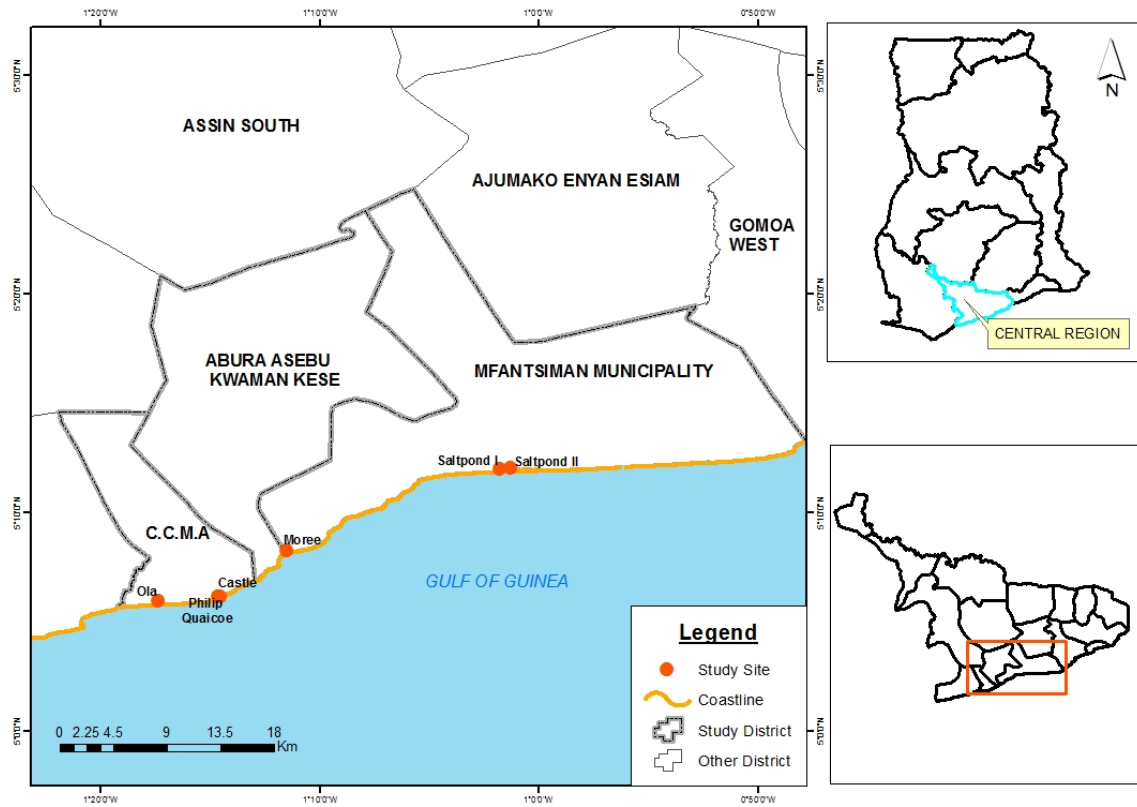
96 During the past 40 years, beaches in the vicinity of Cape Coast in the Central Region of Ghana
97 have undergone significant changes as a result of increased human activities within the active
98 coastal zone (Jonah, 2015; Adotey *et al.*, 2015). In the past few years, there has been an
99 increasing demand for coastal lands for tourism activities, with infrastructure being constructed
100 on land previously occupied by dune vegetation. Beach sand mining is also widely practiced
101 on most sandy beaches at varying scales, to feed the local construction industry (Jonah *et al.*,
102 2015a; Mensah 1997). These have contributed to accelerated beach and dune erosion, making
103 facilities along the zone vulnerable to sea waves. In response, the central government has
104 constructed a nearly 1.5 km rock revetment sea defence and several gabions to protect
105 communities and road infrastructure, whilst property owners have also undertaken several
106 small scale projects to protect their investments. In addition, most beaches show signs of
107 several human impacts including campfires, trampling, litter and ‘bush toilets’.

108 The objective of this paper is to contribute to existing knowledge on the ecological conditions,
109 habitat properties and human use of selected beaches in the Central Region of Ghana using
110 Ghost crab burrow densities and size variations, intensity of beach trampling and other physical
111 environmental conditions such as sediment temperatures as primary data sources.

112 **2. Materials and Methods**

113 **2.1 Study sites**

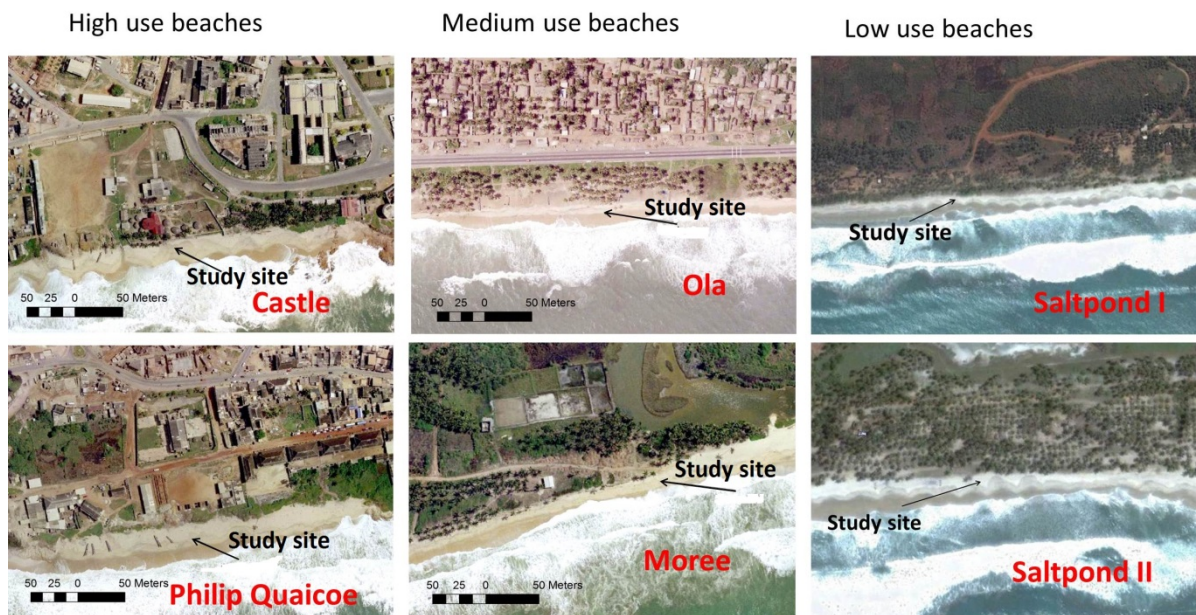
114 This study was conducted on beaches in the mid-portion of the Central Region coast of Ghana
115 from October 2013 to February 2014. Sites for the study were selected based on field
116 observations made by Jonah (2014) and preliminary sampling surveys carried out in October
117 2012. Six beach sites were selected based on level of human activities (Figure 1, 2). The
118 selected sites were qualitatively classified as ‘low use’, ‘medium use’ and ‘high use’ according
119 to levels of human disturbances (Table 1). Two sites (Saltpond I and Saltpond II) located on
120 the same beach stretch in the Mfantseman District and southeast of the town of Saltpond were
121 selected as the ‘low use’ beaches. These two sites are 1 km apart and situated about 2 km from
122 the nearest community in Saltpond and receive very low levels of visitors. The term ‘medium
123 use’ was associated with beaches that support moderate levels of trampling, sand mining and
124 infrastructure development. The term ‘high use’ was used for beaches that support small to
125 medium scale beach sand mining activities, high levels of trampling, cleared dune vegetation
126 and high levels of infrastructure development on the adjoining dune (Table 1).



127

128 Figure 1: Map of Ghana showing the surveyed sites

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131 Figure 2: Aerial photographs of surveyed beaches in the Central Region of Ghana

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133 **2.2 Data Collection**

134 Two species of ghost crabs, *Ocypode cursor* and *Ocypode africana*, are found on sandy
135 beaches in Ghana (Aheto *et al.*, 2011). This study assessed the differences in densities and sizes
136 of the ghost crabs burrows across the six selected beaches. In addition, several physical
137 environmental parameters that affect ghost crabs distribution were measured. Surveys were
138 started before sunrise at approximately the same tidal period using standard tide tables from
139 the Ghana Ports and Harbours (GHAPPOHA, 2013). During each survey period, all surveys
140 were done very early in the morning to ensure consistency and minimize variation in
141 environmental conditions. Early morning sampling helps to reduce and eliminate the effect of
142 overlooking burrow openings due to ghost crabs plugging the openings during the heat of the
143 day (Lucrezi, Schlacher and Walker, 2009; Moss and McPhee, 2006).

144 Estimates of the population density of ghost crabs were achieved by counting the number of
145 burrow openings in 1 m² quadrats (Aheto *et al.*, 2011). This follows the assumption that the
146 presence of a burrow on the beach corresponds to the presence of the crab (Wolcott, 1978). On
147 each beach, five replicated samples were taken on three line transects cast perpendicular to the
148 general direction of the shoreline at 50m intervals. Surveys on each transect was initiated by
149 casting quadrats at 1-2 m above the low water mark line. On each transect, five replicated
150 quadrats (1 m²) were sampled at 4.5 m intervals. Burrow diameters were also measured using
151 a vernier caliper within quadrats to estimate sizes (carapace length) of crabs. This follows the
152 findings of Strachan *et al.* (1999) and Tureli *et al.* (2009), that there is a strong positive
153 correlation between carapace length of ghost crab and burrow diameter. Diameters of all
154 encountered burrows were taken during three surveys.

155 Additional data on physical environmental conditions were also taken and analyzed as key
156 environmental and habitat metric of the beaches. Sediment sampling was done using sediment
157 corers (15 mm diameter, 300 mm deep) to collect samples to a depth of 200 mm from five
158 quadrat levels. Five replicate sediment cores were taken within each quadrat and analyzed
159 separately to obtain the variability in grain sizes across the entire beach. Sediment cores were
160 used wholly to ensure that the variability in sediment sizes up to a depth of 200 mm was
161 captured. Samples were analyzed using the 'sieve method'. In the laboratory, sediment
162 granulometry was determined by dry-sieving samples through a nested series of nine sieves
163 arranged in decreasing order of mesh aperture (4,750, 2,000, 1,000, 710, 600, 425, 300, 200,
164 75 µm). The heights of beach scarps were also measured once during the study at 20 m interval
165 over a distance of 200 m on each beach. Scarp heights have been identified as being the
166 consequence of human use of beaches and dunes (Mensah, 1997; Esteves, 2002). Sand and air
167 temperatures were also taken at all the beaches during each survey using a mercury
168 thermometer. Sediment temperature was taken at a depth of 20 cm. Wave period for each beach
169 was also determined by counting the number of waves breaking in the surf zone during a 3-
170 minute period. In addition to these, the number of beach users was recorded over 30 minute
171 periods during each survey, as a proxy to trampling.

172

173

174 **2.3 Data Analysis**

175 A one-way analysis of variance, followed by a *post hoc* Bonferroni’s test was used to compare
 176 burrow densities and diameters among sites. Mean sediment grain was calculated with the
 177 GRADISTAT software, using the Folk and Ward method (Blott & Pye, 2001). Spearman’s
 178 rank correlation was used to assess the relationships between physical and environmental
 179 factors and burrow density of ghost crabs.

180 **3. Results**

181 **3.1 Environmental conditions, habitat properties and human use**

182 Wave period was relatively constant at all sites with values ranging from 5.1 to 5.3/minute. All
 183 six surveyed beaches have medium energy waves with an average height of 1 m breaking in
 184 the surf zone (GHAPOHA, 2013). Mean scarp heights ranged from 0.048 m at Saltpond I to
 185 1.096 m at Ola (Table 1). The weather conditions that prevailed during the study period were
 186 mostly warm and dry. Sediment temperature ranged from 25°-39°C during surveys, but did not
 187 vary significantly among sites (Anova, $p > 0.05$). Sediment temperature was positively
 188 correlated with air temperature (Pearson’s $r = 0.716$, $p < 0.0001$). Air temperature at the time
 189 of survey (0500 – 0800) ranged from 24°-33°C. Sand from all sites fell in the medium sand
 190 category and ranged from a mean grain size of 0.4783 μm at three sites (Ola, Saltpond I and
 191 Saltpond II) to 0.7117 μm at Moree.

192 Data pooled for all sites indicated a strong negative correlation between sediment grain size
 193 and ghost crab burrow density (Spearman’s ρ , $r = -0.741$, $p = 0.092$). Erosion scarp height was
 194 also found to be negatively correlated to burrow densities (Spearman’s ρ , $r = -0.429$, $p =$
 195 0.397). The number of beach users varied significantly amongst the categories of beaches
 196 (Anova, $F_{5, 42} = 16.65$, $p < 0.0001$). There was also a strong negative correlation between
 197 number of beach users and ghost crab densities (Pearsons $r = -0.698$, $p > 0.123$).

198 Table 1: Summary of classification of human uses and habitat parameters of surveyed beaches

Parameter	High use		Medium use		Low use	
	Castle	Philip Quaiocoe	Ola	Moree	Saltpond I	Saltpond II
Latitude	5° 6'11.80"N	5° 6'11.15"N	5° 5'59.61"N	5° 8'19.38"N	5°12'2.77" N	5°12'4.20" N
Longitude	1°14'34.08"W	1°14'37.97"W	1°17'23.81"W	1°11'30.66"W	1°1'46.75"W	1°1'17.75"W
Manual beach cleaning	Weekly	Daily-weekly	Monthly	Occasional	Never	Never
Dune vegetation	Cleared	Moderately modified	Strongly modified/cleared	Cleared	Intact	Intact
Trampling	Very high	Moderate to high	Moderate	Moderate	Very low	Very low

Sand mining	Small to medium scale commercial	Small to medium scale	Small scale	Small to large scale	None	None
Sea defence (seawall, wire mesh revetment)	Present	Present	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent
Infrastructure development	High	High	Moderate	Low	None	None
All-terrain vehicle (ATV) use	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Scarp height, m (S.E)	0.682 (0.14657)	0.256 (0.10595)	1.096 (0.07916)	0.874 (0.05026)	0.048 (0.02396)	0.056 (0.02731)
Mean grain size, μm (S.E)	0.5783 (0.03186)	0.5783 (0.02909)	0.4783 (0.03624)	0.7117 (0.05871)	0.4783 (0.02519)	0.4783 (0.02693)
Mean beach users per 30 minutes (n = 8)	79.38	28.38	10.38	26.25	1.5	0.75

199

200 3.2 Burrow density and size variation

201 A total of 960 quadrats were surveyed during this study. *O. africana* and *O. cursor* were
 202 observed to co-habit all surveyed beaches (Figure 3). Ghost crabs were observed to occur 1-3
 203 m from the low water line, across the beach into dune vegetation. Mean burrow density was
 204 highest at the low use beaches, with values of $44 \text{ m}^{-2} \pm 5.05 \text{ burrow.m}^{-2}$ and $38 \pm 5.35 \text{ burrow.m}^{-2}$
 205 for Saltpond II and Saltpond I respectively, followed by the medium use and high use beaches
 206 (Table 2).



207

208 Figure 3: Ghost crab species found in Ghana: (A) *O. cursor* and (B) *O. africana*. (Photos by
 209 F.E. Jonah).

210

211

212 Table 2: Summary of mean burrow densities and mean burrow diameters at eight sites with
 213 standard error

	Castle	Philip Quaicoe	Ola	Moree	Saltpond I	Saltpond II
Mean burrow density (\pm S.E)	14.48 (1.80)	17 (1.98)	19 (2.34)	18.38 (2.59)	38 (5.35)	44 (5.05)
Burrow diameter means (\pm S.E)	6.23 (0.82)	8.43 (0.84)	9.28 (1.59)	10.09 (1.89)	19 (2.41)	20.8 (2.58)

214

215 Mean burrows densities were found to be significantly different between sites (Table 3). Mean
 216 burrow densities were significantly higher at low use beaches (Saltpond I and Saltpond II)
 217 compared with medium use beaches (Ola and Moree) and high use beaches (Castle and Philip
 218 Quaicoe) (Bonferroni, $p < 0.0001$). No significant differences were found between burrow
 219 densities at the medium use and high use beaches (Bonferroni, $p > 0.01$), though recorded
 220 burrow density means were slightly higher at the medium use beaches. The highest monthly
 221 ghost crab abundance was recorded at Saltpond II (56.53 ± 13.01 burrow.m⁻², mean \pm S.E) in
 222 February, whereas the lowest monthly abundance was recorded in Moree (7.56 ± 2.48 burrow.m⁻
 223 ², mean \pm S.E) also in February (Figure 4).

224

225 Table 3: Summary of one way ANOVA of ghost crab population densities at eight beaches

ANOVA Table	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment (between sites)	5	18830	12.81	<0.0001	3.04
Residual (within sites)	714	1470			
Total	719				

226

227 Mean diameters of burrows differed significantly among sites (Anova, Table 4). Mean ghost
 228 crab burrow diameters were also significantly higher at less use beaches compared to mean
 229 burrow diameters recorded at medium use and high use beaches (Bonferroni, $p < 0.0001$).
 230 There were no significant differences between the means of burrow diameters recorded at the
 231 medium use and low use beaches (Bonferroni, $p > 0.05$).

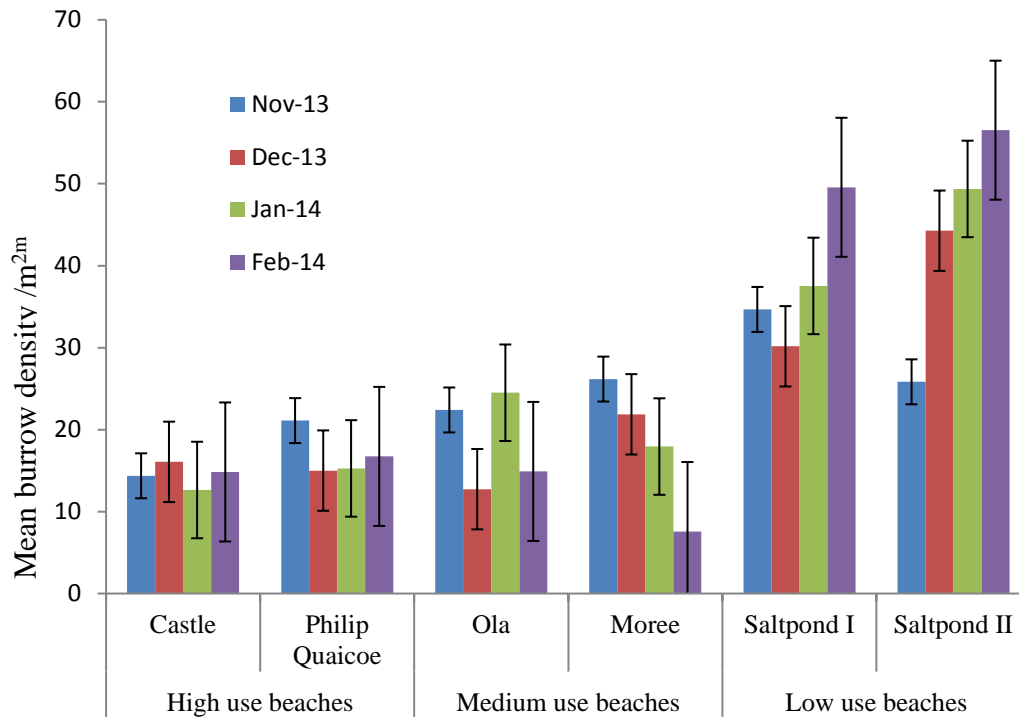
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233 Table 4: Summary of one way ANOVA of ghost crab burrow sizes from eight surveyed beaches

ANOVA Table	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment (between sites)	5	1646	11.02	<0.0001	3.15
Residual (within sites)	264	149.3			
Total	269				

234

235



236

237 Figure 4: Temporal variation (mean \pm S.E) in ghost crab burrow densities recorded at the six
 238 study beaches in the Central Region of Ghana.

239

240

241 4 Discussion

242 4.1 Effect of human use and modification of beaches and dunes on ghost crabs

243 The objective of this study was to determine the ecological impacts of human use of sandy
 244 beaches at selected sites in the Central Region of Ghana as a case study. Ghost crab burrow
 245 density and sizes was used as the main indicating factor coupled with other relevant physical
 246 environmental conditions. Three different categories of beaches were investigated: high use,
 247 medium use and low use, based on the intensity of identified human activities. Results showed
 248 that ghost crab burrow densities at the low use beaches were twice or more times higher than
 249 those recorded at the medium use and high use beaches. Similar patterns were observed in the
 250 mean burrow diameters, where mean diameters recorded at the low use beaches were almost
 251 twice or more the diameters recorded at the medium and high use beaches. The results indicate
 252 that physical variables were very consistent and did not vary statistically among the different
 253 categories of beaches and hence appeared unlikely that physical environmental factors are the
 254 main causes of the observed differences in mean burrow densities and burrow diameter among
 255 sites. It is however more likely that these spatial differences in ghost crab burrow densities and
 256 diameters are as a result of the varying human disturbances identified on the sites.

257 Beaches are the most visited part of the marine coastal ecosystem (Marshall and Banks, 2013).
 258 Several studies have identified that such high level of beach visits and human activities along

259 this area have significantly negative impacts on the densities and distribution of resident biota
260 (Noriega *et al.*, 2012; Lucrezi *et al.*, 2014; Reyes-Martinez *et al.*, 2015). Along this study area,
261 human modifications of beaches have been carried out by residents (for residential facilities),
262 investors (for tourism activities) and the local government (for social infrastructure
263 development). These have resulted in the conversion of sandy beaches and dunes into highly
264 utilized urbanized areas patronized by both local residents and tourists. Such simultaneous
265 multiple urban uses of sandy beaches also present a major challenge to coastal managers when
266 trying to distinguish which one may be responsible for the decrease or loss of biodiversity
267 (Veloso *et al.*, 2009).

268 In this study, beaches with the highest human use and modification had the lowest ghost crab
269 populations. Similar observations of the effects of various human activities on *Ocypode spp*
270 have been documented in several recent studies, such as trampling (Noriega *et al.*, 2012; Reyes-
271 Martinez *et al.*, 2015), beach sand mining (Jonah *et al.*, 2015b), off-road vehicles (Lucrezi and
272 Schlacher, 2010; Schlacher and Lucrezi, 2010), beach sweeping (Yong and Lim, 2009) and
273 dune modification and shoreline armouring (Lucrezi, Schlacher and Walker, 2009; Hubbard *et*
274 *al.*, 2013). Such activities cause direct changes to the habitat, destroy the dune systems, change
275 the natural physical characteristics of the beaches, eliminate food sources, and reduce habitats
276 and shelter areas (Reyes-Martinez *et al.*, 2015).

277 In this study we found a strong negative correlation between the number of beach users and
278 ghost crab density. Trampling as a result of beach users is known to cause the clogging of ghost
279 crabs, the direct and indirect crushing of ghost crabs (Defeo *et al.*, 2009). In Ghana, most urban
280 beaches are open to visitors with poor accessibility being the only major reason for the low
281 usage of certain beaches such as the beaches classified as 'low use' in this study. Urban beaches
282 are especially patronized during weekends and on national holidays. Large numbers of
283 individuals patronize the area to engage in recreational activities. Field surveys for this study
284 were carried out on early Sunday mornings; following recreational activities on urban beaches
285 on Saturdays. The low densities of ghost crab burrows encountered at the high and medium use
286 beaches may therefore be partly associated with the high levels of trampling that occurred in
287 the previous day. Moreover, since burrows of ghost crabs need to be maintained daily and
288 especially at night when they are most active (Wolcott, 1978), it is reasonable to assume that
289 low records of burrows at the 'high use' beaches during early morning surveys following the
290 previous day's recreational activities directly corresponds to the actual densities of ghost crabs
291 present on those beaches (Valero-Pacheco *et al.*, 2007). Similar observations have been made
292 in other studies including Neves and Bemvenuti (2006) and Noriega *et al.* (2012).

293 The two species of ghost crabs found in Ghana are *Ocypode africana* and *Ocypode cursor*. The
294 former is known to inhabit the supratidal zone and the latter both the intertidal and supratidal
295 zones (Lucrezi and Schlacher, 2014). In all, the surveys found ghost crab burrows were located
296 across the beach face, from the low tide line to the base of erosion scarp, shore armour or
297 vegetation line on the beach. However, at the Castle and Philip Quaiocoe beaches, there were
298 no records of ghost crab burrows at sections with signs of intense trampling but not affected
299 by tidal swash. Burrows were found to occur at other sections of the same beaches with signs
300 of equally intense trampling, but influenced by tidal actions and also at sections not influenced

301 by tides and had very low signs of trampling. It is likely that trampled areas not influenced by
302 wave run-up are less suitable for ghost crab burrow construction since soils from those areas
303 are less compact (less stability for burrow construction). It is also possible that the effect of
304 trampling may be reduced by periodic wave run-up, which may increase the compactness of
305 sediment and consequent stability of burrows.

306 Driving of all-terrain vehicles (ATV) was occasionally observed at the Castle beach. The use
307 of these vehicles is likely to have contributed to some direct and indirect mortality of ghost
308 crabs. The use of ATVs and other off-road four wheel vehicles have been identified in several
309 studies to negatively affect the population of ghost crabs and other invertebrates in the intertidal
310 area (Moss and McPhee, 2006; Schlacher and Morrison, 2008; Thompson and Schlacher,
311 2008). Ghost crabs may also be vulnerable to crushing whilst in their burrows by such four
312 wheel drive vehicles (Hobbs *et al.*, 2008) even though such crab mortalities may be strongly
313 dependent on burrow depth (Schlacher, Thompson and Price, 2007).

314 Similarly, ghost crab burrow densities were observed to be significantly low at the beaches that
315 receive more frequent beach cleaning with brooms (Castle and Philip Quaiocoe). These are done
316 to make beaches more appealing to visitors. Beach sweeping to remove rubbish, natural debris
317 and to improve the aesthetic appeal of the beach can cause disruption in the natural ecological
318 process and modify beach ecosystems (Gheskiere *et al.*, 2005; Davenport and Davenport,
319 2006). At the study sites, beach cleaning took the form of litter picking and sweeping the
320 shoreline and adjacent dunes. Similar beach cleaning activities were observed by Yong and
321 Lim (2009) in their study of beaches in Singapore. They observed that while litter picking may
322 not be damaging to the shore, sweeping can disturb the sand surface and cover up the ghost
323 crab burrows, or destroy the sand piles made by the crabs. In addition, Yong and Lim (2009)
324 observed that beach sweeping removes sea wrack and other marine debris that can serve as
325 food sources for ghost crabs and other strandline species that in turn may be fed on by ghost
326 crabs. Veloso *et al.* (2009) observed that beach cleaning not only directly compromise the
327 survival of *Atlantorchestoidea brasiliensis* by reducing its population abundance, but also
328 indirectly by removing the stranded material, which can be utilized by lower trophic levels.
329 Along our study area, remnants of burnt rubbish and camp fires were occasionally encountered
330 on urban beaches, also possibly contributing to mortalities to ghost crabs.

331 The effects of various aspect of beach and dune modifications on ghost crab populations have
332 been studied, including nourishment and bulldozing (Peterson *et al.*, 2000), shoreline
333 armouring (Barros, 2001; Lucrezi, Schlacher and Robinson, 2009; Aheto *et al.*, 2011) and
334 urbanization (Xiang & Jingming, 2002; Souza *et al.*, 2008; Magalhaes *et al.*, 2009; Noriega *et al.*,
335 2012). Undertaking coastal urban projects, such as construction of beach front tourist
336 facilities and residential infrastructure usually involves clearing or modification of dune
337 vegetation. With time, most of such facilities become threatened by sea erosion needing
338 additional engineering interventions such as nourishment, bulldozing and shoreline armouring
339 (Nordstrom, 2000). Such coastal developments and interventions may directly affect the habitat
340 size and range of ghost crabs which become trapped between coastal development on the
341 terrestrial side and tidal actions on the other side.

342 Ghost crabs are known to construct their burrows with respect to the level of the drift line
343 (Noriega *et al.*, 2012). On beaches with significant human modifications, such as shoreline
344 armours and urbanized dunes, the flexibility of ghost crabs to migrate up and down the beach
345 in response to changing tidal levels may become limited. Ghost crabs may only have the option
346 of migrating across the beach face to find more suitable habitats (Lucrezi, Schlacher, and
347 Walker, 2009). Seawalls, clearing of dune vegetation and construction on dunes may prevent
348 access or limit the mobility of ghost crabs to food sources. At the Ola beach where part of the
349 original dune vegetation had been cleared and a wooden beach front tourist facility installed,
350 burrows were found up to about 18 m inland from the base of the erosion scarp. Here, ghost
351 crabs were observed to inhabit very shallow burrows; such as a 3 cm burrow occupied by a
352 crab with carapace width of about 1.10 cm at almost 7 m inland of the erosion scarp line. Ghost
353 crabs in this area may however receive a trophic subsidy from food scraps left by visitors.
354 Along several beaches of the Central Region where vegetation are intact, ghost crabs burrows
355 have been found as far back as 40 m from the beach vegetation line and thus demonstrating the
356 ability of ghost crabs to migrate up the beach vegetation in search of food. Other studies such
357 as Jones and Morgan (2002) have also observed ghost crabs constructing burrows some
358 distance of the actual beach, up to 200 m from the water's edge.

359 **4.2 Beach management and ecology**

360 Beach management programmes in many developing nations including Ghana have largely
361 focused on protecting life and properties as well as enhancing the recreational and aesthetic
362 value of the beaches for tourism. Such programmes have caused severe impacts on the
363 biophysical environment of the beaches because less attention is given to the influence of
364 human activities and the management programmes on beach organisms.

365 Management interventions to issues of human use of beaches, and regulation in Ghana have
366 been reactive rather than strategic (Boateng, 2006). Most often beach management regulations
367 seek to control commercial activities such as sand-mining, but regulation on recreational use
368 is less strict. The limited control on the recreational use of beaches has led to the increasing
369 amounts of ad hoc beach development and the provision of infrastructure for recreational
370 purpose. The unregulated recreational use of beaches and "ad hoc" infrastructure development
371 may cause 'unacceptable' changes to natural systems. This study has clearly shown that
372 unregulated recreational use and management of beaches have negative effects on biodiversity
373 of beaches.

374 There is the need to pursue direct ecological beach management policy and interventions to
375 protect the ecosystems of recreational beaches. Direct management of the ecological resources
376 of beaches is less prominent in developing countries such as Ghana. The authors recommend
377 that coastal authorities should develop plans for recovery and protection of beach species and
378 their habitat. The following direct beach ecological management programme is therefore
379 suggested: protection of birds nesting grounds on beaches, creation of small pockets of
380 sanctuary and habitats on recreational beaches to protect ghost crabs and other beach
381 organisms, control the destruction of sand-dunes, and regulate human activities, particularly,
382 the "ad hoc" recreational infrastructure development along the coast.

383 **5. Conclusion**

384 In this study, beaches and dunes with low human use and modification recorded significantly
385 higher ghost crab densities and burrow sizes compared to beaches with medium to high human
386 use. Since, physical and environmental parameters were similar across the sites, human impacts
387 are the most likely cause of the observed differences in size and abundance of ghost crabs. In
388 limiting the impacts of human use on beach biota in Ghana, coastal authorities should modify
389 beach land use regulations to include limiting the modification of beach vegetation. A dune
390 vegetation strip could be left intact along newly developing beaches to ensure a semblance of
391 the natural beach-dune ecosystem interaction. Furthermore, major developments along the
392 beaches could be limited to some distance behind the dune to ensure that future erosion and
393 engineering interventions are minimized.

394

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