

Characterization of nutrients enrichment in the estuaries and related systems in Kenya coast

Ongore, C. O.^{1,3*}, Okuku, E. O.^{1,2}, Mwangi, S. N.^{1,4}, Kiteresi, L. I.¹, Ohowa B.¹, Wanjeri, V. O.¹, Okumu, S.¹, and Kilonzi, J.¹

¹Kenya Marine and Fisheries Research Institute, P.O. Box 81651, Mombasa, Kenya.

²Soil and Water Management Division, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Kasteelpark Arenberg 20, B-3001 Heverlee, Belgium.

³School of Environmental Studies, University of Eldoret, P.O. Box 1125, Eldoret, Kenya.

⁴University of Nairobi, P.O. Box 30197, G.P.O, Nairobi, Kenya.

*Corresponding author E-mail: collongore@gmail.com, Tel: +254 (020) 8021560/1 Fax: +254 (020) 2353226.

Accepted 06 June 2013

Rivers Tana, Sabaki, Uмба and Ramisi discharge their waters into the Indian Ocean along the Kenyan coastline. This study was carried out to examine the river nutrient input characteristics in terms of $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$, $(\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-)\text{-N}$ and $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ concentration trends and their interactions with TSS, Chl a, DO and BOD_5 , along the estuaries of these rivers, and the contiguous coastal systems. Standard methods were used for sample collection preparation and analysis. Sabaki and Tana estuaries $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ and $(\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-)\text{-N}$ levels (means \pm SD) were 0.145 ± 0.075 mg/L and 5.133 ± 3.39 mg/L respectively and were significantly higher compared to the other estuarine systems considered in this study. There were significant correlations between the nutrients and other variables suggesting the influence of nutrients on the overall water chemical and biological characteristics. In conclusion the study identified River Sabaki as the greatest contributor to marine pollution, by contributing the greatest quantities of nutrients and suspended matter. The study recommends measures aimed at counteracting this environmental problem at its very source, the catchment.

Key words: Nutrients, estuaries, eutrophication, pollutants.

INTRODUCTION

Good water quality is a desirable attribute for sound environmental health of surface waters (lakes, rivers, estuaries and the ocean) and by extension, all the spheres of the earth. The quality of surface waters is determined by the chemical, physical and biological characteristics. The chemical variables that influence water quality include dissolved gases, minerals, nutrients, metals, toxic substances, salinity and pH. Water quality is thus affected by the complex interactions between these chemical characteristics on one side, and the physical and biological factors on the other.

Nutrients, one of the water chemical parameters, provoke the greatest of environmental concerns. It is generally acknowledged that nutrient inputs into aquatic systems caused by natural events far exceed those generated by human activities. However, the anthropogenic nutrient inputs which include sewage discharges and agricultural fertiliser runoff can

sometimes upset the natural self-cleansing processes of the marine environment, leading to eutrophication (Miller, 1985) which in turn poses problems to marine life and affects aquatic resources. Some of the negative manifestations of eutrophication are blooming of certain groups of algae that may eventually lead to depletion of dissolved oxygen (hypoxia). Some bloom forming types of algae are commonly referred to as Harmful Algal Blooms (HABs), due to their tendency to produce phycotoxins. There has been an apparent increase in the occurrence of HABs globally (Anderson, 1989; Hallegraeff, 1993; Smayda, 1990). The increasing linkages between nutrient loading and estuarine/ coastal marine HABs have more recently been recognized (Anderson et al., 2002; Burkholder, 2006; Gilbert and Heisler et al., 2008; Smayda, 1990, 1997).

Marine pollution like other environmental problems is attributable to anthropogenic impacts like population

pressure, food production (intensive agriculture and industrialization), urbanization and coastal development (Looser et al., 2000; Seitzinger et al., 2005; Bhatnagar and Sangwan, 2009). The over enrichment of aquatic environments with nutrients is attributable to urbanization (Smith et al., 1999; de Jonge et al., 2002; Roman et al., 2000) and catchment agricultural activities. It has been observed that coastal ecosystems in the world serve as receptors for industrial and municipal effluents (Clark 1992; Palanisamy et al., 2007). Discharge of sewage effluent and dumping of sewage sludge has been implicated for loading of organic matter and eutrophication in coastal regions of the world (Subramanian, 1999).

Other important pathway of nutrients (PO_4^{3-} -P, ($\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$)-N and NH_4^+ -N) to the ocean are rivers and streams through estuaries. Rivers usually contain high levels of dissolved and particulate-bound nutrients relative to the coastal and oceanic systems. Adsorbed phosphorus, and to a lesser extent nitrogen, may also be washed into the sea (Meybeck, 1982) or ocean (Milliman et al., 1984) through rivers or floods (McKee et al., 2000) and deposited or buried there as sediment (Stiller and Nissenbaum, 1999; Beusekom and Jonge, 1998; Noel and Watanabe, 2000; Zhou, et al., 2000), and may later be released to the overlying water under different redox conditions (McAuliffe et al., 1998; Correll, 1998).

In the ocean, dissolved inorganic nutrient from river discharge and re-mineralization processes can both contribute significantly to the overall nutrients budget that can eventually be taken up by phytoplankton (Kuwaie et al., 1998).

Chlorophyll (Chl a) concentration, which is a proven indicator of the biomass of microscopic plants such as unicellular algae and photosynthetic potential, is frequently used as an indicator of trophic status of marine waters (Painting et al., 2005) and as a measure of water quality (Boyer et al., 2008; Hakanson et al., 2007; Millie et al., 2006). Increases in the annual median concentrations of Chl a may be related to changes in nutrients and increasing eutrophication. High levels of Chl a concentrations often indicate poor water quality and vice versa.

Hydrodynamics and related transport processes help determine nutrient and biotic distributions in estuaries. The flushing time determines the sensitivity of nutrient concentrations in an estuary to loading from the watershed. It also determines export rates of plankton and nutrients from the estuary (Dettmann, 2001). Nutrient concentrations have been shown to vary with the ocean tides with ($\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$)-N concentrations rising and falling with the rise and fall of the tide (Kitheka et al., 1999).

The dynamic nature of nutrients in estuarine and coastal systems motivated this study with the aim of identification and description of estuarine nutrient load

characteristics as a function of river derived pollutants and its possible effects on marine environmental health, while pinpointing the possible sources, fate and the impacted areas. The study targeted estuaries of the major rivers draining to the Kenyan coastal areas. The merits of this work are to recommend, give impetus to and inform policy based mitigation actions, while forming part of the invaluable baseline information to augment and trend with other previous, on-going and future environmental risk assessment and pollution monitoring oriented studies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study area included river estuaries and contiguous coastal systems located both in the North and South coast regions of the Kenyan coastal waters. The sampling stations were strategically selected to reflect a range of anticipated anthropogenic influence. The locations included those of anticipated influx of nutrients and suspended matter and those of relative low nutrient and organic matter perturbations to serve as reference sites.

In the North Coast, the sampling stations were located as follows; four stations along the Tana River estuary, at Tana Bridge (TANBR), Mulkani (MULK), Kipini Village (KIPVIL) and Kipini Mouth (KIPMOT) in succession upstream to the mouth; four sampling stations along the Sabaki river estuary, at Galana (GAL,) Sabaki 3 (SAB3), Sabaki 2, (SAB2) and Sabaki 1 (SAB1) in an advancing order upstream to river mouth; three sampling stations along the southern side of the estuary along Malindi Shoreline as Malindi Jetty (MAJET), Malindi Marine Park (MAPAK) and Malindi Navy (MANAV) and one station on the Northern side of Sabaki estuary along the shoreline, known as Mambroi (MAMBR).

The relatively lowly impacted (with little urbanization, agricultural and industrial development) channels of the South coast were considered in this study for comparison due to their appeal as being pristine as the river inflow is from catchments of low agricultural perturbations. The sampling sites in South coast were Umba Mouth (UMMOT), Umba Village 1 (UMVIL1), Umba Village 2 (UMVIL2), Umba Bridge (UMBRG), Umba Boarder (UMBOD). In Ramisi River, the stations were Ramisi 1 (RAMS1), Ramisi 2 (RAMS2), Ramisi 3 (RAMS3), Ramisi Bridge (RAMBR). In Shimoni coastal system, the stations were located at Kibuyuni (KIBY) and Shimoni Jetty (SHIJET).

This study was carried out during 2009-2010 sampling campaigns. Sample collection for nutrients analysis was as follows; for nutrients analysis, two replicate surface water samples were collected in polyethylene bottles (prewashed in acid) and stored frozen until analysis. Three replicate water samples were taken in borosilicate

bottles for BOD₅ and DO measurements. Chlorophyll a (Chl a) samples were collected by filtering one litre of surface water on GFF-filters under low suction.

The methods described by Parsons et al. (1984) and APHA (1995) were used to analyse ammonium (NH₄⁺-N), Nitrate + Nitrite {(NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N}, and orthophosphate (PO₄³⁻-P) in the samples. Orthophosphate was determined using the ascorbic acid method and measured calorimetrically at a wavelength of 885 nm using UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Dissolved (nitrate and nitrite)-N was determined using the cadmium reduction method and determined calorimetrically at a wave-length of 543 nm. Ammonium-N was determined using the indophenol method and the absorbance read at 630 nm after at least six hours. DO and BOD₅ were determined by the modified Winkler method (APHA, 1992). Chl was extracted from seston retained on GF filter papers using acetone and measured spectrophotometrically. All chemicals used were of analytical grade and all the glassware pre-washed in acid before use. For nutrients analysis, procedural blanks and check standards were included for quality control.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results of this study showed that the mean (\pm SE) concentrations of PO₄³⁻-P and (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N for Sabaki estuary (0.145 \pm 0.075 mg/L and 5.133 \pm 3.39 mg/L respectively) were elevated (Table 2) as compared to the other systems studied. NH₄⁺-N in Sabaki exhibited one of the lowest concentrations recorded in this study (0.007 \pm 0.004 mg/L (Table 2, Figure 2).

The major nutrients, PO₄³⁻-P and (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N showed a general decreasing trend downstream in all the estuarine systems. There was a significant difference in (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P concentrations between stations along the Sabaki system (F=11.41, p<0.05; F=124.4, p<0.05). Post hoc analysis revealed significant differences between Galana station (which is the most upstream) and the other stations in Sabaki system.

Whereas the nutrient concentrations in Sabaki showed that the highest values of PO₄³⁻-P and (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N (Table 2, Figure 3) were recorded in the most downstream sampling station, the values of Chl a declined steadily down the stations. In Malindi coastal waters, Chl a showed uniform concentration across all the stations (Table 3).

It is noteworthy that nutrient levels in the adjacent coastal receiving system (Mambui) were markedly relatively low for PO₄³⁻-P and (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N (0.024 \pm 0.003 mg/L and 0.052 \pm 0.017 mg/L) respectively (Table 2), while the mean concentration of NH₄⁺-N (0.0124 \pm 0.008 mg/L) surpassed the levels recorded in Sabaki estuary. (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N levels remained relatively high in Sabaki stations compared to other nutrients.

It was also observed that the nutrient levels for Malindi Stations (Malindi Navy, Malindi Marine Park and Malindi Jetty), which were hypothetically thought to be receiving higher nutrient input, were strikingly low, (Table 3, Figures 2, 3 and 4).

There were significant differences in (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P concentrations among the various estuarine systems (F=35.475; p<0.05 and F=175.45; p<0.05). Post hoc analysis for (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P revealed significant differences between Sabaki river system and the other systems. Chlorophyll a also showed a significant difference (F=14.28; p<0.05) among the stations.

(NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N, PO₄³⁻-P (Figure 4, Table 3) and NH₄⁺-N (Figure 2, Table 3) in Ramisi and Uмба systems remained relatively low compared to the levels in Sabaki and Tana systems (Figure 2). In Ramisi, (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N recorded the highest concentrations in all the stations, while NH₄⁺-N concentrations exceeded those of PO₄³⁻-P. Chl a levels showed a decreasing trend upstream and shooting up again at Ramisi Bridge.

In Uмба channel, nutrients concentrations showed fluctuating patterns between stations (Figures 2, 3, and 4) whereby the highest concentrations for all nutrients were recorded at Uмба river mouth. NH₄⁺-N remained highest in all stations and lowest in Uмба Border while (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P showed a declining trend after Uмба Bridge.

Higher N: P ratio were recorded in the Sabaki system (>40) compared to the rest of the systems including the other estuarine systems (Figure 5). The N: P ratio for the other rivers, although significantly lower than that of the Sabaki system (<20) were still higher than those recorded in the contiguous coastal systems. There was a general increasing pattern of N:P ratio downstream for all the estuarine systems. Upstream stations in Sabaki system had N:P ratio less than 10. This could be attributed to increasing sedimentation, subsequent remineralisation and ammonification processes as well as continuous uptake of PO₄³⁻-P by algae.

Upstream stations in Sabaki system had N:P ratio less than 10 (Figure 5), implying a short-term N limitation. Upstream short term N limitation has been reported elsewhere by Furnas *et al.*, (1990) and Charpy, (2001). This study showed that (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N concentrations increased with reducing PO₄³⁻-P concentrations downstream resulting into high N:P ratio at the river mouth implying that phosphorous was limiting at the river mouth. PO₄³⁻-P usually becomes limiting downstream since nitrogen is replenished by nitrogen fixation whereas P is continuously consumed by phytoplankton or diluted by P-limited oceanic waters. **The N: P ratio was highest in Sabaki River and lowest in Uмба (Figure 5). A comparison of N: P ratio for all the systems showed a significant difference (F= 8.84, p<0.05). The differences in N: P ratios between the river systems alone were statistically**

Table 1. Mean concentrations of water quality parameters BOD₅ (mg/L) and DO (mg/L) in the estuarine and associated systems under study.

System	DO (mg/L)			BOD ₅ (mg/L)		
	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max
Tana	4.40	5.60	6.7	4.70	5.60	6.60
Sabaki	5.70	8.50	10.4	2.60	4.70	5.80
Malindi	6.40	7.16	8.4	2.80	3.81	4.96
Mambrui	7.44	8.00	8.32	3.80	4.03	4.16
Ramisi	8.20	9.90	11.2	1.80	4.10	7.50
Shimoni	8.20	8.55	9.00	1.20	2.50	4.80
Umba	8.08	10.30	16.6	1.30	3.00	6.84

BOD₅= Biological Oxygen Demand measured after 5 day incubation, Dissolved Oxygen; mg/L= Milligrams per Litre.
Max= Maximum Value recorded, Min= Minimum Value recorded.

Table 2. Mean concentrations of nutrients PO₄³⁻-P, (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N, (mg/L) and Chl a (mg/L) in the estuarine and associated systems under study.

System	PO ₄ ³⁻ -P (mg/L)			NO ₂ ⁻ + NO ₃ ⁻ -N (mg/L)			NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mg/L)		
	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max
Tana	0.001	0.0022	0.003	0.0067	0.009	0.016	0.0024	0.006	0.010
Sabaki	0.002	0.1383	0.224	0.0333	5.133	10.83	0.0002	0.007	0.015
Malindi	0.011	0.016	0.028	0.0050	0.020	0.040	0.0002	0.006	0.014
Mambrui	0.019	0.024	0.026	0.0350	0.052	0.079	0.0043	0.014	0.022
Ramisi	0.001	0.016	0.040	0.0030	0.134	0.330	0.0098	0.079	0.213
Shimoni	0.004	0.011	0.032	0	0.063	0.020	0.02	0.020	0.030
Umba	0.004	0.023	0.068	0.0001	0.018	0.052	0.009	0.050	0.160

significant ($F= 12.4$, $p < 0.05$).

Chlorophyll a showed a distribution pattern which is almost completely in contrast with the major nutrients (Figure 1). Interestingly, the high concentrations observed for (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P in the Sabaki and Tana systems did not influence the primary production (Chl a). Ramisi system had the highest mean concentration of Chl a followed by Umba system (Figure 1). This could be attributed to the high levels of ammonium (Figure 2) and reduced levels of turbidity (less TSS) (Table 3). The discriminate preference for ammonium to the other N forms by phytoplankton has been attributed to the fact that phytoplankton need to convert the other nitrogen forms (such as nitrate and nitrite) enzymatically into ammonium prior to assimilation (Eppley *et al.*, 1969), a process that is energy expensive.

These results revealed strong associations between physicochemical parameters and nutrients. Total suspended solids (TSS) and PO₄³⁻-P showed a significant correlation of $r= 0.59$, $p < 0.05$ in the Sabaki system (a relatively very turbid system). Dissolved oxygen and NH₄⁺-N showed a significant correlation of $r= -0.61$, $p < 0.05$. In Malindi coastal system, TSS correlated significantly with (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N, PO₄³⁻-P and NH₄⁺-N ($r= 0.83$, $p < 0.05$, $r= 0.5$, $p < 0.05$ and $r= 0.61$, $p < 0.05$,

respectively). In the Ramisi system, there were significant correlations between the nutrients and the other water quality parameters. There were significant associations between DO and (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N, PO₄³⁻-P, NH₄⁺-N and Chl a ($r= 0.90$, $p < 0.05$, $r= 0.77$, $p < 0.05$, $r= 0.80$ and $r= 0.95$, $p < 0.05$), BOD₅ also portrayed similar significant associations with (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N, PO₄³⁻-P, NH₄⁺-N ($r= 0.7$, $p < 0.05$, $r= 0.64$, $p < 0.05$, $r= 0.81$, $p < 0.05$ and $r= 0.85$, $p < 0.05$). An interesting pattern in the BOD₅ trends was observed: for every estuarine system in which there were declining levels downstream (Table 3).

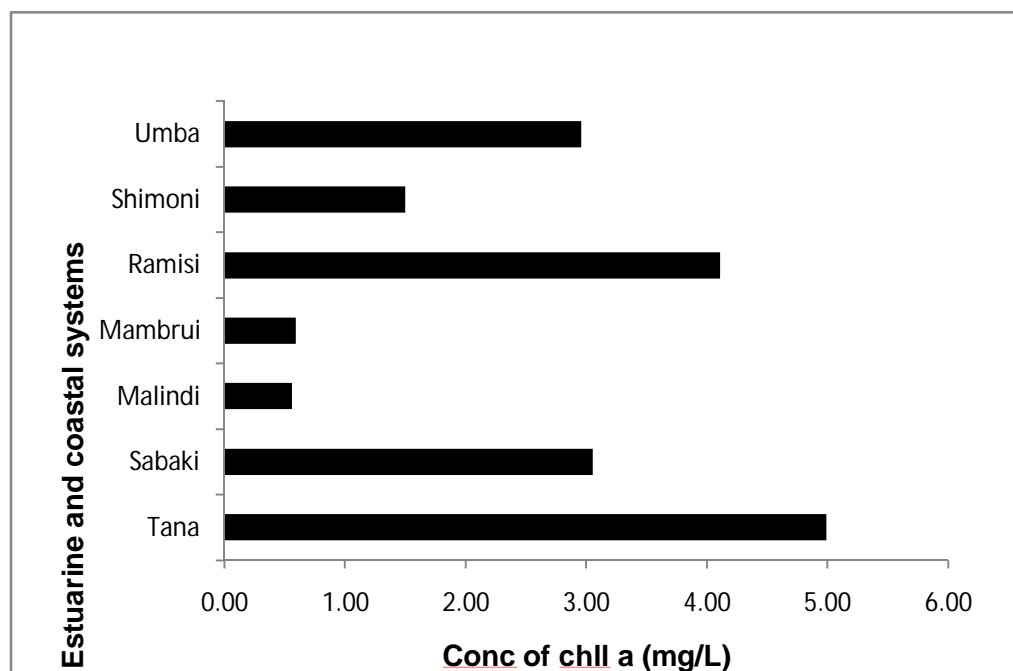
The major nutrients, PO₄³⁻-P and (NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N showed a general decreasing trend downstream in all the estuarine systems. This observation agrees with the findings of Ohwa, (1996) that reported a general decrease in nutrient concentrations with increasing salinity during transportation through the estuarine zone. This trend could be attributed to adsorption and desorption of PO₄³⁻-P from mineral surfaces forming a buffering mechanism that regulate PO₄³⁻-P concentration in rivers and estuaries (Froelich, 1988), a process which is dictated by salinity levels.

The generally high concentrations of nutrients [(NO₂⁻+ NO₃⁻)-N and PO₄³⁻-P] observed in Sabaki system *vis a vis* the other systems is attributable to high input of

Table 3. Summary (Mean \pm SE) of limnological parameters TSS (mg/L), BOD₅ (mg/L) and Chl a (mg/L) for the sampling stations.

Sampling Station	D.O(mg/L)	B.O.D₅ (mg/L DO)	TSS (mg/L)	Chl-a (mg/L)
Tana Bridge	6.5 \pm 0.14	6.48 \pm 0.08	600 \pm 0.001	11.7985
Mulkani	6.1 \pm 0.08	5.84 \pm 0.20	920 \pm 0.001	2.2096
Kipini Village	5.35 \pm 0.06	5.2 \pm 0.12	170 \pm 0.001	4.335
Kipini Mouth	4.43 \pm 0.044	4.88 \pm 0.08	237.1428 \pm 0.001	1.6155
Galana	5.8 \pm 0.10	0.13 \pm 0.03	415 \pm 28	4.2486
Sabaki 1	9.973 \pm 0.25	4.933 \pm 0.13	166.887 \pm 56.66	3.410 \pm 1.81
Sabaki 2	9.093 \pm 0.41	3.867 \pm 0.64	542.222 \pm 172.23	2.786 \pm 0.35
Sabaki 3	9.013 \pm 0.11	4.160 \pm 0.08	623.175 \pm 196.24	2.569 \pm 0.55
Mambrui	8.000 \pm 0.28	4.027 \pm 0.10	35.3 \pm 3.06	0.588 \pm 0.07
Malindi Jetty	7.653 \pm 0.39	4.240 \pm 0.41	18.000 \pm 1.16	0.471 \pm 0.07
Malindi Marine Park	7.200 \pm 0.20	3.547 \pm 0.37	18.0 \pm 2.04	0.626 \pm 0.04
Malindi Navy	6.613 \pm 0.12	3.65 \pm 0.35	18.4 \pm 0.59	0.587 \pm 0.07
Ramisi 1	10.880 \pm 0.17	6.353 \pm 0.62	26.667 \pm 1.76	6.353 \pm 0.62
Ramisi 2	9.733 \pm 0.18	3.370 \pm 0.07	20.667 \pm 0.88	3.370 \pm 0.07
Ramisi 3	8.373 \pm 0.07	2.042 \pm 0.14	24.667 \pm 0.67	2.042 \pm 0.14
Ramisi Bridge	10.587 \pm 0.11	4.659 \pm 0.38	31.833 \pm 2.89	4.659 \pm 0.38
Kibuyuni	8.693 \pm 0.18	1.682 \pm 0.11	33.667 \pm 1.45	1.682 \pm 0.11
Shimoni Jetty	8.400 \pm 0.12	3.402 \pm 1.13	28.333 \pm 3.93	1.326 \pm 0.16
Umba Mouth	12.613 \pm 2.017	3.126 \pm 0.285	32.667 \pm 1.76	3.126 \pm 0.29
Umba Village 1	9.040 \pm 0.16	1.799 \pm 0.255	33.333 \pm 2.73	1.799 \pm 0.26
Umba Village 2	8.560 \pm 0.33	1.840 \pm 0.040	40.667 \pm 3.28	1.840 \pm 0.04
Umba Bridge	10.427 \pm 0.14	1.915 \pm 0.274	23.333 \pm 2.33	1.915 \pm 0.27
Umba Border	10.960 \pm 0.09	6.124 \pm 0.493	14.000 \pm 4.16	6.124 \pm 0.49

TSS= Total Suspended Solids, BOD₅= Biological Oxygen Demand measured after 5 day incubation, DO= Dissolved Oxygen, Chl a= Chlorophyll a; mg/L= Milligrams per Litre.

**Figure 1.** Comparison of mean Chl a (mg/L) concentrations among the systems.

■ Levels of Chlorophyll a
Chl a= Chlorophyll a

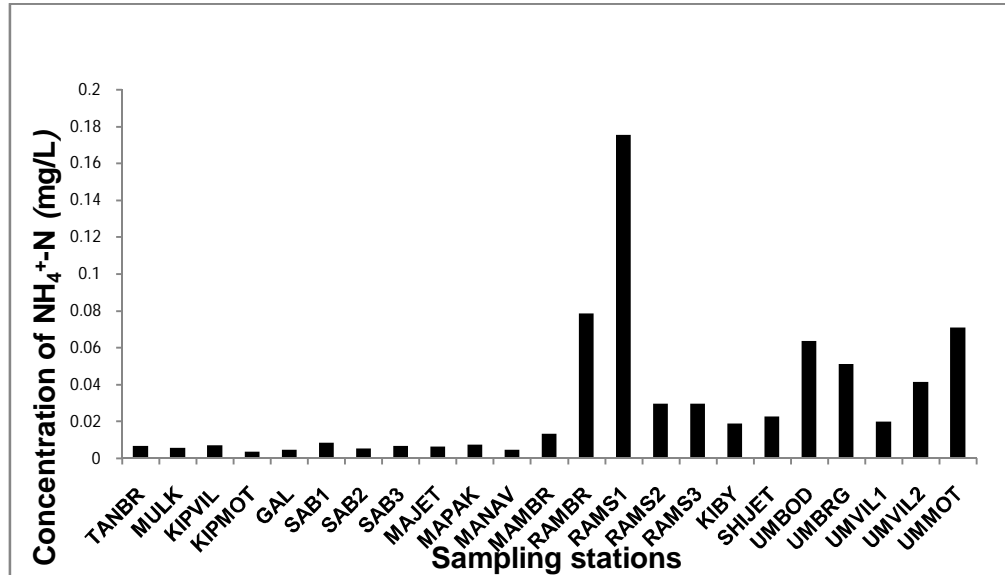


Figure 2. Mean $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ (mg/L) concentrations among the stations.

■ Levels of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$

TANBR= Tana Bridge, MULK= Mulkani, KPVIL= Kipini Village, KIPMOT= Kipini Mouth, GAL= Galana, SAB1= Sabaki 1, SAB2= Sabaki2, SAB3= Sabaki 3, MAJET= Malindi Jetty, MAPAK= Malindi Marine Park, MANAV= Malindi Navy, MAMBR= Mambroi, RAMBR= Ramisi Bridge, RAMS1= Ramisi 1, RAMS2= Ramisi 2, RAMS3= Ramisi 3, KIBY= Kibuyuni, SHIJET= Shimoni Jetty, UMBOD= Umba Border, UMBRG= Umba Bridge, UMVIL1= Umba Village 1, UMVIL2= Umba Village 2, UMMOT= Umba Mouth.

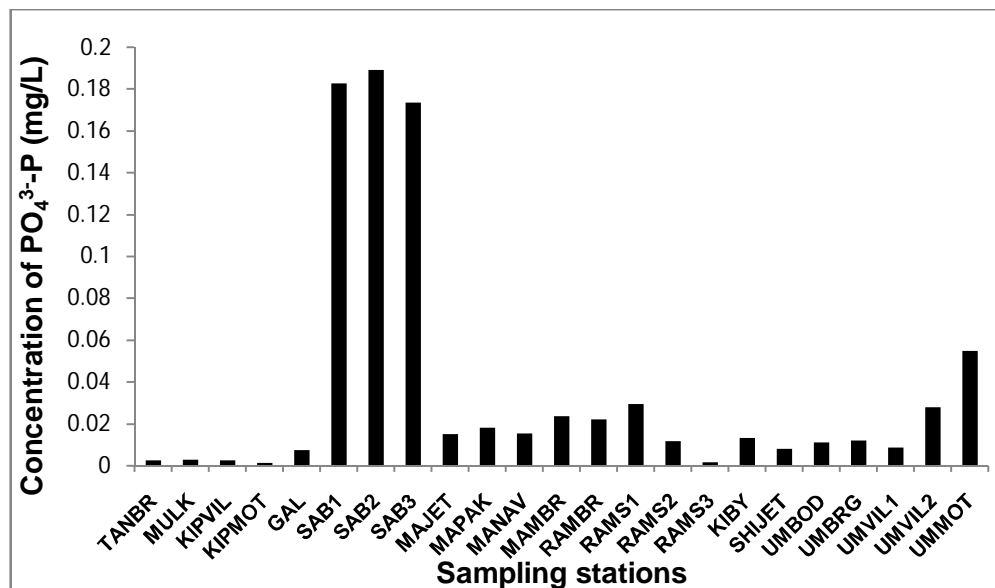


Figure 3. Mean $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ (mg/L) concentrations among the stations.

■ Levels of $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$

TANBR= Tana Bridge, MULK= Mulkani, KPVIL= Kipini Village, KIPMOT= Kipini Mouth, GAL= Galana, SAB1= Sabaki 1, SAB2= Sabaki2, SAB3= Sabaki 3, MAJET= Malindi Jetty, MAPAK= Malindi Marine Park, MANAV= Malindi Navy, MAMBR= Mambroi, RAMBR= Ramisi Bridge, RAMS1= Ramisi 1, RAMS2= Ramisi 2, RAMS3= Ramisi 3, KIBY= Kibuyuni, SHIJET= Shimoni Jetty, UMBOD= Umba Border, UMBRG= Umba Bridge, UMVIL1= Umba Village 1, UMVIL2= Umba Village 2, UMMOT= Umba Mouth.

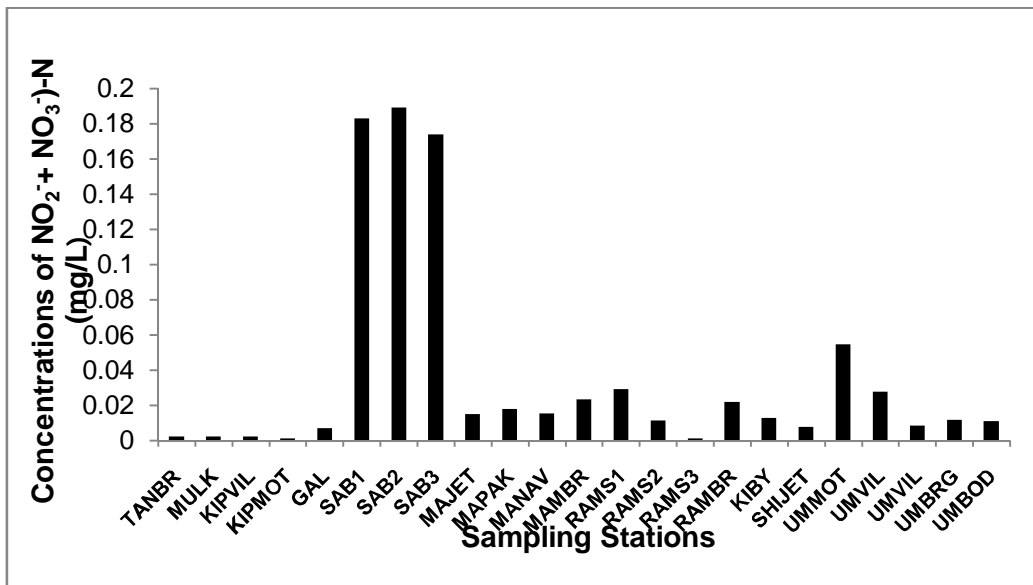


Figure 4. Comparison of (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N (mg/L) between stations.

■ (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻)-N

TANBR= Tana Bridge, MULK= Mulkani, KPVIL= Kipini Village, KIPMOT= Kipini Mouth, GAL= Galana, SAB1= Sabaki 1, SAB2= Sabaki2, SAB3= Sabaki 3, MAJET= Malindi Jetty, MAPAK= Malindi Marine Park, MANAV= Malindi Navy, MAMBR= Mambri, RAMBR= Ramisi Bridge, RAMS1= Ramisi 1, RAMS2= Ramisi 2, RAMS3= Ramisi 3, KIBY= Kibuyuni, SHIJET= Shimoni Jetty, UMBOD= Umba Border, UMBRG= Umba Bridge, UMVIL1= Umba Village 1, UMVIL2= Umba Village 2, UMMOT= Umba Mouth.

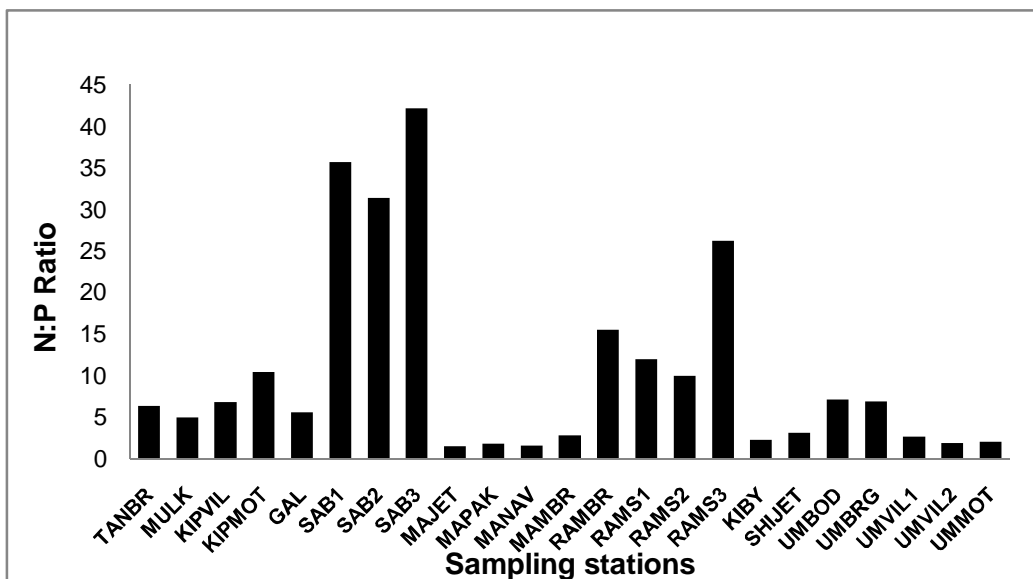


Figure 5. Comparison of N: P Ratio between stations.

■ N:P Ratio

TANBR= Tana Bridge, MULK= Mulkani, KPVIL= Kipini Village, KIPMOT= Kipini Mouth, GAL= Galana, SAB1= Sabaki 1, SAB2= Sabaki2, SAB3= Sabaki 3, MAJET= Malindi Jetty, MAPAK= Malindi Marine Park, MANAV= Malindi Navy, MAMBR= Mambri, RAMBR= Ramisi Bridge, RAMS1= Ramisi 1, RAMS2= Ramisi 2, RAMS3= Ramisi 3, KIBY= Kibuyuni, SHIJET= Shimoni Jetty, UMBOD= Umba Border, UMBRG= Umba Bridge, UMVIL1= Umba Village 1, UMVIL2= Umba Village 2, UMMOT= Umba Mouth.

nutrients from the agriculturally active catchment of the Sabaki system and sewage input in Athi River that joins Sabaki river. Even though Sabaki and Tana systems could be assumed to be having catchments of almost similar attributes in terms of agricultural perturbations, the results of this study suggest that the two rivers could be having distinct catchments and therefore different levels or types of disturbances or possibly different responses to pollutants. This observation is explainable by the fact that unlike the Sabaki system that does not have reservoirs on its course, in the Tana system, there are a number of dams which form the Seven Folks Dams Scheme. Dams are known to facilitate the settling of suspended matter with the adsorbed nutrients (Rosenburg *et.al.*, 2000) thus reducing sediments and nutrients transport downstream.

The N:P ratio of less than 10 recorded at the upstream of Sabaki system implies a short-term N limitation. The observed general increasing pattern of N:P ratio downstream for all the estuarine systems could be attributed to increasing sedimentation and subsequent remineralisation and ammonification processes as well as continuous uptake of $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ by algae.

The declining pattern of nutrient levels down the estuary could probably be as a result of tidal dilution and phytoplankton uptake as observed elsewhere by Mallin, (2007). Sedimentation of the suspended matter with the adsorbed nutrients could have partly been responsible for reduction of nutrients down the estuaries given that sediments have a higher affinity for nutrients as compared to the water compartment (Wetzel, 2001). The settling down of suspended matter continues as the river water travels down the estuary and eventually into the sea. The conditions of reduced turbidity in lower estuarine stations promote primary productivity depicted with increased Chl a concentrations downstream.

Conclusion

The study has shown that the Sabaki and Tana systems transport significantly high amounts of sediments and nutrients compared to the other Kenyan rivers draining into the Indian Ocean. This study therefore recommends that measures be taken to reduce erosion and transport of sediments (with adsorbed nutrients) and any other sources of nutrients (i.e sewage inputs).

The increasing trend of nutrients down the estuarine systems of R. Uмба and R. Ramisi as compared to R. Tana and R. Sabaki systems could be attributed to nutrients cycling in the adjacent mangrove ecosystems. Further studies should be carried out to investigate in-depth mechanisms of nutrients cycling in these systems.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was funded through the International Atomic

Energy Agency (RAF 7008 Project), WIOMSA funded MASMA Cholera project and KMFRI SEED research fund. The authors are grateful to the directors of the funding institutions through their respective directors for the support rendered. We also owe a lot of gratitude to KMFRI support staff who contributed to the success of this study in many ways.

REFERENCES

- Anderson DM (1989). Toxic algal blooms and red tides: A global perspective. In: Okaichi T, Anderson DM, Nemoto T (Eds.) Red Tides: Biology, Environment Science and Toxicology, New York, Elsevier, pp 11- 16.
- Anderson DM, Gilbert PM, Burkholder JM (2002). Harmful algal blooms and eutrophication: nutrient sources, composition and consequences. *Estuaries*. 25: 562–584.
- APHA (1992). American Public Health Association. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water, 18th ed. APHA, Washington, DC.
- APHA (1995). Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water (19th Edition). American Public Health Association, Washington DC.
- Beusekom van JEE, Jonge de VN (1998). Retention of phosphorus and nitrogen in the Ems estuary. *Estuaries*, 21(4A): 527-539.
- Bhatnagar A, Sangwan P (2009). Impact of Mass Bathing on Water Quality. *Int. J. Environ. Res.*, 3(2): 247-252.
- Boyer JN, Christopher RK, Peter BO, Rudnick DT (2008). Phytoplankton bloom status: Chlorophyll a biomass as an indicator of water quality condition in the southern estuaries of Florida, USA. In Muller F (Ed.) (2009). *Ecological Indicators 9*. New York, Elsevier, pp 56- 67.
- Clark RB, Frid C, Attrill M (2001). *Marine pollution*. 5th ed. Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp 1-145.
- Correll DL (1998). The role of phosphorus in the eutrophication of receiving waters: A review. *J. Environ. Qual.* 27: 261-266.
- De Jonge VN, Elliot M, Orive E (2002). Causes, historical development, effects, and future challenges of a common environmental problem: Eutrophication. In: Orive E (Ed.), *Nutrients and eutrophication in estuaries and coastal waters*. Developments in Hydrology. Kluwer Academic., Dordrecht, the Netherlands, pp. 1-19.
- Dettmann EH (2001). Effect of water residence time on annual export and de-nitrification of nitrogen in estuaries: A model analysis. *Estuaries*, 24(4): 481-490.
- Eppley RW, Coatsworth JL, Solorzano L (1969). Studies of nitrate reductase in marine phytoplankton. *Limnol. Oceanography*. 14: 194-205.
- Eyre BD, Glud RN, Patten NO (2008). Mass coral spawning: A natural large-scale nutrient addition experiment. *Limnol. Oceanogr*, 53(3): 997-1013.
- Furnas MJ, Mitchell A W, Gilmartin M, Revelante N

- (1990). Phytoplankton biomass and primary production in semi-enclosed reef lagoons of the central Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Coral Reefs*. 9:1–10.
- Gilbert PM, Burkholder M (2006). The complex relationships between increasing fertilization of the Earth, coastal eutrophication, and HAB proliferation. In: Granéli E, Turner J, (Eds.), *The Ecology of Harmful Algae*. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 341–354.
- Hakanson L, Bryhn AC, Blenckner T (2007). Operational effect variables and functional ecosystem classifications- a review on empirical models for aquatic systems along a salinity gradient. *Int. Rev. Hydrobiol.* 92: 326–357.
- Hallegraeff GM (1993). A review of harmful algal blooms and their apparent global increase. *Phycologia*. 32 :79.
- Heisler J, Gliber PM, Burkholder JM, Anderson D M, Cochlan W, Dennison WC, Dortch Q, Gobler C J, Heil CA, Humphries E, Lewitus A, Magnien R, Marshall HG, Sellner K, Stockwell DA, Stoecker DK, Suddleson M (2008). Eutrophication and harmful algal blooms: A scientific consensus. *Harmful. Algae*. doi:10.1016/j.hal.2008.08.006.
- Kuwae T, Hosokawa Y, Eguchi N (1998). Dissolved inorganic nitrogen cycling in Banzu intertidal sand-flat, Japan. *Mangroves and Salt Marshes*. 2: 167–175.
- Looser R, Froescheis O, Cailliet GM, Jarman WM, Ballschmitter K (2000). The deep-sea as a final global sink of semi volatile persistent organic pollutants, Part II: organochlorine pesticides in surface and deep-sea dwelling fish of the North Atlantic and South Atlantic and the Monterey Bay Canyon (California). *Chemosphere*. 40: 661-670.
- Kitheka JU, Mwashote BM, Ohowa BO, Kamau, J (1999). Water circulation, groundwater outflow and nutrient dynamics in Mida creek, Kenya. *Mangroves and Salt Marshes*. 3:135-146.
- Mallin MA, Cahoon L B, Toothman BR, Parsons DC, McIver MR, Ortwine ML, Harrington RN. (2007). Impacts of a raw sewage spill on water and sediment quality in an urbanized estuary. *Mar. Poll. Bull.* 54: 81-88.
- McAuliffe TF, Lukatelich RJ, McComb AJ, Qiu S (1998). Nitrate applications to control phosphorus release from sediments of a shallow eutrophic estuary: an experimental evaluation. *Mar. Freshwater. Res.*, 49(6): 463-473.
- McKee LJ, Eyre BD, Hossain S (2000). Transport and retention of nitrogen and phosphorus in the sub-tropical Richmond River estuary, Australia - a budget approach. *Biogeochemistry*. 50 (3): 241-278.
- Meybeck M (1982). Carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus transport by World Rivers. *Lab. de Geologie, Ecole Normale Superieure, Paris, France. Am. J. Sci.*, 282(4): 401-450.
- Miller GT (1985). *Living in the Environment: An Introduction to Environmental Science* (4thed), Wadsworth Publishing Co, pp 64.
- Millie DF, Weckman G R, Paerl HW, Pinckney JL, Bendis BJ, Pigg RJ, Fahnenstiel GL (2006). Neural net modeling of estuarine indicators: hindcasting phytoplankton biomass and net ecosystem production in the Neuse (North Carolina) and Trout (Florida) Rivers USA. *Ecol. Indic.* 6: 589-608.
- Milliman JD, Xie Q, Yang Z (1984). Transfer of particulate organic carbon and nitrogen from the Yangtze River to the ocean. *Am. J. Sci.*, 284(7): 824-834.
- Noel MH, Watanabe M (2000). Importance of the sediment interface in the nutrient status of the East China Sea at the mouth of the Changjiang River. *Research Report from the National Institute for Environmental Studies, Japan* 151:159-167.
- Ohowa BO (1996). Seasonal variations of the nutrient fluxes into the Indian Ocean from the Sabaki River, Kenya. *Discov. Innovat.* 8(3): 265-274.
- Palanisamy S, Neelamani S, Yu-Hwan A, Ligy P, Gi-Hoon H (2007). Assessment of the levels of coastal marine pollution of Chennai City, Southern India. *Water. Resour. Manag.* 21: 1187-1206 .
- Parsons TR, Maita Y, Lalli CM (1984). *A manual of chemical and biological methods for sea water analysis*. Pergamon Press. pp 173.
- Roman CT, Jaworski N, Short FT, Findlay S, Warren RS (2000). Estuaries of the northeastern United States: Habitat and land use signatures. *Estuaries*. 23(6): 743- 764.
- Rosenburg MD, McCully P, Pringle MC (2000). Global-Scale Environmental Effects of Hydrological Alterations. *Ices Mar Sci*, 50(9): 747-750.
- Seitzinger SP, Harrison JA, Dumont E, Beusen A HW, Bouman AF (2005). Sources and delivery of carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus to the coastal zone: an overview of Global Nutrient Export from Watersheds (NEWS) models and their application. *Global. Biogeochem. Cy.* 19: 1-2.
- Smayda TJ (1990). Novel and nuisance phytoplankton blooms in the sea: Evidence for a global epidemic. in: Granéli, E.; Sundstrom, B.; Edler, L.; Anderson, D. M., (Eds.), *Toxic Marine Phytoplankton*. Elsevier Science Inc., New York, pp 29-40.
- Smayda TJ (1997). Harmful phytoplankton blooms: their ecophysiology and general relevance. *Limnol. Oceanogr.*, 42: 1137-1153 .
- Stiller M, Nissenbaum A (1999). Geochemical investigation of phosphorus and nitrogen in the hypersaline Dead Sea. *Geochim.Cosmochim.Ac.Acta.* 63(19-20): 3467-3475).
- Subramanian BR (1999). Status of marine pollution of India. In *Proceeding of Indo-British integrated coastal zone management training short-course* conducted by Institute for Ocean Management, Anna University.
- UNEP (2006). *The state of the marine environment-trends and processes*. United Nations Environment

Programme and the Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities (GPA) of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), The Hague, pp 52.

Wetzel RG (2001). *Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems*. 3rd ed. Academic Press, San Diego, pp 1006.

Zhou H, Cheng J, Pan J, Wang H, Jin M, Saito Y, Kanai Y (2000). On sedimentation of phosphorus in specified area outside of Changjiang Estuary. Research Report from the National Institute for Environmental Studies, Japan 151: 59-65.