

Management of estuarine beaches on the Amazon coast through the application of recreational carrying capacity indices

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was financed by CAPES (Pro-Amazonas, number 3290/2013 and Ciências do Mar II, 43/2013), by CNPq (Universal, 483913/2012-0) and by PROPESP/UFPA/FADESP (PAPQ, 01/2015). The authors Sousa (141551/2012-7), Pereira (310909/2014–7 and 200629/2014–0) and Costa (309527/2014-7 and 200622/2014–5) would like to thank CNPq for research grants. Sousa would also like to thank CAPES for a PhD sandwich scholarship (8337/13-6). We are also indebted to Dr. Stephen Ferrari for his careful revision of the English.

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Highlights

- A specific approach based on the RCC model was adopted for estuarine beaches;
- Local human pressures have impacted both the quality of the beaches and their carrying capacity;
- The principal problems are a lack of infrastructure or a public sanitation system;
- Major investments in services are needed to guarantee the recreational experience;
- The specific methodology adopted in this study can be used for other Amazon beach.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 The use of the term carrying capacity in tourism has its origins in the 1960s
3 (Coccossis and Mexa, 2004), to refer to the limits on the numbers of visitors that a tourist
4 attraction can support. Over the past three decades, the growing interest in areas of
5 tourism, such as beaches, has led to the elaboration of the Recreational Capacity Carrying
6 (RCC) conceptual approach to support the development of management plans. Many
7 variables have been used to define the RCC, including the biophysical limits of the
8 environment, its numerical capacity, and the quality of the visitor experience (Saveriades,
9 2000, Coccossis et al., 2002; Saarinen, 2006). The most widely-used definition of the RCC
10 is the maximum number of people that may visit a tourism destination at the same time
11 without causing the degradation of the physical, economic and socio-cultural environment
12 or any unacceptable decrease in the quality of the satisfaction of visitors (WTO, 1981).

13 The definition of the carrying capacity of recreational areas has become an
14 essential tool for beach management, as it “enables the preservation of the high quality
15 and quantity of coastal resources whilst meeting not only the current needs, but also
16 securing long-term economic and ecological benefits for future generations” (UNEP/PAP,
17 1997), leading to an extensive literature in recent years, with a worldwide focus. As the
18 RCC is used to evaluate problems related to overcrowding, these scientists have all been
19 asking the same question – in scientific terms, how many visitors are “too many” for this
20 beach?

21 In this context, carrying capacity assessment is a technique commonly used in
22 beach management, being applied in different ways and in distinct socio-ecological
23 settings and some recent examples of its application are provided below. De Ruyck et al.
24 (1997) estimated the social carrying capacity from the opinion of users interviewed on
25 King's Beach and Hobie Beach in South Africa. Silva (2002) combined physical and social
26 carrying capacity assessments by using aerial photographs, video images and interviews

1 with beachgoers in Sines (Portugal). Botero et al. (2008) developed a model
2 to calculate carrying capacity based on environmental support, urban infrastructure and
3 tourist services, which was used to assess five Caribbean beaches in Colombia. Jurado et
4 al. (2012) developed an approach to evaluate the growth limits of tourist destinations using
5 a mathematical formula based on integrated RCC indices, which were applied to two
6 scenarios of sustainability, one weak and one strong on the eastern Costa del Sol, Spain.

7 Studies of the RCC of beaches, based on the fundamental principles of the concept,
8 have been undertaken at a number of sites on the eastern and southern Brazilian coast
9 (e.g., Cordeiro et al., 2012; Polette & Raucci, 2003; Silva et al., 2008), although only
10 limited research has been conducted on Amazon beaches (Silva et al., 2011a; Sousa et
11 al., 2011, 2014; Pessoa et al., 2013), and these studies have focused on oceanic beaches,
12 rather than estuarine ones. Located on the Brazilian Amazon coast, the littoral of Pará
13 state encompasses major estuarine systems and one of the World's largest and best
14 preserved mangrove forests (Souza-Filho et al., 2006). The local landscapes are highly
15 valuable in both ecological and esthetic terms, and both oceanic and estuarine beaches
16 are important recreation areas (Pereira et al., 2014; Sousa et al., 2014). Over the past few
17 decades, the construction of access roads has resulted in the increasing use of the
18 beaches for recreational activities, and tourism has become one of the principal sources of
19 income for the local economy, especially during the vacation periods (Pereira et al., 2007;
20 Szlafsztein, 2009; Szlafsztein & Sterr, 2007).

21 Unfortunately, almost 30 years after the implementation of federal law number
22 7661, which established the National Coastal Management Plan, and with many state
23 coastal management plans in force, few practical measures have been taken to minimize,
24 prevent and/or solve the conflicts associated with the use of land along the coast of Pará.
25 As the popularity of the state's beaches has grown exponentially in recent years, the need

1 for coastal zoning and management plans – including the monitoring of RCC indicators –
2 has become increasingly urgent.

3 An RCC approach is important here because, while these coastal environments are
4 still relatively well-preserved, its beaches already lack sufficient infrastructure and services
5 to satisfy current levels of demand (Pereira et al., 2014). Unplanned and uncontrolled
6 development has resulted in social and economic conflicts, as well as the deterioration of
7 local coastal resources (Oliveira et al., 2011; Pinto et al., 2011; Silva et al., 2011b; Sousa
8 et al., 2013).

9 In this context, the principal aim of this study was to contribute to the improved
10 management of the beaches in this estuarine environment using the Recreational Carrying
11 Capacity (RCC) concept. To this end, we adapted the standard RCC model to provide a
12 combined assessment of natural and anthropogenic factors considering the unique
13 characteristics of this type of beach. In general terms, it is extremely difficult to determine
14 the “magic number” of tourists because the threshold established by tourists tends to differ
15 from the ecological limits (Jurado et al., 2012), but we adopted a specific approach for
16 these estuarine beaches that can also be used at other Amazon beaches.

17

18 **2. Amazon estuarine beaches**

19 Estuarine beaches typically have a relatively long shoreline in comparison with
20 those on open coasts, and are affected primarily by tidal currents, with negligible wave
21 action (e.g., Nordstrom, 1992; Vila-Concejo et al., 2010), and are thus considered low
22 energy environments. However, the beaches of the estuaries of the Amazon coast have
23 distinct characteristics, and do not necessarily conform to the classification system
24 adopted by Jackson et al. (2002)².

²Jackson et al. (2002) proposed four criteria to define low-energy beaches: (i) negligible significant wave heights ($H_s < 0.25$ m) during non-storm conditions, (ii) low significant wave heights ($H_s < 0.50$ m) during strong onshore winds, (iii) narrow beach face width (< 20 m in microtidal environments) and (iv) morphological features that may include those inherited from higher energy events.

1 Amazon estuarine beaches are located within a mangrove-dominated fluvial-marine
2 ecosystem controlled by meso- and macrotides, waves of moderate energy and strong
3 tidal currents. The climate of the study region is humid equatorial with a mean annual
4 temperature of 26–27°C and annual precipitation generally between 2000 and 3000 mm,
5 with 75–85% of this precipitation falling during the rainy season, between January and
6 May, and a dry season during the second half of the year (INMET, 2015).

7 The enormous fluvial discharge observed in this area is the result of the region
8 rainfall pattern, which generates a massive input of suspended particulate matter (such as
9 suspended sediments, detritus and organisms) and stained dissolved organic matter
10 (humic substances) from the extensive areas of mangrove. Tide-dominated conditions and
11 strong local tidal currents are responsible for the resuspension of the fine particulate
12 matter contributing to much higher turbidity levels (> 100 NTU) in the coastal waters,
13 including the estuarine beaches. The enormous fluvial discharge from the Amazon River
14 and adjoining estuaries, which represents 20% of the planet's freshwater, results in the
15 typically reduced salinity (near zero) of the region's estuarine beaches, especially during
16 rainy season.

17 The tidal range reaches a maximum of 11 m at Igarapé do Inferno (Amapá),
18 decreasing northwards along the Amapá coast to 7 m and then 4 m, and 5-6 m to the
19 south on the Pará coast, 3-4 m in Marajó Bay and at Belém, rising eastwards to 7 m in the
20 Gulf of Maranhão, and then declining again to 3 m at the Parnaíba delta (DHN, 2015).
21 Local values of tidal elevation together with estuarine geomorphology determine local tidal
22 current patterns. Strong tidal currents affect the estuarine beaches and can reach
23 velocities of more than 2.0 m s^{-1} (Beardsley et al., 1995). Offshore significant wave heights
24 can reach more than 1.5 m, but the influence of the tides normally prevails over wave
25 action, especially at low tide, when the estuarine waters are sheltered by sandbanks,
26 which reinforce the tidal modulation.

1 In contrast with other parts of Brazil, the principal recreational period on the Amazon
2 coast coincides with the July school vacation and bank holidays during the second half of
3 the year, given that the January school vacation – the peak period in most other Brazilian
4 regions – coincides with the beginning of the Amazon’s long and intense rainy season.
5 Other factors, such as the relative isolation of the beaches due to extensive area of
6 mangrove forest, the difficult access due to presence of countless estuaries, creeks and
7 rivers, and the low quality of the available services and infrastructure, combine to limit the
8 development of the coastal tourism industry.

9 As a result, only a reduced number of the region’s beaches have been used
10 traditionally for leisure activities. However, the human pressure on natural resources,
11 combined with a lack of urban/land-use planning, on these few beaches has increased
12 considerably during the past few decades, generating serious environmental and social
13 issues (Szlafsztein, 2012). These impacts have been affecting the local coast, altering the
14 conditions expected by different interest groups (local residents, business owners,
15 fishermen, beachgoers) for recreational or economic activities.

16 Beach pollution is the major issue, due to the presence of sewage outfalls located
17 within the intertidal zone (as at Marudá and Murubira beaches). This situation has negative
18 repercussions on the quality of the beach water, especially during the summer vacation
19 period (July). The presence of sewage outfalls have resulted in a number of polluting
20 effects, including unpleasant sights and odors, as well as contamination by bacteria, such
21 as thermotolerant coliforms.

22

23 **3. Study Area**

24 The study area is located on the Amazon Macrotidal Mangrove coast of the coastal
25 zone of Pará. It comprises three beaches, Colares, Murubira and Marudá (Figure 1). This
26 coastal sector has a highly indented shoreline consisting of bays and associated tidal

1 creeks and their tributaries, which form funnel-shaped estuaries. The bays are filled with
2 mangrove forests, and estuarine beaches are tide-dominated and fronted by extensive
3 intertidal sand- and/or mudflats (Pereira et al., 2016). Colares (mesotidal) and Marudá
4 (macrotidal) beaches are characterized by muddy sediments in the areas not affected by
5 wave action. Located on Colares Island, Colares beach is 96 km far from the state capital,
6 Belém. The island is separated from the continent by the Guajará-Mirim River and the
7 Laura tidal creek, and the beach is located in a sheltered portion of the island. This sandy
8 beach is 561 m long and reaches a width of 400 m during the low spring tides. Due to the
9 influence of the local fluvial conditions, salinity varies between 1 and 5. Marudá beach is
10 160 km from Belém, at the mouth of the Marapanim estuary. This beach is more exposed
11 to wave action (H_s normally above 1.0 m) and marine waters (salinity 18–28), with a tidal
12 range of up to 5 m. This beach extends for more than 1 km and has a width of around 300
13 m during the low spring tide.

14 Murubira beach is located on Mosqueiro Island, 72 km from Belém. This beach is a
15 site of considerable historic and touristic importance for the Brazilian state of Pará.
16 Located on the margin of the Pará River (Marajó Bay), Murubira beach is separated from
17 the continent by the Maguari and Marinhas creeks, and by Sol Bay. The tidal elevation in
18 this beach is of 3.5 m during spring tides (DHN, 2015), and wave height (H_s) may reach
19 1.5 m (El-Robrini et al., 2006). The beach is 1.4 km long and around 70 m wide during low
20 spring tides.

21 In spite of being in an area of considerable natural and ecological value, these
22 beaches are used intensively for recreational purposes, resulting in extensive
23 modifications of their original natural status. Currently, Murubira and Marudá can be
24 considered to be semi-urban beaches, with promenades and other infrastructure, while
25 Colares can be classified as a rural beach, with well-preserved natural features, including
26 native vegetation and dunes on the backshore.

1 Due to the local meso/macrotides, the beach profiles can vary from hundreds of
2 meters (low-tides) to a few meters (high tides). Thus, at the end of the flood tide, high tide
3 and the beginning of the ebb tide, many of the beachgoers frequent bars and restaurants
4 or foreshore areas because the backshore area is negligible.

5
6 <Insert Figure 1>

8 **4. Data and Methods**

9 Given the objectives of this study, two main approaches were adopted: (i) the
10 qualitative and quantitative characterization of environmental conditions and services, i.e.,
11 the status of the beach, and (ii) the calculation of a recreational carrying capacity index
12 based on an integrated assessment of the physical area of the beach, its natural
13 conditions, and its facilities.

14 15 *4.1 Recreational Carrying Capacity*

16 The recreational carrying capacity (RCC) of the three study beaches was
17 determined using the basic approach of Cifuentes (1992), as modified by Cifuentes et al.
18 (1999), Segrado et al. (2008), and Zacarias et al. (2011). This approach attempts to
19 establish the maximum number of visitors that can be tolerated in an area based on
20 current physical and natural conditions together with management practices.

21 Following the approach of Zacarias et al. (2011), we aimed to obtain the
22 recreational carrying capacity (RCC) of the estuarine beaches, based on its physical
23 carrying capacity (PCC), modulated by a series of correction factors which are defined
24 here as a function of the intrinsic characteristics of the study beaches as:

$$25$$
$$26 \text{RCC} = \text{PCC} \times \text{WQ} \times \text{EnvQ} \times \text{EQ} \times \text{QS}$$

1

2 where, WQ = water quality, $EnvQ$ = environmental quality, EQ = ecological quality, and QS
3 = quality of services, which are described below.

4 These four modulation indices cover the main factors that influence the overall
5 quality of the system and they were selected to adjust the PCC (which should represent
6 the maximum capacity of the system) in such a way as to provide an RCC that reflects
7 actual conditions. The range of values of this index was selected in an attempt to establish
8 an equilibrium between the low level of services expected on a beach in a natural
9 environment and the services demanded by beachgoers when using a beach, even in
10 areas dominated by highly natural environments. We have thus established a reduction of
11 40% in the RCC for beaches on which no services are available, with a much higher value
12 being considered in the case of urban beaches. The range of values should nevertheless
13 be established specifically for each beach, based on an analysis of the demands and
14 requirements of users, even though this may emphasize the need for more services.

15

16 4.1.1 Physical Carrying Capacity

17 The Physical Carrying Capacity (PCC) measures the maximum number of visitors
18 that can be supported by the beach. It is obtained by:

19

$$20 \quad PCC = A/A_u$$

21

22 where, A is the usable area of the study beach, and A_u is the area available per user.

23

24 The value of A is obtained for each beach by measuring the area occupied by
25 visitors. Given the local mesotidal (tidal range between 2 and 4 m) or macrotidal (tidal
26 range > 4 m) conditions, the beach mean width was calculated by taking into account the

1 difference between high and low tides (Figure 2). At Colares and Marudá, the lower sector
2 of the intertidal area was not included in the usable area due to presence of muddy
3 sediments which prevented the use of this area by visitors.

4

5 <Insert Figure 2>

6

7 The available area per user (A_u) was estimated taking the degree of urban
8 development of each beach into account. According to their characteristics, Marudá and
9 Murubira were classified as semi-urban beaches and Colares as a rural beach. To assign
10 the corresponding A_u value we used values reported in the literature for these types of
11 beach (Embratur, 1975; De Ruyck, 1997; Silva, 2002) as well as field data. Based on this,
12 A_u was defined as 10 m²/visitor for the semi-urban beaches and 12 m²/visitor for the rural
13 beach.

14

15 4.1.2 Correction factors

16 The correction factors or the PCC considered in this study were selected to account
17 for the principal factors affecting the recreational use of the beaches in the Amazon region.
18 The relative weight of each factor was scaled taking into account their expected influence
19 based on published studies and the results of local surveys (July 2012 and 2013). These
20 factors are presented below.

21

22 (i) Water quality (WQ)

23 This correction factor refers to the water quality of the beach in terms of its potential
24 effects on the health of visitors. Beach water is susceptible to bacteriological
25 contamination which may result in exposure to public health risks during bathing.
26 Thermotolerant coliforms were used to evaluate water quality because these bacteria are

1 considered to be indicators of contamination by sewage, which can cause gastroenteritis,
2 and other health problems, such as respiratory, skin, eye and ear complaints (Fewtrell and
3 Kay, 2015).

4 The index was divided into four categories, according to the Most Probable Number
5 (MPN) of fecal coliforms per 100 mL: 1.0 (Excellent, <250 MPN 100 mL^{-1}), 0.8 (Very good,
6 250 - 500 MPN 100 mL^{-1}), 0.3 (Satisfactory, 500 - 1000 MPN 100 mL^{-1}) to 0 (Inappropriate,
7 >1100 MPN 100 mL^{-1}) based on the criteria established by Brazilian National Environment
8 Council (CONAMA, 274/2000) for water destined for human bathing.

9

10 (ii) Environmental quality (*EnvQ*)

11 This index reflects the environmental status of the water for bathing, except for the
12 bacteriological component, which is measured by the *WQ* index. The *EnvQ* index has two
13 components, (i) the physicochemical characteristics of the water, and (ii) the aesthetic
14 quality of the sand and water. Each of these components is composed of a number of
15 specific parameters based on the criteria established by CONAMA (357/2005) for bathing
16 water. The final value of the *EnvQ* is given by the mean combined value of these two
17 components. As the effects of this variable on human health are considered negligible, and
18 most affect the beachgoer's comfort and perceptions, this index was scored between 1.0
19 (no effect) and 0.6 (maximum effect on users' perceptions).

20

21 *Physicochemical variables*

22 The score for this component was calculated by measuring a series of
23 physicochemical variables of the water. To select the critical value for each of these
24 variables, we used the criteria of CONAMA to classify the quality of the water as good or
25 bad. The value of this component was obtained by the simple average of the different
26 variables.

1 The limits for physicochemical parameters by COMAMA are: pH of 6.5–8.5,
2 dissolved oxygen > 5.0 mg L⁻¹, nitrite < 0.07 mg L⁻¹, nitrate < 0.4 mg L⁻¹ and total
3 phosphorus < 0.124 mg L⁻¹. A score of 0.6 was attributed to the upper and/or lower limit
4 values, according to the criteria established by CONAMA, and 1.0 when the limits of
5 tolerance were exceeded. These variables were chosen because they are good indicators
6 of natural and anthropogenic changes in water, and they have been previously used for
7 this purpose (e.g. Praveena et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2013). The parameters are well
8 documented. For example, (i) lower pH levels are known to cause eye and skin irritations,
9 and even a slight change may result in the death of some aquatic organisms; (ii) the
10 excessive input of nutrients through the discharge of sewage leads to eutrophication,
11 which provokes algal blooms, and (iii) the proliferation of algae can lead to the depletion of
12 dissolved oxygen, which is consumed by bacteria during the oxidative decomposition of
13 the organic matter produced by the die-off of the algae.

14

15 *Visual aspects*

16 The aesthetic quality was based on the absence of oils and fats, floating debris,
17 solid residues in the sand, sand odors, and water turbidity. However, these conditions are
18 rarely found on the Amazon coast where the estuarine and coastal waters are affected by
19 the suspended matter discharged by the many local rivers, which also transport a
20 significant amount of vegetation debris (Pereira et al., 2012, 2013a). Although this does
21 not necessarily imply that water quality will be poor in these environments, we also
22 considered these aspects to be undesirable for beachgoers given that, even in this
23 environment, they have negative attitudes towards these conditions. In this context, the
24 parameters were based on CONAMA, and represent an important indicator of the
25 recreational experience of beachgoers and the visual quality of the beaches.

1 The score for this component was calculated by integrating the contribution of these
2 five parameters referring to the aesthetic quality of the beach and users' comfort. The
3 CONAMA criteria (357/2005) require negligible water turbidity, no floating debris, and no
4 residues in the sand. All the variables were measured qualitatively (present or absent)
5 and, as in the previous case, the criteria provided by CONAMA were used to establish the
6 corresponding value (0.6, present or 1, absent). The integral value for this component was
7 obtained from the simple average value of each variable.

8

9 (iii) Ecological quality (EQ)

10 This indicator measures the status of the natural conditions of the beach that, when
11 affected, may represent the degradation of the resource. In this sense, it implicitly
12 assumes that the RCC represents the maximum potential use of the beach any
13 degradation of its natural conditions. This variable is presented as an index with a score
14 ranging between 1 (no effect on natural conditions) to 0.6 (natural conditions degraded).

15 According to typical conditions of the study area, three components (degradation of
16 dunes, degradation of mangroves and the risk of coastal erosion) were taken into account
17 through direct observation, and were scored as high (0.6), moderate (0.8) and low (1.0).
18 The overall score of this component was obtained as the simple average of the variables
19 considered.

20

21 (iv) Quality of services (QS)

22 In spite of the fact that these beaches are located in a natural environment (semi-
23 urban or rural) they are popular with beachgoers, and regular visitors demand specific
24 services during their stay. Given this, planning the recreational use of the coast where
25 beaches are used intensively must take the quality of the services provided into account,
26 considering that a minimum level of services is required to avoid the collapse of the

1 resource, in recreational terms. Based on the local conditions, a minimum set of services
2 was considered essential for the recreational use of the local beaches – public restrooms,
3 waste bins, parking, accommodation, bar and restaurants, and accessibility. The overall
4 QS score for each beach was given by the mean value of the components evaluated, with
5 a final score of between 0.6 and 1.0, with 0.6 referring to the absence of the service, 0.8
6 for present but unsatisfactory, and 1 when it is adequate. The qualitative assessment was
7 based on visual observations and surveys of beachgoers.

8

9 *4.2 Beach Status (environmental conditions and services)*

10 The procedures used to assess the qualitative and quantitative features of the
11 environmental conditions and available services for the calculation of the RCC are
12 summarized in Table 1. The services available at each beach were evaluated in situ during
13 the vacation season using a checklist, and photographs were taken of specific features.
14 Environmental conditions were measured in field campaigns during the vacation season.
15 Each beach was surveyed on a Sunday (peak visitation day) during three weeks in July
16 2012 and July 2013. Surface water samples were collected every three hours between
17 07:00 h and 19:00 h using 5 L Niskin oceanographic bottle (General Oceanics). These
18 samples were used to determine the pH of the water, dissolved oxygen and nutrient
19 concentrations, and thermotolerant coliform levels. Thermotolerant coliforms were also
20 analyzed in samples of water collected from the Sonrisal stream on Colares beach.

21 In the laboratory, dissolved oxygen was determined by the Winkler method, as
22 modified by Strickland and Parsons (1968) and pH was measured using a pHmeter
23 (Hanna HI 2221). Thermotolerant coliform levels were determined using the method of the
24 American Public Health Association (APHA, 2012). The water samples were vacuum-
25 filtered through glass-fiber filters (Millipore GF/F 0.7 μm , 47 mm), and then freeze-dried for
26 dissolved nutrient analyses. Dissolved inorganic nutrient (nitrite – NO_2 and nitrate – NO_3)

1 concentrations were determined by spectrophotometry, following the procedures described
2 by Strickland and Parsons (1977) and Grasshoff et al. (1983). Filtered water samples were
3 also frozen for the subsequent analysis of dissolved total phosphorus (TP) by applying an
4 adaptation of the simultaneous oxidation of nitrogen and phosphorus compounds using an
5 alkaline persulfate oxidizing solution (Grasshoff et al., 1999).

6

7 <Insert Table 1>

8

9 **5. Recreational Carrying Capacity of the Study Beaches**

10 *5.1 Physical Carrying Capacity*

11 Table 2 shows the total and usable areas of the three study beaches. The beach
12 with the largest surface area is Marudá, with 123,900 m², adjusted to 93,763 m² by tidal
13 modulation, and further reduced to a final usable area of 67,113 m² (54% of the base
14 value) by the presence of muddy sediments in the intertidal zone. After corrections, the
15 usable area of Colares beach is 27,825 m² (53% of the total surface area), and that of
16 Murubira beach is 16,000 m² (71% of the total area). Murubira is the only one of the three
17 beaches with no muddy sediments in the intertidal area.

18 To convert these areas into numbers of users, different densities were considered
19 for semi-urban (10 m²/visitor) and rural (12 m²/visitor) beaches. The PCC is thus 6711
20 visitors for Marudá, 2319 for Colares, and 1600 for Murubira without considering the
21 rotation factor, which takes into account the average length of the stay on the beach, for
22 which, unfortunately, there are no data. However, direct observations made during the
23 study period indicate that the beachgoers usually stay all day long on these beaches, i.e.
24 rotation is very low.

25

26 <Insert Table 2>

1

2 The spatial distribution of the users on each beach was determined primarily by
3 three main factors, i.e. tidal range, accessibility and the occurrence of cultural events.

4 Thus, the following main characteristics were observed:

5 (i) Most of the visitors on Colares and Marudá beaches were located at a distance of
6 more than 100 m from the sea and less than 30 m from the main beach access (Figure
7 3A).

8 (ii) The distribution of beachgoers at Colares and Marudá and the carrying capacity of
9 the intertidal sector depend on the tidal range (Figure 3B).

10 (iii) The promenade at Murubira beach was more densely occupied than the other
11 beach sectors (Figure 3C). This sector is occupied primarily by younger beachgoers
12 attending social events (street parties and shows) which are usually organized in this area.

13

14 <Insert Figure 3>

15

16 5.2 Correction factors

17 During the survey period, in spite of the large number of people visiting the study
18 beaches, the water quality *WQ* was unsatisfactory at Marudá (0.00), although it was good
19 at Murubira (0.3) and Colares (0.8) beaches (Tables 2 and 3). The highest concentration
20 of thermotolerant coliforms was recorded at Marudá, with more than half of the water
21 samples exceeding the CONAMA limit for human use ($> 1100 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$). At the
22 opposite extreme, Colares presented the lowest level of microbiological contamination with
23 only 20% of the water samples being contaminated by thermotolerant coliforms (> 1100
24 $\text{MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$). These levels of bacterial contamination are correlated with the presence
25 of sewage outlets discharging directly on the beach, with 7, 10 and 2 outfalls/km on
26 Marudá, Murubira and Colares beaches, respectively. At Colares, part of the observed

1 contamination may be determined by the discharge of the Sonrisal stream, which had high
2 thermotolerant coliform concentrations (>1100 MPN/100 mL⁻¹).

3

4 <Insert Table 3>

5

6 All the study beaches obtained satisfactory scores for the environmental quality
7 (*EnvQ*) index (according to CONAMA standards), with values of 0.95 being recorded for
8 Colares, and 0.85 for Marudá and Murubira beaches (Tables 2 and 3). Despite this, a
9 number of aspects of the visual quality of these beaches were evaluated negatively,
10 including sewage outfalls, trash in the water, and turbidity. The accumulation of trash leads
11 to an unpleasant odor, especially at Marudá and Murubira, where social events are
12 frequent. This problem is exacerbated by the lack of public restrooms and infrequent
13 garbage collection.

14 The ecological quality (*EQ*) of Colares beach was considered to be excellent (0.87),
15 due to the good preservation of its natural environment, dominated by dunes. On the other
16 hand, Marudá (0.67) and Murubira (0.73) were classified as regular (Tables 2 and 4). In
17 the study area, especially Marudá and Murubira beaches, many bars, restaurants and
18 hotels have been constructed on the dunes, affecting 70–80% of the coastline, with major
19 impacts on the local mangroves and coastal restinga vegetation (Figure 4).

20

21 <Insert Table 4>

22 <Insert Figure 4>

23

24 When analyzing the quality of services (*QS*), Colares beach obtained the lowest
25 score (0.71) due to its lack of services, while only slightly higher scores (0.80 in each case)
26 were obtained for Murubira and Marudá beaches. Overall, the three study beaches

1 presented severe limitations in terms of the basic services requires for recreational
2 activities (Tables 2 and 5).

3 Finally, when the correction factors are applied to the PCC scores for the study
4 beaches the *RCC* scores decrease significantly in all cases. The most significant
5 modification was observed in the case of Marudá beach which, despite having the highest
6 *PCC* score, received an *RCC* score of zero, due to the inadequate quality of the water,
7 which was found to be unfit for human use. In this case, the analysis found that the beach
8 should not be used for recreational purposes. In the case of Colares and Murubira
9 beaches, the *RCC* scores also decreased significantly, reaching values of 1089 visitors at
10 Colares (about 47% of the original score) and 238 at Murubira (15%). These final *RCC*
11 scores indicate a low carrying capacity, given that most of the necessary infrastructure and
12 services are not provided.

13

14 <Insert Table 5>

15

16 **6. Implications for beach management**

17 The Recreational Capacity Carrying (*RCC*) is an important tool for beach
18 management when the aim is to enhance the recreational potential of a coastal
19 environment. While the dimensions of the beach – which determine the available space –
20 are a major component of this index, it is also modulated by variables related to the
21 “quality of the visit”, and the “preservation of the resource”. In this study, we adopted an
22 *RCC* approach to provide management recommendations for Amazonian estuarine
23 beaches. While these environments contain valuable natural resources that must be
24 preserved, they are being used increasingly by local populations for recreational purposes.
25 As a consequence, adequate management is needed to maintain this natural resource,
26 which demands a recreational carrying capacity assessment. The analysis conducted here

1 has shown that, while these rural/semi-urban beaches are still rich in natural resources,
2 increasing and unregulated human pressure has resulted in a significant decrease of the
3 quality of the beaches and, thus, of their carrying capacity.

4 As mentioned above, the methodological approach used in the present study is an
5 adaptation of a standard RCC assessment protocol, which was modified specifically for the
6 evaluation of estuarine beaches of the Amazon region. To this end, we need to take into
7 account local environmental and social conditions to select adequate indicators for the
8 modulation of the RCC, as well as to define their upper and lower limits. In this study, the
9 proposed scale for the correction factors was based on previous studies of user
10 preferences, together with Brazilian standards of environmental quality (see Methods). The
11 final RCC values obtained by this approach will depend on the scale selected and in this
12 sense, the definition of adequate parameters is essential for a reliable analysis. To apply
13 the same index to other environments, it would be necessary to create a unified scale of
14 correction factors, which would be derived ideally from an extensive study of the
15 requirements and preferences of users.

16 Of the three study beaches, Colares was the least contaminated, due to its
17 relatively undeveloped and natural conditions, with well-preserved dunes and mangroves.
18 This beach received high scores for all the indices except the quality of services, which are
19 mostly rudimentary or, in some cases, totally absent. This reflects its natural/rural
20 character but emphasizes its inadequate potential for seasonal peaks of visitation.

21 The much lower carrying capacities estimated for Marudá and Murubira beaches
22 were due primarily to the large number of sewage outfalls and the bacteriological
23 contamination of the water used for recreational activities. Many other factors were also
24 considered unsatisfactory at both beaches, including the undesirable odor of the sand and
25 water, the highly turbid water, the presence of trash on the sand and debris floating in the
26 water, the loss of dunes and mangroves, and the unregulated occupation of the coastline.

1 The loss of mangroves and dunes has had knock-on effects such as an increase in coastal
2 erosion and the loss of habitat for endangered species. Recreational activities at Murubira
3 are threatened by the low RCC and the lack of investment in the infrastructure needed for
4 the collection and treatment of domestic waste. At Marudá, the situation was critical (RCC
5 = 0), and bathing must be banned due to the high levels of bacteriological contamination.
6 Unfortunately, the local authorities have not taken any measures to mediate this problem.

7 In Brazil, as in many other parts of the world, the lack of adequate infrastructure and
8 services, and the unregulated occupation of many beaches, has produced an increasingly
9 negative effect on their attractiveness for beachgoers (Mohanty et al., 2008; Olsen, 2003;
10 Pereira et al., 2007; Botero et al., 2008). The results of the present study have
11 demonstrated the need for urgent government intervention (in particular, investments in
12 services and infrastructure) in order to improve the quality of the beaches and guarantee
13 the recreational experience of local beachgoers.

14 Based on the results of the present study, we can recommend a number of
15 measures that should be taken by local authorities to improve the status of the three
16 estuarine beaches surveyed: (i) the immediate interruption of any sewage outlet that
17 discharges effluents directly onto the beach or into nearby watercourses, (ii) the
18 construction of a public sanitation system and sewage treatment plants, (iii) the
19 establishment of a permanent water quality monitoring system for the beaches used for
20 bathing and other recreational activities, (iv) the installation of a refuse collection system,
21 including an increased number of waste bins and collection points, (v) the immediate
22 prohibition of the construction of buildings on dunes or in areas of mangrove, and (vi) the
23 installation of public restroom facilities, especially during the peak vacation period. These
24 recommendations can be modified for other rural and semi-urban beaches in Brazil, and in
25 other regions of the world.

1 In addition to these recommendations, the findings of the present study indicate the
2 need for the careful reassessment of many of the standard CONAMA criteria – such as
3 turbidity – used for the evaluation of water quality, given the unique conditions found on
4 the beaches of the Amazon coast. High turbidity, for example, is a typical condition caused
5 by the enormous amount of fluvial discharge and high energy local hydrodynamic
6 conditions (e.g., Pereira et al., 2012a, 2013a, 2013b). Clearly, then, many of the criteria
7 established by CONAMA require revision before being applied to the assessment of water
8 quality in areas of the Amazon coast, where estuaries are dominated by fluvial conditions
9 during the rainy season, and more coastal or marine conditions during the dry season.

10

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- 18
- 19

FIGURE CAPTIONS

- 1
- 2
- 3 Figure 1. Study area location. (A) South America and (B-D) part of Pará state, showing
- 4 Murubira, Colares and Marudá beaches (D), and (E-G) photographs of the study beaches.
- 5 Figure 2. Mean difference between the high water level (HWL) and the low water level
- 6 (LWL) of each study beach during neap tides.
- 7 Figure 3. (A) Beachgoers concentrated near the main access road to Marudá beach. (B)
- 8 Beachgoer distribution depending on the tidal elevation on Colares beach. (C) Promenade
- 9 at Murubira beach occupied by beachgoers (street party).
- 10 Figure 4. Coastlines of the study beaches: (A) Colares (Obtained from:
- 11 <http://www.mapio.cz/a/14390684/>); (B) Marudá (Obtained from:
- 12 <http://www.portalturismobrasil.com.br/atracao/6143/Praia-do-Maruda>); and (C) Murubira
- 13 (Obtained from: <http://www.ormnews.com.br/noticia.asp?=662130>).

Table 1. Summary of the procedures used to compile each index. *Based on CONAMA (274/2000) criteria.

Index	Variable	Data	Frequency	Method
Physical Carrying Capacity	Area/ User density	Field campaigns/ Literature review	Every 1h	Measurement of area/ Counting beachgoers and Literature review
Water Quality	Thermotolerant colifoms*	Water samples	Every 3h	APHA and CONAMA
	Number of sewage outlets*	Direct observation	Once per field campaign	Counting sewage outlets
Environmental Quality				
-Physical-chemical component	Dissolved Oxygen* pH*	Water samples	Every 3 hours	Winkler method (Strickland and Parsons 1968) pHmeter
	Nitrite*			Strickland and Parsons (1972) and Grasshoff et al. (1983)
	Nitrate*			Strickland and Parsons (1972) and Grasshoff et al. (1983)
	Total Phosphorus*			Strickland and Parsons (1972) and Grasshoff et al. (1983; 1999)
- Visual aspects of the beach	Oils/fats Floating debris Solid residues Sand odors Turbidity	Direct observation	Once per field campaign	Check list
Ecological Conditions	Ecological features	Direct observation	Once per field campaign	Check list
Services	Services and infrastructure	Direct observation	Once per field campaign	Check list

Table 2. The RCC calculated for each beach, and the values of the respective PCC and correction factors

RCC	BEACHES		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Total Area (m²)	52,033	123,900	22,400
Useable Area (m²)	27,825	67,113	16,000
PCC (persons)	2319	6711	1600
Water Quality	0.8	0.0	0.3
Environmental Quality	0.95	0.85	0.85
Ecological Quality	0.87	0.67	0.73
Quality of Services	0.71	0.8	0.8
RCC (persons)	1089	0	238

Table 3. Water and Environmental quality scores for each study beach.

VARIABLE	BACTERIOLOGICAL SCORE		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Termotolerant Coliforms	0.8	0	0.3

VARIABLE	PHYSICAL-CHEMICAL SCORE		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Dissolved oxygen	1	1	1
pH	1	1	1
Nitrites	1	1	1
Nitrates	1	1	1
Total Phosphorus	1	1	1

VARIABLE	VISUAL ASPECT SCORE		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Oils and fats	1	1	1
Floating debris	1	0.6	0.6
Solid residues in the sand	0.6	0.6	0.6
Sand odors	1	0.6	0.6
Water turbidity	0.6	0.6	0.6

Table 4. Ecological Quality scores for each study beach.

VARIABLE	BEACH		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Degradation of dunes	1	0.8	0.6
Degradation of mangroves	1	0.6	0.8
Risk of coastal erosion	0.6	0.6	0.8

Table 5. Quality of Services scores for each study beach.

VARIABLE	BEACH		
	Colares	Marudá	Murubira
Public restrooms	0.6	0.6	0.6
Waste bins	0.6	0.8	0.8
Parking	0.6	0.8	0.8
Safety	1	1	1
Accommodation	0.8	0.8	0.8
Bars and restaurants	0.8	0.8	0.8
Accessibility	0.6	0.8	0.8

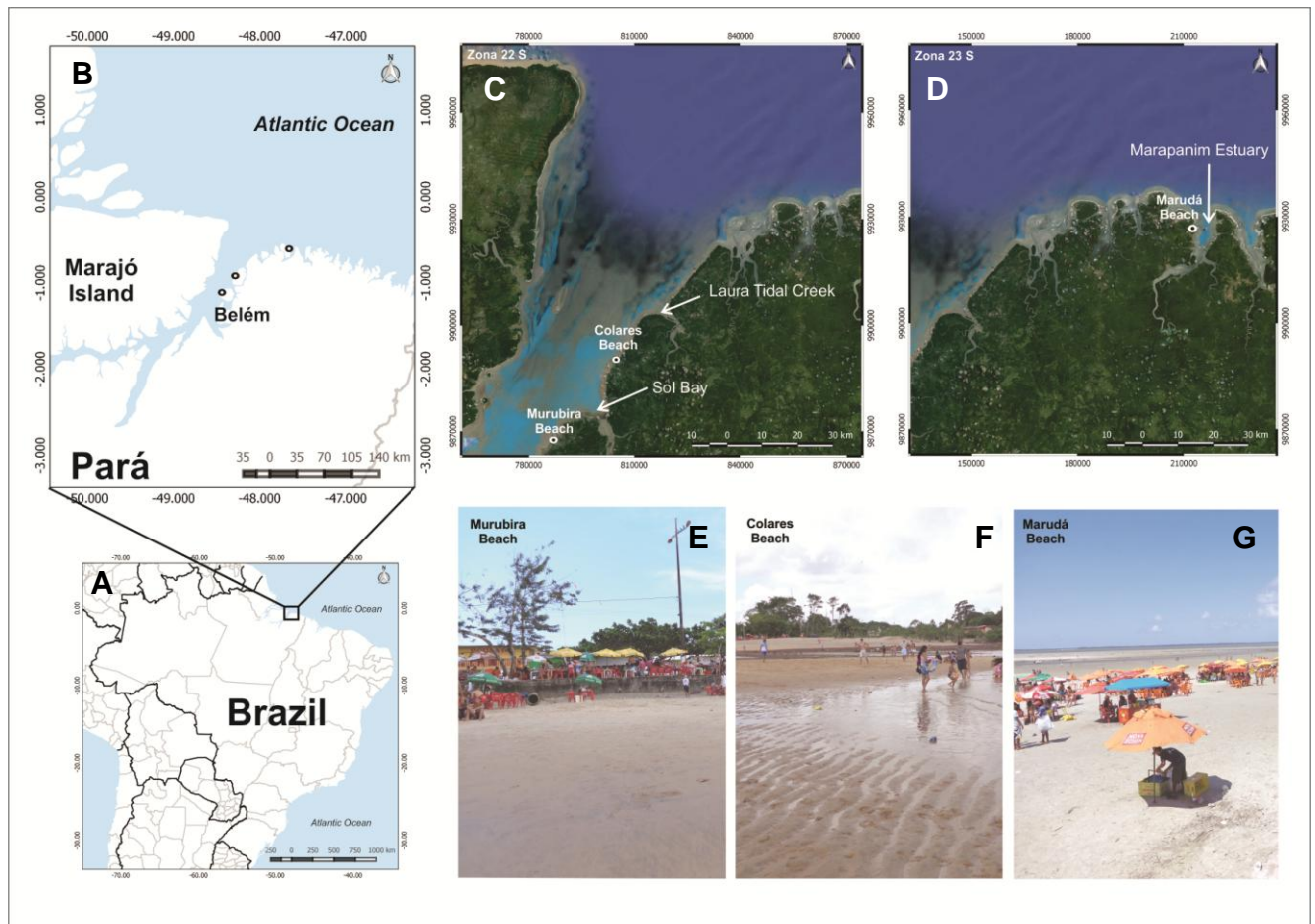


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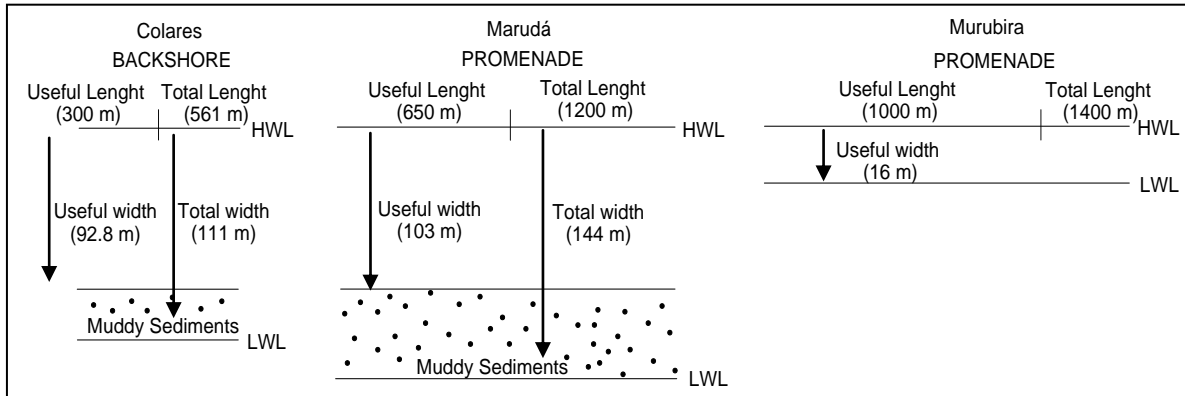


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