

**MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT,
CLIMATE CHANGE AND FORESTRY**

KENYA'S THIRD NATIONAL GREENHOUSE GAS INVENTORY DOCUMENT

1990-2022

Authors And Contributors

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Chapter 01:

National Circumstances, Institutional Arrangements and Cross-cutting Information

This is Kenya's National Inventory Document (NID) covering the period 1990 to 2022. The inventory estimates emissions of the three mandatory gases (CO2, CH4 and N2O) have been reported, with the country applying the relevant flexibility provisions not to report on the other gases. Mechanisms will be put in place to facilitate data collection and reporting of the rest of the gases to facilitate the estimation of a complete inventory.

Kenya has previously reported two national communications; in 2000 and 2015 but is yet to communicate a Biennial Update Report (BUR). Legal and institutional arrangements are being set up, anchored on the Climate Change Act, to ensure consistent reporting.

1.1. Background information on GHG inventories and climate change

1.1.1. Climate Change

Climate change is one of Kenya's main concerns. Adverse impacts of climate change have led to significant losses in the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Droughts and floods, the main disasters attributed to the adverse impacts of climate change, have become more frequent and intense resulting in significant

loss of lives and livelihoods, including damage of infrastructure. The livestock data, for example, demonstrates the impact on livestock populations due to significant losses in livestock in 2021 when Kenya had one of the most severe droughts in the recent past, leading to significant loss of livestock.

1.1.2. GHG Inventory

Kenya has an elaborate policy, legal and institutional framework that provides for the monitoring, reporting and verification of both adaptation and mitigation actions. The inventory is an important piece of the framework since the updated Kenya Nationally Determined Contribution communicated in 2020 has GHG emissions as the main indicator of progress. It is, therefore, imperative for the country to establish an elaborate MRV framework for the inventory to facilitate tracking of the progress of its NDC, the main policy instrument guiding climate change response in the country. Kenya has communicated two GHG inventories as part of the first and second National Communications. This is the third GHG Inventory that is submitted as part of the first Biennial Transparency Report, the initial Biennial Update Report and the third National Communication.

1.2. Description of national circumstances and institutional arrangements

1.2.1. National Entity/Focal Point

The Climate Change Act, 2016 came into force to enable Kenya to meet its international obligations under the UNFCCC. The Act requires that each state department and national government public entity report on greenhouse gas emissions for the national inventory. Under the Act, the Ministry responsible for climate change affairs, which is the Ministry for the Environment, Climate Change and Forestry (MoECCF), is responsible for overall development, compilation, and submission of the greenhouse inventory to the UNFCCC. Specifically, the Act establishes a Climate Change Directorate (CCD) under the MoECCF to coordinate the implementation of Climate Change activities in the Country, including GHG inventories.

The NIR for the Third National Communication (TNC), BUR1 and BTR1 has been developed by inter-ministerial and interinstitutional sector teams. The Project Manager, who is also the GHG Inventory Coordinator, worked closely with Sector Coordinators/sector teams to collect data, estimate emissions, and draft the inventory report.

Five (5) Sector Working Groups were formed under the Technical Working Group on Greenhouse Gas Inventory to support the

preparation of the GHG Inventory Report. The sector working groups are.

- a. Energy (including Transport) Sector Working Group
- b. IPPU Sector Working Group
- c. Waste Sector Working Group
- d. Agriculture (Crop and Livestock) Sector Working Group
- e. FOLU Sector Working Group

The PMU engaged experts/institutions to provide broad technical guidance and will work very closely with the Sector teams in managing the inventory development. The Project Manager worked with sector team leads to develop the required systems and procedures for efficient GHG inventory preparation. Kenya has envisioned a GHG Inventory institutional framework that is yet to be operationalized. The PMU is, therefore, the National GHG Inventory Coordination Unit until the envisioned institutional framework is operationalized. The Project Manager is the GHG Inventory Coordinator. Each Sector Working Group is coordinated by a Sector Coordinator appointed by the Project Manager in consultation with the specific sector team.

Figure 1-1: Figure Name

1.2.1.1. Project Management Unit

Kenya has not established a national inventory system. The Project Management Unit established to implement the BTR Project doubled as the GHG Inventory Unit. A Project Manager heads the PMU to administer and manage the project and report to the Director of Climate Change. The PMU was responsible for preparing the National Inventory Report. The PMU consists of a Project Manager, a Technical Assistant, and an Administrative Assistant.

1.2.2. Inventory development process

Kenya commenced the GHG Inventory preparation process by convening all sector experts for a planning and capacity-building workshop. The capacity-building workshop was facilitated by an expert supported by CBIT-GSP. The composition of the sector working groups included data providers and compilers to facilitate efficiency due to the limited time the country had to prepare the inventory. The team chose methods based on data availability and identified areas where flexibility provisions would apply.

The sectors proceeded to collect and organize activity data in formats consistent with the common reporting tables. Decisions were made on where to use IPCC default emission factors and where the country-specific emission factors would apply.

After the calculation of the initial estimates, Kenya requested the Transparency Accelerator Initiative to avail experts to QC the initial estimates.

Below is a graphical representation of the GHG inventory cycle

Figure 1-2: Figure 1. 2: Inventory development process

1.2.3. Archival of Information

Kenya has not institutionalized reporting. Therefore, the information reported in the first and second national communications was not archived to inform the preparation of the third National GHG Inventory Report. The sector working groups collected data for the entire time series and used different methods to address data gaps.

1.2.4. Process for formal inventory review and approval

Kenya has an elaborate process for stakeholder engagement and approval of policy documents and reports. Sectors, the Parliament and other stakeholders reviewed the National GHG Inventory through an elaborate stakeholder engagement process. The team also worked with the IPCC-TFI to support the review of the LULUCF inventory, especially since Kenya used the IPCC software to estimate its emissions for all sectors. At the political level, the inventory was reviewed by the inter-ministerial ETF

Reporting Project Steering Committee, which is chaired by the Principal Secretary of the State Department for Environment and Climate Change. The Principal Secretary presented the inventory to the Cabinet Secretary for Environment, Climate Change and Forestry for approval. The Cabinet Secretary then presented the inventory report to the Cabinet chaired by His Excellency the President for final political approval.

1.3. Description of methodologies, methods and sources of information

Kenya updated its national GHG inventory using methodologies recommended under decision 18/CMA.1. The 2006 IPCC guidelines were used to prepare the inventory. The most recent version of

the IPCC software was used for emission estimation. The country used the IPCC default emission factors for categories where the country has not developed country-specific emission factors.

1.4. Description of main categories

The IPCC Good practice guidance (IPCC, 2000) identifies a key category as "one that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both". Key categories are identified within the inventory so that the resources available for inventory preparation are prioritized.

The key categories in the Kenya inventory were assessed using the good practice Tier 1 level and trend methodologies (IPCC, 2000; 2003). The good practice methodologies identify sources of emissions and removals that sum to 95 percent of the total emissions or 95 percent of the trend of the inventory in absolute terms. Following GPG-LULUCF (IPCC, 2003) the key category analysis was performed once for the inventory excluding LULUCF categories and then repeated for the full inventory including the LULUCF categories. Non-LULUCF categories that are identified as key in the first analysis but do not appear as key when the LULUCF categories are included were still considered as key. The detailed results for the key category analysis are shown in tables 1.4. 2 to 1.4.5 for the base year and current year respectively.

When the LULUCF sector is included in the analysis, Kenya has identified CH4 emissions from enteric fermentation and FOLU

CO2 emissions from Cropland Remaining Cropland (Removals) as the most significant of the key categories (i.e. contributing more than 48 per cent of the level). When the LULUCF sector is excluded from the analysis the most significant key categories are Enteric Fermentation - CH4 and Fuel Combustion Activities - Transport - Road transportation - CO2 contributing 65 % of the emission in 2022.

The key categories identified in the 2022 inventory are summarized in Table 1.4.1. The major contribution to the level analysis is from Agriculture CH4 emissions from enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, and FOLU CO2 emissions from Cropland Remaining Cropland (Removals) being the largest single source of emissions comprising 26% and 22% respectively of total emissions in 2022. The next largest contribution to emissions is Fuel Combustion Activities - Transport – CO2 from Road transportation comprising 9.8 percent of total. This is followed by CO2 emissions from Land Converted to Grassland (Emissions) comprised 7.4 percent of total emissions in 2022. (table 1.4.5). However, due to capacity constrains at national level especially in determination of country specific emission factors, the key categories have been modelled through tier 1 approach.

Table 1-2: Tier 1 Key Category Level Assessment - excluding LULUCF-Base year

Table 1-3: Tier 1 Key Category Level Assessment - excluding LULUCF –Current year

Table 1-4: Tier 1 Key Category Level Assessment - including LULUCF-Base year 1990

Table 1-5: Tier 1 Key Category Level Assessment - including LULUCF - Current year

1.5. Description of the QA/QC plan and its implementation

Quality assurance and quality control are essential to facilitate continuous improvement and guarantee improved inventory quality over time. Decision 18/CMA.1 paragraph 46 provides for Parties to report their QA/QC plans and information on QA/

Quality Control

During the preparation of the inventory, the inventory technical working group continued to develop a Tier 1 QC checklist, updating from the one previously used in the preparation of the SNC GHG inventory. General QC procedures were applied routinely to all categories by sector experts responsible for each category and to the inventory report as a whole. In addition, categoryspecific procedures based on the prioritization identified during the inventory planning process were carried out. General QC

Quality Assurance

Quality assurance of individual sectors is an integral part of the data processing. The sector experts ensured that the activity data, emission factors and parameters used conformed to the principles of completeness and accuracy. The methodologies used in the LULUCF sector were harmonized with those used in other international reporting including the Forest Reference Level and the Forest Resource Assessment 2020 (FRA-2020)

QC procedures already implemented or to be implemented in the future, in accordance with paragraphs 34-36 of the same decision. Kenya has applied flexibility provisions provided in paragraph 34 of the annex to decision 18/CMA.1.

procedures include generic quality checks related to calculations, data processing, completeness, and documentation that are applicable to all inventory source and sink categories. Checks were performed on selected sets of data and processes and a representative sample of data and calculations from every category. The Tier 1 QC check sheets were used on all key categories and a selection of non-key categories.

submitted to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN. A large part of the data in the energy, IPPU and agriculture sectors are compiled using data collected in national surveys. These surveys are conducted and administered by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS). The KNBS conducts its own rigorous quality assurance and quality control procedures on the data.

1.5.1. Criteria for Achievement of Quality Objectives

Kenya elaborates below its criteria for assessing whether the data quality objectives have been met for the GHG inventory submission. National circumstances associated with any given inventory cycle may impact Kenya's inventory development

process. Where the data quality objectives for a year cannot be fully met, in accordance with the criteria, Kenya intends to describe the specific national circumstances in the relevant section of the GHG inventory report.

Table 1-6: Criteria for determining whether Kenya's data quality objectives have been met.

1.5.2. QA/QC System

The overall institutional arrangements in Kenya were elaborated earlier in the document. This section focuses on the role(s) of individuals involved with QA/QC activities.

1.5.2.1 Roles and Responsibilities

Everyone involved in the inventory planning, preparation and management process has an obligation to ensure the quality of the GHG emissions information that they gather, process and report. The project manager of the ETF reporting project, who was the inventory coordinator, had a critical role in ensuring the overall quality of the inventory. The coordinator is.

- Responsible for data and document management, which is critical to the long-term improvement of the inventory;
- Act as the receiver of inventory files from the sector experts – is responsible for putting the pieces together into one unified, quality-controlled inventory document;
- Ensures new developments concerning the inventory are thoroughly discussed and implemented.
- Responsible for the planning and implementation of QA/ QC activities;
- undertake comprehensive review of available methodological choices on the basis of its applicability to the estimation of GHG emissions;
- Manage spot-checking spreadsheets for correct data entry, consistent formulas and complete documentation for each sector;
- Ensure facilitation of QA process, at least one round of external peer review, for sector reports and draft NIR.
- Together with the sector coordinators, design and oversee the implementation of the QA/QC plan.

The sector coordinators were responsible for sector-level QA/ QC. Below are some of their responsibilities

- Perform sector-level QC checks on data being collected and estimations made, guided by the checklists in the QA/QC Plan;
- Submit all processed data and any other supplemental data and QA/QC checklists to the inventory coordinator and maintain backups in the respective organization;
- Liaise with the inventory coordinator to undertake a comprehensive review of available methodological choices and make sound methodological choices on the basis of their applicability to the estimation of GHG emissions;
- Estimate GHG emissions for all categories and gases using appropriate AD/EFs/ GWPs and ensure that the

processes/ assumptions for the estimation, including the software used, are consistent with the IPCC guidelines and fully documented;

- Conduct key category analysis for the sector and uncertainty assessment in collaboration with the coordinator/generalist and the uncertainty management lead;
- Collect data using relevant data collection templates, document data sources, check units, and perform other checks in accordance with the annex to decision 18/CMA.1.
- Create and maintain hard and soft copies of all information, data, and estimates at the sector level and for onward transmission to the archive;
- Consult with the inventory coordinator/compiler, as necessary, to discuss and agree on prioritization of activities that can be done within the current inventory cycle;
- Identify prioritised plans for improvements to be incorporated into the national inventory report and inventory improvement plan.

Kenya also reached out to the Transparency Accelerator Initiative to provide sector experts to support the QA/QC process. Six experts came to Kenya under the initiative and work with sector coordinators on the quality assurance for the inventory. The LULUCF team also received additional support from the IPCC-TFI on data QC/QA.

1.6. General Assessment of Uncertainty

According to paragraph 29 of the MPGs each party shall quantitatively estimate and qualitatively discuss the uncertainty of the emission and removal estimates for all source and sink categories, including inventory totals, for at least the starting year and the latest reporting year of the inventory time series. Each Party shall also estimate the trend uncertainty of emission and removal estimates for all source and sink categories, including totals, between the starting year and the latest reporting year of the inventory time series, using at least approach 1, as provided in the IPCC guidelines; those developing country Parties that

need flexibility in the light of their capacities with respect to this provision have the flexibility to instead provide, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for key categories, using the IPCC guidelines, where quantitative input data are unavailable to quantitatively estimate uncertainties, and are encouraged to provide a quantitative estimate of uncertainty for all source and sink categories of the GHG inventory.

In this inventory, Kenya discusses the uncertainty of the emission estimates qualitatively; this is done under each sector.

1.7. Overall Assessment of Completeness

The 2006 IPCC highlights completeness as a critical aspect in ensuring the quality of the inventory. To achieve completeness, national calendar year estimates are reported for all sources and sinks, and gases. Where elements are missing, their absence should be clearly documented, together with a justification for exclusion. Paragraphs 30-33 of the annex to decision 18/CMA.1 provides for the overall assessment of completeness in the inventory submitted as part of the BTR. Paragraph 32 provides flexibility for developing country Parties that need it in light of their capacities.

In the preparation of the inventory, Kenya has indicated the sources and sinks (categories, pools and gases) that are not considered in the national inventory report but for which estimation methods are included in the IPCC guidelines. Notation keys have been used where numerical data are not available when completing common reporting tables, indicating the reasons why emissions from sources and removals by sinks and associated data for

specific sectors, categories and subcategories or gases are not reported. The notation keys include:

- "NO" (not occurring) for categories or processes, including recovery, under a particular source or sink category that do not occur within a Party;
- b. "NE" (not estimated) for activity data and/or emissions by sources and removals by sinks of GHGs that have not been estimated but for which a corresponding activity may occur within a Party;
- c. "NA" (not applicable) for activities under a given source/ sink category that do occur within the Party but do not result in emissions or removals of a specific gas;
- d. "IE" (include elsewhere) for emissions by sources and removals by sinks of GHGs estimated but included elsewhere in the inventory instead of under the expected source/sink category;

e. "C" (confidential) for emissions by sources and removals by sinks of GHGs where the reporting would involve the disclosure of confidential information.

1.7.1. Information on completeness

Kenya has provided information and explanation relating to the GHG sources and sinks – categories, reservoirs and gases to the expend possible taking into account the flexibility provisions provided in the annex to decision 18/CMA.1. Below is a summary table for non-estimated GHG sources and sinks and for GHG sources and sinks included elsewhere.

Table 1-7: Table: GHG sources and sinks from Kenya inventory reported as not estimated

l GHG	Sector	GHG source and sink categories	Explanation or comment
HFCs	IPPU		
SF	IPPU		
Unspecified mixture of HFCs and PFCs			

1.7.2. Aggregated national total of negligible categories

Below is a summary of the negligible categories reported in this report.

1.8. Measuring systems

Paragraph 37 of the annex to decision 18/CMA.1 provides for Parties to use the 100-year time-horizon global warming potential (GWP) values from the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report or 100-year time-horizon GWP values from a subsequent IPCC assessment

report as agreed upon by the CMA, to report aggregate emissions and removals of GHGs, expressed in CO₂ eq. Kenya inventory was prepared using the 100-year time horizon for the reported gases.

1.9. Summary of applied flexibility provisions

One of the guiding principles of the modalities, procedures and guidelines (MPGs) for the enhanced transparency framework used in the preparation of this inventory document is the provision of flexibility to those developing country Parties that need it in the light of their capacities. Below is a summary table of the flexibility provisions applied.

Table 1-9: Table: Summary of flexibilities applied

1.10. Improvement Over Time (Annex 1)

This GHG inventory is the first detailed inventory report that the country has compiled since Kenya started reporting in 2002. It is, therefore, the basis for future improvement in inventory reporting. A detailed improvement plan has been developed to

inform future improvements based on the gaps identified during the compilation of this inventory. The timeframes proposed are subject to the availability of adequate support.

Chapter 02:

Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Removals

2.1. Description of emission and removal trends for aggregated GHG emissions and removals

Kenya's total greenhouse gas emissions were equivalent to 113,366 GgCO₂eq including the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) Sector in 2022. The total greenhouse gas emissions have increased by 343 percent since 1990 (Table 2-1). Total CO $_{\tiny 2}$ emissions for the year 2022 are estimated to be

66,519.7 GgCO₂eq without contribution from LULUCF. Trends in total CO $_2$ eq emissions for the time series 1990 to 2022 are shown in figures 2-1 and 2-2. In general emission have been increasing since 1990 rising to 69,399.5 GgCO₂eq in 2021 without LULUCF and then dropping slightly in 2022.

Emission growth is primarily driven by Energy and AFOLU sectors which have remained net emitters, showing deforestation and forest degradation have been exceeding the reforestation rates throughout the period and together with increased consumption of fossil fuels. Other drivers of emissions are due to increased agricultural activities, and demand for fossil fuels in the energy

sector. Over the period 1990 to 2022, the average annual growth in overall emissions has been **4** percent per year including the LULUCF sector.

Greenhouse gas emission contributions by sector and by type of greenhouse gas are summarized in section 2.2 below.

2.2. Description of emission and removal trends by sector and by gas

2.2.1. Emission trends by Source-Sector

Kenya is amongst developing nations in which Agriculture and LULUCF sectors dominates the share of its total greenhouse gas emissions. Tables 2-2 provides a summary of sectoral greenhouse gas emissions results for all sectors, and figure 2-3 shows Emissions trends by sectors without LULUCF, while figure 2-4 shows emissions trends by sector including LULUCF.

Table 2-2: Kenya's sectoral greenhouse gas emissions Summary 1990 - 2022 (Gg- CO2 eq)

Categories	Sectoral greenhouse gas emissions $(Gg-CO2eq)$					Annual growth rate	$~\sim$ % Change $1990 -$ 2022
	1990	2000	2010	2020	2022		
3A/C - Agriculture	15.639.7	13,732.7	19.941.1	40.211.6	36,102.2	4%	131%
1 - Energy	7,018.6	7,767.7	15,185.0	20,625.9	21,503.2	6%	206%
4 - Waste	2,171.5	2,953.3	4.113.4	5.009.3	5,237.0	4%	141%
$2 - IPPU$	764.0	591.2	1,646.7	2.026.9	3,677.2	12%	381%
3B - LULUCF	-	٠	1,4974.9	40,456.8	46,846.3	20%	653%

Figure 2-3: Greenhouse gas emission trend by sector in Gg CO2eq, excluding LULUCF

Figure 2-4: Greenhouse gas emission trend by sector including LULUCF

The LULUCF sector emitted **46,846.3** GgCO₂eq in 2022 (41 % of the national emissions). The Agriculture sector was a net emitter in 2022 contributing approximately **36,102.2** GgCO₂eq or 32 percent of the national emissions. Thus AFOLU (combined agriculture, land use change and forestry) is the largest contributor to the total emissions in Kenya having **73%** share. (Tables 2-2 and figure 2-5).

The energy sector emitted **21,503.2** Gg CO₂eq., contributing **6** percent of the total GHG emissions in 2022. The waste sector emitted **5,237.0 Gg** CO₂eq in 2022, which was **5** percent of the total GHG emission. The Industrial Processes and Product Use emitted **3,677.2** Gg CO₂eq or about **3**% of total GHG emissions. (Tables 2-2 and figure $2-5$).

The LULUCF emissions grew at average rate of **20%** per annum which is the highest annual rate by sector, followed by Industrial process emissions at an average rate of **12** % per year. The Energy emissions grew at an average rate of **6%** per year between 1990 and 2022. Waste process and Agriculture emissions grew much more slowly at an average rate of **4%** per year. (Table 2-2).

Emissions from the **AFOLU** sector have been increasing steadily since 1990 to 2022 due steady demand for agricultural land, deforestation activities and use of synthetic fertilizers, and increasing number of livestock. **IPPU** Emissions have continued to grow primarily due to increased CO₂ emissions from cement production (more factories became operational). Emissions from the **Energy** Sector had increased over the years largely due to increased importation of fossil consuming vehicles in the transport sector.

Kenya National Emissions-Percentage share by sector in 2022

Figure 2-5: Kenya`s Sectoral greenhouse gas emissions percentage share of national total emissions in 2022, including LULUCF

The current level of emissions from LULUCF is **653** percent above the 1990 level, while IPPU **is 381**% above that of the 1990,

agriculture sector is **131 percent**, and energy sector is **206**% (table 2-2). Detailed results by sector and source categories for each of the inventory period 1990 to 2022 are provided in chapters 3-6.

2.2.2. Emission trends by gas

Methane and Carbon dioxide dominate Kenya's increase in greenhouse gas emissions (table 2-3 and figure 2-6). In 2022, CO2 comprised **59** percent of total CO₂ equivalent (CO_{2e}) emissions, whereas CH₄ contributed **37** % and N₂O, **4** percent. Therefore,

 $CO₂$ and $CH₄$ remain the major greenhouse gases in Kenya's historical emissions profile. Figure 2-6 illustrate the share of emission by gas type.

Figure 2-6: Kenya's emissions share by gas in 2022

Table 2-3: Kenya's emissions by gas for selected years between 1990 - 2022 (Gg CO2eq)

GHG Type	Kenya's total emissions by gas					% change 1990 - 2022
	1990	2000	2010	2020	2022	
CO ₂	6,622.4	7,136.2	29,334.8	58,674.7	67,114.2	913%
CH4	17,036.2	15,865.0	23,843.3	45,599.8	42,127.5	147%
N ₂₀	1,935.2	2,043.8	2,682.9	4,055.9	4,124.4	113%
TOTAL EMISSIONS	25,593.7	25,045.0	55,861.1	108,330.4	113,366.0	343%
(Gg CO2eq)						

The growth in CH₄ emissions can be associated with an increased number of livestock population. The growth in CO₂ represents the increased emissions from the LULUCF and energy sectors, in particular the transport sub-sector. N_{2} O emissions have increased due to the increased use of nitrogenous fertilizers in agricultural soils since 1990.

Table 2-3 and figure 2-7 indicate the amounts of emissions of the three main greenhouse gases (i.e., $CO_{2'}CH_{4'}N_{2}O$) for each of the inventory years and the relative changes from 1990 to 2022. CO_2 relative change in emissions is far the largest changing by **913%** since 1990 to 2022, followed by CH_{4 at} 147%, and N₂O at **113 %** change.

Figure 2-7: Trend in GHG emissions by gas type 1990-2022

Category 2.F product uses as substitutes for ozone depleting substances was not estimated due to insufficient data on Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and, to a very limited extent,

perfluorocarbons (PFCs) that are serving as alternatives to ozone depleting substance.

2.2.3. Emission trends for indirect greenhouse gases and SO2

The indirect greenhouse gases CO, NOx, NMVOC as well as SO₂ are not included in the current Kenya's total greenhouse gas emissions,

Chapter 03:

Energy

3.1. Sector Overview

The 2006 IPCC Guidelines arrange the Energy Sector for greenhouse gas reporting into three (3) distinct subsectors;

- i. Fuel Combustion Activities (1.A)
- ii. Fugitive Emissions from Fuels (1.B)
- iii. Carbon dioxide Transport and Storage (1.C)

Table 3-1: Fuel Combustion Activities

In this inventory, Kenya has only estimated emissions originating from fuel combustion activities (1.A). These include emissions from Energy Industries, Manufacturing Industries and Construction, Transport, and Other Sectors as outlined in **table 3-1**.

The Energy sector is the second largest source of emissions in the country accounting for about 25% of total emissions with 21,503 Gg-CO₂e in 2022. These emissions are mainly from transport and other sectors sub-categories, as illustrated in **Figure 3-1**.

Figure 3-1: Share of energy sector emissions in 1990 and 2022

The transport sub-sector has consistently been the largest source of emissions in the energy sector due to its reliance on fossil fuels. This is followed by Other sectors which comprise of fuel use in the residential, commercial, and agriculture industries, and manufacturing industries, and construction. Energy industries which comprise electricity generation and petroleum refining have always been the smallest contributor sub-category in the energy sector.

There was some activity in exploration for oil and gas in the country in the last decade but emissions from the category Fugitive Emissions from Fuels (1.B) oil and gas exploration were deemed insignificant and thus not estimated. There were coal exploration activities that led to the discovery of coal reserves

in the Eastern region of Kenya but no mining activities have been carried out yet.

No emissions occurred under the category, Carbon dioxide transport and storage (1.C) as these activities have not been undertaken anywhere in the country across the time series.

The greenhouse gas emission trends indicated in **Figure 3-2** depict a gradual increase in emissions from 1990 to 2022. The increase is attributed to increased energy demand by the growing population and economic growth leading to increased fuel consumption. The reduction in emissions in the later years is attributed to increased electricity generation from renewable energy technologies, the adoption of lower carbon fuels, and the disruptive effects of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Figure 3-2: Figure 3-2: GHG Emission Trends in the Energy Sector (Gg-CO2e)
1. Transport

Transport has consistently been the most significant source category of emissions, particularly due to its virtually total reliance on petroleum fuels. There has been a sustained increase in the number of motor vehicles driven by population growth, national economy expansion, and urbanisation of society. This has subsequently resulted in an increase in the emissions from the transport sector.

The total length of the rail network in the country is 2,778 km comprising both the metre gauge track and the standard gauge track. In 2017, the construction of Phase I of the Standard

2. Manufacturing Industries

The Government of Kenya's push towards expansion of industry and manufacturing, coupled with increased population growth has led to increased consumption of fossil fuels, primarily petroleum. In particular, the construction industry has been on

3. Residential

Kenya's transition to clean cooking is driving an increase in uptake of Liquid Petroleum Gas (LPG) in the residential sector; this has increased since 1990 from 27.4 kt to 333.6 kt. However,

4. Electricity generation

Currently, Kenya has an installed electricity generation capacity of 3,321 MW, against a peak demand of about 2,149 MW (EPRA 2023). Of this, over 70% is from renewable sources, comprising of hydro (838.5 MW), geothermal (950 MW), wind (436.1 MW), biogas (2 MW), and solar (212.6 MW); with thermal medium speed diesel (MSD) contributing 681.9 MW to the interconnected

Gauge Railway spanning 472 km of track from the port city of Mombasa to Nairobi was completed, this has significantly reduced freight and passenger tariffs and travel time and led to a significant shift of freight and passengers from road to rail. The cargo transported using the railway system increased from 1,380,000 tonnes in 2016 to 6,090,000 tonnes in 2022. The passenger per km increased from 113 million in 2016 to 2,392 million in 2022. (source KNBS Economic Survey 2018 and 2023). This is observed in the trend of emissions for heavy-duty vehicles which declined in 2017.

a steady growth leading to escalated production of cement by 545% from 1,511,500 tonnes in 1990 to 9,754,000 tonnes in 2022 (KNBS, 2023). Consequently, driving up demand for coal which is the primary fuel in the manufacture of cement.

about 70% of Kenyans (Ministry of Energy and Petroleum Study, 20191) still use biomass (charcoal and fuel wood) for cooking.

system. This has been driven by deliberate government policy intervention geared towards promotion of renewables in the country which has resulted in the scaling down on the use of diesel thermal generation leading to a drop in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions.

Figure 3-3: Electricity generation mix in Kenya

Energy demand has varied over the years but has been on a general upward trend. This has been due to average sustained economic growth of more than 5% from the year 2003.

¹ **https://rise.esmap.org/data/files/library/kenya/Electricity%20Access/Kenya_MoE-Kenya%20Cooking%20Sector%20Study_2019.pdf**

3.1.1. Description and Trend of GHGs

The energy sector emissions have been generally trending upwards over the reporting period (1990-2022) rising from 7,018 Gg-CO $_2^{}$ e $\,$ in 1990 to 21,503 Gg-CO $_2$ e in 2022 as illustrated in figure 3-4.

Graph of Annual Energy Sector emissions in CO_{2e}

Figure 3-4: Energy sector emissions Gg-CO2e

The growth in emissions is attributed to socio-economic factors such as population and GDP growth which have steadily increased. The emissions stabilize from 2018 to 2022 on account

of increased generation from renewable energy technologies and adoption of clean cooking technologies.

3.1.2. Methodological Aspects of the Category

The selection of which tier to apply depends on whether a category is a key category and on the availability of data and methods (e.g. country-specific, plant-specific or models) that would enable the application of the appropriate methodology.

The Energy Sector inventory was estimated based on the tier 1 methodology. This entails the use of default IPCC 2006 emission factors and country activity data to calculate emissions using the formula;

Emissions = $AD \cdot EF$

Where;

Activity data (AD) is the extent to which human activity takes place, and,

Emission factors (EF) - the coefficients that quantify the emissions or removals per unit activity.

In the energy sector (tier 1 methodology) fuel consumption constituted activity data, and the mass of carbon dioxide (CO2)/ methane (CH₄)/ nitrous oxide (N₂O) emitted per unit of fuel consumed would be an emission factor. The emission factors applied are sourced from the IPCC as embedded in the IPCC inventory software or published in the Emission Factor Database

(EFDB). The fuel calorific values used are Net Calorific Values (NCV).

The main sources of Activity Data used for the sector were from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) as reported in the annual Economic Survey Reports and the Statistical Abstracts. These reports are readily available and compiled information shared by sector representatives/ institutions including the Ministries and their agencies as well as the Kenya Revenue Authority. There was also the use of data from some of the implementing agencies, mostly the Semi-Autonomous Government Agencies (SAGAs) annual reports. In some cases, expert opinion was sought to allocate fuel consumption in some sub-categories.

According to the modalities, procedures and guidelines (MPGs) (Decision 18/CMA.1 Annex II para. 23), the Party shall clearly document why the methodological choice was not in line with the corresponding decision tree of the IPCC guidelines.

Table 3-2:

Moving forward, Kenya plans to apply higher tier methodologies in upcoming compilations, particularly for the key categories, in line with the IPCC guidelines.

3.1.3. Comparison of the sectoral approach with the reference approach (related to a non-mandatory provision as per para. 36 of the MPGs)

The Reference Approach is a top-down approach, using a country's energy supply data to calculate the emissions of CO₂ from combustion of mainly fossil fuels. The Reference Approach is a straightforward method that can be applied based on relatively easily available energy supply statistics.

The CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels were estimated for the entire period, $1990 - 2022$ and the results are as depicted in the graph below

Comparison between Reference and Sectoral Approach (CO2 and Energy)

Figure 3-5: Comparison of CO2 and energy consumed between Reference and Sectoral approaches over the time series.

For most of the time series, the comparison returned a negative number, meaning that the sectoral approach estimates are higher than the reference approach estimates and this may be due a number of reasons, including;

- i. Poor data collection protocols,
- ii. Some material which may have been declared as industrial feedstocks may have been diverted into the fuel streams,
- iii. The split of fuel used in international: domestic navigation or aviation might have led to the differences observed,
- iv. Kenya is the gateway to the landlocked countries of Uganda, Rwanda, South Sudan or even the Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo. It is possible that some fuels meant for export could have been dumped into the economy and captured in the national fuel statistics.

The trend though seems to be settling to single digit percent difference pointing to better statistics and/or enforcement to prevent material diversion or dumping.

3.1.4. International bunker fuels (related to a non-mandatory provision as per para. 53 of the MPGs)

International bunker fuels are fuel supplied to aeroplanes and ships engaged in international transport. Emissions from international bunker fuels are not included in the national emission totals of individual countries but are reported as memo items.

Kenya has estimated the emissions from international civil aviation under category 1.A.3.a.i but has not estimated the international bunker fuels under water-borne navigation.

3.1.5. Carbon dioxide (CO2) Emissions from Biomass Used for Energy Purposes

 CO_2 emissions from biomass used for energy purposes was estimated under the Other sectors (1.A.4) sub-category. This entailed the use of wood/wood waste and charcoal in commercial/

institutional (1.A.4.a) and residential sectors (1.A.4.b). The total emissions from biomass were estimated at **61,037.181 Gg-CO2e** in 2022**.**

3.1.6. Feedstocks and non-energy use of fuels (related to a non-mandatory provision as per para. 54 of the MPGs)

Non-energy use of fuels for purposes other than generating heat or power included the use of fuels as a feedstock and other purposes such as bitumen production, lubricants, etc. The non-energy use of fuels was not significant in comparison to total fuel consumption. This is all in energy due to lack of data

on non-fuel use, except before 2013 where refinery non-fuel products are excluded from fuels.

In the reference approach, the bitumen derived from the refinery was counted as excluded carbon and appropriately accounted for.

3.2. Fuel Combustion Activities

The following sections discuss emissions estimates results of the energy sub-categories whose emissions have been estimated on this inventory.

3.2.1. Energy Industries (1.A.1)

This category comprises emissions from fuels combusted by the fuel extraction or energy-producing industries. Under this category, Kenya estimated emissions from two subcategories; Electricity Generation (1.A.1.a.i) and Petroleum refining (1.A.1.b).

Trend of Emissions from Energy Industries (1.A.1)

Figure 3-6: GHG emissions from Energy Industries

Electricity generation was the dominant source of emissions in this sub-category throughout the time series. Emissions from Energy industries peaked in 2010 and thereafter generally declined. This was the result of closure of the petroleum refinery

3.2.1.1. Electricity Generation (1.A.1.a.i)

This category comprises emissions estimated from fuel combustion used in electricity generation.

Kenya has a rich portfolio of options and technologies for electricity generation which includes renewable energy options like hydropower, geothermal, wind, solar, and biomass as well as fossil fuel options like medium-speed diesel plants utilizing

in 2013 and a diversification of electricity generation sources to bring on board other options and cushion the sector from the erratic rainfall patterns.

fuel oil, high-speed diesel plants using diesel and gas turbines that run on kerosene.

Despite a tripling of electricity generation capacity and generation since 1990, the emissions haven't followed a similar trajectory due to the deployment of more renewable energy options to meet the electricity demand.

Table 3-3: Share of Renewable and Thermal electricity generation in Kenya (sample years)

Much as the share of electricity from hydropower has gradually diminished, its importance in Kenya's electricity generation mix is still significant. This is seen in the generation trends where there is a spike in emissions from fossil fuels use in electricity

generation in the years the country suffered severe drought such as 2009 (KNBS, 2010) which impacted the hydropower output as depicted in Figure 3-3.

Figure 3-7: Thermal electricity generation (GWh)

This dependence has been addressed by diversifying to other non-hydro RE options such as wind, solar, geothermal as well as investing in regional interconnections and grid strengthening to allow the dispatch. This has subsequently resulted in peaking of emissions in 2010 and reduced emissions from electricity generation in the latter years of the time series as illustrated in figure 3.9

Figure 3-8: emissions from Electricity Generation

3.2.1.2. Petroleum refining (1.A.1.b)

This source category comprises all combustion activities supporting the refining of petroleum products including on-site combustion for the generation of electricity and heat for own use.

Kenya Petroleum Refineries Ltd. (KPRL) incorporated in 1960, under the name East African Oil Refineries Limited, operated a petroleum refinery from 1963 to 2013 when its operation was shut down and there have been no refining operations since. The refinery, located in Changamwe in the port city of Mombasa, refined imported crude petroleum sourced from various places, mostly in the Arabian Peninsula to meet part of Kenya's domestic fuel needs. Its storage facilities are currently leased to Kenya Pipeline Company (KPC). The refinery had a capacity to process 70,000 barrels of crude per day

The emissions reported here are from the combustion of fuel, residual fuel oil, as refinery usage from activity data sourced from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. The emissions from using the various fractions of fuel emanating from the refinery are reported in the respective use sectors.

Figure 3-9: C02 Emissions from Petroleum Refining

3.2.2. Manufacturing Industries and Construction (1.A.2)

This category comprises emissions from combustion of fuels in industry. It also includes combustion for the generation of electricity and heat for own use in these industries.

The emissions being reported in this sub-category are those from the fuel used to provide energy for the industrial process but not the emissions from the processing of the materials themselves

which are reported under the Industrial Processes and Product Use (IPPU) sector for example the emissions from the burning of coal to provide heat energy in a cement kiln are reported here (Energy > Fuel combustion activities > Manufacturing industries and construction > non-metallic minerals) whereas those from the decomposition of the calcium carbonate are reported in IPPU.

Manufacturing Industries and Construction (1.A.2)

Figure 3-10: Emissions from manufacturing industries and construction

In this category, Kenya has estimated emissions from fuel used to process non-metallic minerals (1.A.2.f) while all other fuel used

in industry was reported under the sub-category non-specified industries (1.A.2.m)

3.2.2.1. Non-metallic minerals (1.A.2.f)

This sub-category accounted for emissions from fuel use in non-metallic minerals. Includes products such as glass, ceramic, cement etc.

As of the end of 2022, Kenya had seven (7) cement industries in operation. Four (4) of these produce clinkers that are mainly for in-house cement production. The demand for cement has been increasing mainly driven by infrastructure growth particularly in roads and housing. There are two (2) main lime manufacturers with a total installed capacity of 50,000 tonnes per year. Similarly,

there are two (2) major glass producers (mainly dealing in packaging glass products) with an installed capacity of 90,000 tons per annum.

The main fuel used in this category is coal, the main type of coal used was found to be other bituminous coal and it is whose parameters that were used in the estimation of emission from that sub-category. With coal being the main fuel in the manufacture of cement, a graph of coal imports and cement production depicts this relationship as shown in the figure below.

Figure 3-11: Cement production versus 1.A.2.f emissions

Besides coal, it is known that some residual fuel oil and diesel oil are used in this source category but there isn't sufficient data to estimate the quantities consumed in the industry to enable the estimation of emissions. Moreover, some scrap tyres are burnt in some cement kilns, both for energy and as a way of disposal, but it was not possible to estimate what quantity of the tyres were used and neither were there emission factors for the tyres.

3.2.2.2. Non-Specified Industries (1.A.2.m)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from fuel use in nonspecified industries. Any manufacturing industry/construction for which separate data was not available.

The fuel statistics in Kenya are not sufficiently disaggregated to enable an accurate attribution of the different fuels to the various IPCC emission source categories.

Residual fuel oil is known to be used in a myriad of industries in Kenya besides electricity generation, therefore all residual fuel oil not attributed to electricity generation was counted under this sub category. Diesel oil, small amounts of the other petroleum fuels as well biomass fuels are consumed at varying degrees in the industries, but there is not adequate data with which to estimate the resultant emissions. This therefore left residual fuel oil consumption estimates as the only activity data with which to make emission estimates.

It was observed that the emissions have increased substantially from 1990 to 2022, trending with the cement production, which is driven by an improved macroeconomic environment. Cement production in Kenya has increased from 1,511,500 tonnes in 1990 to 9,754,000 tonnes in 2022.

It was observed that the emissions in the non-specified industries (1.A.2.m) sub-category trended with the performance of the national economy. A decline in emissions due to decreased energy demand was observed from 1996 to 2000; this is attributed to the general slowdown in the economy leading to depressed effective demand for manufactured products. (KNBS Economic survey, 2000). Thereafter, there was a recovery in the economy and a general upward trend in the industrial sector performance, albeit with dips in years that had significant political activity

(2005, 2007, 2013) and in 2020, when the COVID-19 pandemic disrupted production.

Figure 3-12: GDP growth versus 1.A.2.m emissions

3.2.3. Transport (1.A.3)

Emissions from the combustion and evaporation of fuel for all transport activities

In this category, Kenya reported emissions from civil aviation (1.A.3.a), road transport (1.A.3.b), railways (1.A.3.c) as well as waterborne navigation (1.A.3.d).

Using tier 1 methodology, the quantity of fuel consumed in the various transport vessels was the activity data and the emission factors applied were the appropriate default emission factors as per the category. The fuel used in this sub-category was motor gasoline, diesel, jet kerosene, and aviation gasoline, as tabulated below.

Overall emissions from the transport sector indicate a gradual increase from 1990 which stabilised from 2022. This is attributed to growth in the overall vehicle population and population growth.

3.2.3.1. Civil Aviation (1.A.3.a)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from civil aviation and emissions from international and domestic civil aviation, including takeoffs and landings. Comprises civil, commercial use of aeroplanes, including scheduled and charter traffic for passengers and freight, air taxiing, and general aviation. The international/domestic split should be determined on the basis

of departure and landing locations for each flight stage and not by the nationality of the airline.

In civil aviation, the type of fuel used was jet kerosene and aviation gasoline. The fuel accounted for was fuel uplifted in the country by both domestic carriers as well as foreign vessels. The distinction between international and domestic civil aviation activities depended on the journey type between two airports.

Table 3-5:

Kenya has more than fifty-five (55) airports, of which four are classified as international airports². Ten (10) airports have refueling infrastructure utilising either tanker or hydrant refueling systems.

Figure 3-13: Emissions from Civil aviation (1.A.3)

The disruption to aviation, particularly passenger travel occasioned by the covid-19 pandemic in 2020 caused a sharp drop in activities and hence the sharp dip in emissions. This recovered in 2021

a. International Aviation (International Bunkers) (1.A.3.a.i)

This sub-category accounted for emissions from International civil aviation.

According to the Feasibility study on the use of sustainable aviation fuels in Kenya by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) in 2018, 88% of the total aviation fuel requirement in Kenya was used for international aviation, 5% went to regional flights, leaving the 7% for domestic aviation. This split was applied to the jet fuel consumed in the country whereas all the aviation gasoline was attributed to domestic flights.

and into 2022 as countries and airlines eased travel restrictions allowing the full resumption of air travel.

Emissions from international civil aviation, which includes regional flights, do not add to the national totals, but are reported as memo items as international bunker fuels. The trend is as shown below.

² Jomo Kenyatta International Airport (Nairobi), Moi International Airport (Mombasa), Kisumu International Airport (Kisumu) and Eldoret International Airport (Eldoret)

b. Domestic Civil Aviation (1.A.3.a.ii)

This sub-category accounted for emissions from domestic civil aviation.

Domestic civil aviation utilized jet kerosene and aviation gasoline. Domestic civil aviation consumed jet kerosene accounting for 7% of the fuel consumed in the country. In addition, all the aviation gasoline imported was utilised in domestic civil aviation.

Fuel use in domestic civil aviation (1.A.3.a.ii)

Figure 3-14: Fuel use in Domestic Civil Aviation (1.A.3.a.ii)

Fuel consumption in domestic civil aviation was driven by the consumption of jet kerosene. This is the fuel used in the larger aeroplanes, propelled by gas turbines. The smaller aeroplanes; private, training, agricultural and other small commercial planes

3.2.3.2. Road Transport (1.A.3.b)

Road transport is the most important form of mechanized transport in the country. Across the time series, Road transportation has been the most significant sub-category consuming the biggest share of petroleum fuels in the country, further the emissions from the category have been on an accelerating upward trend. are mostly fueled with aviation gasoline. It is known that a tiny amount of aviation gasoline is used by high-performance racing cars, but there was no data to enable a separate estimation of this fraction of the fuel.

Trend of emissions from road transport (1.A.3.b)

Figure 3-15: Emissions from road transport

Kenya does not manufacture any vehicles but depends on imports of vehicles (new and second-hand/used) sourced largely from Asia and Europe. Other vehicles are imported as completely knocked down (CKD) kits and assembled in the country. Whatever the source or form the vehicles come into the country, they are required to be registered before they are allowed to operate (including off-road vehicles).

1. Cars (1.A.3.b.i)

This sub-category reports emissions from cars. These are emissions from automobiles so designated in the vehicle registering country primarily for transport of persons and normally having a capacity of 12 persons or fewer.

Statistics from the road transport sector regulator, the National Transport and Safety Authority (NTSA) and national statistics agency Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) give a fairly accurate account of the new registrations. However, there is no data on the actual number of vehicles (and their categories) active on the road at any one time or duration. This therefore only allowed the deployment of fuel-based methodology in estimating the emissions from the sub-category; the lack of country emission factors forced the use of tier 1 methodology.

It has been assumed that all the motor gasoline sold in the country is consumed in this sub-category in the years 1990 - 2022 and thereafter between 99.5% and 95% with the rest being taken up by motorcycles.

Emissions from Cars (1.A.3.b.i)

Figure 3-16: Emissions from cars

There has been a rise in car ownership as the society grew more prosperous, and growth in urbanization.

2. Heavy duty trucks and buses (1.A.3.b.iii)

This sub-category reports emissions from heavy duty trucks and buses. These are emissions from any vehicles so designated in the vehicle registering country. Normally the gross vehicle weight

ranges from 3,500 - 3,900 kg or more for heavy duty trucks and the buses are rated to carry more than 12 persons.

It has been assumed that all the diesel sold in retail pump outlets was used in this sub-category.

Figure 3-17: Emission from heavy duty trucks and buses.

3. Motorcycles (1.A.3.b.iv)

This sub-category reports emissions from motorcycles. These are any motor vehicles designed to travel with not more than three wheels in contact with the ground and weighing less than 680 kg.

Prior to 2007, there was only a small number of motorcycles in Kenya's traffic mix, mostly used by some government agencies and hobbyists. Thereafter, spurred on by tax incentives from the government, there was an exponential rise in the number of motorcycles imported into the country which found great use in the *'boda-boda'* (2-wheeler) and *'tuk-tuk*' (3-wheeler) taxi business as well as for private, other commercial and corporate uses. Motorcycles have become a ubiquitous means of transport and an important entrepreneurship/employment opportunity for many.

Emissions from this sub-category are only estimated from 2008 onwards, when there was a rapid growth in motorcycle numbers. The trend in growth of emissions from the sub-category shows a sustained growth in line with the motorcycle numbers.

Trend of emissions from Motorcycles (1.A.3.b.iv)

Figure 3-18: Emission estimates from motorcycles

There is a growth in adoption of electric powered motorcycles, but this has only been since 2023 with several companies offering battery swapping models. However, the activity is out of the

3.2.3.3. Railways (1.A.3.c)

This sub-category comprises emissions from railway transport for both freight and passenger traffic routes.

Since the early 1900s, Kenya has maintained a railway system. In 1902, the British colonial government commissioned the construction of the East African Railway, famously known as the "lunatic express," in order to connect the Indian Ocean to the East African hinterland, extending up to present-day Uganda.

Diesel locomotives have been the primary choice for railway operation since the retirement of steam engines. The majority of the locomotives are dedicated to long-distance hauling, with only a few serving the Nairobi Commuter Railway system. The newly built (2017) standard gauge railway uses diesel locomotives as well.

In 2017, a new standard gauge railway between Mombasa and Nairobi was commissioned; it was later extended to Suswa in the

temporal scope and the numbers are still too low to impact the national fuel statistics.

Rift Valley in Naivasha sub-county of Nakuru County where another inland container depot is planned. This new line enabled more cargo and passengers to be ferried from the port in Mombasa to the Inland Container Depots (ICDs) in Nairobi and Naivasha. This standard gauge railway line is operated alongside the old metre gauge railway line.

Fuel consumption closely aligns with the volume of cargo transported on the railway line. There is a marked increase in fuel consumption in 2015 and 2016 during the construction of the standard gauge railway line probably due to construction activities of the new standard gauge railway between the cities of Mombasa and Nairobi. Notably, a significant shift in this trend occurred after 2017 when the standard gauge railway line became operational. This change may be attributed to the increased utilization of passenger train services and heightened activity in the Nairobi commuter rail network

Figure 3-19: CO2 emissions from Railway Transport

3.2.3.4. Water-borne Navigation (1.A.3.d)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from Water-borne navigation activities. It includes emissions from fuels used to propel water-borne vessels, including hovercraft and hydrofoils, but excluding fishing vessels. The international/domestic split should be determined on the basis of port of departure and port of arrival, and not by the flag or nationality of the ship.

The emissions for fuels in this specific category were not estimated because there was no reliable data with which to make an accurate assignment. However, all the fuel used in the country that could be used in waterborne navigation was accounted for elsewhere in the inventory.

a. International Water-borne Navigation (International Bunkers)

The emissions for fuels in this specific category were not estimated because there was no reliable data with which to make an accurate estimate.

Kenya has one major international port in the city of Mombasa. There are a few other seaports and ports in Lake Victoria which are shared by the East African countries of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania.

b. Domestic Water-borne Navigation

Kenya has limited activity in the domestic water-borne navigation that is reportable under this sub-category. This category was therefore not estimated.

3.2.4. Other Sectors (1.A.4)

In this category, Kenya reports emissions from the Commercial/ Institutional (1.A.4.a), Residential (1.A.4.b) and Agriculture/ Forestry/Fishing/Fish farming (1.A.4.c) sub-categories.

Tier 1 methodology was applied in the estimation emissions from the source categories. The activity data were the amounts of fuels consumed (LPG, other kerosene, charcoal, and wood/ wood waste) consumed with the relevant default emission factors

However, all the residual fuel oil and diesel oil that may have been used in this sub-category was accounted for elsewhere and this may have led to an overestimation of the country's emissions as these emissions would have been subtracted from the country totals as they are international bunker fuels.

Kenya Ferry Service has operated ferries across the 0.5 km Likoni channel. It previously operated ferries across the Kilifi creek up to 1992. Additionally, a ferry service operates in Lake Victoria, serving the Homa Bay and Siaya Counties, while some passenger boats are utilized in the coastal islands such as Lamu and Wasini.

applied to estimate the emissions. Some diesel was also used in off-road vehicles and other machinery in agriculture.

This category witnesses the stacking of technology and fuel options deployed motivated by economic, cultural, convenience or other considerations. It is not uncommon to find three or more fuel and technology cooking options deployed in one household. This makes it very difficult to implement higher tier methodologies.

Figure 3-20: Energy supply to other sectors (1.A.4)

The sales of illuminating kerosene (other kerosene) rose sharply in the late 90s before dropping off up to the mid-nineties, then rising steadily up to 2017 when it dropped off sharply to the end of the time series (2022). Kerosene was used for heating in the commercial/institutional sub-category and for cooking and lighting in the residential space. Some kerosene is used as feedstock in industry, but this wasn't excluded as it was not possible to estimate the quantities used. The introduction of antiadulteration levy in 2017 as well as enhanced quality enforcement by the authorities made it less viable to use kerosene for the adulteration of other petroleum fuels.

The expansion of electricity access, via the national grid, minigrids or through standalone solar home systems as well as solar lanterns, is thought to have reduced the demand for kerosene as a fuel in residential lighting. Kerosene has been displaced by LPG and more recently bioethanol in the cooking segment.

The consumption of LPG in Kenya was observed to rise steadily throughout the time series as more and more people and commercial enterprises and institutions like hotels, hospitals and schools adopted this modern, clean and convenient fuel. Increased urbanisation and the strengthening of the gas supply chain and raised LPG's profile as a fuel option. LPG is now

considered an important clean cooking fuel and an indispensable cog of the energy transition.

Prior to 2018, Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) did not publish biomass fuel data in its annual energy statistics, so to fill the time series, international datasets were used. These included data from African Energy Commission (AFREC) and the United Nations Statistics Division, UNData. It is observed that there is a shift in the trend of woody fuels in the years 2003 and 2016, this is was attributed to correction of their models following KNBS household surveys that were conducted in 2002 and 2015.

Of all subcategories in the sector, this sun-category other sectors (1.A.4) has the highest contribution of methane due to the following reasons;

- i. There is a significant use of biomass fuels which have a significantly higher emission factor of methane per unit of energy than the fossil fuels
- ii. Further, the CO₂ from combustion of the biomass fuels is not counted in the emission totals.

For instance, in 2022, the following were the amounts of GHG emitted in other sectors (1.A>.)

Table 3-6: GHG emitted in 2022

Figure 3-21: Share of GHG emissions in Other Sectors (1.A.4)

3.2.4.1. Commercial/Institutional (1.A.4.a)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from fuel combustion in commercial and institutional buildings.

Four (4) fuels were considered here being; liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), other kerosene, wood/wood wastes and charcoal.

10% of all LPG and 10% of other kerosene that were consumed in the country were assumed to have been consumed under this category.

Energy supply in commercial/institutional sub-category (1.A.4.

Figure 3-22: Energy supply in commercial/institutional sub-category

3.2.4.2. Residential (1.A.4.b)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from fuel combustion in households.

Similarly, four (4) fuels were considered here: liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), other kerosene, wood/wood wastes, and charcoal. 90% of all LPG as well as 90% of the other kerosene consumed in the country were assumed to have been consumed in this sub-category.

Energy supply in residential subcategory (1.A.4.b)

Figure 3-23: Energy supply in residential sub-category

3.2.4.3. Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing/Fish farming (1.A.4.c)

This sub-category accounts for emissions from fuels combusted in pumps, grain drying, horticultural greenhouses and other agriculture, forestry or stationary combustion in the fishing industry.

Emissions from fuel combustion in agriculture, forestry, fishing and fishing industries such as fish farms. Under this subcategory emissions were estimated under the mobile division (1.A.4.c.i) where the fuel used was diesel.

3.3. Fugitive emissions from fuels (1.B)

Not Estimated (NE).

There have been exploration activities in the oil and gas sector as well as coal in various parts of Kenya.

Under the Early Oil Pilot Scheme (EOPS) by the government of Kenya and Tullow Oil Company developed five (5) existing wells in the Amosing and Ngamia fields located in Blocks 13T and 10BB in Turkana County in the North of the country which saw the extraction and transportation of 2,000 barrels of oil per day (bopd) by road from Turkana to the port city of Mombasa. The EOPS culminated in the maiden lifting of 240,000 barrels of Kenyan crude in 2019.

Kenya operated a refinery for about 50 years before it was shut down in 2013, emissions from fuel combustion in the refinery were estimated under petroleum refining 1.A.1.b. There are no emission factors for fugitive emissions from petroleum refining for developing countries, and no country emission factors, so the estimation could not be undertaken.

Coal exploration led to the discovery of 400 million tonnes of coal in Mui basin of Kitui County in the Eastern region of Kenya but so far, no mining activities have taken place. Exploration for coal in other parts of the country is yet to encounter any coal reserves.

3.4. Carbon dioxide transport and storage (1.C)

Not Occurring (NO). Not **Not Occurring (NO).** There are no activities that would lead to reportable emissions under this category anywhere in Kenya.

3.5. Key Category Analysis

Key category analysis was conducted for this sector, Energy, for the first year (1990) and the latest year (2022) and the following were observed;

Figure 3-25: Key Category Analysis, Level Assessment, 2022

The key categories mostly remained the same with only Other sectors - Biomass - solid fuels (Nitrous Oxide) falling off the key categories.

Road Transportation - Liquid Fuels (Carbon dioxide) has grown in importance from a third (33.6%) of the sectoral emissions to more than half (54.9%) of the emissions.

3.6. Time series consistency

Most of the areas had activity data throughout the time series (1990 - 2022). Some trends could however not be completely

3.7. Uncertainty Analysis

Activity data used to estimate emissions in the Energy Sector were largely derived from national energy statistics reported in the annual economic survey reports. This data is not disaggregated hence expert judgement was applied which is a source of uncertainties.

The following criteria was applied in attributing the different fuels to the different source categories;

- i. The estimation used default emission factors which could be different from those specific to the country's fuels, technologies in use and the combustion efficiencies.
- ii. Besides the fuel oil consumed in the refinery as refinery usage, all residual fuel oil consumed in the country is assumed to be used for electricity generation and in industry. The fuel oil used in electricity generation was calculated based on the power generated from the plants using their specific fuel consumption data, and the rest of the fuel oil attributed to non-specified industry (1.A.2.m)
- iii. All coal imported into the country was assumed to be used in non-metallic minerals, in the manufacture of cement and lime.
- iv. Under civil aviation, 93% of jet kerosene is consumed by international flights while 7% of is consumed by local flights. This split was applied throughout the time series, 1990 - 2022.
- v. Motor Gasoline used in road transport is split between cars and motorcycles. It was assumed to be used at 100% by cars between 1990 and 2007 where fuel consumption by motorcycles was considered to be negligible due

3.8. Areas for Improvement

Several areas of improvement have been identified for the energy sector to aid in the preparation of quality inventory;

- i. Train experts on estimation/quantification of uncertainty;
- ii. Development of country specific emission factors for the various emission source categories;
- iii. Development of frameworks for data collection, sharing and archiving among institutions that handle data and statistics. This will include developing annual national energy balances to improve the accuracy of the inventory
- iv. Estimation of fugitive emissions from fuel handling, petroleum exploration activities and pipeline transport;
- v. Put in place arrangements for data collection, sharing and archiving in the Waterborne navigation (maritime) sector

explained pointing to data quality issues. Recalculations will be undertaken once better, more accurate datasets are available.

> to their small numbers. From 2008 to 2022 the motor gasoline was apportioned between cars and motorcycles at a gradually increasing share from 0.5 - 5% of the total country's sales.

- vi. In other sectors wood and charcoal were consumed in the commercial and residential sectors at 10% and 90% respectively.
- vii. Having used the fuel-based tier 1 methodology throughout the sector some of those assumptions are not expected to lead to emission quantification inaccuracies, but rather misallocation of the emissions to the relevant source category.
- viii. The following might, however, lead to under- or overestimation of emissions;
- ix. Misallocation of bunker fuels, in case the split does not apply to all the years across the time series;
- x. The use of default carbon contents of the various fuels and default emission factors might have led to inaccurate emission estimates;
- xi. Not estimating the fuel fraction applied to non-energy uses could have led to an overestimation of emissions;
- xii. Incompleteness of the inventory categories;
	- a. Fuel used for charcoal making,

- b. Fugitive emissions from oil and gas exploration,
- c. Biogas use in electricity generation, residential and commercial sub-categories
- vi. Disaggregation of the activity data to the various vehicle categories and technologies
- vii. Data collection arrangement for biomass

Industrial Processes and Product Use

4.1. Sector Overview

The Industrial Processes and Product Use (IPPU) sector covers greenhouse gas emissions resulting from industrial processes, fossil fuels.

the use of gases in products, and from non-energy uses of

In this inventory, the IPPU sub-categories for which emissions were estimated include;

- Mineral Industry (2.A)
	- \bullet Cement production (2.A.1),
	- Lime production (2.A.2) and
	- Glass production (2.A.3).
- Chemical Industry (2.B).
	- Soda Ash Production (2.B.7)

4.2. Description of the Sector

Under this sector, cement accounts for the bulk of emissions, typically more than 90% of the sectoral emissions throughout the timeseries.

Under the Mineral industry (2.A), cement manufacturing is one of the most important industries in Kenya contributing 7% of the GDP in 2021 (KNBS 2022). The production of cement is driven by demand from the construction activities in the building and infrastructure sectors of the economy. Kenya currently has seven (7) cement manufacturers, with four (4) producing clinker, mainly used for in-house cement production.

Lime production occurs in Kenya mainly for local consumption.

There are two main glass producers (mainly packaging products) in Kenya presently estimated to have a total production capacity of **90,000 tons/year** glass packaging industry.

Under the chemical industry (2.B), emissions have been estimated from Soda ash production which is mainly for export with only a small fraction consumed in the country. Soda ash is produced from trona, which is mined in Lake Magadi, one of the lakes in the South of the country and the only one of its kind in Africa.

4.3. GHG Trends in the IPPU sector

In 2022, Kenya's emissions from the IPPU sector were equivalent to **3,677.2** Gg-CO₂eq having increased from **764 G**g-CO₂eq (381 percent) since 1990 (Table 4-1 and figure 4-1).

Figure 4-1: Trend in IPPU emission 1990-2022

The sectoral greenhouse gas emissions were a result of emissions from the production of cement, soda ash, lime and glass (in descending order). The largest source of emissions in the IPPU sector emissions in Kenya was from cement production, accounting for nearly 97% share of all IPPU emissions in 2022. The other sub-categories, lime production soda ash production

and, contributed 1% each, while glass production accounted for $0.16%$

4.4. General Methodological Aspects of the Sector

Tier 1 approach of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines was used to estimate emissions from the different sub-categories of the IPPU sector. This is due to a lack of country specific emission factors meaning the inventory was estimated using the IPCC default emission factors as are published in the or as embedded in the IPCC inventory software. Activity data for the sector were derived from national statistics and data supplied from specific industries; there was also the use of international datasets particularly for lime production statistics.

Greenhouse gas is produced from a wide variety of industrial activities. The main emission sources are releases from industrial

processes that chemically or physically transform materials. During these processes, many different greenhouse gases, including carbon dioxide (CO_2) , methane (CH_4) , nitrous oxide (N_2O) , hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs) and sulphur hexafluoride (SF $_{6}$) can be produced. Emissions from fuel use in the industries is reported under energy in accordance with the guidelines

The following are the greenhouse gases whose emissions are estimated from the sub-categories reported in this inventory under IPPU.

Table 4-2: greenhouse gases estimated under IPPU

Table 4-3 below summarises the emission factors and coefficients for the IPPU sector used in this inventory.

Table 4-3: Emission factors and coefficients for select minerals

4.5. Mineral Industry (2.A)

This section outlines methodologies for estimating processrelated carbon dioxide (CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$) emissions resulting from the use of carbonate raw materials in the production and use of a variety of mineral industry products.

iii. Glass production (2.A.3)

In this inventory, Kenya reports the following sub-categories under the mineral industry;

- i. Cement production (2.A.1)
- ii. Lime production (2.A.2)

4.5.1. Cement Production (2.A.1)

4.5.1.1. Description and Trends of GHGs

In cement manufacture, CO $_{\rm 2}$ is produced during the production of clinker. During the production of clinker, limestone, which is mainly calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), is heated, or calcined, to produce lime (CaO) and CO₂ as a by-product. The CaO then reacts with silica (SiO₂), alumina (Al₂O₃), and iron oxide (Fe₂O₃) in the raw materials to make the clinker minerals (chiefly calcium silicates).

GHG emissions from cement production increased from **721.5** Gg-CO2 eq in 1990 to **3,535.05 Gg-CO2eq** in 2022, as shown in figure 4-3. Cement production in Kenya increased significantly due to growth in the real estate sector and big infrastructure projects undertaken by the government. The cement production increase was also as a result of rising domestic and regional consumption.

Between 1990 - 2010, Kenya produced two types of cement, ordinary portland cement (OPC) and pozzolana-modified cement (PMC). Up to the year 2005 OPC made up 75% of the cement production with the rest being PMC; this sharing was evenly split (50:50) between 2006 - 2010. From 2011, a third type of cement came into the market, Portland Pozzolana Cement (PPC) altering the share to settle at OPC (3%), PMC (7%) and PPC (90%)

Cement production has been gradually increasing over the time series as the economy grew from 1.5 million tonnes in 1990 to 9.7 million tonnes in 2022. The growth is driven by increased activity in the real estate and infrastructure sector, which are the main drivers of demand.

TREND OF CEMENT PRODUCTION, 1990 - 2022 (TONNES)

Figure 4-3: Trend of cement production, 1990 – 2022

4.5.1.2. Methodological Aspects of the Cement Production

Tier 1 approach was used to estimate emissions from this sub-category, applying equation 2.1 of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for estimating emissions from cement production.

EQUATION 2.1 TIER 1: EMISSIONS BASED ON CEMENT PRODUCTION

$$
CO_2
$$
 Emissions = { $\left[\sum_i (M_{ci} \bullet C_{di})\right]$ - Im + Ex} \bullet EF_{clc}

Where:

CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ Emissions of CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ from cement production, tonnes

 M_{ci} - Weight (mass) of cement produced, of type i, tonnes,

 C_{chi} - Clinker fraction of cement of type i, fraction,

 \vert_{m} -Imports for consumption of clinker, tonnes,

Ex - Exports of clinker, tonnes,

EF_{clc} - Emission factor for clinker in the particular cement, tonnes CO₂/tonne clinker, (The default clinker emission factor (EF_{clc}) is corrected for CKD).

Kenya supplemented her clinker production capacity to meet her needs with imports from 2011 to 2022. These clinker imports were considered in the estimation of the emissions from the

industry. Table 4-4 shows the activity data used in deriving cement production emission estimates.

Table 4-4: Cement production 1990 - 2022.

The emissions from the sub-category were estimated using Tier 1 methodology and yielded the results as depicted in the graph below (figure 4-4).

Trend of Emissions from Cement Production 1990 - 2022

Figure 4-4: Trend of GHG emission from cement production

Graph of Cement Production Emissions vs. GDP Growth

Figure 4-5: Comparison of emission from Cement production and GDP growth

Considering a 3-year moving average of GDP growth, it is apparent that cement production. and consequently emissions, trend with the economic performance of the country. Since the year 2000, Kenya has witnessed an accelerated growth in real estate and infrastructure development.

Cement manufacturing plants have increased their capacities and even new ones opened in response to this demand. Plants have also upped their clinker production capacities to boost their

production. As at the end of 2022, there were seven (7) cement manufacturing companies with a total production capacity of 10 million tonnes, up from four 4 million tonnes in 1990.

From 2000 - 2010 there was a steady increase in the production of cement. This trend was disrupted in 2011 probably due to the availability of clinker import data that was factored in the estimation of emissions. It is possible then that there could have been an overestimate of emissions from this subcategory for the earlier years where there isn't any clinker import data.

4.5.2. Lime Production (2.A.2)

4.5.2.1. Description and Trends of GHG

This sub-category accounts for process emissions from the production of lime.

Lime is an important industrial mineral product produced from limestone that has many industrial, chemical, and environmental applications. It is a widely used chemical alkali in the world. The major uses in Kenya are in construction and agricultural applications, as well as for water purification.

The CO₂ is given off as a gas and is normally emitted to the atmosphere.

Figure 4-6 shows the emissions trend from Lime production. GHG emissions from Lime production increased from 10.4 Gg-CO₂eq Lime refers to a variety of chemical compounds that include calcium oxide or high–calcium quicklime (CaO),; calcium hydroxide $(Ca(OH)_2)$, or hydrated lime; dolomitic quicklime ([CaO.MgO]); and dolomitic hydrate ([Ca(OH)₂.MgO] or [Ca(OH)₂.Mg(OH)₂]).

Lime production involves three main processes: limestone preparation, calcination, and hydration. Carbon dioxide is released during the calcination process, when limestone (mostly calcium carbonate - CaCO₃) is baked (calcined) in a kiln at high temperatures to produce CaO and CO₂.

in 1990 to **42.8 Gg-CO2eq** in 2015 and dropped to **21.84 Gg-CO2eq** in 2022. The emissions increased significantly in 2000 with the introduction of a new lime production plant bringing up emissions to over **40 Gg-CO₂eq.**

Figure 4-6: Trend In lime Production emissions 1990-2022

Between 1995 and 1999 the country had only one major lime production plant (and many smaller, essentially artisanal, facilities). Lime production increased in 2000 with the introduction of a new lime production plant at Athi River Mining Company. The production bumped up from 15,000 tonnes in the year 2000 to 50,000 tonnes in 2001, following an increase in production capacity.

The data then depicts a steady increase in production from 2008 to 2016 succeeded by a steady drop until 2019, which is attributed to the diminishing performance and eventual closure of the Athi River Mining (ARM) company limited. There were two main lime manufacturers in Kenya, Homa Lime and Athi River Mining (ARM) with the latter having two plants near Nairobi. The drop in emissions in 2018-2022 could be attributed to the closure of the Athi River Mining (ARM) Limited.

4.5.2.2. Methodological Aspects of Lime Production

The lime activity data was derived from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Minerals Yearbook, volume III, Kenya Reports for the years 1990 - 2019 and Kenya and Uganda Reports for the years 2000 - 2003. Where there was a variance between the two publications, the higher was selected as a conservative approach and will be corrected with the accurate values in subsequent inventories.

Due to lack of data beyond 2019, the 2019 values were assumed for the years 2020 - 2022 as placeholder values; these will be replaced with actual production data in subsequent inventories.

The IPCC's Tier 1 approach was used to calculate emissions from lime production using equation 2.6. The Tier 1 method is based on applying a default emission factor to national-level lime production data.

EQUATION 2.6 TIER 2: EMISSIONS BASED ON NATIONAL LIME PRODUCTION DATA BY TYPE

 CO_2 Emissions = $\sum_i (EF_{\lim e,i} \bullet M_{l,i} \bullet CF_{lkd,i} \bullet C_{h,i})$

Where:

specific data, it is good practice to assume 85 percent production of high calcium lime and 15 percent production of dolomitic lime (Miller, 1999). Based on this, Equation 2.8 illustrates how to calculate the Tier 1 emission factor for lime production. The IPCC 2006 default emissions factor of 0.75 tonnes of $CO₂₀₀$ per tonne of lime was used to calculate emissions. Activity data on

Bureau of Statistics reports, Kenya Association of Manufacturers, with data built up from Kenya's second national communication (NC2) and published reports from the U.S Geological Survey (USGS).³ However, some uncertainty could have been caused by inadequate and inconsistent data from the Lime industry.

EQUATION 2.8 TIER 1 DEFAULT EMISSION FACTOR FOR LIME PRODUCTION $EF_{Line} = 0.85 \bullet EF_{high\, calcium\, lime} + 0.15 \bullet EF_{dolomitic\, lime}$ $= 0.85 \cdot 0.75 + 0.15 \cdot 0.77^a$ $= 0.6375 + 0.1155$ $= 0.75$ tonnes CO₂ / tonne lime produced

Where the factor of 0.77 for the dolomitic lime is applied as Kenya is a developing country.

United States Geological Survey (US Department of the Interior), "The Mineral Industry of Kenya", yearly publications from 1996 to 2017, secondary data drawn from KNBS (Statistical Abstracts, etc.), mining industry sources, banking sources, industry interviews, industrial trade information, etc..

Table 4-5: Lime production tonnes (time series)

Source: US Geological Survey Minerals Yearbook 2023 and from Kenya Country profile accessed on July, 2024 at http://minerals.usgs.gov/minerals

4.5.3. Glass Production (2.A.3)

4.5.3.1. Description and Trend of GHG

This sub-category accounts for emissions from the production of glass including emissions from the production of containers, flat (window) glass, fibre glass, and specialty glass as well as glass wool.

Glass is made from a combination of silica sand, soda ash, limestone, and dolomite. Furnace used for glass production is heated at very high temperatures to melt the ingredients forming molten concoction that is shared into various glass products by blowing, pressing and rolling.

Due to constraints in the acquisition of data in the earlier years, Kenya estimated emissions from this category from the year 2009 onwards. GHG emissions from glass production were reported for the period between 2009 and 2015 based on the available data in the country. There were only two main glass manufacturers in Kenya as most of the glass was imported.

Emissions in glass production rose from around **3.3 Gg-CO2eq** in 2009 to doubling to **6.7** Gg-CO₂eq in 2022 as depicted in figure 4-7.

2.A.3 - Glass Production-Trend in Emissions (GgCO2eq) 1990-2022

Figure 4-7: Emissions trend Glass Production 2010-2022.

4.5.4. Methodological aspects of Glass Production

The tier 1 approach was used to determine estimates of the GHG emissions from glass production. The default IPCC emission factor of 0.21 tonne $CO_{2}/$ tonne glass was used to calculate emissions. Activity data for glass production was obtained from the two glass manufacturing companies in Kenya through the

Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM). Activity data was only available for the period 2009 - 2022. (Table 4.6)

Tier 1 methodology was applied, using equation 2.10, default emission factor and cullet ratio to national-level glass production statistics.

EQUATION 2.10 TIER 1: EMISSIONS BASED ON GLASS PRODUCTION CO_2 Emissions = M_g • EF • (1–CR)

Where:

CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ emissions of CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ from glass production, tonnes;

M_g - mass of glass produced, tonnes;

the data was sourced directly from the glass manufacturers in the country.

EF - default emission factor for manufacturing of glass, tonnes CO₂/tonne

glass;

CR - cullet ratio for process (either national average or default), fraction.

4.6. Chemical Industry (2.B)

4.6.1. Soda Ash Production (2.B.7)- Description and Trend of GHGs

This category accounts for greenhouse gas emissions that result from the production of various inorganic and organic chemicals. Under this category, Kenya reports emissions from Soda ash (2.B.7).

This sub-category accounts for emissions from the production of soda ash, also known as sodium carbonate (NaXCOX). It exists in various hydrates and forms, including anhydrous soda ash, monohydrate, heptahydrate, and decahydrate. It is used in glass manufacture where the soda ash is used to lower the melting point of silica and improve glass quality. It's also a common water softener and used in water treatment, in household

2Na₂CO₃.NaHCO₃.2H₂O (Trona) → 3Na₂CO₃ (Soda Ash) + 5H₂O + CO₂

 CO_2 is emitted from using soda ash and these emissions are accounted for as a source under the relevant using industry. CO $_{\text{2}}$ is also emitted during production with the quantity emitted dependent on the industrial process used to manufacture soda ash.

Approximately 97% of the soda ash produced in Kenya is exported to other countries and the remainder (3% of the total) is used for different uses in the country. However, emissions under the

detergents, and as a food additive. Other Applications include cleaning agents, pulp and paper production.

Kenya produces soda ash from natural sodium carbonate-bearing deposits found in Lake Magadi in the South of the country. During the production process, Trona (the principal ore from which natural soda ash is made) is calcined in a rotary kiln and chemically transformed into a crude soda ash. Carbon dioxide and water are generated as by-products of this process. Carbon dioxide emissions can be estimated based on the following chemical reaction:

soda ash use (sub-category 2.A.4.b) was not estimated due to inadequate data.

Figure 4-8 demonstrates the trend in emissions from Soda Ash. GHG emissions from soda ash production (2.B.7) increased from **32 Gg-CO2eq** in 1990 to highest value of **69.4 Gg-CO2eq** in 2008 then dropped gradually to **44.4 Gg-CO2eq** in 2022, (figure 4-8).

Figure 4-8: Trend in Emissions from Soda Ash Production 1990-2022

4.6.1.1. Methodological aspects of the Soda Ash sub-category (2.B.7)

The Tier 1 approach was used to determine estimates of the GHG emissions from soda ash production as provided in the 2006 IPCC guidelines, equation 3.14 below. The default emission factors used were derived from the stoichiometric ratio between soda ash produced and purified sodium sesquicarbonate obtained from trona.

Activity data from soda ash production was obtained from Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (1990 - 2022) and from Tata Chemicals, Magadi, through the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM), supplemented by data form USGS. *Table 4.7* shows soda ash production data that were used to estimate emissions in Kenya. Lake Magadi in Kenya is one of the largest naturally occurring soda ash reserves in the world and plays a significant role in the world's production of natural soda ash.

Graph of Soda Ash Production, 1990 - 2022

Figure 4-9: Trend in Soda ash production

Equation 3.14 from the 2006 IPCC guidelines which is used to estimate emissions from natural soda ash production was applied.

EQUATION 3.14: CO₂ EMISSIONS FROM NATURAL SODA ASH PRODUCTION - TIER 1 $E_{CO2} = AD \cdot EF$ EF $_{\text{Trona}}$ = 0.097 tonne CO₂ / tonne of Trona $\text{EF}_{\text{Soda Ash}}$ = 0.138 tonne CO2/tonne natural soda ash

Where:

 E_{co2} - emissions of CO₂, tonnes;

AD - quantity of soda ash produced;

EF - emission factor per unit of natural soda ash output, tonnes CO₂/tonne

natural soda ash produced:

 $EF_{\text{Soda Ash}}$ - 0.138 tonnes CO₂/tonnes natural soda ash produced.

The default emission factors used were derived from the stoichiometric ratio between soda ash produced and purified sodium sesquicarbonate obtained from trona.

Table 4-7: Soda Ash production data: Source Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. 1990 - 2022

4.6.1.2. Description of any Flexibility applied in Mineral industry

Quantitative estimates and qualitative discussion on the uncertainty of the emission and removal estimates for all sources in this category could not be done, due to insufficient time to engage with the actual data providers. Thus, flexibility in the light of our capacities with respect to this provision was applied to have the flexibility to instead provide, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this key category.

Though cement production is among the key categories in Kenya, (thus requiring a higher tier approach for estimation of its emissions), tier 1 approach was used to determine estimates of the GHG emissions from cement production, due to lack of country specific emission factors. Tier 2, approach would require clinker production data (rather than clinker production inferred from cement production) and a national emission factor, while tier 3 approach relies on plant specific data, the weights and compositions of all carbonate inputs from all raw material and fuel sources, the emission factor(s) for the carbonate(s), and the percentage of calcination achieved. All these data requirements for tier 2 or 3 approach are not currently available.

4.7. Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles and the QA/QC plan (in Annex??). Additional source-specific quality control checks were undertaken to assess international comparability.

Verification on the following was conducted:

- Emission source documentation,
- Homogeneity of the source data and methods used for the entire time series.

4.8. Description of any Flexibility applied in IPPU Sector

Paragraph 29 of the MPGs on flexibility has been applied on uncertainty. Quantitative estimates and qualitative discussion on the uncertainty of the emission and removal estimates for all sources in this category could not be done, due to insufficient time to engage with the actual data providers. Thus, flexibility in the light of our capacities with respect to this provision was applied to instead provide, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this key category.

4.9. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series in IPPU sector

Below is a set of information that could impact the certainty and consistency of the IPPU sector inventory

- Cement and soda ash had production data across the time series, however in cement, data on clinker imports is only available from 2011 onwards,
- The sharing of the various types of cement was based on expert opinions, this could have resulted in an inaccurate apportionment and hence errors,
- Some of the sub-categories do not have data across the time series; glass production only had data from one of

the two companies producing glass and only for the years from 2006;

- Lime data used in the estimation was derived from statistics published by the USGS. Their estimates are based on the production capacities of the plants. It is unlikely that the plants were operating at full capacity every year. A sample of data from one of the companies confirmed that that was a gross overestimation
- Soda ash production data has relatively low associated uncertainty because reliable and accurate data sources are available across the time series.

4.10. Category Specific recalculations for IPPU sector

No recalculations were performed for any of the sub-categories under this sector.

4.11. Planned Improvements for IPPU Sector

Below are some of the identified areas of improvement for the IPPU sector

- 1. Capacity building for inventory experts to build a team of competent inventory experts to enable the development of quality inventories.
- 2. Many of the data providers in the sector are privately owned and without any obligation to provide data for estimation of GHG emissions. Therefore, there is need

to institutionalise data collection arrangements to allow the private sector to be obligated to provide the data.

- 3. There is a need to collect data to enable the estimation of more sub-categories reportable under this sector.
- 4. Determination of country specific emission factors for the various sub-categories to facilitate reporting using higher tier methodologies.
Chapter 05:

Agriculture

5.1. Agriculture

5.1.1. Description of the Sector

This chapter provides information on the estimation of the greenhouse gas emissions from the agriculture sector. Based on the IPCC 2006 guidelines, the following categories are reported:

- Livestock
	- Enteric fermentation (3A1), CH4 emissions from domestic livestock
	- Manure management (3A2), emissions of CH4, and N2O
- Aggregate sources on non-CO2 emissions on land
	- Biomass burning in croplands (3.C.1.b), emissions of CH4, and N2O
	- Liming (3C2), emissions of CO2,
	- Urea application (3C3), emissions of CO2
	- Direct N_2O emission from managed soils (3C4)
	- \bullet Indirect N₂O emission from managed soils (3C5)
	- \bullet Indirect N₂O emission from manure management (3C6)
	- Rice cultivations (3.C.7), CH4 emissions

Emissions from fuel combustion in this sector are not included here as these fall under *agriculture/forestry/fisheries* (see section 3.3.6) in the energy sector.

The agriculture sector has been identified as one of the key sectors to contribute to the projected annual national economic growth as per the National Development Blueprint "The Kenya Vision 2030". The sector is envisaged to ensure food security, provision of raw materials for agro-industries, creation of employment opportunities, generation of income and foreign exchange earnings.

The sector, however, is among the most vulnerable to impacts of climate change and extreme weather events. Enhanced temperatures and change in precipitation regimes have lowered the appropriateness of the agro-based enterprises; reduced crops and livestock yields due to temperature and water stresses and increased production costs. The increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events such as droughts, floods and strong winds have resulted in the loss of investments, income/ revenue and livelihoods, as well as the damage of agricultural infrastructure. Because of these challenges, the government is cognisant of the needs and has created interventions to strengthen agricultural resilience to climate change and extreme weather events while reducing its contribution to greenhouse gas emissions (GHG).

Livestock contributes about 42 percent, 19.6 percent and 14 percent of Agricultural, AFOLU and national Gross Domestic Product (GDP), respectively. The sub-sector employs 50 percent of the agricultural labour force and is the main source of livelihood for most rural Kenyans living in the ASALs (Arid and Semi-Arid Lands) of Kenya. The largest proportion (about 80 percent) of livestock populations are kept in the ASALs.

The livestock category consists of various sub-categories (species) namely Cattle, Sheep, Goats, Camels, Donkeys (asses), Poultry and Pigs (swine). Cattle subcategory is further classified into dairy and other cattle (beef) populations. The livestock populations are dynamic from one year to another and are distributed across diverse ecological zones. For example, in 2022 there were 15.8 million indigenous (beef) cattle, 5.1 million dairy cattle, 30.6 million goats, 21.3 million sheep, 3.5 million camels, 0.8 million pigs, 61.7 million chickens and 1.7 million donkeys. The dynamism of livestock populations and production is mainly dependent on the weather patterns and availability of forage.

Under the crop sub-sector, a total of eleven (11) Crops value chains drawn from cereals, pulses, root and tubers, and industrial crops were selected namely Maize, Wheat, Rice, Millet, Sorghum, Beans, Potatoes, Coffee, Tea, Sugar cane, Cotton for modelling of the GHG inventory based on the on government policy of the crops included in the fertiliser subsidy program and total acreage under production provided by the National Agriculture Statistics Unit (ASU). The GHG activity data was accessed from the Agricultural Statistics Unit, KALRO coupled with extensive consultative technical expert judgement.

Where there were gaps outlier detection was conducted and data filling was done using statistical methods.

Data Flow in the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock

Figure 5-1: Illustration of Data flow in the agriculture sector

5.1.2. GHG Trends in the Agriculture Sector

Table 5-1 and figure 5-2, present summary and trend of GHG emission in the agriculture sector. Total greenhouse gas emissions from the agriculture sector in 2022 were **36,102.2** Gg CO₂eq which is a contribution 32% to the total of Kenya greenhouse gas emissions. This is a 131% rise from the 1990 level of 1990 of 15,639.7 Gg (CO₂eq). Main agricultural sources of greenhouse gases were 3A Enteric fermentation, emitting **87** % of all agricultural Greenhouse gases, followed by Agricultural

soils $(3.0.4 + 3.0.5)$ with **6** % and 3B Methane $(CH₄)$ emissions from Manure management at *4.2%,* 3B Nitrous Oxide (N2O) emissions from Manure Management at **1.4** %. It was noted that 3.C.6 - Indirect N2O Emissions from manure management and 3.C.7 - Rice cultivation (CH4) contributed about 0.6% each, while Liming, Urea application and burning of crop land contributed well below 0.1 % each. (Table 5-1)

Table 5-1: Summary of Greenhouse gas emissions of the agricultural sector categories in Gg CO2 equivalent.

Figure 5-2: $\;$ Trend in Greenhouse gas emissions of the agricultural sector in Gg CO₂ equivalent.

Since 1990, emissions in the agricultural sector have shown an increasing trend, reaching a peak of **40,211.6 Gg-CO₂eq** in 2020 (figure 5-3) due to the increasing number of livestock, demand for agricultural land by the ever-increasing national population, and applications of synthetic fertilizers for improved food production.

Figure 5-3 show that Methane (CH₄) dominated the agriculture sector emissions contributing about **92 percent**, Nitrous Oxide (N_2O) about **8 percent**, while Carbon dioxide (CO_2) is well below 0.1%.

Agriculture sector emissions share by gas type 2022_{02} 0% $N2O$ 8% \bullet CH4 \bullet N2O \bullet CO2

Figure 5-3: Share of agricultural sector GHG emissions in 2002

5.1.3. General Methodological Aspects of the Agriculture Sector

The estimation of Livestock emissions was completed using the Tier 1 methodology, except for dairy cattle, where Tier II methodology was applied using IPCC *2006* Revised IPCC Guidelines.

Category 3.C (Aggregate sources and non-CO $_{_2}$ emissions) deals with GHG emissions related to activities other than livestock and land. They include CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ and N $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ O from biomass burning, CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ from Urea application, direct and indirect $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ from managed soils and indirect N₂O from manure management as well as CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation. Sub-category 3.C.1 deals with non-CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ emissions from biomass burning in all land use types but only losses from biomass burning from Cropland (3.C.1.b), (in which only biomass burning from Sugarcane was considered),

is included since other land types lacked any consistent data. Tier 1 approach was used to estimate emissions under Category 3.C. Based on the availability of data for the sub-categories mentioned, the data input was: (a) areas of crop land affected by fire (b) annual crop area and yield from major staple crops (c) Liming application, (d) nitrogen fertilizers and urea consumption and mode of application, (e) rice cultivation. The main source of the data under this category was obtained from the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development.

More detailed information on specific categories is discussed in the following sections.

5.2. Enteric fermentation (3.A.1)

5.2.1. Description and Trend of GHGs in Enteric fermentation

Methane (CH₄) is the main greenhouse gas produced as a byproduct of digestion in ruminants, e.g. cattle, and some nonruminant animals such as pigs and camels. Ruminants are the largest source of CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ as they are able to break down cellulose into simple sugars through anaerobic fermentation of fibrous feedstuffs. The amount of CH, released depends on the type, age and weight of the animal, the quality and quantity of feed

and the energy expenditure of the animal. $CH₄$ emissions from enteric fermentation is the second largest key category in the country level assessment. Tier 1 modelling approach for enteric fermentation has been used for all years except for dairy cattle where Tier II approach has been applied.

Table 5-2 below shows the amount of methane emission from enteric fermentation for all livestock species from the year 1990 to 2022 (Tier 1 for the other livestock type, adjusted with dairy cows Tier 2 approach), while Figure 5-4 shows the trend in enteric fermentation over the period 1990-2022.

In 2022, emissions from enteric fermentation comprised **31,463.6** \mathbf{GgCO}_{2} eq of Methane (CH_{4}) .

Category	1990	2000	2010	2020		2022 % change 1990-2022 % share 2022	
3.A.1 - Enteric Fermentation	13597.4	11472.5	17038.2	35516.6	31463.6	131%	
3.A.1.a - Cattle	10006.5	7849.1	10808.4	20537.6	19229.1	92%	61%
3.A.1.a.i - Dairy Cows (tier2	3808.0	3725.2	3904.4	6179.8	5920.3	55%	19%
3.A.1.a.ii - Other Cattle	6198.5	4123.9	6904.0	14357.8	13308.8	115%	42%
3.A.1.c - Sheep	1375.2	1111.5	1517.0	3548.4	2986.7	117%	9%
$3.A.1.d - Goats$	1398.9	1458.1	2448.0	5043.0	4278.2	206%	14%
3.A.1.e - Camels	766.4	924.2	1977.7	6014.6	4452.0	481%	14%
3.A.1.g - Mules and Asses	45.0	116.5	277.0	345.7	484.4	976%	2%
$3.A.1.h - Swine$	5.4	13.0	10.1	27.3	33.3	519%	0.1%

Table 5-2: Methane emission from enteric fermentation 1990 to 2022

The trend of enteric methane fermentation was fairly stable from the year 1990 to 2006. However, from the year 2009 emissions have consistently increased over the years as indicated in the graph (Figure 5-3). The drastic increase is attributed to the actual livestock population as indicated in the 2009 census report. Previously, livestock population numbers have been reported as estimates.

source of total carbon dioxide equivalent emissions accounting for 87.2**%** and 28**%** shares in agriculture and total national emissions respectively.

This source category in 1990 resulted in a value of **13,597.4 Gg CO₂ eq.**, decreased to **11,472.5 Gg CO₂eq** by 2000 then steadily increased to **35,516.6 Gg CO₂eq** by 2020. CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, which are presented by main livestock species in Table 5-2, fluctuate over time.

Enteric fermentation constitutes the largest source of CH, emissions in the agricultural sector in Kenya. It is the highest

Figure 5-4: Trends in Livestock Methane Enteric fermentation emissions for livestock

In 2022, non-dairy cattle produced **13308.8. Gg** CO₂ eq., which increased by 6309.93 Gg CO₂ eq. (**115**%) from the 1990 level of $\rm 6198.5$ GCO₂ eq. An increase of 85.94% in dairy cattle population for the period of 1990-2022, led to a spike in CH_4 emissions

from **3808.02** Gg CO₂ eq. in 1990 to **5920.3Gg** CO₂ eq. in 2022, translating to **55**% increase.

 A closer look at the changes in the composition of the population of dairy cattle (improved breeds, and pure exotic dairy cattle) revealed a reasonable explanation for the same period. The dairy cattle population was 2.9 million in total for 1990, while the respective figures for the year 2022 were 5.5 million in total. Population numbers of livestock species for the period 1990- 2022 are shown in Table 5-3.

Figure 5-4 shows that there was a drastic increase in $CH₄$. emission from enteric fermentation for the years 2010 to 2020. The year 2020 recorded the highest emission. This can also be attributed to a high increase in ruminant livestock numbers

mainly cattle, sheep, goats and camels. However, there was a decline in emission in 2021 and 2022 due to decline in livestock numbers orchestrated by severe droughts and the government interventions in offtake, and improvement in pasture/fodder quality. Quality pastures/fodder require shortened time for enteric fermentation hence reduced emission from such processes.

Dairy and non-dairy cattle contribution accounted for **61**% of emissions to the enteric fermentation category while sheep (wool and hair) accounted for 9% share of emissions to this category. Goats, camels, donkeys and swine (pigs) contributed 14%, 14%, 2% and 0.01% respectively of the total enteric fermentation in 2022 as presented in Figure 5-5 for the latest reporting year 2022, therefore, donkeys and pigs' contribution was insignificant.

Figure 5-5: Share contribution of livestock type to enteric fermentation CH4 Emissions 2022

5.2.2. Methodological aspects of the Enteric Fermentation

a. Methodology

Methane is produced in herbivores as a by-product of enteric fermentation, a digestive process by which complex carbohydrates (Cellulose) are broken down by micro-organisms (methanogens) into simple molecules for absorption into the bloodstream.

The calculation of methane emissions from enteric fermentation was completed using the Tier 1 methodology for all livestock types except the dairy cattle, where a tier 2 country-specific EF were used (2006 Revised IPCC Guidelines). This method relies on default emission factors drawn from previous studies and the only country specific data required are the populations of different livestock.

Methane Emissions (kg/yr) = Σ Population of Livestock (head) x Emission Factor (kg CH₄ per head per year)

b. Activity Data

The Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development, the State Department for Livestock Development, and FAOSTAT were the primary sources of data that were collected on livestock populations. The livestock populations data were estimated

using data from two censuses (KNBS 2009 and 2019) and annual updates from national livestock statistics (MoALD).

The annual population numbers for livestock species are summarized in Table 5-3 below.

Table 5-3: Total Livestock population 1990 to 2022

Figure 5-6 shows the trend in population of all the livestock species namely dairy cattle, non-dairy cattle, sheep, goats, camels, swine (pigs), donkey and poultry. The general trend is

that there has been increase in population across all the livestock species. However, donkeys and swine have recorded very low growth compared to the other livestock species.

Livestock populations particularly other cattle, sheep and goats heavily rely on rainfall patterns. The increase in such populations is due to conducive weather conditions that promoted forage regrowth hence feeds availability to support fertility, growth and development. Declines in populations are due to drought and flood cycles that wipe substantial population sizes mainly in ASALs. After several weather cycles, the governments (National

Default emission factors were drawn from the 2006 Revised IPCC Guidelines Volume 4, Chapter 10, Table 10.1 and 10.11.

and Counties) and NGOs do enhance the resilience of affected communities by promoting livestock interventions such as pasture and fodder improvement and production. Hence causing a significant increase in livestock populations, consequently increasing CH₄ emissions for these subcategories. The largest increase occurred from non-dairy cattle emissions due to an increase in its population numbers.

c. Emission Factors and Coefficients in Enteric Fermentation CH⁴

Table 5-4: summarizes the enteric fermentation emission factors that were used.

Source: 2006 IPCC Guidelines, Chapter 10 Emissions from Livestock and Manure Management, Table 10.10 and 10.11 Volume 4

5.2.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

No flexibility was applied for tier 1 calculations.

5.2.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

The uncertainty of activity data for both tier 1 and 2 was set at ± 10 as actual data was used. This uncertainty arises due to the fact that this actual data on livestock census was conducted only for two years (2009 and 2019) over the report period. Further, annual national livestock populations are estimated based on small sample sizes that may not capture livestock population variability spread across various production environments in

the country. The uncertainty in livestock population numbers is greater than is commonly assumed. There may have been systematic biases in the reporting of animal populations during the national census.

The uncertainty for emission factors for tier 1 was set at -25 to +30 for all livestock categories (except dairy cattle), with a combined EF calculated at ± 31.6%. This was due to the use of default emission factors derived from an assumption that all animals in particular livestock class have the same body-mass (2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, Vol. 4 table 10.10). For the dairy cattle class, where tier 2 was applied, the EF uncertainty was set at a range of ±20 with a combined EF of ±22.4%. This uncertainty arose due to dynamics in dairy herd structures, inconsistency in performance records for parameters such as body weights and milk production.

5.2.5. QA/QC in Enteric Fermentation

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles and the QA/QC plan (in Annex 2). Additional

source specific quality control checks were undertaken to assess international comparability.

5.2.6. Enteric Fermentation Category Specific recalculations

Recalculations of dairy cattle emissions was performed following the change in methodology from T1 to T2 approach, for the period 1995 to 2022, thus affecting emissions from both enteric and manure management for the dairy cattle. The T2 Dairy cattle inventory was prepared by the State Department of Livestock of the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development with support from UNIQUE forestry and land use GmbH, the Global Research Alliance on Agricultural Greenhouse Gases and the New Zealand Government, and the CGIAR Research Programme on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS).

Both the activity data and emission factors used in this T2 inventory differ from those used in Kenya's Second National Communication (2012). The reason is that the official dairy cattle population time series has been revised through numerous

efforts of the State Department of Livestock, particularly in light of the data from the 2009 agricultural census. The table below compares the activity data, implied emission factors and total enteric fermentation emissions calculated using the Tier 2 approach with the previous time series that was calculated using the Tier 1 approach. With a lower implied emission factor than the IPCC Tier 1 default value for the entire time series, total dairy cattle enteric fermentation CH4 emissions are lower than those estimated using the Tier 1 approach for all years. The figure below provides a visual comparison of estimates using a Tier 1 approach and using a Tier 2 approach with the revised activity data.

Table 5-5: Comparison Dairy Cattle Enteric fermentation of T1 time series with Tier 2 inventory time series (1995-2022)

Year	Population	EF (kg CHA hd ⁻¹ $yr-1$	Gg CH ₄ (CO ₂ eq)	Population	IEF (kg CH ₄ $hd^{-1}yr^{-1}$	GgCH ₄ (CO_2eq)
1995	3,255,468	46	4193.1	3,255,468	39.51	3601.7
1996	3,355,181	46	4321.5	3,355,181	39.99	3756.9
1997	3,281,542	46	4226.6	3,281,542	39.82	3659.1
1998	3,442,423	46	4433.9	3,442,423	40.12	3867.0
1999	3,435,120	46	4424.5	3,435,120	40.18	3864.2
2000	3,335,902	46	4296.7	3,335,902	39.88	3725.2
2001	3,442,732	46	4434.3	3,442,732	40.56	3910.2
2002	3,551,137	46	4573.9	3,551,137	40.63	4039.7
2003	3,665,375	46	4721.0	3,665,375	40.97	4205.0
2004	3,605,486	46	4610.3	3,605,486	40.88	4127.0
2005	3,579,440	46	4610.3	3,579,440	40.93	4102.7
2006	3,638,996	46	4687.1	3,638,996	41.48	4226.6
2007	3,667,724	46	4724.1	3,667,724	41.19	4229.9
2008	3,403,321	46	4383.5	3,403,321	41.38	3943.7
2009	3,310,877	46	4264.4	3,310,877	41.72	3867.3
2010	3,386,594	46	4348.9	3,386,594	41.3	3904.4
2011	3,739,604	46	4816.6	3,739,604	41.35	4329.4
2012	4,158,353	46	5356.0	4,158,353	41.31	4809.5
2013	4,505,582	46	5803.2	4,505,582	41.37	5219.3

5.2.7. Planned Improvements for enteric fermentation

All data and methodologies should be periodically reviewed and an upgrade from T1 to T2 for the specific livestock category will be considered for the future. The T1 default emission factors for camels and dairy cattle should therefore be upgraded to T2 for camels in order to get the country emission factor for camels. There is a need to have regular census, surveys and capacity building to improve the methodologies of data collection. The respective AD used for calculations are also published as official statistics by KNBS, which has its own QA/QC procedures.

Emission trends are analysed. If there is a high fluctuation in the series, then AD and emission calculations are re-examined.

5.3. Manure Management

5.3.1. Description and Trend of GHGs of Manure Management

Based on the IPCC 2006 guidelines, the following categories are reported:

Table 5-6:

Livestock manure is composed principally of organic material. When the manure decomposes in the absence of oxygen. methanogenic bacteria produce methane $(CH_{4)}$. These conditions often occur when large numbers of animals are managed in a confined area (e.g., dairy farms, beef feedlots, and swine and poultry farms), where manure is typically stored in large piles or disposed of in lagoons. The emissions of CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ are related to the amount of manure produced and the amount that decomposes anaerobically.

This category also includes emissions of Nitrous Oxide (N_2O) related to manure handling before the manure is added to the soil. The amount of N_2O released depends on the system of waste management and the duration of storage. **Direct N₂O emissions** from manure management systems (MMS) can occur via combined nitrification and denitrification of ammoniacal nitrogen contained in the wastes. The amount released depends on the systems and duration of waste management. **Indirect N2O emissions** occur via runoff and leaching, and the atmospheric deposition of Nitrogen (N) volatilised from the MMS.

a. Trend in 3.A.2 Manure Management Livestock direct CH⁴

Figure 5-7 shows the trend in direct methane (CH₄) emissions from Manure Management, while table 5.6 shows the methane (CH $_{\scriptscriptstyle 4}$) emissions by livestock type. Manure management produced

a total of **1,500.6** Gg-CO₂.eq in 2022 which was an increase from **421.9** Gg-CO₂eq produced in 1990. This was as an increase in emission by **256**% from 1990 levels.

Table 5-7: Manure Management CH4 Emission (Gg-CO2 eq)

The highest amount of methane emission under manure management was 1,649 Gg CO₂eq in the year 2020, while the lowest was **380.9 Gg CO₂eq** in the year 1994. (Figure 5-5 shows trends of methane Emission from manure management from the year 1990 to 2022. The emission trends have been fairly constant from 1990 to 2007. However, in the year 2008 to 2020 there was a significant increase in emissions. In the year 2021 and 2022 there was a decline in emissions. And this may be due to interventions in improved feed for livestock mainly enhanced

quality pasture developed. In general, from 1990-2022 there has been a consistent increase in methane emission from manure and this may be attributed to increase in livestock numbers across all the livestock sub category. This increase could be attributed to increasing population and intensification of production systems especially in dairy cattle, poultry and pig management. Changes in production system affects manure management system, with high tendency of solid storage.

Figure 5-7: Trend in Livestock Manure Management CH4 emissions 1990 - 2022

Figure 5-8 presents the percentage shares for the subcategories of manure management Methane (CH₄) emission sources for the latest reporting year 2022.The figure shows that Dairy Cows are the largest contributors to manure management CH,

emissions with 37 % followed by other- cattle (non-dairy cattle) at 29 %. Camels contributed 12%, Goats 10%, Sheep 6%, and donkeys 3% share of manure management emissions in 2022.

b. Trend in 3.A.2 Manure management all livestock direct N2O

Table 5-9 shows the trend in direct manure management $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ emission for all the livestock species from the year 1990 to 2022. Manure management direct N² O produced a total of **494.7 Gg-CO2eq** in 2022 from the 1990 level of **195.2 Gg-CO2eq**, a

significant increase in emissions of 153**%.** In general, with Kenya extensive use of all year-round production systems, this category is relatively low in emissions.

Table 5-7 also presents Manure Management N_2 0 emissions percent increase from 1990 to 2022 by livestock species. The highest increase by 519 % is in Swine and lowest in Dairy cattle by 96%. Although the percent increase is high in Swine, Poultry and Camels, the amount of Manure Management N_2 0 emissions from Swine, Poultry, and Camels is significantly low compared to other cattle, Dairy Cattle, Goat and Sheep.

Figure 5-9 illustrates the trend in direct N_2 O emissions from livestock manure management. In general, from 1990-2022 there has been a consistent increase in N_2O emission from manure management, and this may be attributed to increase in livestock numbers across all the livestock types.

Figure 5-9: Direct N2O emissions trends from livestock manure management

Figure 5-10 illustrate the contribution by livestock types to manure management direct N₂O Emissions in 2022. The largest contributor to the N₂O emissions from manure management were Dairy cattle, at **44** %, followed by other cattle **15** %, Camels at **11**%, Goats **10**%, Swine **10**% and Sheep **5**%. Poultry contributed

the lowest at 2% share. The larger proportion of N_{2} 0 emission in Dairy cattle is due to more organised production system practices for dairy cattle compared to other livestock which are more often kept on free range.

Figure 5-10: Share Contribution by Livestock Types to N2O Emissions from Manure Management 2022

c. Trend in 3.C.6 Indirect N₂O Emissions from manure management

Table 5-8 Figure 5-11 shows the trend in Indirect $\textsf{N}_{\textsf{2}}\textsf{O}$ manure management. Manure management indirect N_2O produced a total of **219.4** Gg-CO₂.eq in 2022 from the 1990 level of **98.9**

Gg-CO₂.eq, representing increase in emissions of **122**%, though emissions remain relatively low.

Table 5-9: Summary of Indirect N2O emissions from manure management

Figure 5-11: Trend in emission in indirect N2O emissions from manure management

5.3.2. Methodological aspects of the Manure Management category

a. Methodology

Methodology - Direct CH4 from Manure management

The calculation of methane emissions from manure management was completed using the Tier 1 methodology from the 2006 Revised IPCC Guidelines (except for dairy cattle). This method relies on default emission factors drawn from previous studies and the only country specific data required are the populations of different livestock types.

Methane Emissions (kg/yr) = Σ Population of Livestock (head) x Emission Factor (kg CH $_{\tiny{4}}$ per head per year)

b. Activity Data

Livestock population data is similar to what was used in enteric fermentation in table 5-4. In addition to livestock populations, data is required on the climatic region where livestock populations

IPCC default emission factors for manure management are available for different categories of livestock based on the climate region. Livestock population data is similar to what was used in enteric fermentation in **table 5.4**. In addition to livestock population, data is required on the climatic region where livestock populations are raised as this impacts on manure management emissions. In our case an average temperature of 25°C was assumed for the entire country.

are raised as this impacts on manure management emissions. In our case an average temperature of 25°C was assumed for the entire country.

c. Emission Factors and Coefficients in Manure management CH⁴

Default emission factors were drawn from the 2006 Revised IPCC Guidelines Volume 4, Chapter 10, Table 10.14 and 10.15 and are presented in Table 5-9.

Table 5-10: Manure Management Emission Factors for Different Livestock Types

(Default emission factors for T1)

Methodology-Direct N² O from Manure management

Proportions for Manure Management Systems were developed using expert judgement as shown in Table 5-.10. Direct $\mathsf{N}_2\mathsf{0}$ emissions from manure management were calculated from

animal populations, applying IPCC 2006 Guidelines, Volume 4, and Chapter 10 using equations 10.25 and 10.30 as defined in the IPCC guidelines.

Nitrogen excretion rates (Nrate) were obtained from the Africa default values (IPCC, 2006, Table 10.19) while the annual nitrogen excretion for livestock Nex was estimated using the equation 10.30 from the guidelines (IPCC 2006). Default IPCC values from 2006 guidelines were used for Typical Animal Mass (TAM) for the various livestock categories. IPCC 2006 default Nitrous Oxide emission factors were used for the various manure management systems (IPCC 2006 Table 10.21).

Nitrogen excretion rates (Nrate) were obtained from the Africa default values (IPCC, 2006, Table 10.19), while the annual nitrogen excretion for livestock Nex was estimated using equation 10.30 from the guidelines (IPCC 2006). Default IPCC values from 2006 guidelines were used for Typical Animal Mass (TAM) for the various livestock categories. IPCC 2006 default Nitrous Oxide emission factors were used for the various manure management systems (IPCC 2006 Table 10.21).

Table 5-11: Livestock Manure Management Percentage Usage for Different Livestock Categories and Associated N2O Emission Factors

d. Methodology-Indirect N2O Emissions from Manure Management

The Tier 1 calculation of N volatilisation in forms of NH3 and NOx from manure management systems is based on multiplication of the amount of nitrogen excreted (from all livestock categories) and managed in each manure management system by a fraction of volatilised nitrogen. Equation 10.26 and 10.27 as defined in the IPCC guidelines were used. N losses are then summed

over all manure management systems. The Tier 1 method is applied using default nitrogen excretion data, default manure management system data, and default fractions of N losses from manure management systems due to volatilisation (see Table 10.22):

In addition, indirect N2O emissions from leaching and runoff could be added to this that volatises. However, the indirect N2O emissions from leaching and run-off of nitrogen from manure management systems was not

e. Data

The manure management system usage data used to estimate N_2 O emissions from manure management was the same as those that are used to estimate CH₄ emissions from manure management. The portion of manure managed in each manure

calculated due to lack of representative values of fraction (in percentage) of managed livestock manure nitrogen N that leaches.

management system was also as used for each representative livestock category (as in table 5-9 above)

Emission factors for Indirect N_2O Emissions from Manure Management used were default as per IPCC guidelines default value EF4 = 0.01 kg N₂O-N/kg.

5.3.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Flexibility was applied on Manure Management System ratios for all livestock categories based on experts drawn from relevant multifaceted disciplines and data collected from sampled farms across all production systems. Further, flexibility was also applied on herd structures considering the dynamics observed in the dairy cattle enterprises.

5.3.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

The uncertainty for activity data for tier 1 and 2 was established at ±10%. Livestock populations had a lower degree of uncertainty of ±10%. Many of the calculations in this sector require livestock numbers. Only 2009 and 2019 represent actual census data, while all the other years used estimates collected from small sample sizes. The uncertainty in livestock population data is larger than typically recognized. There may well be systematic biases in the reporting of the livestock population to the national census (positive and negative). The population data should be examined in cooperation with the national statistical agencies.

Uncertainty for emission factors ranged from -50 and +30%, with a combined EF of 50.9% (Revised 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Reference Manual, Table 4.5) The Tier 1 default emission factor values employed

may have a large uncertainty for Kenya, because the African region values used may not reflect conditions within the country.

Data on manure management storage systems under different livestock categories was not available, with estimates being based on expert opinion and information from the various livestock industries. Country average temperature was collected from the default values, and this leads to some inaccuracy in estimates as the country has varied climate zones. To reduce this uncertainty, the percentage of animal populations, and thus manure management systems, in different temperature zones needs to be determined so that a more specific Methane Conversion Factor (MCF) can be used and a weighted average emission factor determined.

5.3.5. QA/QC for Manure Management category

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.3.6. Manure Management category Specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission**.**

5.3.7. Planned Improvements for manure management category

In order to improve the accuracy and reduce the uncertainty of the manure management data, it would be important to improve the monitoring of the manure management systems. $\mathsf{N}_2\mathsf{O}$ emissions data from manure management systems would also be improved if N excretion rates for cattle in Kenya were

determined so that actual data could be used instead of the IPCC 2006 default values.

Indirect N_2O emissions from leaching and runoff will have to be added to the indirect $\mathsf{N}_2\mathsf{O}$ emission that volatize by determining representative values of fraction (in percentage) of managed livestock manure nitrogen (N) that leaches.

5.4. Rice Cultivation (3.C.7)

5.4.1. Description and Trend of GHGs in Rice cultivation

Description

Rice is Kenya's third staple after maize and wheat. Kenyan rice production is estimated at 33,000 – 50,000 metric tons, whereas consumption is 180,000–250,000 tons. Kenya grows 70.1% of its rice in government-run irrigation projects and 29.9 & in rain-fed systems. The total rice cultivation area increased from 11,000 ha in 1995 to 29,438 ha in 2015.

Anaerobic decomposition of organic material in flooded rice fields produces methane. Upland rice fields which are not flooded do not produce significant methane emissions. CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ is released into

the atmosphere through diffusion loss across the water surface, bubbles and rice plants themselves which is the most common.

Methane emissions potential from rice cultivation depend on the percent share of the total rice cultivation areas under rain fed upland, rain fed lowland and irrigated areas. It is also a function of the period the cultivated area is flooded. Data on annual rice cultivation area and percentage area under different systems were obtained from Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development (MoALD).

Emission Trends from Rice Cultivation

Methane emissions from rice cultivation increased by **88.2 Gg-CO2 eq** between 1990 to 2022 (table 5-11 and Figure 5-12).

Table 5-12: Summary emissions from rice cultivation

The emissions from rice cultivation contributed one percent of the total emissions from aggregated sources and non-CO₂ emissions from lands.

Figure 5-12: Emissions trends from Rice Cultivation, 1990 – 2022 (Gg CO2 Eq)

The observed increase in methane emissions can be attributed to the expansion in the area of irrigated rice schemes in Kenya. Generally, from 2016 there was a general decrease in emissions from rice production which can be attributed to the introduction of intermittent irrigation in some rice growing regions of Kenya.

5.4.2. Methodological Aspects of Rice Cultivation Category

Methodology

The IPCC Tier 1 methodology and default emission factors for rice cultivation were used. Emissions of methane from rice fields were estimated using IPPC equations 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 as defined in the IPCC guidelines: -

EQUATION 5.1 CH₄ EMISSIONS FROM RICE CULTIVATION $CH_{4~Rice} = \sum\limits_{i,j,k} (EF_{i,j,k} \bullet t_{i,j,k} \bullet A_{i,j,k} \bullet 10^{-6})$

EQUATION 5.2 ADJUSTED DAILY EMISSION FACTOR $EF_i = EF_c \bullet SF_w \bullet SF_p \bullet SF_o \bullet SF_{s,r}$

Activity Data

The MoALD provided annual harvested areas of rice from 1990 to 2022, disaggregated into different rice water regimes associated with varied levels of methane emissions. Table 5-12 summaries the harvested areas of rain-fed and irrigated rice water regimes.

Table 5-13: Activity data for rice cultivation 1990-2022

Rice ecosystem	Water regime	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Upland	Rainfed (area (ha)	208.8	257.6	376.4	240.5	137.6	236	297	254	144	279	432
Irrigated	Continuously flooded (area ha)	12500	9210	12050	11030	13100	10580	9100	10570	9004	12950	13450
Irrigated	Intermittend (area ha)	O.										
Rice ecosystem	Water regime	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Upland	Rainfed(area (ha)	530	420	1157.65	2143.89	3924	10605	6831	7642.4	9978	11488	6933
Irrigated	Continuously flooded (area ha)	12670	12580	10781	13322	13000	12501	9626	9092	10072	17611	21101
Irrigated	Intermittend (area ha)											
Rice ecosystem	Water regime	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Upland	Rainfed (area (ha)	7758.4	10036	8979.2	9279	14315	8842.8	4965.6	3991.8	7116.5	4548.1	8615
Irrigated	Continuously flooded (area ha)	21872	21313	19411	19411	14586	21949	4307	6614	5680	7002	18685
Irrigated	Intermittend (area ha)	ΩI						23076	25710	25911	25026	25570

Emission Factors and Coefficients for Rice

Default scaling factors for methane emissions, correction factors for organic amendments and seasonally integrated emission factors were drawn from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines Tables 4-10 and 4-11 and are presented in Table 5-13.

Table 5-14: Rice Water Management Regime Emission Factors and Coefficients

Water Management Regime	Baseline Emission Factor, EF	(SF_{u})	(SF)	(ROAi)	(CFOAi)	(SF)	$(SF_{s/r})$	Cultivation Period (days)
Irrigated - Continuously Flooded	.30	0.52	1.9	ာ		1.9		120
Rainfed - Drought Prone	1.30	0.27	1.22			1.9		120

5.4.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Paragraph 29 of the MPGs on flexibility has been applied on uncertainty due to lack of harmonised data from the sector.

Thus, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this key category is provided.

5.4.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Uncertainty exists in the annual harvested areas of rice as well as default emission factors used. Uncertainty is estimated to be ±10 percent from expert judgement in the rice activity data, while the default Methane (CH4) baseline emission factor of 1.3 has an error range of 0.8 to 2.2 (Volume 4, Chapter table 5.11 IPCC guidelines).

5.4.5. QA/QC for Rice cultivation category

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.4.6. Rice cultivation category specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission.

5.4.7. Planned Improvements for Rice cultivation category

The quality of activity data for rice fields in Kenya is average and improved surveys could help to identify the crop areas that are continuously flooded, intermittent and rainfed. In order to reduce uncertainty in rice cultivation activity data. it is crucial

to develop monitoring systems to capture areas under different water management regimes and clearly determine annual harvested hectares.

5.5. 3C– Agricultural soils

5.5.1. Description and Trend of GHGs in Agriculture Soils

Description

The source category Agriculture soils include direct and indirect N2O emissions from managed soils (Table 5-14).

Table 5-15: Categories of Agricultural soils

Direct N2O Emissions from managed soils are derived from: -

- Inorganic N fertilisers
- Organic N fertilisers*
- Urine and dung deposited by grazing animals,
- Crop residues that remain in soils
- Mineralisation of soil organic matter*
- Cultivation of organic soils

However, for Kenya data, the application of organic manure, Urine and dung deposited by grazing animals, and Nitrogen in

Trend of emissions from Agricultural soils

Table 5-15 and Figure 5-13 below illustrates both direct and indirect N2O emissions from managed soils.

The direct and Indirect N_2O Emissions from managed soils in Kenya rose from **1213.6** Gg-CO₂ eq in 1990 to **2159.3** Gg-CO₂

Table 5-16: Summary of Agricultural Soil Emissions 1990-2022

mineral soils that are mineralised was unavailable, and modelling depending on the other factors listed above.

Indirect N_2 O Emissions from managed soils are derived from; -

- Volatilisation of nitrogen included in synthetic fertilizers and animal manure (used as fertilizers) as NO_x and $NH₃$, followed by atmospheric deposition as NO_{x} , HNO₃ and NH₄ on soils and surface waters and subsequent N_{2} O formation.
- Leaching and runoff of nitrogen contained in applied fertilizers (synthetic and animal manure).

equivalent in 2022 representing an increase of 78 percent. This could be associated with increase in land under cultivation and fertilizer application.

Figure 5-13: Trends in Direct and Indirect N2O emissions from managed soils (Gg-CO2eq) 1990-2022.

Figure 5-14 illustrates the contribution of direct and indirect N2O emissions from managed soils in 2022. The largest contributor

Figure 5-14: contrition of direct and indirect from managed soils.

5.5.2. Methodological aspects of the agriculture soils category

Methodological Issues of Direct N2O emissions from Managed Soils (3.C.4)

For the calculation of N2O emissions from Agricultural soils a Tier 1 method was applied based on IPCC 2006 guidelines, and default emission factors. Direct $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ emissions from managed soils were determined using the IPCC tier 1 approach using

Equation 11.1 as defined in the IPCC guidelines.The estimation of N_2 O emissions relied heavily on the use of synthetic fertilizers, and N in crop residues.

to the N_2O emissions to agricultural soils is from direct sources at **75** percent, followed by indirect sources at **25** percent.

EQUATION 11.1
\n**DIRECT N₂O EIMSSIONS FROM MANACED SOLIS (TIER 1)**
\n
$$
N_2O_{Direct} - N = N_2O - N_{N inputs} + N_2O - N_{OS} + N_2O - N_{PRP}
$$

\nWhere:
\n
$$
N_2O - N_{N inputs} = \begin{bmatrix} [(F_{SN} + F_{ON} + F_{CR} + F_{SOM}) \cdot EF_1] + [(F_{SN} + F_{ON} + F_{CR} + F_{SOM})_{FR} \cdot EF_{IFR}] \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
N_2O - N_{OS} = \begin{bmatrix} (F_{OS, CG,Temp} \cdot EF_{2CG,Temp}) + (F_{OS, CG,Top} \cdot EF_{2CG,Top}) + (F_{OS, F,Temp, NP} \cdot EF_{2F,Temp, NP}) + (F_{OS, F,Temp, NP} \cdot EF_{2F,Temp, NP}) + (F_{OS, F,Temp, NP} \cdot EF_{2F,Top}) \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
N_2O - N_{PRP} = [(F_{PRP,CPP} \cdot EF_{3PRP,CPP}) + (F_{PRP,SO} \cdot EF_{3PRP,SO})]
$$

Methodological Issues of Indirect N2O Emissions from Managed Soils (3.C.5)

Indirect $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ emissions from agricultural soils is derive from:

- Volatilisation of nitrogen included in synthetic fertilizers and animal manure (used as fertilizers) as NO_x and $\mathsf{NH}_{\mathsf{3}'}$ followed by atmospheric deposition as $\mathsf{NO}_{\mathsf{x}'}\mathsf{HNO}_3^{}$ and $\mathsf{NH}_4^{}$ on soils and surface waters and subsequent $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ formation.
- Leaching and runoff of nitrogen contained in applied fertilizers (synthetic and animal manure).

The $\mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}$ emissions from atmospheric deposition of N volatilised from managed soil are estimated using Equation 11.9 as defined in the IPCC guidelines.

EQUATION 11.9 N₂O FROM ATMOSPHERIC DEPOSITION OF N VOLATILISED FROM MANAGED SOILS (TIER 1) $N_2O_{(ATD)}-N = [(F_{SN} \bullet Frac_{GASF}) + ((F_{ON} + F_{PRP}) \bullet Frac_{GASM})] \bullet EF_4$

Leaching/Runoff, N₂O_(L)

The $\rm N_2O$ emissions from leaching and runoff were estimated using tier 1 approach Equation 11.10:

EQUATION 11.10 $\mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}$ FROM N LEACHING/RUNOFF FROM MANAGED SOILS IN REGIONS WHERE LEACHING/RUNOFF **OCCURS (TIER 1)** $N_2O_{(L)}-N=\left(F_{SN}+F_{ON}+F_{PRP}+F_{CR}+F_{SOM}\right)\bullet Frac_{LEACH-(H)}\bullet EF_5$

However, $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{PRP}_{i}}$ and $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{SOM}}$ values could not be calculated from the available data, so the emissions' relied on the other default parameters and data.

Data sources

The amount of synthetic fertilizers consumed in the country was provided by MoALD from 1990 to 2022 and is presented in Table **5-16.** Crop area and production data for major crops including maize, coffee, Irish potatoes, sugarcane, tea and wheat were provided by the Ministry of Agriculture.

 Data for missing years was filled by use of statistical techniques. Annual crop residues were derived from FAOSTAT, while annual amount of urine and dung inputs to grazed soils was derived from livestock population data provided by Kenya`s State Department of Livestock.

Table 5-17: Activity data for agricultural soils

Emissions Factors:

All emissions factors used were default derived from Table 11.1 and Table 11.3, IPCC guidelines Volume 4 Chapter 11.

Table 5-18: Emission factors for calculating direct and Indirect N2O emissions from managed soils

5.5.3. Description of any Flexibility applied in Agriculture soils category

Paragraph 29 of the MPGs on flexibility has been applied on uncertainty due to inadequate harmonised data from the sector.

Thus, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this key category is provided.

5.5.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

 Activity data for Direct N2O emissions from managed soils have uncertainty of ±10%. EF₁, emission factor for N₂O emissions

from N inputs value of 0.01 has an error range of 0.003 to 0.03 (IPCC guidelines volume 4, Chapter 11, table 11.1).

5.5.5. QA/QC for Agriculture soils

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.5.6. Agriculture soils category Specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission. No data on emissions from organic soils.

5.5.7. Planned Improvements for Agriculture soils

Planned improvements for Direct and Indirect $\mathsf{N}_{2}\mathsf{O}$ Emissions

- Crop area data collection could be enhanced by MoALD working closely with the devolved governments
- In future the accurate amount of fertiliser used in irrigated rice cultivation should be determined by MoALD.
- Other improvements include Data on: -

 $\rm N_{_2}O\text{-}N_{_{OS}}$ = annual direct $\rm N_{_2}O\text{-}N$ emissions from managed organic soils, kg N $_{\rm 2}$ O-N yr $^{\rm 1}$

 F_{∞} = annual area of managed/drained organic soils, hectares

 F_{SOM} = annual amount of N in mineral soils that is mineralised, in association with loss of soil C from soil organic matter as a result of changes to land use or management

 N_2O -N_{PRP} = annual direct N₂O-N emissions from urine and dung inputs to grazed soils, kg N_2O-N yr¹

(since we could not determine the fraction of N from N sources deposited within land use subcategory F(Ns,LU), Fraction of N excreted in Urine F_u and Fraction of N excreted in dung Fd)

• Surveys on animal manure, compost, sewage sludge and organic manure and other organic N additions added to soils need to be considered.

5.6. Biomass burning in croplands (3.C.1.b)

5.6.1. Description and Trend of GHG Biomass burning in croplands

Non-CO2 emissions from *Cropland remaining Cropland* (particularly CH4, CO, NOx and N2O) are usually associated with burning of agriculture residues, which vary by country, crop, and management system. CO2 emissions from biomass burning do not have to be reported, since the carbon released during the combustion process is assumed to be reabsorbed by the vegetation during the next growing season.

In the section we report on emissions resulting from burning of agricultural residues which include methane (CH4), nitrous oxide

Trend of GHG in the biomass burning in cropland

Both CH₄ and N₂O emissions from biomass burning from sugarcane for the period 1990-2022 is summarized in Table 5-18, while the trend is shown in figure 5-15, (specifically sugarcane). Emissions from biomass burning in cropland have risen from **2**

(N₂O). Due to a lack of sufficient data, the estimation of non-CO₂ emissions from biomass burning on crop land use (Category 3.C.1b) was based on modelled results from **sugar cane** only, where burning is still practised to ease harvesting. Annual and biennial crops such as cereals, pulses, and root and tubers are rarely **burned** because of the guidance provided by agriculture extension advisories, as most of the crop **residues** are used as feeds for livestock in the country**.**

Gg CO₂eq in 1990 to 6.1 Gg-CO₂eq in 2022 representing 210% rise in emissions in the sub-category. **80%** of emissions from biomass burning in sugarcane result in CH_4 emissions, while N2 O is about **20%.**

Figure 5-15: Trends analysis of biomass burning (sugarcane)

5.6.2. Methodological aspects of Biomass burning in cropland category

Methodology

Emissions from biomass burning were estimated using **equation 2.27** as defined in the IPCC guideline:

> **EQUATION 2.27** ESTIMATION OF GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSIONS FROM FIRE $L_{\text{fire}} = A \cdot M_B \cdot C_f \cdot G_{\text{ef}} \cdot 10^{-3}$

Emission factors: used were default as provided in IPPCC guidelines Volume 4, chapter 2 (tables 2.4, 2.5, and 2.6).

Area burned A: was assumed to be 60% of area under sugarcane cultivation per year by expert judgment (some farmers use the sugarcane residues for other purposes)

Activity data

Activity data for area burned for different crops was sourced from FAOSTAT. Table 5-19 summarises the data on Area burned for sugarcane in Kenya (Source FAOSTAT)

Table 5-20: Area burned for sugarcane (Source FAOSTAT)

5.6.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Paragraph 29 of the MPGs on flexibility has been applied on uncertainty due to inadequate harmonised data from the sector.

Thus, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this category is provided.

5.6.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Crop area data is a source of uncertainty especially after devolution of agricultural function in 2013. Lack of area burned data for different crops from national statistics result in bias and uncertainty in the data, hampering the determination of accurate emissions from biomass burning in cropland.

5.6.5. QA/QC for Biomass burning in cropland

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.6.6. Biomass burning in cropland category Specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission

5.6.7. Planned Improvements for Biomass burning in cropland

Collaboration with institutions providing data on area burned using high-resolutions satellites. Country data collection mechanism on biomass burning in all land classes should be put in place.

5.7. Liming Category (3.C.2)

5.7.1. Description and Trend of GHGs in Liming Category

In Kenya, liming is a beneficial practice that helps in the regulation of soil acidity and promotes growth in different agricultural lands. A national soil fertility assessment conducted in 2014/2015 (KALRO 2015) indicated that 47% of soils in high potential areas are acidic and Lime application is key to address this situation.

When soils are limed, with carbonates, such as lime (e.g., calcic limestone (CaCO3), or dolomite (CaMg(CO3)2), CO2 emissions are generated as the carbonates dissolve and release bicarbonate $(2HCO₃)$ which evolves into $CO₂$ and water $(H₂O)$.

Emission trends in Liming

Emissions from liming for the period 1990-2022 is summarized in Table **5-20**, while the trend is shown in figure 5-.16

Table 5-21: Summary emissions from liming 1990-2022

Emissions in this category rose from **0.7 Gg** in 1990 to **2.7** Gg $CO₂$ in 2016 and dropping gradually to 1.4 Gg CO₂eq in 2022. There was a significant rise in lime use on agricultural soils between 1995 and 2015 associated with agricultural research, awareness creation through extension technical advisories on agricultural lime benefits on soils. Between 1995 and 1999 the country had only one major lime production plant (and many smaller, essentially artisanal, facilities). Lime production increased

in 2000 with the introduction of a new lime production plant at Athi River. In addition, some companies (e.g. Omnia) were importing granulated dolomitic lime. An NGO (One Acre Fund) has also promoted lime usage in its area of operation in Western Kenya. That explains the increase in lime usage between 1995 and 2016. However, from 2019, there has been a steady drop in lime production which is attributed to the closure of the Athi River Mining (ARM) Limited.

Figure 5-16: Trend in lime emissions 1990-2022

5.7.2. Methodological aspects of the Liming Category

Methodology

CO $_2$ Emissions from additions of carbonate limes to soils can be estimated with Equation 11.12 as per the IPCC guidelines.

EQUATION 11.12 ANNUAL CO₂ EMISSIONS FROM LIME APPLICATION CO_2-C Emission = $(M_{Limsstone} \bullet EF_{Limsstone}) + (M_{Dolomite} \bullet EF_{Dolomite})$

Default Emission factor for Dolomite lime, EF=0.13 (tonnes C/ tonne of lime) was used.

Activity Data

To calculate emissions from lime application, activity data on lime production were obtained from Kenya National Bureau of Statistics reports (1990-2022), Kenya Association of Manufacturers, with data built up from Kenya's second national communication

(NC2). Lime for agricultural use was estimated to 10% of the lime production in Kenya used in the IPPU category. The 10% figure was based on sector experts 'consultations and judgement.

Table 5-22: Activity data for Liming 1990-2022 (Lime Production data Source KNBS, USGS)

 United States Geological Survey (US Department of the Interior), "The Mineral Industry of Kenya", yearly publications from 1990 to 2022, secondary data drawn from KNBS (Statistical Abstracts,

etc.), mining industry sources, banking sources, industry interviews, industrial trade information, etc.

5.7.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Paragraph 29 of the MPGs on flexibility has been applied on uncertainty due to lack of harmonised data from the sector leading to assumptions where 10% of production data is used to

calculate emissions from liming. Thus, at a minimum, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty for this key category is provided.

5.7.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Activity data uncertainty is estimated to be -7% and +10%, while default emission factor uncertainty is -50% and +10% with combined uncertainty of +50.99. The activity data uncertainties are informed by the nature of soils and climate conditions in regions where liming is predominant. The major causes of uncertainties are from amount of carbonate lime applied to soils and in the net amount of carbonate-C from liming applications that is emitted as CO2 The lime activity data is similar to that used in IPPU, and it was assumed that 10 % of lime production

is used in agriculture, which may not be the actual case every year. Thus, uncertainties in both the amount of lime available for application and the amount applied in a particular inventory year is a source of concern. There is also a likelihood that the country also has many smaller, essentially artisanal, facilities that produce lime which may not be captured in the national statistics. Given the high uncertainty in liming activity data, there is need to harmonise data collection and clearly determined actual use of lime in agricultural soils.

5.7.5. QA/QC for Liming Category

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.7.6. Liming Category-Specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission.

5.7.7. Planned Improvements for Liming Category

To enhance transparency and instil confidence in the data provided, it may be necessary for future inventory development to establish direct collaboration with lime producing companies. Given the high uncertainty in liming activity data, there is a need

to harmonise data collection. It is crucial to develop monitoring systems to capture lime application on agricultural soils and clearly determine actual use of lime in agricultural soils.

5.8. Urea application (3.C.3)

5.8.1. Description and Trend of GHGs in Urea application

Description of Urea Application

Adding urea to soils during fertilization leads to a loss of CO_2 that was fixed in the industrial production process. Urea $(CO(NH_2)_2)$ is converted into ammonium (NH₄⁺), hydroxyl ion (OH), and bicarbonate (HCO3), in the presence of water and urease enzymes. Similar to the soil reaction following addition

Emission trends from Urea Application

Emissions from liming for the period 1990-2022 is summarized in Table **5-22**, while the trend is shown in figure 5-.17. Urea emissions have risen from **6.3** Gg- CO₂eq in 1990 to **31.1 GgCO**₂eq in 2022, representing 394% rise in emissions in in the sub-category as

of lime, bicarbonate that formed evolves into is $\mathrm{CO}_2^{}$ and water. This source category is included because the CO₂ removal from the atmosphere during urea manufacturing is estimated in the Industrial Processes and Product Use Sector.

shown in Figure 5-17, though overall emissions remain low. The increase is primarily attributable to increased uptake of urea fertilizer application coupled with government sourcing of urea.

Table 5-23: Summary emissions for Urea Application 1990-2022

Urea emissions fluctuate over time, there is a steady rise from 1990 to 2011 and then a drop in urea application in 2012, then a bump (rise) in application in 2014. In 2014 there was a government fertilizer subsidy programme aimed at increasing agriculture productivity, cushioning farmers by making fertilizer affordable and as a fertilizer price stabilization mechanism that could have resulted in high supply of urea in 2014. There has been an increase in Urea application to enhance productivity, access to Urea for application, cushion farmers through fertilizer affordability, fertilizer price stabilization mechanism that could have resulted in gentle high supply of urea from 2013.

Figure 5-17: Trend in emissions in Urea application 1990-2022

5.8.2. Methodological aspects of Urea application category

CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ emissions from urea fertilization were estimated using tier 1 approach with Equation 11.13 as defined in the IPCC guidelines.

Default Emission factor EF-0.2(tonnes of C/tonne of carbonate)

was applied under tier 1 approach.

Activity Data:

Urea consumption data was sourced from the Ministry of Agriculture fertiliser division, supplemented with United States Geological Survey (US Department of the Interior), "The Mineral Industry of Kenya", yearly publications from 1990 to 2022, secondary data drawn from KNBS (Statistical Abstracts, etc.), In order to address the missing years (1990-1994), splicing statistical techniques were employed to fill in the gaps. However, these methods introduced a considerable level of uncertainty in the resulting modelled data. The amount of Urea applied to agricultural soils is presented in Tables 5-23.

5.8.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

No flexibility has been applied.

5.8.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Activity data uncertainty is estimated to be -10% and +10%, while default emission factor uncertainty is -50% and +10% with a combined uncertainty of +50.99. Sources of uncertainty in estimating CO₂ emissions from urea could have come from

the gaps in activity data. The splicing statistical techniques were employed to fill the gaps. Introduced a considerable level of uncertainty in the resulting modelled data.

5.8.5. QA/QC for Urea application

QA/QC procedures were performed in accordance with the general QA/QC principles.

5.8.6. Urea application Category Specific recalculations

There was no recalculation exercised regarding emission estimates from this source category in this submission

5.8.7. Planned Improvements for Urea Application Category

Given the high uncertainty in urea activity data, there is a need to harmonise data collection. It is crucial to develop a multi-stakeholder/sectoral monitoring system to capture urea importation and clearly determine the actual use of urea

in agricultural soils. There is also a need to establish direct collaboration with urea-importing companies to enhance transparency and instil confidence in the data provided.

Chapter 06:

Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry

6.1. Overview of the Sector

Kenya spans a total land area of approximately 59.2 million hectares, with forest cover accounting for 5.9% of this area, as reported in the Forest Reference Level (FRL) of 2020. The Land Use, Land Use Change, and Forestry (LULUCF) sector holds significant importance for the country's environmental sustainability and economic development. This sector plays a dual role: contributing to climate change mitigation through carbon sequestration while supporting livelihoods, biodiversity, and water regulation.

Anthropogenic activities, such as deforestation, land degradation, and unsustainable agricultural and rangeland practices in the sector. These pressures lead to significant environmental impacts, including increased greenhouse gas emissions and diminished carbon sequestration.

In response to these challenges, Kenya has developed a robust framework of policies, strategies, and institutions at both national and county levels, tailored to address the key categories within the LULUCF sector; frameworks which underscore Kenya's commitment to mitigating climate risks and fostering a resilient, low-carbon economy.

This section highlights GHG emissions (and removals) of CO. occurring in managed ecosystems. Emissions from the Land (IPCC category 3.B) resulting from deforestation, forest degradation, afforestation/reforestation as well as sustainable management of forests. Changes in land use for the other non-forest classes have also been estimated. Therefore, emissions from the land category have been analysed under six land representations, namely;

- 1. 3.B.1 Forestland
- 2. 3.B.2 Cropland
- 3. 3.B.3 Grassland
- 4. 3.B.4 Wetland
- 5. 3.B.5 Settlement
- 6. 3.B.6 Other Lands

This report has been prepared in line with decision 18/CMA.1, which outlines the Modalities, Procedures, and Guidelines (MPGs) for the transparency framework under Article 13 of the Paris Agreement. It covers data collection, uncertainty calculations, key category analysis, methodological choices, recalculations, and quality control and quality assurance.

The GHG emissions were estimated using the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for national GHG inventories, which provide standardised methods for assessing GHG emissions and removals.

This reporting covers only the above-ground biomass (AGB), below-ground biomass (BGB), and soil organic carbon (SOC) pools. Due to limited data availability, the dead wood and litter carbon pools were excluded. Comprehensive studies on the carbon dynamics within the dead wood and litter pools are necessary to assess their significance as emission sources in Kenya. Such research would enable their inclusion in the future through the stepwise approach.

Calculation of CO₂ emissions/removals were further based on two main activities namely; (a) land use remaining the same over a given period and (b) lands converted to another land use type over a given period. Activity data consisting of area in hectares of change from one land use or land use sub-category to another as well as land remaining the same were multiplied by country-specific emission factors or default emissions factors (where country specific data was unavailable) to calculate $CO₂$ emissions.

The key category analysis indicated that Land conversion to Cropland had the greatest contribution as a source followed by land converted to Grassland, Cropland remaining Cropland, and Forestland remaining Forestland respectively. Land converted to Forestland on the other hand had the greatest contribution as a sink as highlighted in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6-1: Contribution of sources and sink categories to total Emissions

6.1.1. Description of the Sector

The main data sets used in this report include (a) land use representations for each sub-category and land use change matrix (transitions in land use representations) generated through remote sensing and ground verification (b) biomass carbon stocks for each land use subcategory and (c) soil organic carbon default values for mineral soils derived from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines.

Land use representation data was generated from remote sensing where mapping for area estimation was undertaken through a multi-stakeholder process by government institutions, learning institutions, and the private sector. The data generation process involved a thorough QA/QC process both internally and externally. This also involved the documentation of the processes involved in generating the activity data.

The emission factors were generated from a pilot forest inventory that was undertaken since the country has not undertaken a National Forest Inventory (NFI). Where country-specific data were non-existent, data from reliable sources were used. Table 6.1 indicates the data sources used in this reporting.
Table 6-1: FOLU data sources

6.1.2. GHG Trends in the Sector

GHG emissions and removals were reported from Forestland, Cropland, Grassland, Wetland, Settlement, and Otherland categories. The general trend of emissions in the sector indicates an increasing trend over the reporting period (Figure 6.2). The analysis depicts that the sector is a net emitter with an estimated

average emission of 17, 838.76 Gg CO₂ equivalent per year. It is noted that due to an assumption of no land use change between the periods 1990 and 2000, there were no emissions generated within the period and therefore, emissions only occurred from 2001 when land conversions were experienced.

Figure 6-2: Trends of emissions in the LULUCF sector

Land conversions to Forestland were majorly reported from Cropland and Grassland while conversions to Cropland were mostly from Forestland, Wetland, and Grassland with conversions from the Grassland category being converted more to Cropland. On the other hand, conversions to Grassland were from Forestland, Cropland, Wetland, and Otherland with conversions from Forestland

having the greatest contribution (Figure 6.3). Emissions were also reported from Grassland converted to Settlements and Grassland converted to Otherland. Figure 6.3 shows the overall trend in GHG emissions and removals for land remaining in the same land category and land converted to another land category for the period 2001 to 2022.

Figure 6-3: Emissions and Removals Trend for the period 2001-2022

6.1.3. General Methodological Aspects of the Category

This section highlights choices of methods and assumptions used to categorise land use/land cover classes, generation of activity data, and emission factors for the LULUCF sector. The inventory was guided by the 2006 IPCC guidelines, specifically on data identification and selection, methods and use of emission factors. Expert judgement and application of underlying assumptions in a consistent and transparent manner were applied where data was limited.

Kenya adopted a complete representation of lands to monitor its land cover classes over time and reported at the tier two level. The six IPCC land cover classes were further sub-categorised based on national circumstances. The forestland category was subdivided based on canopy cover (Table 6.2). In addition, the forestland was further subdivided into 6 strata, namely, Montane, Western Rain, Dryland, Coastal, Mangroves and Plantation forests.

Using Approach 2 (consistent representation of lands), data collected through a sample-based methodology was utilized to generate activity data. The Sample-Based Area Estimation (SBAE) approach represents an enhanced methodology adopted by the country to improve accuracy and reduce uncertainties. This builds on the limitations highlighted by the Technical Expert Review team in Kenya's first Forest Reference Level (FRL) report submitted to the UNFCCC in 2020.

The data used for this inventory was collected to support the second Forest Reference Level reporting, with intensified

sampling points within forest strata zones. Stratified sampling data collected for the periods 2000–2005, 2005–2010, 2013– 2017, and 2018–2021 was used as-is. However, transitioning to a systematic sampling approach for future Greenhouse Gas Inventory (GHGI) reporting has been strongly recommended to enhance methodological consistency and data quality.

For years with data gaps—specifically 1990–1999—it was assumed that the land area remained unchanged until 2000 (land areas for 2000 were used all through to 1990). Similarly, for 2011, 2012, and 2022, the land area was assumed to have remained consistent with the previous year. Consequently, activity data collection ensured a consistent representation of lands for both land remaining in the same use and land-use conversions for the period 2000–2022.

To calculate emissions, activity data on land-use change transitions over various time periods and the corresponding carbon stocks for each land-use subcategory were utilized. The stock change method was applied, with a one-year interval used for assessing deforestation and forest degradation, and a 20 year interval for other land-use conversions. Emission factors for each subcategory were derived from country-specific data when available; otherwise, default values from the IPCC were applied.

Emission estimates in this report were generated using a combination of Tier 1 and Tier 2 methods, depending on the availability of country-specific data. In cases where no data existed at the national, sub-regional, or international levels, expert judgment was applied, with underlying assumptions carefully documented. For above-ground biomass, emission factors were derived from published and pilot forest inventory data for select

land-use strata. In line with IPCC good practice guidelines, default emission factor values were used to address data gaps where information from other sources was unavailable.

Table 6-2: Kenya land categorization

Box 6.1: Land cover classes for Kenya adopted from the IPCC land cover categories

- **1. Forestland**: This is based on Kenya's definition of forests (KFS, 2013). *Forestlands are areas occupied by forests and characterised by tree crown cover ≥ 15%, an area ≥ 0.5 ha and a tree height ≥ 2m. It also includes areas managed for forestry where trees have not attained* 2m height but with potential to do so, and areas that are temporarily destocked. Forestlands include Plantation forests (Public and private plantations), Natural forests (Coastal forests, Mangrove forests, Bamboo forests, Dryland forests, Montane and Western rain forests), categories which describe forests with different carbon dynamics.
- **2. Cropland**: This refers to land that is purposely managed for agricultural activities. Though this definition assumes a-priori defined area that can be captured with ancillary data, such land is characterised by presence of agricultural crops or with evidence of tillage. It includes agroforestry systems (Nair, 1992 defined agroforestry as the deliberate growing of woody perennials/trees on the same unit of land as agricultural activity). The tree cover in these agroforestry systems shall fall below the thresholds used for the forest land category. Cropland also includes areas with annual herbaceous crops where crops grow in one or more seasons in a year and at times such land are bare due to tillage. This category also includes areas with perennial shrub crops like tea and sisal and which remain on the same land unit for many years but undergo management systems that influence carbon dynamics.
- **3. Grassland**: This refers to rangelands and pasture land of Kenya which do not qualify as forestland and cropland. They may have sparse trees and woody vegetation but the tree cover falls below the threshold used in the forestland category. The category includes grassland in wildlands, moorlands, shrub savannah, recreational areas, glades and silvo-pastoral systems, in managed and unmanaged systems. KFS (2013) describes these as the most extensive land cover types of Kenya covering over 70% of the country. They are areas rich in wildlife, dominated by shrubs and woody trees, some of which are deciduous (Beentje 1994). Some of these areas are also prone to degradation activities like fires and charcoal burning.
- **4. Wetlands**: This refers to areas covered or saturated by water that is observable by remote sensing. It includes lakes, dams, reservoirs, and rivers. There is also vegetation associated with these water bodies including papyrus and reeds and river line trees.
- **5. Settlements**: This refers to developed land. It includes transportation infrastructure and human settlements where buildings exceed 50% of the land use (which could be in croplands, forestland, grassland, or Wetlands), unless they are already included under other categories.
- **6. Other land**: This category includes unidentified land. It could be bare soil, rock, ice, and all unmanaged land areas that do not fall into any of the other five categories at a specific time

6.2. Definitions of Land Use and Land Representation Approaches

6.2.1. Land use definitions

A. Forestland: This is based on a national forest definition which has been agreed through a broad stakeholder consensus as a minimum 15% canopy cover; minimum land area of 0.5 ha and potential to reach a minimum height of 2 metres at maturity in situ (Republic of Kenya, 2020). Perennial tree crops like coffee and tea are not considered as forests under this definition irrespective of whether they meet the definition of forests. The subcategories under this category are as follows as demonstrated in Figure 6.4:

1. Montane forest- These are forests in high altitude regions of Kenya (above 1,500m). They are the most extensive and have been described as water towers due to their support to water catchments (*Akotsi, Ndirangu, & Gachanja, 2006*). They include the Mau, Mt. Kenya, Aberdares, Cherangany, and Mt Elgon blocks, as well as Leroghi, Marsabit, Ndotos, the Matthews Range, Mt Kulal, the Loita Hills, The Chyulu Hills, the Taita Hills, Mt. Kasigau among others. These forests have different patches of species association which are influenced by climate and altitude. For example, the moist

broad-leaved forests occur on the windward sides while the drier coniferous mixed forests are found on the leeward sides. At higher altitudes, the forests are dominated by the highland bamboo (*Yushania alpina*). Bamboo is a common forest type in Kenya and their biomass stocks have been estimated as comparable to those of the adjacent montane natural forests.

- **2. Western Rain forests** These are forests with characteristics of the Guineo-Congolean forests and include Kakamega forest, the North and South Nandi Forest and Nyakweri forest in Transmara Sub-County (Peter Wass, 1995). The trees are significantly taller and larger as compared to the other forests of Kenya.
- **3. Coastal forests** These are the forests found in the coastal region of Kenya within a 30km strip from the shore line (Peter Wass, 1995). They are part of the larger coastal belt including, Arabuko-Sokoke forest, Shimba hills forest and the forests of Tana River region and Boni-Dodori forest

complex. They are dominated by species of Combretum, Afzelia, Albizia, Ekerbergia, Hyphaene, Adansonia and Brachestegia woodlands and are biodiversity hotspots. Delineation of this zone is based on a 30 km buffer from the shoreline and captures forests in public and private lands.

- **4. Mangrove forests** Mangroves have been defined as trees and shrubs that have adapted to life in saline environments. They are characterised by a strong assemblage of species according to geomorphological and salinity gradients, and tidal water currents. There are nine species of mangroves in Kenya which occur on a typical zonation pattern with the seaward side occupied by *Sonneratia alba*, followed by *Rhizophora mucronata*, then *Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*, *Ceriops taga*l, *Avicennia marin*a, *Lumnitzera racemosa* and *Heritiera littoralis* respectively (Kokwaro, 1985; Kairo, 2001). Other mangrove species include *Xylocarpus granatum* and *Xylocarpus mollucensis.*
- **5. Dryland forests** These are the forests found in the arid and semi-arid regions of Kenya. Their tree composition is dominated by Acacia-Commiphora species but also include Combretum, *Platycephelium voense*, Manilkara, Lannea, *Balanites aegyptiaca*, *Melia volkensii*, *Euphorbia candelabrum* and *Adansonia digitata*. The category also includes riverine forests in dry areas. This forest stratum has unique characteristics from the other forest strata. First, they shed leaves and provide a challenge for time series mapping and therefore require special attention during mapping. Secondly, they have extensive root systems due to water stress and their below ground biomass component varies from other forests. Thirdly, the harsh conditions of their growth imply higher specific wood densities though these have not been researched on.
- **6. Public plantation forests** Refers to public forest areas with even-aged monocultures managed by KFS for commercial purposes. Their boundaries are also clearly defined by compartments and sub compartments and it is possible to delineate them from the other natural forests. The trees are mainly planted for commercial purposes and undergo a series of silvicultural activities like pruning and thinning which affect their carbon stocks. Plantations may be divided based on commonly grown species and the areas where these species are grown. They include *Cupressus lusitanic*a, Eucalyptus sp. and several pine species (*P. patula* in montane areas and, *P. caribeae* in coastal forests)
- **7. Private plantation forests** These are commercial plantations of various tree species outside gazetted forest areas. They are grown for commercial purposes. Private plantation forest sub-category is found across all the forest strata.

Further, the natural forest strata have been sub-categorised into:

- **a. Forest dense**: These are forests within the five forest strata of Montane forests, Western rainforests, Coastal forests, Mangroves, and Dryland forests that have a canopy closure of 65% and above.
- **b. Forest moderate**: These are forests within the five forest strata of Montane forests, Western rainforests, Coastal forests, Mangroves, and Dryland forests that have a canopy closure between 40% and 65%.
- **c. Forest open**: These are forests within the five forest strata of Montane forests, Western rainforests, Coastal forests, Mangroves, and Dryland forests that have a canopy closure between 15% and 40%.

B. Grassland: This category includes rangelands and pasture lands that are not considered Cropland. This also includes systems with woody vegetation and other non-grass vegetation such as herbs and brushes that fall below the thresholds of the Forest Land category. This further includes all grasslands ranging from wild lands to recreational areas as well as agricultural and silvopastoral systems that are consistent with national definitions.

- **1. Open Grassland:** This refers to grasslands devoid of trees. They are grasses in wildlands, moorlands, recreational areas, and glades. They include areas that support nomadic pastoralism in the rangelands of Kenya.
- **2. Wooded Grassland:** This refers to woodlands that do not qualify as forestlands. They will be defined as grasslands with a tree canopy ≥10%. These are mainly the woodlands that support wildlife in the rangelands of Kenya and have a mixture of trees, shrubs and grasses. The tree component here influences the biomass content and associated GHG fluxes. Due to the canopy closure of the woody component, it is possible to differentiate these areas from the open grasslands.

C. Cropland: This category includes cropped lands, including rice fields, and lands with an agro-forestry system where the vegetation structure falls below the thresholds used for the Forest Land category.

Perennial Cropland: This category specifically refers to tea farms, coffee farms, sugar cane farms, cotton farms, sisal farms, agroforestry systems, among others whose spectral characteristics can easily be delineated from the rest of the agricultural areas. Their areas of growth are also clearly known. Tea farms are found in high-potential areas and are normally adjacent to large forest blocks.

6.2.2. Land representation approaches

Kenya implemented approach 2 for land use representation, which enabled the tracking of land use changes within and between specific land use categories. Annual matrices were developed to document both land that remained unchanged and land that

They have unique management systems that influence GHG fluxes. Sisal farms are found in areas of moderate rainfall and the coastal region while sugar farms are found in western and coastal regions of Kenya. On a single image, it may be difficult to assign tea, coffee, cotton, sugar cane and sisal farms into a single land cover category. However, working on different images, the perennial shrub crop can always be assigned to the specific crop type after land cover classification.

2. Annual Cropland: Refers to the treeless agricultural fields. They comprise mechanised farms in the bread baskets of Kenya (wheat and maize growing areas of the Rift Valley), extensive irrigation farms largely dominated by rice and other mixed farming systems, and other small-scale crop farming where the crop growth season does not exceed one year.

D. Wetland: This category includes areas of peat extraction and lands that are covered or saturated by water for all or part of the year (e.g. peatlands) and do not fall into the five categories of Forest Land, Cropland, Grassland, Settlements and Other land. This includes reservoirs, natural rivers and lakes.

- **1. Vegetated Wetland**: Wetland areas with vegetation
- **2. Open Water**: Open water bodies without vegetation

E. Settlements: This category includes all developed lands, including transportation infrastructure and human settlements regardless of size, unless they are already included in the other categories. This should be consistent with national definitions.

F. Other lands: This category includes bare soil, rock, ice, and all land areas that do not fall into any of the other five categories.

underwent conversion during the period from 2000 to 2021. This data was then utilised to create the land representation matrix (Figure 6.5) for input into the IPCC software.

Figure 6-5: Sample of the Land representation matrix

A time series analysis of land use representation was conducted using available national data, segmented into 5-year intervals from 2000 to 2010, a 4-year interval from 2013 to 2017, and a 3-year interval from 2018 to 2021 (Figure 6.6). This data was presented on an annual basis to monitor both land that remained unchanged and land conversions.

Figure 6-6: Figure 6.6 IPCC categories land use matrices for the reporting period

To generate consistent time series data, the process involved sequentially comparing changes in activity data between two time periods (e.g., 2000–2005, 2005–2010, 2013–2017, and 2018–2021). This comparison produced a change matrix indicating areas that remained within the same land-use type and areas

that transitioned to different land-use types (conversions) for all land-use categories.

The resulting data was utilized to create a change matrix for stable land and conversions across 25 land-use subcategories for each year (Figure 6.7). This information was subsequently used to compile comprehensive time series datasets.

Figure 6-7: Land conversion matrix between 2005-2010

6.3. Country Specific Approaches

6.3.1. Information on approaches used for representing land areas and on land-use databases used for the inventory preparation

Kenya implemented approach 2 for land representation, assessing both net gains and losses in land use. This method tracked areas that remained within the same land use category and those that transitioned between categories. The representation incorporated top-level land use categories, further subdivided to address national circumstances critical for estimating emissions and removals, as outlined in the 2006 IPCC guidelines. These sub-categories were analysed to ensure robustness in emissions and removals estimations, representing the various ecological regions of the country and ensuring comprehensive reporting.

To input the data into the IPCC software, the entire country was treated as a single climate region (Tropical dry) with one soil type of High Activity Clay, as per Table 3.1 of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. Land representation data was generated annually for each sub-category, capturing both land that remained unchanged and land conversions throughout the reporting period.

In the forestry sector, the primary sources of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions—predominantly carbon dioxide (CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{\it2}}}$) arise from land transitions such as conversion to agriculture, grassland, or settlements. While CO₂ is the main GHG in this sector, other gases like methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) can be emitted from biomass burning; and methane (CH_4) from mangrove forests (combustion of soils). However, for this inventory, only $CO₂$ emissions were reported.

Further, the soil types found throughout the country are very diverse. However, when classified based on IPCC classes, there are two dominant soil types in the country; High Activity Clay (HAC) soil and Low Activity Clay soil. Kenya is 80% ASAL and the dryland part of Kenya mostly has HAC. Therefore, an assumption was made on applying HAC clay for the entire country since a tropical dry climate was assigned for the entire country. In accordance with the IPCC Guidelines, and based on the soil types found in Kenya, Kenya was assumed to be having only mineral soils with no organic soils since the wetland areas are insignificant.

6.3.2. Information on approaches used for natural disturbances

This is not applicable.

6.3.3. Information on approaches used for reporting harvested wood products

Harvested wood products were not included in this inventory due to a lack of sufficient country-specific data. Addressing this limitation has been recognized as an essential area for future improvements to ensure more comprehensive reporting with

key proposals being to develop a system for Data collection on HWP in the country and to determine wood density values for the major species for timber and other major forest products for use in estimating Emission Factors for this category.

6.4. 6.4 LULUCF Categories

6.4.1. Category Description and Trend of GHGs

3.B.1-Forest Land

Emissions in this category have been reported for stable land—forestland remaining forestland—and for land converted to forestland (enhancements), primarily from grassland and cropland. Overall, the forestland category shows an increasing

trend in emissions, measured in gigagrams of CO2 equivalent, rising from 56.18 Gg CO2 eq in 2001 to 2,680.76 Gg CO2 eq in 2022, as illustrated in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6-8: Emissions trend for forestland category

The trend of emissions depicts a significant increase in forestland remaining forestland compared to the trend of removals within the same period (Figure 9).

Conversions of land to forestland could be attributed to various policy reforms in the forest sector during the period. There was a review of the forest law that established the Kenya Forest Service as a semi-autonomous government agency responsible for forest conservation and management. Through the law, participatory forest management was entrenched and communities living adjacent to the forest (through community forest associations) worked with the forest agency in co-management of forest resources. This, together with the creation of the Mau Taskforce in 2008 may have resulted in reduced illegal activities which are drivers of forest degradation and deforestation.

On the other hand, the establishment of the Kenya Forest Service (KFS) in 2005, through the Forest Management and Conservation Act of 2005 (revised in 2016), also marked a significant milestone in Kenya's forest conservation efforts. While the KFS initially contributed to an increase in forest cover, the Government imposed a moratorium on logging in all Public and Community Forests in 2018 which led to a shift in deforestation patterns to private lands. To address this, the government launched a National Landscape and Ecosystem Restoration Strategy 2023- 2032 to support the 15B tree-growing initiative. These activities started back in 2021 after the presidential directive and launch and have significantly contributed to the rise in tree and forest cover across the country mappable through remote sensing.

3.B.2 - Cropland

Overall analysis shows increasing emissions from the cropland category (Figure 6.10) with an average of 11,575.22 Gg CO $_{\tiny 2}$ Eq. The leading expansion of agricultural activities into formerly marginal areas may be associated with encroachment into former grassland areas and at the same time, agricultural expansion may also be a contributing factor to decrease in Forestlands and Grassland areas as there is need for more land to grow food for the increasing population.

Figure 6-10: Emissions trend for the cropland category

The Figure 6.11 shows the trend in emissions from cropland remaining cropland and land converted to cropland. From the results, cropland remaining cropland category considers

emissions/removals due to the carbon stock changes attributed to conversions within the cropland sub-categories (annual cropland and perennial cropland).

Figure 6-11: Emissions trend from cropland remaining cropland and land converted to cropland

3.B.3 - Grassland

This category contributed significant emissions across the time series with an average emission level of $4,988.7$ Gg CO₂ eq. Conversions to grassland were reported from forestland,

cropland, wetlands and other lands with greatest emissions being reported from forestland. Figure 6.12 shows the overall trend in net emissions.

Figure 6-12: Emissions trend for the grassland category

3.B.4 - Wetlands

Default emission factor values were applied to the wetlands category, resulting in no reported emissions from wetlands remaining wetlands. However, conversions from grassland to wetlands during the periods 2006–2010, 2014–2017, and 2018–2021 contributed to notable emissions. These emissions, though showing a decreasing trend, remained consistent across the periods due to similar conversion patterns within each timeframe, as illustrated in Figure 6.13.

3.B.5 - Settlements

Default emission factor values were applied to the settlements category, resulting in no reported emissions from land remaining unchanged. However, emissions began to increase from 2006 onwards, driven by land-use conversions, as shown in Figure 6.14. These conversions were primarily from grassland to settlements, attributed to population growth and accelerated urbanization across the country, particularly after 2012 when Kenya's devolution framework was implemented.

Figure 6-14: Emissions trend for the settlement category

3.B.6 - Other Land

For the other land category, default emission factor values were also applied, resulting in no reported emissions from land remaining in this category. However, emissions were observed from conversions of grassland to other land, as shown in Figure 6.15. The trend reveals sporadic emissions associated with landuse changes, with no consistent pattern across the reporting period. This suggests that these conversions occurred irregularly rather than as part of a continuous or large-scale process. The conversions to Other Land are primarily attributed to quarrying and road construction, activities that have fluctuated since 2014.

Figure 6-15: Emissions trend for the other land category

6.4.2. Methodological aspects

The National Mapping team developed Activity Data for the period 2000–2022 using an innovative methodology known as Ensemble Sample-Based Area Estimation (eSBAE). This approach involved generating 2 km grids across the entire country, resulting in a total of 149,460 data points. The grid size was carefully chosen following a simulation exercise that tested grid densities ranging from 500 meters to 50 kilometers, utilizing both systematic and random sampling designs.

Machine Learning-Based Time Series Analysis was applied to the dataset to identify potential areas of change. Using probabilitybased change detection, a subset of the 149,460 points was selected for further analysis. Visual interpretation of these points was conducted through Collect Earth Online (CEO), leading to the detailed assessment of 7,313 samples.

Each interpreted point was classified into one of several categories: Deforestation (Forest to Non-Forest), Forest Degradation (Reduction in canopy density), No Change (Land remaining in the same category), Forest Enhancement (Non-Forest to Forest), Sustainable Forest Management, or Transitions within Non-Forest categories. This methodology provided data that was used for Activity data as described in section 6.2.2.

Data from Kenya's pilot forest inventory was used to calculate above-ground biomass for forestland categories (dense, moderate, and open) in each stratum. Below-ground biomass was calculated using the shoot/root ratio as per IPCC default values as shown below in Table 6.3.

Total above and below-ground biomass was converted to carbon stocks and CO $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ emissions using the IPCC 2006 default values, as outlined in Table 6.4. Additionally, IPCC default values were applied to determine biomass stock factors for grassland categories. Specifically, wooded grasslands were assigned the default value for grasslands, while open grasslands were assigned half this value, based on expert judgement. An emission factor

for perennial croplands was derived from research data by Owate A.O et al. (2018), while the IPCC default values were used for annual croplands, wetlands, settlements, and other land types. To convert tree biomass to carbon stocks, the IPCC default value (multiplying biomass by 0.47) was used, followed by conversion to CO2 equivalent (multiplying by 44/12), as shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6-4: Table 6.4: Emission Factors for Various Land Use Categories

To calculate the change in carbon stocks due to afforestation, IPCC 2006 growth rate values for forests less than 20 years were applied (Table 6.5). The method also applies to growth rates due

to enhancement (where default IPCC values for forests greater than 20 years were applied).

Table 6-5: Afforestation and Enhancement Emission Factors

Emissions for this reporting period were estimated using a combination of Tier 1 and Tier 2 methodologies. For the Forestland category, country-specific emission factors were applied to determine carbon stock changes across various sub-categories within forestland. Where country-specific data was unavailable, default IPCC values were utilized. Conversions both to and from all sub-categories have been accounted for in the report.

To calculate annual activity data, it was assumed that the rate of conversion remains consistent. Additionally, for assigning emission factors, instantaneous oxidation was assumed for all forest degradation and deforestation activities.

For the cropland category, emissions from the perennial crops were estimated based on carbon stock changes in the biomass of perennial crops, using country-specific emission factors derived from a study on *Grevillea* conducted in Kenya by Owate et al. These calculations incorporated data on the annual area (ha) under perennial crops and changes in these areas compared to the previous year. For annual cropland, default IPCC values were applied.

Carbon stock changes in cropland soils were estimated using the Tier 1 methodology outlined in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories. This involved applying Equation 2.25 (2006 IPCC Guidelines, Vol. 4, Part 1, Chapter 2, p. 2.35) for mineral soils, using default reference soil organic carbon stocks from Table 2.3 (Vol. 4, Part 1, Chapter 5, p. 2.37)

6.4.3. Description of flexibility applied

The following flexibility provisions have been applied in this reporting, in light of Kenya's capacities:

Key Category Analysis was conducted only for level assessment, not for trend assessment, in line with Paragraph 25 of Decision 18/CMA.1, annex. This limitation arose from the assumption of unchanged land areas between 1990 and 2000, resulting in a lack of data to perform a trend assessment for the period 1990 to 2022.

for mineral soils with high-activity clay (HAC) in a dry climatic region. Stock change factors for different cropland management activities were derived from Table 5.5 (pp. 5.20–5.21). Conversion of stored carbon to COI-equivalent (COI-eq) units was achieved by applying the conversion factor (-44/12).

Default IPCC emission factors were used for the Grassland category. For wooded grasslands, a carbon stock of 8.7 tonnes of carbon per hectare, as specified in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, was adopted. It was assumed that open grasslands accumulate half the carbon stock of wooded grasslands.

To estimate emissions from grasslands, carbon stock changes in soils were calculated using the Tier 1 methodology of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories. This involved applying Equation 2.25 (2006 IPCC Guidelines, Vol. 4, Part 1, Chapter 2, p. 2.35 for mineral soils) with default factors from Table 6.2. Reference soil organic carbon stocks were selected from Table 2.3 (Vol. 4, Part 1, Chapter 5, p. 2.37) for mineral soils with high-activity clay (HAC). Conversion of carbon stocks to COI-equivalent (COI-eq) units was performed using the conversion factor (-44/12).

For the Wetland, Settlement, and Other Land categories, default emission factors from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines were applied. It was assumed that all land converted to these categories resulted in a carbon stock of zero. However, significant emissions were observed from conversions to these specific land categories.

- Uncertainty assessment was carried out qualitatively, following Paragraph 29 of Decision 18/CMA.1, annex, due to the unavailability of quantitative input data.
- In accordance with Paragraph 48 of Decision 18/ CMA.1, annex, only $CO₂$ emissions have been reported in this inventory. Non-CO₂ gases from forest fires and the decomposition of organic matter have not been included.

6.4.4. Uncertainty assessment and time-series consistency

The activity data used in this inventory exhibited some inconsistencies, which may have significantly contributed to uncertainties. The primary sources of uncertainty in activity data estimation stemmed from variations in the number of sample points interpreted for different reporting periods and differences in the interval between these periods.

For the Forestland category, emission factors were calculated based on representative sample points derived from the Pilot Forest Inventory (NFI). However, the small sample size likely resulted in relatively high uncertainty in these emission factors.

In the case of perennial cropland, emission factors were adopted from a study focused exclusively on agroforestry systems, specifically *Grevillea* species. These values were applied across all perennial cropland types, potentially introducing uncertainties when extrapolated to other types of perennial cropland.

For grasslands, uncertainties in emission factors arose from the adoption of tropical shrubland default values from Table 4.9 of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (Vol. 4, Chapter 4). Additionally, for the Open Grassland category, an expert judgment-based assumption was made to apply half of the tropical shrubland value, further contributing to uncertainty.

6.4.5. Category specific QA/QC and verification

QA/QC procedures for data collection were conducted in accordance with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, ensuring international comparability and consistency. To guarantee data accuracy and consistency, rigorous quality control measures were implemented to ensure the precise classification of land use categories. Additionally, the procedures for quality control were documented for transparency.

Data validation was carried out through both internal and external processes. The external validation involved a multi-stakeholder Technical Working Group, which reviewed the activity and emission factor data analysis to verify the accuracy and reliability of the results. The process also included an evaluation by external

experts to identify potential errors and inconsistencies, ensuring the data's overall accuracy and reliability. Data was stored securely and organized, with regular backups

to prevent loss. Data quality control procedures were also put in place to detect and correct any errors or inconsistencies. Detailed documentation of data collection, processing, and analysis methods was maintained through Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs), ensuring transparency and traceability.

This report was prepared in line with UNFCCC reporting principles, ensuring transparency, accuracy, clarity, completeness, and consistency.

6.4.6. Category-specific recalculations

No recalculations were applied to any of the categories.

6.4.7. Category-specific planned improvements

The following improvement plan (Table 6.7) is proposed to enable subsequent reporting from the different categories.

Table 6-6: Improvement plan for the LULUCF sector

Chapter 07: Waste

7.1. Sector Overview

The Constitution of Kenya (2010) provides the rights to a clean and healthy environment for each of her citizens and the responsibility to safeguard it is further elaborated in Kenya's development blueprint, Vision 2030. The Environment Management and Coordination Act, Sustainable Waste Management Act 2022 and the Public Health Act are the main legal frameworks key to waste management in Kenya. The Devolved Governance system has provided the management of waste as a function of the County Governments thus allowing them to enact laws that address their unique circumstances and needs including waste management. Besides these, there are other sectoral laws that address waste management such as in Water, Health and Forest sectors. Notably, the Sustainable Waste Management Act, 2022 establishes legal frameworks and provisions to enable Kenya harness large scale investment in waste recovery and recycling to reduce her GHG emissions and to ensure a healthy, safe and secure environment for all.

7.1.1. Description of the Sector

This section presents emissions from the management of both solid and wastewater in Kenya. According to the Sustainable Waste Management Policy (GoK, 2021), Kenya's populace generates an estimated 22,000 tons of waste per day calculated with the assumption of an average per capita waste generation of 0.5 kilogrammes for a population of 45 million people both from rural and urban settings which translates to approximately 8 million tonnes of solid waste annually. The main sources of waste are households, manufacturing, commerce, healthcare, agriculture and construction industries. Management practices of solid waste in Kenya includes disposal at the Municipal Solid Waste landfills, open burning, biological treatment and incineration. Approximately 3% of landfills can be classified as unmanaged deep while the rest are unmanaged shallow. Kenya's Second National Communication indicates a national average estimate of waste composition as 60% - 70% of waste being organic, 20% plastic, 10% paper, 1 % medical waste and 2% metal. The GHGs are emitted into the atmosphere from solid

Waste Management Policies

Kenya's waste sector is governed by various policies at the National and Sub-National levels. The Constitution of Kenya (CoK), 2010 and EMCA, 1999 lay a basis for management of the environment in a manner that guarantees citizens a clean and healthy environment for all. EMCA, 1999 and the Sustainable Waste Management Act, 2022 further give guidance on how waste is managed in Kenya. These legislations provide guidelines, procedures and

The Sustainable Waste Management Act, 2022 provides that NEMA establish a national waste information system for recording, collecting, management and analysis of data and information including, data on the quantity and type or classification of waste generated, stored, transported, treated, transformed, reduced, reused, recycled, recovered or disposed of. The County Governments are responsible for implementing the devolved function of waste management by establishing the financial and operational conditions for the effective performance of this function including maintaining data on waste management activities and sharing it with NEMA.

Other institutions identified to provide data for GHG reporting in the waste sector include the Ministry of Health's Public Health Department, and the Water and Sanitation Service Providers as well as the private sector entities that are required to provide actual quantities of waste generated. Solid waste management practices include collection, recycling, disposal on land, biological treatment, incineration and open burning of waste.

waste disposal sites, clinical waste incineration, open burning of waste and wastewater treatment systems.

Methane is the main GHG generated as a result of anaerobic decomposition of degradable organic waste in solid waste disposal sites. Clinical waste incineration emits CO₂ gas and N₂O while open burning of waste results in CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O gases. Wastewater treatment and discharge emits CH₄ and N₂O gases.

Kenya's Sustainable Waste Management Policy (GoK, 2021) indicates that only 40% of the population receive waste management services in major cities. Low income and informal settlements do not have waste collection systems.

Wastewater in Kenya emanates from domestic, commercial and industrial sources. This waste stream is either treated *onsite* (uncollected), sewered to a centralised plant (collected) or disposed untreated to a nearby or via an outfall such as a river, lake or sea.

standards for waste management. The legislations also give provision for the creation of institutions such as the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) and county-based departments that ensure compliance to these national laws. County Governments have been developing individual policies that govern the waste sector.

7.1.2. GHG Trends in the Sector

Kenya's GHG emissions by source and sub-categories from the waste sector for the period 1990 - 2022 are presented in Table 7.1. Figure 7.1 gives the trends of total emissions for the same period. The total Waste sector emissions for the year 2022 were **5,237** GgCO_{2eq}. Most of these emissions were from domestic wastewater that contributed **4,055.19** Gg CO_{2eq} (79%) of the total Waste sector emissions.

Municipal solid waste disposal contributed a further 14% of waste emissions while open burning of waste contributed 5% together with clinical waste incineration which were deemed as negligible (0.05205 GgCO₂₀₀). Waste GHG emissions increased from **2,171.4** GgCO_{2eq} in 1990 to **5,237** GgCO_{2eq} in 2022. This increase is a result of growth in population size, urbanisation and industrial growth.

This GHG trend is attributed to Kenya's population, which has continued to expand exponentially over the years, as well as the country's economy, which has equally continued to grow throughout the inventory period. These factors, coupled with a favourable macro-economic environment continue to influence waste generation and management dynamics. In contrast to the past, there are policies that guide different actors in the waste sector. Generally, GHG emissions have significantly risen over the years with some slight variations in some years. In the year 2018, for instance, there was a drop in the consumption of plastic bags owing to the implementation of a policy that banned the use of single-use plastic bags towards the end of 2017. It is equally notable that the percentage of waste deposited in dumpsites in the year 2020 was slightly higher. This could be attributed to the curfew/ban on travel that saw many people under lockdown at home during the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak and the ability of county governments to ferry more waste to the dumpsites owing to the reduced road traffic flow, hence more trips. In addition to this, the emissions were also dictated by the adoption of new policies on waste management by county governments postdevolution kick-off and resultant interventions.

Figure 7-1: Emission Trends in Waste by Source Categories from 1990-2022

Solid waste disposal's contribution to the total waste sector emissions in 2022 is 14% (727.4 Gg CO_{2eq}). Incineration of Clinical waste and open burning of waste is 9 % (321.4 GgCO $_{_{\mathrm{2eq}}}$). Contribution of wastewater treatment and discharge to the total

waste emissions is 77% (4,055.1 Gg CO_{2e0}) as shown in Figure 7-2 while Figure 7-3 depicts the percentage share of waste emissions by gas type in the year 2022.

Figure 7-2: Percentage share in Waste by Source Categories in 2022

7.1.3. General Methodological Aspects of the Waste sector

The GHG emissions estimates from the waste sector in Kenya for the inventory period $1990 - 2022$ were based on the 2006 IPCC Guidelines under different methodologies. The primary data sources for the analysis of GHG emissions for each category of waste are illustrated in Table 7-3. Table 7-2 shows a summary of approaches used to estimate the waste sector categories.

GHG Source and Sink Category Tier		CO ₂		CH,		N, O		Details
		E.F	Tier	E.F	Tier	E.F		
4.A	Solid waste disposal			T ₂	Default value			FOD model
4.B	Clinical waste incineration	T _{2a}	DV					2006 IPCC GL
4.C	Open burning of waste	T ₂	DV	T ₂	DV			Country Specific data used with IPCC default values
4.D	Wastewater treatment			T ₂	DV	T ₂	DV	CS data used with IPCC default values

Table 7-2: Methodologies used by categories

Table 7-3: Data Sources for each Waste Category

Detailed results for each of the waste source categories for the inventory period 1990 to 2022 are discussed in the sections below. The categories include Solid Waste Disposal (SWD),

Incineration and Open Burning of Waste, and Wastewater Treatment and Discharge.

7.2. Solid Waste Disposal

7.2.1. Description and Trend of GHGs

Municipal solid waste in Kenya is not uniformly disposed of across the country. Under the Constitution of Kenya 2010, the solid waste management function is devolved and is, as such, decentralised and undertaken by county governments. It is worth noting that some counties are largely urban-based while others are a blend of rural and urban setups. Nairobi City County is the only sub-national government that weighs municipal solid waste as it is hauled into the solely designated dumpsite (Dandora dumpsite). Other county governments rely on estimated figures and other statistical methods to determine the volumes of waste that find its way to their dumpsites. Residents in rural areas prefer burning their waste within their precincts or just bury the same

in shallow pits. The Sustainable Management Act, 2022 provides for the measures and actions for waste collection, segregation and disposal. However, in the current urban settings, waste is collected from designated and other sites on scheduled days or as may be dictated by resource availability and dispatch. Waste is generally disposed of in its unsegregated form with waste picking happening at the transfer stations or the final disposal sites. Dumpsites are either officially designated or illegal, and levels of management vary from one site to another. Often, there are pockets of open waste burning in selected areas of the country. The depth of the disposal sites is not standard, and neither is the mode of management of the facilities.

Figure 7-4: Emissions from municipal solid waste (1990-2022)

Total solid waste disposal emissions have increased by 139% from 246 Gg CO_{2eq} in 1990 to 727.4 Gg CO_{2eq} (Table 7-1). The reasons for this observation are due to the use of the FOD method which introduces an in-built lag-effect which means that the reported emissions from solid waste disposal sites in a given year could be a result of solid waste disposed over a few decades ago hence constantly degrading over time depending on their composition and individual decomposition rates. There is no documented CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ captured for energy or flaring purposes in the country. Likewise, the percentage of recycled organic waste is low; hence another reason for the observed increase in emissions.

Waste is closely linked to population, urbanisation and the standards of living. Urban and rural populations have increased significantly during the inventory period. The increase in income levels of the growing middle-income class has spurred change in consumer behaviour, which has also resulted in the rise in both liquid and solid waste production.

7.2.2. Methodological aspects of SWD

Data on solid waste collected and disposed of in dumpsites was collected from 22 out of 47 counties in Kenya. It included the volumes deposited in the designated sites and other characterisations of the waste sites, which were unmanaged and uncategorised solid waste sites. Types of disposal sites were either unmanaged shallow or unmanaged deep. The weights were based on real-time scales while in other situations, they were based on estimates obtained through expert judgement. It is the City County of Nairobi that is currently able to weigh its waste before disposing of it at the dump site.

Waste stream composition data such as food, garden, paper, plastics, metal, wood, glass and their mixtures were informed by

surveys and publications that are publicly accessible. Regional averages from countries with similar conditions were used as well.

Emission estimation was done using the First Order Decay (FOD) method (Tier 2) as provided in the IPCC software to estimate CH $_4$ emissions from solid waste disposal. The method was based on historical to current data on volumes of waste collected at the disposal sites, climatic conditions of Kenya, composition of waste (fractions) and disposal practices for several decades. Historical data was used backdating to 1950 in order to record more accurate $CH₄$ emissions and also to avoid underestimation of the emissions.

The estimates of emissions were calculated using IPCC equation 3.1 below;

Where:

CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ emissions = CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ emitted in year T, Gg

- $T =$ inventory year
- X = waste category or type/material
- RT = recovered CH₄ in year T, Gg
- OX_{τ} = oxidation factor in year T, (fraction)

The CH $_{\scriptscriptstyle 4}$ recovered must be subtracted from the amount of CH $_{\scriptscriptstyle 4}$ generated. Only the fraction of CH $_{\tiny 4}$ that is not recovered will be subject to oxidation in the SWDS cover layer. However, in Kenya there is no quantified CH₄ recovered. A default value (0) was used for Methane Recovery in the inventory period 1990 – 2022.

7.2.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Flexibility was applied in different situations. Data collection stage called for adjustment in filling data sheets to ensure accommodation of county governments that had real-time weigh scales and those that relied on estimations to determine waste received at dumpsites. Equally, determination of the

were calculated using the IPCC software using the available activity data to get resultant GHGs which are CH₄, N₂O and CO₂.

On the incineration and open burning of waste category; there is waste that is openly burned and those incinerated within medical facilities referred to as clinical waste. The emissions

level of management of the dumpsites, and at times waste characterisation called for flexibility as was guided by expert judgement. It was necessary to apply flexibility when determining the magnitude of open waste burning, especially in situations where measurements were unavailable.

7.2.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Uncertainties in data can be attributed to data gaps in different years. In such circumstances, the data was calculated from existent population data, and the country's waste per capita. Such uncertainties are in the ranges of +/-30%, especially in areas where data on waste generation was collected on a regular basis. In addition to this, there were situations when estimations were done for waste generation by way of extrapolation based on population census using a constant. Uncertainties could also have resulted from characterisation of landfills; in the Kenyan situation, characterisation fell between unmanaged shallow and unmanaged deep dumpsites. Aspects of use of default values from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, waste generation, composition, dominant climatic conditions, waste treatment type as well as waste management type adopted also contribute to uncertainties and overall, this category registers an uncertainty of +/- 30%.

The composition of waste segments has been demonstrated to change over time thereby influencing the amount of GHG emissions. The ever-changing composition over the years in the urban as well as rural settings contributes to the uncertainty aspect. The time that it takes for different components of municipal waste to degrade over time influences emissions in different parts of Kenya. They are affected by elements such as prevailing temperatures, content of moisture in the waste and the waste streams therein. These inconsistencies have been handled through application of studies that have explained waste composition for major cities of Kenya.

Consistency of time series has been addressed by way of ensuring that the same methodologies as well as emission factors for estimating emissions from this sector were applied throughout the inventory period uniformly. It is also necessary to indicate that checks for data quality were done for all the sets from the

22 sub-nationals that were used. The data was provided by competent offices authorised to process and handle the same.

7.2.5. QA/QC for Solid Waste Disposal

Quality assurance and quality control checks are inseparable. They play a pivotal role in ensuring good quality data that passes the test of time. In the inventory process, there were several stages at which quality was tested for purposes of ensuring consistency, accuracy and flow as was envisaged. At no time were there limitations to revision and checks on previously concluded work.

Verification was conducted on the statistics used and the sources of data. An international reviewer assessed the quality of the data and its sources and ensured that the correct format for the inventory process was being adhered to.

At the data collection stage, it was mandatory that data only emanated from authenticated sources at the county administrative levels. This data was then exposed, validated and compared with sources similar to what was provided. This was done for all data emanating from identified county governments.

Data cleaning was also done for purposes of ensuring that any outliers and anomalies were addressed appropriately. In regard to calculation procedures applied, careful choice and application of the right methodologies that align with the IPCC guidelines was done. This was subsequently followed by performance of independent checks to see to it that the corrections were done accurately.

7.2.6. Solid Waste - Specific Recalculations

The 2006 IPCC Guidelines were used in Kenya for estimation of emissions in the inventory period of 1990-2022. Emissions from the sub sector were not subjected to recalculations. However, there was a methodological refinement occasioned by the utilisation of data obtained from a wider geographical coverage. Emissions from Solid waste disposal have been estimated at tier 2 level in the inventory due to the availability of data sourced from 22 out of 47 counties from the year 2010 to 2022 and combined with data from Nairobi County which had been used for the years before; that is: 1990-2010 to calculate a national estimate. Hence, the two sets of data were combined using the splicing techniques with the most representative form to ensure there is time-series consistency as guided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines.

7.2.7. Planned Improvements in SWD

There is need to improve on data management, especially at the county level since waste is a devolved function. It is imperative to note that not all counties have active databases on municipal solid waste management, yet they are the administrative units tasked with waste management. For accurate and efficient GHG estimation in the waste sector, the following measures will be required;

- establishment and operationalisation of the Waste management information system as envisioned in the Sustainable Waste Management Act, 2022,
- regular training of data providers on data generation and composition estimation techniques,

The below activities were performed as part of the methodological refinement;

- Waste generation rates were adjusted using several scientific research data (JICA). Years with surveys on specific waste characterisation were also considered. Default values were applied in historical years with no surveys.
- The types of disposal sites utilised across the country were also adjusted with the availability of the counties' data.

Calculations were category specific as determined by existent situations. Existent IPCC guidelines and their subsequent revised versions dictated different parameters and limits within which categories fell. Equally, previous reports set pace on the manner in which calculations were done and presented.

- capacity building on appropriate classification of disposal sites is important and data on quantities that are disposed of into them including their compositions,
- it is also critical that Kenya takes steps geared towards $CH₄$ recovery from the dumpsites and document the same,
- biological treatment of municipal solid waste would go a long way in ensuring little harm to the environment at relatively low costs. This would only be achieved if adequate and proper awareness creation is done and knowledge & skills impacted on the citizenry.

7.3. Biological Treatment of Solid Waste

This category comprises composting and the anaerobic digestion of organic waste. Biogas production is essential for energy use, and the use of organic waste as fertiliser helps in reduced volumes of waste material under this category. CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ and N $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ O are the gases that are reported herein.

This category was not estimated for its GHGs in Kenya as activity data was scanty and insignificant. Biological treatment of solid waste is not a key category in Kenya at the moment.

7.4. Incineration and Open Burning of Waste

7.4.1. Description and Trend of GHGs

In this category, the estimation of emissions resulting from Solid Waste Disposal was calculated in terms of Waste Incineration (Clinical Waste) and Open Burning of Solid Waste, which are a common waste management practice in Kenya. Incineration is the combustion of solid and liquid waste in controlled incineration facilities. Open burning of waste is the combustion of unwanted combustible materials such as paper, wood, plastics, textiles, rubber, waste oils and other debris in open air or in open dumps, where smoke and other emissions are released directly into the air without passing through a chimney or a stack. The incineration of solid waste in Kenya is approved and licenced by the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA).

More emissions are recorded when large amounts of waste are incinerated or open-burned without energy recovery. Only CO₂ emissions resulting from the combustion of carbon in waste of fossil origin (e.g. plastics) are included in the national emissions estimates while CO₂ emissions from combustion of biomass

materials (e.g. paper, food, wood) contained in the waste are biogenic emissions and should not be included. GHGs emitted from this category are $CO_{2'}$ CH₄ and N₂O.

CH, emissions are a result of incomplete combustion, especially from open burning, where a large fraction of the carbon in the waste is not completely oxidised. N_2 O results from the incomplete combustion of nitrogen-containing components. Fossil CO₂ is the main GHG that was estimated under the clinical waste incineration sub-category for the inventory year 1990-2022, while $CO_{2'}$ CH₄ and N₂O were estimated from open burning.

Table 7-4 and Figure 7-5 provide emissions trends in incineration and open burning of waste for the period 1990 to 2022.

Emissions from incineration and open burning of waste rose from 151.9 Gg CO_{2eq} to 454.4 Gg CO_{2eq} in 2022. Emissions from waste incineration alone rose marginally from r from 0.0017 Gg $CO_{2.99}$ in 1990 to 0.052 Gg CO_{2eq} in 2022 (Figure 7-4).

Figure 7-5: Trend of emissions in Incineration and Open Burning of waste 1990-2022

1. Waste Incineration

A rise in the amount of fossil CO₂ gas emanating from health facilities that practise clinical waste incineration has been noted. This is due to the fact that the number of those facilities has increased as the waste management policies emerge, human population increase, and the transformation of the economic profile of the country.

According to WHO, waste generated in Kenya is 0.5 kg/day per patient of which 20% is infectious; and thus, treated through incineration (burn), autoclaving (non-burn) and microwaves (non-burn). These technologies are used in the elimination of bio-hazardous, biomedical, infectious wastes, sharps/blades, body parts, contaminated animal carcasses and pathogens. Relevant to Kenya's GHG emissions is the use of incinerators in health facilities which contribute to some degree of emissions.

Incinerators are fitted in Level 6, 5 and in some cases Level 4 hospitals in the Counties of Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru, Kisumu, Nyeri, Nakuru and Uasin Gishu. Incinerator models and their performances are as follows; Today's Mathews - 75kg/hr, China Pad (50kg/hr) and Fine Pro (50kg/hr) these are fitted in hospitals such as Jaramogi Oginga Odinga Teaching and Referral Hospital (JOOTRH), Coast General Teaching and Referral Hospital (CGTRH),

2. Open Burning of Waste

CO₂ emissions resulting from open burning in Kenya are mainly attributed to the burning of Municipal Solid Waste. The composition of this waste comprises food waste, garden and park, disposable nappies, paper and cardboard, textile, wood and inert, which includes plastics, glass, metal, rubber and leather, which all contribute differently to the emission of GHGs depending on

Moi Teaching and Referral Hospital (MTRH), Mama Lucy Kibaki Hospital, Mbagathi Hospital, Pumwani Maternity Hospital and Nyeri County Referral Hospital.

The Kenya National Guidelines on safe management of healthcare waste requires health facilities to dispose of ashes from incinerators in a lined ash pit which prevents uncontrolled disposal of the ash and its spread on the environment. For non-burn technologies, the guidelines require the shredded waste to be disposed of in a landfill. However, in Kenya, there are no landfills and hence disposal is done to the Municipal Solid Waste Disposal Sites.

The health sector has a strategic and legal framework that supports the realisation of sound management of healthcare waste (herein referred to as clinical waste). In the Healthcare Waste Management (HCWM) Strategic Plan 2015-2020, one of the 6 strategic priority investment areas is investing in Best Available Technologies (BAT) and Best Environmental Practices (BEP) in order to mitigate against adverse human and environmental risks and pollution. The implementation of this plan has been actualised by developing a sector HCWM implementation plan 2016-2021.

their fraction of fossil carbon in total carbon (FCF). Burning of municipal waste is practised in the rural and urban settings alike. In some situations, waste burning takes place in uncategorized waste dumpsites and, on rare occasions, recorded in the categorised open dumps. Open burning of waste is against the existing national legal statutes in Kenya.

7.4.2. Methodological aspects of Incineration and Open Burning of Waste

Estimation of the amount of fossil carbon in the waste burned is the most important factor in determining CO $_{_2}$ emissions. Activity data for both clinical waste incinerated and open burned waste were obtained as total amounts in wet weight for the estimation of GHGs in this category.

Activity data for waste incinerated mainly consisted of clinical waste that is treated through incineration. Activity data such as fraction of dry matter content (dm), fraction of carbon in dry matter (CF), fraction of fossil carbon in total carbon (FCF) and an oxidation factor (OF) were used as default 2006 IPCC values to estimate fossil CO₂ emissions from waste incineration of clinical waste under a Tier 2a Approach. Clinical waste data sources were from health institutions fitted with functional waste disposal infrastructure like incinerators of waste and Microwaves for non-burn technologies. These data were obtained from the Ministry of Health (MoH) online reporting system (DHIS2 MoH 2019) for waste generated by in-patient bed capacity. Per capita waste generation of 0.5 kg per day per patient was used for this analysis.

Estimation of CO2 Emissions from Clinical Waste Incineration and Open Burning of Waste

For MSW, the calculation of CO2 emissions was done on the basis of waste types/material (such as paper, wood, and plastics) in the waste incinerated or open-burned, as shown in Equation 5.2.

EQUATION 5.2 CO₂ EMISSION ESTIMATE BASED ON THE MSW COMPOSITION CO_2 Emissions = MSW $\bullet \sum (WF_j \bullet dm_j \bullet CF_j \bullet FCF_j \bullet OF_j) \bullet 44/12$

Where:

CO₂ emissions = CO₂ emissions in inventory year, Gg/yr

MSW = total amount of municipal solid waste as wet weight incinerated or open-burned, Gg/yr

 WF_j = fraction of waste type/material of component j in the MSW (as wet weight incinerated or open burned)

dmj = dry matter content in the component *j* of the MSW incinerated or open-burned, (fraction)

CF^j = fraction of carbon in the dry matter (i.e., carbon content) of component *j*

FCF_i = fraction of fossil carbon in the total carbon of component

OF_j = oxidation factor, (fraction)

 $44/12$ = conversion factor from C to CO₂

with: Σ $_{\rm j}$ WF $_{\rm j}$ =1

j = component of the MSW incinerated/open-burned such as paper/cardboard, textiles, food waste, wood, garden (yard) and park waste, disposable nappies, rubber and leather, plastics, metal, glass, other inert waste.

Estimation of CH4 emissions from Open Burning of Waste

 CH_4 emissions from open burning occur where a large fraction of carbon in the waste is not oxidised. The calculation of CH₄ emissions was based on the amount of waste in wet weights

open-burned and on the Methane Emission Factor (Kg CH₄/Gg) under a Tier 2 methodology as shown in Equation 5.4 below.

EQUATION 5.4 CH4 EMISSION ESTIMATE BASED ON THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF WASTE COMBUSTED

 CH_4 Emissions = $\sum (IW_i \bullet EF_i) \bullet 10^{-6}$

Where:

CH₄ Emissions = CH₄ emissions in inventory year, Gg/yr

IW_i = amount of solid waste of type **i** incinerated or open-burned, Gg/yr

EF_i = aggregate CH₄ emission factor, kg CH₄/Gg of waste

10-6 = conversion factor from kilogram to gigagram

i = category or type of waste incinerated/open-burned, specified as follows:

MSW: municipal solid waste, ISW: industrial solid waste, HW: hazardous waste,

CW: clinical waste, SS: sewage sludge, others (that must be specified)

Estimation of N2O emissions from Open Burning of Waste

The calculation of N₂O emissions was based on the waste input to the incinerators or the amount of waste open-burned (dry weight) and a default emission factor (Nitrous Oxide Emission

Factor (Kg $\rm N_{2}O$ /Gg Dry Waste)) and was calculated under Tier 2 methodology. This relationship is summarised in the following Equation 5.5:

EQUATION 5.5 $\mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}$ EMISSION ESTIMATE BASED ON THE WASTE INPUT TO THE INCINERATORS N_2O Emissions = $\sum_i (IW_i \bullet EF_i) \bullet 10^{-6}$

Where:

N₂O Emissions = N₂O emissions in inventory year, Gg/yr

IW_i = amount of waste incinerated/open-burned waste of type **i**, Gg/yr

EF_i = N₂O emission factor (kg N₂O /Gg of waste) for waste of type *i*

10-6 = conversion from kilogram to gigagram

i = category or type of waste incinerated/open-burned, specified as follows:

MSW: municipal solid waste, ISW: industrial solid waste, HW: hazardous waste,

CW: clinical waste, SS: sewage sludge, others (that must be specified)

Composites of municipal solid waste that underwent open burning such as food, wood, plastics, paper were disaggregated in the IPCC Software and default values applied on averages

calculated from the 22 counties activity data to generate fossil and biogenic emissions.

7.4.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

Flexibility was applied when determining the volume of openly burned waste. It was also applied to determine the apportioning of different waste streams, especially in counties that hadn't undertaken studies on waste characterisation before. Flexibility

was necessary in determining the overall climatic zone under which to place Kenya considering the fact that counties experienced different climatic conditions throughout the year.

7.4.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

The composition of waste segments has been demonstrated to change over time, and so are the volumes of waste that are burned in the open. The ever-changing composition over the years in the urban as well as rural settings contributes to the uncertainty aspect. In addition to this, the adoption and implementation of the use of plastic for packaging has, in a large way, influenced the volumes and, therefore, the level of GHGs from open burning.

Consistency of time series in the inventory period 1990-2022 has been addressed by way of ensuring that the same methodologies, as well as emission factors for estimating emissions from this sector, were applied throughout and uniformly. It is also necessary to indicate that checks for data quality were done for all the datasets from the 22 regions that were used. The data was provided by competent offices authorised to process and handle the same.

7.4.5. QA/QC for Incineration and Open Burning of Waste

At the data collection stage, it was mandatory that data only came from official sources at the county administrative levels. This data was then exposed to cross-check points and compared with sources similar to what was provided. This was done for all data emanating from identified county governments. Data validation checks were also done for the purpose of ensuring that any outliers and anomalies were addressed appropriately. In regard to calculation procedures applied, careful choice and application of the right methodologies that align to IPCC guidelines was done. This was subsequently followed by the performance of independent checks to see to it that the corrections were correct.

7.4.6. Incineration and Open Burning of Waste-Specific Recalculations

Calculations were category-specific as determined by existent situations. Existent IPCC guidelines and their subsequent revised versions dictated different parameters and limits within which categories fell. Equally, previous reports set the pace for the manner in which calculations were done and presented. Extrapolation of data acquired was used as the best technique to cover the data for years that were missing, which were 1990-1995 and 2015-2022.

7.4.7. Planned Improvements in Incineration and Open Burning of Waste

Adequate capacity-building sessions, especially among the administrative wing at the county government level, will be undertaken so as to address data gaps on matters of open waste burning.

The use of non-burn technologies will greatly reduce CO₂ emissions henceforth for clinical waste incineration.

7.5. Waste Water Treatment and Discharge

7.5.1. Description and Trend of GHGs

This category comprises Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment and Discharge. Industrial sectors include paper and pulp, beer and malt, dairy products, and beverage processing and manufacturing. Kenya has no separate or dedicated treatment works for industrial wastewater; hence, most of it is discharged into domestic wastewater facilities post-treatment. Therefore, Industrial wastewater's emissions have not been estimated in this inventory.

CH $_4$ and N $_2$ O are the main gases emitted from Domestic Wastewater Treatment and Discharge. CO $_2$ emissions from wastewater are of biogenic origin and are not included in national total emissions. Wastewater in Kenya emanates from domestic, commercial and industrial sources. This waste may be treated on site (uncollected), sewered to a centralised plant (collected) or disposed untreated to a nearby or via an outfall such as a river, lake or sea. Domestic wastewater in Kenya can be treated in centralized plants, pit latrines, septic systems or disposed of in unmanaged lagoons or waterways via open or closed sewers. Some industrial facilities have in-plant treatment systems before releasing the effluent into domestic wastewater systems or to nearby water ways.

Wastewater is a source of CH₄ when treated or disposed anaerobically. CH₄ generation depends primarily on the amount of degradable organic material in the wastewater, the surrounding temperature and the type of treatment system. Total Organically Degradable material in wastewater (TOW) is a function of human population and Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) generation per person expressed as kg BOD/year. N₂O emissions are associated with the degradation of nitrogen components in the wastewater such as urea, nitrates and proteins. Activity data required is nitrogen content in the wastewater effluent, country population and average annual per capita protein consumption in kg/person/year. N₂O emissions occur as indirect emissions from wastewater after disposal of treated effluent into a receiving waterbody or waterways such as river, lake or ocean.

In the urban areas of Kenya, the sewerage systems consist of a closed underground network which conveys their sewage to a treatment plant. The sewers are however prone to blockage resulting in a high number of overflows into the environment. This has a direct impact on the rise in CH₄ emissions as the wastewater is subject to direct heating from the sun or the sewers may be stagnant allowing for anaerobic reactions to occur which becomes a perfect environment for the formation of the gas The blockages are mainly attributed to washed away sections of the sewers, accidental breakages or deliberate vandalism of manhole covers, blockages due to deliberate dumping of solid waste, accidental entry of stones and boulders into open manholes and blockages of sewer lines by urban farmers in order to trap sewage for irrigation and overflowing of sewers due to insufficient capacity.

When the overflow problem is adequately addressed, an optimally operating closed sewer would have minimal contribution of CH, emissions.

Industrial effluent is mostly pre-treated before being discharged into the domestic wastewater sewerage system. This makes it difficult to quantify volumes of industrial liquid waste since there doesn't exist a dedicated sewage treatment plant for industrial wastewater treatment in Kenya. Therefore, a professional judgement that industrial waste is equivalent to 10% of domestic wastewater was made.

At the national level, it is estimated that sewer coverage for the Kenyan populace stands at 16%. It therefore means that a substantive fraction of the country falls under the on-site sanitation treatment of wastewater which consists of latrines, septic tanks and open defecation which occurs in informal settlements in Kenya's urban areas.

Table 7-5 and Figure 7-6 show the trends for Methane and Nitrous Oxide emissions from Domestic Wastewater Treatment and Discharge. Methane Emission rose from 1552.1 Gg CO_{2eq} in 1990 to 3548.9 Gg-CO_{2eq} in 2022, while that of N2O more than doubled from 221.4 Gg $CO_{2\text{eq}}$ to 506.2 Gg $CO_{2\text{eq}}$.

This trend could be associated with the steady rise in human population over the inventory period of 1990-2022, therefore an increase in volumes of wastewater generated. This in turn has led to an increase in CH₄ and N₂O emissions which are the main emissions from wastewater. Figure 7-6 below illustrate this phenomenon.

Figure 7-6: Domestic wastewater treatment emissions trends 1990-2022

7.5.2. Methodological aspects of the category

Tier 2 methodology and 2006 IPCC default emission factors were used to estimate both CH₄ and N₂O emissions from wastewater. Emissions are a function of the amount of organic waste generated and an emission factor (organically degradable material in wastewater in Kg BOD/yr.) that characterises the extent to which this waste generates CH₄ gas. Activity data applied here was country population, a weighted Emission Factor (Kg CH₄/Kg BOD) with total organic matter in the wastewater in kg BOD/year and country's BOD in g/person/day and the use of a correction factor (1.25 in this case) for additional industrial wastewater that is treated together with domestic wastewater. The weighted emission factor (Kg CH₄/Kg BOD) was calculated as a product of the fraction of population in income group (Rural, Urban high income, Urban low income), degree of utilization of a type of treatment and discharge pathway or system (e.g. septic system, latrine, open or closed flowing sewer, anaerobic deep lagoon and sea, river and lake discharge) and an emission factor (Maximum methane producing capacity (B_o)* Methane Conversion Factor (MCF)).

 N_{2} O emissions are derived from urea and ammonia present in the wastewater which are as a result of protein intake by the populace. Protein intake is a function of population and protein generated. This multiplied by a default IPCC emission factor for N_{2} O gives the emissions from domestic wastewater nitrogen effluent.

The general equation to estimate CH₄ emissions from domestic wastewater is equation 6.1 below from IPCC guidelines.

Where:

 CH_4 **Emissions** = CH₄ emissions in inventory year, kg CH₄/yr

TOW = total organics in wastewater in inventory year, kg BOD/yr

S = organic component removed as sludge in inventory year, kg BOD/yr

U_i = fraction of population in income group i in inventory year, See Table 6.5.

Ti,j = degree of utilisation of treatment/discharge pathway or system, *j*, for each income group fraction *i* in inventory year, See Table 6.5.

i = income group: rural, urban high income and urban low income

j = each treatment/discharge pathway or system

 $\textsf{EF}_{\textsf{i}}$ = emission factor, kg CH $_4$ / kg BOD

 ${\sf R}$ = amount of CH₄ recovered in inventory year, kg CH₄/yr

The simplified general equation for estimating N₂O from domestic wastewater is equation 6.7

EQUATION 6.7 N₂O EMISSIONS FROM WASTEWATER EFFLUENT

 N_2O Emissions = $N_{EFFLUENT}$ • EF_{EFFLUENT} • 44/28

Where:

N₂O emissions = N₂O emissions in inventory year, kg N₂O /yr

N EFFLUENT = nitrogen in the effluent discharged to aquatic environments, kg N/yr

 $\sf EF_{EFFluent}$ = emission factor for N₂O emissions from discharge to wastewater, kg N₂O -N/kg N

The factor 44/28 is the conversion of kg N₂O -N into kg N₂O.

In this report, data from 12 utilities spread across Kenya was used most of which have similar characteristics of influent and effluent wastewater managed. This is majorly because they are regulated by the same government agencies that regularly check on their compliance. The main variable here is the country's population data.

The largest utility in terms of connectivity and handling of large volumes of wastewater from the population served is Nairobi City Water and Sewerage Company (NCWSC0) which treats 200,000m³ received wastewater per day with a sewer network of approximately 2,000 km length and serves about 50% of the Nairobi population. The influent into this sewage treatment plant is 500 mg/l which forms the basis for CH₄ and N₂O emissions.

7.5.3. Description of any Flexibility applied

There was flexibility applied in data collection. It was assumed that all the wastewater treatment plants in Kenya recorded similar BOD's. It was also assumed that the calculation methods used to derive results in all the sampled wastewater treatment facilities were standardised.

7.5.4. Uncertainty and consistency of the time series

Wastewater data from the 12 utilities that were selected in Kenya has been collected over time and is regulated by various government agencies. The data came from the following water utilities: Bomet, Eldoret, Embu, Homa Bay, Isiolo, Kericho, Kakamega, Kisii, Kisumu, Mombasa, Nairobi and Trans-Nzoia. The volume of waste generated has steadily increased from 60,000 m³/day in 2010 to 200,000 m³/day in 2022.

While the data acquired is reliable, the number of utilities that provided the data were a small representation. Only 12 wastewater treatment facilities were selected. This can be considered as a small representation of the entire country with over 70 water utilities.

7.5.5. QA/QC

Data provided from the 12 wastewater treatment facilities is verifiable and corresponds to the population and number of sewer connections. The volume of industrial waste is presumed to be at 10% percent of the domestic waste and also correlates well with the volume of water consumed by the industrial facilities.

7.5.6. Category Specific recalculations

Wastewater emissions have been recalculated to a tier 2 level in the inventory due to the availability of data sourced from 12 utilities out of the many wastewater treatment plants available in Kenya from the year 2010 to 2022 and combined with surrogate data and 2006 IPCC default values which had been used for the years before that is 1990-2010 to calculate a national estimate. Hence, the two sets of data were combined using the splicing techniques with the most representative form to ensure there is time-series consistency as guided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines.

Calculations were category specific as determined by existent situations. Existent IPCC guidelines and their subsequent revised versions dictated different parameters and limits within which categories fell. Equally, previous reports set pace on the manner in which calculations were done and presented.

7.5.7. Planned Improvements on Wastewater Treatment and Discharge

Provision or acquisition of specific, detailed and segregated data from the water utilities. Estimations for some of the emissions were based on default values due to lack of adequate data for some of the parameters or values required.

Increase the number of utilities that provide data as a representation of the country's situation.

Annex I. Improvement Plan Annex I. Improvement Plan

Annex II: Tier 2 Approach-Modelling of Dairy Cattle

Dairy Cattle (Tier 2)

Dairy Cattle Population

Official data are available at the State Department of Livestock (SDL) on the total population of dairy cattle for each year from 1990 to 2022. Since 2012, the national total has been derived from the sum of dairy cattle populations reported by each county to the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Irrigation, and is available by county. Prior to 2012, the data was collected through the administrative statistics system of the ministry and is available by province and county.

Allocating each county to a production system results in proportions of the total dairy cattle population in each system as shown in Figure 5.11. The figure shows a decrease in livestock population in the semi-intensive system between the early 2000's and 2009, followed by an increase. The decrease may be due to successive and prolonged droughts during these years. In 2020

it will be possible to cross-check the 2019 reported population data against the results of the 2019 census, to verify the trend since 2010.

The official data do not distinguish different sub-categories of dairy cattle, and only give the total dairy cattle population. The structure of dairy herds (i.e., the proportion of each animal subcategory) in each production system was estimated using data from a large-scale repeat survey conducted by the Tegemeo Institute in 2000, 2004, 2007, 2010 and 2014, supplemented by literature reports. Applying the estimated herd structure to the official dairy cattle population statistics gives a population of each sub-category of dairy cattle in each production system in each inventory year as shown in Table 5.13:

Enteric fermentation dairy cattle Tier 2

a. Methodological issues

This section summarizes the methods and data used in the Tier 2 inventory to estimate dairy cattle enteric fermentation emissions. Supporting data is presented in the annexes. For detailed description of data sources and methods used in data compilation, analysis and calculation of emissions, see SDL (2023).

b. Emissions model and inventory structure

Enteric fermentation emissions have been estimated using the IPCC Tier 2 model (IPCC 2006, Vol 4, Ch 10, Equations 10.3- 10.16). These equations were used to estimate emissions from 15 categories of dairy cattle.

In Kenya's national livestock population statistics, dairy cattle are distinguished from beef cattle. During census activities and administrative statistics reporting, dairy cattle in Kenya are defined as cattle with some percentage of genetics from exotic dairy breeds. Common dairy cattle breeds include Friesian, Ayrshire, Jersey and Guernsey. The national livestock population data for dairy cattle include all sub-categories of dairy cattle of these breeds. In this inventory, 5 sub-categories are identified:

- Dairy cows: Dairy cows that have calved at least once;
- Heifers: Female cattle > 1 year old that have not calved;
- Adult males: Bulls and oxen > 3 years old;
- Growing males: Males > 1 year old and <3 years old;
- Male and female calves: Calves <1 year old.

Separate calculations were made for each dairy cattle subcategory in each of three production systems: intensive, semiintensive and extensive. These production systems are based on three common feeding systems for dairy cattle in Kenya: zero-grazing (i.e. stall feeding only), a mix of stall feeding and grazing (referred to as 'semi-zero grazing'), and grazing only. The definition of each production system is as follows:

Intensive: The population of dairy cattle in a county is defined as being in the intensive production system if

c. Dairy cattle population

Official data are available at the State Department of Livestock Development (SDLD) on the total population of dairy cattle for each year from 1995 to 2023. Prior to 2012, the data was collected through the administrative statistics system of the ministry and is available by province and county. Since 2012, the national total has been derived from the sum of dairy cattle

The T2 method is applied by using mainly country-specific parameters. Necessary data for T2 calculations are mainly gathered from the Statistics Unit of the Directorate of Livestock Production (DLP), Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development, and academic publications

zero-grazing is the most common feeding system used at household level

- **Semi-intensive:** Semi-intensive is indicated if semi-zero grazing is the most common feeding system; and
- **Extensive:** extensive is indicated if grazing only feeding systems are the most common feeding system in the county.

Each of Kenya's 47 counties was allocated to one of these production systems based on the estimated prevalence of different feeding systems implemented at the farm level. The allocation of each county to one of the three production systems is shown in *Table 3*. This allocation was made based on a prior classification using expert judgement,⁴ and additional expert judgement by county livestock officers and State Livestock Department staff collected as part of county livestock statistics validation exercises in 2019. The allocation of counties has not been revised for this inventory update. Each production system has cattle raised in each of the three main feeding systems. Surveys conducted in counties mostly in the semi-intensive production system estimated 19% zero-grazing, 31% semizero grazing and 50% grazing in 1998, and 18%, 42% and 40% respectively in 2008 (EADD 2010), and 27.8%, 32.5% and 39.8% respectively in 2014 (Njarui et al. 2016). The proportions of cattle in each feeding system from 2018 and 2021 was estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in these data sources. In 2021 it is estimated that in the intensive system, 28 % of cattle were raised in zero-grazing systems, 51% in semi-zero grazing and 20% in grazing systems.

Thus, in total, the inventory is based on 15 dairy cattle categories (i.e., 5 cattle sub-categories and 3 production systems).

populations reported by each county to the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development, and is available by county. Table 17 shows the total national dairy cattle population for the time series 1995-2023. For 2018 and 2019, herd structure was estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend from 2015-2017. *Table 5* shows the estimated herd structure for the period 1995-2022.

⁴ FAO (2017) Options for low-emission development in the Kenya Dairy Sector. FAO, Rome.

Table 1.1: Table 17. Total national dairy cattle population 1995-2023

Year	Population	Year	Population Year Population			Year	Population 1	Year	Population	Year	Population
1995	3,255,479	2000	3,335,920	2005	3.579.461	2010	3,376,479	2015	4.242.132	2020	5.112.340
1996	3,355,192	2001	3.442.754	2006	3.639.018	2011	3,739,610	2016	4,505,733	2021	5.017.991
1997	3,281,522	2002	3,551,160	2007	3.667.746	2012	4,158,378	2017	4,573,871	2022	5.098.443
1998	3.442.446	2003	3.665.398	2008	3.403.346	2013	4.505.582	2018	5.153.875	2023	5,145,240
1999	3.435.141	2004	$3,605,506$ 2009		3,310,898	2014	4,316,153	2019	4,536,551		

Allocating each county to a production system results in proportions of the total dairy cattle population in each system as shown in *Figure 2*. Applying the estimated herd structure to the official dairy cattle population statistics gives a population of each sub-category of dairy cattle in each production system in each inventory year as shown in *Table 6*.

d. Net energy for maintenance (NEm)

Net energy for maintenance (NE_m) was calculated following IPCC (2006) Equation 10.3:

$NE_{m,j}$ = \textsf{Cf}_{j} * (Weight_j)^{0.75}

where:

NEm,j - is net energy for maintenance for dairy cattle of type *j* (MJ head-1 day-1)

Cfj - is coefficient for calculating NEm for dairy cattle type *j*

Weight, is the live weight of dairy cattle of type **j** (kg).

IPCC 2006 Table 10.4 gives default values for Cf_j for lactating $cows$ (0.386), non-lactating $cows$ (0.322) and bulls (0.37). IPCC 2006 Table 10.4 does not give specific guidance on choice of the coefficient for castrated males, so a Cf of 0.322 was used for oxen (i.e. adult castrated males) and heifers. For cows, the value of Cf was weighted by the proportion of lactating cows in

the herd. Here, and elsewhere in the inventory, it was assumed that lactating cows lactate for 365 days.

For adult males, the value of Cf was weighted by the proportion of oxen and intact males in the population, and for calves the value of Cf was weighted by the proportion of female and male calves (see SDL 2019). *Table 5* shows the values of Cf used for different sub-categories.

The 1995-2017 inventory report (SDL 2019) explains in detail the data sources and methods used. For 2018 and 2019, LW in each year was estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend. The time series for live weight of each sub-category of dairy cattle is shown in *Table 6*. It should be noted that the average weights of cows in the intensive production system are significantly higher than the IPCC default weight for Africa (i.e. 275 kg), so we can expect that the resulting emission factors are higher than the Tier 1 IPCC default value for Africa. Also, the estimated live weights in the semi-intensive and extensive production systems are lower than those used in the IPCC default factor (see IPCC 2006 Table 10A.1), and therefore we can expect the resulting emission

factors are lower than the Tier 1 IPCC default value for Africa.

Table 4: Live weight (kg) of dairy cattle sub-categories for 1995-2021

e. Net energy for activity (NEa)

NE_a was calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.4:

$NE_a = C_a \bullet NE_m$

where

NE_, is net energy for animal activity, MJ day⁻¹

 C_a is a coefficient corresponding to the animal's feeding situation MJ day⁻¹ kg⁻¹

NE_m is net energy for maintenance for dairy cattle (MJ head⁻¹ day⁻¹) as determined above.

IPCC 2006 Table 10.5 gives default values for C_{a} for animals that are stall-fed (0.00), that graze pasture (0.17) and that graze large areas or hilly terrain (0.36). Dairy cattle in semi-zero and grazing only feeding systems in Kenya often do not travel long distances for grazing, as tethering in paddocks and by roadsides

is common. To estimate appropriate values of $C_{a'}$, the methods presented in NRC (2001) to estimate net energy for activity were used together with available data on grazing distances in Kenya (see SDL (2019) for detailed explanation and data used). The values for C_a used in this inventory are shown in Table 7.

Table 5: Estimated coefficients for activity (Ca) used for 2018 and 2019

f. Net energy for growth (NEg)

NE_g was calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.6:

where

BW is average live weight (kg head⁻¹);

C is a coefficient with a value of 0.8 for females, 1.0 for castrates and 1.2 for bulls;

MW is the mature live body weight of an adult animal in moderate body condition, kg

WG is the average daily weight gain of cattle in each subcategory, kg day⁻¹.

The inventory used the live weight values shown in Table 6 above. The data and methods used to estimate daily weight gain are explained in SDL (2019). The weight gain values used in 2018 and 2019 are shown in *Table 8*.

Table 6: Average daily weight gain (kg) values used for different dairy cattle sub-categories

g. Net energy for lactation (NEl)

NE_I was calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.8:

NEl **=** *Milk* **X (1.47 + 0.40 X** *Fat***)**

Where

NEI is net energy for lactation, MJ day¹

Milk is amount of milk produced, kg of milk day⁻¹, and

Fat is the fat content of milk, % by weight.

In the IPCC model, milk yield is expressed in kg head 1 day 1 over 365 days. In the 1995-2017 inventory (SDL 2019), milk yield and its trend were estimated using literature reports on the average milk yields of Friesian, Ayrshire and other breeds and genotypes, and their proportions in the herd. To calculate net energy for lactation, the daily milk yields for lactating cows

were multiplied by the proportion of cows lactating. For 2018 and 2019, milk yield was estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in the 1995-2017 period. The resulting estimated average milk yields in each production system are shown in *Table 9*. For milk fat content, a default value of 4% was used (IPCC 2006).

Table 7: Average milk yields for lactating cows in different production systems, 1995-2021 (kg head-1 day-1)

h. Net energy for pregnancy (NEp)

NE_p was calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.13:

$NE_p = C_{preq name} \times NE_m$

where

 $C_{pregnancy}$ is a coefficient with a value of 0.1.

C_{pregnancy} was applied to the proportion of cows giving birth in the year. The 1995-2017 inventory used various data sources and methods to estimate proportions of cows giving birth in the

year (SDL 2019). For 2018 and 2019 the values were estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in the previous years. The proportion of cows and heifers pregnant in the year are shown in *Table 10*. For the semi-intensive and extensive systems, the estimated proportion of cows giving birth is lower than the IPCC default value of 67% for dairy cows in Africa (IPCC 2006, Table A10.1), but in the intensive system the estimated value is higher from 2003 onwards. For all other animal types, the coefficient was given a value of zero.

Table 8: Proportions of cows giving birth and heifers pregnant, 1995-2021

i. Net energy for work (NEwork)

NE_{work} was calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.9:

$NE_{work} = 0.10 \times NE_m \times Hours$

where

NE_{work} is net energy for work, MJ day⁻¹ and

Hours is the average number of hours of work per calendar day.

The source of data on hours is described in SDL (2019). It is assumed that only oxen do work. In the intensive system, a value of 0.003 hours is used and in the semi-intensive and extensive systems a value of 0.3 hours is used. This is lower than the IPCC default value for work hours for other cattle in Africa (IPCC 2006, Table 10A.2), reflecting that most work is done by non-dairy breeds in Kenya.

j. Digestible energy as a proportion of gross energy in feed

The 1995-2017 inventory estimated digestible energy of feed as a proportion of gross energy (DE%) using various data sources and methods (SDL 2019). For 2018 and 2019, the values of DE were estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in previous years. The values for DE% used in the inventory are shown in *Table 11*. The estimated feed digestibility values for different dairy cattle sub-categories in different years range between 54.1% and 61.5%, whereas the IPCC default value for dairy cattle in Africa is 60% (IPCC 2006, Table 10A.1). The trend in estimated feed

digestibility is mainly due to assumptions about the change in proportions of dairy cattle raised in different feeding systems (i.e. zero-grazing, semi-zero grazing and grazing only systems), whereby an increase in zero- or semi-zero grazing is associated with a decrease in average digestibility of the diet, which is partially offset by the increasing use of commercial concentrate over time. Details of the data, assumptions and methods used are given in SDL (2019).

Calculation of gross energy

Gross energy was calculated using IPCC (2006) equations 10.14-10.16. Gross energy for each sub-category is shown in *Table 12*. The estimated gross energy was cross-checked against the implied dry matter intake (DMI) using IPCC equations 10.17 and 10.18. The estimated DMI was in the range of 2.3%-2.8% of

Calculation of emission factors

The emission factors were calculated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.21. The value for the methane conversion factor used was the IPCC default value of 6.5%. The resulting emission factors and implied emission factors (i.e. population-weighted emission factors) for each year are shown in *Table 13*. The implied emission factor increases over time, but is lower than the IPCC Tier 1 default value for dairy cattle in Africa (IPCC 2006, Table 10.11). This is because the Tier 1 default for dairy only includes the emission factor for lactating cows, while the implied emission factor includes all dairy cattle sub-categories. The emission factors range from 13.45 to 52.26 kg CH $_{\rm 4}$ head⁻¹ year⁻¹ dependant on sub-category, production system and year. The Tier 1 default for Other Cattle is 31 kg CH₄ head⁻¹ year⁻¹, which is between the emission factors determined for the dairy cattle categories other than cows.

body weight for most animal types and 3.1%-3.5% for calves. Except for calves, this is within the range of 2-3% of body weight recommended by the IPCC (2006). The higher ratio of estimated DMI to body weight for calves and other growing animals has been widely reported in the literature.

The IPCC Tier 1 default emission factor for cows (i.e. 46 kg CH, head⁻¹ year⁻¹) was derived on the basis of assumed characteristics of a lactating dairy cow in Africa and the Middle East (annual milk yield 475 kg head⁻¹ year¹, see IPCC 2006, Table A10.1). The emission factors for dairy cows estimated in this inventory range between 51 and 74 kg CH₄ head⁻¹ year⁻¹, which are all higher than the IPCC Tier 1 default emission factor. We have assumed an annual milk yield of between 1732 kg and 2458 kg head⁻¹ year⁻¹ dependant on the production system and year in the inventory. Further discussion on the differences between the defaults and calculated emission factors can be found in section 2.4.

Total emissions from dairy cattle from enteric fermentation in each year between 1990-2022 are given in Table 1.

Table 1.2: Time series for emission factors (kg CH4 head-1 year-1) for dairy cattle sub-categories in each production system (1995-2021)

k. Uncertainties and time-series consistency

The 1995-2017 inventory estimated that the uncertainty of 2017 total enteric fermentation emissions was (+14.68%, -12.92%) (SDL 2022). Uncertainty analysis was not repeated for this updated inventory, and the same uncertainty range is assumed.

l. Source-specific QA/QC and verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities have been implemented. This inventory was compiled in an Excel spreadsheet. Quality control activities included:

- Checking that the equations programmed in the spreadsheet were correctly input
- Checking those inputs to summed totals were obtained from the correct fields
- Checking that all data sources were fully documented

Within each production system, consistent methods have been used to estimate the time series for enteric fermentation emissions.

- Checking that the figures in the inventory spreadsheet were correctly transcribed from prior worksheets
- Checking that the figures in the inventory report were correctly transcribed
- Reconstructing a number of the calculations to crosscheck the intermediate calculations and results in the inventory spreadsheet.

Verification of the estimated emission factors was described in the 1995-2017 inventory (SDL 2022).

m. Source-specific recalculations of Enteric fermentation

Disaggregated dairy cattle population numbers along with the updated methane emission factors and live weights for each subcategory were incorporated into this inventory. Therefore, the recalculations for all the years were completed using the same

Table 11: Enteric fermentation CH4 Emissions

methodology with Tier II approach. Similar for other livestock, recalculations were done in light of applications of the IPCC 2006 guidelines and emissions factors using the same methodology as compared to the previous inventory.

Of 2.6 Source-specific improvements

For enteric fermentation emissions, priorities for improvements include:

- Cross-check and validate or adjust allocation of counties to production systems;
- Conduct representative sample surveys in extensive and semi-intensive production systems to collect more accurate estimates of activity data used in the Tier 2 enteric fermentation model; and

Manure management, dairy cattle

The Tier2 approach provides a more detailed method for estimating methane emissions from manure management systems. There is detailed information on animal characteristics and the manner in which manure is managed. Using the additional information,

Table 12: Source category description

Research to develop cost-effective methods for accurate representation of diet composition for different dairy cattle sub-categories and feeding systems.

In the longer-term, improving the accuracy of dairy cattle population and milk yield estimates collected by local governments is a priority. The State Department of Livestock plans to work with development partners to improve the administrative data collection system to achieve this longer-term objective.

emission factors specific to the conditions of the country are estimated and the default emission factors from Tier 1 were not used.

This category reports emissions of CH $_{\textrm{\tiny{4}}}$ and direct N $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ O emissions from management of manure from dairy cattle. The literature for Kenya identifies and main types of manure management system (not including deposit of dung and urine on pasture, which is reported under managed soils):

- **Daily spread**: Manure is removed daily from where animals are kept and applied to fodder or food crops. This system is common for households with zero-grazing units.
- **Dry lot:** Dung is deposited on the hard surface where animals are kept and removed periodically.
- **Solid storage:** Manure is stored in heaps in the farmyard.
- **Deep bedding**: Manure is mixed with other organic material and left as bedding. The bedding is mostly removed only

after several months. This is common in households with open boma (kraals)

- **Compost:** Manure and other organic material in bedding is composted.
- **Liquid slurry:** Some zero-grazing units have drainage systems feeding into slurry pits. In some households, manure is stored in pits, which often gets inundated with rainwater.

These manure management systems may be associated with different housing types (e.g. traditional or improved bomas and zero-grazing units), but this association is currently not well documented. Specific manure management practices have also not been documented in detail.

Methodological issues

a. Methane emissions from manure management

Methane is produced by the decomposition of manure under anaerobic conditions. When stored in liquid or slurry form, anaerobic decomposition is greater and more methane is released, and when stored as a solid less methane is stored. Therefore, the manure management system used affects methane emission rates. The emission factors for manure management are calculated using the IPCC Tier 2 methodology using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.23:

Where:

- $\;\;\;$ EF_T is the emission factor for a specific cattle sub-category, T, kg CH₄ head⁻¹ year⁻¹
- VS_T is daily volatile solids excreted by cattle sub-category, T, kg dry matter head⁻¹ year⁻¹
- $\,$ B_{o,T} is the maximum methane producing capacity for manure produced by sub-category T, m 3 CH₄ per kg VS excreted
- \bullet $\,$ 0.67 is the conversion factor of m 3 CH $_4$ to kg CH $_4$
- MCF_{sk} is the methane conversion factors for each manure management system, *S*, by climate region, k , %
- MS_{rsk} is the fraction of manure from livestock sub-category T handled using manure management system *S* in climate region *k*, dimensionless

The value of VS is estimated using IPCC (2006) Equation 10.24:

Where:

- \bullet GE is gross energy intake, MJ day⁻¹, as calculated in the enteric fermentation equations above
- DE% is digestibility of feed as used in the enteric fermentation equations above
- UE X GE is urinary energy expressed as a fraction of GE, assumed to be 0.04GE (IPCC 2006)
- ASH is the ash content of manure, assumed to be 0.08 (IPCC 2006)
- 18.45 is the conversion factor for dietary GE per kg dry matter (MJ kg⁻¹).

No country specific data were identified for B_o or MCF, so the IPCC default values for Africa (IPCC 2006, Table 10A-4) were used.⁵ Country specific manure management system activity data (MS_{TSk}) were estimated using data and methods described in SDL (2019). For 2018 and 2019, values were estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in previous years (see *Table 17* and *Table 18*). The methane emission factors thus derived are shown in *Table 19*. These were multiplied by population numbers of the relevant category in each year and the resulting time series for methane emissions from manure management is shown in *Table 19*.

Table 13: Table 13. Weighted average MMS fractions in the intensive production system

Year	Pasture	daily spread	drylot	solid storage	composted	liquid slurry	biogas	Deep bedding
1995	24.46%	10.98%	4.27%	37.19%	9.04%	14.55%	0.00%	0.00%
1996	24.05%	11.04%	4.29%	37.37%	9.09%	14.63%	0.00%	0.00%
1997	23.65%	11.10%	4.32%	37.54%	9.13%	14.70%	0.00%	0.00%
1998	23.24%	11.16%	4.34%	37.72%	9.18%	14.78%	0.00%	0.00%
1999	22.83%	11.22%	4.36%	37.90%	9.23%	14.86%	0.00%	0.00%
2000	22.43%	11.28%	4.38%	38.07%	9.28%	14.94%	0.00%	0.00%
2001	22.04%	11.33%	4.41%	38.24%	9.33%	15.01%	0.00%	0.00%
2002	21.66%	11.39%	4.43%	38.41%	9.37%	15.09%	0.00%	0.00%
2003	21.27%	11.44%	4.45%	38.57%	9.42%	15.16%	0.00%	0.00%
2004	20.89%	11.50%	4.47%	38.74%	9.46%	15.24%	0.00%	0.00%
2005	20.45%	11.56%	4.50%	38.93%	9.52%	15.32%	0.00%	0.00%
2006	20.02%	11.63%	4.52%	39.12%	9.57%	15.40%	0.00%	0.00%
2007	19.59%	11.69%	4.54%	39.31%	9.62%	15.48%	0.00%	0.00%
2008	19.18%	11.75%	4.57%	39.49%	9.67%	15.56%	0.00%	0.00%
2009	18.77%	11.81%	4.59%	39.24%	9.72%	15.64%	0.42%	0.00%
2010	18.36%	11.87%	4.61%	39.00%	9.77%	15.72%	0.85%	0.00%
2011	17.98%	11.92%	4.64%	38.74%	9.81%	15.80%	1.27%	0.00%
2012	17.60%	11.98%	4.66%	38.48%	9.86%	15.87%	1.69%	0.00%

5 Note, however, that the IPCC default values are based on Safley (1992), which used limited data to estimate Bo values for developing countries. Further examination should consider whether the Bo values for Africa are the most applicable to Kenyan dairy production systems.

Table 14: Weighted average MMS fractions in the semi-intensive and extensive production systems

Table 1.3: Manure management methane emission factors (kg CH4 head-1 year-1) and Methane Emissions (Gg CH4) for dairy cattle subcategories in each production system (1995-2021)

b. Direct N2O emissions from manure management

Manure also releases nitrous oxide with different rates for different manure management systems. This section only covers the nitrous oxide released during the storage and treatment of manure before it is applied to the land or used elsewhere. Therefore, this section does not include the nitrous emissions from manure deposited directly to pasture. Instead, this is accounted for in Section 5. Emission factors for direct N₂O emissions were calculated using the IPCC Tier 2 approach by applying IPCC (2006) Equation 10.25:

Where:

- $\,$ N $_{2}$ O $_{\textrm{\tiny{D}(mm)}}$ is direct N $_{2}$ O emissions from manure management, kg N $_{2}$ O year 1
- N_{τ} is number of head of cattle sub-category T
- Nex_T is average nitrogen excretion per head of sub-category T, kg N head⁻¹ year⁻¹
- MS_{TS} is fraction of total annual nitrogen excretion for sub-category T that is managed in manure management system S , dimensionless
- $\;$ EF_{3s} is emission factor for direct N₂O emissions from manure management system **S**, kg N₂O-N/kg N
- 44/28 is the conversion of N₂O-N emissions to N₂O emissions.

N excretion was estimated as the balance of N intake and N retention calculated using IPCC (2006) Equations 10.31-10.33. The data sources and values used for crude protein content of the diet (CP%) are described in SDL (2019). For 2018 and 2019, the values were estimated using linear extrapolation of the trend in previous years (see *Table 20* and *Table 21*). Default values for milk protein content (milk PR%) were used (3.5% taken from IPCC 2006, page 10.60). Other values used in these calculations (i.e., GE, milk, WG, NEg) were the values used in the calculation of methane emissions from enteric fermentation.

Manure management system activity data are the same as those used to estimate methane manure management emissions. The emission factors, EF₃, used were the IPCC default emission factors from 10.21 (**Table 22**). The resulting time series for direct N2 O emissions is shown in *Table 23*.

Table 16: Emission factors (EF3) used in estimating direct N2O emissions from manure management

Manure management system	EF_{3} [kg N ₂ O-N (kg Nitrogen	Source		
	excreted)-1]			
Daily spread	Ω	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Solid storage (e.g. heap)	0.005	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Dry lot (e.g. periodic removal from confinement area)	0.02	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Composted (static pile)	0.006	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Liquid (e.g. pit)	0.005	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Biogas	Ω	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		
Deep bedding	0.01	IPCC 2006 Table 10.21		

Table 17: Direct N2O emissions from manure management from dairy cattle, Gg N20 (CO2 Equivalent), 1995-2022

Uncertainties and time-series consistency

SDL (2019) estimated that the uncertainty of 2017 total methane emissions from manure management was (+24.39%, -20.65%), and for direct nitrous oxide emissions it was (+27.78% -23.48%).

Uncertainty analysis was not repeated for this updated inventory and the same uncertainty values are assumed.

Source-specific QA/QC and verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities have been implemented. This inventory was compiled in an Excel spreadsheet. Quality control activities included:

- Checking that the equations programmed in the spreadsheet were correctly input
- Checking that inputs to summed totals were obtained from the correct fields
- Checking that all data sources were fully documented
- Checking that the figures in the inventory report were correctly transcribed
- Reconstructing a number of the calculations to cross-check the intermediate calculations and results in the inventory spreadsheet.

For verification, the estimated emission factors were compared with IPCC default values and emission factors used in other countries' national GHG inventories.

Source-specific recalculations

No recalculation was done.

Source-specific improvements

For manure management, the priority is to improve the availability of representative data on manure management systems that are collected using classifications and methods in line with the IPCC categories.

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