African Journal of

Environmental Science and Technology

Volume 10 Number 7, July 2016
ISSN 1996-0786

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African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology

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Vol. 10(7), pp. 192-206, July 2016
DOI: 10.5897/AJEST2015.2040
Article Number: F009BD859152
ISSN 1996-0786

http://www.academicjournals.org/AJEST

African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology

Full Length Research Paper

Combined use of Very Low Frequency Electromagnetic (VLF-EM) and electrical resistivity survey for evaluation of groundwater potential of Modomo/Eleweran area, south western Nigeria

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Received 8 November, 2015; Accepted 26 May, 2016

Very Low Frequency Electromagnetic (VLF-EM) and electrical resistivity surveys were conducted at Modomo/Eleweran, along Ede-road, south western Nigeria, with a view to delineate the hydrogeophysical characterization of the study area. The area is underlain by the Precambrian Basement Complex rocks. The VLF-EM traverses were established along 6 traverses with a station interval of 10 m with lengths ranging from 130 to 360 m. Linear features presumed to be geologic fissures inferred from the filtered real pseudo-sections helped in selecting twenty-nine VES points that were further probed using ABEM SAS 300 C Resistivity Meter. The spreading were carried out using the convectional Schlumberger electrode configuration with half-current electrode separation (AB/2) varying from 1 to 100 m was used for the sounding. The VES data were presented as depth sounding curves and were appropriately iterated using RESIST version (1.0) software. The VLF filtered real profile displayed a low peak trend depicting poor or no fracture signature. Four lithological formations were delineated which included the topsoil, weathered layer, partly weathered/fractured basement and fresh bedrock. The delineated weathered and fractured basement columns constituted the aquifer units. Additionally, from the geophysical parameters viz a viz thin overburden thickness, clayey weathered layer and low fractured frequency characterized by the study area, it is inferred that the groundwater potential of the area varies between poor and low. However, the study justified the use of a combined geophysical investigation as a better tool in evaluating the groundwater potential in the basement complex.

Key words: Weathered layer, geological fissures, aquifer, electrical resistivity, geoelectric section, electromagnetic.

INTRODUCTION

Groundwater has been described as water which occurs in the vadoze zones (Fitts, 2002) which filled the pore space of soil and fissure below the water table (Freeze and Cherry, 1979). This can be extracted by boreholes and hand-dug wells occur in a highly permeable geological formation known as aquifers which have properties that allow storage and movement of water (Eduvie, 2006).

However, the study area is underlain by the Precambrian Basement Complex rocks where groundwater occurs either in the weathered mantle or in the joint and fracture systems in the unweathered rocks (Olorunfemi and Olorunniwo, 1985; Dan-Hassan and Olorunfemi, 1999). The highest groundwater yield in basement terrain is found in areas where thick overburden overlies fractured zones (Olorunniwo and Olorunfemi, 1987). These zones are often characterized by relatively low resistivity. However, the indiscriminate sinking of boreholes without employing systematic scientific approach, that is, pre-drilling geophysical investigation has led to unsuccessful boreholes with poor or low yield (Bayode et al., 2007).

The study area has been experiencing a rapid rate of development due to its proximity to the Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) Campus. This has led to an increase in the higher demand for potable water especially during dry seasons. The incessant failure in many boreholes sunk in this area necessitates the need for a detailed geophysical investigation to delineate suitable aquifers for groundwater development in the area.

Naghibi et al. (2015) studied the use of statistical models viz a viz frequency ratio (FR) and Shannon's entropy (SE) and machine learning models to map the groundwater potential in an underground tunnels, springs and semi-deep wells. However geophysical method has been found widely applied in much hydrogeophysical investigation because of its fast and non-invasive approach especially in a basement complex basement. Hence, an integrated geophysical approach involving the Very Low Frequency (VLF) Electromagnetic and Electrical Resistivity methods was used in this study to delineating geological deep fissures or crevices that may allow accumulation of groundwater.

The major objective of the study is to apply an integrated geophysical approach in evaluating the groundwater potential of the area. However the electromagnetic (VLF) method has been applied extensively as a rough and rapid reconnaissance tool in groundwater investigation especially in basement complex terrain.

The electrical resistivity method on the other hand has been used as a tool to provide a geoelectric picture of the subsurface sequence of a particular area of interest. Also the groundwater accumulation potential in a basement complex terrain has been statistically evaluated from geoelectric parameters using the Schlumberger Vertical Electrical Sounding (Oyedele and Olayinka, 2012).

Physiography and geology

Modomo/Eleweran has an aerial extent of 0.52 km^2 and is located between latitudes 7° 30′ 30″ N and 7° 30′ 52″ N and longitudes 4° 29′ 10″ E and 4° 29′ 35″ E. The study area is accessible through a dirt road emanating from a left flank of Ife-Ede road (Figure 1). The study area is underlain by the Precambrian Basement Complex rocks of southwestern Nigeria (Rahaman, 1976; Nuhu, 2009). The main geological unit in the area is the dark, greenish grey granite-gneiss and pegmatite veins. The granite-gneiss rock belongs to the Migmatite gneiss complex which constitutes one of the major rock units of the Precambrian Basement of the southwestern Nigeria (Nuhu, 2009) (Figure 2). The topography of the study area consists of a gentle plain with a topographic elevation of less than 300 m above sea level. In a typical basement complex terrain, groundwater is confined within weathered layer and or fractured/jointed or sheared basement columns (Afolayan et al., 2004). Groundwater development in such a geological area is a function of the weathered layer thickness, its clay content and the magnitude of fractures.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Geophysical survey and data processing

Very Low Frequency Electromagnetic (VLF-EM) measurements were made using GEONICS EM-16 equipment. NAA Cutler Maine USA transmitter with frequency range of 24 to 27 KHz was used as a based station (McNeill, 1980). The instrument measured the field generated as a ratio of secondary magnetic field to primary magnetic field caused by the presence of the N anomaly (target). Six traverses were cut with station intervals of 10m along NE-SW, W-SE, SE- NW, NE-SW, NE-SW and NW-SE direction to effectively monitor the subsurface inhomogeneity. The real raw (real part of the signal) collected were further subjected to a filtering process to generate the filter real and the imaginary part (Quadrature) data (Olayanju et al., 2009). The filter real in addition with the raw data was plotted against distance to generate the VLF-EM profiles. The interpreted results of the VLF-EM field measurements helped in selecting the locations of vertical electrical soundings.

Twenty-nine Vertical Electrical Sounding (VES) stations were probed in the area using conventional Schlumberger configuration. Field measurements were acquired with ABEM Signal Averaging System (SAS) 300 C Terrameter Resistivity Meter. The apparent resistivity obtained was plotted on a log-log graph paper with the electrode separation (AB/2) on the abscissa and apparent resistivity (ρ_a) values as the ordinate. The true resistivity and thickness of the subsurface layers were interpreted by partial curve matching with the two layer model master curves and the corresponding auxiliary curves. The thickness and resistivity values obtained from the

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Figure 1. Base map of the study area.

partial curve matching were then used for a quantitative computer iteration using the Resist Software algorithm RESIST version1.0 (Velpen, 1988). The results obtained from the computer modeling are presented in Table 1. The iterated geoelectrical parameters obtained (Table 1) were used to generate geoelectric sections and contour maps for the study area in accordance with the analysis of geo-electrical data by Oyedele et al. (2013) in their work to generate groundwater potential map in a complex basement.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The acquired data were processed and subjected to detailed interpretation aimed at unraveling the subsurface conductivity and/or resistivity in the study area. Conductive features, which are characterized by appreciably positive filtered real VLF-EM profile peaks (Figure 3a to f), were interpreted as probable geologic fissures capable of holding significant quantity of water. The EM profiling shows that the VLF-EM anomaly varies from -42 to -4 and -16 to 18 in the raw real and filtered real components, respectively. The VLF filtered real profiles displayed peak values of less than 18% indicating poor or no fracture signature. The results of the electrical resistivity data are presented as sounding curves (Figure 4a to d). Eight VES curve types were identified in the area revealing four geo-electric layers consisting of the topsoil, weathered layer (clay/sandy clay/laterite), partly weathered/fractured basement and fresh basement.

The study area is also characterized by topsoil resistivity values which range between 53 and 697 Ωm with thickness ranging from 0.4 to 1.4 m. The weathered layer resistivity varies between 29 and 243 Ωm with thickness ranging from 0.4 to 16.3m. The resistivity of the weathered layer reflects the variable composition of clay, sandy clay and laterite while the resistivity values of the fresh basement range between 225 and 16527 Ωm.

The isopach and isoresistivity maps of the weathered layer (Figures 5 and 6) respectively depicted a high composition of clayed materials except beneath VES5 where the inferred lithology was partly weathered basement and fractured basement (Oyedele et al., 2013). The inferred lithology also suggests a good fissured

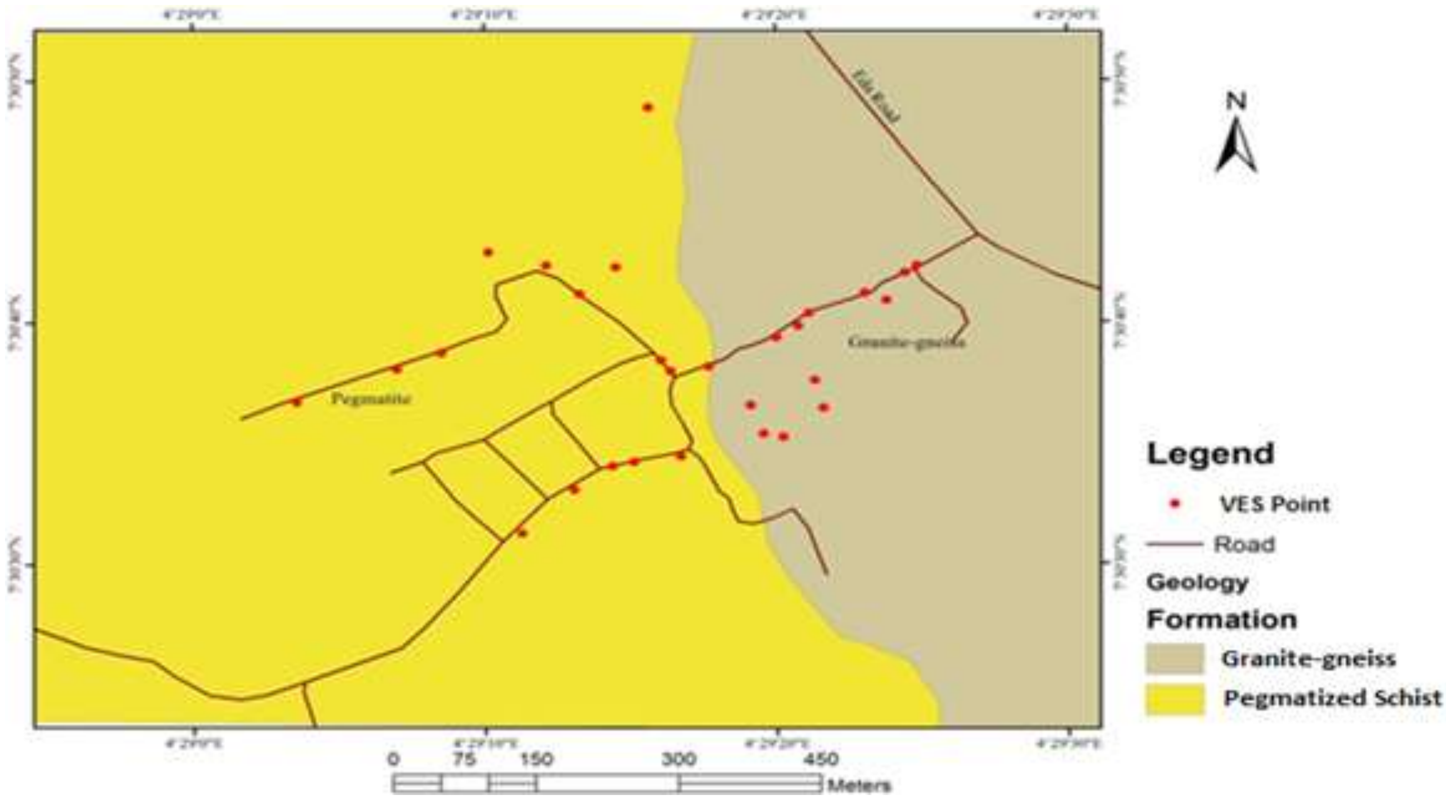

Figure 2. Geological map of the study area.

basement with accumulation of water (good aquiferous unit) due to a very low resistivity indicated compared to other VES location beneath by fractured basement. The presumed aquifer corroborates with the existing drilled borehole 2 (BH 2) which happened to be the only viable of all existing boreholes drilled in the area. The isopach map of the overburden (Figure 7) depicted marked resemblance to that of the weathered layer with respect to thickest and thinnest portions. The thickest and thinnest portions of the weathered layer and the overburden correspond to the depression and the ridges respectively on the bedrock relief map which also depicted the direction of groundwater flow. The spatial map is in corroboration with the study reported by Oyedele et al. (2013) in their analysis of geo-electrical data to generate spatial distributions of relevant geo-electric parameters to map groundwater potential in a complex basement of Southwest Nigeria.

In addition, the coefficient of anisotropy map revealed the location beneath VES5, VES14, VES19, VES20 and VES26 with coefficient of anisotropy 1.8, 1.5, 1.4, 2.3 and 1.6 respectively indicating a presumable fractured basement (Figure 8). However the higher resistivity depicted in these locations suggests a probable fractured lineament due to a joint (strike) feature between Pegmatite and Granite-gneiss from the geological map passing through the locations with very low or no fissured characteristics. While location beneath VES5 indicating a very low resistivity depicting probable aquifer unit.

In general, the study revealed the groundwater potential of the area to be generally low with limited hydrogeological significance.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An integrated geophysical investigation conducted at Modomo/Eleweran area, Osun State revealed the lithological formation to be made up of topsoil, weathered layer (consisting of clay, sandy clay and laterite), partly weathered/fractured basement and fresh basement rock. It was observed that the area is characterized by a thin overburden thickness, clayey weathered layer and low fracture fracture signature. Due to the moderate overburden thickness, lower weathered layer resistivity and high anisotropy value observed in location beneath VES5 and VES20, it can be inferred that these locations would be favourable zones for sitting a borehole. Based on the result of this study, it is clearly shown that the groundwater potential of the area varies between poor

Table 1. VES Interpreted results of the study area.

VES stations	Layers	Resistivity (Ohm-m)	Thickness (m)	Overburden thickness (m)	Curve types	Inferred Litho-strata
1	1	200	0.5			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	57	0.9	1.4		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	161	4.2			Partly weathered basement
	4	68	6.7			Fractured Basement
	5	6305	∞		HKH	Fresh Basement
2	1	230	0.8			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	89	16.3	17.1		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	571	∞		H	Fresh Basement
3	1	313	0.5			Topsoil (Clayed sand)
	2	146	6.6	7.1		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	246	∞		H	Fresh Basement
4	1	130	0.5			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	70	9.5	10		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	225	∞		H	Fresh Basement
5	1	166	0.4			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	29	2.3	2.7		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	71	4.6			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	6	5.3			Fractured Basement
	5	289	∞		HKH	Fresh Basement
6	1	69	0.8			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	137	1.0			Lateritic clay
	3	63	8.1	9.9		Weathered Basement
	4	13594	∞		KH	Fresh Basement
7	1	78	0.7			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	176	1.8	2.5		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	285	10.4			Partly weathered basement
	4	16527	∞		AA	Fresh Basement
8	1	66	1.4	1.4		Topsoil (Clay)
	2	243	11.3			Partly Weathered layer
	3	3681	∞		A	Fresh Basement
9	1	58	0.9			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	83	0.4	1.3		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	343	7.1			Partly Weathered basement
	4	597	7.5			Partly Weathered basement
	5	1438	∞		AAA	Fresh Basement
10	1	312	0.4			Topsoil (Clayey sand)
	2	130	10.4	10.8		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	1665	∞		H	Fresh Basement

Table 1. Contd.

11	1	135	1.3			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	327	4.7			Weathered layer (Laterite)
	3	95	4.4	10.4		Weathered Basement
	4	640	∞		KH	Fresh Basement
12	1	410	0.7			Topsoil (Laterite)
	2	110	6.2	6.9		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	2762	∞		H	Fresh Basement
13	1	85	0.9			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	245	4.3			Weathered layer (Laterite)
	3	82	6	11.2		Weathered Basement
	4	2260	∞		KH	Fresh Basement
14	1	199	0.9			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	671	4.7			Weathered layer (Laterite)
	3	94	8.4	14.0		Weathered Basement
	4	6098	∞		KH	Fresh Basement
15	1	181	0.5			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	72	1.2	1.7		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	167	11.1			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	1465	∞		HA	Fresh Basement
16	1	697	0.4			Topsoil (Laterite)
	2	239	2.1	2.5		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	737	9.5			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	5269	∞		HA	Fresh Basement
17	1	100	1.1	1.1		Topsoil (Clay)
	2	1006	5.3			Partly Weathered/ Fresh Basement
	3	2631	∞		A	Fresh Basement
18	1	206	0.6			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	169	4.3	4.9		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	1247	∞		H	Fresh Basement
19	1	113	0.9			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	167	5.6	6.5		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	2612	∞		A	Fresh Basement
20	1	53	0.6			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	472	0.7			Weathered layer (Laterite)
	3	29	5	6.3		Weathered Basement
	4	608	6.1			Partly Weathered Basement
	5	1165	∞		KHA	Fresh Basement

Table 1. Contd.

21	1	76	0.7			Topsoil (Clay)
	2	74	3.7	4.4		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	3190	∞		H	Fresh Basement
22	1	139	0.8			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	157	2	2.8		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	1015	∞		A	Fresh Basement
23	1	206	0.6			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	104	2.4	3.0		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	414	2.3			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	673	∞		HA	Fresh Basement
24	1	300	0.6			Topsoil (Clayey sand)
	2	84	1.4	2.0		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	348	11.5			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	891	∞		HA	Fractured Basement
25	1	162	0.9			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	66	1.1	2.0		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	360	11.8			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	2853	∞		HA	Fresh Basement
26	1	460	0.8			Topsoil (Laterite)
	2	477	4			Weathered layer (Laterite)
	3	39	1.2	6		Weathered Basement
	4	4449	∞		KH	Fresh Basement
27	1	149	0.4			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	91	2.1	2.5		Weathered layer (Clay)
	3	200	5.4			Partly Weathered Basement
	4	6759	∞		HA	Fresh Basement
28	1	131	0.9			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	161	4.0	4.9		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	836	∞		A	Fresh Basement
29	1	220	0.4			Topsoil (Sandy clay)
	2	169	4.3	4.7		Weathered layer (Sandy clay)
	3	7135	∞		A	Fresh Basement

and low. Further extensive geophysical survey should be carried out in locations around VES2, VES14 and VES20 with a wider spread to probe into the fractured basement. In addition drilling to the basement is suggested in order to tap the reserved groundwater within the vadoze and fractured zones. However, the study established the advantage of a combined geophysical investigation as a better tool in evaluating the groundwater potential in the

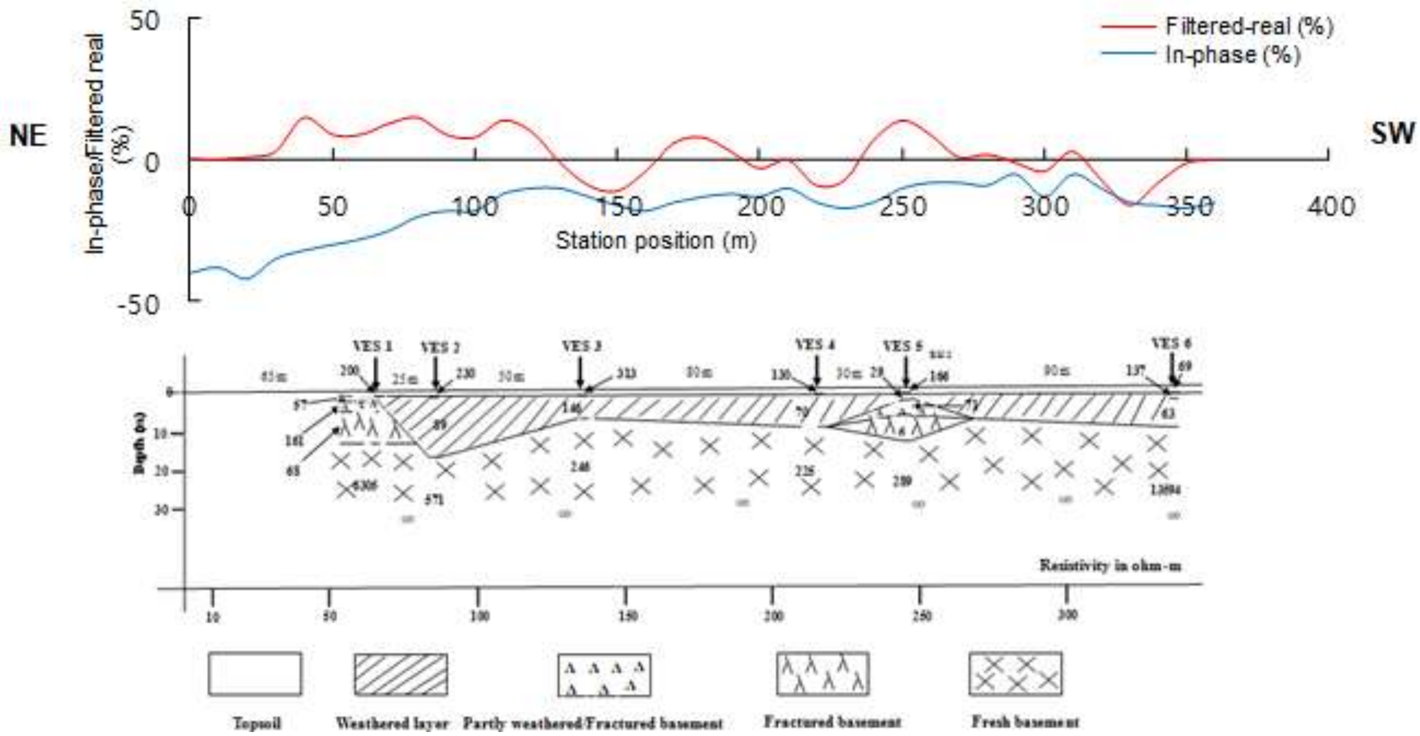

Figure 3a. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 1.

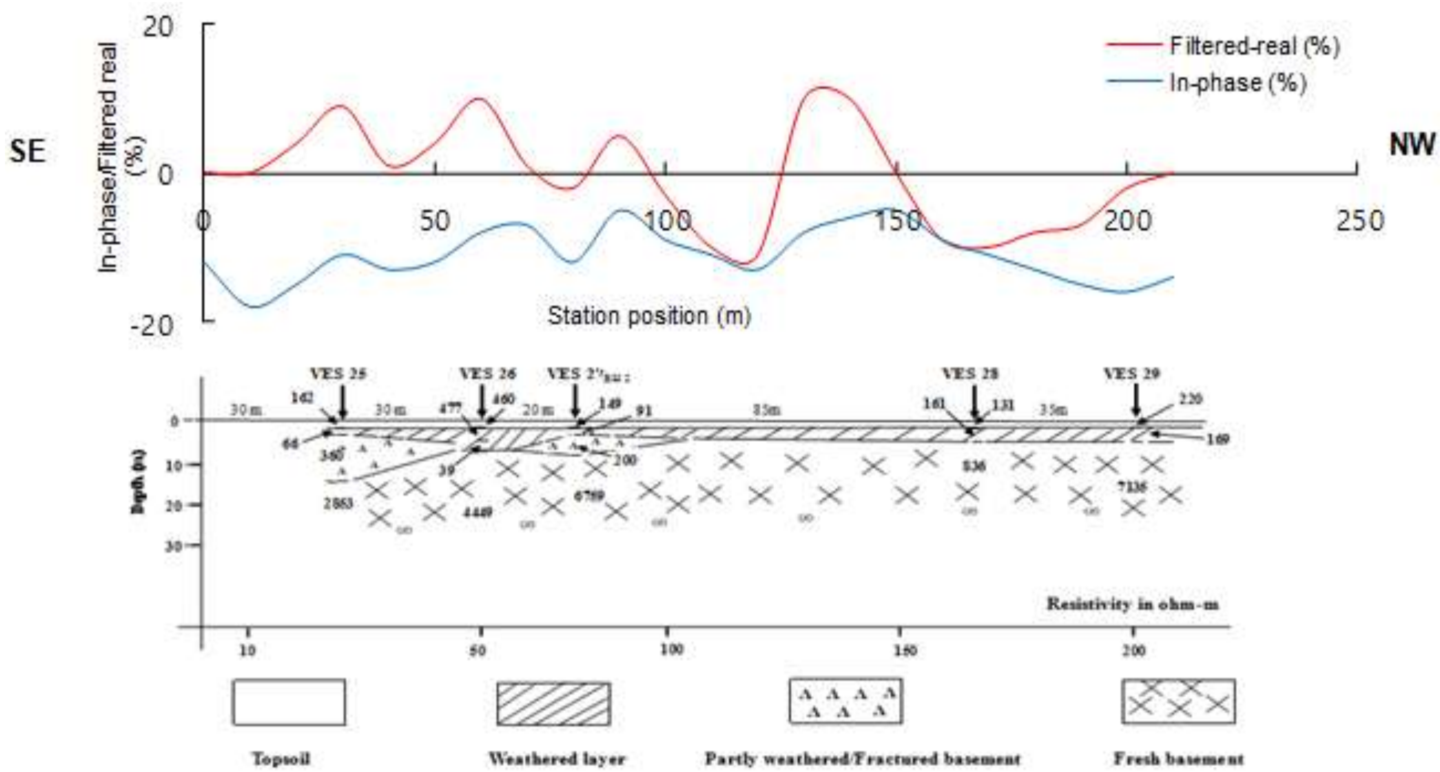

Figure 3b. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 2.

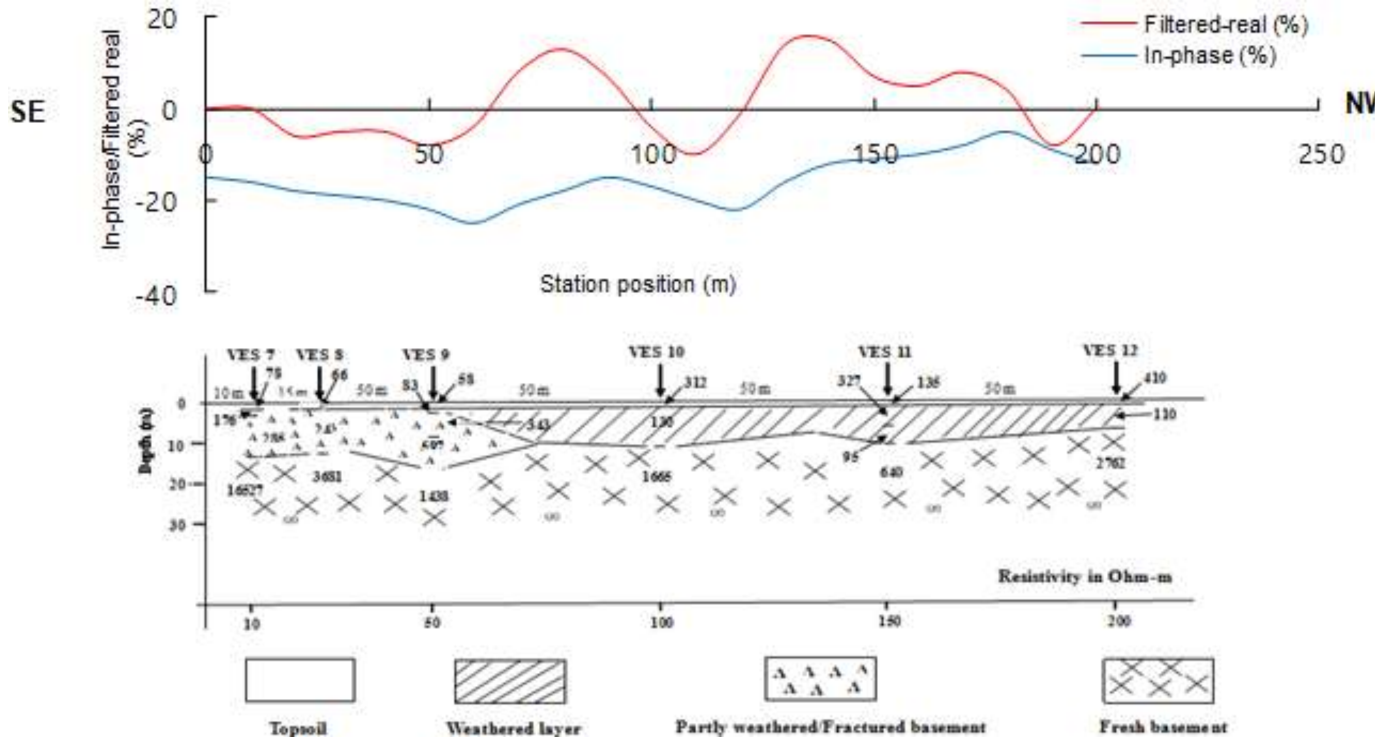

Figure 3c. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 3.

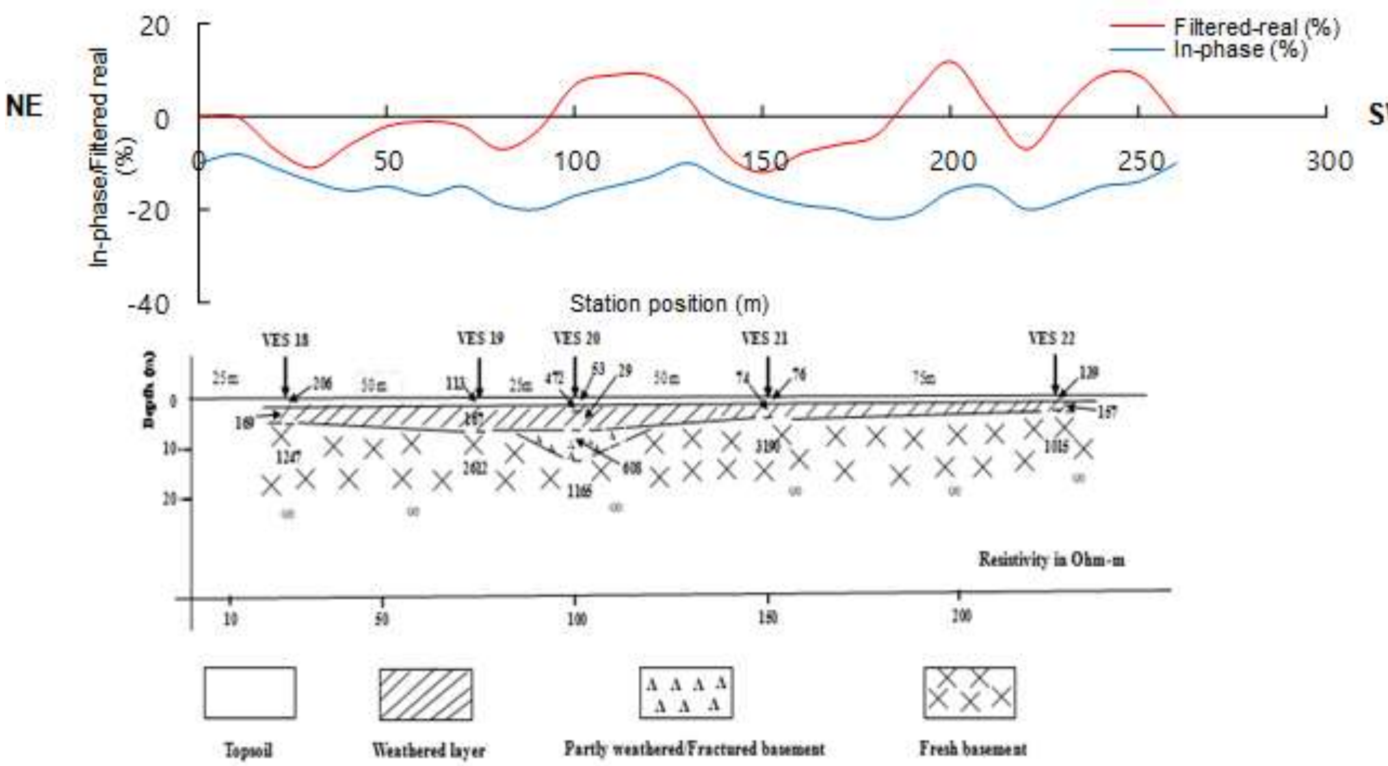

Figure 3d. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 4.

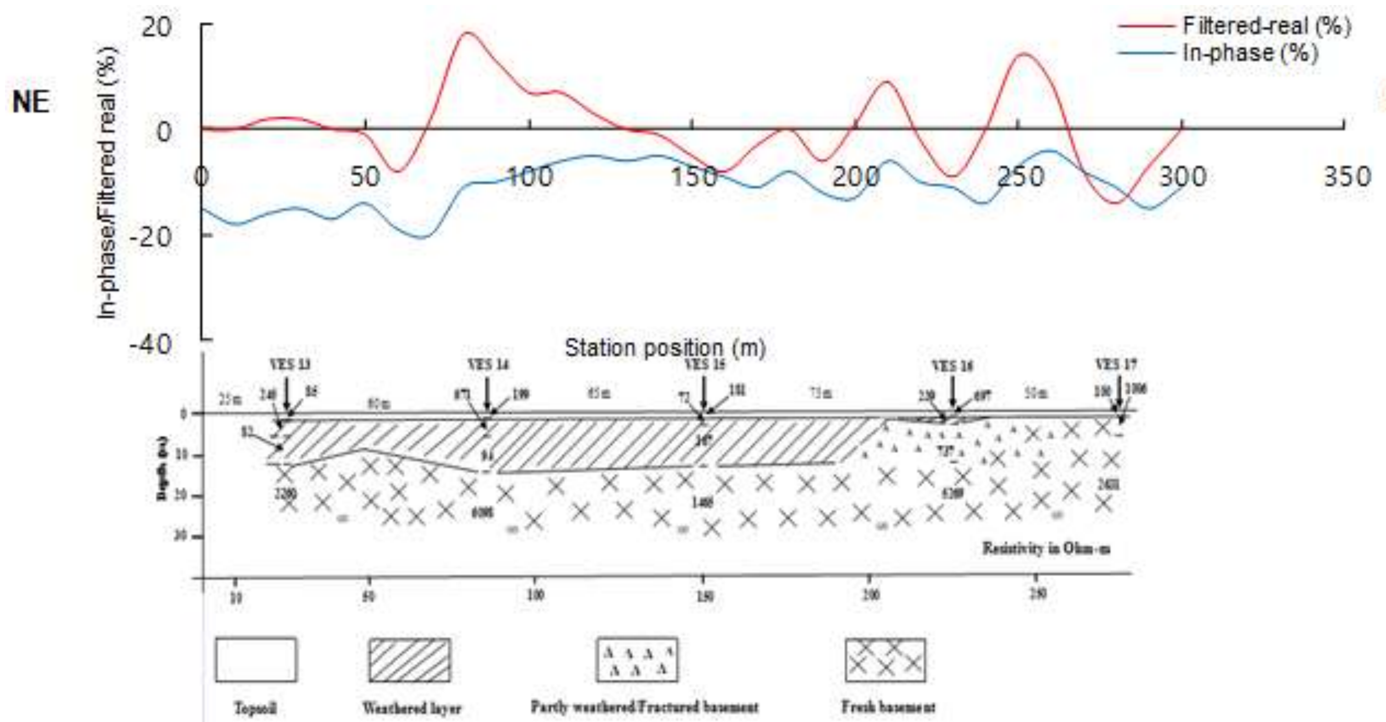

Figure 3e. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 5.

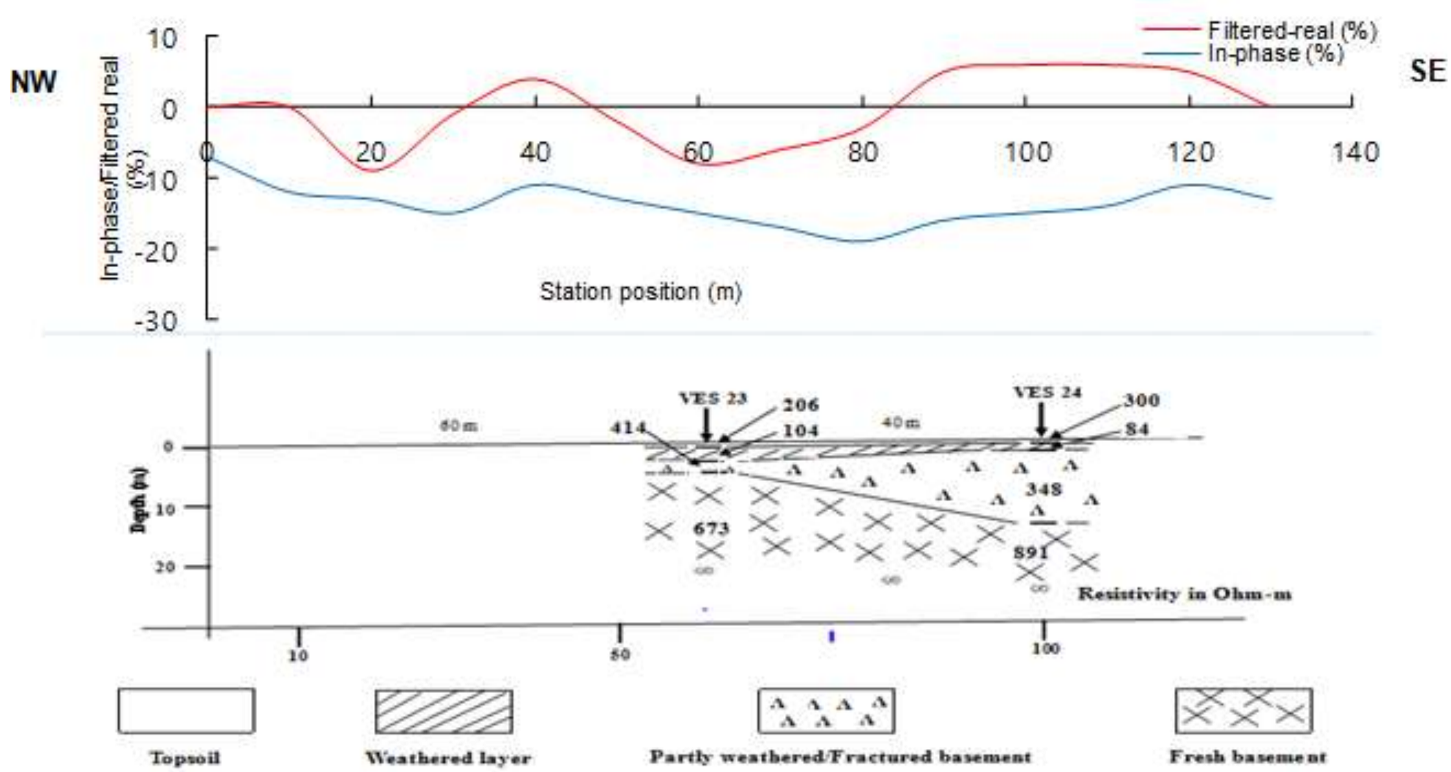

Figure 3f. VLF profile and geo-electric section along traverse 6.

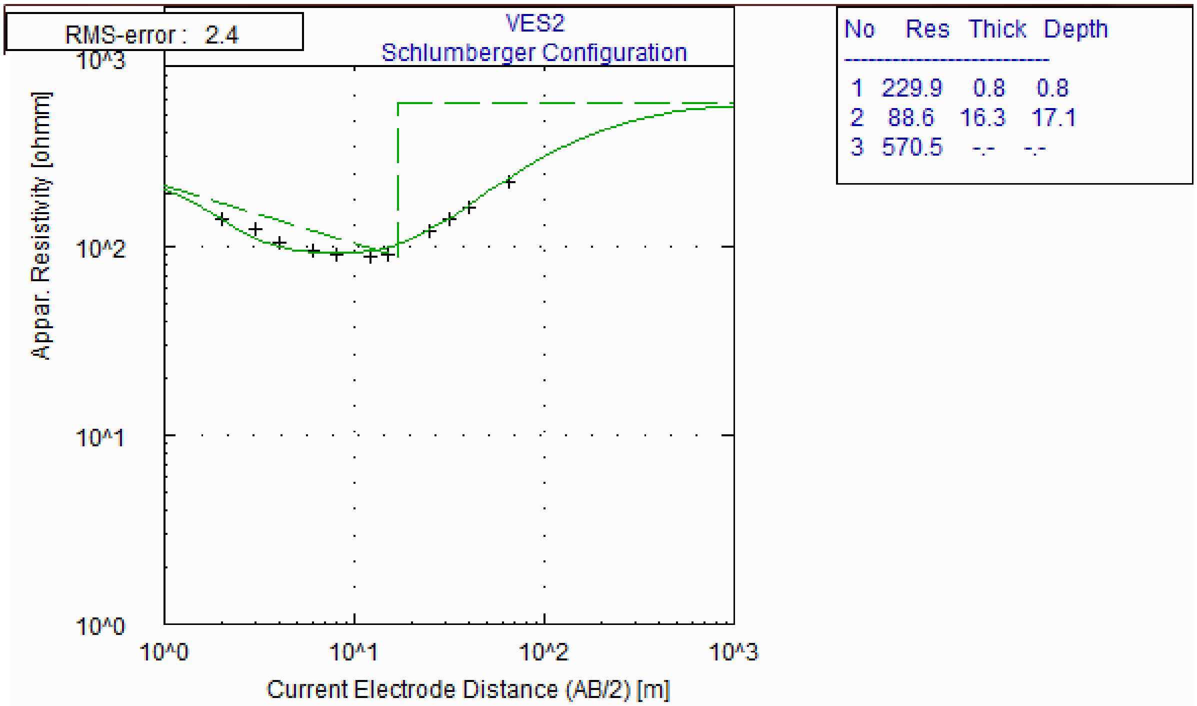

Figure 4a. Typical observed H-type (3-layered) curve.

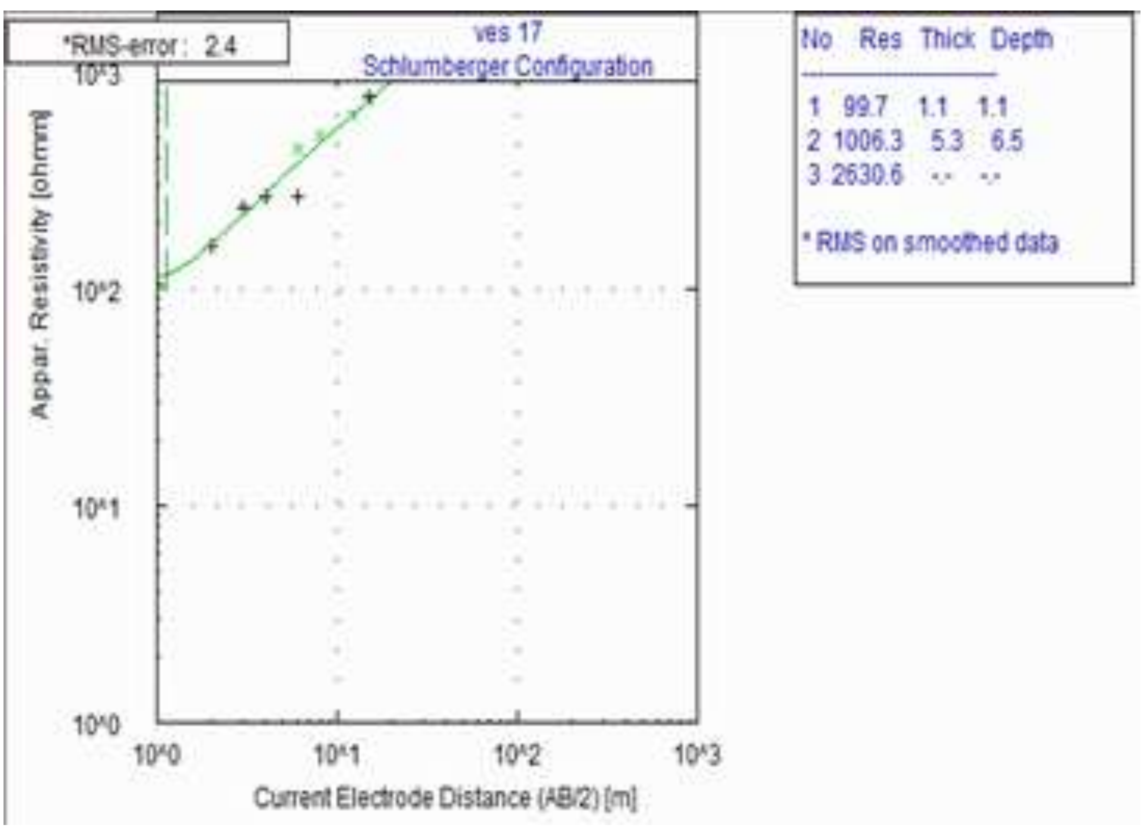

Figure 4b. Typical observed A-type (3-Layered) curve.

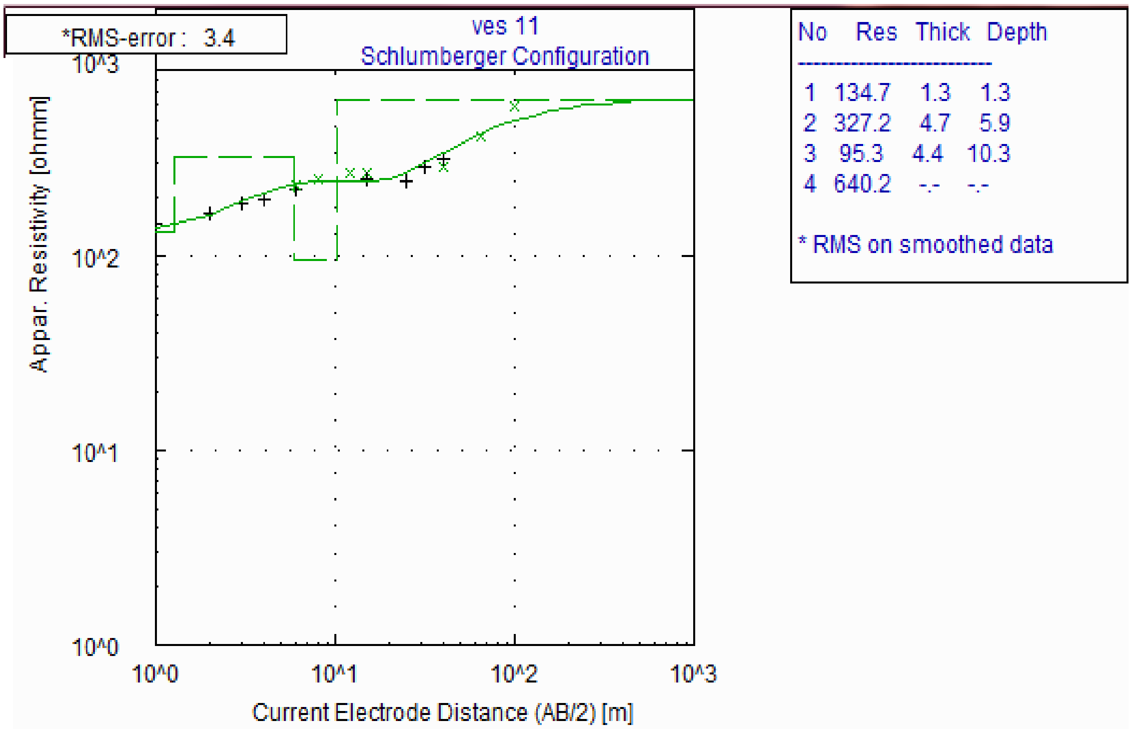

Figure 4c. Typical observed KH-type (4- layered) curve.

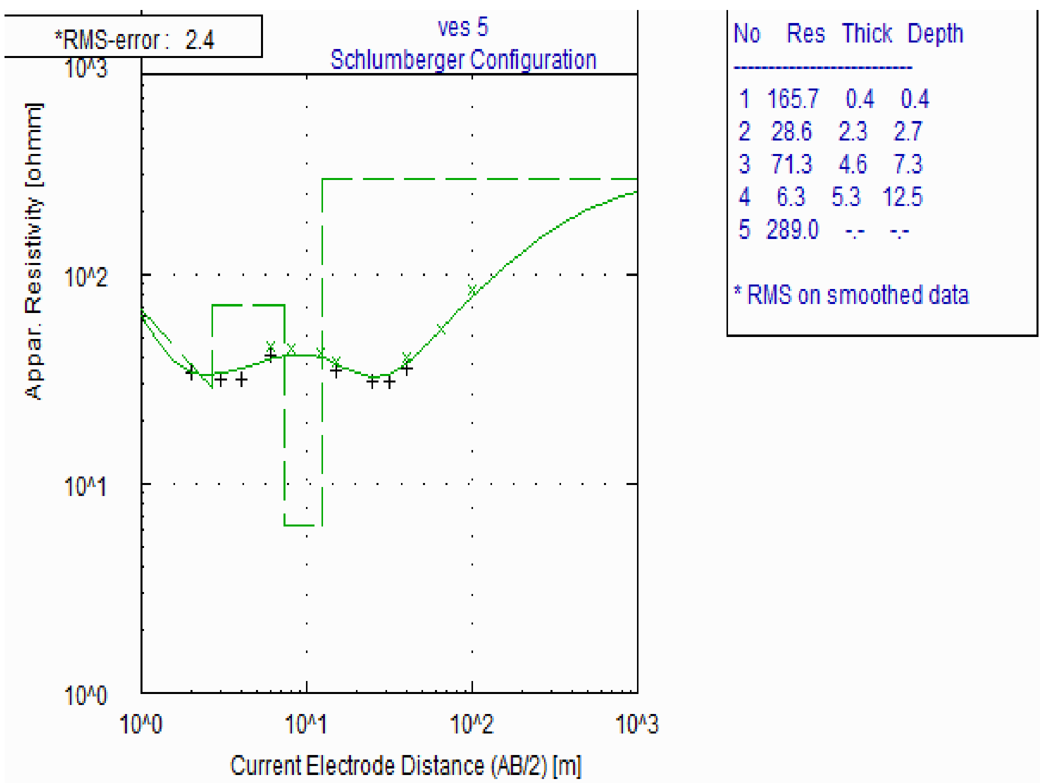

Figure 4d. Typical observed HKH-type (5-layered) curve.

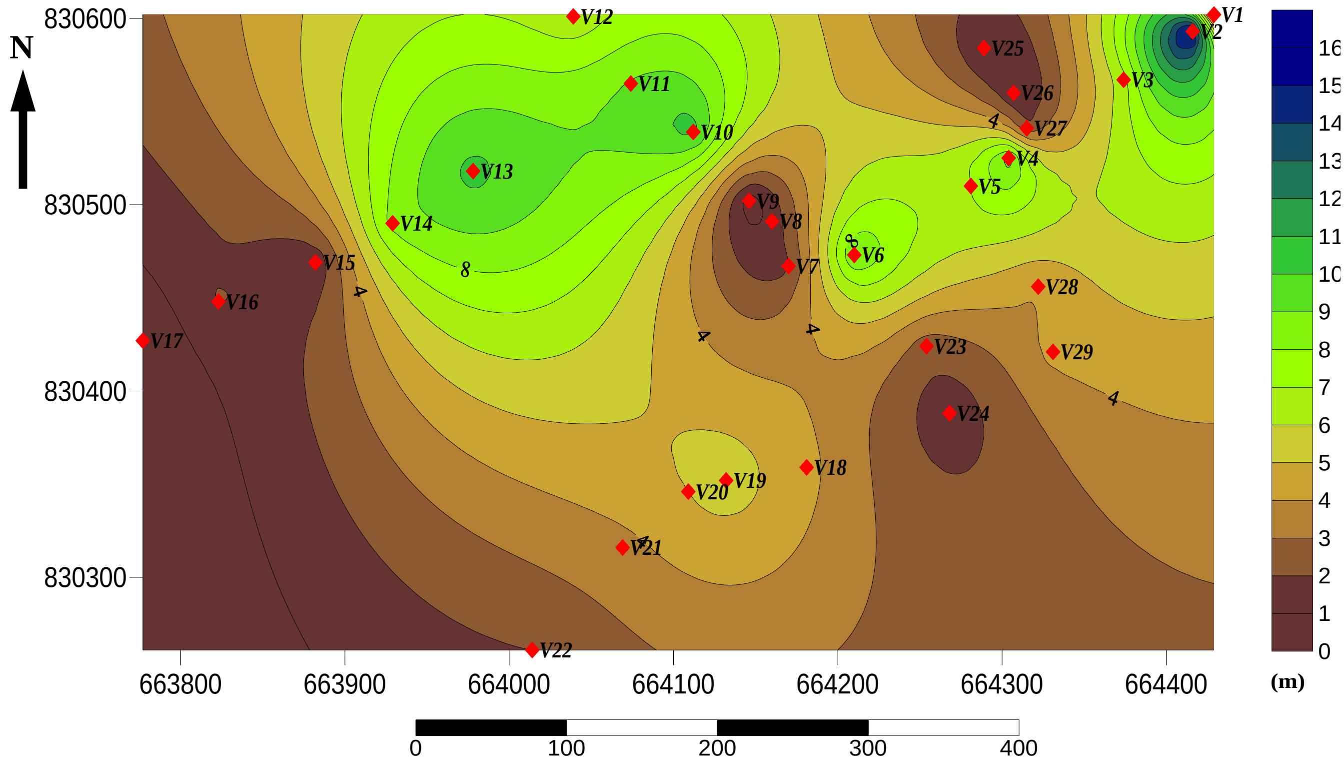

Figure 5. Isopach map of the weathered layer.

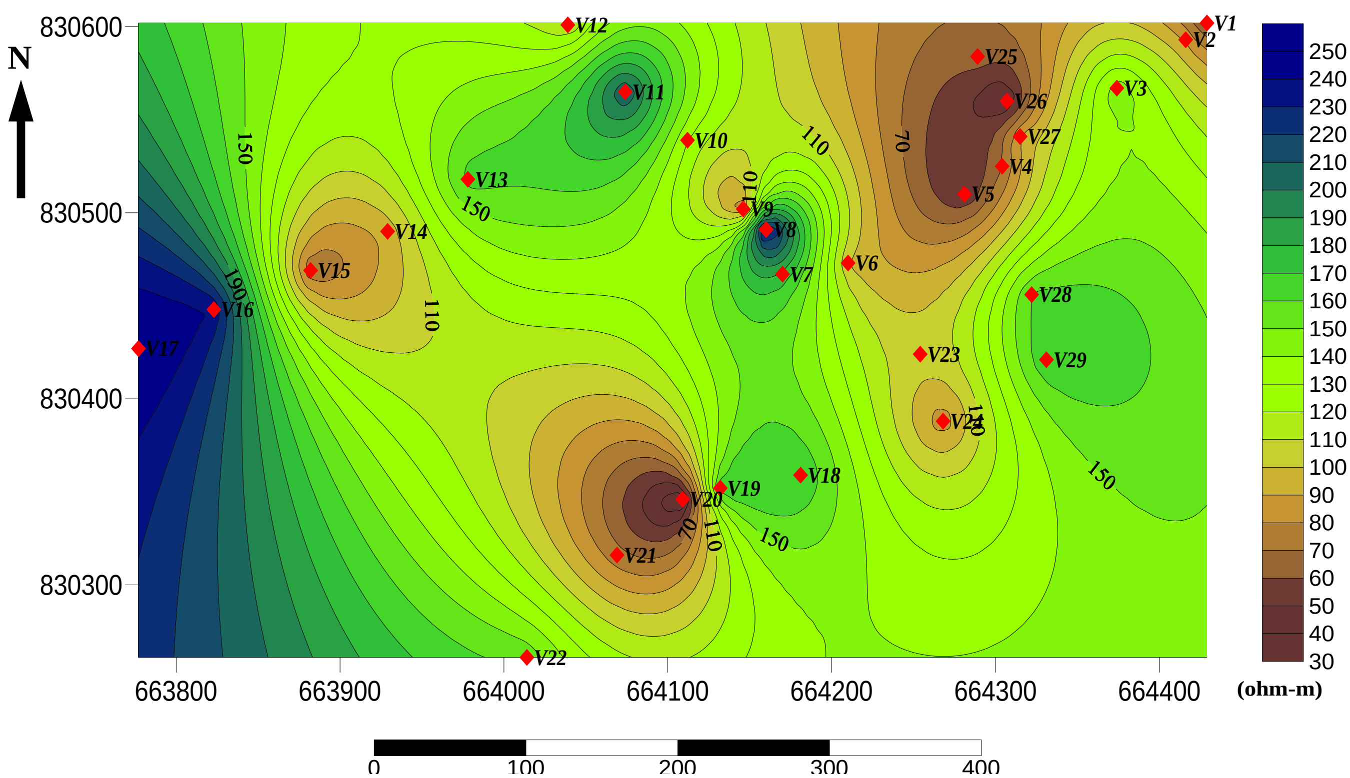

Figure 6. Isoresistivity map of the weathered layer.

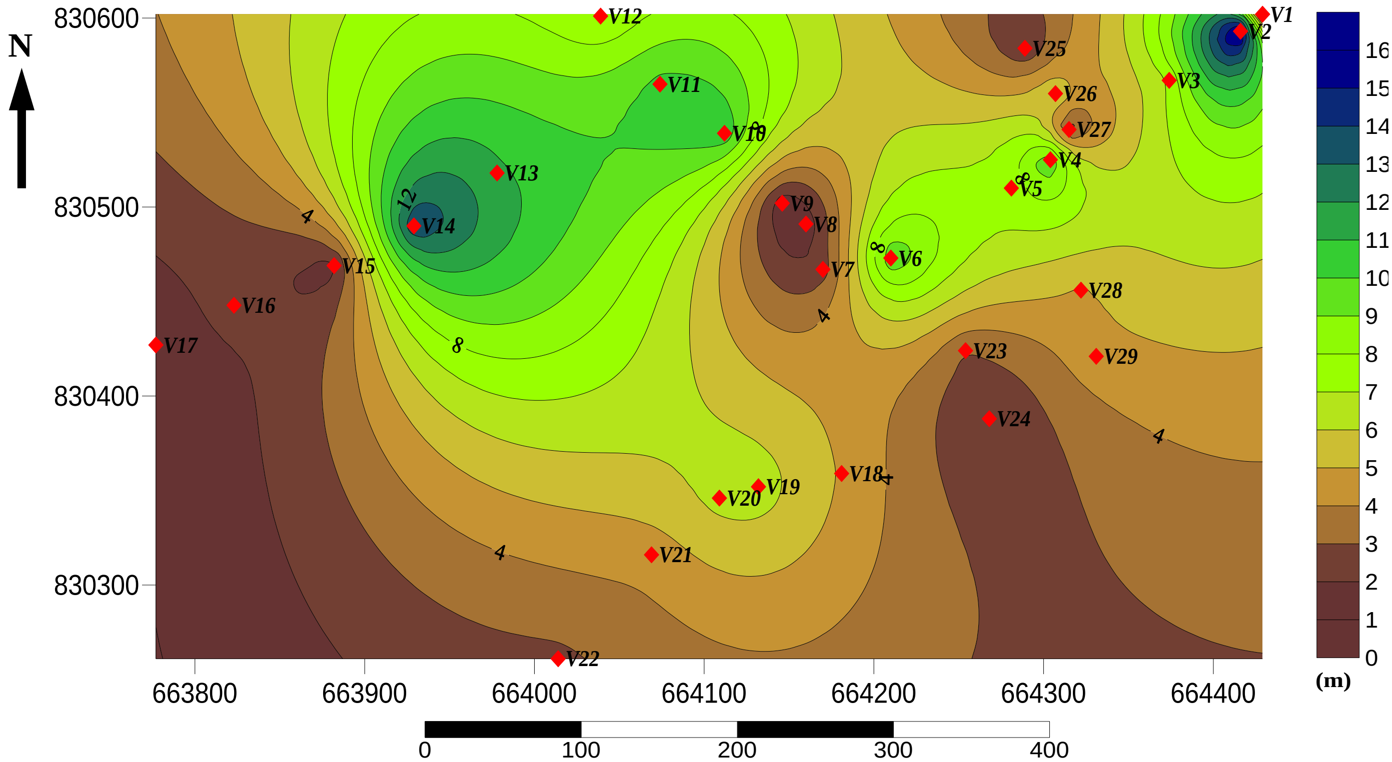

Figure 7. Isopach map of the overburden.

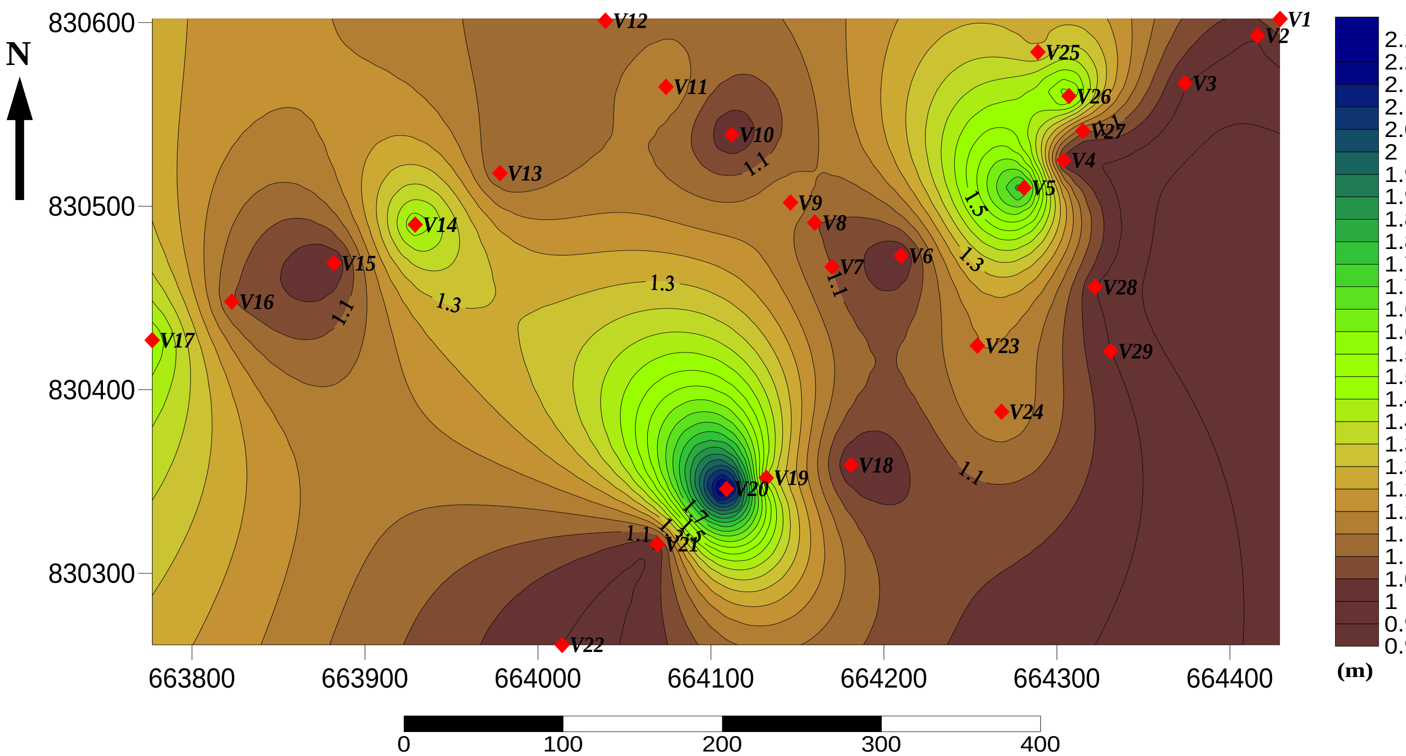

Figure 8. Map showing the coefficient of anisotropy.

basement complex.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research work was reviewed by Professor Martins. O. Olorunfemi of the Department of Geology (Applied geophysics), Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Also a full support of Dr. M.O Awoyemi of the Department of Physics, Obafemi Awolowo during the survey was highly commendable. However, the effort of (Late) Mr. Olawore Stephen during the geophysical survey will forever be appreciated.

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academicJournals

Vol. 10(7), pp. 207-220, July 2016
DOI: 10.5897/AJEST2016.2108
Article Number: 4C1E63A59154
ISSN 1996-0786

http://www.academicjournals.org/AJEST

African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology

Full Length Research Paper

Key factors affecting performance of biogas latrines in urban informal areas: Case of Kampala and Nairobi, East Africa

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Received March 24, 2016; Accepted April 29, 2016

Large scale application of biogas latrine technology in developing countries faces technical, socio-economic and financial challenges. As a result, harnessing its full potential has not been realized. This study examined variables describing the design, construction, operation and maintenance of nineteen biogas latrines in relation to their performance in Kampala and Nairobi, based on survey and field observations. Pre-tested questionnaires were administered to users, owners and construction technicians/masons of the biogas latrines. Field observations were also undertaken to assess physical conditions of the biogas latrines. Principal component analysis was then used to establish correlation between variables of design, construction, operation and maintenance in relation to the performance of biogas latrines in terms of burning hours in a day. The design types of all the studied biogas latrine digesters were found to be of fixed dome. Co-digestion of human excreta and cow dung increased the number of biogas burning hours in a day from 0.5 to 1.1. The findings also show that the performance of the biogas latrines was influenced by six of the variables examined describing construction, operation and maintenance: skills of masons, use of standards in construction, training of users on operation and maintenance aspects, number of users/owners and their motivation for installation of biogas plants and physical conditions of the biogas latrines. This implies that the use of skilled masons, comprehensive training of users on operation and maintenance aspects and use of co-substrates are key variables for optimal performance of biogas latrines.

Key words: Biogas latrines, Kampala, Nairobi, performance.

INTRODUCTION

The sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region is experiencing unplanned rapid urban population growth arising mainly from rural-urban migrations. Consequently, urban settlements in many SSA cities and towns are informal and occurring in slums. Incidentally, the high rate of urban population growth is not marching with existing energy sources and sanitation facilities due to higher demand from increasing population. Therefore, provision of safe and affordable sanitation in poor urban areas is one of the challenges for rapidly growing cities in low income countries (Reis et al., 2008). Urban sanitation improvements in developing countries have occurred in formal settlements whereas in densely populated parts of urban areas, sanitation provision is inadequate and is with least progress (Buttenheim, 2008; Hanchett et al., 2003). Inadequate sanitation has negative impacts on the environment and public health in urban areas of developing countries than in rural areas where simple and sustainable on-site sanitation solutions can be implemented (Bartlett, 2003; Genser et al., 2008). Therefore, innovative sanitation technologies including both on-site and off-site have been adopted in peri-urban and slum areas. Biogas latrine is one such technologies that can offer a sanitation solution in urban slums (Schouten and Mathenge, 2010) and has gained prominence in recent years (Bensah et al., 2010). However, inactivation of pathogens in resultant slurry from mesophilic anaerobic digestion in biogas latrines is not completely achieved (Mehl et al., 2011). This will have an impact on human health if slurry is used as manure in agricultural fields that has food crops and grazing livestock in that the pathogens which are disease causing could be transferred to humans through the food chain (Eamens et al., 2006). To minimize this impact on human health, slurry should be sanitized before it is used in agriculture and multi-barrier measures to risk reduction should be applied (WHO, 2006).

A biogas latrine is an integrated waste management system that provides a sanitation solution as well as energy in form of biogas (Buxton, 2010). It consists of a latrine structure, digester, displacement chamber, mixing chamber, slurry pit and biogas piping system (Sasse et al., 1991). The major designs and types of biogas latrine digesters used in developing countries are fixed dome and floating drum (Omer and Fadalla, 2003; Rajendran et al., 2012). These digester types operate with a seat on top of the digester either fixed or movable depending on the design type (Nijaguna, 2002). The performance of biogas latrines is indicated by their ability to provide sanitation solution to users and biogas production, which can be deduced from the number of gas burning hours, in instances where the gas line is not metered.

The performance of biogas latrines in relation to biogas production is mainly affected by temperature, organic loading rate, pH, moisture content, carbon to nitrogen ratio of substrates and hydraulic retention time (Deublein and Steinhauser, 2010). Other factors influencing performance are related to construction, operation and maintenance of the biogas plants (Day et al., 1990). A number of biogas latrines have in the past been abandoned due to poor feeding and irregular maintenance of the digesters (Arthur et al., 2011; Parawira, 2009). The lack of trained personnel responsible for construction of biogas latrines negatively affects their performance (Estoppey, 2010; Mwakaje, 2008). Additionally, biogas loss from latrines that were constructed by unskilled personnel in the slums of Nairobi has been documented (Umande, 2014). The operation and maintenance of the biogas latrines is dependent on the motivation of users to get sanitation and energy benefits from installed latrines. The sense of ownership by users of the biogas latrines is an important motivation in ensuring that they are properly operated and maintained (Ghimire, 2013).

Contrasting performance of biogas latrines have been reported in East Africa (Letema et al., 2012) varying even within the same city. In Kampala for example, biogas production is affected by the feeding and maintenance regimes (Lutaaya, 2013) whereas in Nairobi it is affected by operation and maintenance (Kithandi, 2014). There is currently limited information related to design, construction, operation and maintenance of biogas latrines. This is probably responsible for low adoption of the technology. Therefore, this study evaluated the effect of design, construction, operation and maintenance on performance of biogas latrines in East Africa with case studies in Kampala and Nairobi cities.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study areas

The study areas were cities of Kampala, Uganda (00° 18' 49'' N and 32° 34' 52'' E) and Nairobi, Kenya (1° 17' S 36° 49' E). Kampala has a population of 1.516 million people (UBOS, 2014) compared to 3.138 million people in Nairobi (KNBS, 2013). Kampala is the capital city of Uganda and has five administrative divisions of Makindye, Rubaga, Central, Kawempe, and Nakawa (Figure 1). In Kampala, the study was conducted in the four divisions of Makindye, Kawempe, Rubaga and Central. More than 60% of the population in Kampala live in slums characterized by high population density of more than 500 persons/hectare (Kulabako et al., 2010; UBOS, 2014). Nairobi is the capital city of Kenya and has eight administrative divisions, namely: Central, Dagoretti, Embakasi, Kibera, Makadara, Pumwani, Kasarani, and Westlands (Figure 2). In Nairobi, the study was conducted in four divisions of Kibera, Pumwani, Embakasi and Makadara with the highest number of slums. Nairobi city has about 60% of its population living in slums which are characterized by a high density of about 250 housing units/hectare with each housing unit having approximately 6 persons (Otiso, 2003; Ruhiu et al., 2009). Majority of the biogas latrines surveyed in Nairobi were in Kibera (a typical urban slum)

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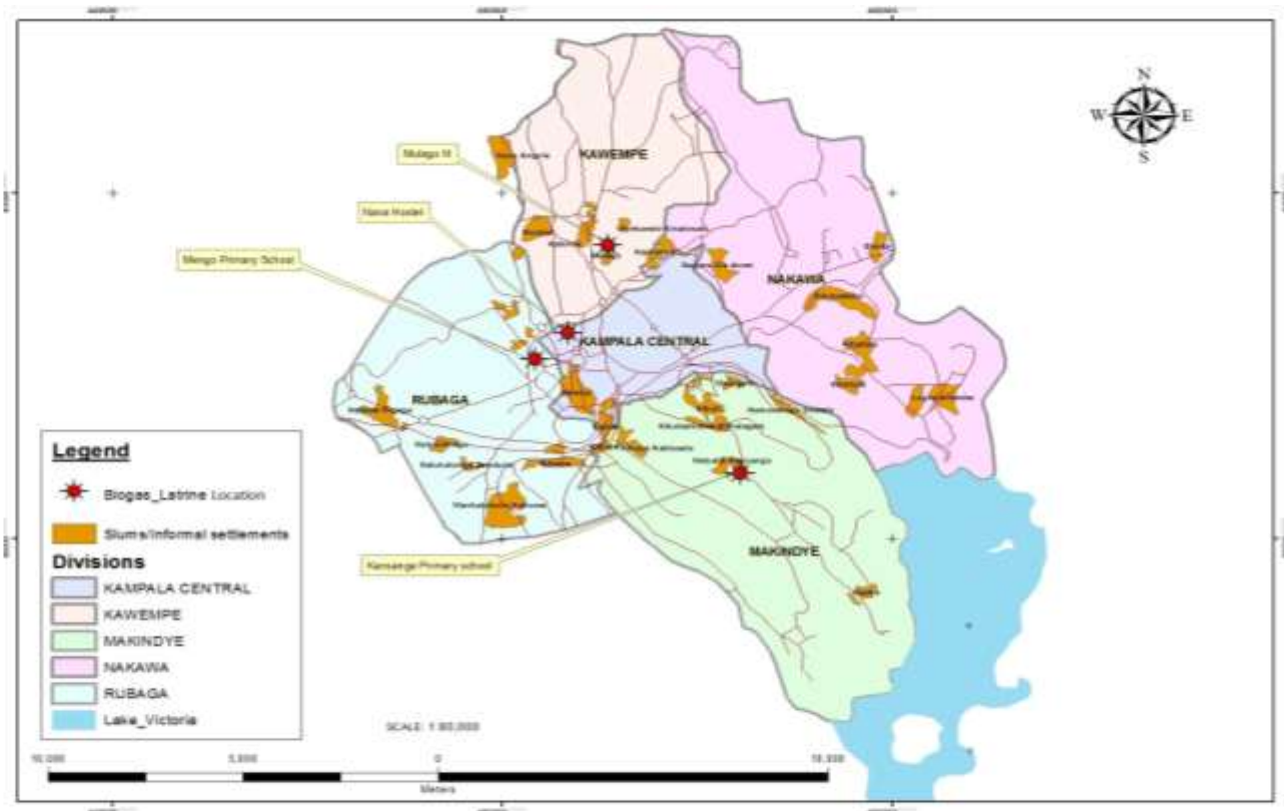

Figure 1. Map of Kampala showing location of the biogas latrines studied.

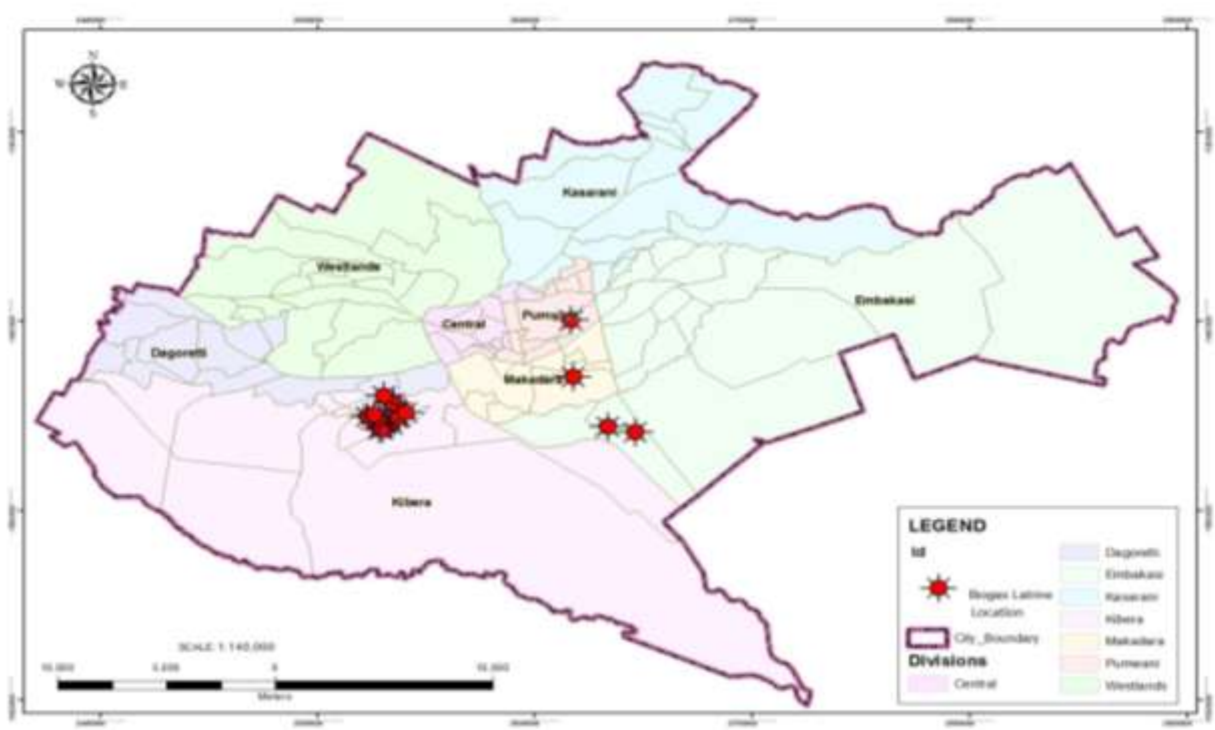

Figure 2. Map of Nairobi showing location of the biogas latrines studied.

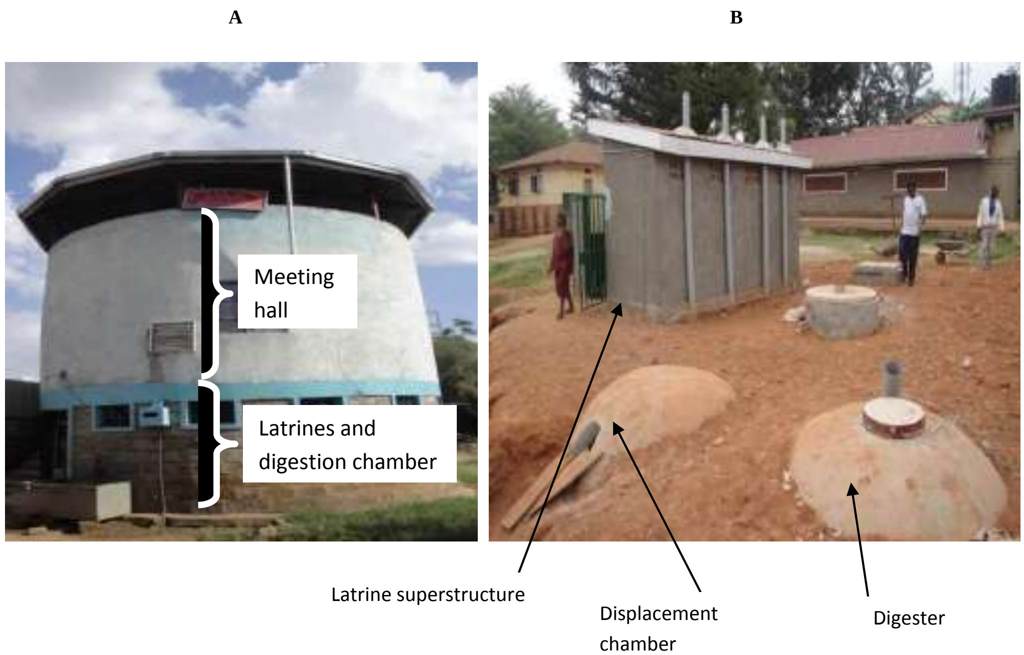

Figure 3. A typical biogas latrine in (A) Nairobi for Kibera slum community and (B) Kampala at Mengo Primary School.

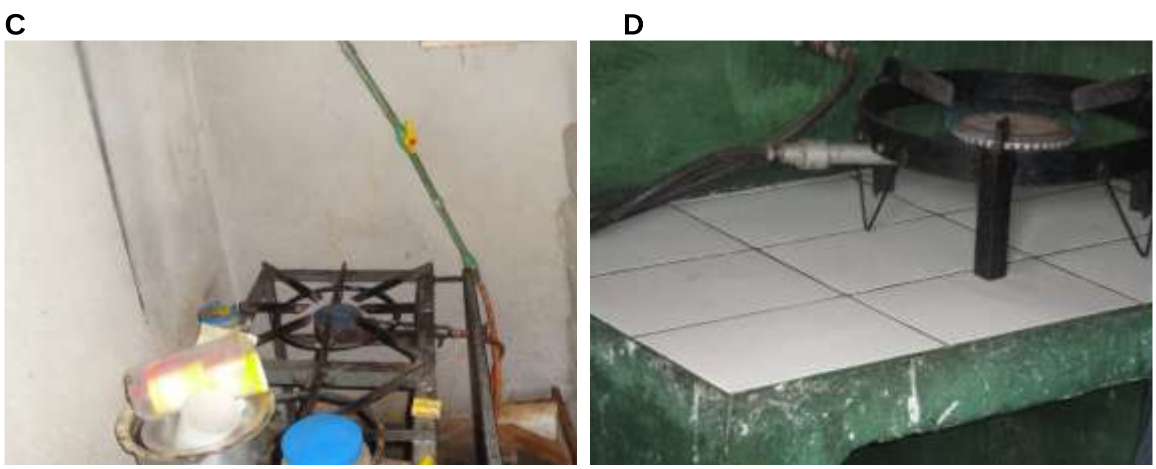

Figure 4. Typical gas stoves (which were similar) connected to biogas latrines in (C) Nairobi and (D) Kampala.

where most of them have been installed to address sanitation challenges therein.

The criteria for selection of Kampala and Nairobi is that both cities represented typical characteristics of urban areas in developing countries where the most prevalent form of sanitation technology is pit latrines, which can be connected to digesters to form biogas latrines. Secondly, the study targeted cities where biogas latrines existed in order to assess their performance. The biogas latrine technology was introduced in Nairobi by a non-governmental organization (NGO); Umande Trust where usage and management is mostly by the slum community. On the other hand in Kampala, the technology was introduced by Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) and Sustainable Sanitation and Water Renewal Systems (SSWARS), a local NGO. In Kampala, the biogas latrine technology is slowly picking up and currently available in institutions and communities following installation mainly by KCCA and SSWARS. All the surveyed biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi were built for communal or institutional use (Figure 3). The sizes and types of stoves connected to biogas latrines were similar enough in both Kampala and Nairobi (Figure 4).

Table 1. Parameters and variables assessed for the biogas latrines.

Parameters	Variable under the parameter
Design	Type of a digester
	Volume of a digester (from technical drawing plans)
Construction	Motivation of owners/users in installation of the biogas latrines*
	Skills of masons (by training and experience)
	Standards on construction material
	Physical conditions of the biogas latrines (1=poor, 2= fair, 3= good)
Operation and maintenance	Number of users
	Use of co-substrate(s)
	Frequency in maintaining of main valve, checking leakage, draining of condensate water, cleaning of overflow, oiling of gas tap and cleaning of stove
	Training of users on operation and maintenance activities/aspects in biogas latrines
Performance	Number of biogas burning hours in a day coming from similar gas stoves
	Users' satisfaction (full, partial, none)

*Motivation of owners/users in installation of biogas latrines meant the derived benefits from biogas latrine use that made the owners or users to construct the biogas latrine.

Sample size and selection

Selection of biogas latrines was based on them having been constructed and commissioned at least two months prior to the survey to ensure that the users had experienced some effects in terms of biogas and slurry use. In Kampala, there were four existing biogas latrines that satisfied the selection criterion, the sample size was the same as the population (n = N). In Nairobi, there were thirty existing biogas latrines at the time of the survey and fifteen were taken as a sample (n = 0.5 N) having satisfied the selection criterion. The groups of people interviewed during the survey included users, technicians or masons responsible for construction and owners or owners' representatives of the biogas latrines. The questions asked were guided by parameters and variables outlined in Table 1.

Questionnaires and field observations

Pre-tested structured questionnaires were used to collect information on parameters of design, construction, operation, maintenance and performance of biogas latrines. They were administered to four biogas latrines in Kampala located in Kansanga Primary School (Makindye Division), Mengo Primary School (Rubaga Division), Nana Hostel (Central Division) and Mulago III area (Kawempe Division). The 15 biogas latrines surveyed in Nairobi were located in Gatwekera Tosha, Tosha II, Nicofeli, Muvi, Jasho Letu, Stara, Kidyot, Rurii, Nyaharwa and Kibera Girls Primary School in Kibera Division, Twaweza and St. Hellena in Pumwani Division, Top I and Top II in Embakasi Division and Heshima Disabled in Makadara Division. The variables considered for each of the parameters studied are presented in Table 1. In addition, field observations of biogas latrines components (digester, displacement chamber, latrine superstructure, gas piping system and slurry pit) guided by a check list were undertaken to ascertain the conditions of the components. These were graded for performance on a scale of 1 to 3; where 1 was poor, 2 was fair and 3 was good.

Data analysis

Data collected using questionnaires were entered manually and cross checked to ensure the entries were correct. Data from the questionnaires on parameters of design, construction, operation and maintenance were analyzed using statistical package, SPSS Version 21. Data were normalized through square root transformation to enable analysis by principal component analysis (PCA). PCA was used to establish the correlation between variables of performance of biogas latrines and design, construction, operation and maintenance. PCA was applied to 15 variables (Table 1); motivation of owners/users, skills of masons, standards in construction materials, digester volume, physical conditions of the biogas latrines, users of the biogas latrines, use of co-substrate(s), maintenance of valve, checking leakage, draining of condensate water, cleaning of overflow, oiling of gas tap, cleaning of stove, burning hours/day and users' satisfaction. The number of principal components (PCs) extracted was based on criterion by Kaiser (1960) where the PC(s) with Eigen values greater than 1 were considered. The PCs were used to identify the most important variables affecting the performance of biogas latrines. PCA results were presented as component scores and loadings. A varimax rotation was applied to the PCs to minimize the contribution of variables with low loadings and maximize the contribution of variables with high loadings. Performance of biogas latrines (indicated by average number of burning hours/day which was coming from similar gas stoves) was plotted against each variable for the parameters of design, construction, operation and maintenance.

RESULTS

Characteristics and status of biogas latrines

All the digesters in Kampala and Nairobi were of fixed dome type and their volumes ranged from 18 to 54 m^3. The main materials for construction of the biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi were bricks and quarry stones, respectively. The average estimated number of users of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi was 200 and 223, respectively.

Masons used for construction of the biogas latrines were all skilled in Kampala. However, the level of skills of masons in Nairobi was reported as very skilled (7%), skilled (80%) and non-skilled (13%). The categorization of the masons' skills was done based on their reported experience and training in construction of biogas latrines. The very skilled masons had long term experience (more than 5 years) and training in construction of the biogas latrines while the skilled ones were also experienced and trained in construction of biogas latrines, but not on a long term basis (less than 3 years). The non-skilled ones had neither experience nor training in construction of the biogas latrines.

All the users of biogas latrines except for two latrines in Nairobi were trained on various aspects of operation and maintenance (O&M), covered: proper feeding of the digester, optimal use of biogas, avoidance of using non-biodegradable matter, regular maintenance of biogas latrine components (pit latrine, digester, mixing chamber, displacement chamber, biogas pipeline and slurry pit) and proper handling of gas stoves. The training of users was on spot (13%), short term (54%), comprehensive (20%) and no training (13%) in Nairobi, while in Kampala it was on spot (50%) and short term (50%). On spot training entailed giving brief instructions on O&M to users of biogas latrines for a day by masons responsible for their construction. Short term training involved giving detailed instructions on O&M to users of biogas latrines for two or three days by the masons. Comprehensive training was done by qualified personnel from the local authority or service provider by means of detailed instructions on O&M for a period of one week or more. Frequency of cleaning of latrines and gas stoves was carried out either daily or as and when needed. There was daily cleaning (53%), weekly (16%), bi-weekly (21%) and those latrines which were cleaned as need arises (10%). Incidentally, the bi-weekly cleaned latrines had the highest mean number of users (210 people), with a mode of 300.

Owners or users of biogas latrines were motivated by the benefits attained from their use. The benefits were social, environmental and health related. Social benefits were the prestige and decency that the users could get from the use of biogas latrines. Environmental benefits were the advantages the users could get from having a clean environment as a result of their use of biogas latrines while health benefits were reduction in the water borne or respiratory diseases in the users' population as a result of using biogas latrines in cooking compared to use of fire wood. Majority of the biogas latrines (75%) in Kampala had their users' motivated to install the facilities due to social benefits, while most of the biogas latrines in Nairobi (80%) had their users motivated to construct the facilities due to health benefits. In this study, the number of burning hours per day of gas stoves connected to the digesters was used as an indicator for performance of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi. The average number of burning hours/day for biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi was 1.3 and 1.7, respectively.

Effect of digester volume on performance of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi

The digesters had volumes ranging from 18 to 54 m^3 for Kampala and 30 to 54 m^3 for Nairobi with differences in performance as depicted in Figure 5. The average number of burning hours in a day for the smallest volume of the digester (18 m^3) was fewer (0.8) compared to the largest digester (54 m^3) with 1.5 and 2.5 in Kampala and Nairobi, respectively. Performance of the biogas latrines increased with increasing volume of the digester, irrespective of the location and the assumption is that other factors that could have affected their performance were constant.

Construction of biogas latrines

Construction of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi was done by masons with different skills. The average number of burning hours/day of the gas stoves of the biogas latrines (performance) varied with the different skills of masons (Figure 6). The biogas latrines constructed by very (highly) skilled masons in Nairobi produced biogas with longer average number of burning hours in a day (3) compared to those constructed by skilled masons in Kampala and Nairobi that had daily average number of burning hours of 1.1 and 1.6, respectively. There was no biogas latrines constructed by non-skilled and very skilled masons in Kampala. The performance of biogas latrines seemed to be influenced by the skills of the masons.

Use of standards in construction entailed ensuring that the masons took prescribed ratios of building materials. The biogas latrines in Nairobi where standards in construction were used had a higher number of burning hours in a day (2.7) compared to those in both Kampala and Nairobi (1.1 and 1.6, respectively) where standards were not used (Figure 6). There was no use of standards in construction of all biogas latrines in Kampala.

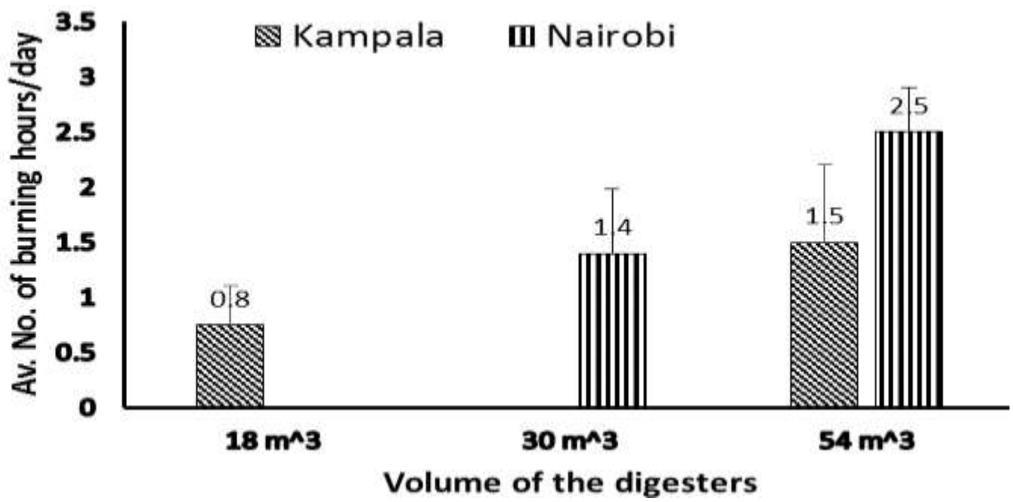

Figure 5. Average burning hours/day of gas stoves for different digester volumes of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi (m^3 refers to m^3).

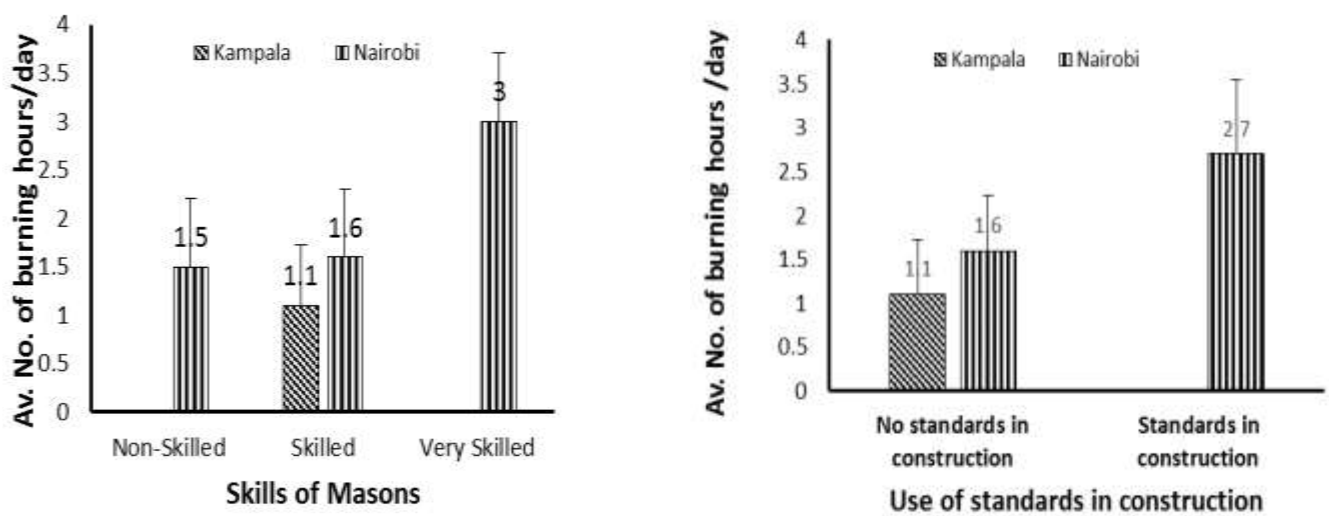

Figure 6. Average burning hours/day of gas stoves of biogas latrines constructed with different skills of masons and uses of standards in construction in Kampala and Nairobi.

Therefore, the use of standards in construction of biogas latrines influenced their performance.

Motivation factors for biogas latrine installation

The owners and users of biogas latrines were motivated by different benefits to construct or install them. The benefits included social, environmental and health. As shown in Table 2, motivation of owners/users affected performance of biogas latrines. The biogas latrines in Nairobi, where the owners were motivated to install them due to environmental benefits produced more gas in a day (2.5 h) compared to those installed due to social and health benefits. The biogas latrines installed due to health benefits also registered a fair performance with the average number of burning hours in a day being 1.7. In Kampala, where social benefits were the main motivation factor, the biogas latrines gave more biogas in a day (1.2 h) compared to those whose construction was motivated by environmental benefits (1 h). Biogas latrines installed due to environmental benefits as a motivation factor exhibited better performance which could have been as a result of the users operating and maintaining the facilities

Table 2. Performance of biogas latrines attributed to motivation factors (mean ± standard deviation).

Performance attribute	Attribute character	Average number of burning hours/day	
		Kampala	Nairobi
Motivation factors for biogas latrines installation	Social benefits	1.2 ± 0.763	0.5±0.000
	Health benefits	-	1.7±0.615
	Environmental benefits	1±0.000	2.5±0.707

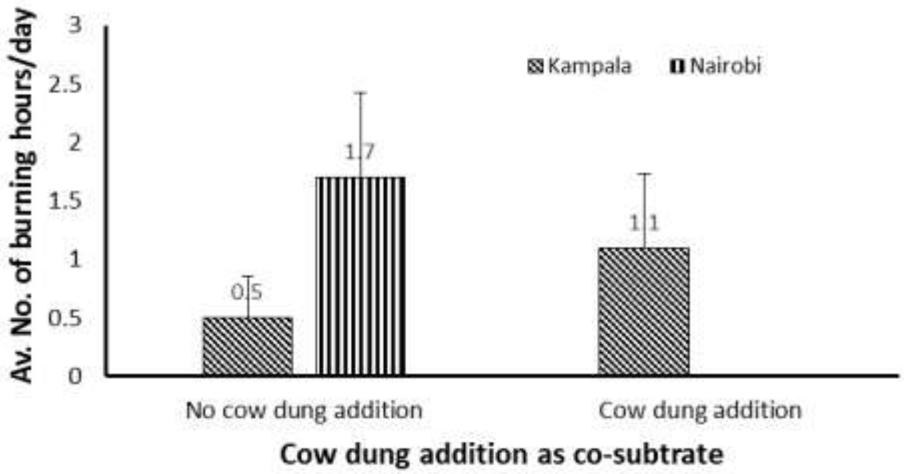

Figure 7. Average number of burning hours of gas stoves of biogas latrines with cow dung addition as co-substrate in Kampala and Nairobi.

well.

Operation and maintenance of biogas latrines

Use of co-substrate for digester feedstock

All the biogas latrines in Nairobi had human excreta without cow dung (co-substrate) fed into the digesters, while all the biogas latrines in Kampala had co-digestion of human excreta and cow dung. Cow dung was fed once per week for each of the surveyed units in Kampala with an average amount of 150 kg per feeding. The owners/users of the biogas latrines in Kampala reported that they were motivated to use cow dung as co-substrate after failing to get adequate gas for their use. Addition of cow dung as a co-substrate to human excreta increased the average number of burning hours per day of gas stoves of biogas latrines in Kampala from 0.5 to 1.1 (Figure 7). However, without the addition of cow dung as was the case with biogas latrines in Nairobi, the average number of burning hours in a day was 1.7, which was relatively high. This better performance of biogas latrines in Nairobi without addition of cow dung could be attributed to other factors other than co-digestion which may be use of standards in construction as reported in construction of biogas latrines.

Frequency of operational and maintenance (O&M) activities

One of the aspects of operation and maintenance of biogas latrines was water availability in the digester. Water was applied daily in all the biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi. On average, 11 L/m^3 of digester/day was used in biogas latrines in Kampala whose average digester volume was 18 m^3, while 23 L/m^3 of digester/day were used in digesters in Nairobi, that had an average digester volume of 30 m^3. The average water usage was higher in Nairobi than Kampala which may have been due to the different sizes of the digester and different training levels of users on O&M aspects. It was observed that majority of those who managed/used the biogas latrines had limited knowledge on different operational and maintenance activities like: maintenance of main valves, checking leakages, draining of condensate water, cleaning of overflow, oiling of gas tap and cleaning of

Table 3. Number of biogas latrines with different frequency of operation and maintenance (O&M) of biogas latrine components in Kampala (K) and Nairobi (N).

O & M activities	Number of biogas latrines with different frequency of operation and maintenance*									
	Daily		Weekly		Bi-weekly		Based on need		Never	
	K	N	K	N	K	N	K	N	K	N
Maintenance of main valves	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	14	1	1
Checking leakages	-	-	-	-	-	2	4	13	-	-
Draining of condensate water	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	14
Cleaning of overflow	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	15	-	-
Oiling of gas tap	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	13
Cleaning gas stoves	1	7	3	7	-	-	-	1	-	-

*Total number of biogas latrines was 4 in Kampala and 15 in Nairobi.

gas stoves. However, those who received comprehensive training were well versed with regular operation and maintenance of the facilities.

It was further observed that the operation and maintenance cost of each biogas latrines on average per year was US$ 250 and 1500 in Kampala and Nairobi, respectively. The higher operation and maintenance costs of biogas latrines in Nairobi could be attributed to the bigger sizes of the facilities. Most of the operational and maintenance activities in biogas latrines were carried out on a need basis (as and when required) except the cleaning of the gas stove which was done either daily or weekly (Table 3). The other aspect of maintenance that deserved attention was the frequent usage of the water trap to release condensate water build up within the gas pipeline system, but it was rarely done in both locations. The frequency of carrying out the O&M activities ranged from daily to never (none occurrence of the activity). In general, Nairobi had more regularly maintained biogas latrines compared to Kampala.

Training of users on operation and maintenance aspects of the biogas latrines

Another important factor that influenced biogas latrine performance was training of users of the biogas latrines. The users were trained on proper feeding of the digester, optimal use of biogas, avoidance of use of non-biodegradable matter, regular maintenance of biogas latrine components and effective application of slurry. The training session were on spot at the biogas latrine locality, short term duration off-site and comprehensive which included both on-site and off-site sessions. The biogas latrines where users had comprehensive training in Nairobi recorded the highest number of burning hours in a day (2.5). Users in Kampala were not given any comprehensive training on O&M. Biogas latrines whose users were given on spot training in Kampala and no training in Nairobi recorded the least number of average burning hours in a day of 0.8 and 1.3, respectively (Figure 8). Hence, training of users on O&M aspects is an important factor affecting performance of biogas latrines.

Users' satisfaction on the functioning of the biogas latrines

Users of biogas latrines were assessed on their level of satisfaction in using of the biogas. The level of satisfaction was taken as a variable that gave an indication of the performance of the biogas latrines. It was noted that indeed the satisfied users experienced longer burning hours (Figure 9). Therefore, it can be considered that the full satisfaction was as a result of the biogas being enough for the users' energy needs which were mainly cooking. Partial satisfaction implied the users could use the biogas in a day, but it could not satisfy all their cooking energy needs. The users whose biogas latrines experienced the least number of burning hours in a day were not satisfied as shown in biogas latrines in Kampala which generated biogas for a half an hour/day which was inadequate for any of their cooking energy needs.

Overall performance of biogas latrines using PCA

Performance of biogas latrines was indicated by the number of burning hours in a day and users' satisfaction. This was done by comparing the contribution referred to as loading in PCA on the items (variables) within each principal component (PC). The variables produced unrelated components with Eigen values greater than 1, all cumulatively accounting for 81% of the variance of the data set (Table 4). PCA indicated that the main attributes to the performance of biogas latrines were using standards during construction, checking of gas leakage and training of users on operation and maintenance

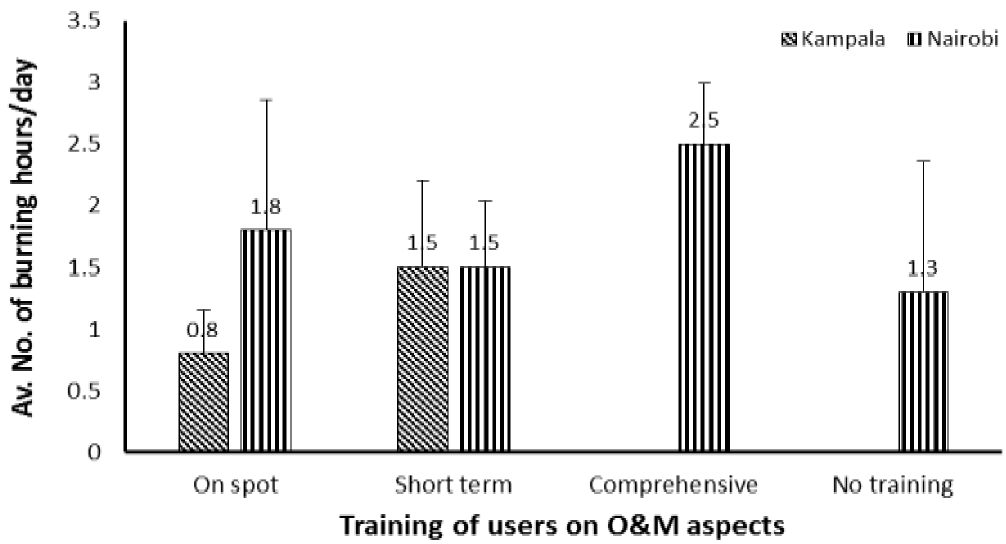

Figure 8. Average number of burning hours/day of gas stoves in Kampala and Nairobi with different training of users on O&M aspects of biogas latrines.

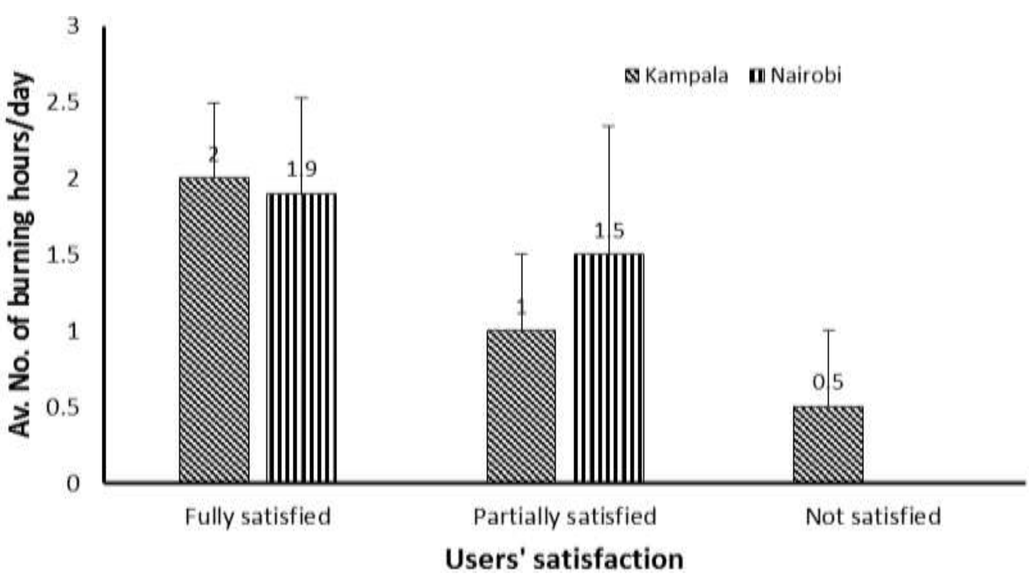

Figure 9. Users' satisfaction on the average number of burning hours/day of gas stoves of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi.

aspects which were dominant in PC1. It was noted that the physical conditions of biogas latrines reduced their performance, which is linked to the operations and maintenance activities. In this study, PCA indicates that biogas latrine performance increased with the number of users which is associated with feeding of the digester. The effect of skills of masons and volume of digesters was reflected in PC 5 and 6, respectively.

The first principal component (PC1) explained up to 20% of the variance of the analyzed data set (variables) and was characterized by high PCA loadings of variables under construction, operation and maintenance of the biogas latrines which were: use of standards in construction, training of users on O&M, maintenance of main valve and checking of leakages. The second principal component (PC2) that accounted for 15.6% of the variance, explained cumulatively 36% of the variance and was characterized by high PCA loadings for variables

Table 4. Principal component loadings and explained variance of six components with varimax normalized rotation.

Variable	Principal component					
	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5	PC6
Motivation of owners/Users	-0.300	-0.136	0.343	0.744*	-0.131	0.237
Skills of masons	-0.124	0.047	0.067	0.156	0.910*	-0.035
Use of standards in construction	0.839*	0.294	0.109	-0.099	-0.097	-0.115
Digester volume	-0.266	0.122	0.105	0.133	0.075	0.813*
Physical conditions of biogas latrines	-0.015	-0.633*	-0.195	0.051	-0.152	0.589*
Users of biogas latrines	0.058	0.907*	-0.159	0.180	0.083	0.066
Training of users on O&M	0.794*	0.031	0.063	-0.152	-0.199	-0.225
Maintenance of main valve	0.601*	0.270	-0.213	-0.015	0.512*	0.349
Checking leakage	0.863*	-0.048	0.091	0.060	0.106	-0.075
Draining of condensate water	-0.028	0.358	0.862*	-0.240	0.098	0.102
Cleaning of overflow	0.149	-0.203	0.825*	0.133	-0.125	-0.108
Oiling of gas tap	0.479	0.375	-0.101	0.589*	0.140	-0.242
Cleaning of stove	-0.146	0.418	-0.625	-0.066	-0.442	-0.140
Burning hours/day	-0.051	0.187	-0.183	0.819*	0.280	0.107
Users' Satisfaction	0.410	0.629*	0.023	0.047	-0.059	0.119
Eigen value	3.1	2.3	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.4
Explained variance (%)	20.4	15.6	14.2	11.8	10.2	9.2
Cumulative variance (%)	20.4	36.0	50.2	61.9	72.1	81.4

The values with * are loadings that are significant in a principal component (>0.5).

of performance, construction, operation and maintenance which were: users' satisfaction, physical conditions of biogas latrines, and users of biogas latrines.

The third principal component (PC3) that accounted for 14.2% of the variance, explained cumulatively up to 50% of the variance of the analyzed data set and had high loadings for variables under operation and maintenance which were: draining of condensate water and cleaning of overflow. PC4 accounted for 11.8% of the variance, explained cumulatively up to 62% of the variance in the data set and was characterized by high loadings of variables for construction, operation, maintenance and performance which were: motivation of users, oiling of gas tap and number of burning hours/day. This was an important principal component in explaining the effect of some of the variables for construction, operation and maintenance (motivation of owners/users in installing biogas latrines and oiling of gas tap; O&M activity) on the performance of the biogas latrines (indicated by the number of burning hours of biogas in a day). PC 5 accounted for 10.2% of the variance, explained cumulatively 72% of the variance in the data set and had high loadings of variables for construction, operation and maintenance which were: skills of masons and maintenance of main valve. Lastly, PC 6 accounted for 9.2% of the variance, explained cumulatively 81% of the variance of the data set and exhibited high loads for variables under design and construction which were: digester volume and physical conditions of the biogas latrines.

DISCUSSION

Design of digesters of biogas latrines in this study focused on two variables; digester type and volume. The reason why all the digester types in both Kampala and Nairobi are fixed dome, could be attributed to the following: (a) they are easy to construct with locally available materials, (b) they are less costly, and (c) they are easy to insulate by constructing below ground as stated by (Santerre and Smith, 1982). Additionally, Nijaguna (2002) reported that fixed dome type digester is the most common digester design used in developing countries. Fixed dome digesters require high structural strength during construction coupled with high quality workmanship to make them gas tight (Bensah et al., 2011; Kishore et al., 1987; Nijaguna, 2002). The requirement of high quality workmanship to achieve gas tightness implies that for poor construction of fixed dome digesters in Kampala and Nairobi gas leakage would occur and hence reduced number of burning hours of the gas stoves.

The findings of this study showed that skills of masons responsible for construction of biogas latrines affected the performance of biogas latrines as the number of burning hours increased with increase in the skills of masons from non-skilled to the very skilled (1.5 to 3 h/day, respectively) (Figure 5). The use of standards during construction was undertaken in the majority of biogas latrines of Nairobi resulting in the number of burning hours/day being relatively higher (2.7) implying better performance. Schaart (2010) reported that using skilled masons to construct biogas plants requires that standards in construction be observed and hence performance of the biogas plants enhanced. This is comparable with our results (Figures 5) whereby increase in skills of masons and use of standards in construction resulted in increased number of burning hours per day.

The materials used for construction in Kampala and Nairobi were bricks and quarry stones respectively, which according to Datong (1989) and Jash and Basu (1999) are less costly to acquire and maintain compared to other materials. However, Rajendran et al. (2012) stated that use of non- elastic material like bricks or stones in construction of biogas digesters as it was the case in Kampala and Nairobi may result in gas escape through pores when pressure in the digester increases. This is however countered by a weak ring which according to Sasse (1991) prevents vertical cracks in the digester due to increase in gas pressure. The gas pressure also results into discharge of the slurry through the displacement chamber. The other disadvantage is that they also need more space compared to elastic construction materials of polyvinyl chloride (PVC), polyethylene, neoprene and rubber mainly used in plug flow digesters (Kalia, 1988).

Organizations or persons responsible for installation of the biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi were motivated by different factors to adopt the biogas latrine technology. These factors were social, health and environmental benefits. This study showed that in Kampala and Nairobi social and health benefits were the major factors considered respectively to have motivated the owners or users in installing the biogas latrines, one of the factors (health benefits) is related to public health and sanitation. According to Arthur (2011), adoption of biogas plants for communal use is primarily a result of a sanitation and public health benefits and production of biogas is secondary. However, in this study, the owners and users of biogas latrines also took into account other benefits (social) apart from those that were related to sanitation and public health (environmental and health benefits) (Table 2), where the use of biogas was considered prestigious (social benefit) and a major factor in installation of the biogas latrines. Although, our study suggests that motivation for using biogas latrines was due to health benefits, handling and use of human excreta and slurry have a disadvantage of human interaction with disease causing pathogens (total coliforms, *Escherichia coli,* helminths and protozoa) as the anaerobic digestion processes and retention times in the biogas latrines may not allow for complete inactivation of pathogens (Manser et al., 2015; Mehl et al., 2011). There is need therefore for further sanitization of slurry.

Adoption of biogas technology where the production of biogas through anaerobic digestion process is energy-efficient and environmentally beneficial was reported by Garfi et al. (2012) and Mwirigi et al. (2009) as a motivation in the uptake and sustainability of the technology. This is in agreement with our findings where users or owners of biogas latrines were also motivated by environmental benefits of the facilities in both Kampala and Nairobi. Hence, it can be stated that motivation of users/owners of biogas latrines by environmental, social and health benefits may have improved the uptake of the technology and therefore its performance. Indeed, results from PCA (Table 4) showed that motivation of users/owners in installation of the biogas latrines was significantly (PCA loading of 0.744) related to the number of biogas burning hours in day.

Feeding of the digester using human excreta was enhanced by introducing cow dung as co-substrate in all biogas latrines in Kampala with the number of burning hours increasing from 0.5 to 1.1. Co-digestion improves biogas yield due to improvement of nutrient balance and optimization of flow qualities (Ağdağ and Sponza, 2007; Mata-Alvarez et al., 2000). Additionally, Khalid et al. (2011) reported multiple benefits of co-digestion which are: facilitation of a stable and reliable anaerobic digestion performance and production of slurry of good quality plus an increase in biogas yield. However, the biogas latrines in Nairobi performed better than those in Kampala without co-digestion of human excreta and cow dung. This could be attributed to other factors influencing their performance other than co-digestion like carrying out frequent and regular operation and maintenance activities (Table 3). There is also a possibility that co-digestion of human excreta and cow dung in the biogas latrines of Nairobi could lead to increased biogas production.

The frequency of operational and maintenance activities in biogas latrines of Kampala and Nairobi was done mainly on need basis, this meant that not until problems were evident, the operators or users of the biogas latrines had limited knowledge of what could have been going wrong. PCA (Table 4) revealed that one of the operation and maintenance activity; oiling of gas tap was significantly (PCA loading of 0.589) related to the number of biogas burning hours in a day. According to Day et al. (1990) and Ghimire (2005), frequent maintenance of biogas plants ensures that there is improved performance of biogas production. The causes of failure of biogas plants as reported by Bhat et al. (2001) are technology and skill related. Limited knowledge or skills on operation techniques and maintenance by users and those managing biogas latrines affected their performance negatively. Biogas leakage due to damage of biogas pipelines and improper maintenance of the biogas latrines may be a potential source of greenhouse gas emissions, hence contributing to global warming and climate change (Yu et al., 2008). On the other hand with properly maintained biogas latrines, greenhouse gases such as methane will be well controlled (Jicong et al., 2006).

Training of users on operation and maintenance aspects of the biogas latrines had an effect on their performance. There was increase in the number of burning hours in a day of gas stoves of biogas latrines with increase in training from none at all to comprehensive. With comprehensive training of users our results showed that the biogas latrines produced a higher number of burning hours in a day (2.5) than those whose users were subjected to no training (1.3) (Figure 7). This case is in line with observations made by Ghimire (2005) who reported that training of users and follow up services, thereafter, is one of the factors that contributes to failure or success of biogas plants.

Conclusions

This study assessed the effect of design, construction, operation and maintenance on performance of biogas latrines in Kampala and Nairobi and the following key conclusions can be drawn.

(1) Some variables of parameters of design, construction, operation and maintenance affected performance of the biogas latrines indicated by the number of biogas burning hours in a day. These variables were digester volumes, skills of masons, use of standards in construction, motivation of users/owners in installation of biogas latrines, training of users on O&M aspects, use of co-substrates, O&M activity-oiling of gas tap, number of users and physical conditions of the biogas latrines.
(2) Biogas latrines, which were constructed following building standards achieved good performance. Furthermore, there was incremental performance of biogas latrines with increase in skills of masons from non-skilled to very skilled.
(3) High scale (comprehensive) training of users on the O&M aspects gave corresponding increase in performance of the biogas latrines.
(4) The use of cow dung as co-substrate to human excreta increased the performance of the biogas latrines in Kampala and when cow dung was absent, biogas production was not sustained. The non-application of cow dung in the biogas latrines in Nairobi did not result into biogas shortages.

Conflict of interests

The authors have not declared any conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was carried as part of research that was funded by Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (BMGF), grant number OPP1029019. It was carried out under the project entitled ‘Stimulating local innovation on sanitation for the urban poor in sub-Saharan Africa and South-East Asia’.

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academicJournals

Vol. 10(7), pp. 221-229, July 2016
DOI: 10.5897/AJEST2016.2095
Article Number: 58A9CDD59240
ISSN 1996-0786

http://www.academicjournals.org/AJEST

African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology

Full Length Research Paper

Statistical analysis of the effects of relative humidity and temperature on radio refractivity over Nigeria using satellite data

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Received 1 March, 2016; Accepted 29 April, 2016

Meteorological data from the Department of Satellite Application Facility on Climate Monitoring (CM-SAF), DWD Germany have been used to study and investigate the effect of relative humidity and temperature on refractivity in twenty six locations grouped into for climatic regions aloft Nigeria (Coastal, Guinea savannah, Midland and sub Sahelian regions). The four years data collected ranged from 2004 to 2007 and was evaluated on their linear variation of refractivity on both temperature and relative humidity at different atmospheric level. The coefficient of determination (CD) was also determined for each relation. The results obtained establish the seasonal variation of temperature and relative humidity to refractivity across the region especially at low and mid-level. The coefficient of determination at both region is high for the variations measured against relative humidity and refractivity, while that of temperature and refractivity is low. This affirms that changes in relative humidity influence refractivity more than temperature at lower and middle level.

Key words: Refractivity, temperature, humidity, variation, atmospheric.

INTRODUCTION

Radio refractive index is an important parameter in determining the quality of UHF, VHF, and SHF signals. In characterizing a radio channel, surface (ground level) and elevated refractivity data are often required; and in particular, the surface refractivity is very useful for the prediction of some propagation effects (Bean and Dutton, 1968). The effect of atmospheric refractivity on the propagation of radio waves has been studied from the beginning of radio wave technology (Kerr, 1987). It has been established that the refraction of electromagnetic waves due to inhomogeneous spatial distribution of the refractive index of air causes adverse effects such as multipath fading and interference, attenuation due to diffraction on the terrain obstacles or so called radio holes (Lavergnat and Sylvain, 2000; Adediji and Ajewole, 2008). The refraction of radio signal through the

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troposphere has a direct effect on the design of reliable ground to ground microwave communication systems and the accuracy of tracking of radio stars, radio galaxies, satellites and missiles (Kolawole and Owonubi, 1982). Atmospheric refractivity is dependent on physical parameters of air such as pressure, temperature and water content. It varies in space and time due to physical processes in the atmosphere that are often difficult to describe in a deterministic way and have to be, to some extent, considered as random with its probabilistic characteristics (Martin and Vaclav, 2011). Jidong et al. (2008) reported that during warm season, radio refractivity gradient is more sensitive to moisture gradient in some selected locations in USA. They concluded that moisture has a more significant influence on the radar ray path calculation than temperature. Some other researchers worked on refractivity variation based on few available radiosonde station data in Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2004; Willoughby et al., 2000; Kolawole and Owonubi, 1982) and few experimental sites where sensors were mounted on a radio transmitter to access atmospheric data (Adediji and Ajewole, 2008). Their results show that refractivity values were normally high during the rainy season and low in the dry season.

This research work focuses on an in-depth analyses of seasonal variation of radio refractivity alongside with temperature and relative humidity at five atmospheric levels (925, 775, 600, 400, and 250 mb) grouped into three: Low Level: Surface - 925 mb; Mid-level: 775 - 600 mb; Upper level: 400 - 250 mb; in twenty six locations of four climatic regions over Nigeria. It also examines the linear regression between refractivity and temperature and refractivity and relative humidity. This study is important, because the lower atmosphere is not homogeneous (Zilinskas et al., 2012). This affects the electromagnetic (EM) wave propagation in the tropospheric layers. Worse propagation conditions lead to decreased power levels at the receiver and to increased fading on communication links (Ali et al., 2012). The meteorological conditions have a significant impact on radio wave propagation through the atmosphere. There are two climatic seasons that prevail within Nigeria, namely, the wet and the dry seasons. The weather in Nigeria is generally quite hot throughout the year, although there are variations in the climate in certain regions within the country. The southern part of Nigeria is relatively more humid and damp than the northern part of the country. Southern region is also influenced by the monsoons originating from the South Atlantic ocean, which is brought into the country by the maritime tropical (MT) air mass, a warm moist sea to land seasonal wind. Its warmth and high humidity give it a strong tendency to ascend and produce copious rainfall, which is a result of the condensation of water vapour in the rapidly rising air (Ajayi, 2009). The temperature ranges are almost constant throughout the year. The northern regions are much drier in nature in comparison to the southern parts. There are extreme weather conditions in the deserts of the Sahara. Annual rainfall totals are lower compared to the southern and central part of Nigeria. Rainy season in the northern part of Nigeria lasts for only three to four months (June to September). The rest of the year is hot and dry with temperatures rising as high as 40°C (Ekpoh and Nsa, 2011).

DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Average monthly temperature and relative humidity data for five different atmospheric pressure level (925, 775, 600, 400 and 250 mbar) which spanned between 2004 and 2007 were obtained from the archive of the Department of Satellite Application Facility on Climate Monitoring (CM-SAF), DWD Germany. The data from 26 locations grouped into four climatic region based on Olaniran and Sumner (1989) within the Nigeria troposphere were selected for this investigation (Figure 1). These regions are coastal (CT), guinea savannah (GS), midland (ML) and sahelian (SH) regions.

Refractivity was calculated from the raw data obtained using (ITU-R, 2012) recommendation.

$$N = (n-1)\times 10^6 = \frac{77.6}{T}\left[P + \frac{4810e}{T}\right] \qquad \text{Equation 1}$$

where P is pressure (hPa) and T is temperature (K) (Brussaard, 1996; Adeyemi and Emmanuel, 2011).

Levels of temperature, relative humidity and refractivity were analysed using techniques applied by Balogun and Adedokun (1985), Adeyemi (2004) and Adeyemi and Emmanuel (2011), the profiles of temperature, relative humidity and refractivity were grouped into low level, *TL, RhL, NL* (surface - 925 hPa); mid-level *Tm, Rhm, Nm* (775 - 600 mb); and upper level *Tu, Rhu, Nu* (400 - 250 mb).

Statistical analysis

Linear regression and analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques were used to quantify the relationship between temperature and refractivity and relative humidity and refractivity for each of the region. Using the excel package, coefficient of determination (CD), standard error (SE), gradient and probability f-significant at which null-hypothesis was rejected, were estimated for each of the linear regression in each region which provides a useful measure of variability between each of the two parameters at each region (Kimball et al., 1997).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Monthly variation of temperature, relative humidity and refractivity

The average monthly variation of refractivity (*N*), relative humidity (*Rh*) and temperature (*T*) at two different atmospheric pressure levels (low and upper levels) over the four regions in Nigeria are presented in Figures 2 to

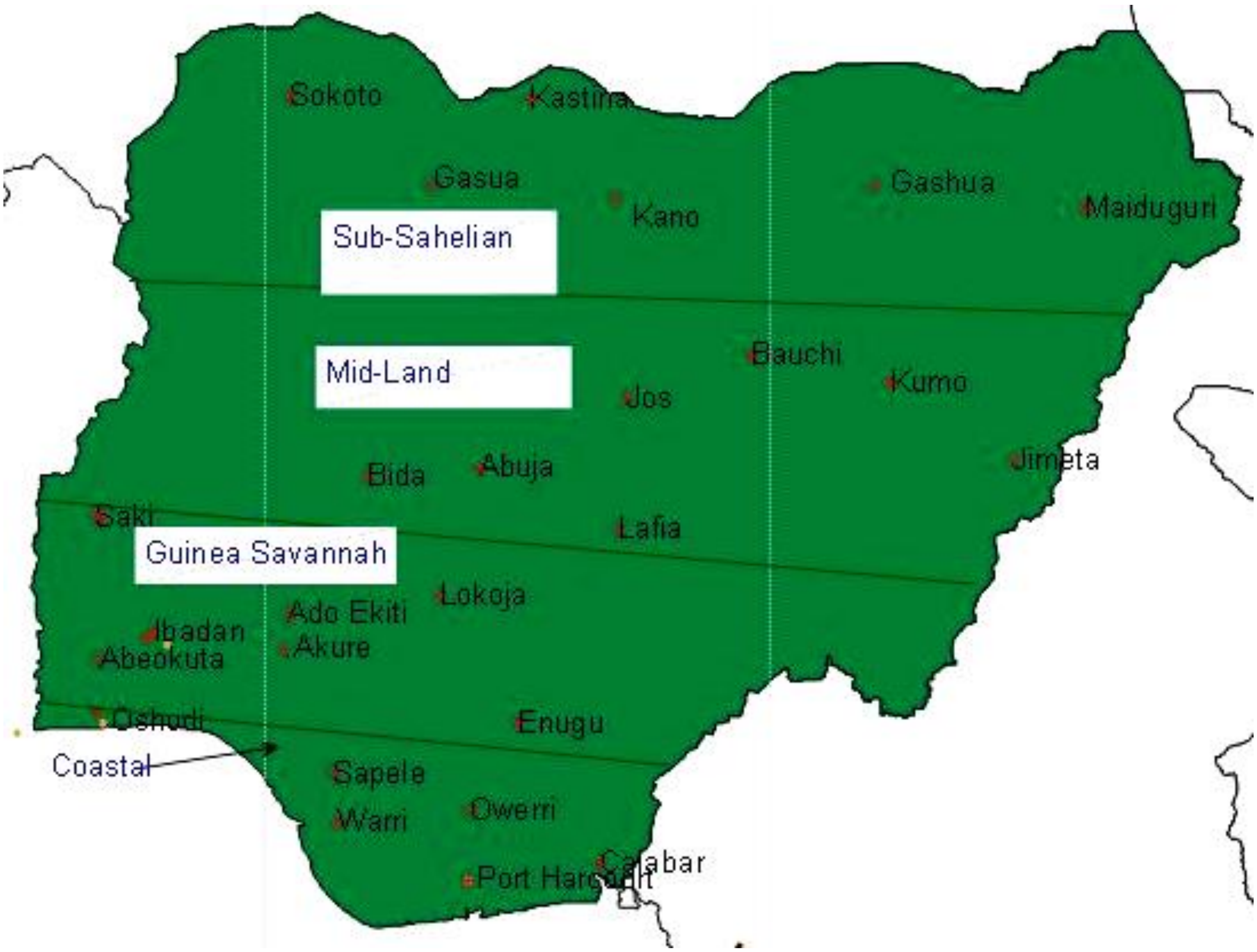

Figure 1. Map of Nigeria showing the study locations.

5. At low level, both *NL* and *RhL* have similar pattern of variation. Their values are high during the rainy months of March to October with partial dip in August at CT and GS with (NL= 325 N-unit, RhL = 90%) and (NL =330 N-unit, RhL= 78), respectively. Their values are however low in the dry months of November to February. During this period, the average values of NL and RL at CT and GS are 328.98 N-unit, 90.25% and 332.74 N-unit, 87.87% for rainy months and 326.99 N-unit, 81.91% and 318.95 N-unit, 73.55% for dry months, respectively. At ML and SH, the variation of NL and RhL are similar with high values during the rainy months of May to October and low value during the dry months of November to April. There are conspicuously low during the dry months. Their average values at these regions are 330.63 N-unit, 85.52% and 329.15 N-unit, 74.15% in the rainy month; and 295.34 N-unit, 45.05% in dry months, respectively. However, TL values were high at dry months and low at rainy months in all the regions with deep observable in August which is more noticeable at CT and GS. This can be attributed to the August break (a period of no rain in the southern Nigeria) associated to movement of international discontinuity (ITD). Average value of TL at CT, GS, ML and SH are 290.73, 291.88, 292.61 and 295.31 K in the rainy months and 292.08, 292.85, 294.76 and 295.84 K in the dry months, respectively.

At upper level (Figures 4 and 5), *Rhu* is partially high in rainy months and low in the dry months in all the region. Whereas *Nu* is zigzagly decrease and increase from January to December. *Tu* follow similar pattern as Nu, but in opposite direction. This shows the partial departure of water vapour at upper level of the troposphere. It also revealed that refractivity values are influenced by dry component of Equation 1. Average values of Nu, Rhu and Tu for CT, GS, ML and SH are 109.87 N-unit, 54.57%, 229.13 K; 109.82 N-unit, 60.07%, 229.11 K; 109.95 N-unit, 55.24%, 229.03 K and 109.85 N-unit, 51.70%, 229.03 K in rainy months, respectively. For dry

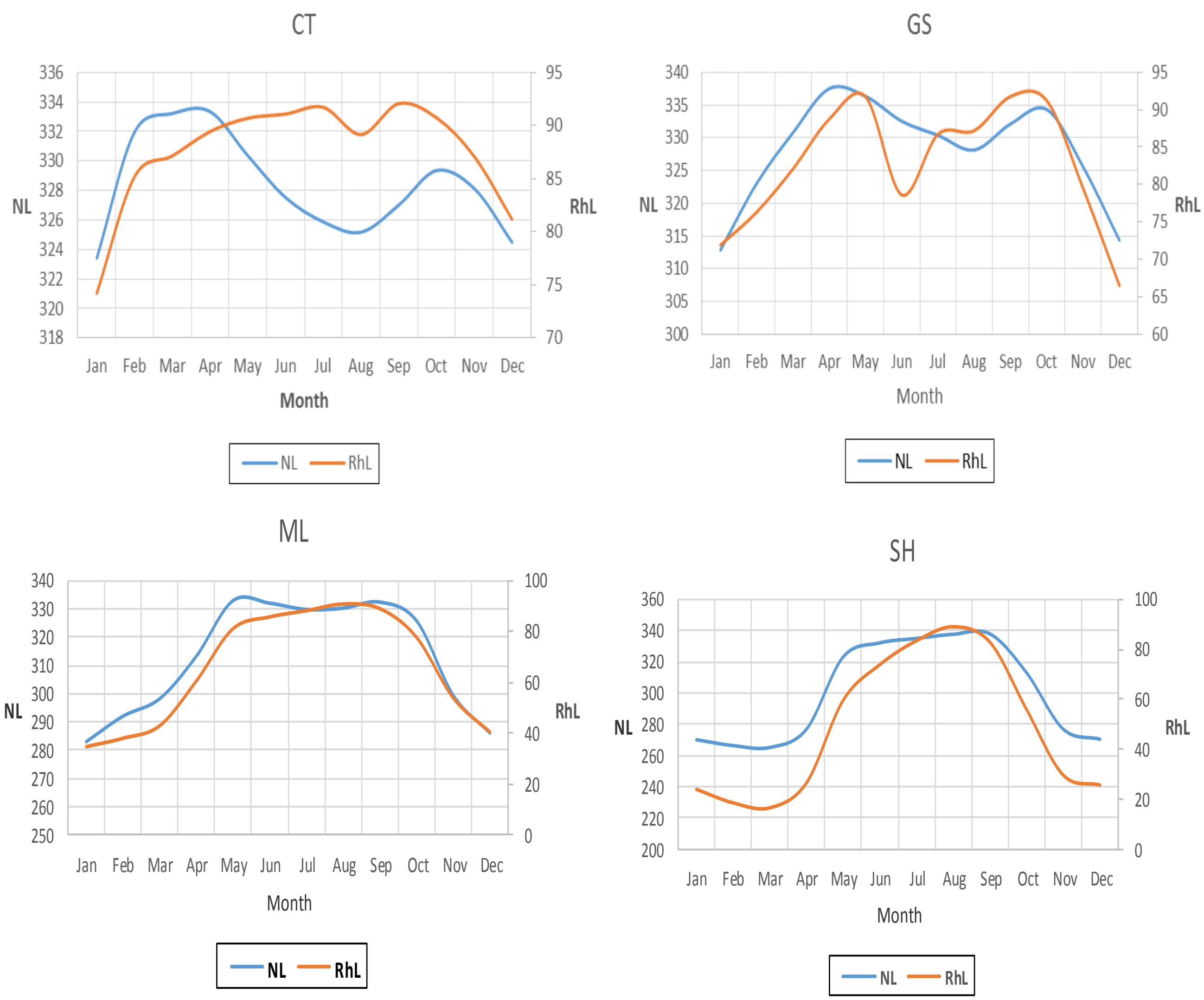

Figure 2. Average monthly variation of low level refractivity and relative humidity at (a) Coastal, (b) Guinea savannah, (c) Midland, and (d) Sahelian regions.

months, it is 109.67 N-unit, 39.19%, 229.25 K; 109.70 N-unit, 48.84%, 228.89 K; 109.64 N-unit, 38.86%, 229.11 K and 109.79 N-unit, 41.70%, 228.96 K.

Regression analysis

Tables 1 and 2 show the result of a linear fit of the relationship between N and T and relationship between N and Rh. This was done in order to estimate the extent to which each of the parameters correlates with the refractivity. They also show the coefficient of determination (CD), gradient, standard error (SE) and probability f-significant at which the null hypothesis was either accepted or rejected. Table 1 shows statistical regression between refractivity and temperature at low level, midlevel and upper level. As shown in Table 1, positive gradient is only noticeable at coastal region at low level while other regions in all the levels are negative. This implies that for every 1 unit increase in temperature, refractivity increases by an average of 1.37, whereas at guinea, midland and sahelian region, it decreases by 0.17, 4.47 and 2.948, respectively. Also, at midlevel and upper level, increase in temperature tends to the decrease in the refractivity in all the regions by the factors shown in Table 1. This may account for ducting phenomenon which normally pervaded in the coastal area. Weak CD was observed at coastal region and poor CD in all the remaining regions. Coefficient of determination shows weak relationship between

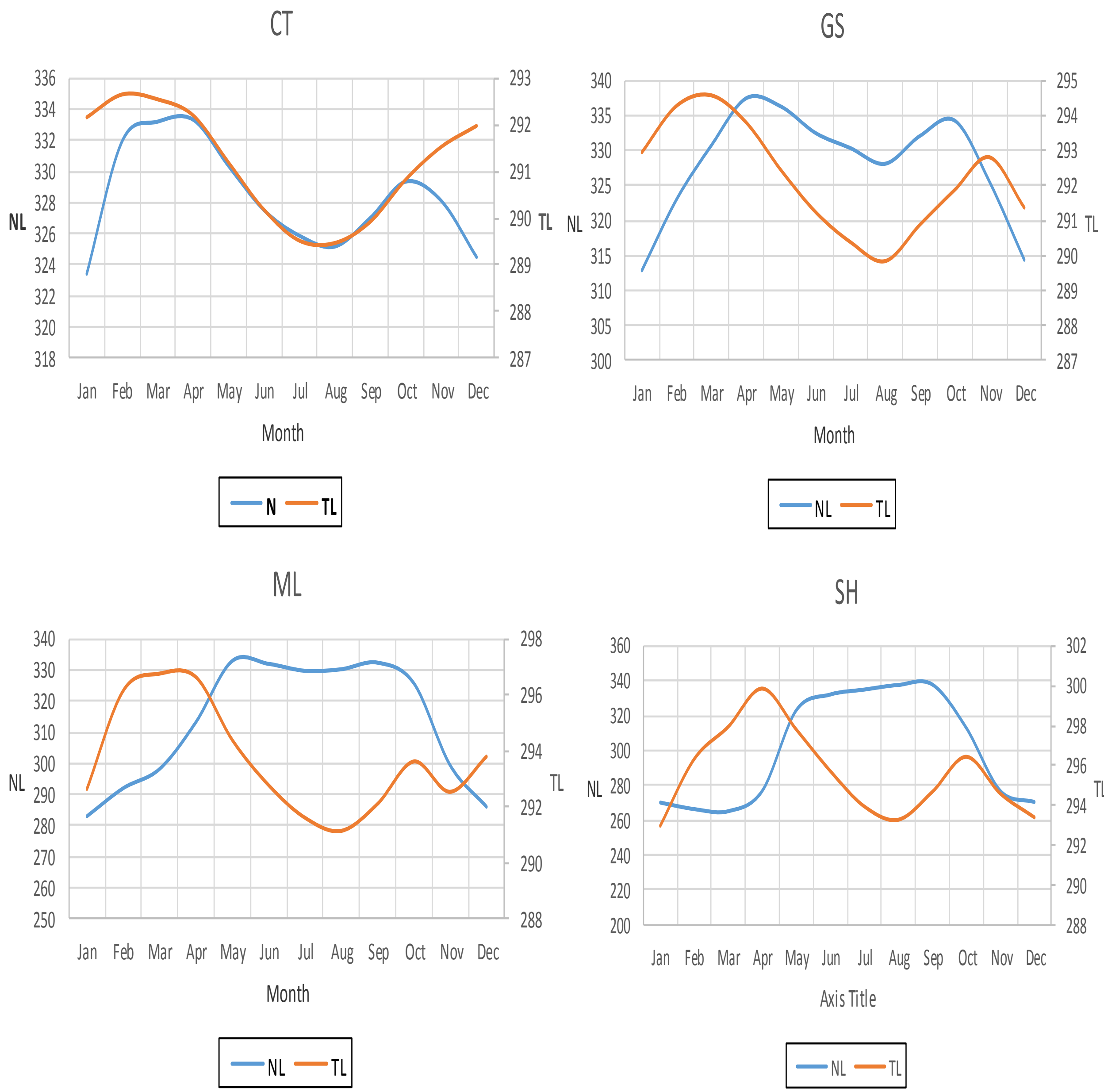

Figure 3. Average monthly variation of low level refractivity and Temperature at (a) Coastal (b) Guinea savannah (c) Midland and (d) Sahelian regions.

temperature and relative humidity at coastal region and poor association at the other regions at low level. At mid-level, there is fair relationship between T and N at coastal and midland, weak and poor at guinea savanna and sahelian regions, respectively. However, good relation exists at upper level in all the regions.

The null hypothesis is rejected when the f – sig. is less than critical level (f<0.05) for all the cases. Hence at low level, the null hypothesis is hereby accepted in all the regions since f is not significant (f sig. is greater than the critical value) (Table 1). This shows that the use of independent variable (temperature) has not assisted in predicting the dependent variable (refractivity) from the model. The performance of the model was encouraged at upper level, since the f sig. is less than critical values and the null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

From Table 2, f sig. is less than the critical value (0.05) at low level and mid-level in all the regions except in coastal region at low level where f sig. is 0.21. The null hypothesis is hereby rejected except at low level in the

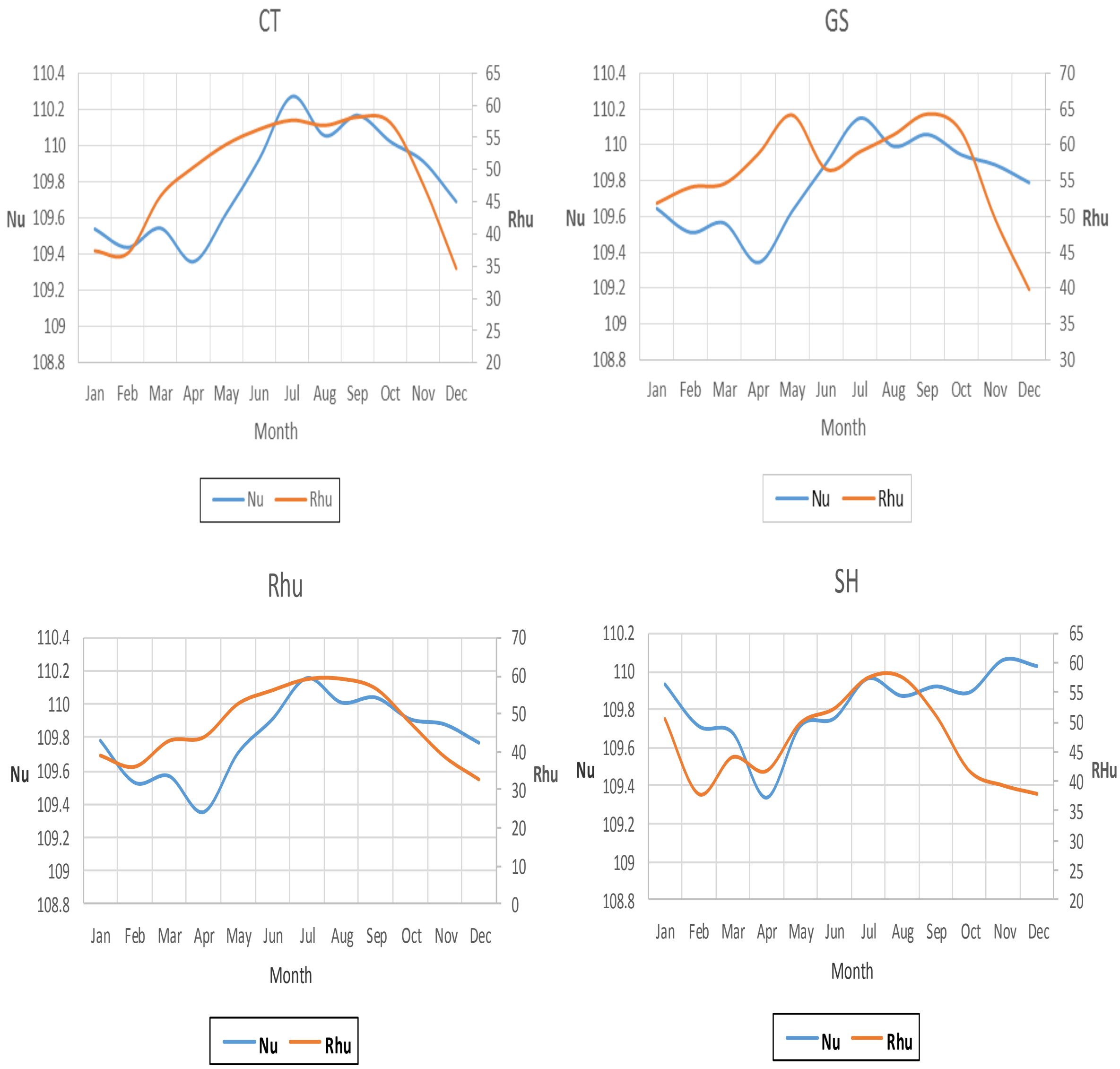

Figure 4. Average monthly variation of upper level refractivity and relative humidity at (a) Coastal (b) Guinea savannah (c) Midland and (d) Sahelian regions.

coastal region. This also shows the dependence of refractivity on the independent variable (relative humidity) at this level. The coefficient of determination, CD, is also high in all the regions both at low and mid-levels except at coastal region, where it is 14.8%. At the upper level, the performance of the model differed from one region to another. In the coastal and midland regions, the null hypothesis is rejected since f sig. is less than the critical value but the null hypothesis is accepted in guinea savannah and sub sahelian regions.

The slopes of the trend lines indicate the extent to which refractivity changes with a unit change in the values of the affected parameter. From Table 1, the temperature gradient, that is dN/dT is negative in all the regions and at all levels; this shows that the refractivity decreases with temperature (Ekpe et al., 2010). Positive relative humidity gradient, dN/dH is noticed in the entire region and at all levels. This shows that refractivity increases with humidity. Nevertheless, the rate of change of refractivity is much more depended on the relative humidity than temperature except for the coastal region at low level. This is in agreement with the finding of Smith and Weintraub (1953) in a similar investigation.

Table 2 shows the statistical relation between relative humidity and refractivity at three different levels of the troposphere. Small positive gradient are noticeable at all levels in all the regions. CD shows linear relationship between RH and N.

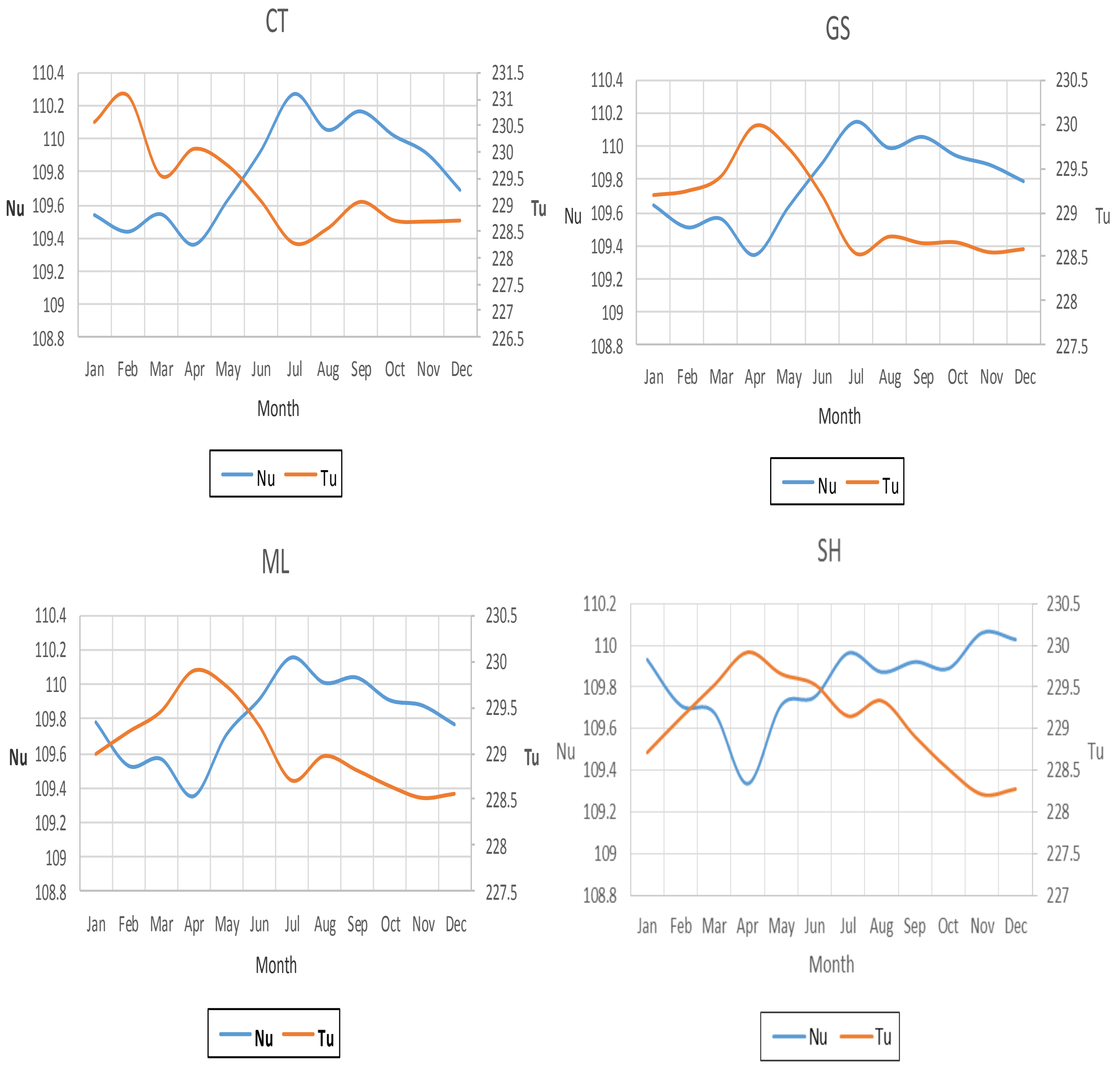

Figure 5. Average monthly variation of upper level refractivity and temperature at (a) Coastal (b) Guinea savannah (c) Midland and (d) Sahelian regions.

Table 1. Regression Results for Refractivity and Temperature over Nigeria.

Region	Low Level				Mid-Level				Upper Level			
	CD(%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.	CD(%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.	CD(%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.
Coastal	23.00	1.370	0.794	0.116	34.00	-2.426	1.064	0.046	74.10	-0.440	0.082	0.000
Guinea savannah	0.10	-0.173	1.635	0.918	27.70	-3.836	1.961	0.079	72.10	-0.421	0.083	0.000
Midland	18.40	-4.473	2.982	0.165	39.90	-6.678	2.592	0.028	49.20	-0.356	0.115	0.011
Sub Sahelian	4.10	-2.948	4.522	0.529	2.10	-1.266	2.732	0.653	69.20	-0.304	0.064	0.001

*CD: Coefficient of determination (R^2); SE: standard error.

Table 2. Regression Results for Refractivity and Relative Humidity over Nigeria.

Region	Low Level				Mid-Level				Upper Level			
	CD (%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.	CD (%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.	CD (%)	Gradient	SE	f-sig.
Coastal	14.80	0.248	3.260	0.217	94.90	0.302	0.220	0.000	47.99	0.024	0.008	0.013
Guinea savannah	77.20	0.843	0.145	0.000	84.05	0.843	0.511	0.000	3.83	0.007	0.110	0.542
Midland	95.84	0.870	0.570	0.000	98.73	0.417	0.015	0.000	38.43	0.015	0.006	0.032
Sub Sahelian	97.68	1.108	0.054	0.000	99.30	0.474	0.013	0.000	0.50	0.002	0.009	0.827

*CD: Coefficient of determination (R^2); SE: standard error.

Conclusion

Analysis of refractivity, relative humidity and temperature aloft Nigeria revealed that the variation of refractivity vary seasonally from one region to other. At low level, variation of NL and RhL follow similar pattern which is high during the rainy and low during the dry months, while the case of temperature is a reverse. Influence of RhL and TL over NL is noticeable. In addition, the following trends were also discovered from the study:

(1) At low level, temperature increases northward and is much higher in the dry months than in rainy season.
(2) At coastal and guinea savannah regions, higher and almost uniform values of relative humidity and refractivity parameters are observed throughout the year (Figure 3b and c), mean values of Rh range between 52 and 76% at coastal region, and 47 and 74% in the guinea savannah region; and mean value of N range between 323 and 334 N-units in coastal and 312 and 336 N-units at guinea savannah.
(3) In the case of midland and sub sahelian regions, Rh and N parameter values during the dry season are quite lower than those of rainy season. A similar situation was noticed at mid-level.
(4) The distinction observed between the southern and the northern regions in relative humidity and refractivity may be attributed to the fact that the precipitation climatology of the two regions differ appreciably (Balogun, 1981; Garbutt et al., 1981).
(5) At the upper level, the variation of T or N does not have a particular pattern as it oscillates up and down. However, Rh is low in the dry season and rises in the rainy season. It is also observed that T, Rh and N decrease with atmospheric level.

From the statistic and ANOVA table (Table 1), poor correlation between N and T shows that linear regression cannot be used to predict the dependent parameter. In the case of N and Rh, where good correlation exists, linear regression can be used to predict the dependent parameter. This shows that variability of N is majorly anchored on Rh parameter.

Conflict of Interests

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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