

1 *Analysis of 30 years' historical climate change trends and variability in Mt.*  
2 *Elgon, Kenya, Africa*

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13

14 ***Abstract***

15 Mountain habitats are critical for identifying the effects of climate change on livelihoods. The  
16 study's main goal was the “analysis of 30 years’ historical climate change trends and variability in  
17 Mt. Elgon, Kenya, Africa.” The study employed primary data from KIIs, FGDs, and household  
18 questionnaire survey representing community views. The study also employed secondary data  
19 from the Kitale Meteorological Station (KMS) for rainfall and temperature from 1986 to 2015.  
20 Statistical and descriptive techniques were used to analyse both quantitative and qualitative data.  
21 The yearly rainfall trend has typically been growing increasing as evidenced by the positive slope  
22 of 9.96, but with a tiny coefficient of determination of 0.28, according to the study of rainfall data.  
23 Within time series, MAM trends have been dropping, whilst OND trends have been increasing.  
24 However, when these trends were tested for significance using linear regression, the p-values were  
25 found to be bigger than the level of confidence, indicating that the increases in trends are not  
26 significant (5 percent). According to the study's findings, temperature trends have risen  
27 significantly between 1986 and 2015. The temperature trend had a significance of 5%, which is  
28 comparable to climate change as a result of global warming. Over 90% of the farmers polled said  
29 they had noticed changes in climate patterns as far back as 30 years. As a result, the region's  
30 overlapping climate changes include altered precipitation regimes and higher surface temperatures.  
31 These findings are crucial for improving adaptive ability and increasing resilience, as well as  
32 making informed decisions and planning future livelihood management strategies. This data can  
33 also be used to develop appropriate response mechanisms to adapt and mitigate the effects of  
34 climate change and variability on livelihoods in the study area.

35 **Key words:** Ecosystems, climate change, climate variability, response mechanisms.

## 36 **1.0 Introduction**

37 Climate change can have serious consequences for people's livelihoods and the natural  
38 environment, including ecosystem alterations. Climate change is undeniable, and it has accelerated  
39 to unprecedented levels in recent decades and millennia (IPCC, 2014). Any increase in global  
40 average temperature exceeding 1.5°C - 2.5°C is anticipated to cause significant changes in  
41 ecosystem structure, function, and geographic ranges, severely affecting species distribution and  
42 survival. This can have an influence on communities' socio-economic status, stymie progress  
43 toward development goals, and pose a general danger to sustainable development in emerging  
44 countries with a higher reliance on natural resource-based livelihoods (IPCC, 2007). Climate and  
45 non-climatic stresses may have a significant impact on ecosystem processes and ecosystem  
46 services when combined (Lovejoy *et al.*, 2005; Amwata *et al.*, 2015).

47 Mountains have a significant impact on global precipitation and temperature patterns. The increase  
48 and fall of rainfall across mountains on the windward and leeward sides creates humid and arid  
49 climate regimes, respectively. As a result, people's lifestyles on both sides of the border are very  
50 different. The richness of livelihoods on the windward slopes of mountains is owing to the high  
51 rainfall, which allows for more agricultural output than on the leeward sides. Such inconsistencies  
52 have been reported in Kenya's Mount Elgon region (Olago *et al.*, 2004). Some of the mountains in  
53 the world that experience this phenomenon include the Rwenzori Mountains in Uganda (Taylor *et al.*,  
54 2009), the Himalayas (Negi *et al.*, 2009), the Aberdares highlands in Kenya (Kipkoech *et al.*,  
55 2019), Mount Kilimanjaro in Tanzania (Kilungu *et al.*, 2019), the Rocky Mountains in the United  
56 States (Wallace *et al.*, 2021; Cuni-Sanchez *et al.*, 2019).

57 Small-holder subsistence farmers inhabiting mountain regions are among the worst hit by climate  
58 change and variability due to their low adaptive capacity and their dependence on rain-fed  
59 agriculture which is very sensitive to climate variability (Ifejika, 2010; Easterling, 2011). In Africa,  
60 precipitation amounts are likely to decrease for most parts of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) while  
61 rainfall variability is expected to increase (IPCC, 2014) Ifejika, (2010). Studies by the World Bank  
62 (2010) state that Africa is expected to experience mainly negative climate change impacts on  
63 livelihoods in terms of an increase in the already high temperatures and a decrease in the largely  
64 erratic rainfall in its context of widespread poverty and low development. The negative effects of  
65 climate change will be felt most intensely by smallholder farmers in poor countries, according to  
66 UNDP (2014), because they are largely reliant on natural systems for growing food and rearing  
67 livestock.

68 The climate in Kenya is already shifting (NCCAP, 2018). While total annual rainfall remains low,  
69 the long rains May-April-May (MAM) have gotten shorter and drier, and the short rains October-  
70 November-December (OND) have been longer and wetter (NCCAP, 2018). Long rains have been  
71 steadily falling in recent decades, and droughts have grown longer, more intense, and more likely  
72 to last through rainy seasons (Olago *et al.*, 2015). Floods have come from the increased frequency  
73 of rainfall events in East Africa, while severe rainfall and droughts have grown in size over the  
74 last three decades. The current trend of rising temperatures in Kenya is projected to continue

75 throughout the year (Olago *et al.*, 2015). According to research, there will be an increase in the  
76 number and severity of weather-related disasters, which will exacerbate disputes over natural  
77 resources, food poverty, and threaten sustainable development and livelihoods (Olago *et al.*, 2015).

78 Climate change and unpredictability, including temperature and rainfall regime shifts, have had a  
79 negative influence on the Mt. Elgon environment (Russell *et al.*, 2017). Environmental degradation  
80 causes social and economic suffering for those who rely on the environment, as well as increased  
81 competition and the risk of conflict over diminishing resources (Russell *et al.*, 2017). Reduced  
82 agricultural production, changes in vegetation composition and structure, rapid deterioration of  
83 land cover, and depletion of water quality and quantity due to damage of catchments and  
84 subsurface aquifers are some of the impact indicators. Water scarcity will have an impact on  
85 agriculture and livestock rearing thus hurting livelihoods in the region. As a result of this reliance,  
86 any effects of climate change on the natural ecosystem endanger impoverished people's livelihoods  
87 (WRI *et al.*, 2008).

88 Communities throughout the world have been using genetic diversity and traditional knowledge  
89 about native species to adapt to climate variability for generations. This is proving increasingly  
90 valuable in the context of climate change adaptation (Hannah *et al.*, 2016). To achieve the study's  
91 aims, the following research three questions were formulated by the inter-disciplinary study team:  
92 a) What are the patterns in historical climate change data for the period 1986-2015 in Kapsokwony  
93 Division, Mt. Elgon Sub-County? b) "Have you ever experienced any change in threats over the  
94 last twenty years?" and c) "Have you ever experienced any change in threats over the last twenty  
95 years?" "If so, how does it affect your household?" and "If yes, how does it harm your household?"  
96 Rainfall and temperature data used in this research covered the period between 1986 and 2015.  
97 The study's main or prime goal was the analysis of 30 years of historical data on climate change  
98 and community views in Kapsokwony Division, Mt. Elgon Sub-County, Bungoma County, Kenya.

## 99 **2.0 Materials and methods**

### 100 **2.1 Study site**

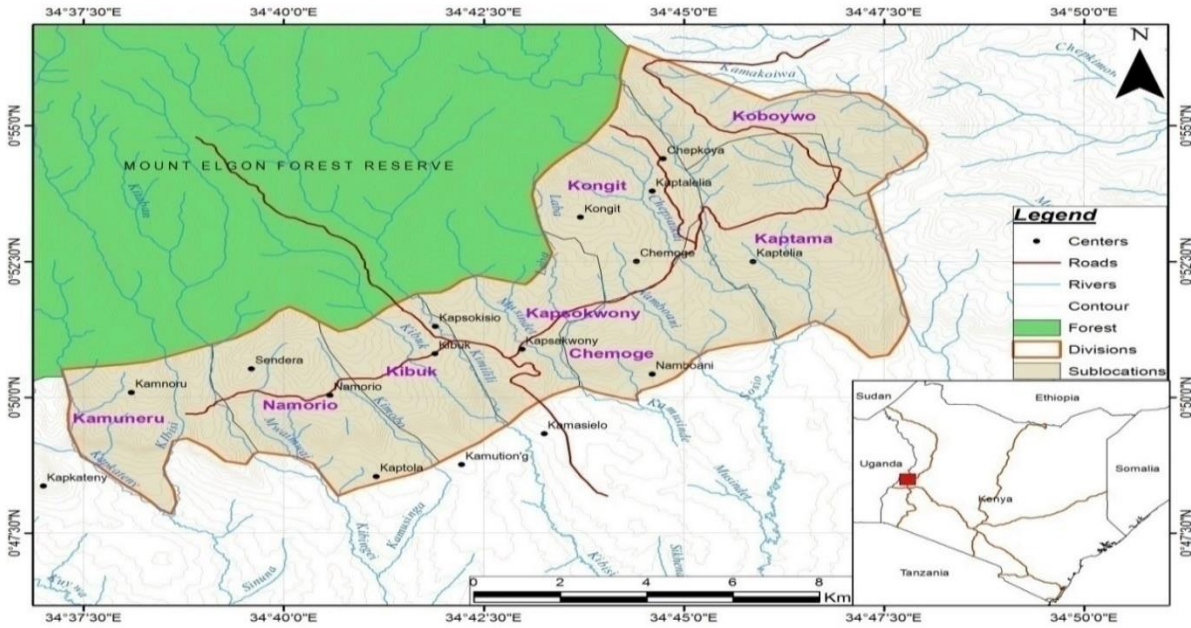
101 The Mt. Elgon environment in Kenya is one of the country's major water reservoirs, with abundant  
102 land-based resources suitable for agricultural development. The research area is situated on fertile  
103 slopes that are directly impacted by human climate change. The research area is about between  
104 latitudes 0°47'3N and 0° 52'3N, and longitudes 34° 37'3E and 34° 43'E as indicated in (Figures 1  
105 and 2). (ROK, 2009). The study was place in the twelve sub-locations that make up the  
106 Kapsokwony Division in Kenya's Mt. Elgon Sub-County. TThe research area is located on the  
107 south eastern slopes of Mt. Elgon and spans 58.4 km<sup>2</sup> with a Population Density of 624 persons  
108 (Sq. Km.) according to the population census of 2019 ( GoK, 2019). Its isolation is defined by a  
109 lack of good roads, adequate schools, hospital, communication, and energy facilities, as well as  
110 piped water.. Domesticated animals (donkeys and oxen) are mostly employed for traction and  
111 transportation of farm products to market sites outside the region because to the region's weak  
112 infrastructure. In recent years, 'BODA BODA' (motor-bikes) have become the primary mode of  
113 transportation for people and farm goods.

114 The research was carried out in Kenya's Bungoma County, in the twelve sub-locations that make  
115 up Kapsokwony Division Mt. Elgon Sub-County as indicated on the map in (Figure 2).  
116 Chemwesuis, Bugaa, Komtiong', Kapsokwony, Kibuk, Kimobo, Nomorio, Kipyeto, Koshok,  
117 Saboncho, Sacha, and Kamuneru are among the twelve sub-locations studied (ROK 2009). To the  
118 north and west, the territory is bordered by Mt. Elgon Forest, and it stretches from upland to  
119 lowland. It shares borders with Kimilili Sub-County to the south and Kaptama Division to the  
120 east.

121 Agriculture is the primary source of income in the study area (FAO, 2013). The long rainy season,  
122 referred to as the MAM, and the short rainy season, referred to as the OND, are the two main  
123 growing seasons. Subsistence farming is supported by adequate rainfall during the extended rainy  
124 season. Because of its inadequacy, the current conditions during short rains do not sustain farming  
125 activities. Maize, beans, potatoes, onions, tomatoes, and green vegetables are the most common  
126 crops farmed, while cash crops like as coffee and tea are also grown for profit. Despite the fact  
127 that subsistence farming is the primary source of revenue, most households also plant economic  
128 trees for domestic use and social – economic profit. Due to uncharacteristically changing weather  
129 patterns, dwindling pastureland, and exponential population growth, crop production has  
130 decreased and animal productivity has declined in recent years (NCCAP, 2018).

131 Climate change is already putting a strain on the lives of the poor in the region, harming socio-  
132 economic growth and putting food security in jeopardy (FAO, 2013; World Bank, 2015). Data on  
133 rainfall and temperature were analysed to see whether there were any historical trends or  
134 fluctuation. Farm production is impacted by climate change and fluctuation patterns, resulting in  
135 low yields. Even though new seed varieties have recently been introduced, fluctuations in climate  
136 patterns have had an impact on food security as a result of low farming and livestock productivity  
137 (maize, beans, onions, green vegetables, and Irish potatoes). Poor farm production is characterized  
138 by unpredictable rainfall, long dry intervals, soil fertility loss, wind erosion, and a drop in pasture  
139 cover.

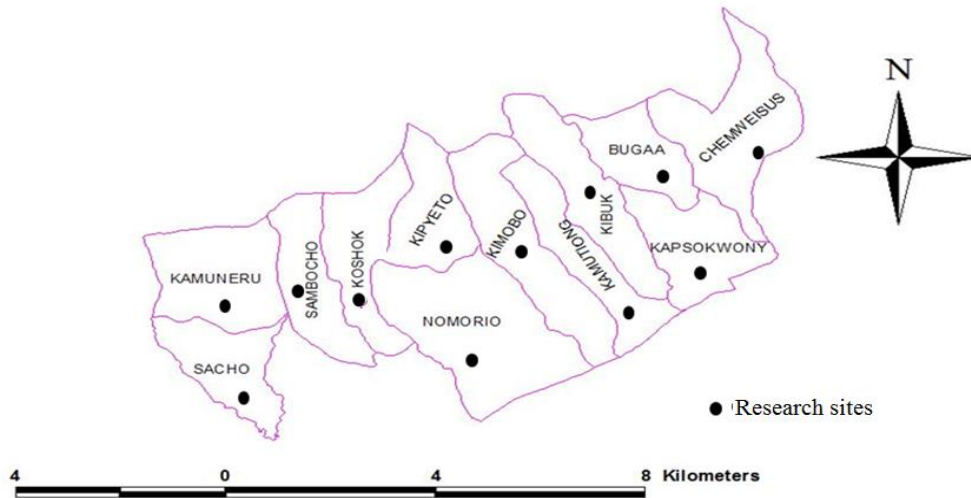




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141 **Figure 1: Map of Mt. Elgon region, Kenya showing the study area between latitudes (0°47'3N**  
 142 **- 0°52'3N and longitudes 34°37'3E - 34° 43'E)** (Source: Survey of Kenya)

**KAPSOKWONY DIVISION SUB LOCATIONS MAP**



Source: FEWS NET/USG S/NDMA

143

144 **Figure 2: Map of study area showing sub-locations and research sites between latitudes**  
 145 **(0°47'3N - 0°52'3N and longitudes 34°37'3E - 34° 43'E)** (Source: Survey of Kenya)

146 **3.0 Methodology**

147 **3.1 Introduction**

148 During this investigation, both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered. Desk review, six  
149 (6) Key Informant and six (6) Key In-depth (KIIs) interviews, three (3) Focus Group Discussions  
150 (FGDs), and (398) household questionnaire administration (32) were used to obtain climatic data  
151 from each of the twelve (12) sub-locations. The meteorological data from KMS was collected and  
152 analysed to validate the changes in precipitation and temperature patterns.

### 153 **3.2 Data collection**

154 Kitale Meteorological Station provided daily rainfall and temperature data for the years 1986 to  
155 2015. Data collection methods used included House Hold questionnaires (HHs), Focus Group  
156 Discussion (FGDs), Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) and farmers weather perceptions were all  
157 analysed by use of statistical and graphical methods. Sampling framework included (398)  
158 household questionnaires, six (6) Key In-depth Interviews, six (6) Key Informant Interviews, and  
159 (3) Focused Group Discussions. While being primarily quantitative in nature, it also included  
160 open-ended questions that supplied qualitative data. The goal was to gather information that  
161 couldn't be gleaned simply through focus groups or the household questionnaire. To gather  
162 information from persons with specific knowledge and experience of climate impacts, key  
163 informant interviews were done. Farmers' weather opinions were gathered through household  
164 questionnaires, focus group talks, and key informant and in-depth interviews. This data was  
165 utilized to supplement the results of the household survey (questionnaires). Participants'  
166 interactions sparked new ideas and views regarding climate hazards, such as the frequency and  
167 intensity of climate impacts changing over time.

### 168 **3.3 Data analysis**

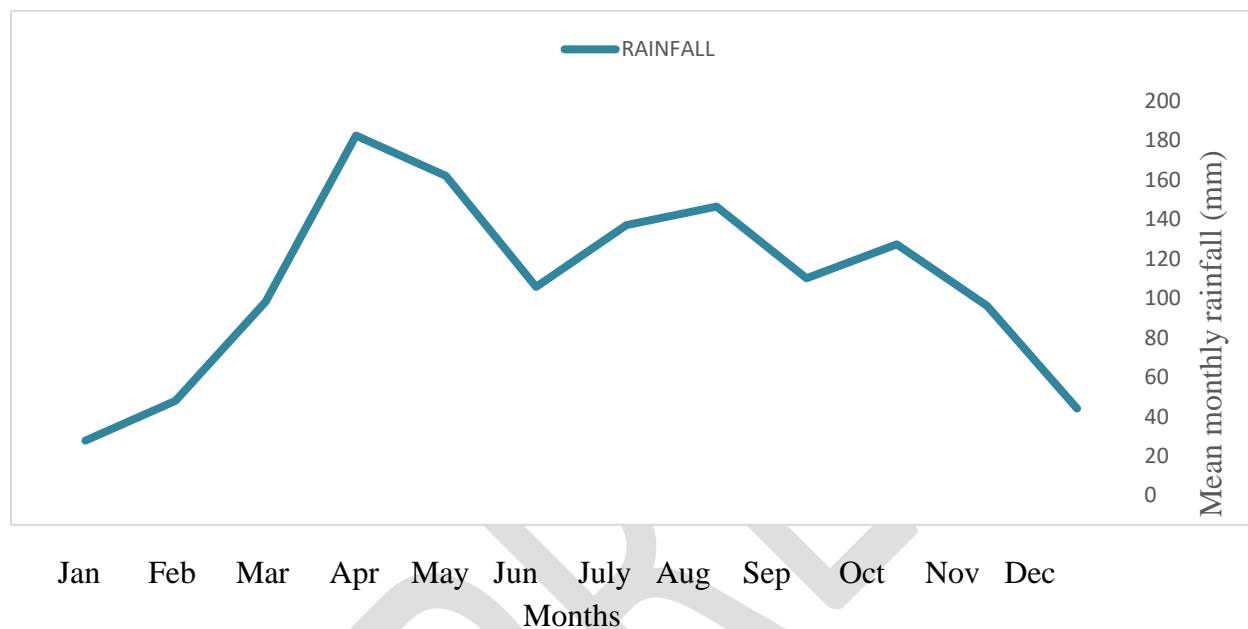
169 Both the rainfall and temperature records for the study region from 1986 to 2015 were subjected to statistical  
170 and graphical analytical techniques. statistical and graphical analytical techniques The main statistical  
171 methods used in the present data analysis included descriptive statistics that was used to summarize  
172 data using indexes such as means, median and the inferential statistics that was used in drawing  
173 out conclusions from data by using statistical tests such linear regression, student's test and the F-  
174 test. The graphical methods applied in the that analysis to reduce random measurement errors  
175 included sample size determination, means, standard deviation and linear regression which were  
176 analysed using Excel data sheets and presented in histograms, line graphs, tables and charts. The  
177 idea was to establish if there was any significance in trends in time series or variability changes in the data  
178 settings. For statistical data analysis of climate patterns, the Excel program 2010 and the software version  
179 2.1.0 were utilized. Rainfall and temperature data were analyses to determine historical patterns trends and  
180 variability. As a result of the respondents' direct observations and projections, the community's climate  
181 views were subjected to descriptive and thematic analysis. The data was then shown as means, frequencies,  
182 percentages, charts, and narratives.

### 183 **4.0 Results**

## 184 4.1 Rainfall results

### 185 4.1.1 Mean monthly rainfall

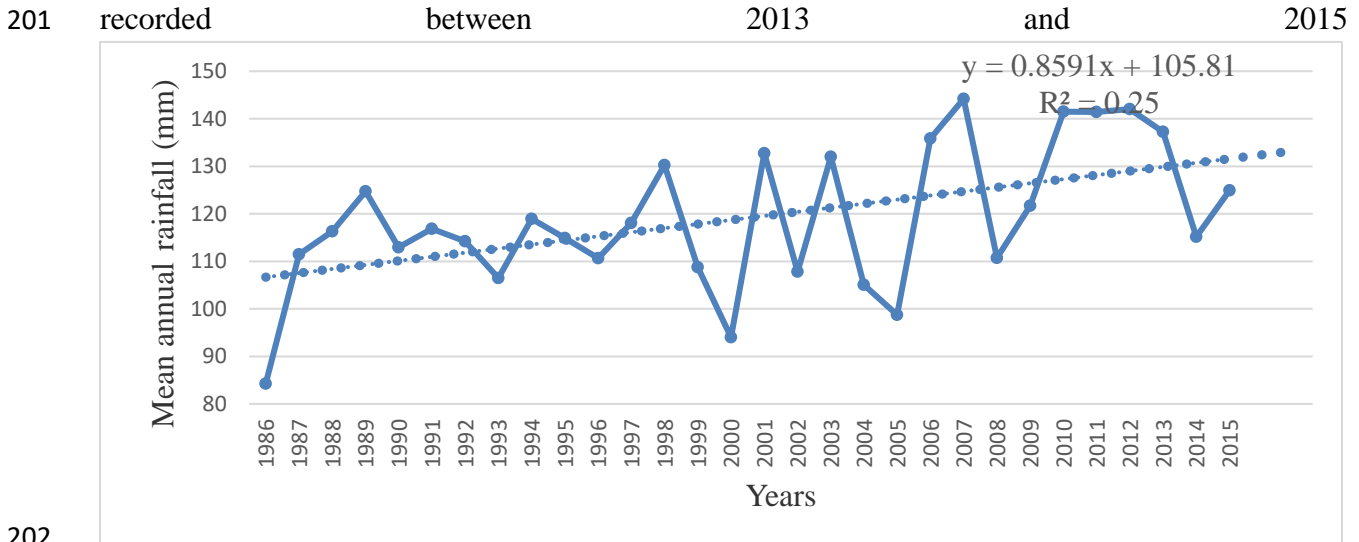
186 The station experiences three (3) peaks of rainfall, as seen in Figure 3 in three peaks (tri-modal).  
 187 The month of April had the most rainfall, with a monthly average of 180 mm, followed by the  
 188 month of August with 145 mm and the month of October with 130 mm.



189  
 190  
 191  
 192 **Figure 3: Trimodal rainfall distribution** (Source: Figure generated by S. B. using 'Microsoft  
 193 Excel').

### 194 4.1.2 Annual rainfall trends

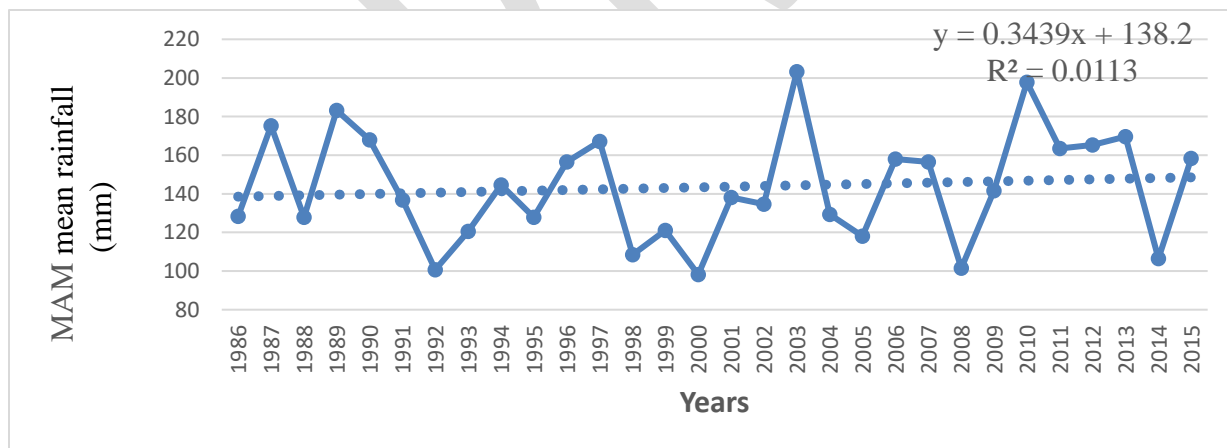
195 Figure 4 depicts seasonal and annual rainfall trends. From 1986 to 2015, the rainfall trend has been  
 196 increasing, but the trends have gotten more erratic. Between 1997 and 1998, there was an upward  
 197 tendency that was attributed to the *El Nino* phenomenon. From the year 2005 to 2007, an upward  
 198 trend in amount of mean annual rainfall was recorded while a slight fall was recorded in 2008.  
 199 Another upward trend was experienced between 2009 and 2010 yet a constant amount of mean  
 200 annual rainfall was experienced between 2011 and 2012. A drastic drop in rainfall amount was



202  
 203 **Figure 4: Annual rainfall trends from 1986 - 2015** (Source: Figure generated by S. B. using  
 204 'Microsoft Excel').

205 **4.1.3 The MAM rainfall trend**

206 MAM trends from 1986 to 2015 are depicted in Figure 5. The MAM trend displays the annual  
 207 rainfall in millimeters. The MAM rainfall trend has been steadily increasing, with the highest  
 208 amount of 750 mm being recorded in 2015. With a positive slope of 9.96 and a weak coefficient  
 209 of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) of 0.28, the annual rainfall trend has been increasing. The MAM trend stayed  
 210 unchanged, whereas the OND trended upward.

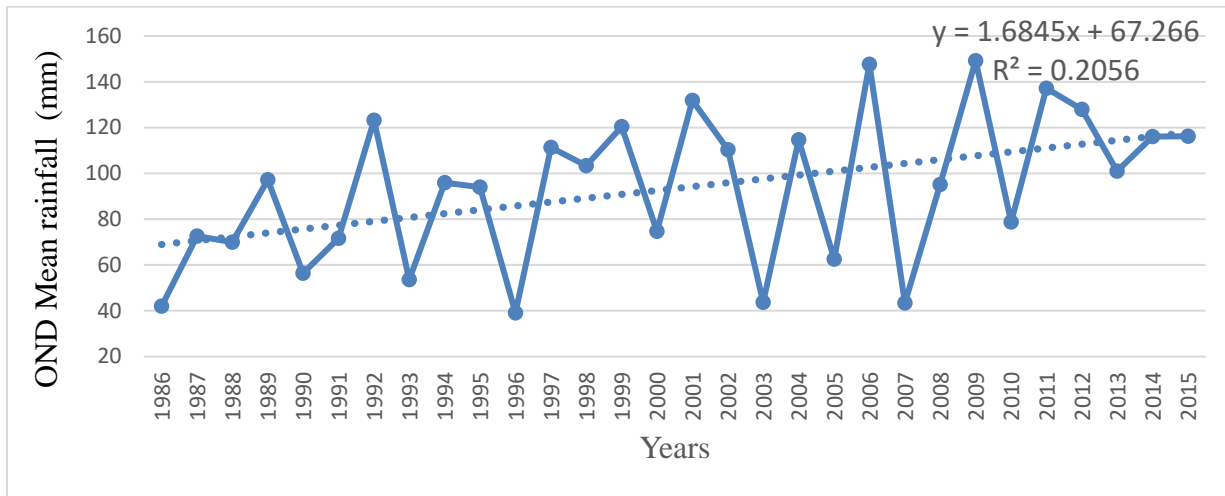


211  
 212 **Figure 5: The MAM rainfall trend for 1986 to 2015 period** (Source: Figure generated by S. B.  
 213 using 'Microsoft Excel').

214 **4.1.4 The OND rainfall trends**

215 Figure 6 OND depicts the changing rainfall pattern, with the highest annual rainfall of 450 mm  
 216 recorded in 2009. With the passage of time, the OND tendency has accelerated. The F-test,  
 217 however, reveals that the increases in trends are not significant because the p-values were greater  
 218 than the level of confidence (5%).





219

220 **Figure 6: The OND rainfall trends for the 1986 to 2015 period** (Source: Figure generated by S.  
 221 B. using 'Microsoft Excel').

222

#### 223 **4.1.5 Rainfall variability**

224 As shown by the two means 114.29mm and 101.24mm of the two rainfall data sets in Table 1,  
 225 yearly mean rainfall fell for the first 15 years and final 15 years. The rainfall in the study area, on  
 226 the other hand, is less variable, as seen by low standard deviations. The kurtosis and skewness  
 227 scores are also modest, indicating that rainfall variation is close to average.

228

229 **Table 1: Statistical analysis of two rainfall data sets of 15 years each for annual series**

<b>Variation 1</b>	<b>Annual</b>	<b>Variation 2</b>	<b>Annual</b>
Mean	114.29	Mean	101.24
Standard Error	3.53	Standard Error	2.64
Median	121.25	Median	104.1
Mode	#N/A	Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	13.68	Standard Deviation	10.22
Sample Variance	187.08	Sample Variance	104.44
Kurtosis	-0.99	Kurtosis	3.82
Skewness	-0.61	Skewness	-0.99
Range	42.27	Range	47.59
Minimum	88.87	Minimum	73.6
Maximum	131.14	Maximum	121.19
Sum	1714.42	Sum	1518.58
Count	15	Count	15

230

231

## 232 4.2 Temperature results

### 233 4.2.1 Temperature trends

234 Annual temperature trends, MAM temperature trends, and OND temperature trends periodic  
 235 changes over the 30 years from 1986 to 2015 are depicted in Figures 5 and 6. The highest observed  
 236 surface temperature of 20°C was reported in 2015. The temperature increase was significant at  
 237 5%, which is an analogy for climate change. From 1985 to 2000, significant yearly temperature  
 238 changes were also seen. Between the years 2000 and 2005, temperatures began to rise, followed  
 239 by a declining trend. Between 2007 and 2014, both increasing and decreasing trends were  
 240 observed, with an upward surge in 2015.

### 241 4.2.2 Annual mean temperature trends

242 From 1986 to 2015, yearly mean temperature trends have been increasing, as seen in Figure 7. The  
 243 highest observed annual mean temperature of around 20°C was recorded in 2008, while the lowest  
 244 temperature (18.5°C) was recorded in 2001.

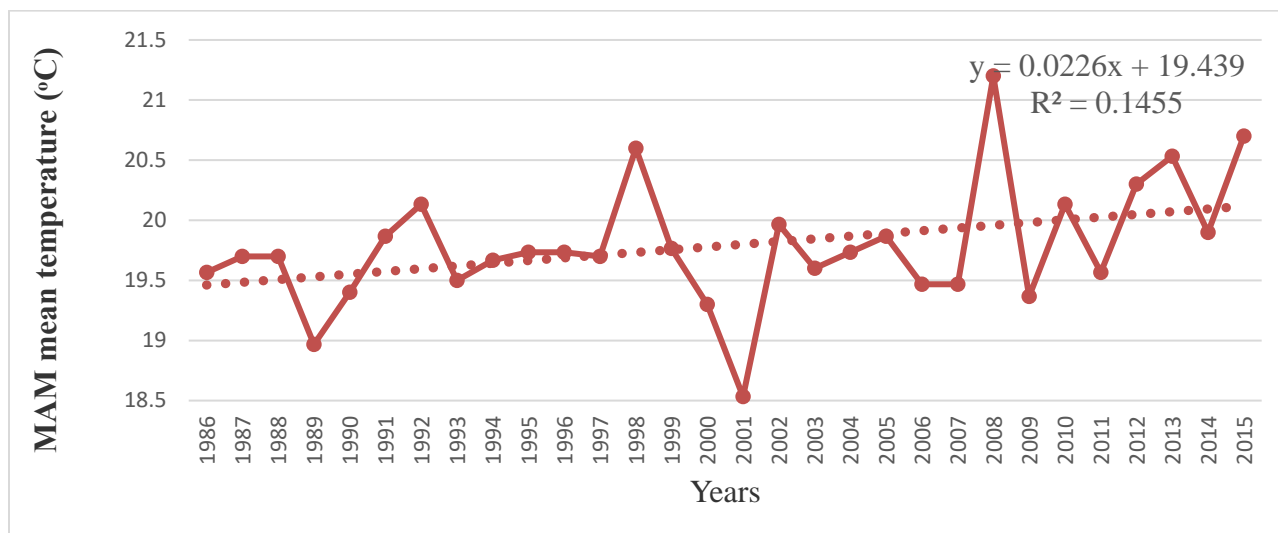


245  
 246 **Figure 7: Annual mean temperature trends from 1986 to 2015** (Source: Figure generated by S.  
 247 B. using 'Microsoft Excel')

### 248 4.2.3 MAM mean temperature trends

249 From 1986 to 2015, the MAM mean temperature (19.45 – 21.25°C) has been rising (19.45 –  
 250 21.25°C). The highest recorded mean temperature was (21.25°C) in 2008, and the lowest recorded  
 251 mean temperature was (18.5°C) in 2001 as shown in Figure 8.

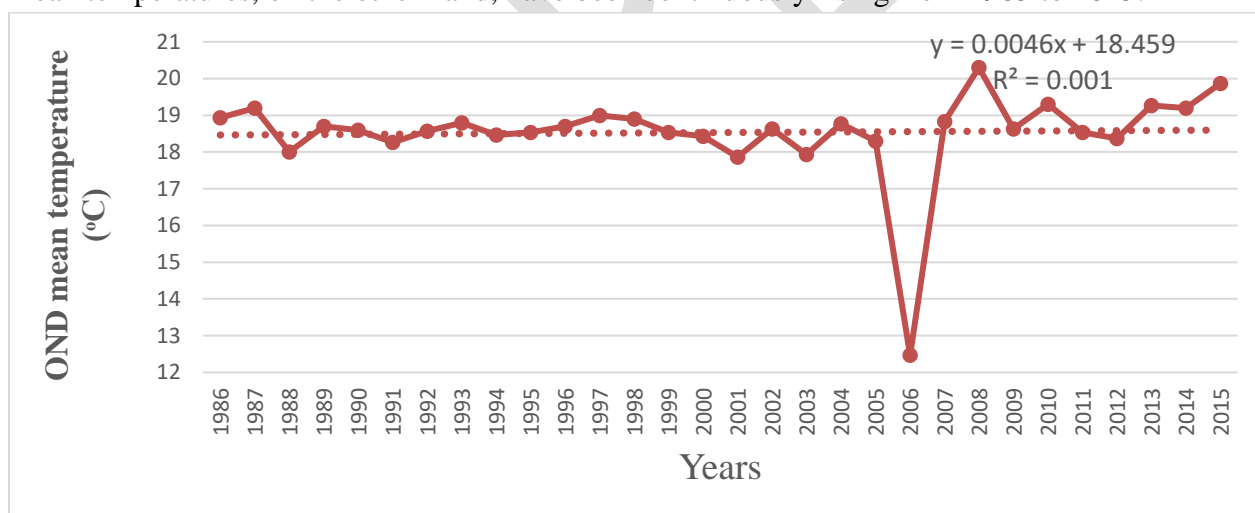
252



253  
254 **Figure 8: The MAM mean temperature trends from 1986 to 2015** (Source: Figure generated  
255 by S. B. using 'Microsoft Excel').

#### 256 *4.2.4 The OND mean temperature trends*

257 Figure 9 depicts OND temperature trends over time (1986 - 2015). The data shows a sharp drop in  
258 temperature from 19.3°C to 18.2°C in 2012, before rising to 18.4°C in 2015. The OND mean  
259 temperature trend fell sharply to 12.5°C in 2006, most likely as a result of climate change. OND  
260 mean temperatures, on the other hand, have been continuously rising from 1985 to 2015.



261  
262 **Figure 9: The OND mean temperature trends from 1986 to 2015** (Source: Figure generated by  
263 S. B. using 'Microsoft Excel').

#### 264 *4.2.5 Community perceptions of climate trends*

265 Participants in the household questionnaire survey, key informant interviews, in-depth interviews,  
266 and focus groups all reported significant changes in the frequency and intensity of climate events.  
267 Perceptions of respondents were recorded in a variety of ways. a) "Have you noticed any changes  
268 in threats to family members during the previous thirty years?" b) "Have there been any changes  
269 in threats against members of your household in the last thirty years?" "How does it affect your

270 household, if so?" "If so, how does it hurt your household?" and "If yes, how does it harm your  
271 household?"

272 According to focus group discussions (FGDs), over 90% of the farmers polled said they had  
273 noticed changes in rainfall patterns as far back as thirty years, based on weather records. Farmers  
274 often reported a late start to the rainy season, poor distribution throughout the season, and  
275 sometimes an early end. As a result, the planting season has moved from early March to late March  
276 and early April, with the season ending in June rather than May. Farmers have raised concerns  
277 about the fluctuation in the length, timing, and intensity of rains over the last ten years. For  
278 example, in the years 2005, 2007, and 2010, rainfall occurred at the beginning of the month of  
279 March. Farmers in various portions of the study region, particularly on the slopes, reported an  
280 increase in the number of cattle. Generally, participants in FGDs concurred that land surface  
281 temperatures had increased remarkably in the past thirty years as compared to past decades.

#### 282 ***4.3 Respondents' perception of rainfall***

283 In order to grasp the villagers' views on rainfall variability, a set of climate change questions were  
284 included in the household questionnaire. "Have you ever noticed changes in rainfall patterns?" for  
285 example, was one of the questions posed to respondents. The question required respondents to  
286 either answer 'yes' or 'no.' The majority of respondents (90%) saw changes in rainfall patterns,  
287 while 10% didn't (Table 2).

288 The total number of respondents interviewed ranged from 30 to 60 years old, with agricultural  
289 production and animal husbandry as their primary occupations. A total of 352 agricultural  
290 smallholder farmers (90%) reported changes in rainfall, while 46 (10%) reported no changes in  
291 rainfall. The majority of the respondents believed that changing weather patterns posed a threat to  
292 their livelihood activities.

#### 293 ***4.4 Respondents' perceptions of temperature***

294 The majority of farmers who filled out home questionnaires (80%) and participated in Focus Group  
295 Discussions (100%) believed that the region's temperature has increased significantly over the last  
296 three decades (1986–2015). This study looked at historical climate change data from Kenya's Mt.  
297 Elgon region to see if there were any trends, variability, or community perspectives. For the years  
298 1986 to 2015, the Kitale Meteorological Station supplied data on rainfall and temperature (KMS).  
299 Quantitative and qualitative climatic data were evaluated using SPSS and descriptive techniques  
300 for trends and variability in order to develop climate change scenarios in the research area. The  
301 community's climate views were analyzed using descriptive and thematic analysis as a result of  
302 respondents' direct observations and projections.

### 303 ***5.0 Discussion***

#### 304 ***5.1 Climate trends***

305 In the Mt. Elgon Region of Kenya, this study looked at historical climate change data for trends,  
306 variability, and community views. Kitale Meteorological Station provided rainfall and temperature  
307 data for the years 1986 to 2015 (KMS). To generate climate change scenarios in the research area,

308 both quantitative and qualitative climate data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social  
309 Scientists (SPSS) and descriptive techniques for trends and variability. As a result of the  
310 respondents' direct observations and projections, the community's climate views were subjected to  
311 descriptive and thematic analysis.

312 According to the results of a statistical analysis of rainfall data from 1986 to 2015, the research  
313 area has a tri-modal seasonal rainfall pattern, with long rains beginning in the month of March  
314 and ending in April or May. The brief rains peak in July and August, and then taper down in  
315 September. In November, the third high appears, followed by a decline in December (Figure 3).  
316 Surface air masses from the Equatorial Congo rain forest, Mt. Elgon Forest, and its vicinity to  
317 Lakes Victoria, Turkana, Albert, and Kyoga influence the research region, resulting in tri-modal  
318 rain patterns. Despite the fact that the research area receives sufficient and acceptable rainfall to  
319 support agriculture, the study discovered significant disparities in rainfall distribution on a yearly  
320 and seasonal scale (Kansiime, 2010).

321 The conclusions of climate data time series data analysis revealed an increase in annual and  
322 seasonal series rainfall. On a seasonal basis, the rainfall trend in March, April, and May (MAM)  
323 has been decreasing, whereas the rainfall trend in October, November, and December (OND) has  
324 been growing (Figures 4 and 5). The findings of this study show considerable increases in rainfall  
325 and tendencies that resemble climate change. However, because the p-value for the station was  
326 more than 0.05, any rise or decrease in rainfall trends was statistically insignificant. Seasonally  
327 and annually, rainfall distribution is uniform to moderate. The erratic distribution of rainfall  
328 throughout the OND season was highlighted by a number of years with percentages of 6.7 percent.

329 As indicated in Table 1, seasonal rainfall variability is greater than yearly rainfall variability. The  
330 annual rainfall mean was much higher in 1997/98, a finding ascribed to the *El Nino* event. The  
331 Government of Uganda (2007) validates these findings, exhibiting increasing inter-annual rainfall  
332 patterns, decreasing March-April-May (MAM) rainfall trends, and increasing October-November-  
333 December (OND) rainfall trends. Maximum, minimum, and mean seasonal and mean annual  
334 rainfall data were analyzed to determine skewness, kurtosis, coefficient of variation, and  
335 standard deviation as well as trend reliability. The study results also indicated that there was high  
336 rainfall variability within seasons and perceived rain patterns, as well as observed decreasing  
337 yearly rainfall. The research area's mountain slopes and diverse topography have a major and  
338 negative impact on the local climate. The observed rain data had a lot of variability within  
339 seasons, according to the data analysis.

340 This is consistent with certain studies on Kenya's increasing tendency in spatiotemporal rainfall  
341 distribution (Camberlin and Philipon, 2002; Funk *et al.*, 2010). A number of additional studies  
342 have found that the long rains (MAM) are decreasing, which may be due to land-use change in  
343 and surrounding East Africa (EA). Large land surface disturbances, such as replacing current  
344 land cover with an estimate of zero anthropogenic influence (Chase *et al.*, 2000) or replacing  
345 twenty-first-century expansions in crop or pasture land with an estimate of zero anthropogenic  
346 influence (Hagos *et al.*, 2014).

347 Several other similar studies (Camberlin and Philipon, 2002; Funk *et al.*, 2010) undertaken in  
348 mountain regions around the world concur with the findings of this study, indicating rising  
349 rainfall patterns and unpredictability. Long rains (MAM) have decreased in the East African  
350 region, but short rains (OND) have increased (Lyon and DeBitt, 2012; Viste *et al.*, 2013;  
351 Liebmann *et al.*, 2014), according to other renowned experts (Lyon and DeBitt, 2012; Viste *et*  
352 *al.*, 2013; Liebmann *et al.*, 2014). This has led in terrible drought effects, which have resulted in  
353 low agricultural productivity, starvation, and increased poverty for millions of people in the region.  
354 Arragaw *et al.*, (2017) did a recent study in Ethiopia's central highlands (which is quite similar to  
355 our study location) and found that yearly and June–September rainfall were statistically  
356 inconsequential.

357 The region has undergone significant temperature rise in the last three decades (1986 – 2015),  
358 according to a trend analysis of temperature data (Figure 7). Both the MAM and OND  
359 temperature trends have been increasing throughout the study period 1986 – 2015 (Figures 8 and  
360 9). Evaporation increases when air temperatures rise, contributing to dry conditions, especially  
361 when precipitation falls. Drought is projected to become more prevalent in some areas in the  
362 study area, posing a threat to food and livestock production. By 2085, temperature forecasts  
363 suggest a significant increase in the mean annual temperature of 1.3°C –4.5°C warming in the  
364 cooler season (June–September) of 91.7°C – 2.9°C under RCP 4.5°C and 4.9°C under RCP 8.5°C.  
365 This will most certainly have a detrimental influence on the water resource sector, resulting in food  
366 insecurity and, as a result, a loss of livelihood according to studies in the Lake Basin by Olaka *et*  
367 *al.*, 2019 on anticipated Climatic and Hydrologic Changes to Lake Victoria Basin Rivers under  
368 Three RCP Emission Scenarios for 2015-2100.

369 In Nepal's rural and inaccessible mountainous Jumla District, similar observations of rising  
370 temperature trends were made. Warming temperatures are already having an impact in the research  
371 area. These findings are in line with prior studies on temperature variability trend anomalies by  
372 King'uyu *et al.*, (2000), Anyah and Semazzi (2006). In the Horn of Africa, studies by Omondi *et*  
373 *al.*, (2013) found an overall increase in warm temperatures, particularly at night, while cold  
374 extremes are decreasing. Temperatures in the region have risen significantly in the last three  
375 decades, according to linear trend analysis. Confronted with urgent development needs, and in  
376 response to proximate risks associated with a variable and changing climate, decision-makers in  
377 Africa must be guided by currently available climate information to make informed choices, whilst  
378 acknowledging that information availability, relevance and usability will always evolve (Chandni  
379 *et al.*, 2018).

## 380 **5.2 Community's climate perceptions**

381 Over 90% of farmers between the ages of 45 and 65 had seen changes in rainfall patterns as early  
382 as 30 years ago. According to Rowel *et al.*, (2015), East Africa has lately undergone a succession  
383 of disastrous droughts, but models indicate higher rainfall in the next decades, posing questions  
384 about possible adaptation alternatives. They speculate that the expected trend is a result of both  
385 natural and manmade factors. Both hypotheses have had an impact on tropical Sea Surface  
386 Temperature (SST) trends, the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), *El Nino*, and Monsoon

387 features, which are thought to be the cause of recent droughts. It is envisaged that research  
388 priorities will be more concentrated in order to give a process-based expert judgment of the climate  
389 reliability of East African forecasts, resulting in a better knowledge of projected variability. The  
390 community's view of rainfall sufficiency matched observational data, with respondents  
391 acknowledging late and early rainfall onset, mid-season droughts, and early cessations. Floods,  
392 droughts, and landslides are all reported to be on the rise as a result of climate change. Several  
393 other similar studies (Camberlin and Philipon, 2002; Funk *et al.*, 2010) undertaken in mountain  
394 regions around the world concur with the findings of this study, indicating rising rainfall patterns  
395 and unpredictability. According to trend research, the region has seen a considerable temperature  
396 rise of 1.0°C.

397 Farmers' perceptions of climate fluctuation are consistent with climatic data indicating season  
398 timing and distribution. This is a typical finding in other studies of resource users' perceptions  
399 of climate change, such as in Ethiopia's Nile basin (Deressa *et al.*, 2008), where farmers reported  
400 increasing variability in rainfall and shifts in growing seasons. The growing season is claimed  
401 to be shortening, and rainfall distribution has an impact on agricultural households' decisions  
402 about what crops to cultivate and how to manage their property (Komutunga and Musiitwa  
403 2001).

404 However, farmers' perceptions of rainfall were not a good basis for making educated decisions  
405 about when to prepare fields and when to plant due to a lack of relevant information. Other  
406 notable scholars have predicted that an area's agricultural potential can be completely fulfilled  
407 by focusing on seasonal rainfall reliability rather than yearly rainfall reliability (King'uyu *et al.*,  
408 2000; NMA 2007; Belay *et al.*, 2014). This shown that concentrating solely on yearly or seasonal  
409 trends might be misleading and should be accompanied by variability analysis and farmer  
410 perspective. Furthermore, combining a variety of methodologies rather than relying on a single  
411 method to detect variability and trend in meteorological variables allows us to get a clearer view  
412 of the situation. Incorporating farmer experience into trend analysis discourse could also provide  
413 crucial insights into the nature of meteorological processes that cannot be captured just through  
414 the examination of recorded data.

415 Appropriate, enabling frameworks, including proposed robust policies, integrated technology, and  
416 financial incentives, are required and can be implemented to improve people's adaptive ability and  
417 resilience in the research area. Adoption of climate change technologies will be aided by increased  
418 access to climate data and increased awareness. The promotion of climate awareness and the  
419 dissemination of climate information should be given high importance through effective  
420 demonstration projects conducted by experienced or knowledgeable individuals in diverse  
421 professions. As a result, additional adaption alternatives are still needed to supplement the present  
422 ones.

## 423 **6.0 Conclusions**

424 The current study looked at historical climate data for trends and variability, as well as villagers'  
425 perceptions, from 1986 to 2015. Significant differences in rainfall and temperature trends and  
426 variability were discovered, which were most likely due to an increase in annual rainfall



427 extremes and a rise in surface mean temperatures, influencing climatic patterns. According to  
428 trend study, the region has experienced significant irregularity in rainfall patterns and a spike in  
429 temperature during the last three decades. From 1986 to 2015, the current study examined  
430 historical climate data for trends and variability, as well as villagers' impressions. The analysis  
431 indicated significant differences in rainfall and temperature trends and variability which was  
432 likely attributable to an increase in extremes of rainfall on the annual scale and an increase in  
433 surface mean temperatures therefore changing climate patterns. In the last three decades, the  
434 region has seen significant irregularity in rainfall patterns and a rise in temperature, according  
435 to trend research.

436 This study's findings have the following implications: Significant trends and variability in  
437 rainfall have an impact on crop production (maize, beans, potatoes, and onions), with total crop  
438 failure occurring in extreme circumstances due to extended droughts or when floods wash away  
439 the crops. Farmers' educated farming decisions are highly influenced by a rise in the magnitude  
440 of annual rainfall, a decrease in MAM rains, and an increase in the OND rainfall pattern. Because  
441 of diminishing pastureland, protracted drought, and increased cattle diseases, as well as human  
442 exponential population growth, livestock farming has a grim future. This could result in a large  
443 reduction in the economy in the region as a result of lost opportunities for farmers to earn a  
444 substantial income. If achieved, the wasted opportunity would inject cash into the veins of the  
445 rural economy, resulting in rural economic rebirth. Though livestock husbandry is a viable option  
446 for food security, it requires an economic recovery to alleviate poverty and enhance livelihoods  
447 in the region.

448 Planting fast-ripening crops and establishing early warning systems based on the combination  
449 of indigenous (experiential) knowledge and meteorological data should all be part of adapting  
450 to changing climate trends and variability. The way forward is for vulnerable populations in the  
451 region to improve household preparedness in order to plan and manage climate change trends  
452 and variability-induced hazards. Because high elevation experiences rarefied air, low or  
453 decreased pressure, decreased temperatures, and enhanced insolation, individuals who live in  
454 mountain regions should prepare for intensified consequences of climate change on livelihoods.  
455 Increased awareness will aid people in mountainous areas in mitigating and adapting to the  
456 effects of climate change, reducing the likelihood of more extreme weather. This can be  
457 accomplished by promoting conservation agriculture, implementing weather-indexed crop  
458 insurance schemes, supporting community-based adaptation, such as providing farmers with  
459 climate information, and providing more financial and technical assistance. Climate change  
460 impacts on livelihoods in the study region can be mitigated by raising animals that are tolerant  
461 of local climatic conditions, establishing fodder banks, providing water, and putting in place  
462 early warning systems.

### 463 *Acknowledgements*

464 Our very special tributes and thanks are directed to the research team led by the lead investigator  
465 for their invaluable contributions and challenging accomplishments during the research period that  
466 culminated in the writing of this paper. We also wish to recognize the management of Kitale

467 Meteorological Station (KMS) for providing the climate data. We are also indebted to the  
468 meticulous reviewers whose comments improved the quality of this manuscript.

#### 469 **Data Availability Statement**

470 “The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are not publicly available  
471 due to [because it could be compromised or replicated] but are available from the corresponding  
472 author on reasonable request.”

#### 473 **Conflict of interests**

474 The authors have no relevant conflict of interests as regards to financial or non-financial interests  
475 to disclose in so far as the production of this manuscript is concerned. This is because the authors  
476 did not receive support from any organization for the submitted work. No funding was received to  
477 assist with the preparation of this manuscript. *The authors declare that no funds, grants, or other*  
478 *support were received during the preparation of this manuscript.”*

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