

Application of Water Balance and SWAT Model for Groundwater Recharge Estimation: Beressa Watershed, Central Ethiopian Plateau, Ethiopia.

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ABSTRACT

Recharge is an important parameter in groundwater flow and transport models. Sustainable groundwater management also requires knowledge and quantification of groundwater recharge. Quantifying groundwater recharge is thus a prerequisite for efficient and sustainable groundwater resource management. As aquifers are depleted, recharge estimates have become more essential in determining appropriate levels of groundwater withdrawal. Water balance and SWAT models have been applied to estimate the annual groundwater recharge of Beressa watershed, which is part of the Blue Nile Basin in the central Ethiopian highlands. The results from the water balance method show that from annual precipitation of 947 mm, 641 mm re-evaporates to the atmosphere, 169 mm follows surface runoff and 136 mm percolates through the water table to the groundwater system. The three water balance components account for 67.66%, 17.91% and 14.44% of the annual precipitation, respectively. The result from the SWAT model shows annual evapotranspiration of 572 mm, surface runoff 228 mm, interflow 25 mm and annual groundwater recharge of 126 mm. This accounts for 60.42%, 24.12%, 2.69% and 13.35% of the annual precipitation, respectively. The amount of annual sustainable yield is also estimated to be 40% of the recharge, 17.93 MCM.

Keywords: Groundwater Resource Management, Water Balance, SWAT Models, Recharge, Watershed,

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I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Water is a precious natural resource, without which there would be no life on Earth and its occurrence is the main factor which makes our Planet, The Earth, very unique in the solar system. Similarly, it constitutes two-thirds of the weight of our body. Our everyday lives depend on the availability of cheap and clean water resources, which are also important for agricultural and industrial activity (Kevin Hiscok, 2005). Groundwater is water stored in the saturated zone with in rocks below the water table. Groundwater plays a major role in the livelihood of mankind by providing water for drinking, irrigation, and industrial purposes. Groundwater obtained from beneath the Earth's surface is often cheaper, more convenient and less vulnerable to pollution than surface water (Kevin Hiscok, 2005, Saied Eslamain, 2014). Water is the most common substance on the surface of the Earth, covering over 70 percent of the planet. However, about

96.54 percent of the total amount of water is in the oceans and is not directly usable. Similarly,

1.74 percent of the total water is capped by glaciers and ice caps. This makes Groundwater the most abundant (1.69 %) water resource for direct house hold and other human consumptions on the planet (Tim Davie, 2008).

According to (Freeze and Cherry, 1979), groundwater recharge is the entry into the saturated zone of water made available at the water-table surface. Recharge is an important parameter in groundwater flow and transport models. Sustainable groundwater management also requires knowledge and quantification of groundwater recharge. Quantifying groundwater recharge is thus a prerequisite for efficient and sustainable groundwater resource management. As aquifers are depleted, recharge estimates have become more essential in determining appropriate levels of groundwater withdrawal

(Ketema Tilahun, 2009).

Beressa watershed is a small watershed located within the Jema sub-basin of The Blue Nile Basin along its South Eastern boundary with the Awash basin. Debre Birhan is the largest city found within the watershed. The watershed constitutes one of the regions in the country with huge groundwater potential with extensive and highly productive fissured aquifers ($T = 10.1 - 100 \text{ m}^2/\text{d}$ and $Q = 5 - 25 \text{ l/s}$ for wells and/or springs) and extensive and moderately productive fissured aquifers ($T = 1.1 - 10 \text{ m}^2/\text{d}$ and $Q = 0.51 - 5 \text{ l/s}$ for wells and/or springs) (Jiri Sima, 2018). On the other hand, the watershed is located in a region with huge annual population growth, urbanization and industrialization. Zewdu Alebachew (2011) has showed that the built-up structures (urbanization) has increased 131% between 1986 and 2000, and 89.7% between 2000 and 2005 around Debre Birhan area. This is an annual growth rate of 9.38% and 17.94% respectively of built-up area for these study years. The study shows the presence of an increasing large scale urban sprawling in the area. The city is also becoming center of huge industries, which require large supply of water resource and a number of water bottling factories. This, along with the increasing urbanization and population increase is expected to exert pressure on the quality and quantity of groundwater resources within the Beressa watershed. Hence, estimation of the annual amount of water being recharged for the aquifers in the watershed is an important and effective tool for wise utilization and management of the groundwater resource. This study assesses the annual groundwater recharge of the watershed using two techniques, Water Balance (WB) and SWAT model.

1.2 Location and Accessibility

Beressa watershed is found in central Ethiopia, within the North Shoa zone of Amhara administrative region around 130 Km North-East of Addis Ababa. Hydrologically, it is found within the Jema sub-basin of Blue Nile Basin along its South-Eastern boundary with the Awash Basin, covering an area of 340 Km^2 . Administratively, it is found within three Woredas of North Shoa Zone: Angolela Tera, Debre Birhan Zurya and Debre Birhan Town administration (Figure 1). Astronomically, the watershed is found between longitude 39.46° E and 39.73° E and latitude 9.56° N and 9.75° N . The watershed is accessible through the main Addis Ababa-Dessie-Mekelle main asphalt road. There are also a number of other roads such as foot trails and dry weather roads. Large part of the watershed is a flat plateau, which is easily accessible for field studies except small areas in the Eastern and North-Western tips, where it gets rugged.

1.3 Objectives

The main objective of this study is to estimate annual groundwater recharge of the watershed using WB and SWAT model.

Specific objectives include:

- ✓ To characterize the area in terms of physiography, drainage, soil cover, Land Use Land Cover (LULC), geology and hydrogeology.
- ✓ To estimate average annual water balance components, Precipitation, Evapotranspiration, Runoff and Groundwater recharge using WB and SWAT model
- ✓ To compare groundwater recharge estimation using the two methods.
- ✓ To estimate the amount of sustainable yield in the watershed

1.4 Methodology and Materials

The methodology employed to accomplish the objectives set above is principally a desk study of different data for the given watershed. The watershed is delineated in Arc SWAT interface using 30 m resolution SRTM Digital Elevation Model (DEM) data downloaded from open topography website (<http://opentopo.sdsc.edu/datasets>). The drainage pattern of streams is also extracted similarly. The LULC data of the watershed is clipped from Sentinel-2 LULC map of Ethiopia for the year 2016. (http://geoportal.rcmrd.org/layers/servir%3Aethiopia_sentinel2_lulc2016). On the other hand, FAO digital soil map of Ethiopia is used to characterize the soil type of the watershed (<http://www.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/metadata.show?id=14116>)

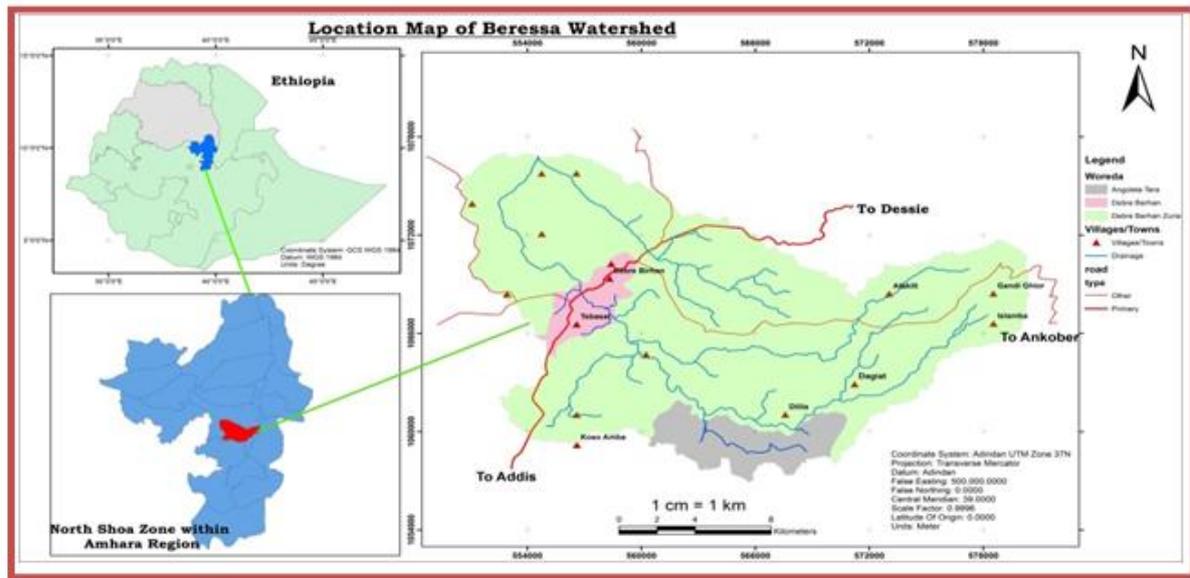


Figure1:LocationmapofBeressa watershed

The geology and hydrogeology of the area is characterized based on data obtained from the Geological Survey of Ethiopia (GSE). Daniel Meshesha, et al., 2010, has studied the geology of Debre Birhan area and produced the geological map of the Debre Birhan map sheet at a scale of 1: 250,000 based on field observations, petrographic studies, Landsat image analysis and literature studies. Whereas, Hydrogeological and Hydrochemical Maps of Debre Birhan map sheet was made by collaboration of Czech Geological Survey and Geological Survey of Ethiopia, 2018.

To estimate the groundwater recharge based on WB method, daily precipitation data for ten years (2004–2013) is utilized from CFSR (Climate Forecast System Reanalysis) dataset. Monthly average Potential Evapotranspiration (PET) and Actual Evapotranspiration (AET) is calculated using Thornthwaite method. The average annual runoff for the watershed is calculated using Curve Number (CN) method. This is made by calculating the runoff amount for each rainfall day as a function of the CN. The daily runoff values were summed up to get the total annual runoff. The annual groundwater recharge of the watershed is then calculated as the residual of the two water balance components from the annual precipitation.

The SWAT model takes two types of input data for analysis purpose: projected maps (LULC, Slope and Soil) and daily weather data (Temperature, Precipitation, Wind Speed, Relative Humidity and Sunshine Hours). The three maps were reclassified into different classes to make them compatible with the SWAT database. Different software was also used as a tool to characterize the watershed and estimate the annual groundwater recharge. ArcGIS and its SWAT extension were used to delineate the watershed, extract drainages and run the SWAT model. Arc Map 10.1 is used to prepare different map layers for the watershed. Surfer 15 is also used to characterize the physiography and produce a 3D map of the watershed. Microsoft Excel, on the other hand, is used to make different calculations of WB components, including the groundwater recharge.

2. WATERSHED CHARACTERISTICS

2.1 Size and Shape

The size of a watershed is best explained in terms of its area (A) and Perimeter (P), whereas Gravelius coefficient or compactness index (K) can be used to express its shape. The area of Beressa watershed is 340.594 km² and its perimeter is 141 km calculated using Arc map. Gravelius coefficient or compactness index (K), devised by Gravelius, expresses the ratio of the perimeter of the drainage-basin to that of a circle of equal area, or

$$k = \frac{P}{P^*}$$

Where, P is perimeter of the basin, P* is perimeter of a circle having the same area extent A. The minimum value is unity for

acirculararea(Horton,1932)

$$k = \frac{141 \text{ km}}{\sqrt{3.14 * 340.594 \text{ km}^2}} = 2.155787$$

The compactness index shows that the watershed is not circular in shape, it is rather elongated. The visual shape of the watershed can be seen from the location map given above.

2.2 Physiography and Slope

The local physiography of the area has been characterized based on SRTM 30m DEM data. The topography shows three distinct classes: rugged mountainous region in the Eastern part of the watershed (along the recharge areas), extensive plateau region in the central and southern part of the watershed and localized, deep and rugged gorges in the north western region along the outlet of the watershed. The elevation of the watershed ranges from 2099m to 3646m a.s.l from the deep gorge to the mountainous terrains, respectively.

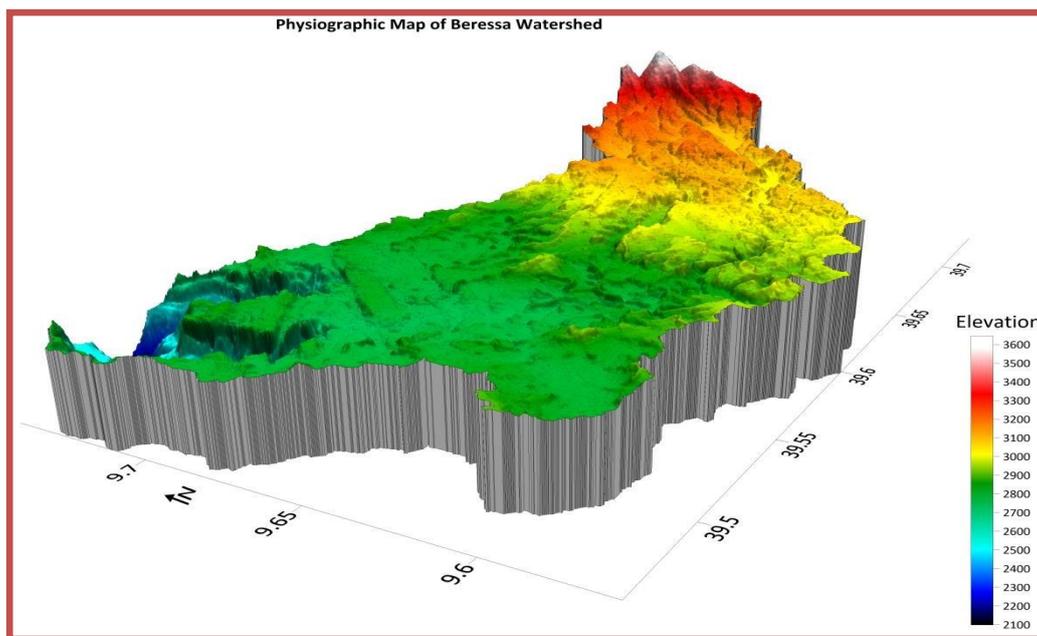


Figure 2: Physiographic map of Beressa watershed

Slope gradient of the study watershed is classified into five classes: 0-5, 5-11, 11-19, 19-31, 31-74 degrees, which represent from near horizontal to very steep slope areas. The highest slopes are found in the river gorges and mountains, whereas the central plateau areas are relatively near horizontal.

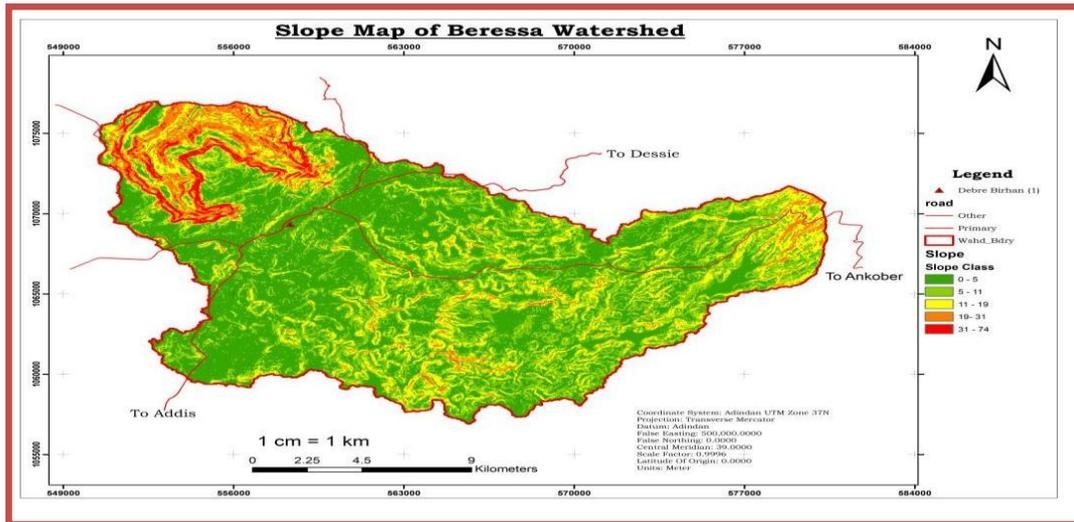


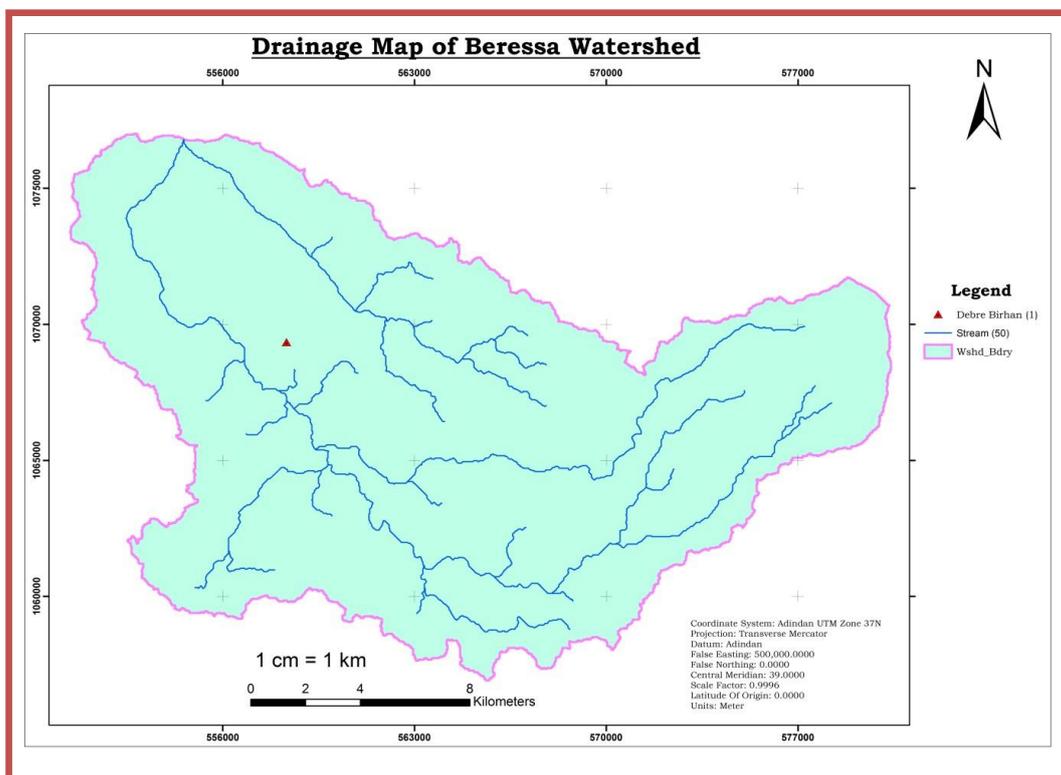
Figure3:Slope mapofBeressa watershed

2.3 DrainageDensityandDrainagePattern

Streams and rivers in the Beressa watershed start from the eastern part of the area and drain first to south west and then to northwest towards the watershed outlet. The two major rivers in the watershed are Beressa and Dalecha rivers. Beressa River is perennial, whereas Dalecha River is intermittent and the two rivers bound Debre Birhan city from South-West and North-East direction, respectively. The drainage pattern of the river networks is not the same at different sectors of the watershed. It has semi-parallel drainage pattern on the eastern and south western side (downstream and upstream areas), while dendritic drainage pattern is observed in the central part.

Figure4:DrainagemapofBeressa watershed

Drainage-density defines the length of streams per unit of drainage-area, or mathematically:



$d d^= A$ \underline{L}_T
 $=$ d 324Km
 d 340.594Km2

Where, d_d – drainage density

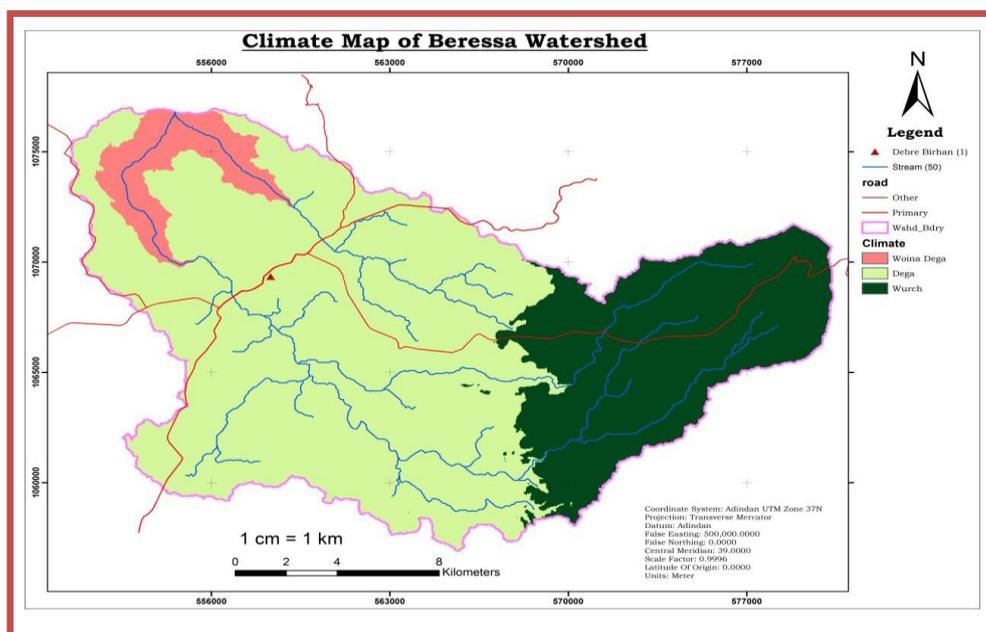
L_T - the whole length of stream networks, and A -total area of the watershed.
=0.9513 per Km

Drainage-density is an excellent indicator of the permeability of the surface of a drainage-basin, its value ranging from 1.5 to 2.0 for steep, impervious areas in regions of high precipitation, down to zero or nearly zero for basins sufficiently permeable so that all the rainfall ordinarily is taken into the soil through infiltration (Horton, 1932). Hence, the watershed has moderate drainage density.

2.4 Climate

The climate of Ethiopia is mainly controlled by the seasonal migration of the Inter-tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) following the position of the sun relative to the earth and the associated atmospheric circulation. It is also highly influenced by the complex topography of the country. There are five traditional climate classes in the country: Wurch (representing very cold climate at elevations greater than 3000m a.s.l), Dega (representing temperate like climate in the highlands with altitude range of 2500-3000m asl), Woina Dega (warm climate representing areas with altitude ranges of 1500-2500m a.s.l), Kola (hot and arid type climate in an areas with elevation less than 1500m a.s.l.) and Bereha (typical of areas with very hot and hyper-arid climate) (NMSA, 2001). According to this classification, Beressa watershed lies within three different climate regions: Wurch, Dega and Woina Dega. Most part of the area lies within Dega climate region, where as Wurch and Woina Dega climate types are constrained to the Upstream and Downstream areas of the watershed, respectively.

Figure 5: Climate map of Beressa watershed



CFSR is used as a source of data for climatic elements (Precipitation, Temperature, Windspeed, Sunshine Hours

and Relative Humidity. The CFSR dataset consists of hourly weather forecasts generated by the National Weather Service's NCEP Global Forecast System. It is a global meteorological dataset to obtain historical weather data available globally for each hour since 1979 at a 38-km resolution. According to Fuka et al., (2013) utilizing the CFSR precipitation and temperature data to force a watershed model provides stream discharge simulations that are as good as or better than models forced using traditional weather gauging stations, especially when stations are more than 10 km from the watershed. Based on this study conducted on five watersheds in USA and Ethiopia, the authors have made some conclusions. CFSR data is globally available and will allow modelers access to weather data where there are no nearby weather stations. This is probably most valuable for data-poor regions such as in developing countries. The weather data are effectively averaged over spatial scales that are similar to many watershed extents or at least more similar than a typical point measurement of a weather station is to a watershed. CFSR data typically offers daily data continuously for the years (1979-2014). However, data from weather stations are usually discontinuous and extrapolating the data could be misleading.

The weather data of the watershed averaged for 10 years from 01/01/2004-31/12/2013 is presented in Chapter Four.

2.5 Land Use Land Cover (LULC)

The LULC of an area is one of the most important determinant factors for the water resource potential of an area. In groundwater recharge, it controls areas of rainfall percolation and runoff generating areas. The LULC data of the area was found from 20m resolution Sentinel-2 LULC map of Ethiopia.

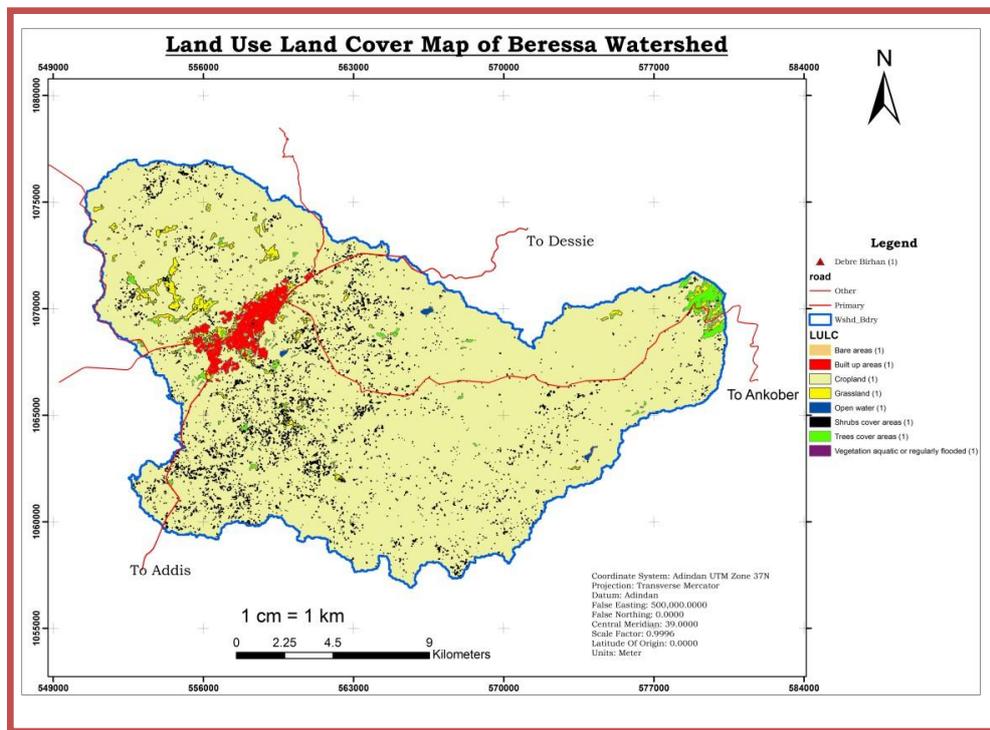
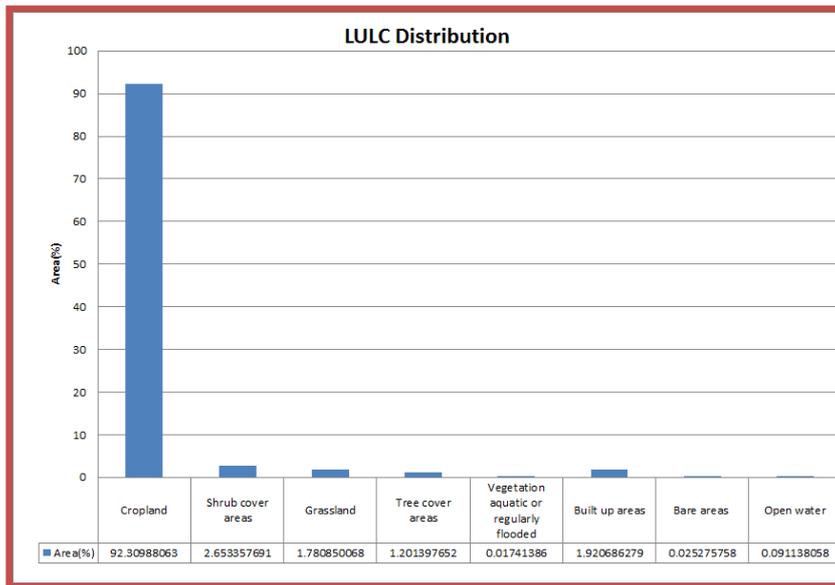


Figure 6: LULC map of Beressa watershed

Based on the LULC map, the watershed is divided into eight land cover classes: Cropland, Shrub cover areas, Grassland, Tree cover areas, Aquatic or regularly flooded Vegetation, Built up areas, Bare areas and Open water. The main crops grown in the region include barley, wheat, beans, field peas, and lentils. Farming is almost entirely rain-fed, and is dependent on weather conditions. The chart below shows the percentage distribution of each land cover class in the watershed.

Figure 7: Percentage distribution of each land cover class



2.6 Soil

The soil groups of Beressa watershed are classified according to the FAO soil group. As a result, three soil classes are distinctly mapped: Vertic Cambisols (CMv), Eutric Leptosols (LPe) and Lithic Leptosols (LPq). Cambisols hold soils with incipient soil formation. Cambisol soils show beginning transformation of soil material from weak, mostly brownish discoloration and/or structure formation below the surface horizon. Vertic Cambisol soils have fine top soil texture, 30%, 28% and 42 % Sand, Silt and Clay proportion, respectively and are classified as light clays based on USDA texture classification. Eutric Leptosols have medium top soil texture, 50%, 20% and 30% proportion of Sand, Silt and Clay respectively and are classified as loam soil. Lithic Leptosols have medium top soil texture, 43%, 29% and 28% proportion of Sand, Silt and Clay respectively and are classified as clay loam soils (FAO, 2009).

Based on data from (Belete Berhanu et al., 2013) the hydrologic group of the soils is classified as Band D.

Texture class	Effective water capacity (C _w)(mm)	Infiltration rate (f)(mm/hour)	Hydrologic
Sand	8.89	210.1	A
Loamy sand	7.874	61.2	A
Sandy loam	6.35	25.9	A
Loam	4.826	13.2	B
Silt loam	4.318	6.9	B
Sandy clay loam	3.556	4.3	C
Clay loam	3.556	2.3	D
Silty clay loam	2.794	1.5	D
Sandy clay	2.286	1.3	D
Silty clay	2.286	1.0	D
Clay	2.032	0.5	D

Table 1: Soil Infiltration rate and hydrological soil group based on textural class (adopted from Belete Berhanu et al., 2013)

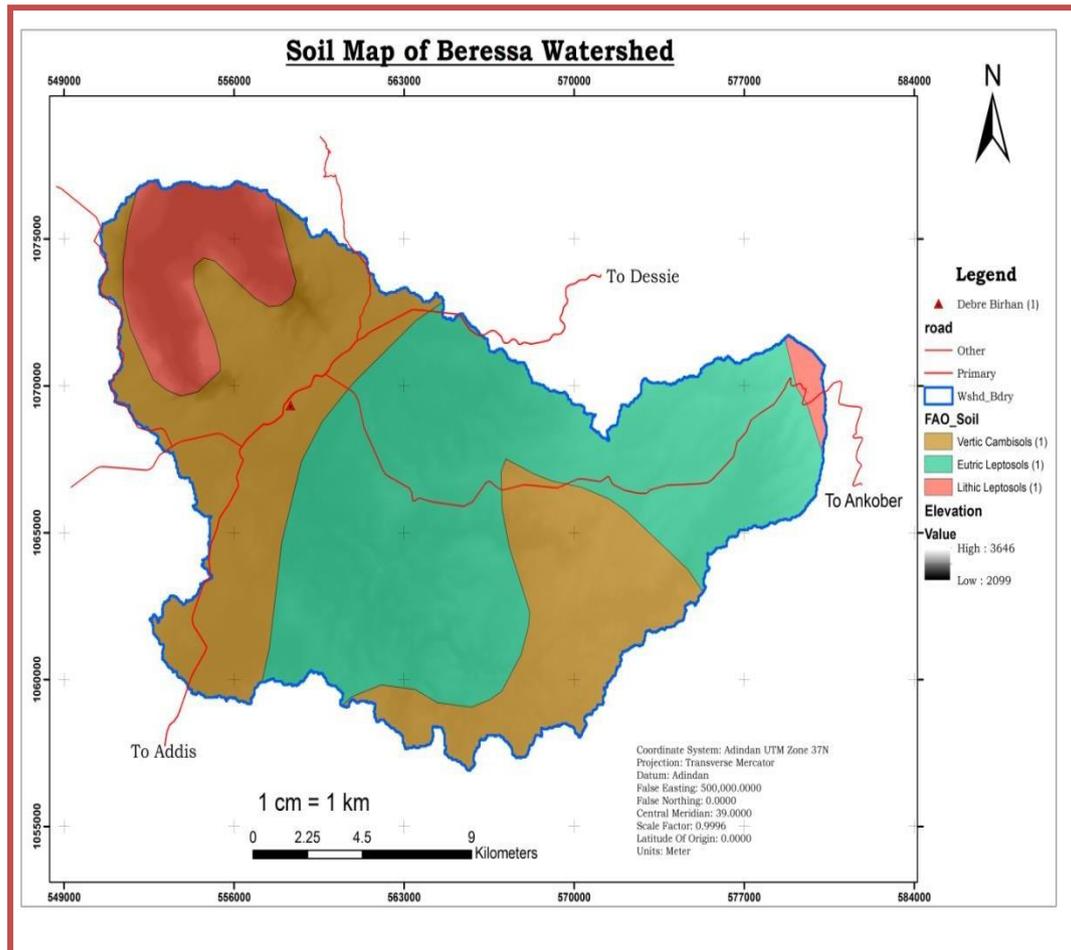


Figure8: Soilmap of Beressa Watershed

3. GEOLOGY AND HYDROGEOLOGY OF BERESSA WATERSHED

3.1 Geology of Beressa Watershed

Beressa watershed is located within the central Ethiopian Plateau along the North-Western margin of Main Ethiopia Rift System. According to Daniel Meshesha et al (2010), the study area consists of two litho-stratigraphic units, Cenozoic volcanic rocks and Quaternary superficial deposits. Cenozoic volcanic rocks which are found in the study area are formed during the tertiary volcanism and these rocks include Tarmaber-Megezez basalt and Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo ignimbrite. On the other hand, a Quaternary superficial deposit common in the watershed is Eluvium deposit.

3.1.1 Lithostratigraphic units

The main governing factor for the hydraulic characteristics of ground water is the rock units which found in the area. To characterize the hydraulic properties of the rocks in the area we have used local and regional previously worked data. Accordingly the area is covered by three different lithologic units which have different age and history. These rock units are represented as follow in age wise from oldest (Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo ignimbrite) to youngest (Eluvium) superficial deposits.

Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo Ignimbrite

According to Daniel Meshesha et al (2010) this unit has sharp contacts with the overlying (Tarmaber Megezez,) and underlying (Kesem) basalts. It comprises ignimbrite, rhyolite, Tertiary sediment, tuffaceous sediment, aphanitic basalt, agglomerate and ash. The ignimbrite forms gentle to steep cliffs, elongated ridges and sporadically distributed isolated hills. It is medium to coarse grained, light/bluish/brownish gray to gray (fresh color) to dull/dark gray (weathering color), highly consolidated to welded tuff and bedded. It also shows columnar joint, vertical joints, and fractures. It contains rock fragments of rhyolite and basalt ranging up to 2cm in

diameter and elongated fibrous glass shards (fiamme), whereas the amount of rock fragments significantly varies from place to place. The thin section studies show the ignimbrite has an average composition of glass 60%, plagioclase 25%, rock fragments 8%, quartz 5%, sphenes 1% and iron oxide 1%. Rhyolite is also found in Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo Ignimbrite. It is fine to medium grained, bluish/light/greenish gray (fresh color) to dull gray, light/dark brown (weathering color). It is highly fractured and vertically jointed. The thin section studies show the rhyolite has an average composition of glass 50%, plagioclase 30%, quartz 15% and pyroxene 1%. Plagioclase is altered to sericite. The rock exhibits cryptocrystalline texture.

Tarmaber-Megeze Basalt

According to Daniel Meshesha et al (2010) it has sharp contact with the underlying Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo ignimbrite. Tarmaber-Megeze basalt includes fine, medium to coarse-grained, dark gray (fresh color) to light/reddish/dark/yellowish brown (weathering color) and aphanitic to porphyritic basalts. It is characterized by different phases of basaltic flows separated by randomly exposed reddish palaeosols and reddish brown scoriaceous basalts (0.5-8 m thick). It is dominantly represented by plagioclase-phyric varieties (plagioclase-phyric and olivine-plagioclase-phyric basalts) together with minor olivine-phyric, pyroxene-phyric, plagioclase-pyroxene-olivine-phyric and aphanitic basalts. It is medium to coarse grained and dark gray, containing plagioclase phenocrysts up to 5 cm in length. Petrographic studies of the plagioclase-phyric basalt show an average composition of groundmass 35%, plagioclase 30%, pyroxene (augite) 10%, olivine 12% and opaque minerals 10%. Plagioclase and olivine grains are altered to sericite and iddingsite. The groundmass is dominated with plagioclase and pyroxene microlaths. The rock exhibits trachytic, porphyritic, ophitic to seriated textures. Olivine-plagioclase-phyric basalt is medium to coarse grained, dark gray (fresh color) to dull gray (weathering color), phyric with dominant plagioclase and few olivine phenocrysts. Petrographic studies of olivine-plagioclase-phyric basalt show an average composition of groundmass 45%, plagioclase 30%, pyroxene 3%, olivine 8% and opaque minerals 10%. Plagioclase and olivine are altered to sericite and iddingsite (mostly along fractures) respectively. The groundmass is composed of microcrystals of olivine, plagioclase, and opaque minerals. The rock exhibits porphyritic to seriated textures. Olivine-phyric basalt forms a ridge with blocky appearance. The rock is coarse grained, greenish gray (fresh color) to gray (weathering color). In general, the dominant Tarmaber-Megeze basalt (plagioclase-phyric basalt) gradually ranges to aphanitic basalt with no or few phenocrysts. The aphanitic basalt is fine grained, black and dark/light gray (fresh color) to gray and dull gray (weathering color), columnar there are scoria deposits associated with the aphanitic basalt. Petrographic studies show the aphanitic basalt has an average composition of groundmass 92%, plagioclase 3%, opaque 2% and olivine up to 1%.

Eluvium Deposits

According to Daniel Meshesha et al (2010) the eluvium soil is mostly found on the plateau and escarpment of the map sheet, occupying flat lying and gentle topography cover small part of the study area. It is formed by the gradual weathering of the basalt, ignimbrite and rhyolite. There are rock fragments of basalt, ignimbrite and rhyolite within the eluvium soil. It is silt to clay sized, light/dark gray to reddish brown fertile soil. It is highly ploughed by the local people.

3.1.2 Geological Structures

As presented above the area is dominated by volcanic rock types so the hydraulic properties of the rocks are controlled by primary and secondary geological structures. Since the study area is found along the western margin of main Ethiopian rift valley secondary geological structures are common. Among the common secondary geological structures in the area include faults, joints and shear zones which may act as a conduit for water movement in the subsurface and they will increase the permeability of associated rock units.

Normal Faults

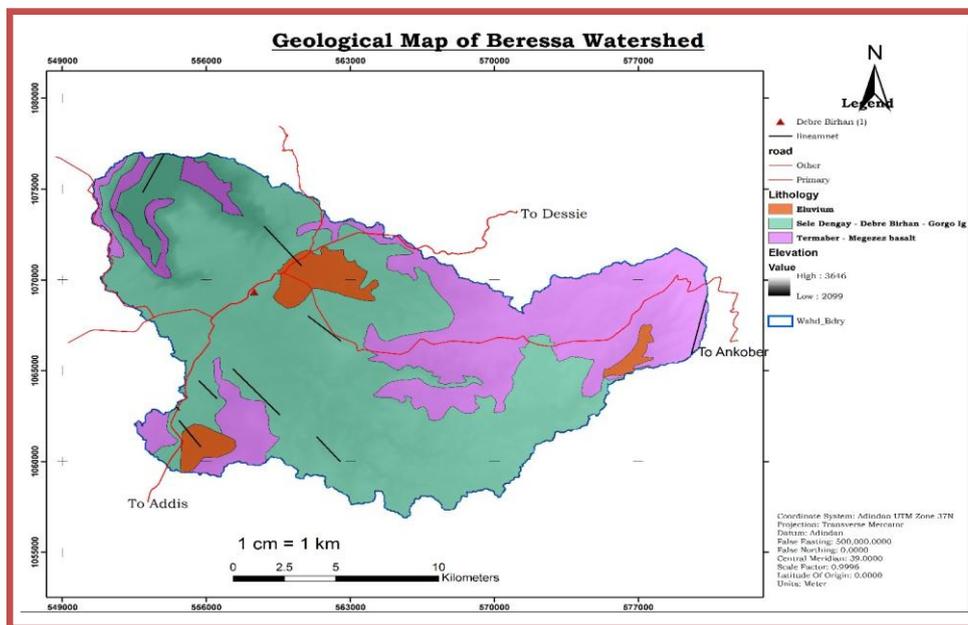
In the study area two sets of normal faults are observed as shown in the geological map. These normal faults are NE-SW (including boundary faults and several rift oriented step faults) and NW-SE trending transcurrent faults. In the rift margin the NE-SW trending normal faults are characterized by a series of parallel step faults having different magnitudes. The NE-SW trending faults have similar orientation with the major main Ethiopian rift border fault, while the NW-SE trending faults are nearly perpendicular with the major regional border faults. Along with the major lithological rock units in the study area these faults will have an effect on the storage and on the ground water dynamics and this will affect the quality of aquifer.

Joints and Irregular Fractures

Fractures are discontinuities of rock units formed after the formation of the rock units due to brittle deformation.

The orientation and the degree fracturing control ground water dynamics. Differently oriented joint sets and irregular fracture (few mm to cm in width) are observed in the Beressa watershed. They are penetrative to non-penetrative joints, having significantly variable strike length. Mostly in the ignimbrite two sets of joints are encountered, these are horizontal (dipping 30° towards SE) and vertical (trending NS and $N10^{\circ}$ E) set of joints. In addition irregularly oriented columnar joint sets (mostly hexagonal faces) are also observed in the ignimbrites and basalts (Jiri Sima, 2018). All these irregular fractures and joints will increase the porosity and the permeability of rock units in the Beressa watershed.

Figure 9: Geological map of Beressa watershed (adopted from Daniel Meshesha et al., 2013)



3.2 Hydrogeology of the area

From the hydrogeological point of view, a good aquifer must be sufficiently permeable and transmissive with interconnected pores and fissures and with enough storage to yield groundwater. The groundwater bearing potential is also related to faults, and weathered and fractured zones in the rock mass. According to the (Jiri Sima, 2018), geological units are a major factor that control the quantity and quality of groundwater occurrence in the area. Sedimentary rocks have great potential for groundwater due to their high primary porosity and permeability relative to other rocks. Reclassifying lithostratigraphic units into hydrostratigraphic units requires information on the hydraulic characteristics of rocks. Compared to sedimentary rock units, secondary porosity is more important than primary porosity in igneous and metamorphic rock units. Large spatial variation in rock permeability is a common feature of fractured volcanic terrain due to differences in the degree of fracturing. In addition to the lithologic units since the study area is dominated by volcanic igneous rocks, secondary porosity has a greater effect on the permeability and general hydraulic characteristics of these rock units in the area. Based on the above lithological units and the existing fractures different hydraulic properties are expected within the study area. The hydraulic properties of these different rock units in the study area are presented as follows.

Hydraulic Characteristics of Tarmaber-Megezez Basalt

These basalts have an average yield of wells of 10 l/s and springs of 6 l/s, and are aquifers with very good secondary porosity and permeability (Jiri Sima, 2018). These basalts are tectonically affected by the NNE-SSW trending normal faults, which follow the rift propagation. These structures enhance the recharge conditions of the area and, in addition to the intensive development of fractures, weathered rock and joints in this unit create favorable conditions for their good permeability. The unit has a scoriaceous lava flow nature, which is highly favorable for groundwater storage and movement. The aquifer is recharged directly by rainfall and by infiltration from porous aquifers developed in Quaternary sediments and covering the plateau area. The aquifers are also recharged by perennial rivers and their tributaries. Many springs emerging from this unit are controlled by fractures or faults intersecting topographical depressions. There are numerous drilled and dug wells from

this aquifer with good yields for community water supply.

Hydraulic characteristics of Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo Ignimbrite

Sela Dengay-Debre Birhan-Gorgo-Ignimbrite/Trachyte/Rhyolite/Tertiary sediments aquifers of the plateau with an average discharge of well = 10 l/s and spring = 1.3 l/s and the boreholes sunk in the fractured ignimbrite have transmissivity of between 0.05 and 226 m²/day and a mean transmissivity of 100.3m²/day (Jiri Sima, 2018). These volcanic plateaus of the Alaji formation comprise ignimbrite, rhyolite, Tertiary sediment, tuffaceous sediment, aphanitic basalt, agglomerate and ash. It is highly consolidated to welded tuff and bedded with columnar joints, vertical joints, and fractures. The trachyte is also identified by a dark brown color, and is vesicular, layered and fractured. The trachyte shows faint columnar jointing. These structures facilitate the groundwater flow. The aquifers are recharged by infiltration of rainfall and infiltration from porous aquifers developed in Quaternary sediments covering the plateau and nearby rivers. The data from boreholes drilled in the Debre Birhan area show how significant the contribution of permeable Tertiary sediments to the yield of wells. Usually, fresh basalt, ignimbrite, rhyolite, and trachyte are considered as low permeable lithological units; however, the presence of the porous sediments in between lava flows forms a body that can accumulate a large volume of groundwater by drainage of the surrounding fissured aquifers and contributes to the yield of wells (Jiri Sima, 2018). These fissured and mixed aquifers of the plateau represent the most important hydrogeological unit of the area.

Hydraulic Characteristics of Eluvium deposits

The eluvium is mostly found on the plateau and escarpment, occupying flat lying and gentle sloping topography. The gradual weathering of the basalt, ignimbrite and rhyolite forms a thick cover of Regolith. There are fragments of basalt, ignimbrite and Rhyolite within the eluvial soil. The regolith is from silt to clay in size, and light/dark gray to reddish brown in color. Dug Wells are used for the purposes of community water supply (Jiri Sima, 2018). Generally, the eluvium is the most important hydrogeological unit in the area especially for shallow groundwater sources.

4. Groundwater Recharge Estimation

4.1 Water Balance Method

Groundwater recharge is the process by which water percolates down the soil and reaches the water table either by natural or artificial methods to replenish the aquifer with water from the land surface (Teklebirhan, A. et al, 2012). The estimation of groundwater recharge is regarded as a highly challenging parameter in hydrogeology. It is one of the most important components in hydrogeological characterization of aquifer systems and the major objectives in hydro-meteorological studies (Berehanu, B. et al, 2017). Ground water at a basin level can be estimated/quantified using various methods. Water balance is the balance between the incoming water in the form of precipitation and the outflow of water in the form of evapotranspiration, groundwater recharge and runoff. In some cases there might be a change in storage (Soil moisture, groundwater or water bodies). This method is attractive, because it can be applied almost anywhere precipitation data are available. But, there is a drawback of the water balance method due to shortcomings inherent to the techniques used. Nonetheless, despite its shortcomings, the water-balance method is a powerful tool to understand the main features of recharge processes, if short time steps are used and the spatial variability of components is taken into account (Berehanu, B. et al, 2017).

4.2.1 Water Balance Components

The basic concept of water balance method within a given period of time is:

Input to the system - Outflow from the system = Change in storage of the system.

We have used weather data obtained from the NCEP Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFRSR) dataset, which is an openly available global reanalysis dataset that included temperature and precipitation rate with a spatial resolution on the order of 30 km; and the period of record included adequate historical coverage to allow model calibration and validation and extend to the present.

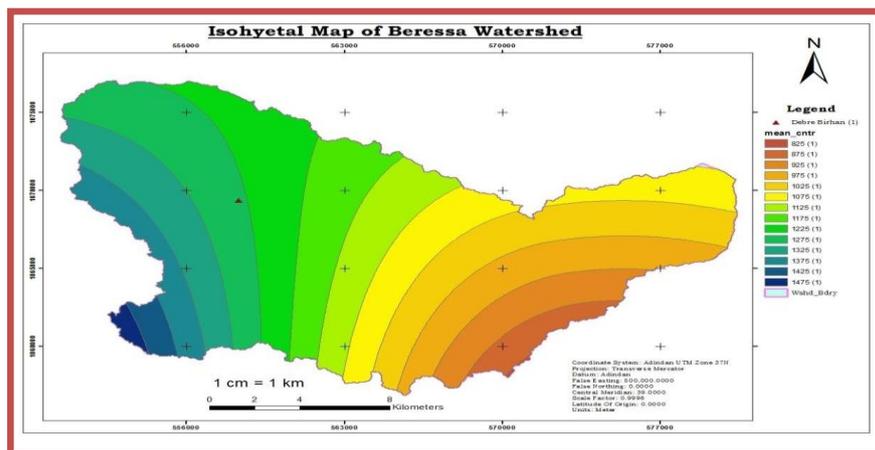
The inflow and outflow components used in groundwater estimation include the following:

a) Precipitation

Precipitation is the main input (inflow) component used in the calculation of ground

water recharge. In order to analyze the precipitation condition of the area, ten years weighted averaged data from four stations were taken from CFSR (Climate Forecast System Reanalysis). Precipitation map of the area was prepared using Kriging interpolation technique in ArcGIS spatial analyst tool using the 4 stations as an input. Isohytal maps were constructed using 4 CFSR stations found in the vicinity of the watershed. The difference between two consecutive Isohyets is used to determine the Isohytal area and the average of the two consecutive Isohyets is used as the precipitation value for that area. The weighted area is calculated by dividing the Isohyet area to the total area and this weighted area is multiplied by the precipitation value. Finally, each weighted precipitation is summed up to estimate the total average annual precipitation of the area and its value is 1146.83mm

Figure 10: Isohytal map of Beressa Watershed



LC	HC	Pi	Ai	At	Ai/At	Ai/At*Pi
800	850	825	147057	340477893.00	0.000432	0.3563286
850	900	875	9500471	340477893.00	0.027903	24.415424
900	950	925	20206125	340477893.00	0.059346	54.895387
950	1000	975	32278952	340477893.00	0.094805	92.434719
1000	1050	1025	42222336	340477893.00	0.124009	127.10926
1050	1100	1075	38320997	340477893.00	0.112551	120.99191
1100	1150	1125	27354762	340477893.00	0.080342	90.385038
1150	1200	1175	29987966	340477893.00	0.088076	103.48942
1200	1250	1225	40248620	340477893.00	0.118212	144.80987
1250	1300	1275	46181360	340477893.00	0.135637	172.93703
1300	1350	1325	30740443	340477893.00	0.090286	119.62917
1350	1400	1375	16428049	340477893.00	0.04825	66.343712
1400	1450	1425	4666087	340477893.00	0.013705	19.528945
1450	1500	1475	2194668	340477893.00	0.006446	9.5076226
Total						1146.8338

Table 2: Annual precipitation estimation using Isohytal method

However, for calculation purpose, data obtained from the SWAT input is used. One objective of this study is to compare the results obtained from the two methods. Hence, similar precipitation data should be utilized. The average annual precipitation value obtained from the SWAT input table is lower, probably because of the method of extrapolation used in determining the average annual precipitation. The precipitation data obtained from the SWAT input option is presented in the table below.

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual
Prec(mm)	10.44	34.53	73.56	88.23	54.17	70.8	252.05	255.96	63.65	22.08	12.71	9.26	947.44

Table3: Averagemonthlyprecipitationof ten yearsdata (2004 -2013)

As we can see from the average monthly precipitation data in the table above, the dry seasons are observed from October to June whereas the rainy seasons extend from July to September. A small rainy season is observed in otherwise dry season on the months of March and April. Peak rainfall occurs on July and August whereas least rain fall is recorded on November, December and January.

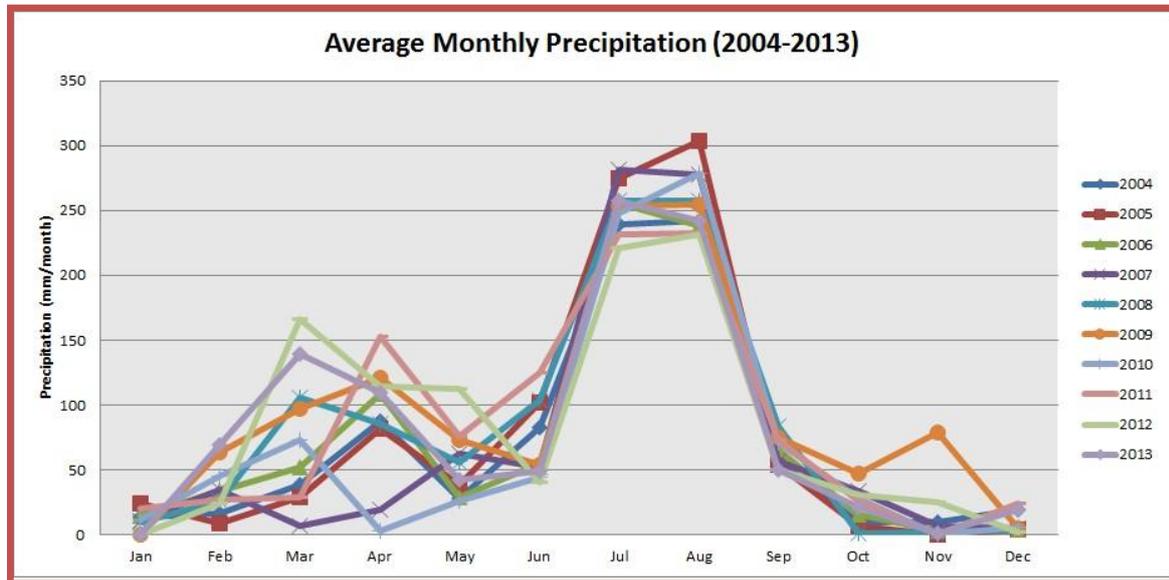


Figure11: Averagemonthlyprecipitation, CFSR data (2004-2013)

b) Evapotranspiration

One of the output components used in water balance method is the evapotranspiration. The term evapotranspiration (ET) is commonly used to describe two processes of water loss from land surface to atmosphere, evaporation and transpiration. Evaporation is the process where liquid water is converted to water vapor (vaporization) and removed from sources such as the soil surface, wet vegetation, pavement, water bodies, etc. Transpiration consists of the vaporization of liquid water within a plant and subsequent loss of water as vapor through leaf stomata (Lincoln, Z. et al., 2010).

i) Potential Evapotranspiration

Potential evapotranspiration refers to the amount of the possible maximum water loss through the process of evaporation and transpiration under unlimited moisture condition. Potential evapotranspiration is calculated using the Thornthwaite method. This method uses air temperature as an index of the energy available for evapotranspiration, assuming that air temperature is co-related with the integrated effect of net radiation and other controls of evapotranspiration, and that the available energy is shared in fixed proportion between heating the atmosphere and evapotranspiration. Ten years average air temperature data is taken from Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) and potential evapotranspiration is computed using the following formula.

$$Et = 1.6b \left[\frac{10T_a}{I} \right]^a$$

Where,

Et = Potential evapotranspiration in cm/month, Ta=Mean monthly air temperature in (°C),
 b = latitude correction I=annual heat index
 Using ten year mean monthly air temperature, the annual heat index is calculated as;

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^{12} \left[\frac{Ta_i}{5} \right]^{1.5}$$

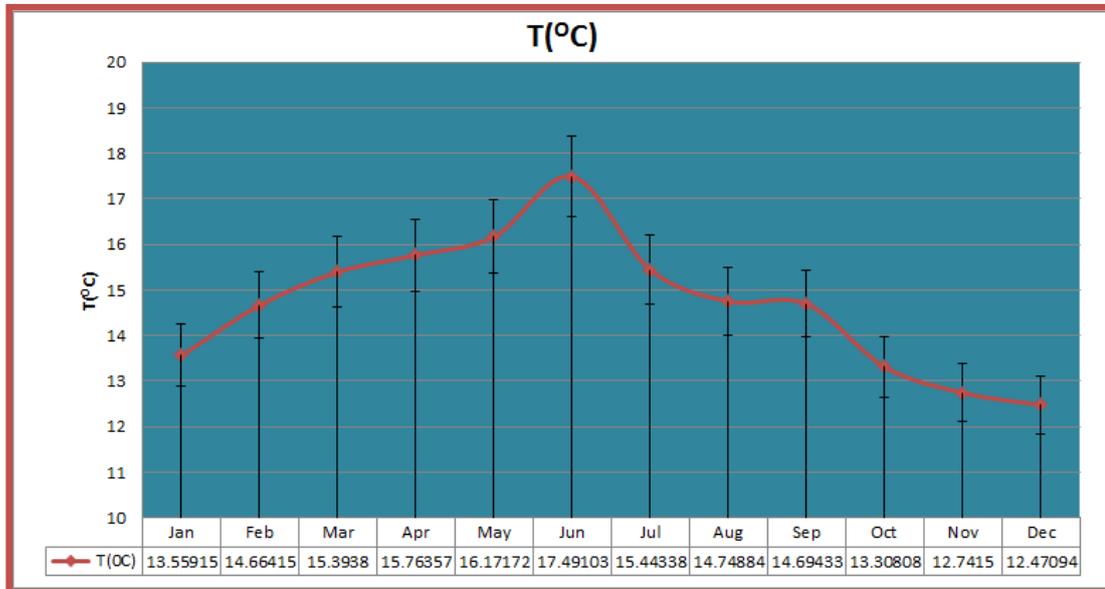


Figure12: Average Mean monthly air temperature

The graph above shows that the area is one of the places in Ethiopia with low mean monthly temperature. The mean monthly temperature of the area attains its lowest value in the month of December and increases until June, which is the hottest month in the area. The area has a mean annual temperature of 14.70°C.

By substituting the mean monthly air temperature given in the table into the above equation, the value of annual heat index, I, is found to be 60.74 (i.e. I=60.74).

Then the value of the exponent **a** can be calculated from the annual heat index using the following formula;
 $a = 0.49 + 0.0179I - 0.0000771I^2 + 0.000000675I^3$

Then substituting for I, **a=1.44**

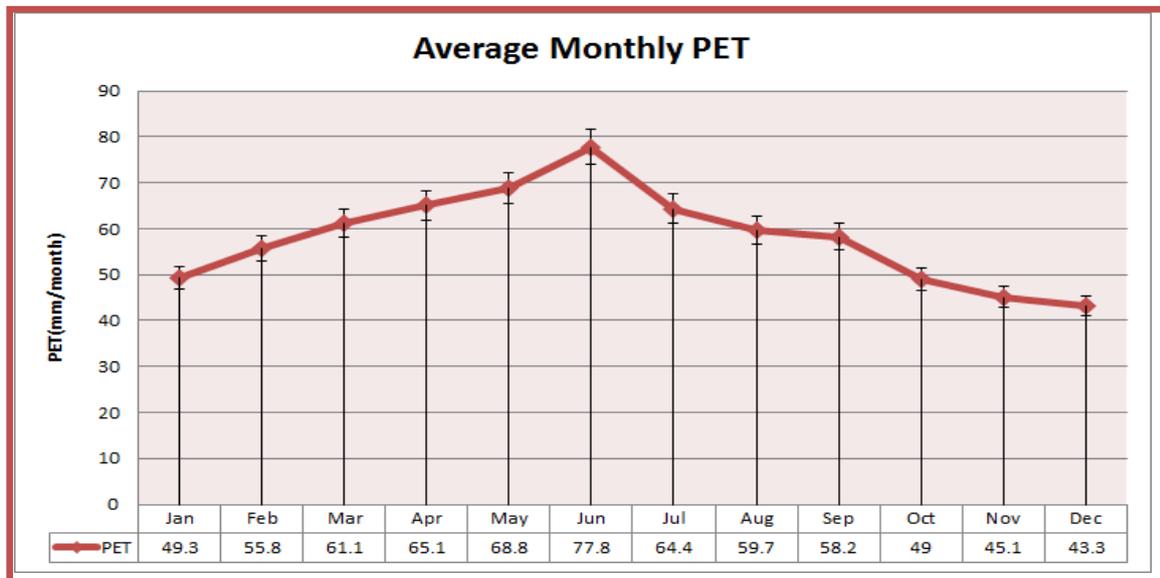
The latitude of the study area is approximated to be 10° N. Hence, the latitude correction (**b**) for the calculation of potential evapotranspiration is given in the following table.

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
b	0.97	0.98	1.00	1.03	1.05	1.06	1.05	1.04	1.02	0.99	0.97	0.96

Table4: Latitude correction values of 10°N Latitude

Using the above parameters, potential evapotranspiration is calculated by substituting these values into the Thornthwaite formula. The values are represented in the graph below.

Figure 13: Average monthly Potential evapotranspiration



As we can see from the above graph, the maximum potential evapotranspiration occurs from May to July because in these months the temperature is very high whereas in other months, the potential evapotranspiration is lower since the temperature limits the value of PET.

ii) Actual Evapotranspiration

Actual evapotranspiration is the amount of water which is evaporated on a normal day which means that if for instance the soil runs out of water, the actual evaporation is the amount of water which has been evaporated, and not the amount of water which could have been evaporated if the soil had had an infinite amount of water to evaporate. Simply, it is the amount which actually occurs under the available moisture situation.

The most difficult parameter to measure when calculating a site's water balance is actual evapotranspiration (AET), which is a function of precipitation, temperature, solar radiation, soil water storage, wind, canopy and understory interception, and growth rates. The most popular method of computing actual evapotranspiration is through the calculation of potential evapotranspiration. Actual evapotranspiration is calculated from potential evapotranspiration with the following procedures (Randall K. Kolka and Ann T. Wolf, 1998):

Step 1: PET- potential evapotranspiration calculated with the Thornthwaite equation. Step 2: P-PET- precipitation less the potential evapotranspiration.

Step 3: Accumulated Potential Water Loss (ACPWL) - accumulated potential water loss, which is the amount of soil water lost when PET exceeds P; i.e., there is less precipitation than potential evapotranspiration. In the calculation of AET, ACPWL is not a factor until P-PET becomes negative. To determine the ACPWL for a particular month, the previous month's ACPWL and the current month's P-PET are summed. In the original program, ACPWL becomes 0 after a month in which PET < P.

Step 4: Soil moisture- soil storage is the maximum soil storage at field capacity (ACPWL = 0). When below field capacity (ACPWL < 0), soil moisture is a function of both maximum soil storage and ACPWL.

Step 5: Delta (change in soil moisture) - the difference between soil storage in successive months when it is less than maximum. When DELTA is negative, then AET < PET i.e., soil moisture is limiting evapotranspiration. When delta is positive, then AET = PET.

$$SM = AWC \exp \left[- \frac{(ACPWL)}{AWC} \right]$$

Step 6: Actual Evapotranspiration (AET) - actual evapotranspiration is the sum of available precipitation for the month minus the change in soil moisture. When Delta is positive, AET = PET. When Delta is negative, AET = precipitation for the month + the absolute value of Delta.

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
P	10.44	34.53	73.56	88.23	54.17	70.80	252.05	255.96	63.65	22.08	12.71	9.26
PET	49.30	55.80	61.10	65.10	68.80	77.80	64.40	59.70	58.20	49.00	45.10	43.30
P-PET	-38.86	-21.27	12.46	23.13	-14.63	-7.00	187.65	196.26	5.45	-26.92	-32.39	-34.04
Acc PotWL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-26.92	-59.31	-93.35
AWC	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00
[APWL]	132.21	153.48	141.02	117.89	132.52	139.52	0.00	0.00	0.00	26.92	59.31	93.35
SM Retained	103.26	92.84	98.81	110.93	103.10	99.56	200.00	200.00	200.00	174.81	148.68	125.41
ΔSM	-22.15	-10.42	5.97	12.11	-7.82	-3.55	100.44	0.00	0.00	-25.19	-26.14	-23.27
AET	32.59	44.95	61.10	65.10	61.99	74.35	64.40	59.70	58.20	47.27	38.85	32.53

Table 5: Step by step calculation of Actual Evapotranspiration

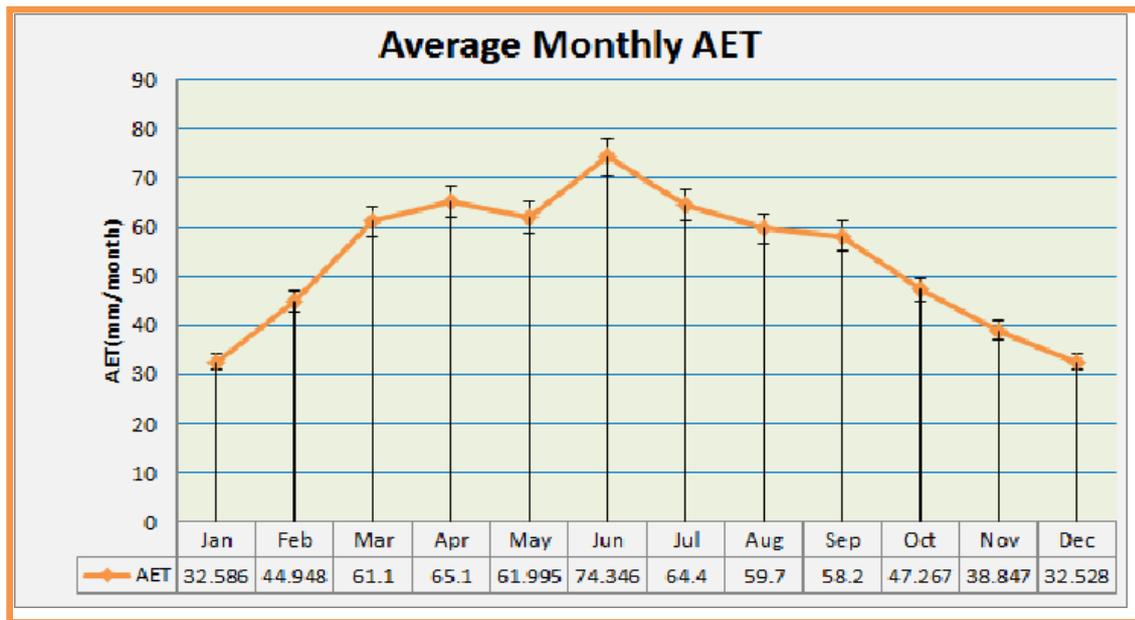


Figure14: Average monthly actual evapotranspiration

As we can see from the above graph, the highest average monthly actual evapotranspiration under the available soil moisture condition occurs on June. This is because on this month the temperature that drives evapotranspiration is higher. On the other hand, the lowest average monthly actual evapotranspiration occurs in December and January since there is soil moisture deficit in these months.

c) Surface Runoff

Runoff is one of the most important hydrologic variables used in most of the water resources applications. Its occurrence and quantity are dependent on the characteristics of rainfall event, i.e. the intensity, duration and distribution. Apart from these rainfall characteristics, there are a number of catchment specific factors, which have a direct effect on the occurrence and volume of runoff. This includes soil type, vegetation cover, slope and catchment type (Kailas P., 2014). Estimation of direct runoff is done using the curve number method.

The Soil Conservation Service Curve Number (SCS-CN) provides an empirical relationship for estimating initial abstraction and runoff as a function of soil type and land-use (Kailas P., 2014). Curve Number (CN) is an index developed by the Natural Resource Conservation Service (NRCS), to represent the potential for storm water runoff within a drainage area. The CN for a drainage basin is estimated using a combination of land use, soil, and Antecedent soil Moisture Condition (AMC). There are four hydrologic soil groups: A, B, C and D. Group A has high infiltration rates and group D has low infiltration rates.

Surface runoff is calculated using ten year daily precipitation data which is the sum of the weighted precipitation from four stations obtained from CFSRU using the following formula:

$$Q = \frac{(P - 0.2S)^2}{(P + 0.8S)}$$

$$S = \frac{1000 - 10CN}{2.5}$$

Where S is potential maximum retention after runoff begins

CN is known as Curve Number as suggested by the American Soil Conservation Service (SCS)

Q- Volume of runoff in inches P- Rainfall depth in inches

Land use descriptions	A	B	C	D
Commercial, townhouses	80	85	90	95

Cultivatedwithconventionaltillage	72	81	88	91
Forest orwoodsthinandpoor cover	45	66	77	83
Pavementandroofs	100	100	100	100
Pasture ororangeoorcondition	68	79	86	89
Farmsteads	59	74	82	86

Table6:Some examplesofCNvalues for differenttypesof soils

The Curve Number (CN) value for the study area is approximated to be 86.63 (i.e. CN =86.63),and usingthis valuepotential maximumretention (S)willbe;

$$S = (1000/86.63) - 10 = \mathbf{1.54}$$

Then from the tenyearprecipitation data, tenyear daily precipitation data which is the sumoftheweightedprecipitation(ininches)fromfourstationswhicharegreaterthan $0.2 * S (P_i > 0.2 * S$ or $P_i > 0.308$) are taken and by substituting these values in the above runoff formula,the daily runoff (Q)values are calculated. The average of these ten year daily values gives thetotal runoff for a given period. When the value of daily precipitation is less than $0.2 * S$, thevalueofsurfacerunoff(Q)is considered to bezero.

$$Q = [\sum(P_i - 0.2 * S)^2 / P + 0.8 * S] / n = \mathbf{169.655 \text{ mm}}$$

d) Groundwaterrecharge

The rate of replenishment of the groundwater (mainly by rainfall) is known as the groundwater recharge rate. This is the most important parameter required in the successful development of groundwater resource, as it is rate (or amount per unit time) which determines the amount of groundwater which can safely be abstracted from wells and bore-holes from a particular aquifer (Department of Agricultural & Plantation Engineering, 2004).

Groundwater recharge is likely to vary in space even over short distances as variations in soil and vegetation parameters can significantly affect the rates of recharge (Cook et al, 1989). Therefore, taking account of spatial variability in estimating recharge is very important if reasonably accurate replenishment rates to the water table are to be estimated (Department of Agricultural & Plantation Engineering, 2004).

Groundwater recharge of the study area is calculated using the water balance method as follows:

$$\text{Groundwater recharge} = \text{Precipitation} - (\text{Actual evapotranspiration} + \text{Surface runoff})$$

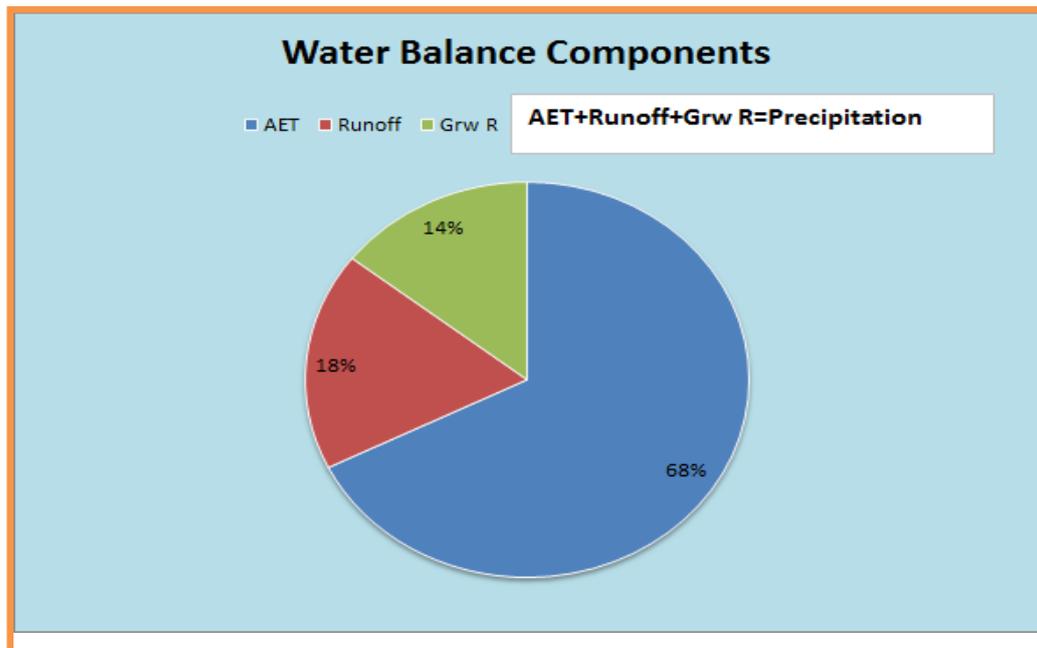
By substituting the values of precipitation, Actual evapotranspiration and Surface runoff the value of the groundwater recharge will be:

$$\text{Groundwater recharge (R)} = 947.44 \text{ mm} - 641.017 \text{ mm} - 169.655 \text{ mm} = \mathbf{136.768 \text{ mm}}$$

Generally, as we can see from the chart below from the total precipitation of 947.44 mm, 68% (641.017 mm) of it re- evaporates to the atmosphere, 18% (169.655 mm) follows surface paths

as runoff and 14% (136.768mm) of it percolates through the soil layer to replenish the groundwater.

Figure 15: Proportion of the four Water balance components



4.2 Groundwater Recharge Estimation Using SWAT Model

The SWAT model is a semi-distributed, time-continuous watershed simulator operating on a daily time step (Arnold et al., 2012). SWAT model takes DEM, LULC, soil data, slope, weather data and stream flow data as an input. The last one was not used in this study due to lack of the data and model calibration was not performed. The watershed is divided into sub-watershed and the sub-watersheds further into Hydrologic Response Units (HRU). The semi-distributed SWAT model is based on HRUs which are formed from overlapping maps for soil, LULC and slope. The principle is that each HRU is composed of specific land use, slope and soil classes and they have similar hydrologic characteristics. (Hadilawit Tadesse, 2019) In each HRU, two-layer aquifer model, shallow/unconfined aquifer and deep aquifer/confined aquifer, are used to represent the aquifer system, and a linear reservoir model to simulate groundwater flow. The water of a shallow aquifer could move to the deep aquifer, while the reverse process is not allowed (Guangwen Shao et al., 2019)

The size of sub-basin in the watershed will affect the assumption of homogeneity. Hence, the definition of a watershed, sub-basin boundaries and streams is decided based on a threshold area to define streams (Megersa et al, 2019). A properly projected DEM of 30 m resolution was loaded to Arc SWAT interface. Then, the DEM was masked and stream networks were recreated using the loaded DEM. The outlet point was selected from the streams, where the two main rivers Beressa and Dalecha Rivers meet. Finally, the sub-watersheds and the boundary of the watershed were delineated based on the outlet point defined before. For defining the HRUs, slope, soil and LULC map were loaded using the Land use/soil/slope definition menu. The soil map and LULC map were reclassified using appropriate look up tables, and the slope map was reclassified into 5 classes of different slope value ranges. The HRUs were defined by taking multiple HRU within each sub-watershed. In order to increase the number of HRUs (for better accuracy), a threshold of 0% for land use, soil and slope was assigned. Finally, the weather input file was written using daily CFSR weather dataset. The watershed has an area of around 341 Km² and is divided into 50 sub-watershed based on each stream within the watershed, which are further divided into 800 HRUs. Finally, the model is run on a daily basis from 1/1/2004-31/12/2013 and the results were printed out on a monthly scale.

In SWAT model PET is calculated using Penman-Monteith, whereas Runoff is estimated with Curve Number method. The results obtained based on 10 year monthly averaged values of the model are presented below.

Hydrologic Parameter	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
PET	127.7	128.5	158.5	153.0	170.7	158.5	104.6	115.7	145.3	138.7	127.4	119.2
AET	7.4	17.4	39.2	50.1	60.9	61.2	81.5	94.3	78.3	42.2	23.9	15.9
Surface Runoff	0.1	0.9	10.4	21.9	7.6	13.1	69.0	86.4	17.1	0.7	1.3	0.0
Inter Flow	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.3	3.6	5.9	4.8	2.8	1.5	0.9
GW percolation	0.0	0.1	1.9	7.0	1.8	5.0	44.7	55.7	10.0	0.2	0.0	0.0
Total												

Table7: Average Hydrologic parameters derived from SWAT model

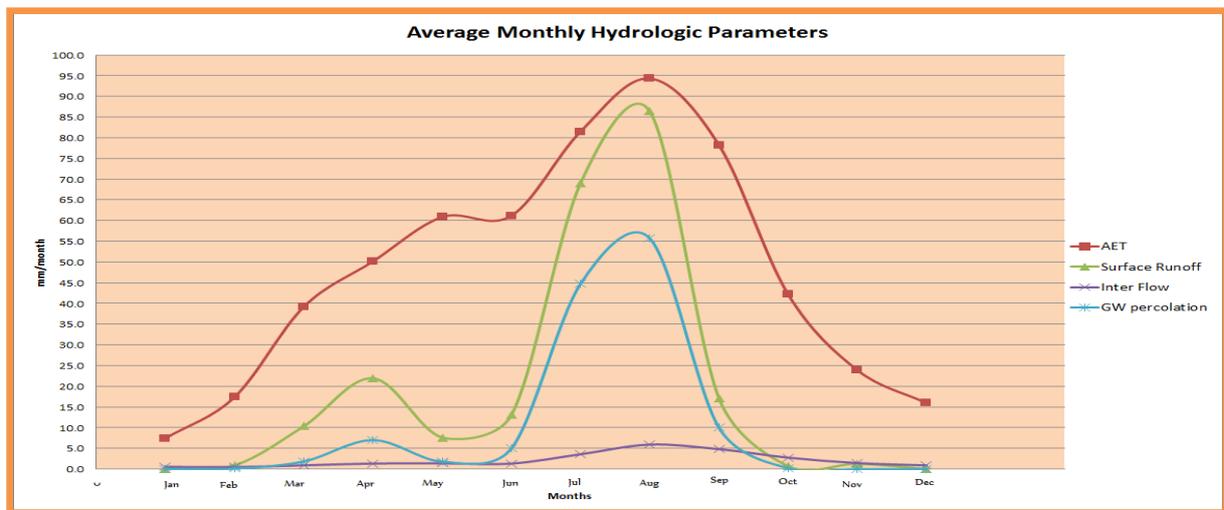
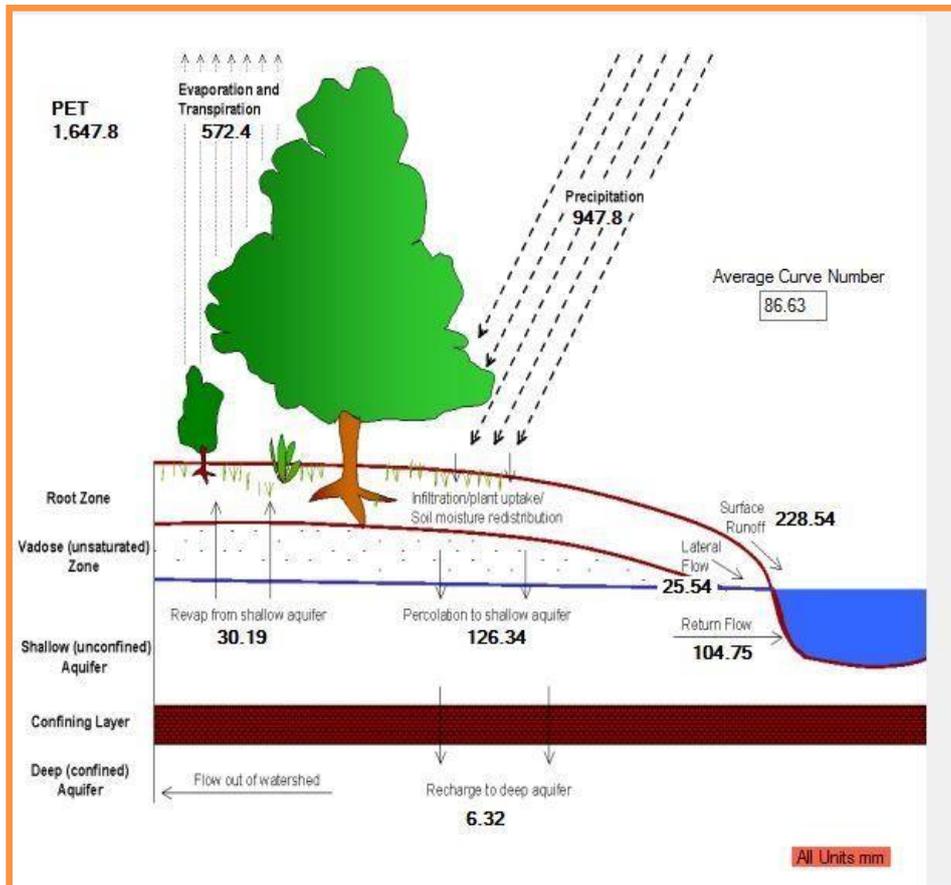


Figure16: Graph showing average monthly hydrologic parameters calculated using SWAT model

The graph above shows continuous monthly increase in AET from January to August and a decrease until December. August is the month with the highest rate of AET, because it is the month with the highest monthly precipitation and its AET is close to the PET because of increasing soil moisture condition. 254.1mm (44.38 %) of the ET occurs in the wet months (July-September). The GW percolation and Surface runoff shows similar trend, where the three months (July-September) taking the lion's share with 87.34% of Groundwater Percolation and 75.49% of Runoff occurring in these months. There is, however, some appreciable amount of Groundwater percolation and surface Runoff occurring between

March and April, because of the presence of short rainy (Belg) season. Interflow shows the least value from the WB components in the watershed. Similarly, it attains its highest values in the wet months, but with a slight deviation to the right, possibly because of the larger time it takes to move through soil particles than surface runoff. The average annual value of these WB components is shown in the figure below along with the paths followed by each component.

Figure 17: Average annual hydrologic components obtained from SWAT model.



5.DISCUSSIONANDSUMMARY

5.1 Comparison of WB and SWAT Models

The annual groundwater recharge estimation of the watershed has been computed using the two methods, and the results have been explained above.

Hydrologic Variables	WB	% from Prec	SWAT	% from Prec
Precipitation	947.44		947.44	
PET	697.60		1647.80	
AET	641.02	67.66	572.40	60.42
Surface runoff	169.66	17.91	228.50	24.12
Interflow	0.00	0.00	25.50	2.69
GW recharge	136.77	14.44	126.50	13.35

Table 8: Comparison of WB and SWAT model for hydrologic variables

The two methods have presented values with some similarity, especially the Groundwater recharge, which is the main concern of this study. Considering the cold climate, and clay-loam soils of the area, the lower AET and higher Surface runoff values of SWAT model look more reasonable. The SWAT model also presents another aspect of the water balance component, which is sub-soil interflow flow. The annual Groundwater recharge value of the watershed estimated using the two methods, however, is very similar and a mean value of **131.63mm/year** is adopted for the watershed. This corresponds to **13.89%** of the annual precipitation. This is a very reasonable value considering the high Groundwater potential of the area under study. It is also agreeable to studies conducted in areas around the watershed. Berehanu, B. et al., (2017) have estimated the annual groundwater recharge of Jema sub-basin to be 133mm, 13.39% of the annual precipitation using WB method. Molla Demlie, (2015) estimated the annual groundwater recharge of Akaki catchment to be 105 mm/a, a catchment with some climatic similarity with Beressa watershed. He referred the above value as the minimum estimate based on data from other methods and field observation. On the other hand, (Tesfaye Cherenet, 1988 as cited in Jiri Sima, 2018) classified the different rocks of the area into aquifer groups of moderate yield. General recharge to groundwater from rainfall is estimated to be 50 to 150mm/year.

5.2 Sustainable Yield

There has been a debate on the applicability of the terms safe yield and sustainable yield among Hydrogeologists. The term safe yield was first used in 1915 to mean the “quantity of water that can be pumped regularly and permanently without dangerous depletion of the storage reserve” (S. J. Meyland, 2011). A misperception among many hydrogeologists and water resources managers alike is that the development of groundwater is considered to be „safe“ if the rate of groundwater withdrawal does not exceed the rate of natural recharge. Even with a pumping rate smaller than the natural recharge (so called safe yield), pumping may have induced recharge and decreased discharge. The induced recharge may have caused the depletion of streamflow and residual discharge may not be sufficient to maintain groundwater dependent ecosystems. Furthermore, pumping always creates a cone of depression, which may cause intrusion of bad quality water and land subsidence (Yangxiao Zhou, 2009)

On the other hand, sustainable yield is the extraction and use of groundwater resources in a way that does not create unacceptable environmental, economic, or social consequences (Yangxiao Zhou, 2009). The estimation of sustainable yield of an area requires detail investigation and modeling of the aquifer system and interaction with the ecosystem of the area. However, (S. J. Meyland, 2011) indicate that a set aside of anywhere from 10 to 40% of annual GW recharge seems reasonable.

Taking the highest value of the above assumption, it is assumed that 40% of the annual GW recharge (52.65mm) can be extracted annually without adversely affecting the natural ecosystem of the area. In volumetric terms, 44.83 MCM is being recharged annually for the total watershed, from which **17.93 MCM** is the sustainable yield.

6. References

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