

Seasonal Variations of Microplastics in River Sabaki Estuary Surface Waters in Kenya

Abstract

Increased demand for plastics has resulted in the generation of plastic waste, which poses a threat to the environment in general, and ultimately the marine environment. Estuaries and deltas are the main filters of marine ecosystem pollutants from inland sources. There have been limited studies on temporal variations in microplastic (MP) pollutants in tropical estuaries of Africa. In 2022, a twelve-month sampling survey study was conducted in Sabaki river estuary, in Kenya. The results indicated that the April-June (A-J) long rains season had significantly ($P \leq 0.05$) higher levels of MPs compared to other seasons, namely January–March (J-M), July-October (J-O) and November–December (N-D). The (J-M), (J-O) and (N-D) seasons had similar levels of MPs, which were lower compared to those observed during (A-J) long rains season by 44.3%, 54% and 25% respectively, compared to the highest concentration of 264 MPs m^{-3} observed during the A-J season. Fragments type of MPs were higher during the wet season, while fiber type of MPs dominated during the dry season. Film and form type of MPs were least abundant. Seasons significantly ($P \leq 0.05$) influenced distribution of the different sizes of MPs. Small and medium sized category of MPs occurred and dominated during the dry season, while larger particles dominated during the wet season. Seven (7) differently colored MPs were observed during the study. White colored MPs were most prevalent (33%), followed by blue (23%), black (17%), brown (12%), yellow (5%), red (5%), and green (4%). Five types of plastic polymers were found in surface waters of river Sabaki estuary, namely polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET), and Acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS).

Key words: Micro-plastics, types, polymers, estuary.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Plastic pollution and climate change are among the leading threats of our environment. Plastic products consume about 10% of global oil production, generating about 381 million tonnes of plastics annually. This is projected to quadruple by the year 2050 [1]. Generation of plastic wastes, coupled with poor waste management, has led to accumulation of plastic wastes in terrestrial and marine environments [2][3][4]. Of the 6,300 million tons of plastics ever produced, 79% are still in landfills and dumps sites, while about 12% have been incinerated, and only 9% have undergone recycling [5]. In Kenya, over 92% of plastic waste generated is mismanaged, and only 8% is collected for recycling [6]. Exposure of plastics to various weathering agents and processes such as ultra-violet (UV) light radiation results in fragmentation of these plastics into different sizes. These sizes include: mega (> 1m), macro (25-1000mm), meso (5-25mm), micro (< 5mm) and nano (< 1 μm) particles [7]. Among these categories, micro-plastics (MPs) are the

most abundant in the environment. Micro plastics (MPs) resulting from weathering process, are designated as secondary sourced MPs. However, there are purposefully produced MPs that are used as feed-stock for molding plastic items, air blasting in cleaning of surfaces and/or abrasives incorporated in body care products. These intentionally produced MPs such as nurdles, pellets, powders, and industrial scrubbers are denoted as primary MPs. Intentional use and accidental loss of primary MPs contributes to MPs pollution in the environment[8].

About 10 million tonnes of plastics leak into the ocean each year. Currently, over 5,250 billion plastic particles are found in the marine environment, of which about 80 % emanates from inland sources. Micro-plastics are distributed in all aquatic compartments including sediments, seabed, riverbanks, water columns and surface waters[8]. Negative impacts associated with plastic pollution in aquatic ecosystems include: ingestion by aquatic organisms, release of toxic chemicals, and introduction of invasive and alien species [8], while socio-economic hazards of MPs and plastic pollution include: reduced cultural and aesthetic values of aquatic ecosystems and loss of income from fishing, aquaculture and tourism [9]. Organisms living in aquatic ecosystems confuse MPs for their natural food, thereby ingesting MPs that results in physical abrasion and/or obstruction of the gastrointestinal tract, leading to reduced food intake[10] [11] [12]. In addition, MPs have large surface area to volume ratio, and may adsorb toxic chemicals from polluted waters, especially in estuaries [13]. Consumption of toxins-laden MPs negatively affects physiological functions of the organisms with such effects as impairment of neurocognitive and cardiovascular systems. This compromises the immune system, fecundity, hormonal balance, memory and behavior of the organism [11]. Bio-magnification of these toxins among the higher trophic level predators which includes humans, has raised food safety concerns, especially among seafood consumers[14].

Rivers are the main sources of land sourced marine plastic pollution, as they receive runoff and effluent from their catchments[15]. However, in estuaries and deltas, the velocity of the waters decreases as a result of reduced gradient and interactions of fluvial flow with marine waters. The sluggishly flowing waters enhance MPs flocculation and biofouling, thus increasing MPs density and sedimentation. Ebb currents, coupled with fluvial flow result in flushing out of the MPs into the ocean. Therefore, estuaries may act as temporary storage or/and permanent burial sites for MPs[16]. There has been limited studies and documentation on temporal variation of MPs pollution in tropical estuaries of Africa, despite their variability. It is in this regard that it was found necessary to assess variation of plastic pollution in Sabaki river estuary, given that it is the most polluted river in Kenya, and it discharges its water in Ungwana bay, a rich fishing ground in Kenyan coastal marine waters[17][18] [15].

2.0 RESEARCH METHODS

2.1 Description of study site

Athi–Galana–Sabaki River is the second longest permanent river in Kenya after the Tana River, and flows toward Southern-Eastern Kenya, discharging its waters into the Indian Ocean just north of Malindi. The river catchment extends from Aberdare ranges in Central Kenya to the Northern slopes of Mt. Kilimanjaro. The total length of the river is about 390 km, with a drainage basin of about 69,930 km². The catchment covers about 12% of the land in Kenya, and generates 4% of runoff in the country. The river flow rate ranges between 0.5 m³s⁻¹ - 49 m³s⁻¹, with discharge rate of about 380- 600 m³s⁻¹ during March-June long rains season, and about 60-80 m³s⁻¹ during the short-rains [18].

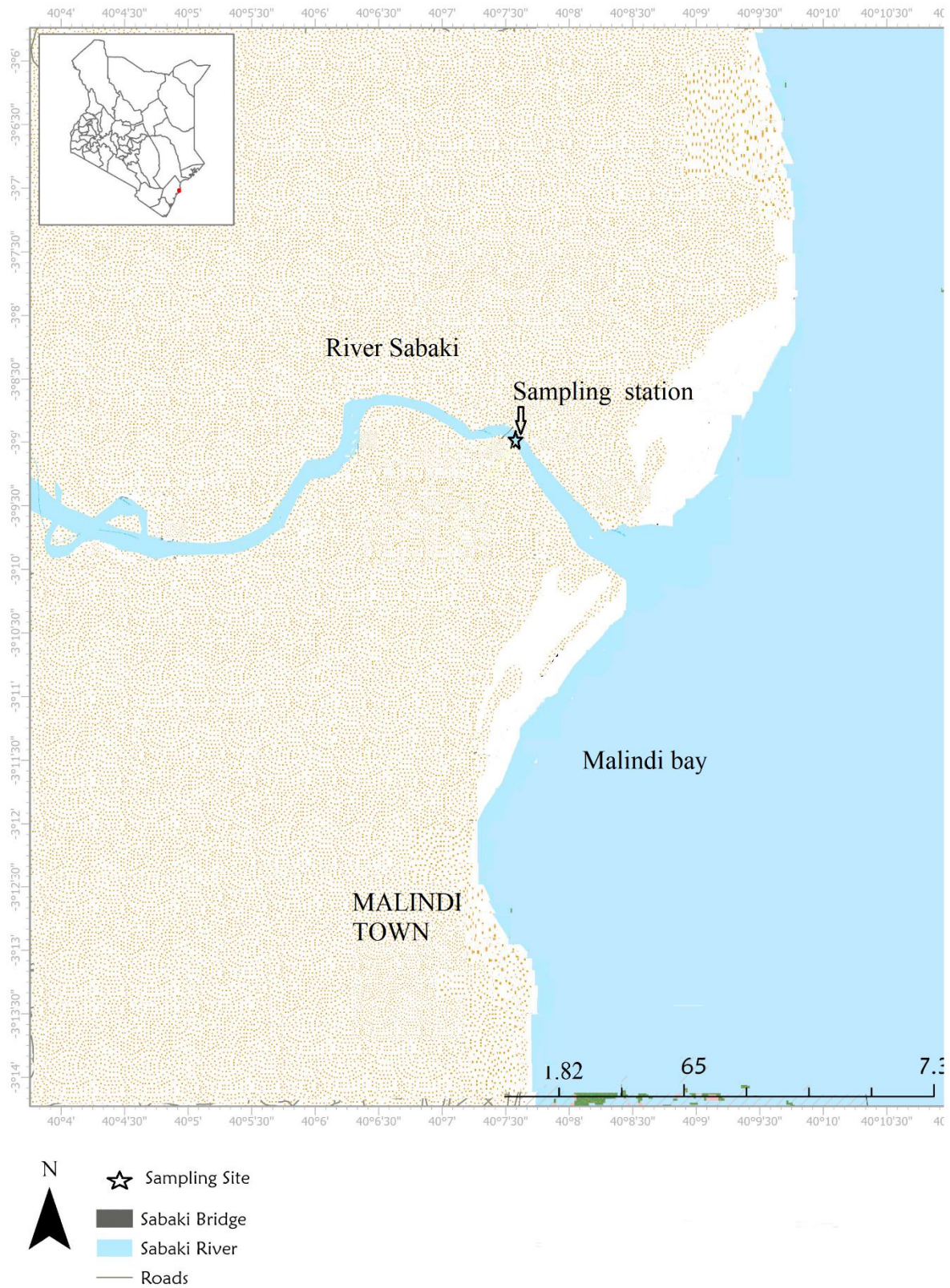


Figure 1: Map of the study area and location of the sampling station

Sabaki estuary is located at longitude: 3.2°S and latitude 40.15° E, about 10 Km North of Malindi town and it discharges its waters at Malindi Bay (Figure 1). In its upper region, the Sabaki estuary measures between 250 to 300m wide, but widens to about 750 to 1000m at river mouth, within a short distance of 2.5 Km.

2.3 Study period

Seasons within the River Sabaki estuary are well defined by the catchment rainfall pattern. Thus, data collected from Barichoriver gauge of Sabaki river, for the year 2022 was used to categorize the dry and wet seasons. The two dry seasons were experienced between January-March (J-M) and July-October (J-O) respectively, while the long and short rains seasons were experienced between April-June (A-J) and November- December (N-D), respectively.

2.4 Water sampling

Sampling of water was done from January to December 2022 (12 months). The samples were collected during low tides, to avoid sampling ocean salty waters. A 10-liter steel bucket was used to draw the water for sampling, and 100 liters of this water was sieved onsite, through a 225µm steel sieve, as described by Cox. The filtrates were then washed into glass jugs using ultra-filtered water, and the jugs closed using a metallic lid. In laboratory, samples were filtered through Whatman filter paper (0.7µm nominal). After filtration, the filter papers were submerged in glass jug containing 10 % Potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution for 24 hours, to digest the organic materials, and then oven dried for 3 hours at 40° C. MPs from each filter paper were identified and counted using a microscope, and their polymers confirmed using FTIR [11]. A total of 1,574 MPs particles were extracted from surface waters and a sub-sample randomly selected for ATR-FTIR analysis.

3.0 RESULTS

3.1 Abundance of MPs in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

For quality control, MPs contamination that occurred during fields sampling was about 0.003% MPs of particles collected from a container left open during sampling and about 0.001% MPs, of particles collected during laboratories operation. This contamination was considered negligible during the quantification of MPs in the water and sediment samples from river Sabaki estuary. Considering seasonal variations of MPs, two peaks of abundance of MPs were observed. The first peak occurred between the months of April to June (the long rain season), while the lower peak occurred during the months of November to December (the short rain season) (Table 1).

Table 1: Seasonal variation of MPs in surface waters of river Sabaki estuary

Season	Concentration of MPs particles /m ³
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J-M Dry	147.33b
A-J Wet	264a
J-O Dry	119.75b
N-D Wet	196.5ab
Mean	181.9
P-Value	0.024

Means with the same letter in the same column are not significantly different at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Between these two peaks there were low levels of MPs in surface waters observed during the dry seasons (J-M and A-O). In river Sabaki basin there are two main seasons that were considered to influence the abundance of MPs in surface waters of the estuary. The findings indicated that seasons had significant effect on abundance of MPs in surface waters ($P \leq 0.05$) (Table 1). The A-J long rain season had significantly ($P \leq 0.05$) higher levels of MPs compared to other seasons, namely J-M, J-O, and N-D that had similar levels of MPs (Table 1). During J-M, J-O, and N-D seasons, abundance of MPs was lower by 44.3%, 54% and 25% respectively, from the highest concentration of 264 MPs m^{-3} observed during the A-J season.

3.2 Types of MPs in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

The following characteristics of MPs found in surface waters were investigated: type, shape, size, color and polymer composition. The types of MPs found in river Sabaki estuary surface waters were categorized as: fragments, foam, filaments and fiber based on their morphology. All types of MPs namely, fiber, film, foam, and fragments were found during all the four seasons (J-M, A-M, J-O and N-D) (Figure 2).

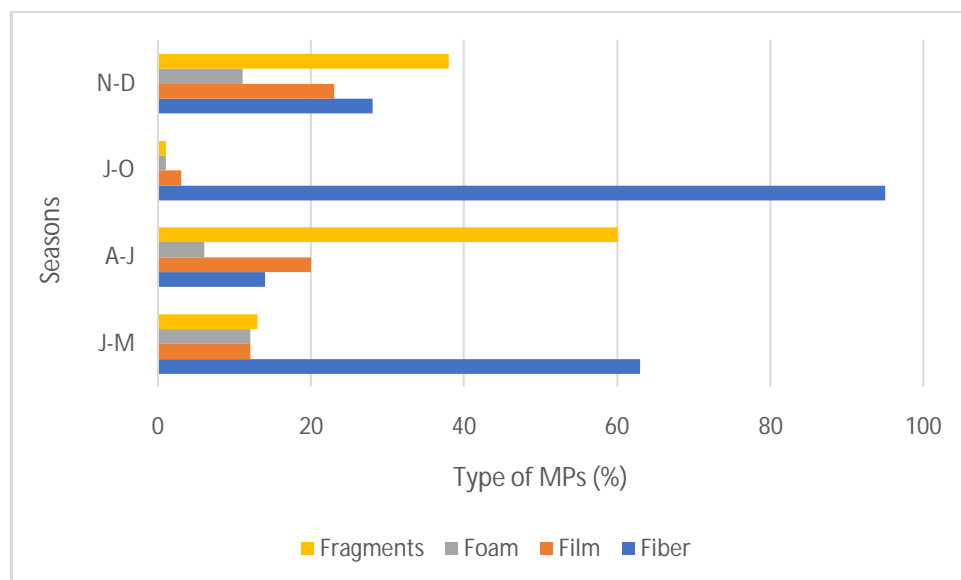


Figure 2: Distribution of type of MPs in J-M, A-J, J-O and N-D seasons

During the J-Mdry seasons, the hierarchal order of MPs-types found in surface waters was: Fiber (63%), film (13%), fragments (12%) and foam (12%), respectively. During the J-O dry season, the order was: fiber (90%), fragments (3%), foam (1%) and film (1%), respectively (Figure 2). During the A-Jlong rains, the order from the most abundant to the least abundant MPs-type was; fragments (60%), film(20%), fiber(14%) and foam (6%). During the N-Dshort rains, the study revealed that fragments (at 38%) were the most abundant followed by fiber (28%), film(23%) and foam (11%), indicating that fragments were higher during the wet season, and fibers were dominant type of MPs during the dry season, while form and film were least abundant (Figure 2).

3.3 Seasonal distribution of MPssizes in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

The results showed significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$) in seasonal distribution of 2000-3500 μm size, category of MPs (Table 2).However, seasons had no significant influence on distribution of $\leq 2000\mu\text{m}$ and 3500-5000 μm sizes of MPs (Table 2). MPs in the 2000-3500 μm category declined by 62.4%, 82.2%, and 18% during the J-M, J-A and N-D seasons, respectively, from the highest concentrations observed in A-J season of 96.3 MPs particles m^{-3} . Although, seasons had no significant influences in the distribution of $\leq 2000\mu\text{m}$ and 3500-5000 μm category of MP particles, there was a noticeable pattern in distribution of MPs particles in relation to seasons. Higher loads of small MPs of $\leq 2000\mu\text{m}$ increased by 36% during the J-M dry season, while larger MPs of 3500-5000 μm size category increased by 60% duringA-J wet season, indicating dominance of small sized MPs during the dry season, while larger particles dominated in the wet season (Table 2).

Table 2: Seasonal variations of MPs based on sizes

Season	Number of particle m ⁻³ / size category		
	≤2000μm (small)	2000-3500μm (small)	3500-5000μm (large)
J-M	87.8a	36.17ab	23.33a
A-J	55.5a	96.3a	82.8a
J-O	87.67a	17.17b	5.50a
N-D	81.8a	79.0ab	35.75a
P-Value	0.491	0.036	0.346

Means with the same letter in the same column are not significantly different at $\alpha = 0.05$

3.4 Colors of MPs in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

Seven (7) different colors of MPs particles were observed in the sampled MPs particles. White colored MPs were more prevalent, followed by blue, black, brown, yellow, red, and green, at 33%, 23%, 17%, 12%, 5%, 5% and 4%, respectively (Figure 3).

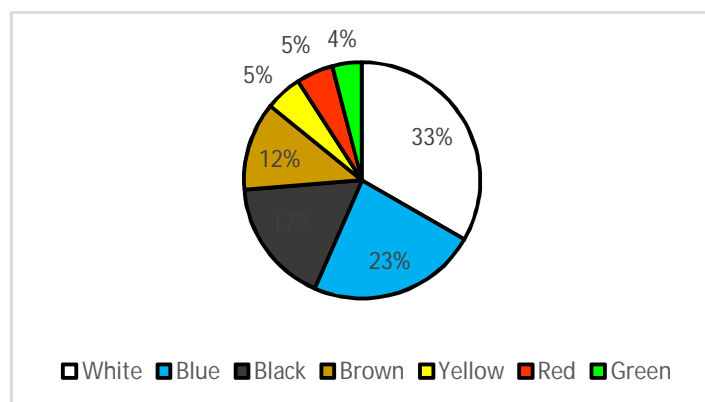


Figure 3: Percentages distribution MPs particles according to color in surface waters of river Sabaki estuary.

3.5 Types of MPs polymers in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

The results revealed five types of plastic polymers were found in surface waters of river Sabaki estuary, namely polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET), and Acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS) (Table 3).

Table 3: MPs polymer types found in surface water during wet and dry seasons

Polymer	% MPs polymer types per season				
	J-M	A-J	J-O	N-D	% Mean
PP	32.7	19	29	25	26.4%

PE	27.1	24	41	30	30.5%
PS	16.2	15	11	0	10.6%
PET	14.6	33	19	42	27.2%
ABS	9.4	9	0	3	5.4%
Total particles (Random selected)					100%

There was seasonal variation in frequencies of plastic polymers in surface waters (Table 3). During the J-M season, the order of most dominant to least abundant polymers was: PP (32.7%)>, PE (27.1%)>, PS (16.2 %)>, PET (14.6 %)> ABS (9.4 %). In A-J season, the order of frequency was; PP (19 %)>, PE (24%)>, PS (5 %)>, PET (33%)> ABS (9%), while J-O season, the order of frequency was PP (29%)>, PE (30%)>, PS (11%)>, PET (19 %) >, ABS (0%), and in N-D season, the order of frequency was PP (25 %)>, PE (30%)>, PS (0 %)>, PET (42%)>, ABS (3%) (Figure 4).

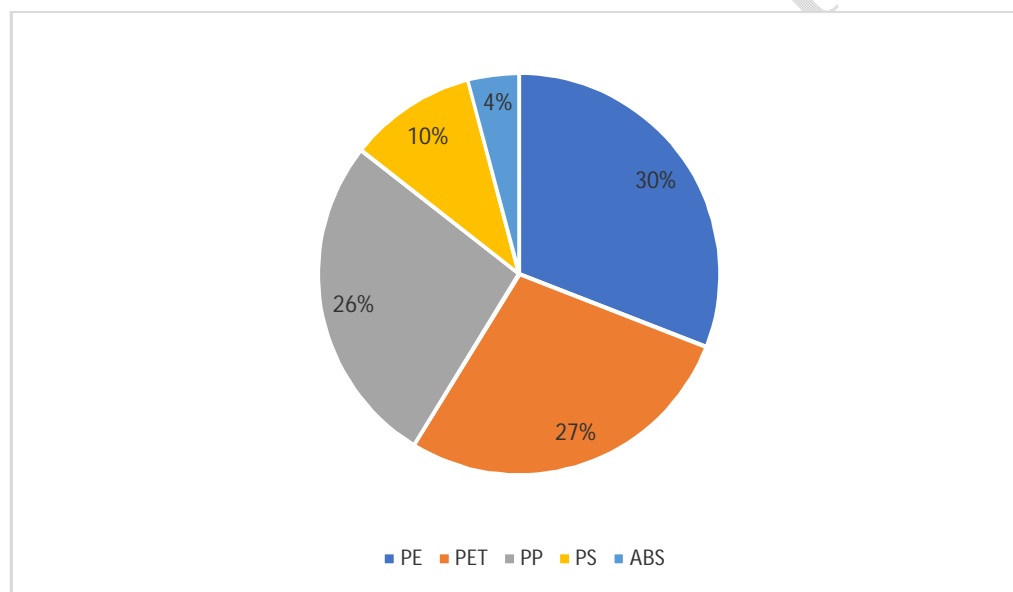


Figure 4: Pooled percentage seasonal means of MPs polymers

The order of mean percentage of MPs polymers observed in Sabaki river Surface waters was; Polyethylene (PE) (30%), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) (27%), polypropylene (PP) (26%), Polystyrene (PS) (10%), and Acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS) (4%) (Figure 4).

4.0 DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Abundance of MPs in river Sabaki surface waters

4.1.1 Seasonal distribution of MPs in surface waters

The findings of this study revealed that seasons significantly influenced abundance of MPs particles in the surface waters of river Sabaki estuary. There were more MPs in the surface waters, during the rainy season than during the dry season. This suggests that rainfall runoff introduced MPs into the river. These observations are consistent with similar studies by Strady who reported positive correlations between river discharge and plastic loads during rainy seasons. Linked to increase of MPs in river during the rainy season was associated with increased capacity of floods to erode and mobilize MPs from the river catchment, and bursting of sewer systems that are a major source of MPs in Rivers [20]. During the long rains season, abundance of MPs increased 2.7 folds compared the low levels recorded during the short rains season and J-M and J-O dry seasons. Similar results have been reported by Hitchcock, who observed that floods increased level of MPs by 40-fold in Cooks estuary, Australia [21].

In comparison with other studies, the level of MPs observed in this study in river Sabaki surface waters were relatively low, ranging between 375-504 MP particles m^{-3} . Higher levels of 342.2 billion particles m^{-3} have been reported in Nakdong river in Hong Kong, Korea [22], while lower ranges of 6.3-160.1 items m^{-3} in surface waters have been reported in Bloukrans River, South Africa [23]. This suggests that river Sabaki estuary is moderately contaminated with MPs. This may have been attributed to a number of factors:

- i) The low per capita plastic consumption in Kenya of 0.03 kg per person per day (kg/ppd) as compared with other countries such as Sri Lanka at 5.0 kg/ppd, U.S.A at 2.59 kg/ppd, South Africa at 2.0 kg/ppd and China at 1.10 kg/ppd, that have high per capita plastic consumption and more abundance of MPs in their rivers [24].
- ii) Increased velocity of flowing water in rivers is associated with increased shear stress and turbulence that consequently suspends buried MP particles in sediments into surface waters. This phenomenon may have contributed to seasonal variation in MP particles observed in this study. River turbulence continuously suspends and fragments plastic debris into smaller MPs particles thereby increasing the levels of MP particles in the river surface waters [24]. Catchment characteristics namely human population density, solid waste and sewer management systems also influence the level of MPs loads entering rivers and estuaries during rainy seasons [25].
- iii) Considering the fact that coastal flooding is associated with storm surge, coastal flooding may suspend and transport buried MPs from near shore waters into proximate estuaries. This observation agrees with reports by and Zhao and Luca, who reported that tides have a role in creating temporal flushing and re-entrainment of MPs buried in riverbeds thereby increasing MP loads into river surface

waters[25] [26]. In contrast, Maozhou and Yellow rivers in China registered higher loads of MPs during the dry season, which was associated with reduced river flow [29]. This observation differs with observations in this study where the levels of MPs were noted to decrease during the dry season. This can be explained by the fact that rainfall runoff may initially introduce high levels of MPs particles into the river, but subsequently they get diluted by runoff[28]. Over 70% decline in MPs has been reported, after floods,[30] associated this decline to reduced plastics waste particles from dumps sites after prolonged rains.

4.1.2 Characteristics of MPs found in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

4.1.2.1 Seasonal distribution of MP types in river Sabaki surface waters

The study found seasonal variations in the types of MPs found in surface waters of Sabaki river estuary. These types of MPs were fiber, fragments, foam, and film. This suggests that MPs found in the estuary may have originated from different sources and propagated through various pathways, such as storm water runoff and effluent from domestic and upcountry waste water treatment plants (Wwtps). Occurrence of different types of MPs depends on catchment characteristics namely: hydrology, anthropogenic activities, and MPs physical properties[31]. The upper section of river Sabaki traverses Nairobi, Athi River and all the way to Voi town and Galana catchments and has both point and diffused sources of propagating MPs pollutants. During the rainy seasons, the main pathway of MPs getting propagated into a river is through runoff that collects MPs from dumpsites, agricultural farms and forests. However, during the dry season effluent discharged from residential areas, industries and waste water treatment plants are the main pathways and sources through which MPs get propagated into rivers.

Fiber type of MPs were also found in river Sabaki waters. Most fiber type of MPs originate from effluent from domestic laundry of synthetic clothing that may have been discharged through waste water treatment plants into river Sabaki. Discharge of effluent from Nairobi, Athi river, Voi and other peri-urban areas found along river Sabaki catchment towns, might have increased the levels of fiber type of MPs in the estuary. In addition, among the tributaries of Sabaki river is Nairobi river, that receives effluent from waste water treatment plant at Ruai. This waste water treatment plant is used to treat effluent from Nairobi City, which has a population of over 4.5 million people. Also, the Export processing zone (EPZ) at Athi River town manufactures apparels that are made of fiber. Effluent from these industries may contain fiber type of MPs that end up in Sabaki river. This may explain the source of high levels of fiber type of MPs found in river Sabaki estuary. According to Liliya, fiber is the most dominant type of MPs in waste water treatment plant effluent at 62%, followed by film (31%), fragment (6.7%) and beads (0.6%) [33]. Waste water treatment plants have an efficiency of 70-90% in reducing fiber types of MPs in the effluent. Thus, inefficiency of waste water treatment plants along river Sabaki to remove fiber type of MPs might have contributed to their propagation into the river [34].

The study revealed presence of fragments type of MPs in Sabaki estuary surface waters. This suggests that the fragments type of MPs found in the estuary may have originated from dump sites that handle

municipal solid wastes from residential areas, including plastic containers such as water bottles. These observations are in agreement with those made by Chen, and Schmid, who linked presence of fragments type of MPs in estuaries to collection, fragmentation and transportation of plastic waste into rivers, by storm waters especially during the flooding seasons [33] [35] and [36].

Film type of MPs were found in river Sabaki waters. These types of MPs may have been propagated into the river through runoff originated from agricultural farms that use plastic bags (made from vinyl polymer) [26] and [32]. These vinyl plastic bags were probably used for bagging farm inputs such as fertilizers and agricultural farm produce along river Sabaki catchment areas. The heterogeneity of these types of MPs increases their bioavailability posing a wider range of risks to estuarine species [37]. According to Ziajahromi small types of MPs such as fibers pose a higher threat to aquatic organisms than fragments, films and micro beads, since fibers may end up coiling into clumps, blocking the gastrointestinal track, while large and irregular shaped MP particles induce physical damage as they move along the gastrointestinal tract [38]. Equally, MPs texture, hydrophobicity and chemical additives influences biofilm formation, while irregularly surfaced MPs provides more points for attachment and colonization by microbes. These factors may increase MPs density and enhance their sinking into sediments thereby reducing levels of MPs in surface waters [39].

4.1.2.2 Sizes of MPs in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

MPs of all sizes were found in all surface water samples during the four seasons of the study. Large sized MP particles of 3500-5000 μ m dominated Sabaki river estuary during the rainy season, while smaller sized MP particles of \leq 2000 μ m dominated during the dry seasons. This suggests that seasonal rainfall patterns influenced dominant size of MPs found in the river. This observation agrees with similar findings by Geyer, who positively correlated occurrence of larger MPs particles with wet seasons, and attributed their increase energy of the river water during the wet season, and therefore larger plastic particles are easily mobilization and broken down by the river flow depending on its geomorphology [40].

4.1.2.3 Color of MPs in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

Different colored MPs particles were found in river Sabaki estuary. This suggests that MPs found in the estuary may have originated from commonly used plastic items. Presence of various colors of MP particles indicates that they may have originated from fragments of larger plastic items found in the catchment areas [27]. The most prevalent colors of MPs found in surface waters of river Sabaki were white at 33% and blue at 23%, accounting for 56% of the total MPs. White and transparent colored MPs tend to be the most abundant type of MPs found in surface waters, while green was the least in abundance. Other studies have reported blue as the most abundant color in MPs particles found in estuaries surface waters [28].

Different colored MPs found in an estuary may be attributed to interaction of plastics and the environment. Estuary environmental conditions such as high temperatures and UV light affects the

physical and chemical properties of MPs, causing changes in their surface texture and structure. Exposure of plastic items to ultra violet radiation affects their color, and plastics with pigment of longer wavelength and lower lightness are resistant to UV radiation which slows down their rate of degradation[28]. Strongly pigmented plastics such as black colored plastic items limit light attenuation[25]. These UV resistant plastics are highly desired and recommended in production of plastic items and materials, explaining their abundance in the market. In contrast, light-pigmented plastics allow more light penetration, thereby enhancing their ageing and fragmentation, and eventual dominance in environmental pollution[41]. Changes in the color of MP particles can be used to assess the aging process of plastics and ecological health of an ecosystems[42]. Degradation of MPs by ultra violet (UV) light and staining by sediments may result in overlapping of colors of MPs, thus limiting classification of MPs based on color [24].

Plastic additives have been used to enhance plastic properties such as durability, appearance, density and tensile strength [27]. In this study blue, green, and other colored MPs were found at various levels of abundance. However, some of the additives used for pigmentation of plastics such as lead are toxic although they are used to produce bright colored plastics. These colored and toxin laden MPs may be mistaken for natural food by some visual predators, posing threats to aquatic organisms and health risks to humans consuming these aquatic organisms [40].

4.1.2.4 Types of MPs polymers in river Sabaki estuary surface waters

Six types of plastic polymers were present in the estuary in various proportions, namely Polyethylene (PE) (27%), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) (25%), Polystyrene (PP) (24%) and low-levels of Polystyrene (PS) (13%), and Acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS) (9%). This suggests that MPs polymers found in Sabaki river estuary are indicators of aging and breakdown of common plastic products. Globally, about 80% of plastics consist of polyethylene (PE) (both low and high density), polypropylene, polyvinyl chloride, polyurethane, polyester and polyethylene terephthalate. PE, PP and PS are the dominant plastic polymers in the environment, while ABS is among the least[27]. PE and PP were the most dominant polymers in Sabaki estuary [34]. PE and PP accounts for 50% in the plastic industry [43]. It is conceivable that the dominance of PE and PP in plastics used in every day human life, may be linked to their contribution in plastic waste [44]. In 2019, Japan Plastic Industrial Federation (JPIF) revealed that PE, PP, PS, PET, Nylon (PA) and (PVA) contributed 61.1% of total plastic production in Japan. PE, PP, PS, and PET constituted 65.2% of produced and consumed plastic items[44]. Five major plastic polymers (PE, PP, PS, PET, and PVC) accounted for most of municipal solid waste in Europe [44] [45]. In Kenya, PE and PP contributes most of the plastic waste [46]. PE are hard with low strength while PP is resistant to high temperatures (55-70°C) and relatively cheaper. These factors have contributed to their dominance in plastic industry which is also reflected in their contribution to plastics waste.

Considering plastic density, polyethene (PE) is the least dense, while polypropylene (PP), Polystyrene (PS), Polyamide (PA), are among the lighter polymers (Sun et al., 2020). PP and PE tend to float in water

owing to their low density and this may explain their dominance in estuary surface waters especially during rainy seasons [27]. Polypropylene (PP) has a density of 0.88-0.91 g cm⁻³ while polyethylene (PE) has a density of 0.93-0.98 gm⁻³ both of which have their densities being lower than that of sea water [47].

5.0 CONCLUSION

The surface waters were found to be more contaminated with MPs during the wet season than during the dry season. With regard to characteristics of MPs present in surface waters, fiber, films, fragments and foam types were the most dominant. While higher loads of larger MPs particles were present during the wet season, small sized particles dominated during the dry season. Five MPs polymers were found in the waters of river Sabaki estuary, namely PE, PP, PS, PET, and ABS. Different polymers polluted the Sabaki estuary, and to protect species living in such water bodies there is need for broad based plastic pollution mitigating measures in Kenya.

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