

1 **The Role of Anthropogenic Activities on Water Quality and River Restoration. A case of**
2 ***Monik River, Arusha-Tanzania***
3

4
5 **Abstract**

6 Rapid urbanization, agricultural expansion, and industrial development have intensified
7 pressure on the river's water resources, leading to elevated levels of pollutants. This study
8 investigates the impacts of anthropogenic activities on the physicochemical water quality
9 parameters in the Monik River in Arusha, Tanzania, and explores their implications for
10 sustainable water management, peace, and cooperation. Using field sampling from a total of 9
11 sampling points, water samples were collected at upstream, midpoint and downstream, 3
12 sampling sites from each point respectively. BOD, COD, phosphate, pH, EC, TDS, turbidity,
13 DO and nitrate were analysed at each sampling point. Anthropogenic activities around Monik
14 River were also documented. A multi parameter probe meter (HATCH HD401) was used to
15 measure pH, EC, TDS, turbidity, temperature, and DO while Turbidity was measured by
16 turbid meter (Wag-WT3020) in-situ. Nitrate and phosphate were determined from filtered
17 water samples using photometric method (HACH DR/2700). BOD and COD analysed using
18 bottle incubation method for five days (BOD incubator) and dichromate method (COD
19 digester) respectively. DO, nitrate, phosphate, pH, and turbidity found to be beyond the
20 permissible limit of international and National standards (WHO and TBS). EC, TDS,
21 temperature, COD, and BOD were within permissible limit of WHO and TBS. Observation
22 was used to analyze the anthropogenic activities which were presented
23 descriptively. Livestock keeping and deforestation are the dominant anthropogenic activities at
24 the upstream. The laboratory analysis, and spatial-temporal assessment, the research
25 highlights significant deviations from established water quality standards, raising concerns
26 about environmental health and resource conflicts. The findings underscore the critical need
27 for collaborative governance and community engagement to mitigate pollution sources,
28 promote sustainable use, and prevent potential conflicts over water resources. This study
29 emphasizes that safeguarding water quality through cooperative efforts, watershed
30 management using nature-based solutions that can serve as a catalyst for peace and regional
31 stability in water-scarce environments.

32 **Keywords:** *Anthropogenic activities; physicochemical water quality; Monik River; Arusha;*
33 *Tanzania*

34

35 **Introduction**

36 Anthropogenic activities driven by human needs and desires, can have significant impacts on
37 ecosystems, biodiversity, and the planet's overall health. They are human actions that modify
38 the natural environment, either directly or indirectly. When conducted along water sources,
39 anthropogenic activities are the major driver of environmental degradation (Glibert, 2020).
40 Agriculture and deforestation among others have put remarkable pressure on the ecological
41 conditions and sustainability of aquatic ecosystems. These activities have not only increased
42 the quantities of nutrients but also changed forms and percentage of nutrients to the
43 environment which leads to adverse effects on water quality (Doggart et al., 2020). It is
44 reported worldwide that there is proved correlation between increasing anthropogenic
45 activities and decreasing quality of receiving water sources (Akhtar et al., 2021; Sidabutar et
46 al., 2017). For example, the study by Liu et al., (2014) has shown that industrial activities on
47 urban stream water quality in China have tremendous changes of physico-chemical
48 parameters while a study by Anh et al., (2023) demonstrates the key factors on river water
49 quality in urban and rural areas accelerated by anthropogenic activities. In African context,
50 things are not different. A review study conducted to trace the condition of physicochemical
51 water quality parameters in Ethiopia showed that urban streams are highly impaired than
52 agricultural streams while forested streams have better water quality (Bakure et al., 2020). The
53 study by Chisanga et al., (2022) in Zambezi River in Zambia has shown that the
54 livestockkeeping cause severe impact on riparian ecosystem and water chemistry. Therefore,
55 the demand for river health assessment is becoming frequently.

56
57 Rivers are the most important freshwater resources for living organisms. However, the
58 problem affecting river system due to unsustainable anthropogenic activities has shown to
59 magnify over eastern Africa region. For example, in Kenya, increasing pressure for
60 agricultural land and human settlement has resulted to encroachment into water catchment
61 areas (Nyasulu et al., 2024). Several studies in Tanzania showed that industrial activities,
62 small-scale agriculture, and settlement near the river are the sources of heavy metals,
63 chemicals, and organic wastes from pit latrines to Msimbazi River in Dar-es-Salaam,
64 Ngerengere river in Morogoro, and Pangani River in Tanga City (Mbonaga et al., 2024).
65 Regular monitoring of water resources and management and conservation of rivers are
66 important for assessment of the impact of anthropogenic activities on water quality.

67
68 Monik River (MR), which is found in northern part of Tanzania, discharges its water in Lake
69 Natron Ramsar Site (LNRS). MR is among the reported rivers that experience water pollution
70 and interfere with the ecosystem services offered. Human activities taking place around
71 LNRS include agricultural activities, deforestation, and overgrazing that result in
72 eutrophication, acidification and sediment inflow, which consists of organics and trace metals
73 (Yona et al., 2023). As a result, MR shows ecosystem deterioration and a reduction of its
74 services. Lake Natron Ramsar Site (LNRS), which is located in East Africa, with catchments
75 including Monik, Pinyinyi, Ewaso Ngiro, and Ngare Sero (Rajabu et al., 2024).
76 Activities along the LNRS contribute to water pollution, reduce water quantity, oxygen for
77 aquatic species and pH, increase soil erosion, which contributes to the watershed degradation
78 and the breeding cycle of different animal species, including the common Flamingoes
79 (Sadikiel E. Kaale et al., 2024). While previous scholars came up with scientific findings of
80 significance to conservation and management of the site, there is still a knowledge gap on the

81 impacts of these anthropogenic activities conducted around the catchments of LNRS and the
82 MR water quality. Therefore, this study aimed to analyze the physicochemical water quality
83 parameters of water under anthropogenic activities at LNRS.

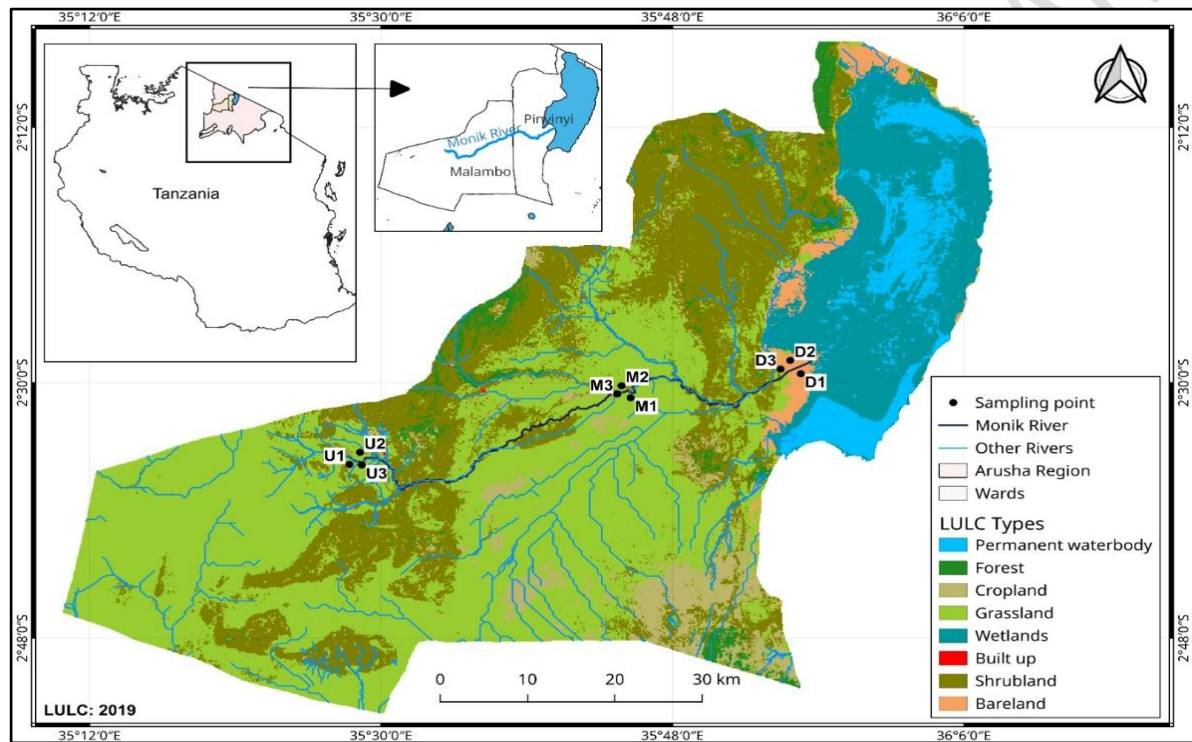
84

85 **Methodology**

86 This study was cross-sectional in nature, using quantitative data collection and analysis
87 method. The study was carried out at Monik River(MR) in Monik ward at Ngorongoro
88 district, Arusha, Tanzania. The whole catchment of LNRS covers approximately 7600km²
89 (Rajabu et al, 2024). This watershed is made up of four major rivers, namely the Ewaso Ngiro
90 River, Pinyinyi River, Ngaresero River, and Monik River (Mgimwa et al., 2021)(Figure 1).

91

92



94

95

Figure 1.A map of study area showing sampling points along the Monik River

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

As shown in Figure 1, the upstream points (U1, U2 and U3) located furthest from the river mouth and defined as a point where there was very minimal level of disturbance to water quality and used as the reference points. At the mid-section points of the river; M1, M2 and M3 are defined as the points where intensively agricultural activities, livestock keeping, bathing, washing, sand mining and water diversion take place. It is defined as agricultural points and it defined as a point with maximum disturbance. At the river mouth or downstream points D1, D2 and D3 are characterized as points with minimum disturbance due to minimal agricultural activities taking place but the area is susceptible to organic pollutants which lowered the level of dissolved oxygen in the river caused by the animal faeces washed away to the river during irrigation and rainfall.

106

107 **Data collection methods**

108 **Anthropogenic Activities performed along Lake Natron Ramsar Site**

109 Secondary data obtained from the government documents and a parallel similar study
110 previously conducted in the Lake Natron Ramsar site catchment area and reported by Rajabu
111 et al., (2024). In this study, observation was used to analyze the anthropogenic activities
112 which were descriptively presented.

113

114 **Water sampling**

115 Water sampling was carried out at the selected sampling locations categorized as upstream
116 (U), midstream (M) and downstream (D) of the river and recorded using the global
117 positioning system (GPS). Water samples were taken from 9 sampling sites, three from each
118 location during dry season (Sept-October, 2024) and during wet seasons (March-April, 2024).
119 Sampling was done weekly for three weeks in dry season and similarly repeated during the
120 rainy season, making the total of 54 samples.

121 Composite sampling technique was used to take water samples following the recommendation
122 by Golnick *et al.* (2016), collected in the labeled 1-litre plastic bottles which were prior rinsed
123 with distilled water, stored in a cool box at 4°C and transported immediately to the laboratory
124 of Arusha Technical College (ATC) for nitrate, COD, BOD and phosphate analysis.

125

126 **Analysis of Physicochemical Parameters**

127 On-site measurement was suggested for parameters that usually change over time due to
128 chemical reactions or biological changes (APHA 2022). Thus, water pH, EC, TDS, turbidity,
129 temperature and DO were measured in situ using a multiparameter probe meter (HATCH
130 HD401) and Turbidity by using a turbid meter (Wag-WT3020).

131

132 In the ATC laboratory, the samples were filtered using a 0.45µm size filter membrane. After
133 filtration, water samples were stored at 4 °C before analysis. Unfiltered water samples were
134 tested for alkalinity using the titrimetric method with 0.1N HCl and the results were expressed
135 as HCO_3^- (mg/l) as explained by APHA *et al.* (2022). NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} were determined from
136 filtered water samples using the photometric method (HACH DR/2700).

137

138 **Statistical Analysis**

140 The datasets were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test, in which a null hypothesis
141 that a variable is normally distributed was rejected if $p < 0.05$. Descriptive statistics were used
142 to refer to the basic features of the data and summarise variation in physicochemical water
143 parameters among sampling sites. A one-way t-test was used for seasonal variation of water
144 quality to determine whether the means of samples from two seasons are significantly different
145 at 95% confidence level. Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) was used in characterizing the
146 different sampling locations to assess the similarities and differences among them and identify
147 possible patterns and most polluted part of the river based on the measured parameters. All
148 analyses were performed by using PAST statistical software (version 4.03) unless otherwise
149 indicated.

150 The analyzed water quality parameter values were compared with the Tanzania drinking
151 water quality standard (2018) and the World Health Organization guideline (2018) for

152 drinking water for the compliance check with both national and international standards.
 153 Furthermore, the standards were used to categorize the status of the river as to guide the
 154 allowable required standard limits of each selected water parameter in Monik River.

155

156 **Results and discussion**

157 **Activities performed along the Monik River**

158 Livestock keeping and deforestation are the dominant activities at the upstream
 159 points. Herbicides, pesticides, industrial fertilizers, and animal wastes washed away to the
 160 river which also contributes to changes in water quality (Figure 2).

161

162

163

164

165

166



167 **Figure 2: Anthropogenic activities along Monic River**

168 **Seasonal Variation of Physicochemical Water Parameters**

169 The concentrations of physicochemical parameters were generally in the pattern of increasing
 170 to the midstream and decreasing to the downstream for both seasons as summarized in Table
 171 1.

172 **Table 1.** Concentration Mean and Standard Deviation values for measured physicochemical
 173 characteristics from three sampling points along Monik River during the dry and rainy seasons

	Dry season (n=27)			Rainy season (n=27)			WHO	TBS
	Upstream (Means±SD)	Midstream (Means±SD)	Downstream (Means±SD)	Upstream (Means±SD)	Midstream (Means±SD)	Downstream (Means±SD)		
Temp (°C)	20.24±0.22	20.36±0.26	20.29±0.24	18.91±0.26	19.04±0.26	18.93±0.30	20-25	20-25
DO (mg/L)	6.93±0.23	7.04±0.24	6.96±0.26	6.32±0.20	6.21±0.15	6.23±0.14	8-10	5-7
EC (µS/cm)	328.89±9.60	335.33±10.58	329.89±11.74	293.89±6.21	297.33±8.40	295.11±7.85	2500	2500
NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/L)	1.46±0.31	1.63±0.29	1.48±0.37	2.67±0.20	2.78±0.26	2.66±0.34	50	30
PO ₄ ³⁻ (mg/L)	0.12±0.02	0.14±0.02	0.12±0.03	0.26±0.02	0.27±0.03	0.26±0.03	6	6
pH	7.14±0.11	7.20±0.11	7.16±0.13	6.66±0.11	6.63±0.16	6.62±0.14	6.5-8.5	6.5-8.5
TDS (mg/L)	209.22±9.77	215.44±11.20	210.00±13.25	188.56±6.00	191.56±8.59	190.44±7.67	500	1000
Turbidity (NTU)	17.11±2.42	18.89±2.37	18.11±3.06	50.11±4.01	51.89±5.30	51.56±4.39	5	<25
BOD (mg/L)	2.67±0.21	2.81±0.24	2.71±0.29	4.39±0.28	4.56±0.38	4.53±0.33	10	2-6
COD (mg/L)	13.67±1.41	14.67±1.41	13.78±1.92	25.67±0.00	26.44±2.88	26.11±2.37	60	60

174

175 Water temperature is one of the concern in the surface water because it influences
176 physicochemical, biological processes and ecosystem balances in water bodies (Wilson et al.,
177 2019). High temperature influences the rise of biological oxygen demand which indicates the
178 poor water quality and attributed to loss of riparian vegetation in the catchment (Johnson et
179 al., 2024). The water temperature recorded from Monik River was in the range of 18.5-20.7 °C
180 with the maximum during the dry season and the minimum during the rainy season. Results
181 from t-test analysis show that there is statistical significant difference between temperature
182 values recorded during the rainy season and dry season ($t=19.47, p=1.54 \times 10^{-25}$). Temperature
183 increases the density of water that cause the increase in metabolic rates and decrease the
184 solubility of oxygen which threatens the aquatic organisms. Water temperature is a crucial factor
185 in river health and water quality, as it influences dissolved oxygen levels, the types of aquatic
186 life that can survive, and the rate of chemical and biological reactions. The permissible range
187 of water temperature for healthier water sources is 20-25°C (WHO, 2018 and TBS, 2018),
188 whereby all the recoded conform with the recommended level.

189
190 DO is the quantity of gaseous oxygen dissolved in an aqueous solution. Suitable dissolved
191 oxygen is necessary to withstand aquatic biota. The range of 6.6–7.4 mg/L, with the
192 maximum DO recorded at the upstream sampling point during wet season. This range of DO
193 values shows good dissolved oxygen levels, indicating healthy aerobic conditions. Oxygen
194 content is important for the direct need of many organisms and affects the solubility of many
195 nutrients and periodicity of aquatic ecosystem (Katonge & Gayo, 2025). In the summer time
196 dissolved oxygen decreases due to upturn in temperature and increased microbial activities
197 (Yona *et al.*, 2022). Results from t-test analysis show that there is statistical significant
198 different between DO recorded during the rainy season and dry season ($t=12.92, p=7.33 \times 10^{-18}$).
199 However, results from this study are within the recommended range of DO in surface
200 water for healthier environment. The lowest acceptable dissolved oxygen concentration for
201 aquatic life, range from 6 mg/L in warm water to 9.5 mg/L in cold water (WHO, 2018). The
202 permissible limit of DO is 5 – 7 mg/L (TBS, 2018) and 8-10 mg/L (WHO, 2008). Previous
203 studies from the tropical conditions similar to this study also conform with the standards.
204 Rajesh and Rehana, (2022) further elaborated that DO plays a role of regulator of metabolic
205 activities of organisms and thus manages metabolism of the biological community as a whole
206 and used as an indicator of tropical status of the water. Low DO is an indication that, the
207 aquatic ecosystem is degraded and some organisms that use aerobic conditions will not be
208 able to survive due to lack of oxygen (Mbaruku, 2016).

209
210 EC is another parameter analysed which is a measure of water capacity to convey electric
211 current. It signifies the amount of total dissolved salts (Mezgebet *et al.*, 2015). The range of EC
212 from 285–352 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ was recorded with minimum during rainy season and maximum during
213 dry season. A statistical t-test analysis at 95% confidence level showed that, there was a
214 significant difference of EC recorded in rainy season and dry season ($t=14.39, p=8.9 \times 10^{-20}$).
215 The range of values recorded implies the moderately fresh water with some mineral content.
216 The permissible limit of EC is $< 1500 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (WHO, 2008) and $1000 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (TBS, 2018). In
217 all sampling sites, values of EC during dry and rainy seasons were within the permissible
218 limit. The higher EC in water is an indication of salts in water that are not acceptable to
219 macroinvertebrates, because some cannot tolerate salinity conditions (Mbaruku, 2016).

220

221 Nitrate is one of the essential nutrients in aquatic ecosystem for plants growth and limits algal
222 growth (Bwalya, 2015). Nitrogen contains elements which are crucial for all biotic processes
223 in the aquatic environment. Nitrate level of 1.0–3.1 mg/L was obtained with minimum from
224 dry season at downstream point and maximum during rainy season at midstream. A statistical
225 analysis showed that, there was significant different between seasons ($t=14.57$, $p=5.35\times 10^{-20}$).
226 The permissible limit of nitrate is 50 mg/L for WHO, (2018) and 30 mg/L for TBS,
227 (2018). The recorded amount from this study might be due to natural background range and
228 shows some mild nutrient input even though it is within the recommended threshold of both
229 standards. The increase of nitrate concentration in rivers is due to anthropogenic activities and
230 during floods, the run off from agricultural activities conveys fertilizers to the rivers. The
231 concern of nitrate is due to its pollution of water bodies. The upturn of nitrate causes
232 excessive algal growth, upon decomposition too much algal growth lowers oxygen levels and
233 thus some aquatic organisms cannot stand anaerobic condition (Mbaruku, 2016). High nitrate
234 levels noted in surface water in most cases originate from human activities such as
235 agricultural activities and livestock keeping (Lalika *et al.*, 2015). High nitrate concentration
236 observed in many river systems may be due to drawn-out sources from urban and agricultural
237 runoff and to point discharge from sewage treatment plants (Mbaruku, 2016).

238
239 Phosphate is the most important nutrient for plants growth, phosphorus can occur in a variety
240 form in aquatic ecosystem namely: as mineral phosphorus, inorganic phosphorus and organic
241 phosphorus (Phosphorus bound up with carbon and oxygen in plant matter) and as dissolved
242 soluble reactive orthophosphate (PO_4^{-3}) (Mbaruku, 2016). The range of 0.1–0.3 mg/L of
243 Phosphate was detected, with the highest being during rainy season. The statistical tests
244 showed a significant different of mean phosphate values recorded during dry season and dry
245 season. The permissible limit of phosphate is 6 mg/L for both WHO, (2018) and TBS, (2018).
246 The values obtained are low detectable and are within the permissible range but might reflect
247 minor agricultural runoff. In aquatic ecosystems if phosphorus outstrips the acceptable limit,
248 affects aquatic ecosystem by dwindling the oxygen after excess algal growth (Bwalya, 2015).
249 The use of soaps, shampoos, and other personal care products can introduce chemicals such as
250 phosphates, surfactants and fragrances into the water (Mgimwa *et al.*, 2021). Fertilizers, after
251 being used for agricultural activities are splashed down to the water bodies bringing in great
252 loads of phosphorus (Bwalya, 2015).

253 The minimum values of inorganic phosphate recorded during dry season could be due to
254 adsorption to particulate matter and subsequent sedimentation (Melaku *et al.*, 2007). The
255 maximum values of inorganic phosphate recorded from upstream to downstream during wet
256 season are due to agricultural activities, bathing, washing and livestock keeping (Bwalya,
257 2015; Melaku *et al.*, 2007).

258
259 pH indicates the strength of the acidic or alkalinity character of a solution and is controlled by
260 the dissolved chemical compounds and biochemical progressions in the solution (Mezgebe *et*
261 *al.*, 2015). This study recorded a pH range of 6.4–7.4 which is neutral to slightly alkaline. A t-
262 test analysis shows that there is statistically different between pH values during rainy season
263 and dry season at $t=15.47$ and $p=4.23\times 10^{-21}$. The highest pH value was recorded during the
264 dry season and the lowest during the rainy season. This observation was due to the fact that
265 during the rain, rivers receive runoff that may increase water dilution and hence increase the
266 concentrations of hydrogen ions that consequently reduce the pH. This has also been found by

267 other researchers like Mhande et al., (2022) who studied waterquality changes in rivers during
268 rain events and found that pH showed some decreasing trends during rainfall. Since the pH is
269 most essential in determining the corrosive nature of water, its frequent monitoring is
270 essential for assessment of water ecosystem health, irrigation and drinking water, industrial
271 discharge and surface water run-off. The findings are within the recommended pH values of
272 6.5 to 8.5 (WHO, 2018; TBS, 2018). Water which has pH value of more than 9 or less than
273 4.5 becomes unfitting for domestic use like drinking. Low pH increases the solubility of
274 metals and nutrients such as nitrates and phosphates making them available for uptake by
275 plants and animals (Mbaruku, 2016). It is usually monitored (Mezgebeet *al.*, 2015). The
276 higher pH at upstream sampling site could be due to bicarbonate and carbonate of calcium
277 and magnesium in water and the main sources of such chemicals could be due livestock
278 keeping, bathing and washing in river water course (Suthar *et al.*, 2010).

279

280 TDS indicates the ability of water to dissolve various inorganic and some organic minerals or
281 salts like sulphates, magnesium, chlorides, bicarbonate, sodium, calcium and potassium
282 (Mbaruku, 2016). TDS values in this study were in the range of 180–235 mg/L, minimum
283 value was obtained during rainy season while maximum during the dry season at the
284 midstream of the river which might be due to due to high rate of evaporation, water diversion,
285 deforestation, dissolution of rocks and pesticides from agricultural activities. According to
286 Lalika *et al.* (2015) the maximum value of TDS during dry season are attributed to high rate
287 of evaporation, dissolution of rocks, pesticides, herbicides and insecticides from agricultural
288 activities. This further proved by the t-test results that show a statistical significance
289 difference of TDS values recorded on dry season and that from rainy season ($t=8.19$,
290 $p=6.17\times 10^{-11}$).

291 High levels of TDS reduce algal productivity and growth and give a picture of the poor water
292 quality (Mezgebeet *al.*, 2015). Irrigation with high TDS water result in soil salinization and a
293 drop in macro-porosity but do not decrease farm yield (Rajabu et al., 2024). The permissible
294 limit of TDS is 500 mg/L (WHO, 2018) and 1000 mg/L (TBS, 2018). The TDS level recorded
295 in this study are within the permissible limit (WHO, 2018; TBS, 2018).

296

297 Turbidity is a measure of how clear the water is (Mezgebeet *al.*, 2015). Turbidity in most
298 water is due to colloidal and extremely fine dispersion. Turbidity of 14–59 NTU was
299 recorded, at MR with minimum during dry season and maximum on the rainy season. This
300 may be attributed to increased rainfall runoff from the land that carries different sorts of
301 materials into the rivers. The minimum level of turbidity might be due to local sediment or
302 erosion as the water during that time is still and undisturbed. During the rainy season, turbidity
303 is influenced either naturally by rainfall run off or anthropogenic activities such as industrial
304 activities. The statistical t-test results proved that there is statistically significant different of
305 turbidity levels seasonally ($t=33.07$, $p=1.34\times 10^{-36}$). While the permissible limit of turbidity of
306 WHO, (2018) is 5, the limit by TBS, (2018) is set to <25 NTU. Hence, the recorded turbidity
307 levels of Monik River are partially complying with local standards during dry season and
308 don't comply with international standards. Turbidity water affects photosynthesis because it
309 limits permeation of light (Mbaruku, 2016). In extreme cases, turbid water can harm animals
310 and deposit heavy sediment on leaves reducing photosynthesis. Turbid water also affects how
311 well disinfection techniques including ultraviolet light and chlorination work and slows the
312 establishment of vegetables (Mezgebeet *al.*, 2015). According to Mezgebeet *al.* (2015), Khatri

313 and Tyagi (2014), the maximum value of turbidity attributed to sand mining, making bricks
314 and deforestation. In this study the maximum value of turbidity recorded from dry season
315 could be due to sand mining, livestock keeping, fishing, bathing, agriculture, water diversion,
316 washing and deforestation.

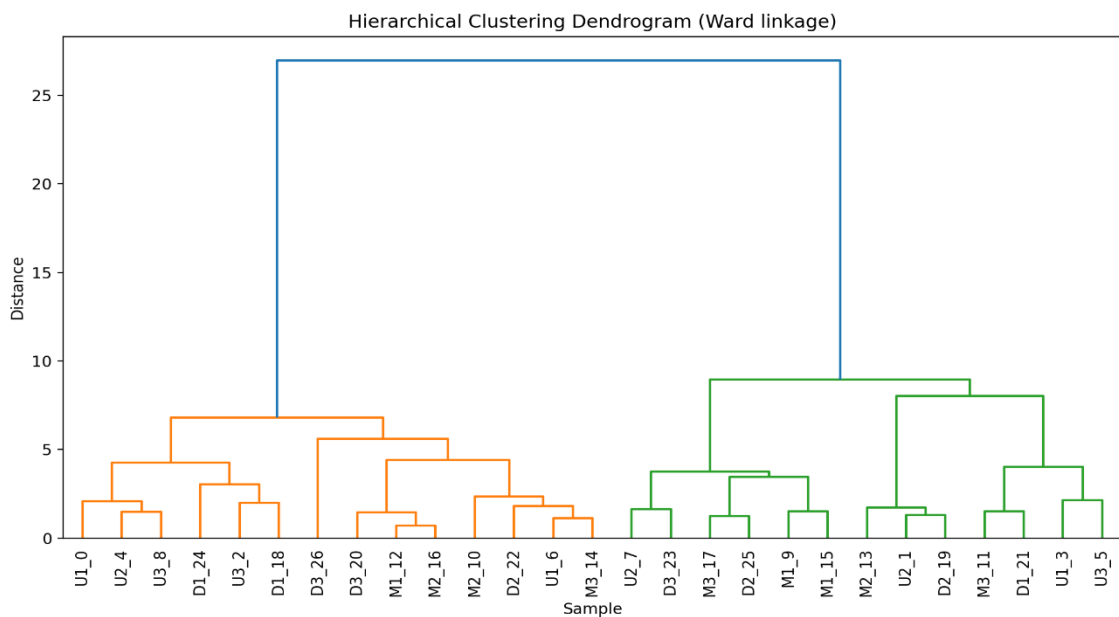
317

318 Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) is an indication of the amount of Oxygen required to
319 oxidize organic materials in the water Oxygen demand as a measure of pollution indicators
320 was determined by COD and BOD₅. Correspondingly, the value of COD was detected from
321 11-31mg/L in while BOD₅ was in the range of 2.3-5.1mg/L. All the minimum values were
322 from dry season and maximum from the rainy season. It was further proved by statistical
323 analysis results that showed there is a statistical significant difference between COD and
324 BOD₅ values determined between dry season and dry season at $t=33.0721.86$, $p=7.07\times 10^{-28}$
325 and $t=22.4$, $p=2.08\times 10^{-28}$ respectively. Other research findings such as by Muniz *et al.* (2011)
326 and Mustapha *et al.* (2013) have reported that organic pollutants discharged specifically from
327 households and agricultural activities are the main causes of organic waste leading to COD
328 and BOD₅ loads. The recorded COD values from this study are within the permissible range
329 of 60mg/L for both WHO, (2018) and TBS, (2018). The permissible range of BOD₅ is 2 – 6
330 mg/L for TBS, (2018) and 10mg/L for WHO, (2018) and all determined values are within the
331 recommended range.

332

333 Clustering of river's sampling points

334 A two-way hierarchical clustering results of water quality parameters was used to present the
335 similarities in some sampling points along the river from both rainy season and dry seasons.
336 presented in Figures 3 and Figure 4.

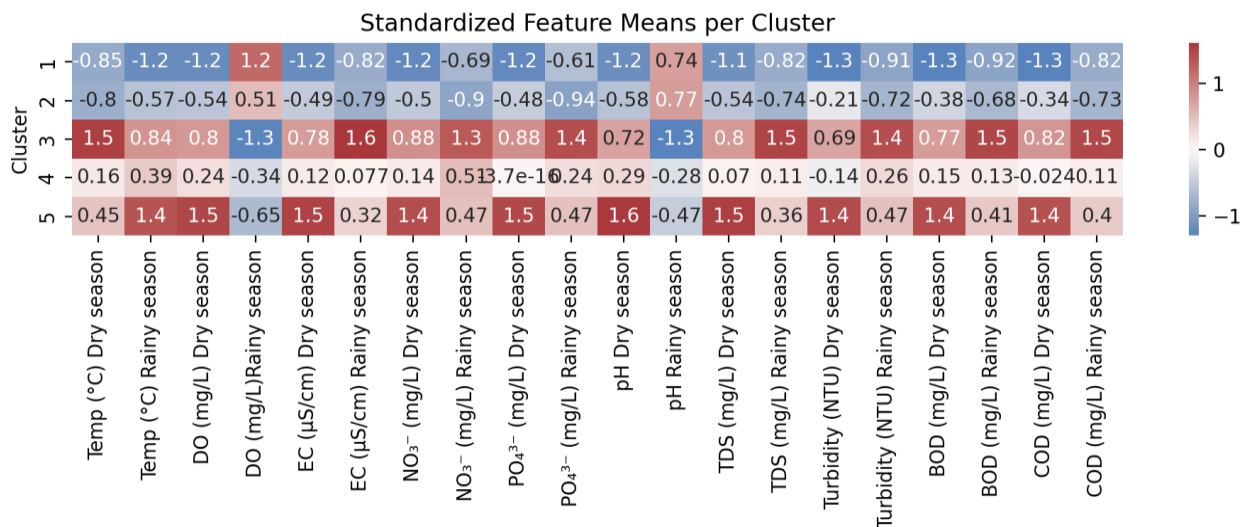


337

338 **Figure 3:**The dendrogram showing overall similarities (*Ward linkage, Euclidean distance on*
339 *z-scored variables*)

340 Figure 3 presents the dendrogram from hierarchical analysis (Ward linkage, Euclidean
341 distance on z-scored variables) that groups the 27 water-quality observations by overall
342 similarity. The shorter the horizontal linkage line, the more alike the samples are and the long
343 jumps indicate distinct clusters.

344 The dendrogram confirms that season (dry and rainy) and site type (U, M, D) both influence
 345 the water chemistry, however, there are some data from U-site in dry season resemble D-site
 346 in rainy samples, indicating mixing. Cluster one which is the largest contains most “baseline”
 347 measurements that share moderate temperature, conductivity and nutrient levels. These are
 348 sites in the low-concentration cluster fall comfortably within typical agricultural-irrigation
 349 guidelines and pose minimal salinity or nutrient hazard. Moreover, cluster two groups’
 350 samples with slightly higher turbidity/TDS and lower dissolved-oxygen values, while Cluster
 351 three is driven by noticeably higher rainy-season turbidity/BOD/COD peaks, separating those
 352 storm-influenced readings. the highest nitrate/phosphate and EC, pointing to stronger nutrient
 353 loading and ionic strength possibly near a pollution source recorded in Cluster four which
 354 suspected to be more agricultural land. Finally, cluster five links the warmest/most-
 355 oxygenated dry-season readings with elevated organic demand, suggesting a different hydro-
 356 chemical regime (For example, upstream/unmixed zone). Results suggest that, the focus
 357 should be on Clusters four and fiveso that to isolate specific pollution events or hotspots for
 358 targeted management.



359
 360 **Figure 4. Heatmap shows, how far each cluster’s mean (z-score) for every variable, sits**
 361 **above (red) or below (blue) the grand average.**

362
 363 Additionally to sampling site similarities, the heatmap (Figure 4) shows five generated
 364 clusters of water quality parameters based on seasonality. Cluster one shows a baseline
 365 organic signal on dry season dominated by high turbidity, BOD, and COD in the dry season
 366 suggests particulate/organic loading while other parameters stay near average. Cluster two
 367 indicates the points when rain results into nutrient spike with high amount of PO₄³⁻, NO₃⁻
 368 plus slightly warmer dry-season temperature. Furthermore, cluster three gives biggest positive
 369 shifts in conductivity and TDS, coupled with warmer temperature in dry season. This leads
 370 into high-ionic strength and solids loads and an influx of dissolved salts/solids during rain
 371 events. In Cluster four, cooler temperature, highest nitrate, and lowest dissolved-oxygen
 372 appeared on a contrary, entailing consistent cool inflow rich in oxidised nitrogen that
 373 depresses DO like groundwater seep or fertiliser runoff. The fifth cluster stands out by
 374 elevated dry-season pH, TDS and conductivity. It is more likely to reflect a mineral-rich, less-
 375 disturbed upstream source. Using the Heatmap, the key observed variables help in targeted

376 monitoring plans. This can be done by focusing on the Cluster two sites during the rainy
377 seasons for nutrient abatement, and Cluster four for low-oxygen episode.

378 **River Restoration plans**

379 Monik River offered ecosystem services such as habitat, sediment and nutrient absorption,
380 provide water for domestic and wild animals and water for agriculture. Mgimwaet *al.* (2021)
381 documented that, unsustainable agriculture and livestock keeping degraded many rivers in
382 Tanzania. In this study Monik River degraded due to, deforestation, water diversion,
383 agriculture activities, livestock keeping, sand harvesting and making of burnt blocks along the
384 river. In spite that there is possibility of River self-restoration (Yahaya et al., 2024), this
385 process may take long compared to the rate of pollution. Based on the developed clusters of
386 the river, it is therefore important that Monik River restoration is taking place for the lost
387 ecosystem services to get back.

388

389 Bell et al., (2025) suggested number of land management actions that can restore polluted
390 river part which may include re-vegetation, riparian buffer creation, livestock exclusion,
391 fencing, eradication of weeds, grading banks and agricultural best management practices.
392 Others are addition of large woody debris and adding of boulders were the best ways of river
393 restoration. In this study, several ways of restoring the lost ecosystem services in Monik River
394 are possible to be considered. One strategy could be the riparian buffer creation or fencing of
395 the water sources, which may include a provisioning of a streamside forest is one of the most
396 effective ways to filter pollutants (Collins et al., 2013; Yahaya et al., 2024).

397

398 Another practice is the exclusion of livestock along the riverbank. This action has been
399 reported to be beneficial by reduction in sediment and faecal discharge to the water (Kilgarriff
400 et al., 2020). It is well advisable that if this action is chosen, prior education provision to the
401 local community is needed to avoid conflicts with livestock keepers. Additionally,
402 construction of alternative water sources such as wells could restrict community to use water
403 directly from the river. In parallel to the adoption of agricultural best management practices
404 which could include the allocation of irrigation water.

405

406 **Conclusion and Recommendation**

407 **Conclusion**

408 The study revealed that EC, TDS, temperature, COD, and BOD were within the permissible
409 limit of TBS and WHO in all sampling sites. DO during dry and rainy seasons, in all sampling
410 sites were below the permissible limit of TBS and WHO. High pH was recorded at upstream
411 during dry and rainy season are not with the permissible limit. High nitrate and phosphate
412 from upstream to downstream recorded during wet season were not within the permissible
413 limit of WHO and TBS. Turbidity at the downstream during dry season was above the
414 permissible limit of TBS and WHO. The study revealed that Monik River was highly polluted
415 during wet season compared to dry season. Furthermore, bathing, washing, agricultural
416 activities, sand mining, livestock keeping and deforestation significantly affect the water
417 quality of Monik River. The study has provided insights into the water quality of the Monik
418 River as an impact of anthropogenic activities. The study also revealed that riparian buffer
419 creation, strict laws, best management of agriculture practices, and education provision,
420 livestock exclusion, and well construction are the best ways of Monik River restoration.

421

422 **Recommendation**

423 The study recommends collaborative governance and community engagement. The Ministry
424 of Water and Irrigation through the office of Water resource basin should arrange for frequent
425 workshops and training with community to plan for mitigation of pollution sources, promote
426 sustainable use, and prevent potential conflicts over water resources. Moreover, the Urban
427 and Sanitation Authority in the regional level should do monitoring to safeguard water quality
428 through cooperative efforts, watershed management using nature-based solutions that can
429 serve as a catalyst for peace and regional stability in water-scarce environments.

430

431 **Acknowledgements**

432 We would like to thank my God, the supreme of all beings for granting me good health and
433 all the blessings that he knows most. This study was conducted at Arusha Technical College,
434 Tanzania. We sincerely thank a laboratory technicians Mr. Joseph Mruma and Meshack
435 Timothy at Arusha Technical College for their kind help in samples preparation and analysis.
436 Our gratitude extends to research assistants Mr. Ndaya Kele and Clara Kirway for their
437 tireless effort during socio-economic survey in the study village.

438 **Funding**

439 The researchers privately sponsored the study; no known funding for this research was
440 disclosed.

441 **Data availability**

442 Data can be made available from the corresponding author upon request and if there is
443 substantial motivation.

444

445 **Conflict of Interest**

446 No conflict of interest

447 **Authors' Contributions**

448 M.P. contributed to conceptualization, data collection, formal analysis, investigation,
449 methodology, resources, software, validation, visualization, and the writing of the original
450 draft, as well as review and editing. T.A.M. provided supervision and contributed to
451 methodology, software, validation, visualization, and review and editing of the original draft.

452 I.T.M. contributed to the review and editing of the original draft. H.M. contributed to the
453 review and editing of the original draft

454 **Declarations**

455 We have no competing interests to declare. The AI tool (*Quillbot*) was used in grammar check
456 only in this study. Ethical clearance was obtained from the Open University of Tanzania and
457 approval to conduct research in the study area was granted by the Ngorongoro district, Arusha
458 Tanzania.

459

460 **References**

461 Akhtar, N., Syakir Ishak, M. I., Bhawani, S. A., & Umar, K. (2021). Various natural and
462 anthropogenic factors responsible for water quality degradation: A review. *Water (Switzerland)*,
463 13(19). <https://doi.org/10.3390/w13192660>

464 Anh, N. T., Can, L. D., Nhan, N. T., Schmalz, B., & Luu, T. Le. (2023). Influences of key factors on
465 river water quality in urban and rural areas: A review. *Case Studies in Chemical and*

- 466 *Environmental Engineering*, 8(July), 100424. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscee.2023.100424>
- 467 Bakure, B. Z., Fikadu, S., & Malu, A. (2020). Analysis of physicochemical water quality parameters
468 for streams under agricultural, urban and forest land-use types: in the case of gilgel Gibe
469 catchment, Southwest Ethiopia. *Applied Water Science*, 10(11), 1–8.
470 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13201-020-01318-9>
- 471 Bell, K., Evans, M. J., Lindenmayer, D. B., Scheele, B. C., Smith, D. G., & Malerba, M. E. (2025).
472 Excluding livestock from farm dams enhances native biodiversity. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and*
473 *Environment*, 386(March), 109623. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2025.109623>
- 474 Chisanga, C. B., Mubanga, K. H., Sichigabula, H., Banda, K., Muchanga, M., Ncube, L., van Niekerk,
475 H. J., Zhao, B., Mkonde, A. A., & Rasmeni, S. K. (2022). Modelling climatic trends for the
476 Zambezi and Orange River Basins: implications on water security. *Journal of Water and Climate*
477 *Change*, 13(3), 1275–1296. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wcc.2022.308>
- 478 Collins, K. E., Doscher, C., Rennie, H. G., & Ross, J. G. (2013). The Effectiveness of Riparian
479 “Restoration” on Water Quality-A Case Study of Lowland Streams in Canterbury, New Zealand.
480 *Restoration Ecology*, 21(1), 40–48. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-100X.2011.00859.x>
- 481 Doggart, N., Morgan-Brown, T., Lyimo, E., Mbilinyi, B., Meshack, C. K., Sallu, S. M., & Spracklen,
482 D. V. (2020). Agriculture is the main driver of deforestation in Tanzania. *Environmental*
483 *Research Letters*, 15(3), 34028. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ab6b35>
- 484 Glibert, P. M. (2020). Harmful algae at the complex nexus of eutrophication and climate change.
485 *Harmful Algae*, 91(March 2019), 101583. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2019.03.001>
- 486 Johnson, M. F., Albertson, L. K., Algar, A. C., Dugdale, S. J., Edwards, P., England, J., Gibbins, C.,
487 Kazama, S., Komori, D., MacColl, A. D. C., Scholl, E. A., Wilby, R. L., de Oliveira Roque, F.,
488 & Wood, P. J. (2024). Rising water temperature in rivers: Ecological impacts and future
489 resilience. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Water*, 11(4), 1–26.
490 <https://doi.org/10.1002/wat2.1724>
- 491 Katonge, J. H., & Gayo, L. (2025). Lake Babati ecosystem, Tanzania: biodiversity status,
492 anthropogenic threats, and land use implications – a review. *Watershed Ecology and the*
493 *Environment*, 7(June), 299–309. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsee.2025.06.002>
- 494 Kilgarriff, P., Ryan, M., O’Donoghue, C., Green, S., & Ó hUallacháin, D. (2020). Livestock exclusion
495 from watercourses: Policy effectiveness and implications. *Environmental Science and Policy*,
496 106(September 2019), 58–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2020.01.013>
- 497 Liu, J. S., Guo, L. C., Luo, X. L., Chen, F. R., & Zeng, E. Y. (2014). Impact of anthropogenic
498 activities on urban stream water quality: a case study in Guangzhou, China. *Environmental*
499 *Science and Pollution Research*, 21(23), 13412–13419. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-014-500-3237-5>
- 501 Mbonaga, S. S., Hamad, A. A., & Mkoma, S. L. (2024). Health and ecological risk assessment of
502 heavy metals in water and sediments within a data scarce urban catchment in Tanzania – A case
503 of Ngerengere River, Morogoro Municipality. *MOJ Ecology & Environmental Sciences*, 9(2),
504 72–87. <https://doi.org/10.15406/mojes.2024.09.00309>
- 505 Mгимwa, E. F., John, J. R., & Lugomela, C. V. (2021). The influence of physical–chemical variables
506 on phytoplankton and lesser flamingo (*Phoeniconaias minor*) abundances in Lake Natron,
507 Tanzania. *African Journal of Ecology*, 59(3), 667–675. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aje.12863>
- 508 Mhande, Z., Mihale, M. J., & Hellar-Kihampa, H. (2022). Use of physicochemical parameters and
509 metal concentrations in assessing anthropogenic influences on coastal rivers in Dar es Salaam,
510 Tanzania. *Western Indian Ocean Journal of Marine Science*, 21(1), 15–33.
511 <https://doi.org/10.4314/wiojms.v21i1.2>

- 512 Nyasulu, M. K., Fetzner, I., Wang-Erlandsson, L., Stenzel, F., Gerten, D., Rockström, J., &
513 Falkenmark, M. (2024). African rainforest moisture contribution to continental agricultural water
514 consumption. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 346(July 2023), 1–11.
515 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2023.109867>
- 516 Rajabu, O., Lalika, M. C. S., Nguvava, M., & Mgimwa, E. (2024). The Impacts of Anthropogenic
517 Activities on the Physicochemical Water Quality of Pinyinyi River, Arusha-Tanzania. *Journal of*
518 *Water Resources, Engineering, Management and Policy*, 1(1), 1–36.
519 <https://doi.org/10.56542/wi.jwempe.v1.i1.a1.2024>
- 520 Rajesh, M., & Rehana, S. (2022). Impact of climate change on river water temperature and dissolved
521 oxygen: Indian riverine thermal regimes. *Scientific Reports*, 12(1), 1–12.
522 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-12996-7>
- 523 Sadikiel E. Kaale, Machang'u, R. S., & Lyimo, T. J. (2024). Metagenomic Analysis of Bacterial
524 Communities in Bee Bread in Türkiye. *Tanzania Journal of Science*, 50(5), 1147–1167.
525 <https://doi.org/10.30910/turkjans.1455870>
- 526 Sidabutar, N. V., Namara, I., Hartono, D. M., & Soesilo, T. E. B. (2017). The effect of anthropogenic
527 activities to the decrease of water quality. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental*
528 *Science*, 67(1). <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/67/1/012034>
- 529 Wilson, J., Ucharm, G., & Beman, J. M. (2019). Climatic, physical, and biogeochemical changes drive
530 rapid oxygen loss and recovery in a marine ecosystem. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1), 1–12.
531 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-52430-z>
- 532 Yahaya, A. K., Augustine, L., & Mahama, I. (2024). Restoration measures of the riparian vegetation
533 of the Black Volta Basin in Ghana: Experiences from the Lawra Municipality. *Environmental*
534 *Advances*, 17(October 2023), 100578. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envadv.2024.100578>
- 535