
Urban inputs of fecal bacteria to the coastal zone of Libreville, Gabon, Central Western Africa

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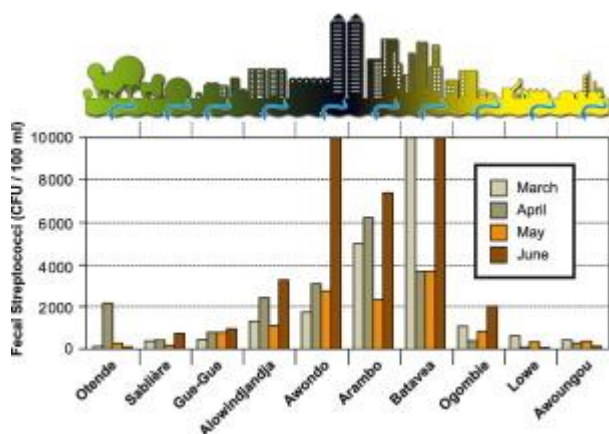
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Abstract :

Libreville, the largest city in Gabon, adversely impacts the Komo Estuary and the Akanda National Park aquatic ecosystems through discharge of domestic and industrial waste. Fecal Indicator Bacteria (FIB: *Escherichia coli* and fecal streptococci) were enumerated using culture-based methods in water from 40 sites between 2017 and 2019 including coastal outlets, mangrove channels, open bays and littoral rivers. Contamination levels were high in discharge waters from small urban rivers in Libreville agglomeration, frequently exceeding international safety guidelines, whereas FIB concentrations decreased downstream from the city in main mangrove channels. Littoral forest rivers were significantly impacted by fecal contamination despite the absence of settlements in the watersheds. Protected areas are not effective in avoiding FIB contamination, indicating inefficient waste management. Dedicated management policies should be implemented to reduce both the sanitary concern and global pollution, poorly assessed in a context of demographic increase in tropical littoral zones.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

- First record of fecal bacteria contamination for the coastal area of Libreville, Gabon
- Urban population density drives fecal bacteria concentrations at river outlets.
- Surrounding protected areas are not devoid of fecal pollution.
- Public policies need to be implemented to reduce contamination and associated risks.

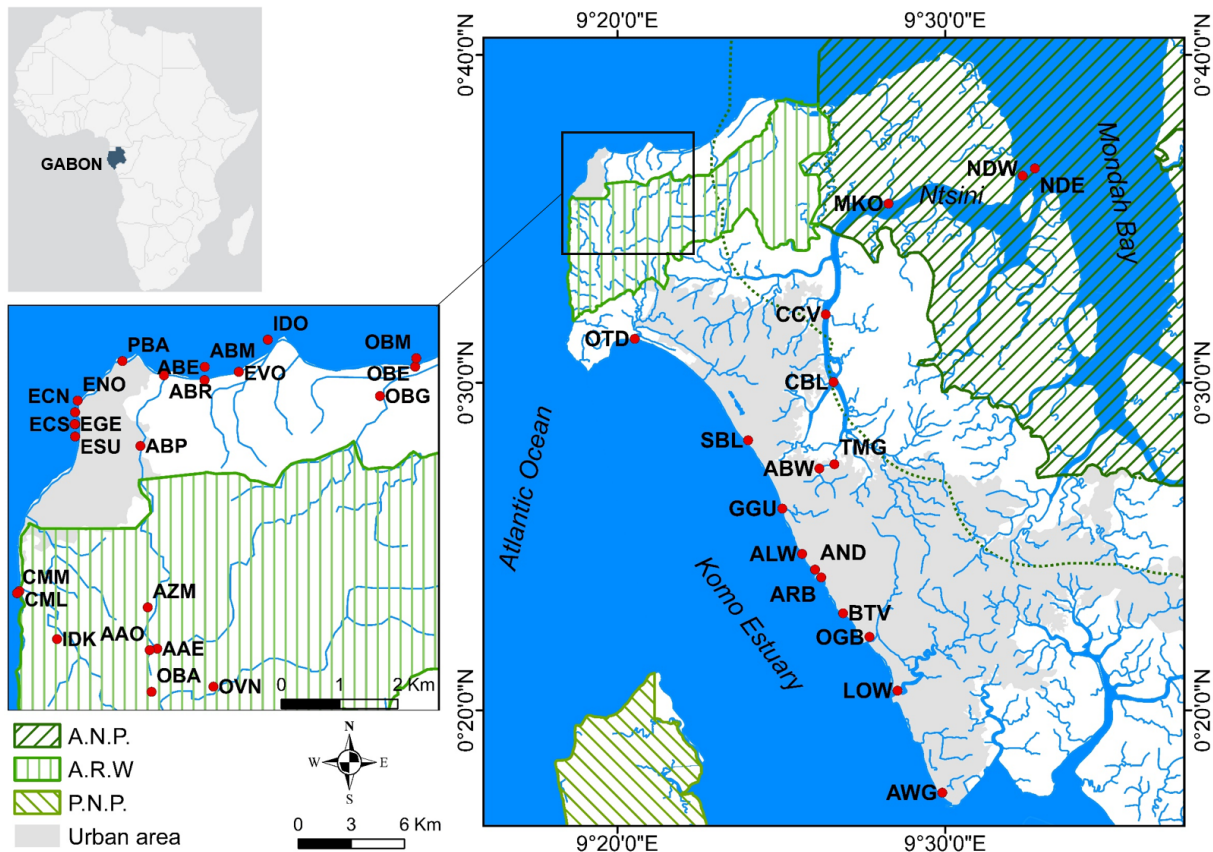
Keywords : Fecal indicator bacteria, Marine protected area, Cultivability, Tropical coastal ecosystems, Coastal pollution

31 Coastal marine ecosystems are submitted to increasing anthropogenic impact worldwide (Lotze et
32 al., 2006), including disposal of solid waste and discharge of treated and untreated wastewater, from
33 various sources and activities. These sources of pressure are among the main drivers that pose a
34 global threat (Halpern et al., 2008) to highly valuable resources and benefits specifically provided by
35 coastal ecosystems (Barbier et al., 2011). Although prominent for public policies and management,
36 scientific knowledge about the extent and nature of anthropogenic impact is not equally available on
37 a global scale. Southern ecosystems, particularly in low to middle-income countries, are scarcely
38 studied, especially in Africa and Asia (Garcia Rodrigues et al., 2017; Lüthi et al., 2020). These
39 countries are highly sensitive to pollution-driven issues in littoral and coastal zones, with problematic
40 lags between increasing demography and sustainable development goals. For many sub-Saharan
41 countries, sewage discharge is pointed out as a significant concern to further human development
42 and well-being, and for the conservation of coastal marine ecosystem functions and uses (Bouvy et
43 al., 2008; Lewis, 2016). Among pollutants of concern, potentially infectious microorganisms
44 stemming from fecal contamination pose a threat to human health by direct exposure, mainly
45 through recreational, cultural or professional contact with contaminated waters, or through food
46 with soiled fish and shellfish. Uncontrolled population growth in the littoral zone, worsened by the
47 absence of sewage treatment, leads to increased risk of waterborne diseases, which are a major
48 handicap to sustainable development in the tropics, and especially in Africa (Bastaraud et al., 2020;
49 Rochelle-Newall et al., 2015). To support local policies and advise public decision making, knowledge
50 about actual contamination levels and pathogenic risks is often lacking and needs to be urgently
51 documented by validated methods (Wu et al., 2011; Lüthi et al., 2020).

52 With an estimated census of ca. 2.1 M inhabitants for a total area of 276,000 km² (United Nations,
53 2020), Gabon is a relatively scarcely populated country. By contrast, Gabon is now the most
54 urbanized country of continental Africa, with an estimate of 89% of the population currently
55 established in cities, expected to top 95% by 2050 (United Nations, 2019). The hinterland is gradually
56 depopulating as the coastal cities of Port Gentil and mostly Libreville and its suburbs face
57 demographic increase. Libreville is the political, administrative and economic center, with an
58 estimated agglomeration population of around 800,000. The conurbation is located in the Estuary
59 province of Gabon, in the southern part of the Gulf of Guinea close to the equatorial line, on the
60 estuary of Komo River, arisen from the southwestern part of the Woleu-Ntem plateau in Equatorial
61 Guinea.

62 Three protected areas that constitute the *Arc d'Émeraude* (translates into "Emerald Ark", named for
63 the shape of the green forest belt around the city) closely surround the urban zone: a coastal tropical
64 forest (*Arboretum Raponda Walker*) and two National Parks, Pongara NP to the south, and Akanda

65 NP to the northeast (Walters et al., 2016). Both NPs are characterized by an extended mangrove
 66 ecosystem, highlighted for its outstanding biomass and diversity in Gabon (Simard et al., 2019),
 67 which spreads from the Mondah Estuary up to the city suburbs in Akanda. The Akanda National Park
 68 lies east from Libreville around the Mondah bay, mostly consisting of mangrove forests and channels,
 69 harboring traditional fisheries (Cardiec et al., 2020).



70

71 **Figure 1.** Location of the sampling sites (red circles) in the Libreville area (Estuary province, Gabon). A.R.W.:
 72 Arboretum Raponda Walker (protected littoral forest); A.N.P.: Akanda National Park; P.N.P.: Pongara National
 73 Park. Sampling locations are indicated by red circles.

74 Submitted to a typical equatorial climate with rainy seasons in February-May and October-November
 75 (Camberlin et al. 2019), Gabon possesses a still overlooked biodiversity, and littoral protected zones
 76 in the capital's area are declining despite management policies are in place (Walters et al., 2016;
 77 Goussard and Ducrocq, 2017; Simard et al., 2019), challenging the balance between conservation and
 78 development. Marine protected areas (MPAs) have been created, comprising almost 23% of the
 79 Gabonese Exclusive Economic Zone, and littoral parks protect mangroves and beaches that give
 80 shelter to endangered marine mammals (African manatees) or chelonians (leatherback turtles).
 81 Efficient conditions for the successful implementation of these conservation tools are nevertheless
 82 currently not fully established. Particularly, public sanitation and waste management do not match
 83 the spreading of the city and increase in population over the last decades, resulting in the
 84 uncontrolled release of waste in the littoral zone, along with associated significant threats to the

85 coastal ecosystems and to human health (Moubélé and Mbonda, 2017). Despite the improvement of
86 sanitary conditions within the population, Gabon still suffers from a significant incidence of diarrheic
87 diseases (Troeger et al., 2017). Viral and bacterial pathogens are for example frequently involved in
88 the spreading of diseases in infant populations (Koko et al., 2013), which can significantly be
89 accounted for by fecal contamination of food and environment. Local regulations of water quality
90 rely on international guidelines (World Health Organization, 2018) and no adaptation to the national
91 context was implemented to date.

92 The context of Libreville agglomeration, surrounded by the protected areas of the *Arc d'Émeraude*,
93 makes coastal contamination especially worrying: local populations are exposed during recreational
94 activities on the urban and peri-urban beaches, and through consumption of local seafood.
95 Assessment of actual levels of contamination by fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) is therefore mandatory
96 for (i) documenting the current extent and nature of FIB contamination in the littoral zone, (ii)
97 providing a baseline for the population and decision makers, and (iii) allowing to implement efficient
98 monitoring of the coastal zone of Gabon, which will further support the success of future waste
99 management and conservation policies. In order to establish a first step in this process, an
100 assessment of FIB contamination in coastal rivers, estuaries and marine waters of the *Arc*
101 *d'Émeraude* area was performed using culture-based methods, proven to be suitable to document
102 pathogen occurrence in water systems (Wu et al., 2011).

103 Forty locations were sampled in the study area (Fig. 1, Supplementary Table S1) between April 2017
104 and April 2019, including estuarine surface water, coastal river outlets, mangrove channels, sandy
105 beaches, and forest rivers, spreading from dense urban areas to fully protected ecosystems
106 (mangrove system of Akanda National Park). Coastal rivers and outlets were sampled aiming at the
107 first rainy season of the year, typically from February to May, to avoid drying of the smaller water
108 bodies and flash floods which are more likely during the second rainy season in October-November
109 (Camberlin et al. 2019). Ntsini channel was sampled at four dates to cover most of the yearly climate
110 variability in the area. All field-sampling sessions were arranged by local agencies staff and boat
111 availability to cope with current regulations.

112 Water samples were taken immediately below the surface using a 2 L horizontal Niskin bottle
113 previously cleaned with 0.1 M HCl, and thoroughly rinsed with mineral water between each
114 sampling. Measurements of pH, temperature and conductivity on surface water were conducted
115 using an YSI 600 multiparameter probe. Calibration for conductivity and pH sensors was performed
116 in the field immediately before each deployment, using fresh standard solutions. All water samples
117 were taken in the morning, stored in polycarbonate bottles at ambient temperature in a dark cool
118 box and processed immediately upon return to the laboratory. Samples from river outlets were

119 taken as close as possible to the estuary shoreline, whereas mangrove channel locations were
120 sampled twice in the same day at rising and ebb tides.

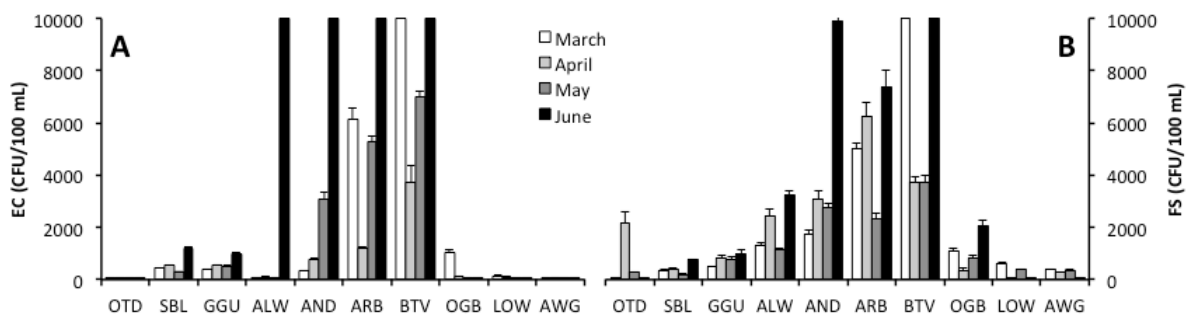
121 Two types of fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) were detected and enumerated using culture-based
122 assays, with commercially available kits comprising sterile gridded membranes and ready-to-use
123 dehydrated selective medium ("Nutrient Pad Sets, Sartorius, Gottingen, Germany). Two different
124 selective medium and incubation conditions were applied to enumerate fecal streptococci (FS) and
125 *Escherichia coli* (EC). AZIDE kits (ref. 14051) incubated at 37°C for 48 h for FS enumeration are based
126 on standard medium (Slanetz and Bartley, 1957), with added sodium azide as gram-negative bacteria
127 inhibitor and triphenyltetrazolium chloride as stain for growing colonies (red-brown). ENDO kits (ref.
128 14053) incubated at 44°C for 24h for EC enumeration are based on the lactose fermenting ability of
129 coliforms, with sodium sulfite and fuschin addition to inhibit gram-positive bacteria. Each water
130 sample was filtrated onto a squared sterile 47 mm polycarbonate membrane, rinsed with 10 mL
131 sterile mineral water to remove salts, and deposited on the pre-wetted medium pad in a plastic petri
132 dish, according to the recommendations of the manufacturer. To account for the expected range of
133 FIB densities in the samples, three volumes (1, 10 and 100 mL) were processed in duplicate for each
134 water sample. Blank controls were made by processing accordingly 100 mL of mineral water (Andza
135 brand, <https://sobraga.net/eaux/>). After incubation, petri dishes were examined under bright light,
136 and relevant colonies (dark brown for FS, dark purple with greenish metallic glint for EC) were
137 counted on each filter. Results are expressed as colony forming units (CFU) per 100 mL, according to
138 the most useful expression of water contamination levels.

139 Chemical analysis was performed on raw water subsamples (50 mL) passed through 0.2 µm porosity
140 polycarbonate syringe filters to remove particulate matter. Dissolved ammonium (NH_4^+) and soluble
141 reactive phosphorus (SRP, equivalent to bioavailable orthophosphate PO_4^{3-}) were determined using
142 spectrophotometric kits for seawater (Spectroquant, Merck), according to the recommendations of
143 the manufacturer. Calibration curves were carried out for each sample processing session, using
144 reagent grade (Sigma Aldrich) ammonium chloride (NH_4^+ analysis) or potassium phosphate (SRP
145 analysis) diluted in double distilled water. Six concentrations and a reagent blank, each in triplicate,
146 were used for each chemical, within the specified range of application of the corresponding kit.

147 FIB densities were expressed as the mean CFU/100 mL \pm SD; in the most polluted locations, colonies
148 were counted on half or a quarter of the filter. If the dilution was not appropriate for accurate and
149 distinct counting of each colony on the filter membrane after incubation, values were extrapolated
150 and considered arbitrarily to be above the highest validated count during the whole study, namely 10
151 000 CFU/100 mL.

152 Dissolved nutrient calibration curves (photometric readings of standard samples) and FIB
153 relationships were drawn by linear regression using Past 3.0 freeware for OS X (Hammer et al., 2001),

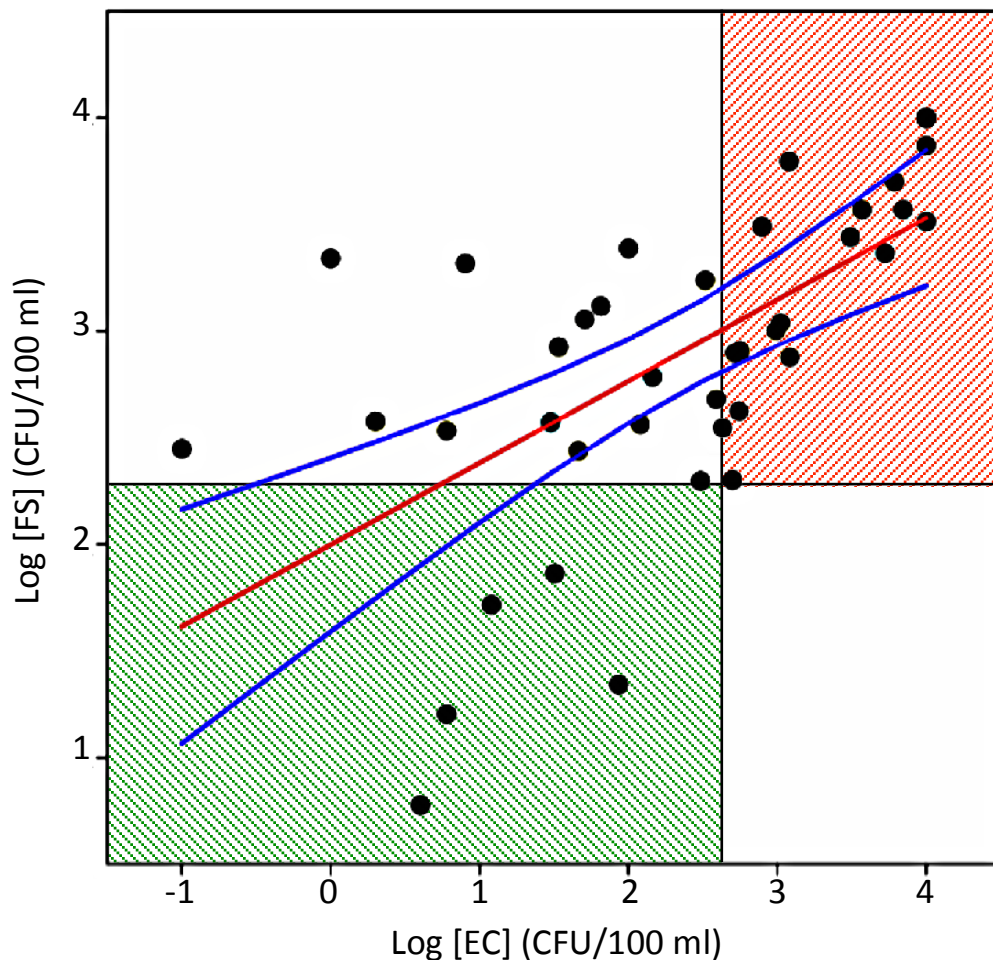
154 and slope and intercept values were considered to calculate nutrient concentrations from
 155 absorbance readings.
 156 The relationships between pH, salinity, concentrations of ammonium and soluble reactive
 157 phosphorus on the one hand, and abundances of *Escherichia coli* and fecal streptococci on the other
 158 hand, were studied using multivariate analysis. All data (x) were $\log(x + 1)$ transformed and a
 159 centered Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using SigmaPlot 10 software to identify
 160 the major sources of temporal and spatial variability in the fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) in Komo
 161 estuary. Log-transformed ($\log(x+1)$) FIB values in Ntsini channel were tested for significant influence
 162 of tide period (rising vs. ebb) on measured densities, using a repeated analysis of variance (Statistica
 163 v.7, Statsoft, France), with *post hoc* Scheffé test.



164 **Figure 2.** Concentrations of FIB *Escherichia coli* (A) and fecal streptococci (B) expressed as CFU/100 mL in the
 165 ten littoral outlets of the Komo estuary sampled within the Libreville area, depending on the sampling month
 166 (March-June, 2018). Error bars are given except for samples exceeding the counting capacity of the method, set
 167 at 10,000 CFU / 100 mL.
 168

169 A gradient in waste pressure was clear from the visible accumulation of macro-waste in the urban
 170 outlets, increasing in sites near the city center, whereas mangrove roots acted as traps for floating
 171 debris even in the most remote protected areas of Akanda National Park. Upper forest rivers were
 172 obviously under low human pressure, but solid and liquid waste was collected in their lower part
 173 before reaching the seashore. Water contamination by FIB varied accordingly, depending on the
 174 hydrosystem considered and discussed in this study.

175 On the littoral of Komo estuary in Libreville, increasing concentrations of both *Escherichia coli* and
 176 fecal streptococci were recorded in the most urban outlets (Fig. 2), with consistent differences in CFU
 177 densities depending on the sampling month. Maximal EC densities were above the performance
 178 range of the method in four of the sampling sites located in the center of Libreville city in June 2018,
 179 and one in March 2018 (Fig. 2A). A similar pattern was observed for FS numbers, with two samples
 180 out of the measuring range at one site and on two dates (Batavea outlet, Fig. 2B). Lower FIB
 181 densities, mostly represented by FS, characterized the locations distant from the city center.



182

183 **Figure 3.** Relation between *Escherichia coli* (EC) and fecal streptococci (FS) densities (expressed as
 184 log[CFU/100 mL]) in the littoral outlets of the Komo estuary within the Libreville area during the present survey
 185 (March-June, 2018). Regression ($y = 0.38737x + 2.0063$) is marked by the red line, 95% confidence intervals
 186 (bootstrapped, $N = 1999$) by blue curves. Dashed line indicates 1:1 relation, vertical and horizontal solid lines
 187 indicate European Union bathing water guidelines for information, green and orange area being below and above
 188 quality criteria for both FIB types respectively.

189 A weak but significant relation ($r^2 = 0.40789$; $p = 0.0002$) was established between logarithmic
 190 concentrations of EC and FS (Fig. 3). Contamination level was generally higher for *E. coli* at the three
 191 most central urban outlets (Awondo, Arambo and Batavea), whereas fecal streptococci were
 192 recorded at higher densities in the more suburban (Otende, Sablière) and industrial (Awoungou,
 193 located in the industrial settlement of Owendo harbor) sites. The PCA was performed on the
 194 independent data set (6 descriptors, 10 sites, 4 sampling dates). The first two eigenvalues of the PCA
 195 analysis accounted for 88.7% of the total variability. The analysis, therefore, only considered these
 196 two first axes to highlight the relationship between descriptors along a spatial and temporal
 197 distribution. On both axes, the two FIBs were opposed to salinity (Fig. 4). The two nutrient
 198 concentrations (NH_4^+ and PO_4^{2-}) were also linked to bacterial abundances, while pH did not explain
 199 any relation with the other variables. On the first axis, the analysis clearly differentiated the sampling

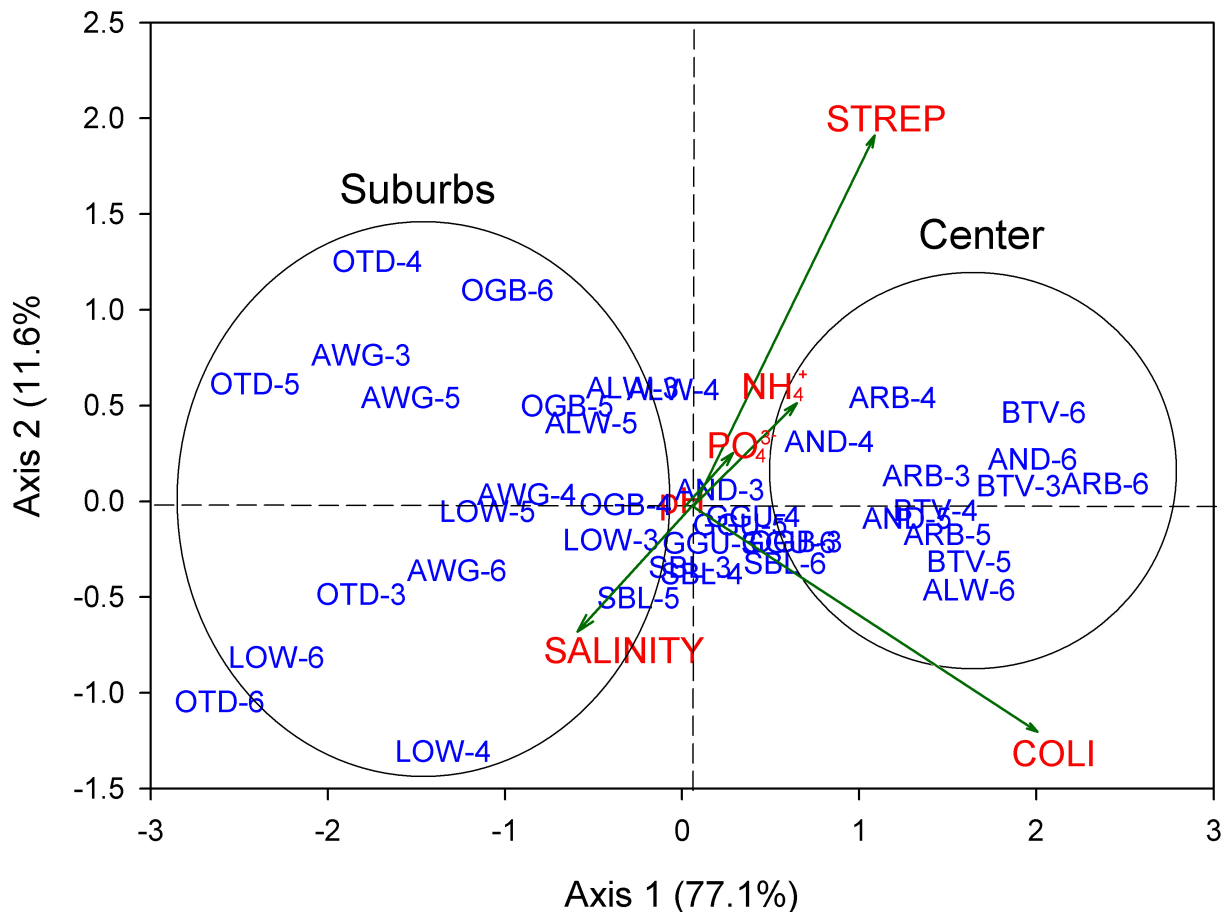
200 locations, with the identification of two groups. On the right, a group of locations (ARB, BTV, AWD,
 201 ALM), identified as the most urban outlets (“Center” group), was clearly linked to FIB abundances,
 202 while the other sites, in scattered habitats and industrial areas (“Suburbs” group on the left), were
 203 characterized by low values of FIB concentrations and amounts of nutrient (Fig. 4). These results
 204 support the prominent influence of sampling locations over sampling dates, most likely linked to
 205 population densities in the respective watersheds.

Table 1. FIB contamination (CFU / 100 mL) in water samples from forest rivers and coastal zone of Cap Estérias (*Escherichia coli* EC and fecal streptococci FS). nd: not determined.

Station	April 2018		April 2019	
	EC	FS	EC	FS
ABM	0	58	0	436
ABE	0	2480	355	3600
ABR	0	4960	nd	nd
ABP	0	1425	1360	1322
AAE	nd	nd	0	2800
AZM	nd	nd	40	1160
AAO	27	1030	0	1380
OBM	0	0	nd	nd
OBE	1940	1086	nd	nd
OBG	0	1500	nd	nd
OBA	0	620	0	1250
OVN	120	210	nd	nd
EVO	nd	nd	0	4260
CML	nd	nd	0	1400
IDK	600	11000	0	2050
EGE	nd	nd	0	3160
CMM	nd	nd	0	180
PBA	nd	nd	64	375
ENO	nd	nd	0	0
ECN	nd	nd	0	68
ECS	nd	nd	0	405
ESU	nd	nd	44	412
IDO	nd	nd	0	500

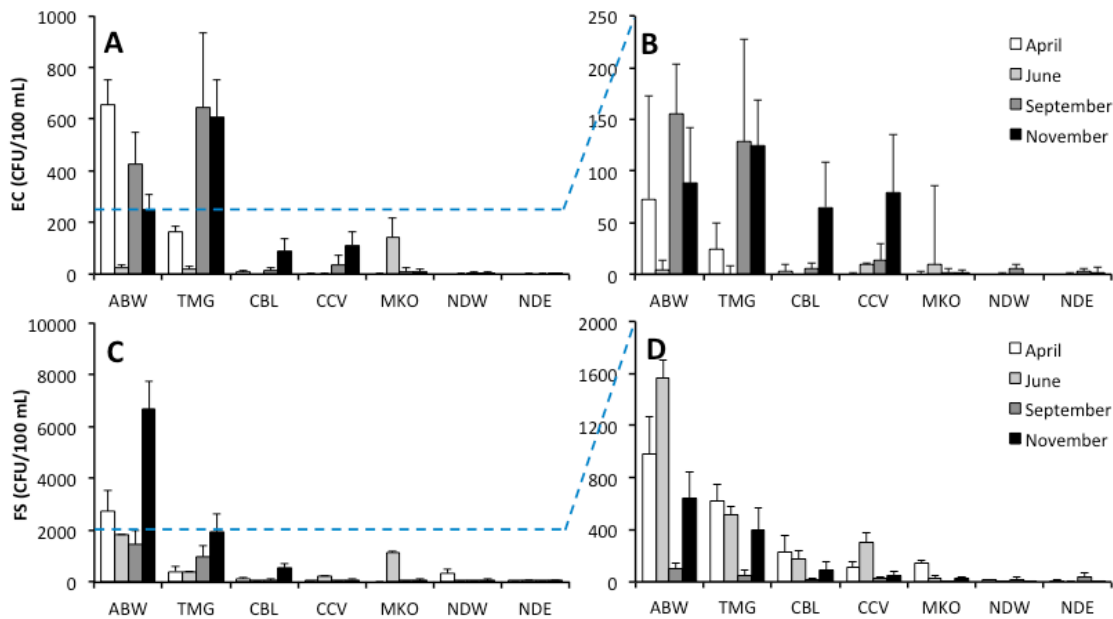
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207 Out of the forty locations sampled, only six complied with the bathing water guidelines of the World
 208 Health Organization and the European Union applying to marine and transitional waters for “good
 209 quality”, set to 200 and 500 CFU/100 mL (95-percentile of the geometric mean) for fecal streptococci
 210 and *E. coli* respectively (European Parliament 2006, World Health Organization 2018). FIB
 211 contamination in beach waters along the littoral of Libreville is therefore worrying since recreational
 212 bathing by urban populations is usual practice, especially during weekends.



213
 214 **Figure 4.** Principal component analysis (PCA) on the two first axes, based on environmental parameters and FIB
 215 concentrations at the outlet of Libreville coastal rivers in the Komo Estuary. Eigenvalues for each axis of the PCA
 216 are reported. Abbreviations for sampled locations are listed in Table 1, sampling dates in 2018 are identified by
 217 month numbers (3: March; 4: April; 5: May; 6: June). STREP: abundance of fecal streptococci; COLI: abundance
 218 of *Escherichia coli*; NH₄⁺: ammonium concentration; PO₄³⁻: orthophosphate concentration. Two groups of
 219 locations can be defined (Suburbs and Center).
 220 Regarding the FIB contamination in the mangrove protected area in Akanda National Park, seven
 221 sites were sampled on the Ntsini channel, representing ca. 27 km of watercourse from Ambowé,
 222 close to an urban fishing pier, to Nendé East, at the mouth of the Mondah Bay (Fig. 1). Samples were
 223 taken at four dates between April and November 2017, during both rising and ebb tides of the same
 224 day. A clear decreasing pattern from up- to downstream was observed for both categories of FIB (Fig.
 225 5), consistent with an important contamination source from urbanized areas with subsequent
 226 transport, mortality decay and dilution to the open coastal waters. In 48 out of 56 samples analyzed,
 227 *E. coli* densities (Fig. 5A and 5B) were lower than fecal streptococci counts (Fig. 5C and 5D) by a
 228 factor up to 10 (maximal counts of 655±99 and 6666±1100 for EC and FS respectively), while rising
 229 waters (Fig. 5A and 5C) appeared often more contaminated than ebb waters (Fig. 5B and 5D).
 230 Contamination of surface waters during rising tide was significantly higher (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$) for EC
 231 at ABW, TMG, MKO and NDE locations, and for FS at all locations except MKO. This tide-dependent
 232 pattern was consistent with the leaching of contaminated sediments by inflowing waters. Discharged

233 sewage during low tides was retained on emerged sediment banks acting as a buffer zone, later
 234 released during flow and further increasing the overall densities of FIB in the mangrove channel
 235 surface water.



236
 237 **Figure 5.** Concentrations of FIB *Escherichia coli* (A, B) and fecal streptococci (C, D) expressed as CFU/100 mL in
 238 the Ntsini channel from the suburbs to Akanda National Park depending on sampling date, at rising (left panels A
 239 and C) and ebb (right panels C and D) tides. Locations are ordered from the most urban zone (left, Ambowé) to
 240 the central protected area (right, Nendé East). The range differences in y axes for rising and ebb data are
 241 highlighted by the blue dashed lines.

242 Survival of FIB in tropical estuarine waters is not favored, since salinity, temperature and sunlight
 243 rapidly lower bacterial cultivability (Korajkic et al., 2019). In the Senegal Estuary for example, T_{90}
 244 (time to decrease the FIB density by 90%) was reported below one day for *E. coli* strains (Troussellier
 245 et al., 2004), whereas fecal streptococci are reputedly more persistent in aquatic environments. FIB
 246 tracers, resulting in significant contamination that exceeded the quality levels for recreational
 247 waters, therefore confirm the extent of sewage discharge into the upper mangrove fringes. Despite
 248 or because of the absence of any leisure infrastructures, local inhabitants are used to bathing in the
 249 mangrove upper creeks, a risky activity regarding sanitary hazards and the lack of regulation. The fact
 250 that FIB levels recorded in the most distant locations were often detectable is likely to unveil a
 251 diffuse but significant human pressure even in the highly regulated area of Akanda National Park.
 252 Beaches and upstream rivers were sampled in April 2018 and April 2019 in water bodies surrounding
 253 the settlement of Cap Estérias, including forest streams of the Arboretum Raponda Walker, a
 254 protected littoral forest. Out of 29 samples, only one was devoid of measurable FIB contamination
 255 (Table 1), sampled on a rocky shore at high tide.

256 By contrast with the other sampling sites studied in urban littorals and mangrove channels,
257 contamination by *Escherichia coli* was extremely rare, with the detection of EC in only 9 samples
258 within the area. Nevertheless, a significant occurrence of FIB and especially fecal streptococci was
259 reported in the protected area of Arboretum Raponda Walker, despite a high level of regulation. It is
260 worth noticing that the most contaminated sample, with EC and FS evaluated at 600 and 11000 CFU
261 / 100 mL respectively, was taken from Idakogo river, in a touristic forest circuit. The lower parts of
262 Abagna and Obagna rivers were also significantly contaminated by FIB, the first one crossing the
263 main village, the second one draining poultry farms and scattered habitats. Regarding the coastal
264 zone, significant contamination exceeding safety levels was measured on beaches and rocky shores,
265 putting recreational and fishing activities at risk: Cap Estérias is a renowned leisure place for city
266 dwellers and for the existence of an emblematic fishery for the razor clam, *Solen guinensis*, highly
267 valued locally as seafood (Cardiec et al., 2020). As noticed for the urban zone of Libreville, sewage
268 management is absent and will need to be considered in a near future to reduce pollution and safety
269 hazards, as recommended by Lüthi et al. (2020).

270 This study provides the first evaluation of fecal pollution in the coastal zone of Gabon, focusing on
271 the most densely populated region of Libreville. The diagnosis is worrying, with numerous outlets,
272 rivers and beaches contaminated by sewage discharge, resulting in significant concentrations of FIB
273 in coastal waters. Exceeding by far the safety guidelines for recreational waters (European
274 Parliament, 2006; World Health Organization, 2018) in most of the samples, the study area deserves
275 further monitoring and risk assessment. The reported pattern suggests a threat to coastal marine
276 waters and to the production of local fisheries through potential hazardous pathogens (Padovan et
277 al. 2020), since FIB are closely linked to waterborne microbial diseases (Djuikom et al., 2006;
278 Bastaraud et al., 2020). Recreational activities are particularly exposed, being practiced by a young
279 population that is not adequately informed about the risks and, furthermore, inherently fragile in the
280 face of intestinal diseases (Bouvy et al., 2010; Koko et al., 2013).

281 Direct comparison of the current status of Libreville coastal ecosystems regarding FIB contamination
282 to other subtropical and tropical locations is difficult since studied markers and detection methods
283 often differ. In the Senegal Estuary, Bouvy et al. (2010) reported the importance of both direct
284 (fishermen community settlements and city hospital) and indirect (upper freshwater reservoirs)
285 contributions to estuarine and coastal contamination by *E. coli* and fecal streptococci, enumerated
286 by culture-based methods, with 20% of samples not complying to international guidelines. A worse
287 condition was reported using the same approach in the Hann Bay (Dakar, Senegal), suffering from
288 direct sludge releases, where coastal open sea was highly contaminated by FIB, with most samples
289 exceeding quality guidelines (Bouvy et al., 2008). A comparable survey from seashore waters in
290 Zanzibar (Tanzania) reported the occurrence of fecal streptococci exceeding guidelines in a touristic

291 area (Moynihan et al., 2012), together with highlighting the differences in marine pollution
292 perception by local and foreign populations. The temporal variability in FIB densities reported during
293 this study has also been highlighted, for example, in a Hawaiian estuary (Wiegner et al., 2017) where
294 fecal streptococci contamination increased during storm events. Seasonal changes in rain intensity
295 were also proven important, especially in tropical regions submitted to monsoon events
296 (Khandeparker et al., 2015).

297 Bacterial enumeration by culture-based methods does not consist in a direct assessment of health
298 risk. For example, only a few strains of *E. coli* are known to be toxic to humans, and their detection
299 relies on specific methods such as gene targeting (Snoussi et al., 2011; Walker et al., 2013). Detection
300 and enumeration of FIB are often limited tools in forecasting microbially-associated risks in coastal
301 waters and are still being debated regarding the accuracy of the different methods (Wu et al., 2011;
302 Vukić Lušić et al., 2013; Padovan et al., 2020). Nevertheless, cultivation procedures have proven
303 useful in addressing wastewater-related pollution issues for decades, relying on robust methods that
304 require affordable equipment and consumables, easy-to-learn technical skills, and which benefit
305 from an internationally validated framework for sample processing and results interpretation. As
306 such, FIB detection using selective growth media could be widely implemented as a first-step
307 monitoring tool in developing countries (Condé-Lamparelli et al., 2015; Krepsky et al. 2021). Together
308 with direct counts in coastal waters, more synoptic approaches could be later considered in order to
309 overcome the high temporal variability of FIB in surface waters, such as the detection of fecal sterols
310 in surficial sediment (Isobe et al., 2002; Muniz et al., 2015; Frena et al., 2019). To improve
311 significance of FIB enumeration in the specific frame of human health risk management, robust and
312 univocal determination of potential pathogens could be attained by using locally adapted
313 methodologies. For example, the availability of isolated strains could serve as positive control in
314 culture-based and genomic detection (Padovan et al. 2020) together with ongoing epidemiological
315 surveys of waterborne diseases.

316 National parks and marine protected areas are keystone elements of the 21st Century conservation
317 policy in Gabon, expected to contribute to the forecasted sustainable development of the country
318 (Goussard and Ducrocq, 2017). On a global scale, Marine Protected Areas represent a significant
319 hope for reducing human pressures on the oceans and making their use sustainable (Duarte et al.,
320 2020). Nevertheless, conservation objectives and preservation of artisanal and patrimonial activities
321 are weakened in the case of the *Arc d'Émeraude* area, mostly through the increasing demographic
322 pressure which largely exceeds land use planning, resulting in solid and liquid waste spreading to the
323 coastal ecosystem. Uncontrolled peri-urban extension around Libreville directly threatens
324 conservation purposes, reducing the buffer zone and putting in direct contact the suburbs and the
325 protected areas (Goussart and Ducrocq, 2017). Waste management should be raised as a priority

326 objective for stakeholders in order to reduce pollution pressure, with foremost benefits for both
327 human and environmental health. In such a context, long-term monitoring of waste indicator
328 microorganisms will contribute to increasing the safety of citizens and allow managers to assess the
329 effectiveness of mitigation and regulation layouts in a context of urban sanitation (Wu et al., 2011;
330 Lüthi et al., 2020). FIB determination can be an appropriate measure of global pollution in marine
331 coastal environments (Lyimo, 2008), accounting for the multiple dissolved and particulate
332 contaminants carried together.

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