

1 Spatio-temporal trends of air quality, Kampala City, Uganda, 2020–2022

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12 Abstract

13 Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is among the health damaging air pollutants that pose health
14 risks to humans, with levels >15 µg/m³ being associated with adverse health effects. PM_{2.5} has
15 been recommended as the best measure of air quality. Cities are more prone to poor air
16 quality compared to non-urban areas. We assessed the spatio-temporal trends in air quality in
17 Kampala City during January 2020–June 2022. We abstracted PM_{2.5} concentrations generated
18 by twenty-four Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors from January 1, 2020, to June 30,
19 2022, from the Clarity© dashboard. We computed 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentrations at
20 city and division levels by combining data from all monitors. Average PM_{2.5} concentrations per
21 hour were compared by the hour of the day. We generated choropleth maps and line graphs
22 to show trends in 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentrations in Kampala City over the study
23 period. The seasonal Mann-Kendall statistical test was applied to assess the significance of
24 observed trends based on Kendall's tau correlation coefficient (r) and p-values. Overall, the
25 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentration from January 1, 2020, to June 30, 2022, was 59 µg/m³

26 (range: 18–182 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations exceeded 15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in all city divisions: Kawempe
27 (63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Central (61 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Rubaga (60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Nakawa (55 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and Makindye (53
28 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). A statistically significant decline in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ occurred throughout the assessment
29 period from January 2020 to June 2022 ($r = -0.27$, $p < 0.001$). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ increased from April to
30 June each year [2020 (55 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $r=0.56$, $p=0.006$), 2021 (45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $r=0.26$, $p=0.030$), and
31 2022 (37 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $r=0.37$, $p=0.030$)] and declined from July to September in 2021 (57 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
32 $r=-0.43$, $p=0.008$) and January to March in 2022 (60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $r=-0.41$, $p=0.011$). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
33 concentration peaked from 10am–midday (74–73 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and 8pm–9pm (73–77 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).
34 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations exceeded targeted safe levels on all days in Kampala City during 2020–
35 2022. In 2022, Kampala Capital City Authority developed the Kampala City Clean Air Action
36 Plan with interventions to be undertaken by multiple partners aimed at improving air quality,
37 including further monitoring.

38 **Keywords:** Particulate Matter, Fine Particulate Matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), Air Pollutants, Cities, Uganda

39 **Background**

40 Air pollution, the contamination of air with substances that are harmful to human
41 health, is one of the outstanding health concerns today [1]. It is a silent killer, accounting for
42 an estimated 6.7 million premature death annually worldwide [2, 3]. Air pollution is
43 associated with ischemic heart disease, stroke, lung cancer, chronic obstructive pulmonary
44 disease, pneumonia, type 2 diabetes, and neonatal disorders, as well as infant mortality, low
45 birthweight, pre-term delivery, mental health conditions, and neurological impairment [4].
46 Sources of air pollution include domestic solid biomass energy use, exhaust and non-exhaust
47 emissions from vehicles, industrial emissions, and burning of solid waste [5].

48 Particulate Matter (PM), one of the major health-damaging air pollutants as classified
49 by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United States Environmental Protection
50 Agency (EPA), is formed in the atmosphere as a result of chemical reactions between different

51 pollutants, and contains tiny liquid or solid droplets that can be inhaled dependent on their
52 size and cause serious health effects [6]. Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) poses adverse risks to
53 humans due to its small size and diameter, which easily permit penetration into the lower
54 respiratory tract [7]. Long term exposure to unsafe levels of PM_{2.5} increases the risk of excess
55 mortality from aggravated asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer, stroke,
56 diabetes mellitus, and incidence of maternal and fetal complications, among others [8].
57 According to the Global Burden of Disease Report, PM_{2.5} caused 6.4 million premature deaths
58 in 2019 [3, 4]. Globally, air pollution due to PM_{2.5} is increasing; the population-weighted
59 mean PM_{2.5} increased by 0.04 ± 0.02 micrograms per cubic meter per year worldwide from
60 1998–2018 [9]. Remarkably, seasonal variations and meteorological conditions may either
61 decrease or increase PM_{2.5} concentration levels [10–13].

62 According to the 2021 WHO Air Quality Guidelines, the 24-hour average targeted safe
63 level of PM_{2.5} is less than or equal to 15 µg/m³, and the annual targeted safe level is less than
64 or equal to 5 µg/m³. Kampala City has been ranked as one of the cities with the highest levels
65 of PM_{2.5} globally, exceeding WHO recommended air quality PM_{2.5} levels by 5 to 7 times as of
66 2021 [14]. However, there is limited data on the spatial and temporal distribution of PM_{2.5}
67 across Kampala City. Understanding the spatial and temporal distributions of PM_{2.5}
68 concentrations is critical to act as a foundation for Kampala Capital City Authority and other
69 government agencies to implement strategic, evidence-based decisions to improve air quality
70 in the city. We assessed the spatio-temporal trends of PM_{2.5} in Kampala City from January
71 2020 to June 2022.

72 **Methods**

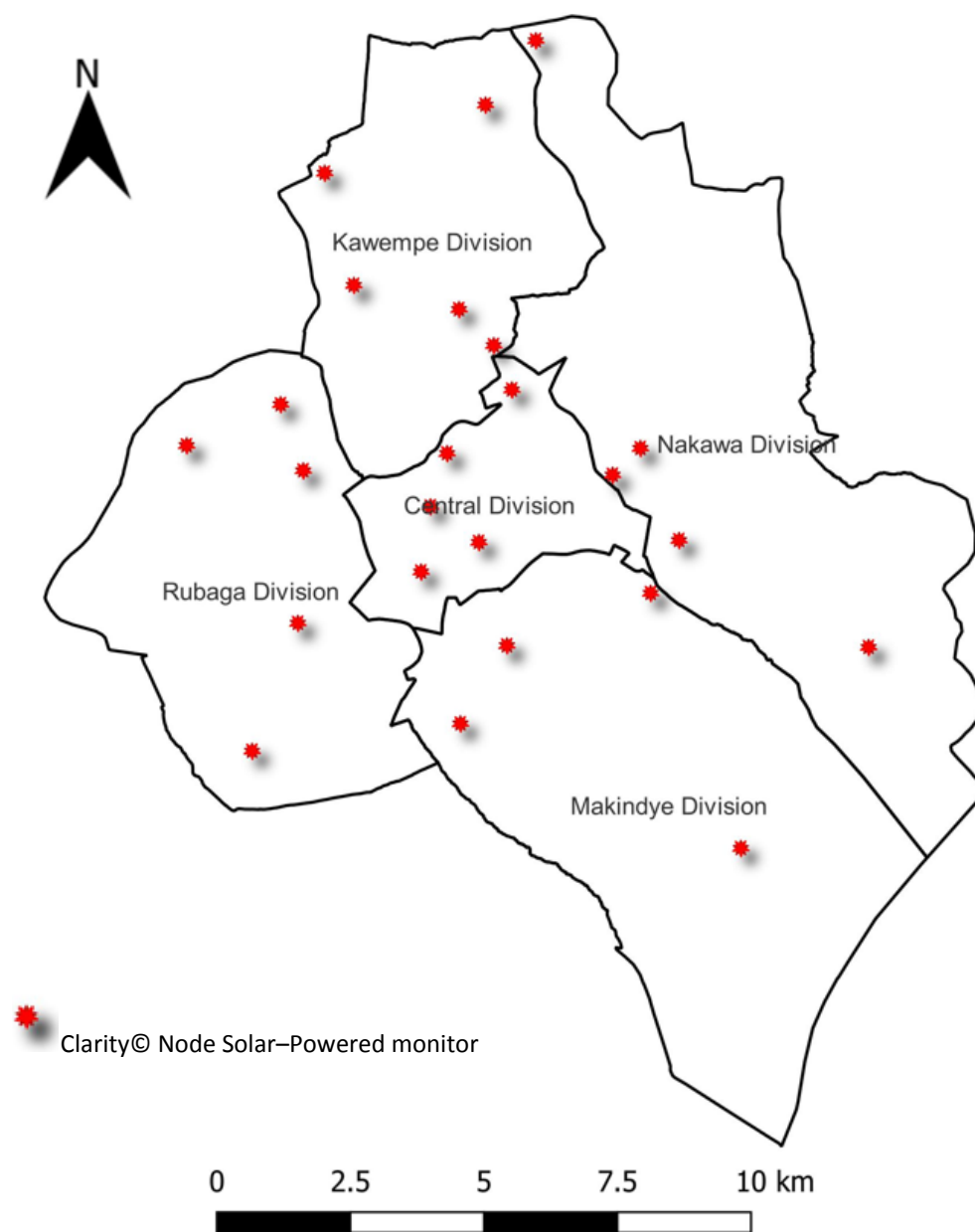
73 **Study setting**

74 This assessment was conducted in Kampala, the capital city of Uganda. It is divided into
75 5 administrative divisions: Central, Kawempe, Makindye, Rubaga, and Nakawa. The city has a

76 surface area of 189 km², including 176 km² of land and 13 km² of water [15]. The 2023
77 population was estimated at 1.76 million; however, the city has a dynamic and transient day
78 population estimated at 5 million people [16]. Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) has
79 been mandated to govern and administer Kampala Capital City on behalf of the Central
80 Government of Uganda.

81 **Study design, data source, study variables, and data abstraction**

82 In December 2019, KCCA installed twenty-four Clarity© Node Solar-Powered
83 monitors for outdoor air quality monitoring in all five divisions of Kampala City (Figure 1).
84 Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors were permanently set up at least 1.5 meters above
85 ground level in secure areas away from obstruction or emission sources that could interfere
86 with air quality measurements. Calibration of Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors was
87 based on co-location data with the reference air quality monitoring station at the US Embassy
88 in Kampala City. Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors use inbuilt cellular connectivity to
89 transmit raw data for PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), temperature, and relative
90 humidity. Calibrated data generated by these monitors are accessed in real-time on the
91 Clarity© Dashboard. We conducted a secondary analysis of air quality surveillance data
92 generated by Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors. We abstracted hourly PM_{2.5}
93 concentrations generated by calibrated Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors from the
94 Clarity© Dashboard from January 2020–June 2022.



95

96 **Figure 1: Location of Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors in Kampala City, Uganda**

97 **Data analysis**

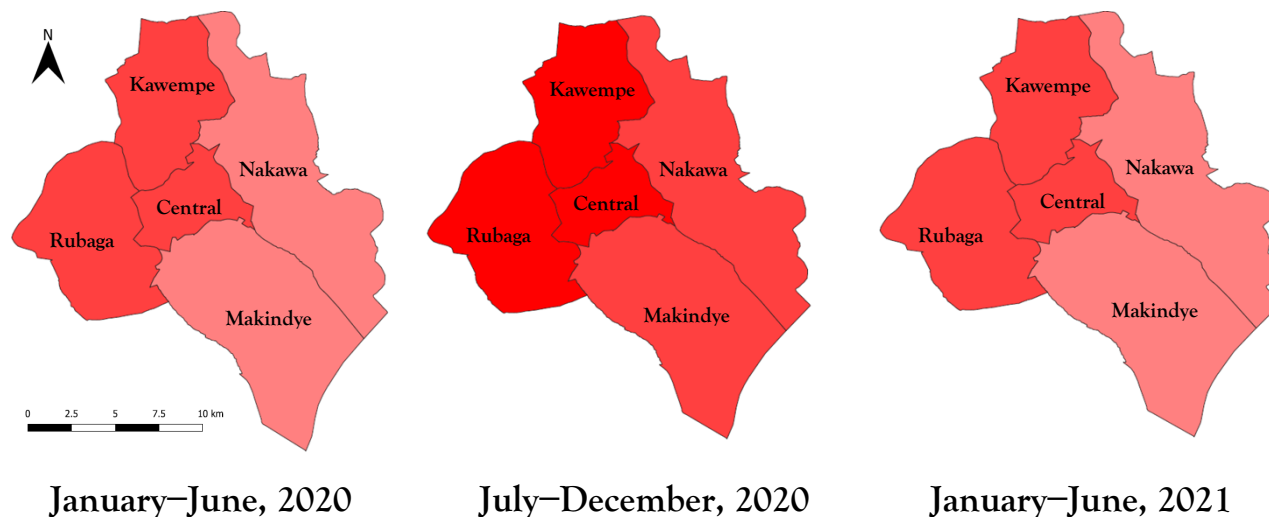
98 For spatial distribution, the 24-hour average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration from January 1, 2020,
99 to June 30, 2022 was computed at the city and division levels. Choropleth maps were
100 generated to show the distribution of 24-hour average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations across the
101 divisions of Kampala City stratified by biannual periods. We also used a line graph to show

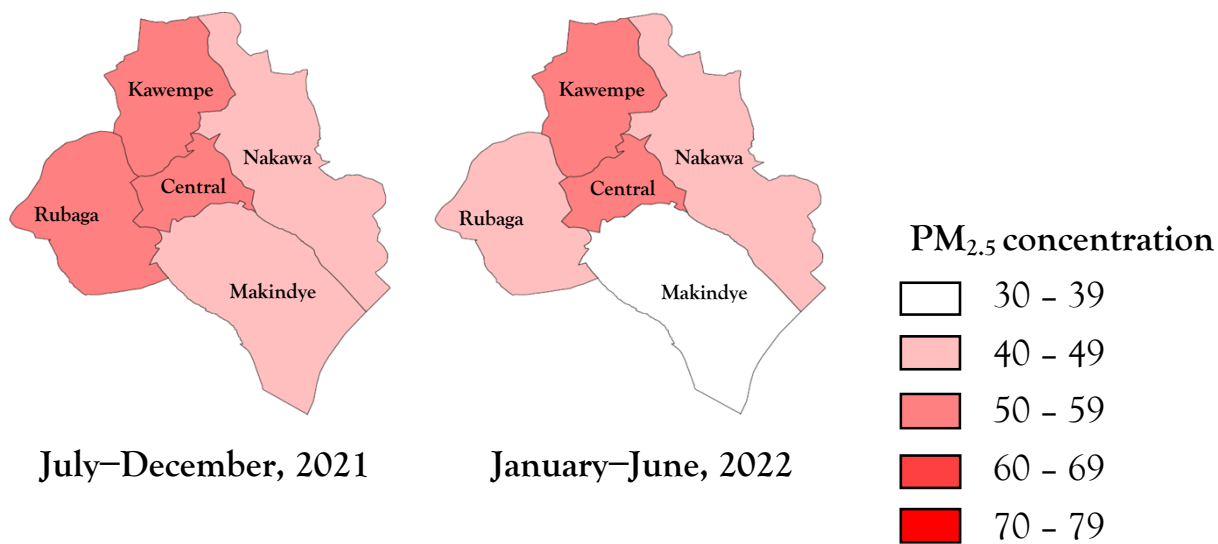
102 the trend of the 24-hour average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Kampala City from January 1, 2020
103 to June 30, 2022. The seasonal Mann-Kendall statistical test was applied to assess the
104 significance of the observed trends by quarterly periods based on Kendall's tau correlation
105 coefficient (r) and p -values. We used a line graph to show the trend of the hourly average
106 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations by hour of the day (midnight-11pm), to understand the variations of air
107 quality throughout the day.

108 Results

109 Spatial distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ in Kampala City, January, 2020–June, 2022

110 Overall, the 24-hour average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was $59 \mu g/m^3$ in Kampala City from
111 January 2020 to June, 2022. There was a general decline in $PM_{2.5}$ across the 6-month periods
112 during throughout the evaluation period. However, consistently higher $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
113 were observed in Kawempe and Central compared to other divisions (Figure 2).

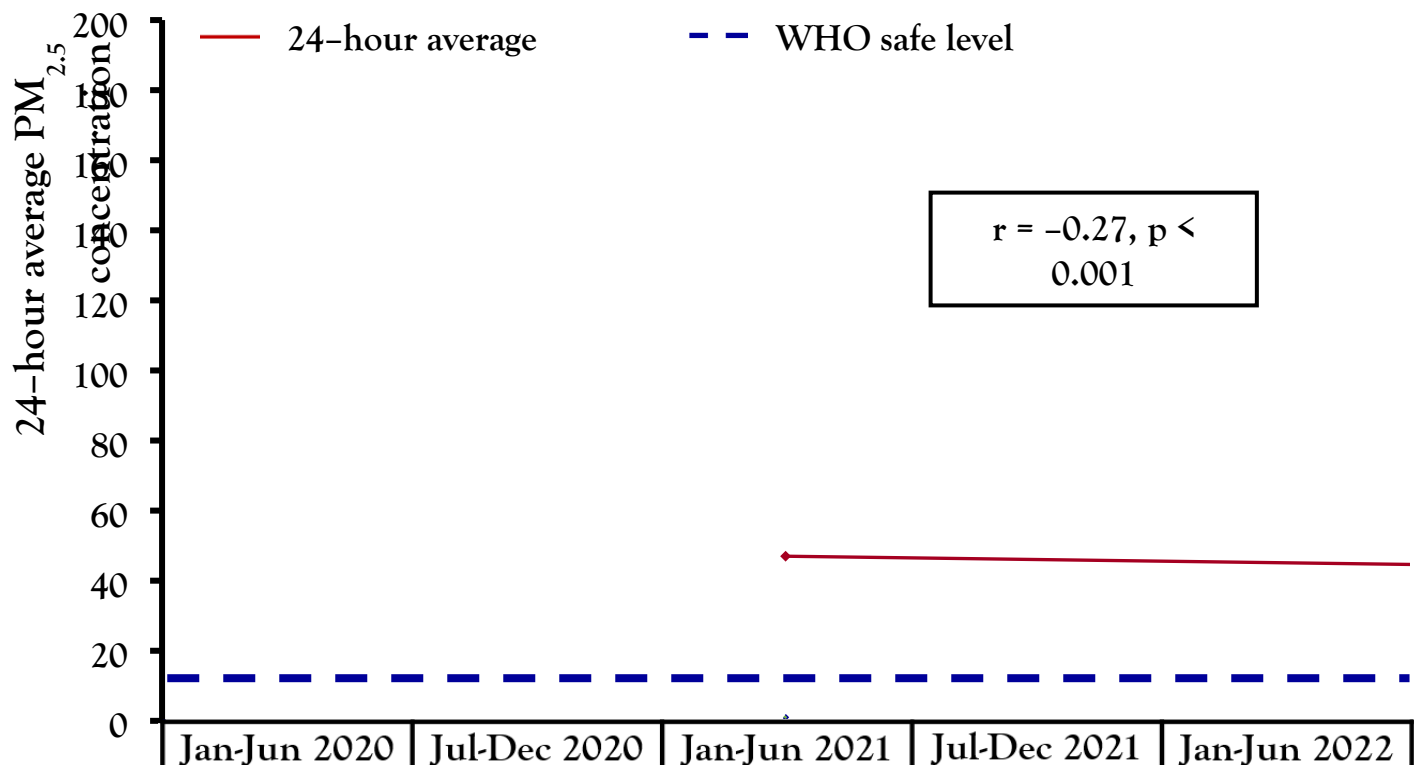




114 **Figure 2: Spatial distribution of 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentration in Kampala City,**
115 **January 2020–June 2022**

116 Trends of PM_{2.5} in Kampala City, January, 2020–June, 2022

117 There were daily cyclical variations of PM_{2.5} concentration alternating between 18 µg/m³
118 and 182 µg/m³ (Figure 3). Based on the correlation coefficient and p-value ($r = -0.27$, $p < 0.001$),
119 there was a slight decrease in 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentration from January 2020–June
120 2022.



121
122 Figure 3: Trend of 24-hour average PM_{2.5} in Kampala City, January 2020–June 2022

123 PM_{2.5} increased during April–June throughout all evaluation years [2020 (55 µg/m³,
124 r=0.56, p=0.006), 2021 (45 µg/m³, r=0.26, p=0.030), and 2022 (37 µg/m³, r=0.37, p=0.030)], as
125 well as during October–December, 2020 (68 µg/m³, r=0.32, p=0.032) (Table 1). Significant
126 decreasing trends were observed during July–September, 2021 (57 µg/m³, r=-0.43, p=0.008)
127 and January–March, 2022 (60 µg/m³, r=-0.41, p=0.011).

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Table 1: Trends of PM_{2.5} concentrations in Kampala City, January 2020–June 2022

Quarterly periods	Average PM _{2.5} concentration	PM _{2.5} concentration range	Seasonal Mann-Kendall statistic (S')	Kendall's tau correlation coefficient	p-value
Jan - Mar 2020	65	32-119	-68	-0.27	0.051
Apr - Jun 2020	55	32-98	142	0.56	0.006
Jul - Sep 2020	76	49-182	-48	-0.19	0.054
Oct - Dec 2020	68	43-116	80	0.32	0.032
Jan - Mar 2021	74	44-152	-48	-0.19	0.138
Apr - Jun 2021	45	22-83	66	0.26	0.030
Jul - Sep 2021	57	25-85	-108	-0.43	0.008
Oct - Dec 2021	49	27-73	-2	-0.01	0.967
Jan - Mar 2022	60	24-141	-104	-0.41	0.011
Apr - Jun 2022	37	19-66	94	0.37	0.030

130

Variations of PM_{2.5} concentrations by hour of the day, January 2020–June 2022

131

Two PM_{2.5} concentration peaks were observed throughout the day (Figure 4). The first

132

peak was observed between 10am and midday (74–73 µg/m³), whereas the second peak was

133

observed between 8pm and 9pm (73–77 µg/m³). These represent time periods occurring

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shortly after the peak traffic hours in the city.

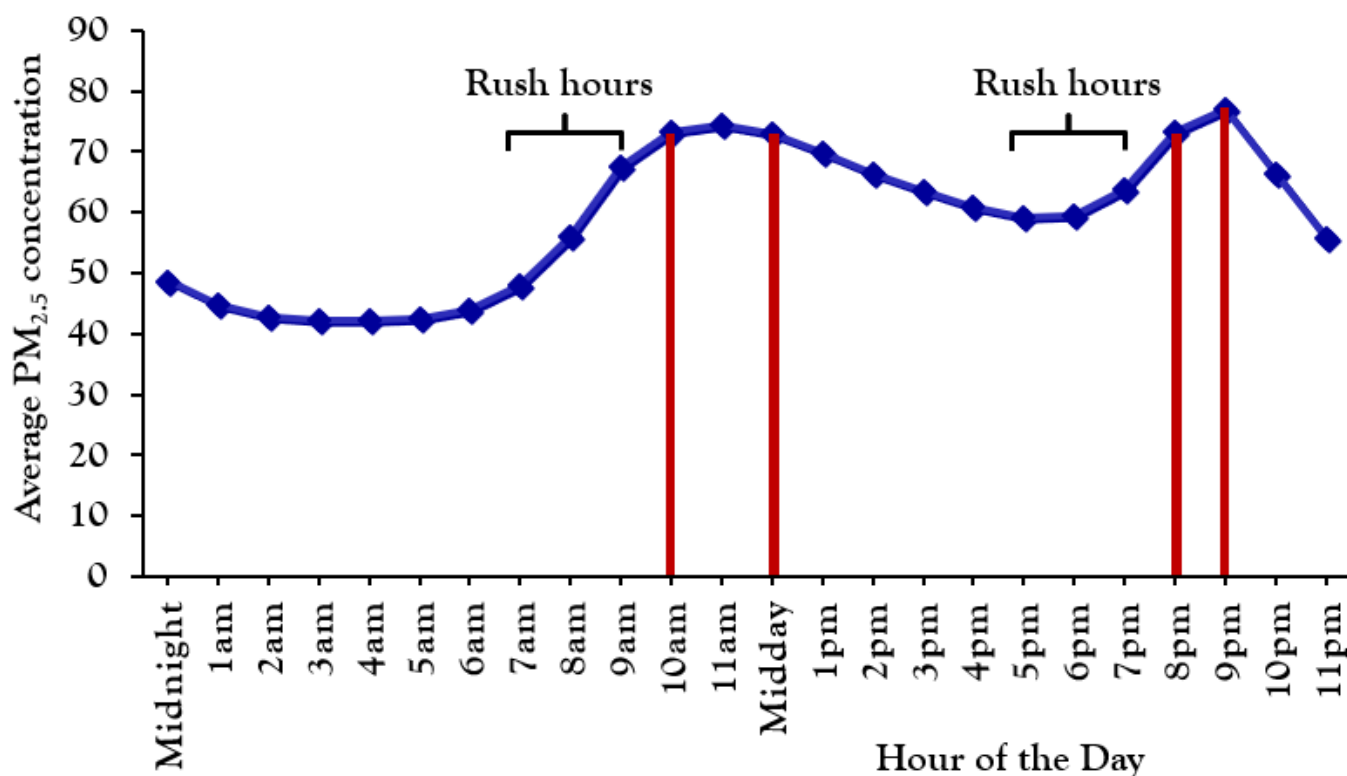


Figure 4: Average PM_{2.5} concentrations by hour of the day, January 2020–June 2022

Discussion

The 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentration level in Kampala City exceeded the WHO targeted safe level at 15 µg/m³ across all hours of the day during 2020–2022. There were two peak periods of PM_{2.5} pollution each day. A general decreasing trend in the 24-hour average PM_{2.5} concentration across the two years of the evaluation indicated a slight improvement in air quality in Kampala City.

Previous studies in Uganda have also indicated elevated PM_{2.5} levels exceeding WHO-recommended maxima. A longitudinal study from December 2018–May 2019 across selected urban centers in Southern, Eastern, and Central Uganda showed that the 24-hourly average PM_{2.5} varied between 34 and 107 µg/m³ [17], and a pilot cross-sectional spatial assessment conducted in 2014 reported a 24-hourly average PM_{2.5} concentration at 138.6 µg/m³ in

148 Kampala City [18]. Ground assessments revealed that poorer air quality was observed in
149 Kampala than in neighboring countries' capitals of Nairobi and Addis Ababa [19].

150 However, such high levels of pollution observed in capital cities appears to be the norm,
151 rather than the exception. Estimates for 2019 suggested that only 0.18% of the global land
152 area and 0.001% of the global population were exposed to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations lower than
153 the 2021 WHO safe level on a regular basis, with more than 70% of days in the remaining
154 area and population having daily $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations higher than $15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ [20]. In Europe
155 and the eastern United States, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations decreased from 1998–2016 despite urban
156 expansion and population growth, demonstrating the real potential to improve air quality in
157 other areas, including developing sub-Saharan African cities [21]. However, achieving these
158 results requires governments and city authorities to advocate for sustainable urbanization
159 practices that take health and environmental protection into consideration [21]. Promotion of
160 low-carbon utilization strategies such as using cleaner household energy alternatives,
161 conducting regular vehicle maintenance, and proper household, commercial, and industrial
162 solid waste management have been key in addressing air pollution in many countries along
163 their development pathway [22].

164 We observed a declining trend in $PM_{2.5}$ over the study period. The reasons for this are
165 unknown, but may be attributed to a decline in traffic over this time period, partially
166 attributed to behavioral changes that occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic and
167 increased fuel prices which reduced vehicular traffic [23–25]. Other cities have seen a variety
168 of weather parameters contribute to declines in $PM_{2.5}$ over time, including changes in rainfall
169 density, humidity, temperature, wind speed, and thermal inversion episodes [4, 7]. Further
170 analytical studies and continued monitoring are needed to explain the observed decline and
171 inform source apportionment assessments of air pollution in Kampala City.

172 Despite the observed decreasing trend over the time period, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
173 remained above 'safe' levels throughout the study period. Two divisions that were particularly

174 affected, Kawempe and Central divisions, have many informal settlements and food businesses
175 that use biomass fuel for cooking and small-scale industries. Kawempe and Central divisions
176 contain the largest informal settlements compared with Nakawa, Makindye, and Rubaga
177 divisions, as well as a mixture of commerce and industry, transport terminals, and poor
178 residential settlements [26–30]. It is possible that these may be contributing to the higher
179 levels of $PM_{2.5}$ in these areas. In addition, Kampala is a hilly city with highly localized weather
180 and air patterns, and some areas may be particularly prone to poor air quality compared to
181 others [18]. In hilly areas, moderate wind speed increases the dispersion of pollutants, whereas
182 in low-lying areas with reduced wind speed, air pollutants become trapped thus increasing
183 levels of air pollution. A deeper understanding of how the topography affects air quality in the
184 city could help to explain some of the differences observed across the divisions.

185 The two $PM_{2.5}$ concentration daily peaks occurred in the mid-late morning and later
186 evening in Kampala City. This is similar to findings from a previous study in Kampala City
187 [31] as well as findings from a study including 3,110 sites across the world [32] and one across
188 11 cities in Sub-Saharan Africa [33]. The morning and evening peak $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
189 observed in these studies have been attributed to both normal thermal inversion and
190 automobile traffic pollution; indeed, data show that traffic emissions are among the biggest
191 contributors to air pollution in urban settings [34]. A systematic review and meta-analysis
192 showed that one-quarter of urban ambient $PM_{2.5}$ comes from vehicular traffic, 20% by
193 domestic biomass burning, 15% by industrial activities, 22% from unspecified sources of
194 human origin, and 18% from natural dust and salt [34]. In Kampala, a significant
195 improvement in air quality was also observed during the COVID-19 lockdown periods in
196 Uganda, during which comprehensive restrictions were imposed on vehicular traffic,
197 compared to the same months in the adjacent non-lockdown years [35]. The second peak in
198 the evening is also impacted by the decrease in the planetary boundary layer, which increases
199 the dispersion of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations to the ground level [19].

200 **Study limitations**

201 Three out of twenty-four air quality monitors were non-functional for 4 months
202 (March–June, 2022), resulting in missing $PM_{2.5}$ concentration data during the affected period.
203 This could have led to underestimation or overestimation of the air quality levels during the
204 affected months and overall assessment period. Furthermore, we did not assess the impact of
205 climatological conditions, for example wind speed, rainfall, temperatures, and precipitation,
206 on $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in Kampala City because we did not have all the required data to
207 explore this relationship.

208 **Conclusion**

209 We found unhealthy air quality evidenced by $PM_{2.5}$ concentration exceeding the WHO
210 targeted safe level throughout the day, even during times of less traffic and economic activities
211 in Kampala City. There was a modest improvement in $PM_{2.5}$ air quality from January 2020 to
212 June 2022. Specific divisions consistently faced higher levels of $PM_{2.5}$ than others. Deeper
213 study of the reasons for the decline and the presence of $PM_{2.5}$ hotspots could facilitate the
214 prioritization of interventions to improve quality in Kampala City. Based on the evidence in
215 this paper, the Kampala Capital City Clean Air Action Plan was developed with interventions
216 including promoting individual responsibility for air quality and assigning roles to different
217 stakeholders towards improving air quality in the city. Initiatives to improve air quality cannot
218 be confined to only Kampala Capital City Authority; there is a need for multi-sectoral
219 collaboration to achieve the mandate of the Kampala Capital City Clean Air Action Plan.

220 **List of abbreviations**

221 EPA: Environmental Protection Agency; KCCA: Kampala Capital City Authority; PM:
222 Particulate Matter; $PM_{2.5}$: Fine Particulate Matter; r: Kendall's tau correlation coefficient; S':
223 Seasonal Mann–Kendall statistic; WHO: World Health Organization

224 **Declarations**

225 **Ethical approval**

226 Kampala Capital City Authority requested for descriptive analysis of PM_{2.5} concentrations
227 generated by Clarity© Node Solar-Powered monitors. The Office of the Associate Director
228 for Science, Centres of Disease Control and Prevention/Uganda, also determined that this
229 activity was not human subject research, and its primary intent was public health practice or a
230 disease control activity (specifically, epidemic or endemic disease control activity).

231 Administrative clearance to extract PM_{2.5} concentration data from the Clarity© Dashboard
232 was obtained from KCCA. All methods were performed in accordance with the approval and
233 administrative clearance. This activity was reviewed by CDC and was conducted consistent
234 with applicable federal law and CDC policy.[§]

235 [§]See e.g., 45 C.F.R. part 46, 21 C.F.R. part 56; 42 U.S.C. §241(d); 5 U.S.C. §552a; 44 U.S.C.
236 §3501 et seq.

237 **Availability of data and materials**

238 The datasets upon which our findings are based belong to KCCA. For confidentiality reasons,
239 the datasets are not publicly available. However, the datasets can be availed upon reasonable
240 request from the corresponding author and with permission from the KCCA.

241 **Conflict of interest**

242 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

243 **Consent for publication**

244 Not applicable

245 **Funding and disclaimer**

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250 (presentation) have not been formally disseminated by the Centers for Disease Control and
251 Prevention and should not be construed to represent any agency determination or policy. Its
252 contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the
253 official views of the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Department of Health
254 and Human Services, Makerere University School of Public Health, or Ministry of Health.
255 The staff of the funding body provided technical guidance in the design of the study, ethical
256 clearance and collection, analysis, and interpretation of data, and writing the manuscript.

257 **Authors' contributions**

258 MN and AN analyzed the spatio-temporal trends of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations under technical
259 guidance and supervision of SZ, RM, DK, LB, ARA, JH and DOA. MN, AN, SZ and DOA
260 analyzed and interpreted the data. MN drafted the manuscript. MN, AN, RM, CB, LB, JH
261 and DOA, critically reviewed the manuscript for intellectual content. All co-authors read and
262 approved the final manuscript. MN is the guarantor of the paper.

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