

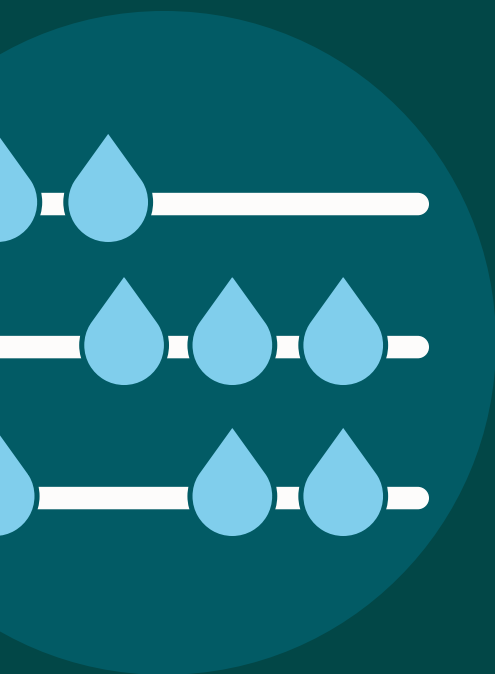


Food and Agriculture
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REMOTE SENSING FOR WATER PRODUCTIVITY



W A T E R A C C O U N T I N G S E R I E S

Water accounting in the Awash River Basin

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REMOTE SENSING FOR WATER PRODUCTIVITY

WaPOR water accounting series

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ET_a	Actual Evapotranspiration
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GRACE	Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
GSFC	Goddard Space Flight Center
GWF	Grey Water Footprint
IWMI	International Water Management Institute
L1_PCP_E	Level 1 Precipitation (Daily)
L1_PCP_M	Level 1 Precipitation (Monthly)
L1_RET_M	Level 1 Reference Evapotranspiration (Monthly)
L2_AETI_M	Level 2 Actual Evapotranspiration and Interception (Monthly)
L2_I_M	Level 2 Interception (Monthly)
L2_LCC_A	Level 2 Land Cover Classification (Annual)
MLU	Managed Land Use
MWU	Managed Water Use
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
P	Precipitation
PLU	Protected Land Use
Q_{out}	Flow out of the basin
TWSA	Total Water Storage Anomalies
ULU	Utilized Land Use
WA+	Water Accounting Plus
WaPOR	Water Productivity

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Water Accounting is an approach which is based on open access data sets and information. The validation of the water accounts for the Awash River Basin depends on observed data. We are therefore grateful for the following institutions providing this information. The Ministry of Water, Irrigation and Electricity and Awash River Basin office for sharing some meteorological and hydrological data and FAO Land and Water Division and Ethiopia country office for providing documents of previous studies on Awash Water Audit. We would like also to acknowledge the support we received from Water Accounting group at IHE Delft including Claire Michailovsky, Bert Coerver, Abebe Chukalla, Quan Pan and Elga Salvatore. We are especially very grateful to Prof Graham Jewitt for his guidance and valuable comments and for editing the report. We also appreciated all the institutions that publish their database openly, which are all valuable for this water accounts study. These institutions/ research groups include, but not limited to, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, the World Protected Area Database and NASA’s Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC).

Executive summary

The Awash River Basin is the most utilized river basin in Ethiopia hosting most of the industrial activities in the country, a number of small to large scale irrigation schemes and the main population centres of the country with more than 18.6 million people (2017 estimate). The basin faces high water stress during the peak of the irrigation season and frequent flooding in rainy seasons. The average yearly precipitation is 560 mm/year and the average yearly evapotranspiration is 503 mm/year. With the population estimated in 2017 and with yearly average exploitable water resources of 8.7 km³, the inhabitants are already facing severe water shortage (<500 m³/cap/year).

As the duration, completeness and quality of the hydro-meteorological records obtained from the basin are insufficient to draw an appropriate picture of the water resources conditions, a rapid Water Accounting Plus (WA+) system designed by IHE Delft with its partners FAO and IWMI has been applied to gain insights into the state of the water resources in the basin. For this study, we used the FAO WaPOR database for the period 2009 to 2018. The WaPOR version 2.0 level 1 with 5km resolution data for precipitation and level 2 with 100m resolution data for actual evapotranspiration, interception and land cover classification layers were used for WA+ analyses. Additional open access data was used to assess changes in storage (the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) data). In addition, the WaPOR land cover classification layer was reclassified to WA+ classes using the World Database on Protected Areas and the Global Reservoir and Dam Database.

The results of the rapid Water Accounts showed a considerable amount of outflow from the basin according to the WaPOR-based water balance ($P - ET_a - \Delta S$). The basin, however, is considered a closed one with no surface water outflow. This outflow is attributed to groundwater outflow in the direction of the Afar depression, which is reported in literature to be about 3.8 km³/year. However, the outflow estimated using WaPOR is almost double, similar to the outflow reported by Karimi (2015b). The water balance shows that the WaPOR database provides similar errors in the water balance at basin level as previous studies. The study however provides a longer time series of data (10 years) with high spatial resolution (100m). The detailed analysis shows that spatial patterns of ET_a are consistent with expectations, however, in the highlands there are a few patches where ET_a exceeds P (identified as irrigated areas) where there is no known irrigation taking place. Similarly in the Afar depression, P generally exceeds ET_a indicating net generation of water, which is not consistent with observations. These discrepancies require further investigation.

Sustainable utilisation of the water resources in Awash River Basin is critical. Especially with the Ethiopian government's intention to increase sugar cane production, which is one of the main water consumers in the Awash River Basin. The results of the rapid WaPOR based Water Accounting study, shows that the water availability has large inter-annual variability. The overall managed water fraction is still low with 28% of the available water. To satisfy the growing demand of water in the basin, strategies focusing on increasing water productivity and storage capacity are the way forward to increase reliable availability of the much needed water resources.



1. Introduction

1.1. Case study description

The Awash River Basin is the fourth largest river basin out of the twelve River Basins of Ethiopia in terms of area, following Wabi- Shebele, Abbay (Blue Nile) and Genale-Dawa River Basins. The Awash River Basin covers a total area of about 119,000 km² and is bordered by Danakil, Abbay, Omo- Gibe, Rift-Valley lakes and Wabi-Shebele basins and Republic of Djibouti. The Awash River Basin hosts the main population centers of the country (e.g. Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, Adama, Bishoftu, Dessie and Kombolcha) serving about 18.6 million people (2017 estimate). The Awash River emerges from the central highlands of Ethiopia near Ginchi and flows north east through the northern section of the Rift Valley to eventually discharging into the salty Lake Abbe near the Djibouti border, traveling a distance of about 1,200km (Figure 1; ARBA, 2017).

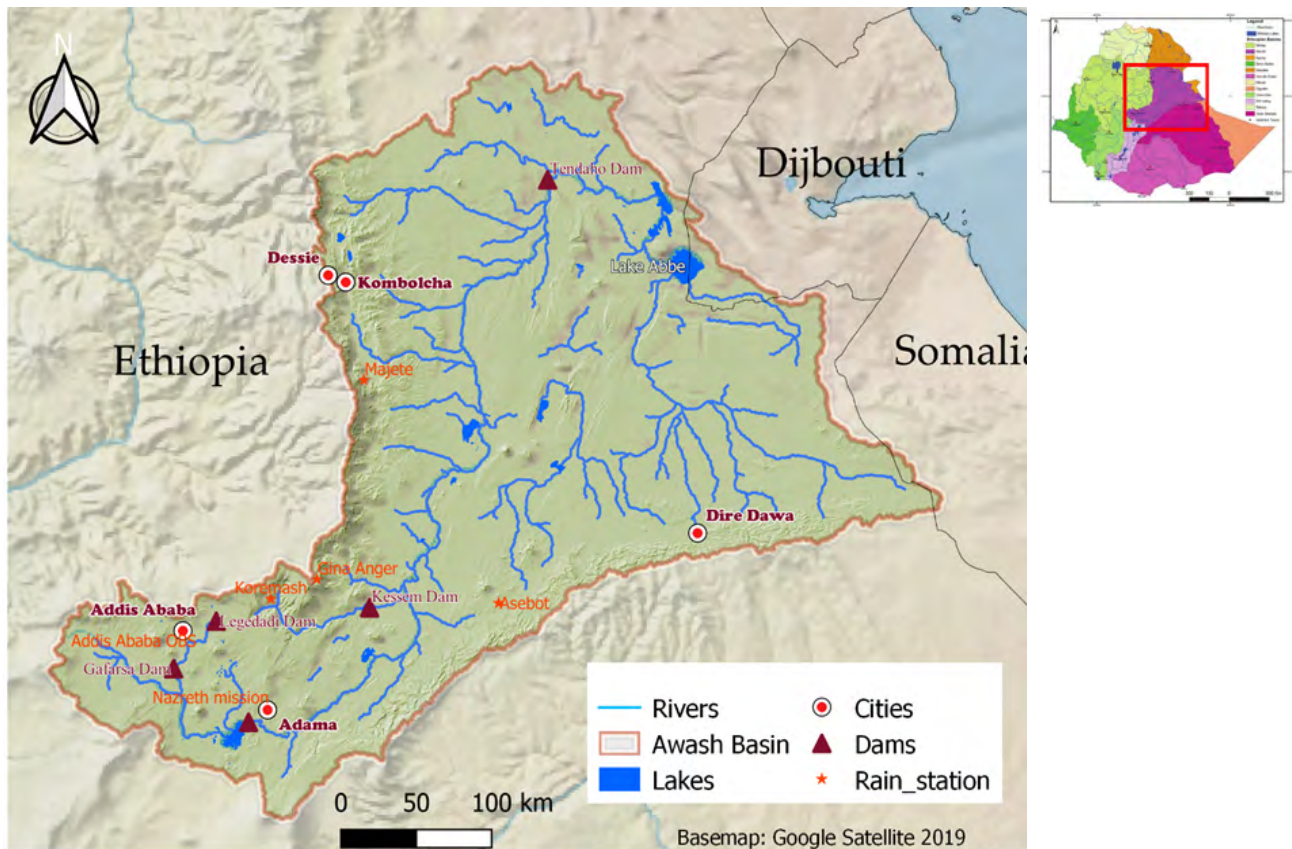


Figure 1. Location of the Awash River Basin in Ethiopia

The annual rainfall in the basin varies according to the elevation, with rainfall in the highlands amounting to 1,200 mm/year to around 200 mm/year in parts of the Afar depression. The rainfall distribution in the highland areas is bimodal, with a short rainy season in March and April and the main rains from June to September. The annual runoff within the basin was estimated at 4.6 km³/year based on the UNESCO Atlas of World Water Balance and compared with AQUASTAT data of annual renewable water resources (FAO, 1997). Some tributaries like Mojo, Akaki, Kassam, Borkena, Kebene and Mile rivers carry water the whole year, while many lowland rivers only function during the rainy seasons. Downstream of Dupti, no appreciable runoff from local rainfall reaches the river.

Lake Abbe is a terminal lake, where the Awash River ends, its surface area is on average 340 km² of open water, surrounded by 110 km² of salt flats. The lake surface area and water depth fluctuates depending on the inflow from the Awash River. The maximum depth of the lake is 36 m, which can drop as much as 5 m (Ayenew et al., 2008). The level of Lake Abbe thus rises and falls according to the balance between inflow and evaporation losses.

1.2. Water resources developments and challenges in Awash River Basin

Most of the industrial activity in Ethiopia (estimated 65%) is located in the Awash River Basin (ARBA, 2017) including two of the main industrial zones of the country (Dire Dawa and Kombolcha). Many of the big national industrial hotspots and corridors, big agro industries and highly populated cities and towns in the country are found inside the Awash River Basin (ARBA, 2017).

The Awash River Basin is the most utilized river basin in Ethiopia with a number of small, medium and large scale irrigation schemes (e.g. Ada'aBecho, Wonji-Shoa, Fental-Tibila, Metahara, Upper Awash Agro Industry, Kesem, Amibara, Gewane and Tendaho), totalling 200,000 ha of farmland (ARBA 2017). Other water users include (agro-) industries located along the river and urban and rural water supply schemes.

To accommodate these demands, four dams were constructed in the basin for irrigation and domestic and industrial water supply as well as hydropower (Aba Samuel (1932), Gefersa dam (1938) for domestic/industrial water supply, Koka dam (1960) for hydropower, Kessem and Tendaho for irrigation). Following the construction of Koka dam, downstream irrigation developments like Wonji and Metehara sugar plantations, upper, middle and, lower Awash state farms with fruits, vegetables and cotton plantations flourished. According to current estimates the irrigated land in the basin reach about 200,000ha (ARBA, 2017). Due to the intensive irrigation development in the basin particularly along the Awash River, there is high water stress during the peak of the irrigation season (April to June). On the other hand, flooding is frequently observed in the basin during the rainy season (July to September) (ARBA, 2017).

The irrigated agricultural water use is the largest water user in the basin, accounting to about 83% of the total water use (ARBA, 2017). A wide variety of crops are cultivated both commercially and for subsistence, for local and national markets as well as for export. The type of crops range from cereals, vegetables, flowers, cotton to perennial fruit orchards and sugarcane. From 2010, there was shift in crop preference following the Government's interest in sugar production. In the middle and lower valley areas, cotton cultivating areas have now been transformed to sugarcane production.

Other water uses include domestic, livestock and industrial uses. The basin provides annual water needs for 18.6 million people, 34.4 million livestock, 199,234 ha irrigated land and different commercial and industrial activities in the basin (ARBA, 2017). According to ARBA (2017) this amounts to 4.11 km³/year, amounting to about 90% of the annual renewable water resources in the basin. With this high utilisation of the water resources, water allocation and water resources development require information about the current water resources availability and utilisation in the basin.

1.3. Objective of Water accounts

The purpose of this study is to get insights into the water availability, withdrawals, consumptive use, non-consumptive use and the benefits and services rendered from it in the Awash River Basin, using WaPOR data in conjunction with other data sources. In particular, the study seeks to investigate:

- What is the current water resources availability in the Awash River basin?
- How much water is being consumed by different land use classes and in particular by irrigation in the Awash River basin?
- What are the safe caps of water withdrawals for the agricultural sector in Awash?

A system referred to as Water Accounting Plus (WA+) has been designed by IHE Delft with its partners FAO and IWMI using spatial data from earth observations and various other open-access databases. It complements the lack of routine water resources data collection and incorporates spatially distributed water consumption. The WA+ framework is a reporting mechanism that summarizes the state of the water resources conditions by means of customized sheets (www.wateraccounting.org). While the WaPOR database does not contain all the input data required for fully implementing the WA+ framework, key data is provided, such as precipitation, actual evapotranspiration, the breakdown between transpiration, evaporation and interception, reference evapotranspiration, net primary production and total biomass production (FAO, 2018).

The present study, therefore, shows the results of the implementation of a rapid Water Accounting+ framework in the Awash River Basin for the period 2009 to 2018 using WaPOR v2.0 data. It identifies the current water challenges, the sustainable water withdrawals, and the key areas where future actions can have a profound impact. It focusses on the basin-wide analyses (WA+ Sheet 1) of the state of the water resources utilisation in a river basin.

Finally this report also reflects on the quality of the WaPOR v2.0 data for Water Accounting plus.

2. Methodology

2.1. WaPOR datasets

The WaPOR v2.0 database contains information at three different spatial resolutions. At continental level, data is available at 250m resolution (Level 1). For selected countries and basins, data is available at 100m resolution (Level 2). For detailed crop water productivity analyses for selected irrigation systems, 30m resolution data is available (Level 3). For this study, we used Level 2 (100m resolution) data. Before using the data for the Water Accounts, various checks of the data were performed such as **1)** precipitation data was compared with observed rainfall data **2)** water balance of the basin using WaPOR data and **3)** identification of net water generating and consuming land cover classes.

2.1.1. Precipitation

WaPOR rainfall data is based on the CHIRPS database created by the United States Geological Survey (Funk et al., 2015; FAO, 2018). Figure 2 shows the spatial variability of the average annual WaPOR precipitation (P) in the Awash River Basin for the period 2009-2018. As it seen clearly in the precipitation map, most of the rainfall falls in the north-west and south-east highlands of the basin. There is little rainfall (<200 mm/year) in the central and north-eastern part of the basin.

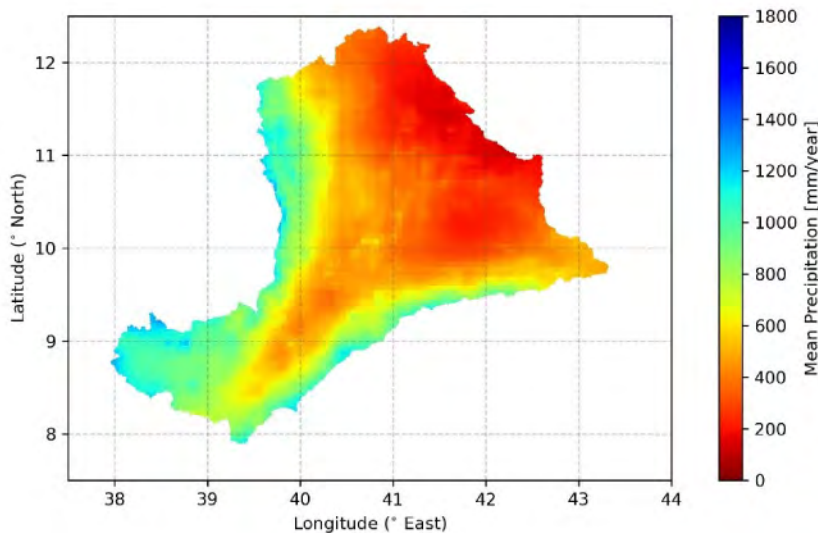


Figure 2. WaPOR annual precipitation (mm/year) for the Awash River basin averaged for 2009-2018. Maps for the individual years are provided in Annex 1.

The basin annual rainfall varied between 390 mm/year in 2015 to 690 mm/year in 2010 (Figure 3). The monthly-average precipitation shows a bimodal rainfall where a short rainy seasons last from March to May and a longer rainy season lasts from June to September where most of the rainfall happens (Figure 3).

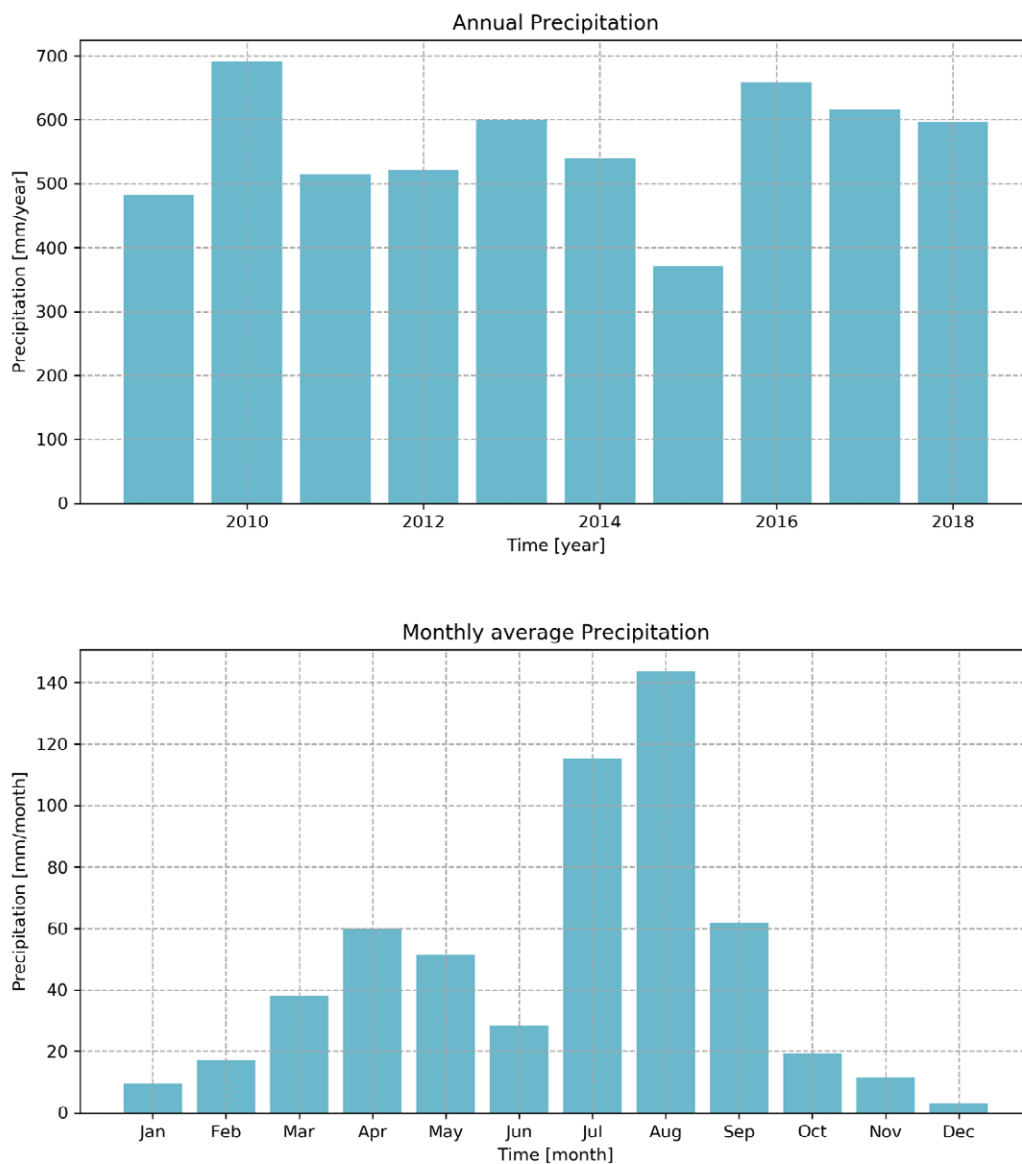


Figure 3. Average annual (top) and average monthly (below) WaPOR Precipitation in Awash River basin for a period of 10 years (2009 to 2018)

Additional local validation of the precipitation was done using observed rainfall data from the basin. We obtained rainfall records from various locations in the basin. Most of the rainfall gauging stations have a lot of missing data and we did not obtain data after 2015. We therefore selected the two stations with relatively long monthly precipitation records overlapping the WaPOR precipitation data. The results of the comparison are shown in Figure 4. For the short duration of the available precipitation records in the stations, it appears that WaPOR underestimates precipitation with a bias value of -0.575 and -0.021 mm/month at Gina Anger and Addis Ababa stations respectively.

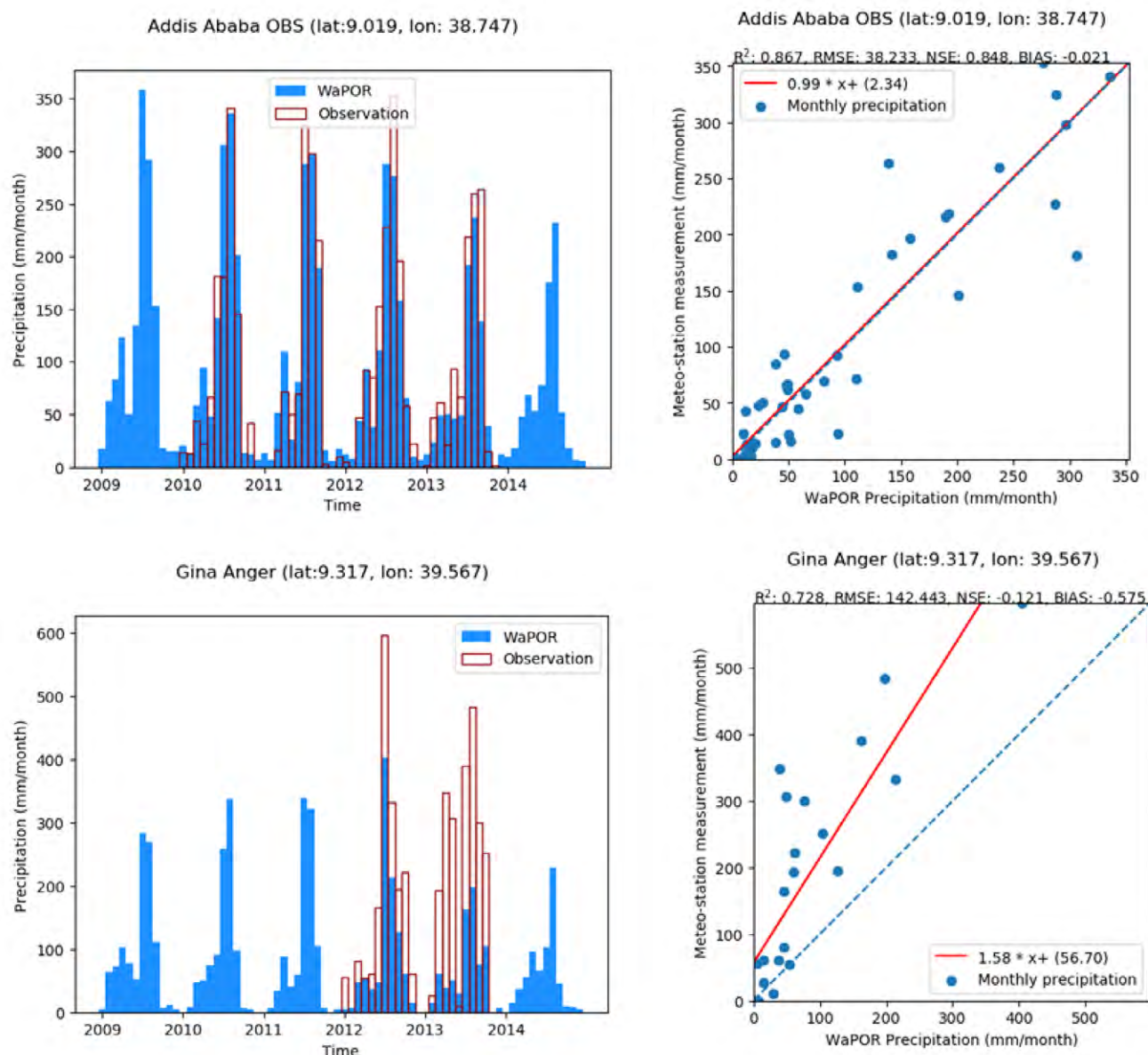


Figure 4. Monthly WaPOR precipitation compared with rain gauges in the Addis Ababa OBS for a period of 2011 and 2015 and Gina Anger station for the period 2013-2014

2.1.2. Actual Evapotranspiration and Interception

The WaPOR evapotranspiration (ET_a) layer estimates the total evapotranspiration, including interception. Figure 5 shows the spatial variation of ET_a in the Awash River basin. ET_a values follow more or less the patterns of the precipitation, indicating water (through precipitation) is the main limiting factor. The ET_a in the Afar depression is up to 400 mm/year. The only areas in the lowland with high ET_a values are in the irrigated areas and can be 1,200 to 1,400 mm/year depending on crop rotations and local water availability.

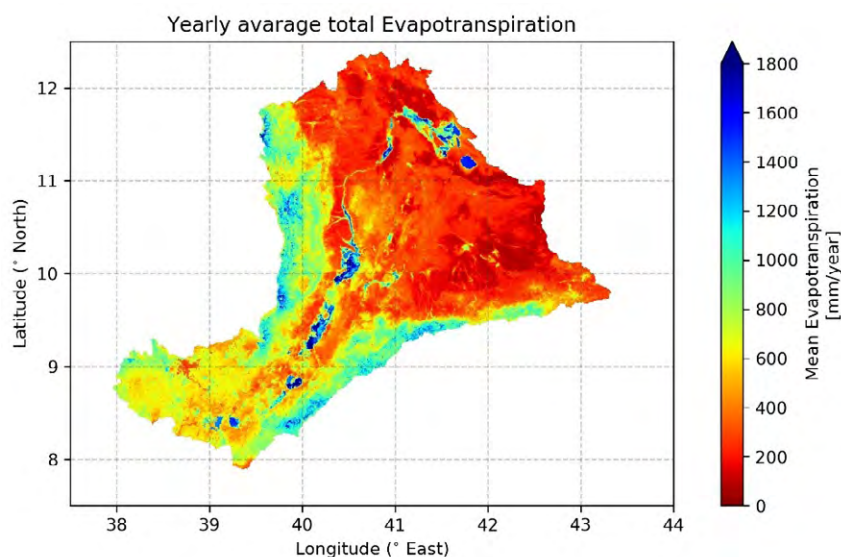


Figure 5. Average annual actual WaPOR evapotranspiration and interception (mm/year) for the Awash River basin averaged for 2009-2018. Maps for the individual years are provided in Annex 2.

2.1.3. Precipitation minus Evapotranspiration

To get a better sense of the basin scale water balance for each year the values are compared (Table 1). With the Awash being an internal drainage basin, no surface water outflow is observed, the difference between rainfall and evaporation therefore is due to a change in storage or a groundwater outflow. The long term imbalance between P and ET_a is 57 mm/year (Table 1). Ayenew et al. (2008) indicated there is a groundwater flow towards the north east of the basin equivalent to 30 mm/year (3.5 km³/year). In addition, Karimi et al. (2015) indicated a total imbalance of 3.8 km³/year, after considering the groundwater outflow as reported by Ayenew et al. (2008) over the period of 2009 to 2011. The values obtained using WaPOR data are therefore in line with previous studies (Dost et al., 2013; Karimi, 2015).

Table 1. Comparison of annual WaPOR P and ET_a values for the entire Awash River Basin

	P	P	ET_a	ET_a	$P - ET_a$	$P - ET_a$
Year	(mm/year)	(km ³ /year)	(mm/year)	(km ³ /year)	(mm/year)	(km ³ /year)
v	483	57.7	477	57.1	5	0.6
2010	690	82.6	546	65.3	145	17.3
2011	515	61.6	528	63.1	-13	-10.6
2012	521	62.3	498	59.5	23	20.8
2013	599	71.6	524	62.7	74	8.9
2014	541	64.6	494	59.0	47	5.6
2015	370	44.3	426	50.9	-55	-6.6
2016	658	78.7	515	61.6	143	17.1
2017	616	73.7	488	58.4	128	15.3
2018	596	71.3	530	63.3	67	8.0
Average	559	66.8	503	60.1	57	6.8

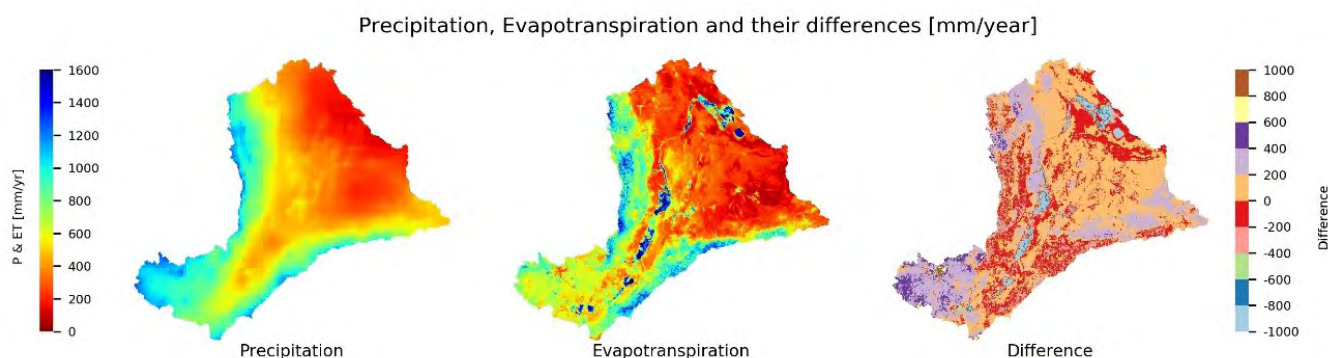


Figure 6. The average P, ET_a and their difference for the period 2009-2018. Maps for the individual years are provided in Annex 3.

2.1.4. Land cover classification analysis

The WaPOR database provides a yearly land cover classification map for the Awash River Basin, which is based on the Copernicus land cover map (FAO, 2019). The land cover classification map of the year 2018 from the WaPOR database is presented in Figure 7. The map provides 22 land cover classes, with 10 different land cover classes for trees, for our purposes we grouped the ‘tree cover open’ and ‘tree cover closed’ classes to leave 11 different land cover classes.

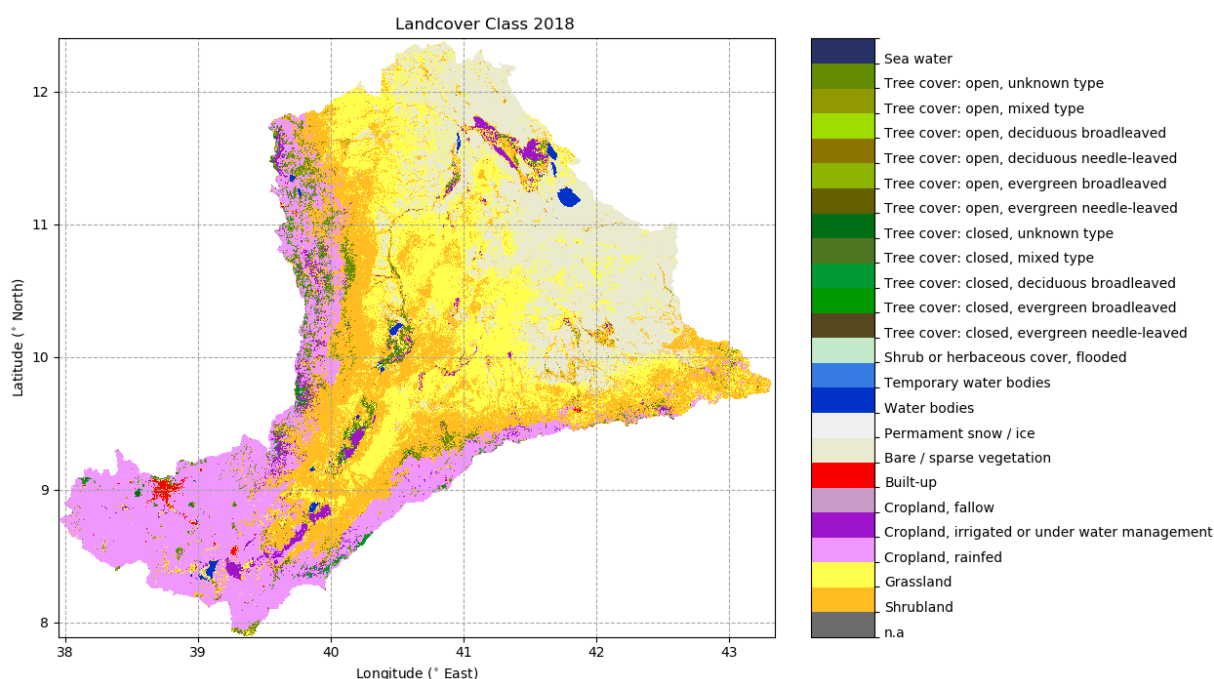


Figure 7. Land cover classification map of the Awash River Basin. Maps for the individual years are provided in Annex 4

Figure 8 shows the change in the land cover throughout the decade from 2009 to 2018. It shows that the land cover remains the same except change of small percentage of rainfed cropland to irrigated cropland in 2013 and which was changed back to rainfed cropland in 2014. The land cover class ‘Cropland, Irrigated or under water management’ is calculated from ‘Cropland’ by relating WaPOR Actual ET and Precipitation during the growing

season and therefore subject to the same uncertainty as the water balance. The irrigated crop land at 290,000 ha, is almost 50% higher than the literature values of 200,000 ha (ARBA, 2017). The classification of large areas in the highlands as irrigated land are suspicious and should be further investigated. In particular, some agricultural areas located in the highlands are classified as irrigated which is not consistent with observations.

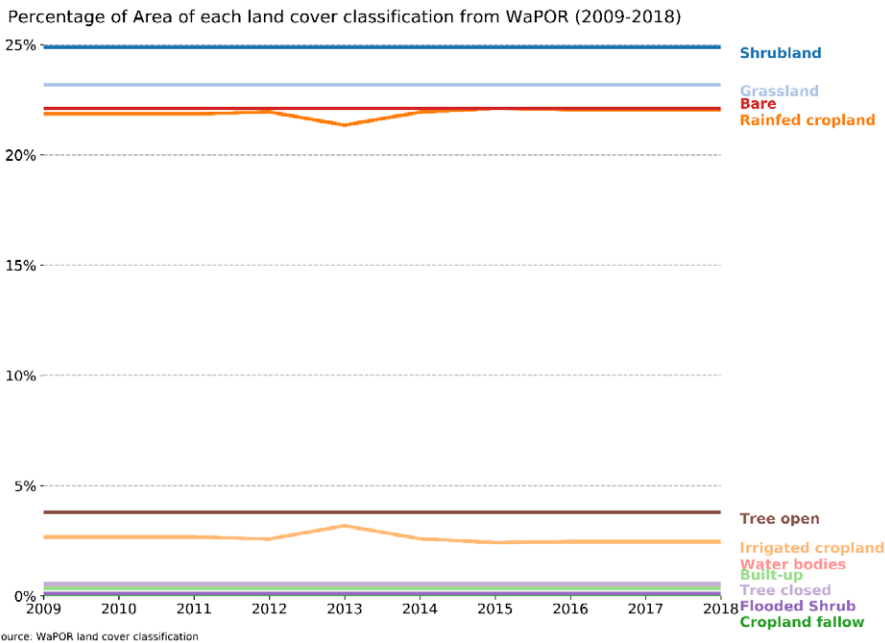


Figure 8. Percentage of area of each land cover classification from 2009 to 2018 for the Awash River Basin

Rainfed croplands and forests are located in high rainfall areas, whereas shrubland, grassland, bareland are located in dryer areas. Comparing the water balance per land cover class (Table 2 and Figure 9), it shows that ET_a exceeds P in irrigated farmlands, water bodies and some farmlands in the highlands in the basin. In urban areas P exceeds ET_a due to very low WaPOR ET_a estimates (for example in and around Addis Ababa). Flooded shrub lands and irrigated croplands consume much water followed by forests or tree covers of different types. The arid character of the basin in the lowlands exhibited by the ET_a exceeding P (water bodies). Surplus water is mostly generated from rainfed and fallow croplands, grassland, bare and built-up areas, or sparse vegetation lands covers. Mean values of P , ET_a and their difference per each land cover class is provided in Table 2.

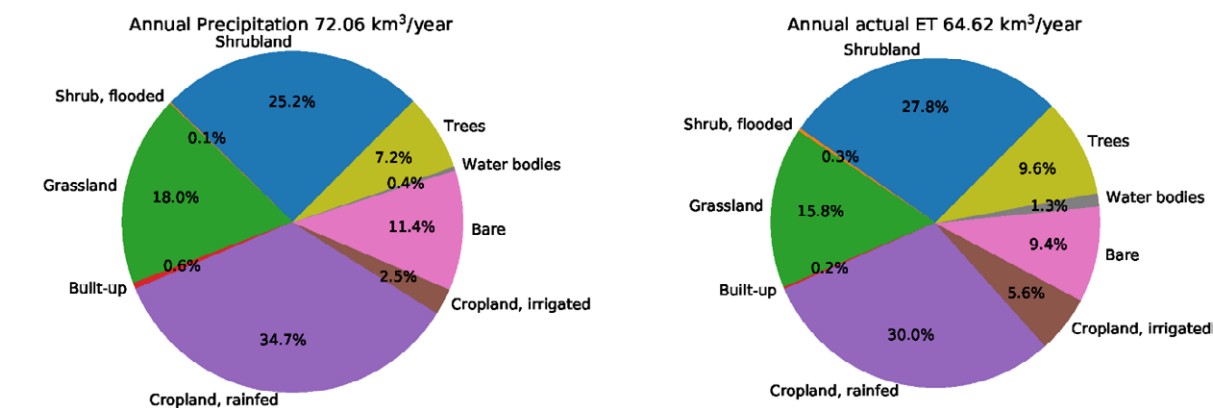


Figure 9. Contribution of the land cover classes to annual precipitation (P) and actual evapotranspiration (ET_a) of the Awash River Basin for the year 2018. The land cover classes that contribute less than 0.1% are not presented in the graphs.

Table 2. WaPOR P and ET_a data presented by land cover class for the year 2018

Code	Land Cover Class Description	Area (km ²)	P (mm/year)	Actual ET (mm/year)	P - ET_a (mm/year)	P (km ³ /year)	Actual ET (km ³ /year)
20	Shrublands	29,753	610	604	6	18.1	18.0
30	Grassland	27,693	469	368	101	13.0	10.2
41	Cropland, rainfed	26,362	947	736	211	25.0	19.4
42	Cropland, irrigated or under water management	2,945	610	1,230	- 620	1.8	3.6
43	Cropland, fallow	5	512	268	244	0.0	0.0
50	Built-up	408	1,025	320	705	0.4	0.1
60	Bare / sparse vegetation	26,412	310	229	81	8.2	6.1
80	Water bodies	612	418	1,380	- 962	0.3	0.8
90	Shrub or herbaceous cover, flooded	130	612	1,421	- 810	0.1	0.2
112	Tree cover: closed, evergreen broadleaved	80	1,079	1,240	- 161	0.1	0.1
114	Tree cover: closed, deciduous broadleaved	345	1,070	1,130	- 60	0.4	0.4
116	Tree cover: closed, unknown type	2,091	907	1,368	- 461	0.2	0.3
122	Tree cover: open, evergreen broadleaved	0	1,087	1,506	- 419	0.0	0.0
124	Tree cover: open, deciduous broadleaved	127	1,060	1,049	11	0.1	0.1
126	Tree cover: open, unknown type	4,402	835	908	- 73	3.7	4.0

2.1.5. Conclusion

The analyses show that the WaPOR 2.0 Level 2 data provides reasonable estimates of WaPOR P, ET_a at basin scale, general spatial distribution and analyses for different land cover classes were also consistent. However, in the highlands near the watershed, some areas in the highland (classified as irrigation) showed higher WaPOR ET_a values compared to P. Upon further investigation, it is unlikely that these areas tap into blue water resources as 1) there is no irrigation taking place in those areas and 2) the land cover class is not covered with deep rooting vegetation. The likely reason for the discrepancy is the resolution of the rainfall data (5km for P vs 100m resolution for the ET_a) as well as the reported challenges in estimating rainfall in highland areas and areas with steep slopes (Dinku et al, 2018). Also our comparison between WaPOR P and observed rainfall in the highlands showed an underestimation of WaPOR P. As there was no enough observed data in the lowlands to compare with, we were not able to validate WaPOR P in the lowlands.

This discrepancy is also likely the reason behind the classification of irrigated land uses especially on the north-western and south-eastern highlands in the basin, which is based on P and ET_a (FAO, 2018). The yearly land cover maps show a reduction of irrigated land cover in 2014 which may be due to the fact that after 2014 optical input data which is Proba V is used for ET_a estimation. Ground truthing or some kind of verification of the areas where irrigated croplands observed in the highlands is therefore needed.

2.2. Other global data sets

2.2.1. GRACE

To assess how much of the difference between P and ET_a is due to groundwater outflow and change in storage we use the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE), a dual-satellite mission continuously monitoring and mapping Earth's changing gravity field to estimate the total water storage anomalies (TWSA). There are several GRACE solutions for TWSA estimation from gravity anomalies, which covers the whole globe from 2003 till end of 2015. The GSFC-v02.4-ICE6G solution (Luthcke et al., 2013) was used to validate the assumption that storage change over a longer time scale such as hydrological year should be zero or close to zero. Since GRACE solution provides mean monthly TWSA not the exact TWSA of the first and last day of the month, change of storage ($\Delta S/\Delta t$) in a time period was approximated using a second order central difference as proposed by Biancamaria et al. (2019). After that, $P - ET_a$ should be equal to the total outflow Q_{out} , after correction in change of storage ($\Delta S/\Delta t$) following the water balance equation:

$$\frac{\Delta S}{\Delta t} = P - ET_a - Q_{out}$$

The longer term trend in storage change (ΔS) as observed by GRACE is positive (see Figure 10). The trend of water storage for a number of GRACE pixels that cover Awash River Basin from 2009 to 2016 is 0.78 mm/month, which is translated into 1.1 km³/year. The increase in trend for change in storage may be a result of the filling of Tendaho reservoir in 2009 and Kesem in 2012.

Figure 11 shows the plot of cumulative storage in the Awash River Basin based on GRACE data compared to WaPOR $P - ET_a$. Both lines show a positive trend indicating storage in the basin is increasing. However the cumulative WaPOR $P - ET_a$ shows a significant increase compared to GRACE storage change. Without any other verification, we decided to attribute this difference to an ungauged outflow from the basin in the form of groundwater. This assumption is supported by Ayenew et al. (2008) who indicated that there is a groundwater outflow in the direction of the Afar depression, equivalent to 30 mm/year. According to our analyses (Figure 11), the outflow is in the range of 50 mm/year, which is significantly higher than the assumption by Ayenew et al. (2008). Karimi et al. (2014) showed a similar bias, which they attribute to change in storage.

Table 3 shows the bias of the WaPOR basin wide water balance, on average there is a bias of 5% (of the precipitation), which can either be attributed to unaccounted outflow of the basin or error in the estimations of P and ET_a or GRACE. The biases are larger for the wet and dry years. For the wet year (2010), a positive bias of 11% and for the dry year (2015) a negative bias of 12% is observed.

GRACE Total Water Storage, Awash Basin

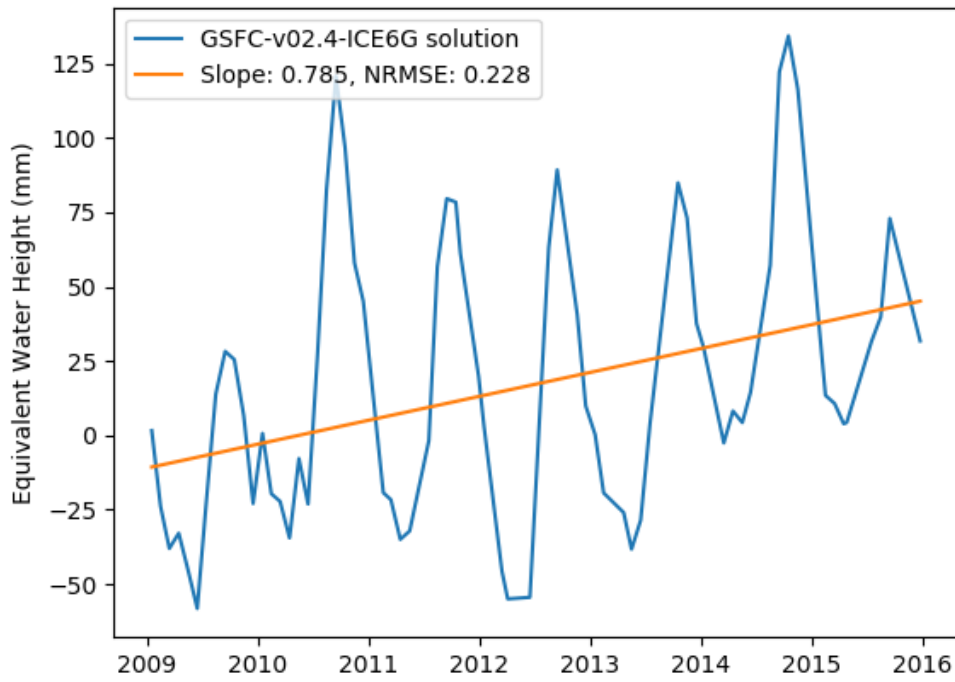


Figure 10. Longer term trend of increasing water storage in Awash River Basin on GRACE gravity measurements (source: <https://ccar.colorado.edu/grace/gsfsc.html>)

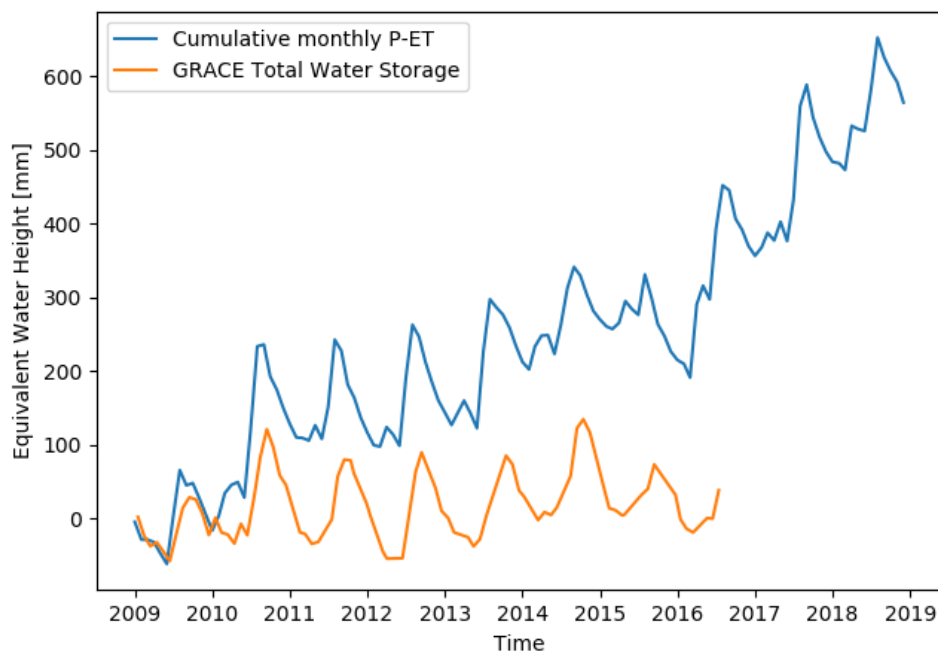


Figure 11. Cumulative monthly difference of WaPOR P - ET_a and GRACE total water storage for Awash River Basin

Table 3. Estimation of Error in Water Balance of Awash River Basin based on GRACE Total Water Storage from 2010 to 2018

	ΔS from GRACE	ΔS from WaPOR Water Balance	ΔS difference	Error percentage
Year	(km ³ /year)	(km ³ /year)	(km ³ /year)	(% Precipitation)
2009	- 2.6	- 3.2	- 0.5	- 0.9
2010	4.8	13.5	8.7	10.5
2011	- 2.1	- 5.4	- 3.2	- 5.3
2012	- 0.8	- 1.0	- 0.3	- 0.4
2013	3.4	5.1	1.7	2.4
2014	3.0	1.8	- 1.2	- 1.9
2015	- 5.3	- 10.4	- 5.1	- 11.6
Average	0.1	0.1	0.0	- 1.0

2.2.2. Global maps to categorise land use classes

The land use map forms the basis for dividing the basin landscape into the four main categories (PLU, ULU, MLU, and MWU). Four main categories of land and water uses are distinguished:

- **Protected Land Use (PLU)**; areas that have a special nature status and are protected by National Governments or International NGOs
- **Utilized Land Use (ULU)**; areas that have a light utilization with a minimum anthropogenic influence. The water flow is essentially natural
- **Modified Land Use (MLU)**; areas where the land use has been modified. Water is not diverted but land use affects all unsaturated zone physical process such as infiltration, storage, percolation and water uptake by roots; this affects the vertical soil water balance
- **Managed Water Use (MWU)**; areas where water flows are regulated by humans via irrigation canals, pumps, hydraulic structures, utilities, drainage systems, ponds etc.

The underlying reason for framing these four land use categories is that their management options widely differ from keeping them pristine to planning hourly water flows.

The land use categories map (Figure 12) is based on the land cover layer (LCC) from WaPOR database, but needed to be reclassified into the Water Accounting classes. Protected Land Use (PLU) class was updated using the protected area profile from the World Database on Protected Areas (UNEP-WCMC, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d). The areas which are designated as IUCN categories I and II are reclassified as PLU. The Managed Water Use class was reclassified from the 'Cropland, irrigated or under water management' and 'Built-up' classes in WaPOR LCC layer and updated with the area of constructed reservoirs from the Global Reservoir and Dam Database (GRanD) (Lehner et al., 2011). The GRanD map from 2011 was also adjusted with the recently built Tendaho reservoir (from 2009). The Modified Land Use was reclassified from the class 'Cropland, fallow' and 'Cropland, rainfed' in WaPOR LCC layer. After that, the rest of the area was reclassified as Utilized Land Use class.

The map of the WA+ land use classes for the Awash River Basin used in the analyses is shown in Figure 12. The majority of the area in the Awash River basin is covered by utilised land use.

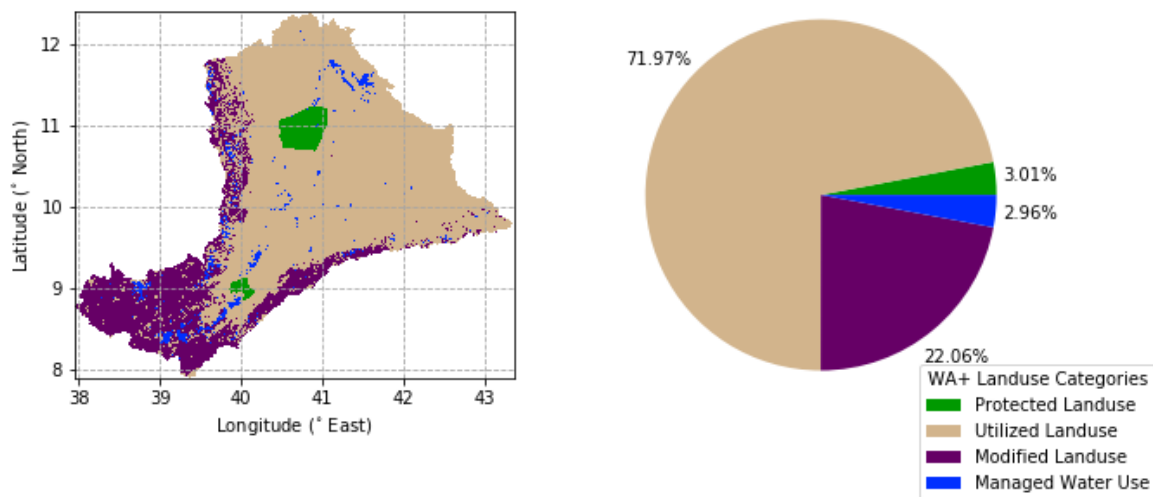


Figure 12. Area percentage of WA+ Land Use categories in Awash River basin

2.3. WA+ methodology

The longer term planning process of water and environmental resources in river basins requires a measurement – reporting – monitoring system in place. The Water Accounting Plus (WA+) framework is based on the early WA work of Molden (1997) focusing on agriculture and irrigation systems. WA+ was further developed by Karimi and Bastiaanssen (2015) and Karimi et al. (2015) for river basin analyses and incorporating of all water use sectors. Further developments include more hydrological and water management processes and focus on specific land uses.

A key element of WA is that it separates ET into rainfall (ET_{rain}) and incremental ET (ET_{inc}), thereby clearly identifying managed water flows. WA+ includes thus the hydrology of natural watersheds that provide the main source of water in streams and aquifers, as well as quantifying water consumption. The current study utilises the WaPOR v2.0 Level 2 data (100 m resolution) for the analyses. It presents a rapid WaPOR-based water accounting framework.

The output of WA+ is in a number of sheets and supporting spatial maps. Remote sensing, GIS and spatial models form the core methodology, so all data has a spatial context. The accounts are reported on an annual basis, as WA+ is meant for longer term planning. Software tools have been developed that automatically collect and download data from WaPOR database as well as for the calculations. The models and scripts for the creation of the water accounts and the elaboration of the reports are available on GitHub under the Water Accounting account¹. The WA+ framework is public and open for all users.

Figure 13 shows the flow chart of the rapid WA+ process and the data used. The rapid WA+ mainly uses WaPOR data such as the level 1 monthly precipitation and level 2 annual time series of land cover classification, interception and actual evapotranspiration and interception. External data sources used include GRACE satellite data for estimating the change in storage in the basin, Global Reservoir and Dam Database (GRaND) to identify dam locations and extents, the World Database on Protected Areas to identify the protected land uses, and the map of top soil saturated water content (de Boer, 2016).

¹ <https://github.com/wateraccounting>

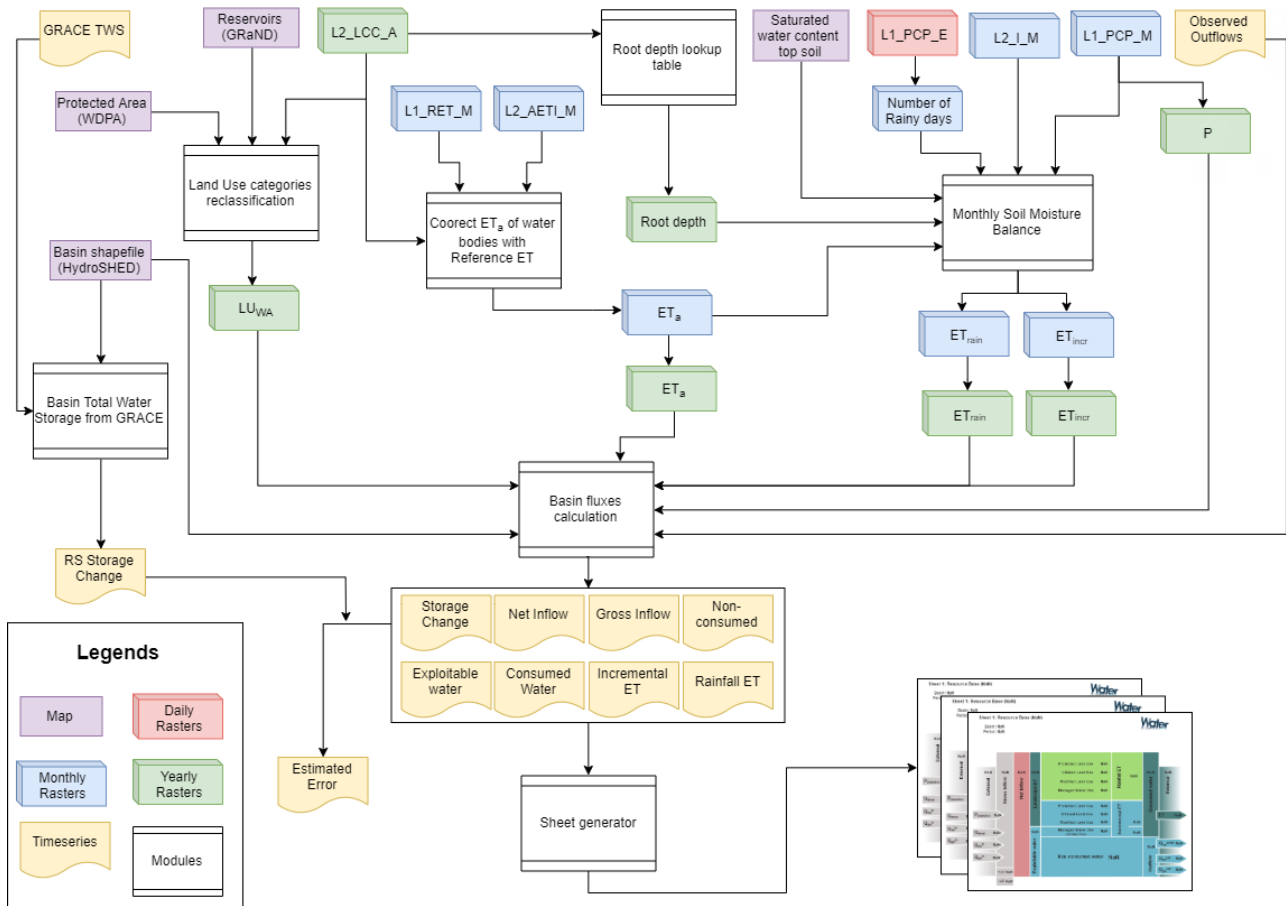


Figure 13. Water accounting flow chart using WaPOR data

2.3.1. Pixel scale analysis

The water accounting framework distinguishes between a vertical and horizontal water balance. A vertical water balance is made for the unsaturated root zone of every pixel and describes the exchanges between land and atmosphere (i.e. rainfall and evapotranspiration) as well as the partitioning into infiltration and surface runoff. Percolation and water supply are also computed for every pixel, to facilitate attributing water supply and consumption to each land use class.

The WaterPix model calculates for each pixel the vertical soil water balance (See Figure 14 and described below). ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} are separated by keeping track of the soil moisture balance and determining if ET_a is satisfied only from rainfall or stored in the soil moisture or additional source (supply) is required. The main inputs into WaterPix are provided in Table 4 and the outputs are provided in Table 5. Each parameter is calculated at the model resolution of 100m and available for monthly and annual time steps.

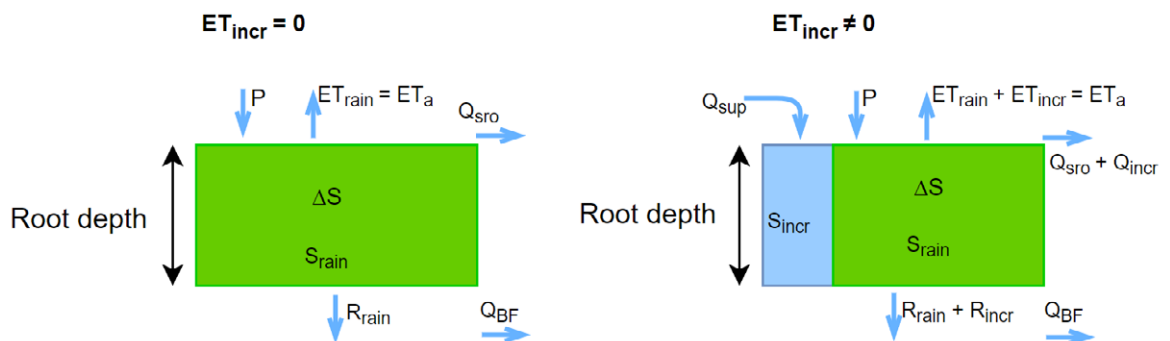


Figure 14. Main schematization of the flows and fluxes in the WaterPix model

Table 4. Inputs of WaterPix

Variable	Parameter	Source	Spatial Resolution	Temporal resolution
Precipitation	P	WaPOR	5,000 m	Daily
Actual Evapotranspiration	ET _a	WaPOR	100 m	Monthly
Interception	I	WaPOR	100m	Monthly
Land use land cover	LULC	WaPOR	100 m	Yearly
Saturated Water Content		HiHydroSoil	0.008333 degree (about 900m at the equator)	Static

Table 5. Outputs of the water balance model at pixel level

Variable	Calculation step	Definition
S	1	Soil Moisture
Q _{sro}	1,4	Surface Runoff
R	1,4	Recharge
ET _{rain}	2	Rainfall ET
ET _{incr}	2	Incremental ET
Q _{sup}	3	Supply

Step 1. Compute soil moisture

The soil moisture ($S_{rain,t}$) is computed as the soil moisture storage at the end of the previous timestep ($S_{rain,t-1}$) plus the effective rainfall ($P-I$) minus recharge (R_{rain}) and surface runoff (Q_s):

$$S_{rain,t} = S_{rain,t-1} + P - I - R_{rain} - Q_{sro,rain}$$

Where the surface runoff ($Q_{sro,rain}$) is calculated using an adjusted version of the Soil Conservation Service runoff method. The adjusted version replaces the classical Curve Numbers by a dynamic soil moisture deficit term that better reflects the dry and wet season infiltration versus runoff behaviour (see Schaake et al., 1996; Choudhury & DiGirolamo, 1998). As the Curve Number method is developed for event based runoff, we calculated $Q_{sro,rain}$ on daily basis, dividing the effective rainfall by the number of rainy days (n) and a calibration parameter to account for the soil moisture variation due to drying up and filling with in a month. The total surface runoff for a month is then multiplied by n :

$$Q_{sro,rain} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } P = 0 \\ \frac{\left(\frac{P-I}{n}\right)^2}{\frac{P-I}{n} + f(S_{sat} - S_{rain,t-1})} * n & \text{if } P \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Where the saturated soil moisture (S_{sat}) is calculated by multiplying the Saturated Water Content (θ_{SAT}) by the effective root depth (RD) for each land cover class estimated based on the effective root depth by Yang et al. (2016) (Table 6).

Table 6. Root depth look-up table. The values of root depth for each land cover class is based on study by Yang et al. (2016)

WaPOR Land cover class	Root depth (mm)
Shrubland	370
Grassland	510
Cropland, rainfed	550
Cropland, irrigated or under water management	550
Fallow cropland	550
Built-up	370
Bare/sparse vegetation	370
Permanent snow/ice	0
Water bodies	0
Temporary water bodies	0
Shrub or herbaceous cover, flooded	0
Tree cover: closed, evergreen needle-leaved	1,800
Tree cover: closed, evergreen broad-leaved	3,140
Tree cover: closed, deciduous broad-leaved	1,070
Tree cover: closed, mixed type	2,000
Tree cover: closed, unknown type	2,000
Tree cover: open, evergreen needle-leaved	1,800
Tree cover: open, evergreen broad-leaved	3,140
Tree cover: open, deciduous needle-leaved	1,070
Tree cover: open, deciduous broad-leaved	1,070
Tree cover: open, mixed type	2,000
Tree cover: open, unknown type	2,000
Seawater	0

Step 2. Separate ET_a into ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} and update S

To compute the rainfall and incremental component of ET_a , ET_a is subtracted from $S_{rain,t}$. When $S_{rain,t}$ is insufficient for ET_a , the difference will be supplied by surface or groundwater uptake. ET_{rain} becomes the amount which can be supplied by the soil moisture, whereas the difference will become ET_{incr} :

$$ET_{rain} = \text{if } (S_{rain,t} > ET_a, ET_a, S_{rain,t})$$

$$ET_{incr} = ET_a - ET_{rain}$$

The new soil moisture storage then becomes:

$$S_{rain,t} = S_{rain,av} - ET_{rain}$$

Step 3. Estimation of Water Supply

The amount of water supplied to each pixel is a function of ET_{incr} and the so called consumed fraction (f_c).

$$Q_{sup} = f(ET_{incr}, LU) = \frac{ET_{incr}}{f_c}$$

f_c is dependent on the land use class and was suggested to replace the classical irrigation efficiencies (Molden, 1997; Simons et al., 2016). The consumed fractions applied in this study are specified in Table 6.

Table 7: Consumed fraction per land use class

Land use class	Consumed fraction (f_c)
Natural land use classes	1.00
Rainfed crops	1.00
Irrigated crops	0.80

Step 4. Estimating incremental soil moisture

A separate soil moisture storage (blue area in Figure 14) is added to store Q_{sup} and calculate incremental recharge and runoff as follows:

$$S_{incr, t} = S_{incr, t-1} + Q_{supply} - ET_{incr} - R_{incr} - Q_{sro, incr}$$

And total soil moisture storage (S_t) becomes:

$$S_t = S_{rain, t} + S_{incr, t}$$

Then total recharge (R_t) is calculated as exponential function of the soil moisture. If the soil moisture is above a certain percentage (calibration parameter) of the saturated content, the percolation will be computed using the following simple exponential function:

$$R_t = S_t * \exp\left(-\frac{1}{S_t}\right)$$

And the incremental recharge (R_{incr}) and the recharge from rainfall (R_{rain}) are computed as proportions of the incremental and rain soil moisture values.

The surface runoff is updated to account the increase due to incremental surface runoff from the supply

$$Q_{sro\ tot} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } P = 0 \\ \frac{\left(\frac{P+Q_{sup}-I}{n}\right)^2}{\frac{P+Q_{sup}-I}{n} + f\left(S_{sat} - (S_{rain, t} + S_{incr})\right)} * n & \text{if } P \neq 0 \text{ or } Q_{sup} \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

The incremental surface runoff ($Q_{sro, incr}$) is then computed as:

$$Q_{sro, incr} = Q_{sro, tot} - Q_{sro, rain}$$

The results of the calculation for ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} for the different land cover classes are shown in Figure 15. It shows that trees, irrigated crop land, flooded shrubs and water bodies have high incremental ET. For trees the method estimates about 38% to 56% of ET_a is from ET_{incr} . Although for the tree land covers ET_a is higher than the precipitation (103% to 153% of the precipitation), the estimated ET_{incr} is higher than expected.

Similarly, the ET_{rain} for irrigated croplands and flooded shrubs is 83% and 66% of the rainfall and ET_{incr} is 104% and 159% respectively. The land cover classes with higher amount of incremental ET cover a small proportion of the basin. Irrigated croplands, with 3% of the area of the basin, have significant ET_{incr} , only 45% of the ET is from rainfall whereas the remaining 55% is from blue water. Open tree covers also consume a significant amount of blue water. The source of the ET_{incr} from open trees could be from overflows of Awash River in the middle of the basin which inundate the open tree cover lands. Most of the runoff in the basin is generated from rainfed croplands, grasslands and bare land or sparsely vegetated cover types.

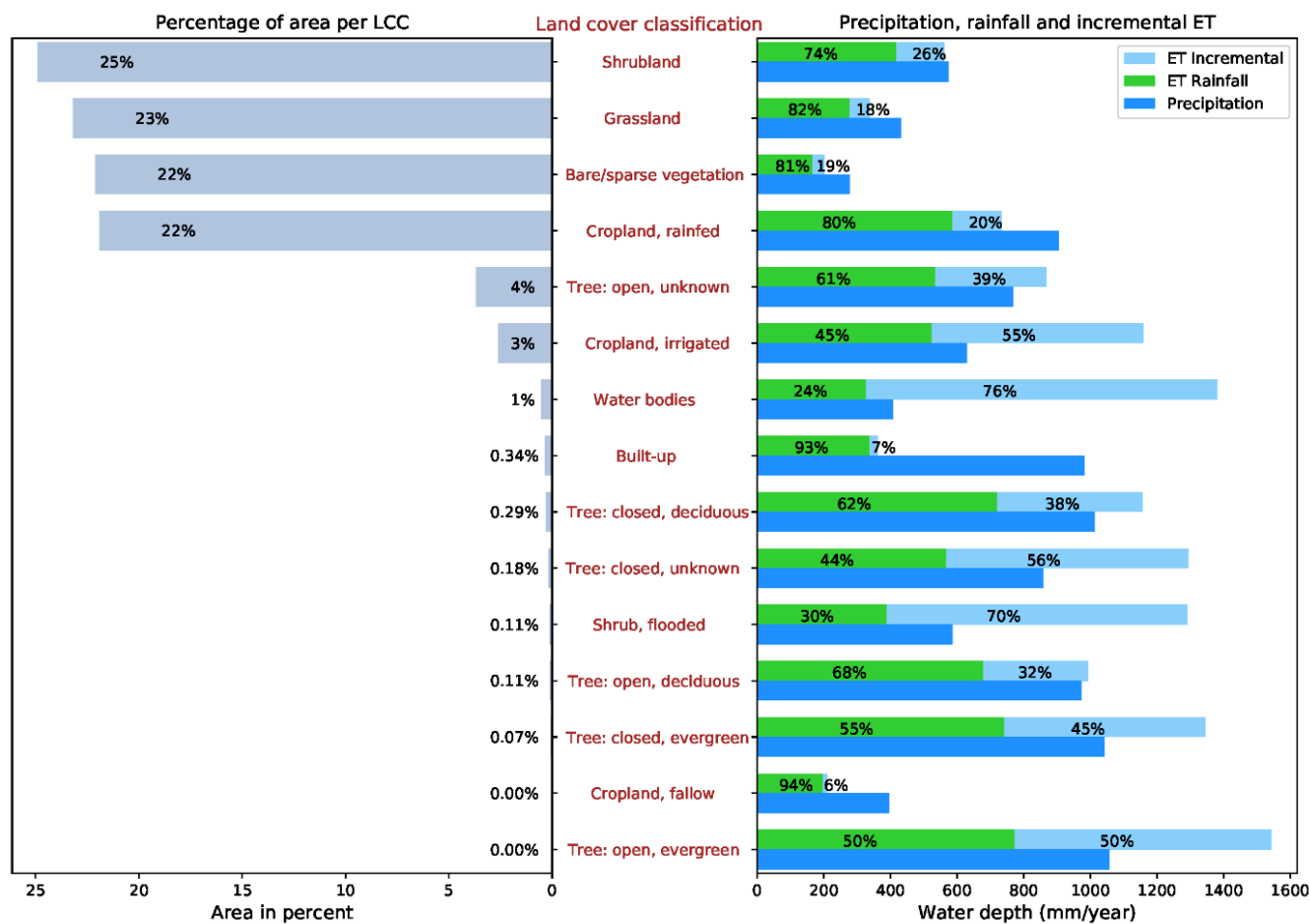


Figure 15. Precipitation, ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} per land cover of Awash River Basin for the period 2009 to 2018 - the percentages indicate the proportion of ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} to the precipitation.

2.3.2. WaPOR based Water Accounting Plus sheet 1

The water accounts sheet 1 provide an overview of the water resources and its current utilisation per different land use categories. The rapid WaPOR-based Water Accounting Plus looks at the gross inflow, rainfall and incremental evapotranspiration for each of the WA+ land use categories. It assesses the current utilisation rate of a river basin.

A further analysis was done, using a set of key indicators for water accounting developed by Dost et al (2013) in consultation with the Land and Water Division of FAO:

The first set of indicators can be related to the Resource Base Sheet:

$$1. \text{ ET Fraction} = \frac{ET_{\text{tot}}}{P + Q_{\text{in}}} (\%)$$

- ET fraction indicates which portion of the total inflow of water is consumed and which part is converted into renewable resources. A value higher than 100% indicates over- exploitation or a dependency on external resources.

$$2. \text{ Stationarity Index} = \frac{\Delta \text{ Storage}}{ET_{\text{tot}}} (\%)$$

- Stationarity Index is an indication of the depletion of water resources. Positive values indicate that water is added to the groundwater and/or surface water storage. Negative values indicate a depletion of the storage.

$$3. \text{ Basin Closure} = \frac{1 - \text{Outflow}}{P + Q_{\text{in}}} (\%)$$

- Basin Closure defines the percentage of total available water resources (Precipitation + basin in-flow) that is consumed and/or stored within the basin. A value of 100% indicates that all available water is consumed and/or stored in the basin.

The second set of indicators focuses on the actual amount of water that is currently managed, or is available to be managed:

4. **Available Water (AW) = Gross inflow – Landscape Evapotranspiration – Reserved Flow (km³/year)**, where landscape evapotranspiration is all water lost to evapotranspiration minus the evapotranspiration from managed land uses
 - Total amount of water that is available to be managed.
5. **Managed Water (MW) = Incremental ET of Managed Water Use (km³/year)**
6. **Managed Fraction = Managed Water / Available Water (%)**
 - Percentage of water that is actually managed from the total amount of water that is available.

3. Water Accounting Plus

3.1. The resource base

3.1.1. Overview: Average over the entire period

The 10 year average exploitable water resources in the Awash River Basin is 8.7 km³/year (5.9 km³/year exploitable water and 2.8 km³/year increase in storage) (Figure 16). The increase in storage, as observed by GRACE could be in the reservoirs, lakes and in the groundwater. The stored amount is equivalent to about 57mm/year. The water balance shows an outflow to the groundwater of 3.8 km³/year. This is similar to the values estimated by Karimi et al. (2015), who considered a regional groundwater out flow of 3.8 km³/year likely, which is equivalent to 31 mm/year recharge.

The population in the basin is estimated to be 18.6 million people in 2017. Based on the available water resources, the per capita water availability in the basin would be about a mere 263 m³/year which is well below the 500m³/cap/year threshold below which severe water stress is indicated (Falkenmark, 1986). It is therefore essential that the available water resources are used and managed sustainably.

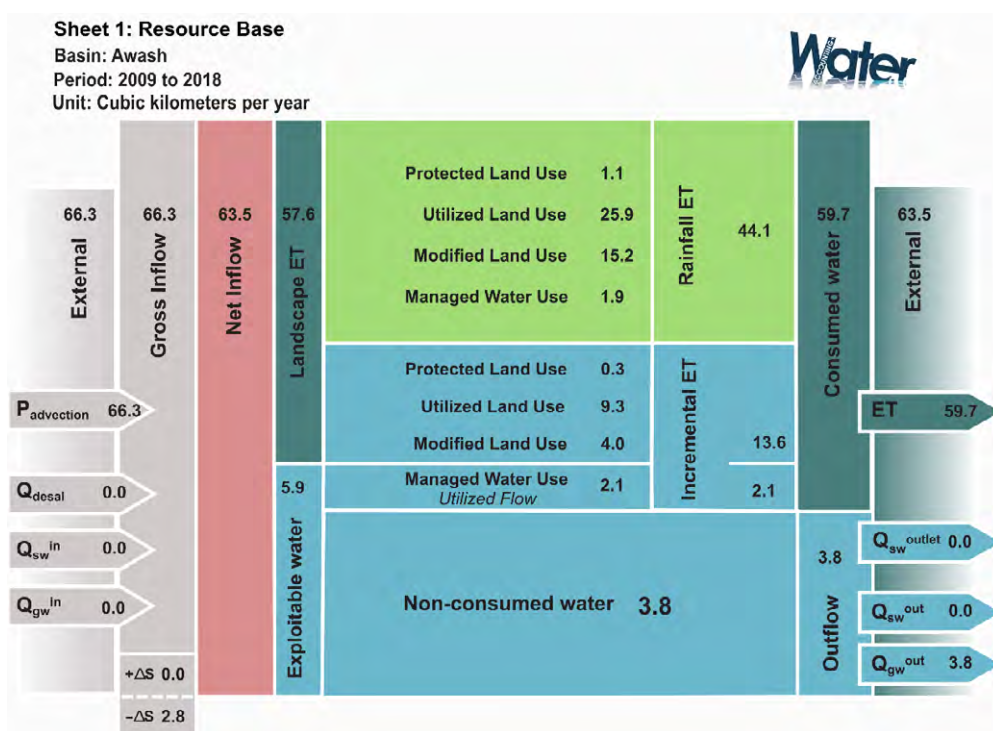


Figure 16. WA+ sheet 1 for the Awash River Basin containing average flow values for the period 2009 – 2018. Yearly Resource Base Sheets are included in Annex 5

The majority of ET_{incr} (total volume 15.7 km³/year) originates from natural withdrawals (13.6 km³/year). The anthropic withdrawals (2.1 km³/year) is only about 13% of ET_{incr} . The majority of the available water resources goes to Utilized Land Use (ULU) with 9.3 km³/year and Modified Land Use (MLU) with 4.0 km³/year. Protected Land Use (PLU) uses only 0.3 km³/year. Rarely this usage of blue water appears in water allocation plans, because this consumption occurs naturally and is out of sight from water managers. The fact that natural land use classes utilize blue water can be explained by capillary rise and Awash River overflows and inundating these natural land

use classes for long period during wet season period in low plains. Groundwater dependent ecosystems such as bushland and forests would tap into shallow aquifers and intercept drainage flows.

The outflow from the basin is in the form of groundwater outflow as there is no observed surface water outflow. While detailed groundwater studies were not available, Karimi et al. (2015) considered a regional groundwater outflow of 3.8 km³/year likely, which is equivalent to 31 mm/year recharge. For this water accounting, the same amount was also used to represent the yearly groundwater outflow.

The total consumed water (the sum of rainfall and incremental ET) is 59.7 km³/year which is about 90% of the total precipitation. ET_{incr} accounts 26.3% of the consumption.

Irrigated cropland cover covers 3,126.8 km² which is about 3% of the Awash River Basin area and the average ET_{incr} used by this land cover is 635.4 mm/year (see Figure 15) which implies about 1.99 km³/year of the exploitable water or 37% is used for irrigation. Of the managed water use the irrigated croplands consume about 95%.

The water resources situation described above shows the average condition over the decade from 2009 to 2018, however the situation varies greatly from year to year depending on the amount of rainfall the basin receives, as described in the following section.

3.1.2. Variability of the annual Water Accounts

Figure 17 shows the yearly changes in precipitation, ET_a and rainfall and incremental ET per water accounting land use categories. It shows that both ET_{rain} and ET_{incr} seem directly proportional to the precipitation. This implies that the ET_{incr} maybe from surface runoff

The year 2010 was the wettest year from the period analysed receiving 82.6 km³/year of rainfall (Figure 18). The exploitable water resources is 5.6 km³/year which is not very different from that of the average situation. The main difference is in the amount of water stored in the basin which now increases to 13.5 km³/year and in the ET_{rain}. The exploitable water resources in the basin for this year (considering the same population as 2017) was 1,059 m³/year which is more than tripled the average situation.

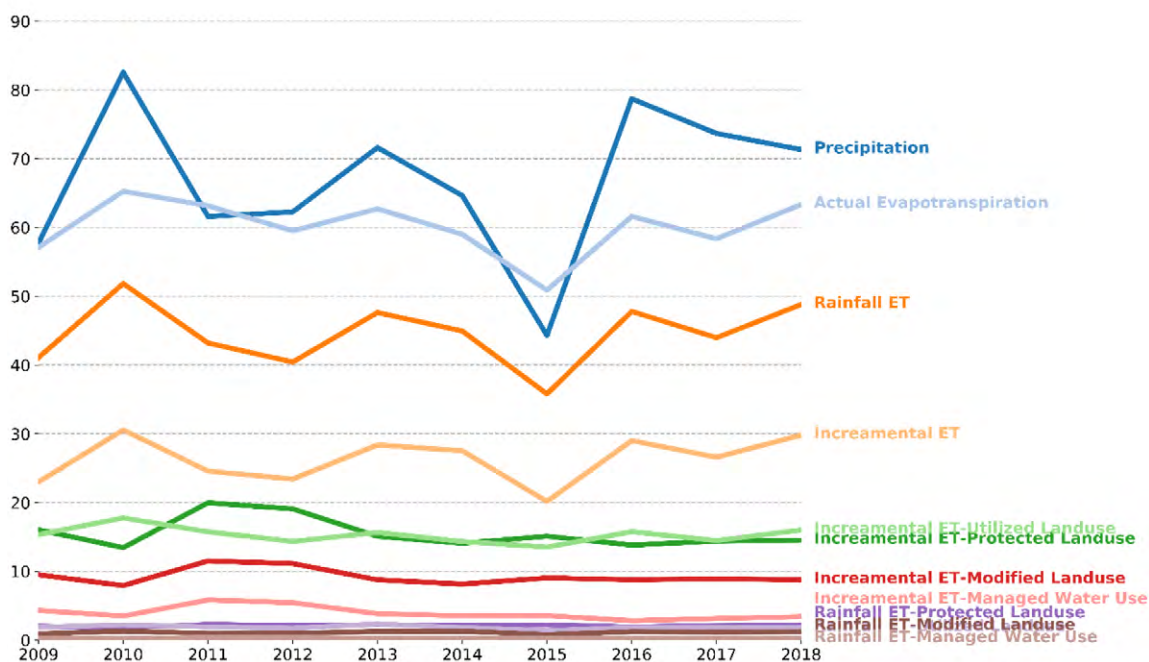
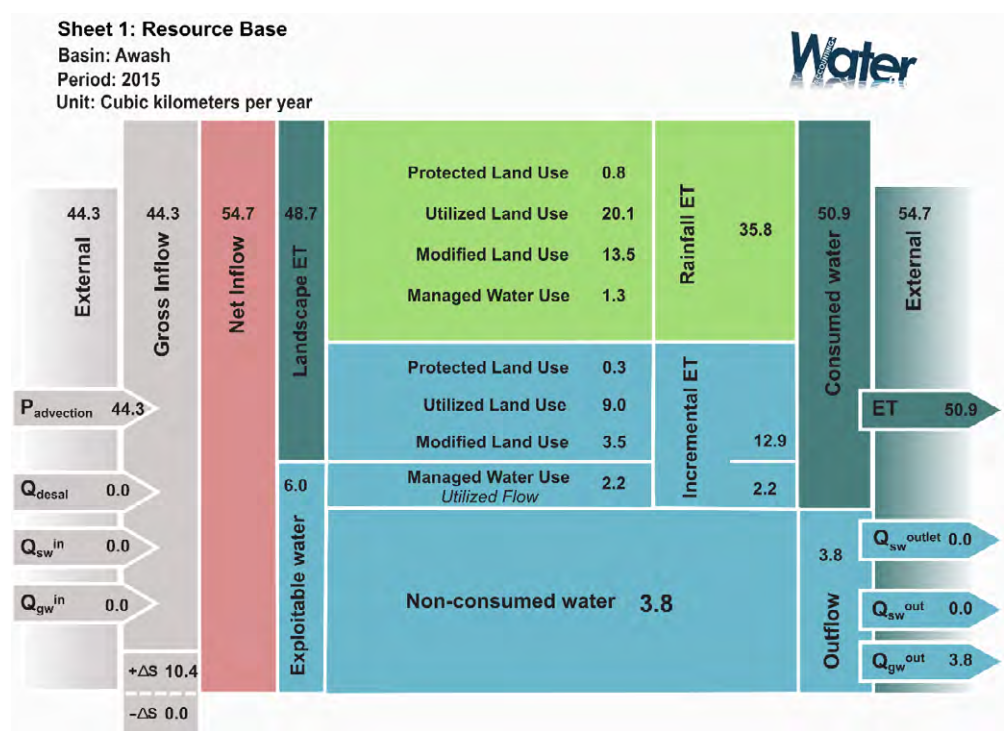


Figure 17. Awash River Basin water fluxes by year in km³/year from 2009 to 2018

Sheet 1: Resource Base
 Basin: Awash
 Period: 2010
 Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

Category	Sub-category	Value (Cubic kilometers per year)
External Inflow	External	82.6
	Gross Inflow	82.6
	Net Inflow	69.1
	Landscape ET	63.4
	Exploitable water	5.6
Land Use	Protected Land Use	1.3
	Utilized Land Use	30.5
	Modified Land Use	17.8
	Managed Water Use	2.2
	Non-consumed water	3.8
Evapotranspiration	Rainfall ET	51.8
	Incremental ET	11.6
	ET	65.3
Consumption	Consumed water	65.3
	Q _{sw} outlet	0.0
	Q _{sw} out	0.0
Outflow	Q _{gw} out	3.8
	Q _{gw} out	3.8

On the other hand, 2015 was the driest year receiving just 44.3 km³/year which is less than the consumed water (50.9 km³/year), the difference supplied from depleting the storage in the basin. ET_{incr} (15.1 km³/year) is now 30% of the total consumed water (Figure 19).



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3.2. Key Indicators

The key performance indicators are presented in Table 8. Since there were discrepancies between the storage change computed from WaPOR data, GRACE gravity measurements, and change in storage computed from yearly water balance (Table 3), we used the later for computation of the key indicators as shown in Table 8. The same indicators computed using the change in storage from GRACE gravity measurements is presented in Annex 7, and show similar results. We therefore conclude that the results can be used for decision making purposes.

Table 8. WA+ Sheet 1 key indicators of Awash River Basin from 2010 to 2018 based on water balance derived from WaPOR datasets

	ET fraction	Stationarity index	Basin Closure	Available water	Managed water	Managed fraction
Year	(%)	(%)	(%)	(km ³ /year)	(km ³ /year)	(%)
2009	98.9	-5.5	93.4	2.6	2.0	75.8
2010	79.0	20.7	95.4	19.1	1.8	9.5
2011	102.5	-8.5	93.8	0.7	2.3	316.7
2012	95.6	-1.7	93.9	4.9	2.1	43.6
2013	87.6	8.2	94.7	11.1	2.2	20.0
2014	91.3	3.1	94.1	7.8	2.2	27.8
2015	114.9	-20.4	91.4	-4.4	2.2	-50.8
2016	78.3	21.6	95.2	19.0	1.9	10.1
2017	79.2	19.7	94.8	17.4	2.1	12.1
2018	88.8	6.6	94.7	10.2	2.2	21.3
Numerical average	95.7	-0.6	93.8	6.0	2.1	63.2

3.2.1. ET fraction, Stationarity index and Basin Closure

The key performance parameters presented in Table 8 describes the river basin system by a few indicators. The ET fraction is highest in 2015 with about 115% indicating more than the precipitation amount consumed in that year. The additional amount consumed (15%) comes from storages in the basin. The ET fraction is lowest for the year 2016 with 78% indicating that not all rainfall is consumed so that surplus of rainfall is used to increase storage and/or generate non-utilized outflow from the basin. The representative value for ET fraction across the decade (2009 to 2010) is 92%. The wet years when the basin receives higher amount of precipitation increase the intra annual storage in the basin.

The Stationarity Index indicator describes what percentage of the consumption is originating from storage changes. An average positive indicator of 3.9% means that groundwater is not over-exploited however, its recharge is not that significant. In wet years such as years 2010, 2013, 2014 and 2016 -2018, the groundwater is recharging indicated by the positive stationarity index while in dry years abstraction of the groundwater occurs.

The average basin closure index is 94.1%, which shows that almost all water resources is consumed and/or stored in the basin; only 5.9% is flowing out of the basin.

3.2.2. Available water, managed water and managed fraction

The second set of indicators in Table 4 focuses on the actual amount of water that is currently managed, or is available to be managed. The total amount of Available Water is 8.6 km³/year. From this, a total amount of 2.1 km³/year is managed which is about 24% of the available amount. The available water as calculated here includes the outflow water from the basin in the form of groundwater outflow. To calculate the safe cap of water withdrawals, it is essential to evaluate where the outflow ends up. If it is used for some purpose outside of the basin, then the outflow can be considered as reserved flow and the available water will reduce by the same amount.

In wet years the available water increases and the managed fraction becomes less while in dry years the available water decreases and the managed fraction increase. A negative managed fraction indicates that the managed water provided by depleting storage in the basin such as in years 2015 where the managed fractions are -50.8%. These are the periods where the storage is being depleted.

A part of the available water amount can be contaminated by anthropogenic pollution loads to the extent that exceeds the basin's assimilation capacity. The water pollution level of the Awash River Basin related to anthropogenic Nitrogen and Phosphorus loads from diffuse and point sources from 2002 to 2010 was estimated to be less than 0.6 (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2015) and between 5 and 10 (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2018) respectively. In these studies, the water pollution levels were calculated as the ratio of Grey Water Footprint over the annual actual runoff of the basin. These values indicate that it would take more than 5 to 10 times of actual runoff of the basin to dilute the pollution related to anthropogenic Nitrogen and Phosphorus loads. As a result, the estimated available water might not be suitable for some uses (irrigation, drinking water, etc.). It should be, however, noted that the uncertainty range of the global GWF is of -33% to +60% (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2015).

4. Conclusions

The Awash River Basin is the most utilized river basin in Ethiopia hosting most of the industrial activities, small to large scale irrigation schemes and more than 18.6 million people. The basin faces high water stress during the peak irrigation time and frequent flooding in rainy seasons. The average yearly precipitation as quantified in the decade from 2009 to 2018 is 560 mm/year and the average yearly evapotranspiration is calculated as 503 mm/year indicating about 90% of the precipitation is consumed through evapotranspiration. The remaining 10% contributes to outflow from the basin in the form of groundwater outflow and change in storage within the basin. Based on the estimated water availability, the inhabitants are facing severe water shortage ($<500 \text{ m}^3/\text{cap}/\text{year}$).

The availability of water in the basin shows annual variability depending on the amount of precipitation the basin receives. In wet years, the basin generates surplus of water in excess of managed water and in dry years, the storage is depleted to satisfy managed water requirement. The overall managed water fraction is almost half (50%) of the available water. 37% the exploitable water is used for irrigation, this amounts to 95% of the managed water use. To satisfy the growing demand of water in the basin, strategies focusing on increasing water use efficiency and storage capacity need to be implemented to reduce the inter-annual variability. A safe cap on the exploitable water could not be determined without knowing where the outflow ends up.

The use of WaPOR data for water accounting analysis is showcased in this study. One of the reasons for slow uptake of water accounting, lack of data, has been overcome by relying heavily on remotely sensed data. Remote sensing techniques have been developed over the last years and nowadays there are several remotely sensed products. However, their quality varies greatly from one product to another and they are found from a number of providers. WaPOR database makes access to most of the remotely sensed products for water accounting relatively easy. This study has shown that the quality of the data provided through WaPOR 2.0 Level 2 provides reasonable estimates of P , ET_a at basin scale, general spatial distribution and analyses for different land use classes were also consistent. However, in the highlands there are a few patches where ET_a exceeds P (identified as irrigated areas) where there is no known irrigation taking place. Similarly in the Afar depression, P generally exceeds ET_a indicating net generation of water, which is not consistent with observations. These discrepancies require further investigation.

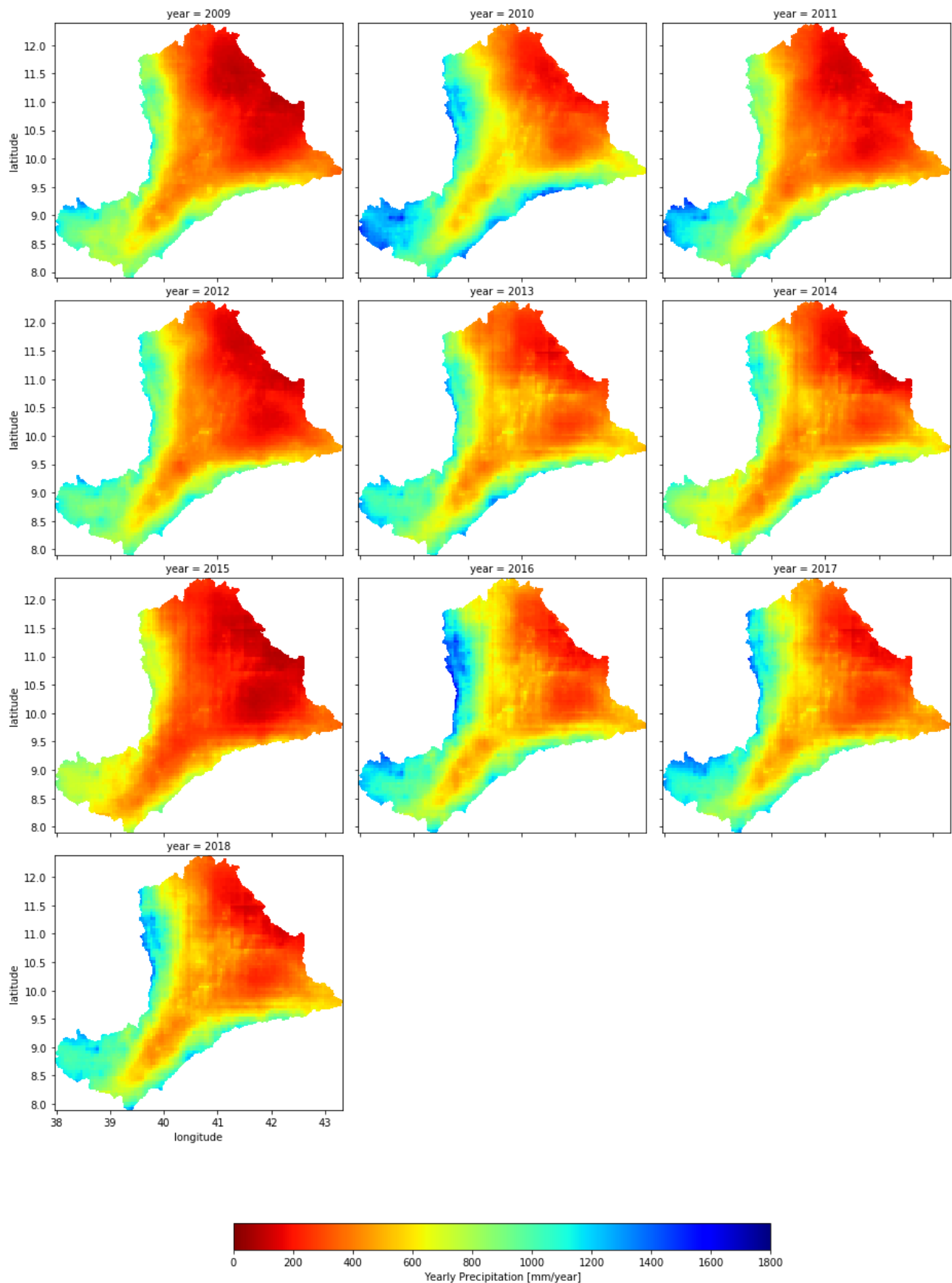
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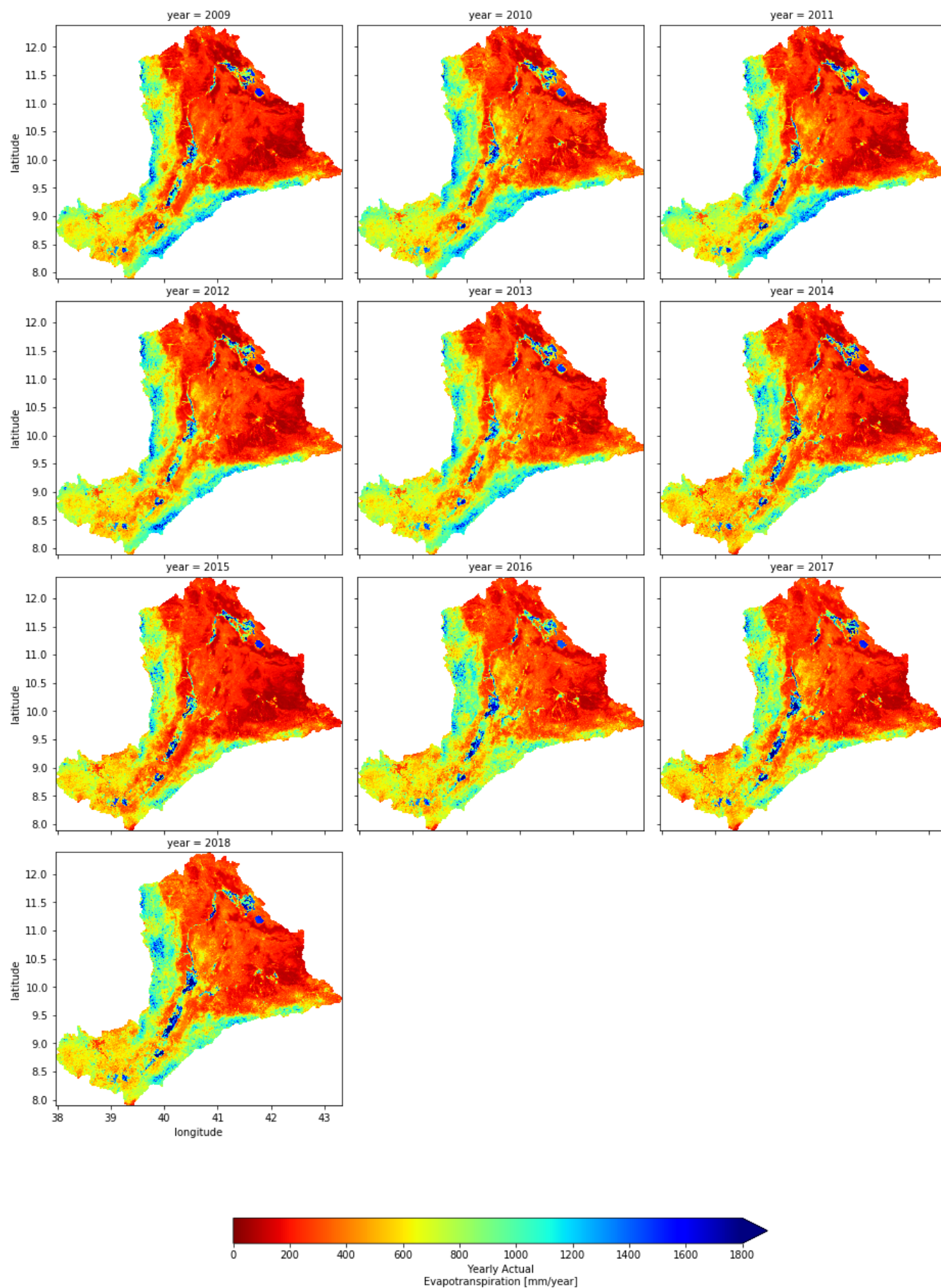
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Appendixes

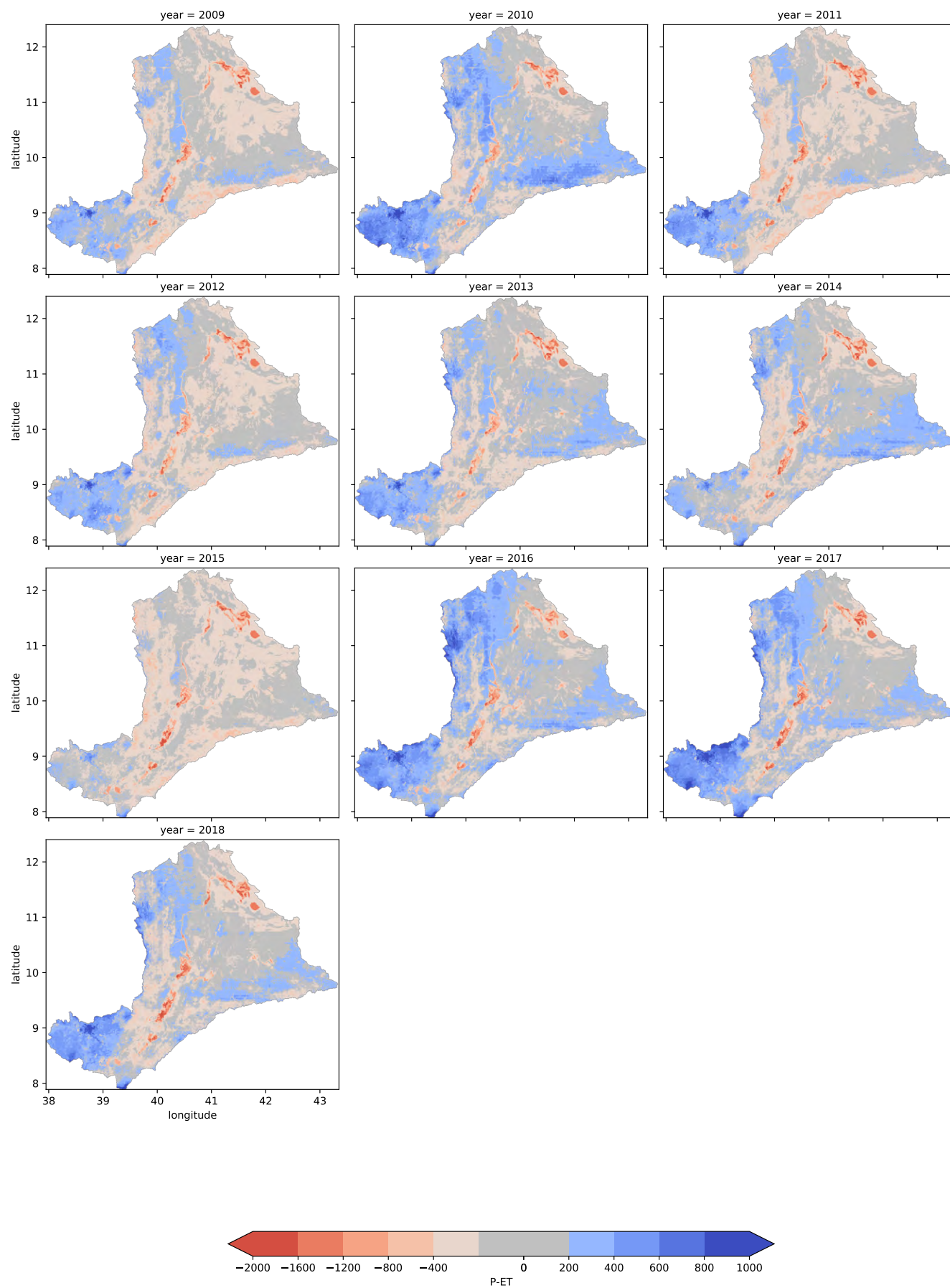
Annex 1. Plots of Annual Precipitation of Awash River Basin in mm/year



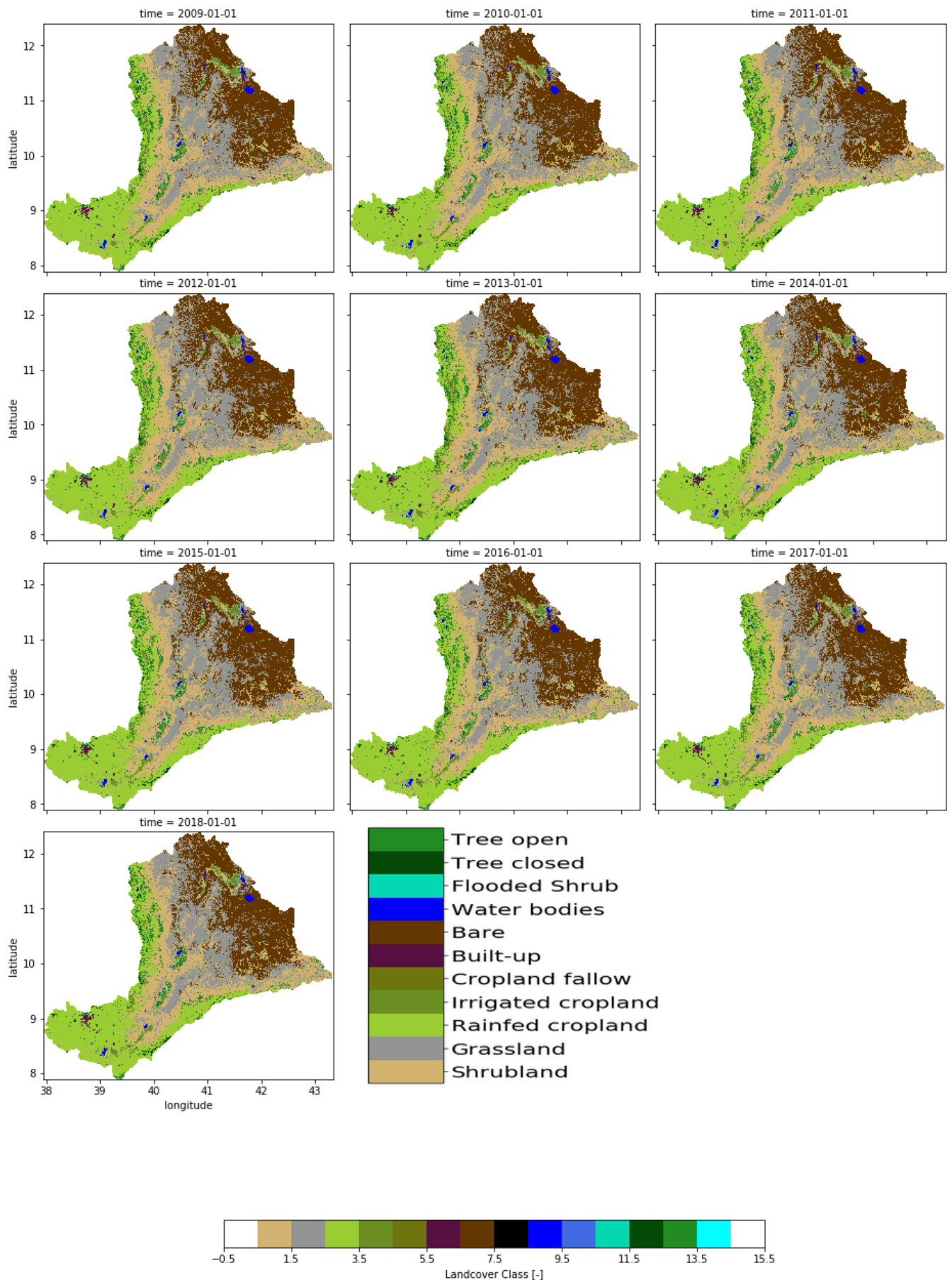
Annex 2. Plots of Annual Actual Evapotranspiration of Awash River Basin in mm/year



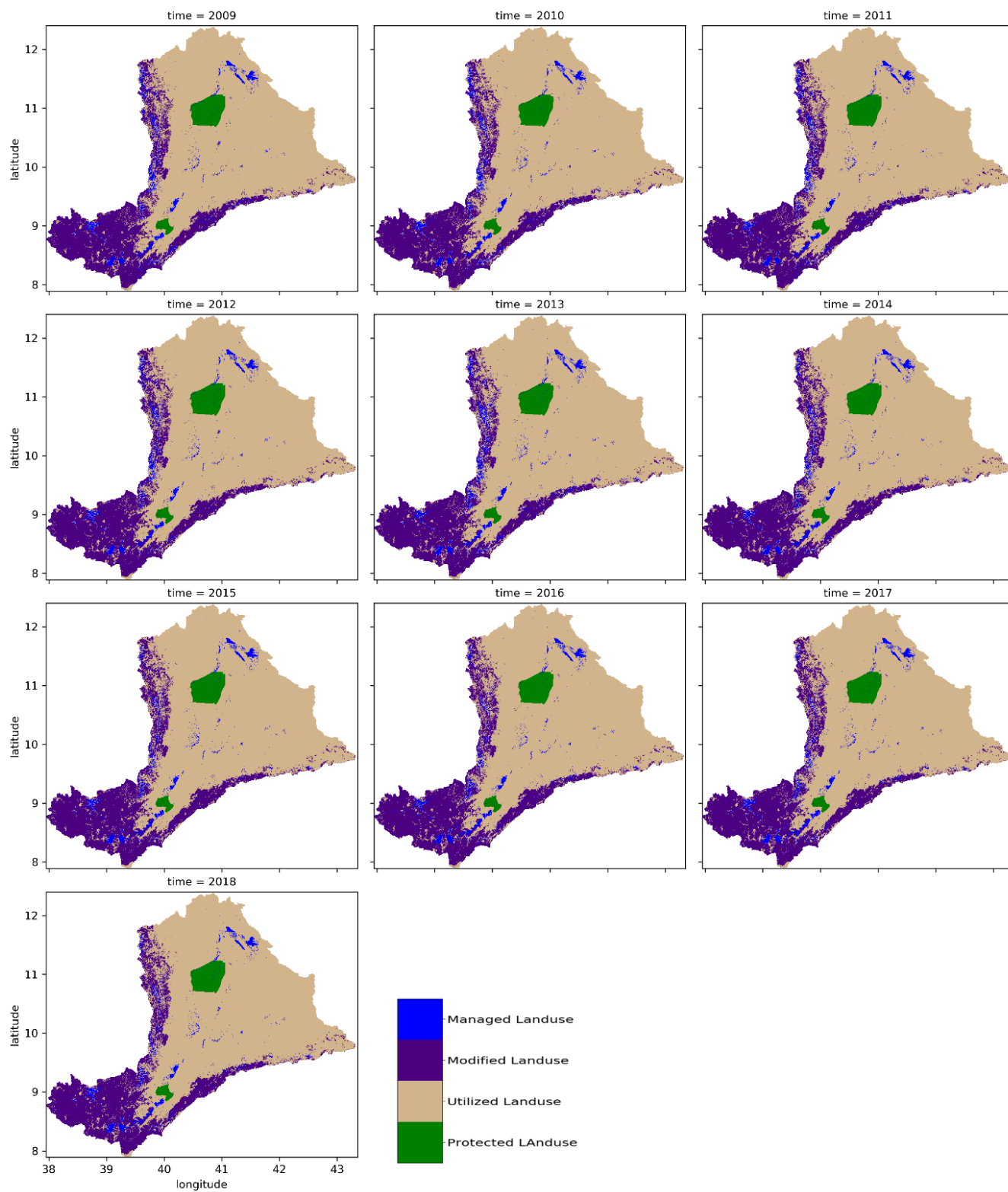
Annex 3. Plots of Annual $P-ET_a$ of Awash in mm/year

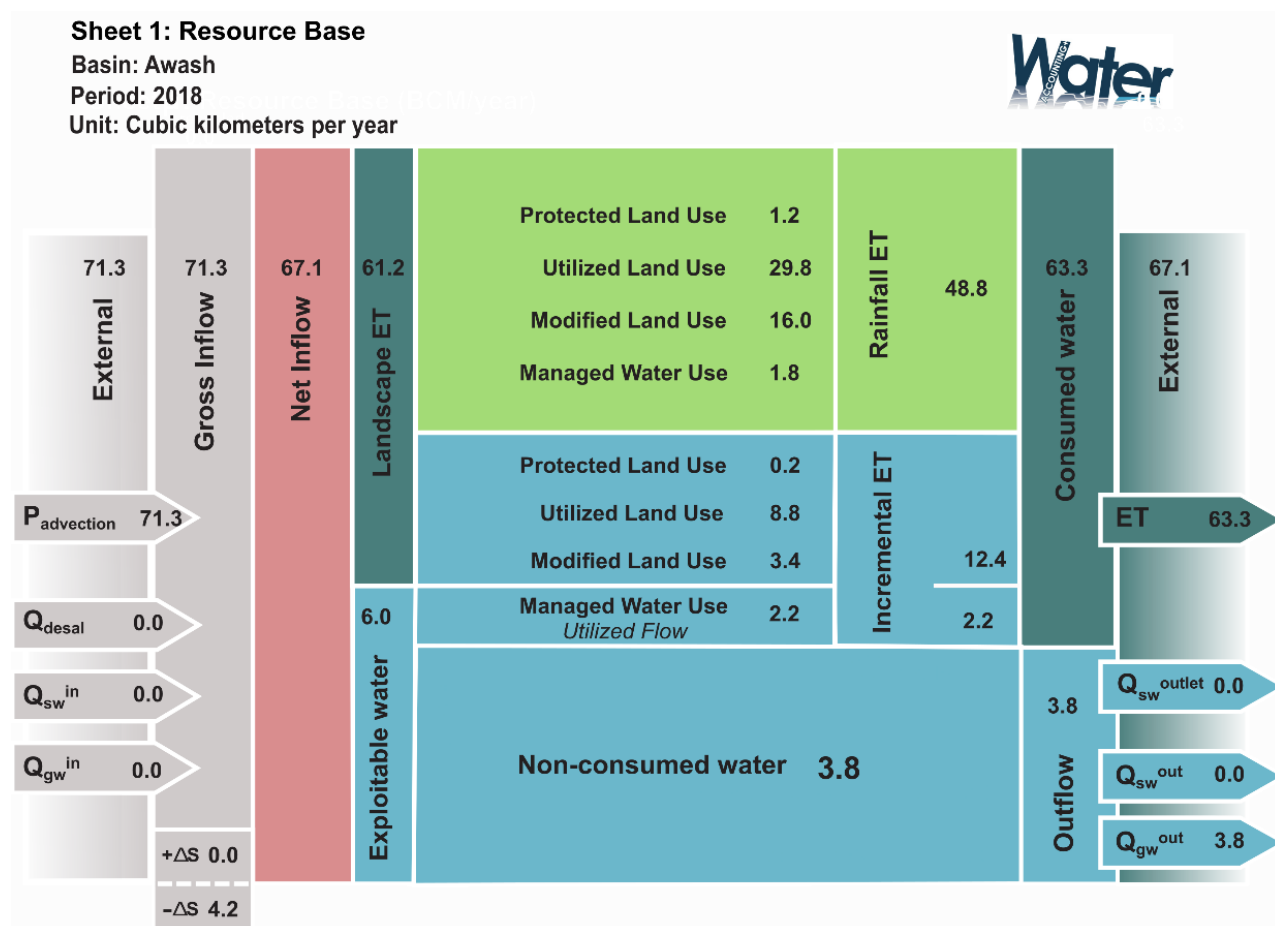
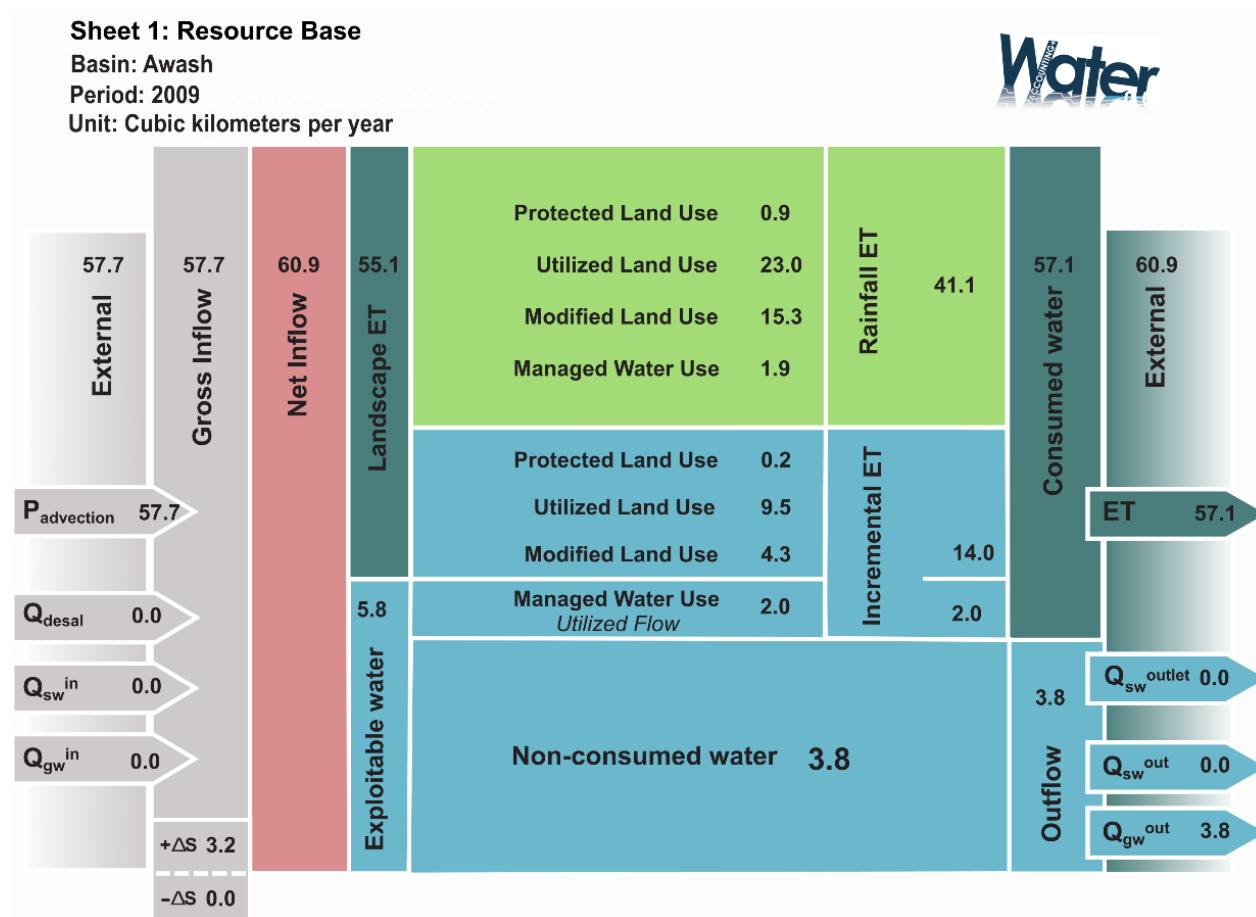


Annex 4. Plots of Annual Land cover classification maps



Annex 5. Plots of Annual Land Use maps based on WA+ Categories



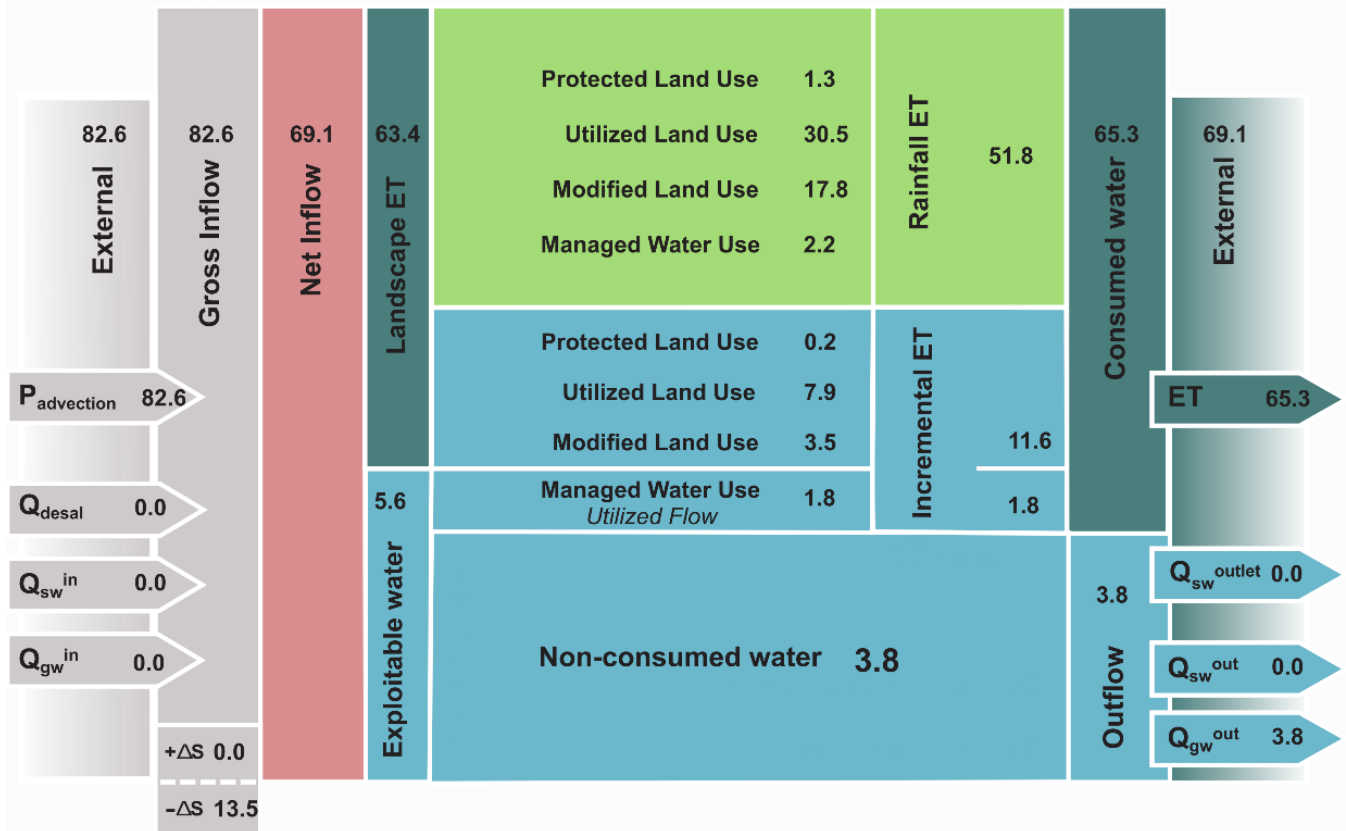


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2010

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

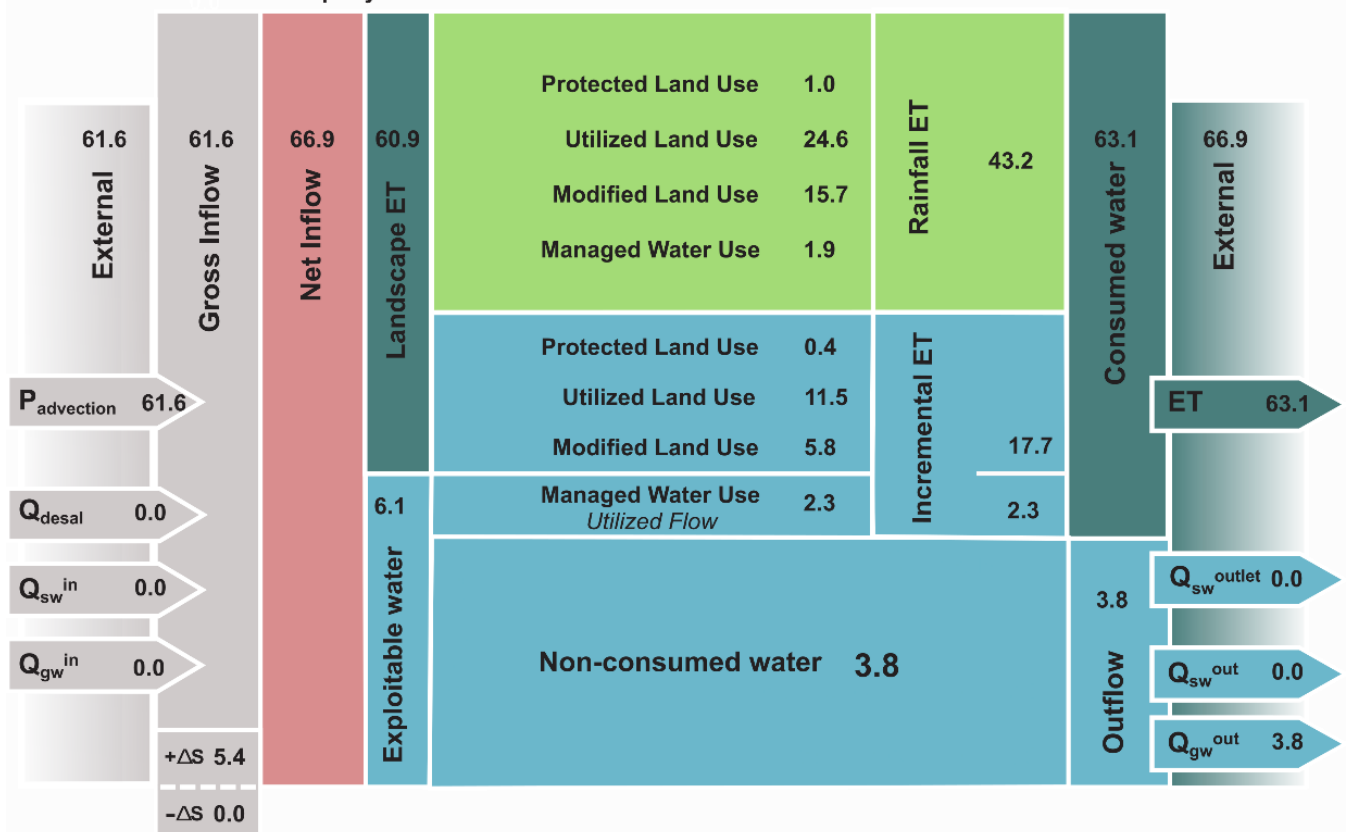


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2011

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

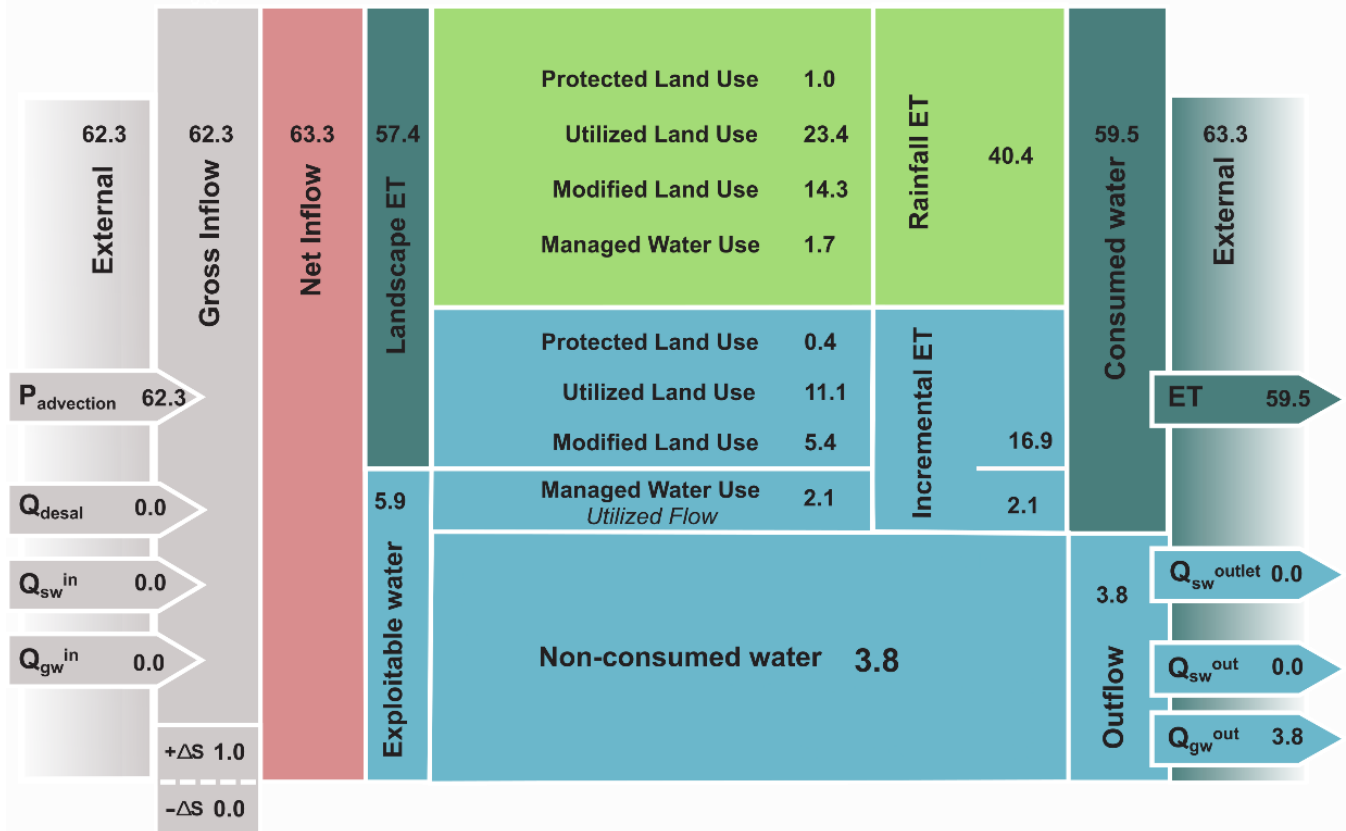


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2012

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

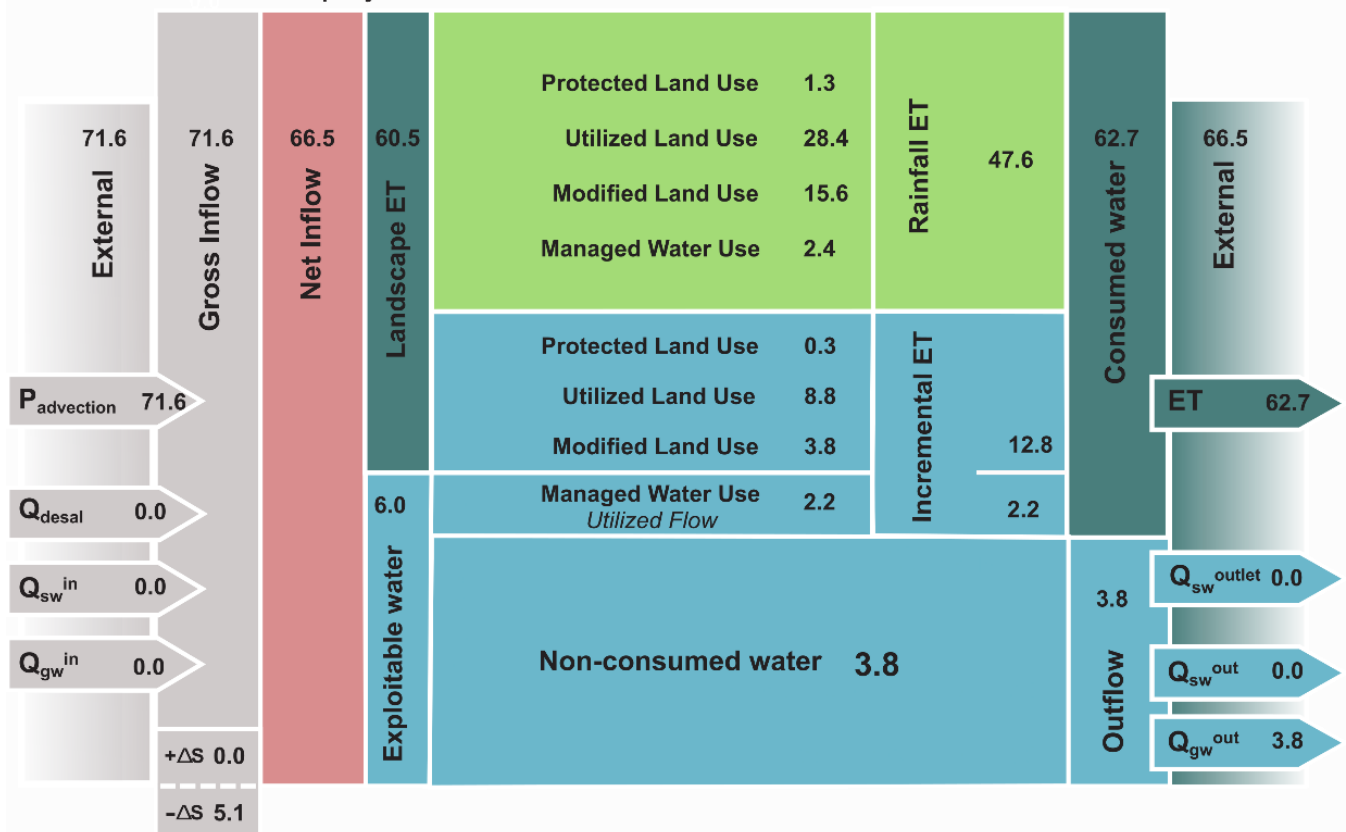


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2013

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

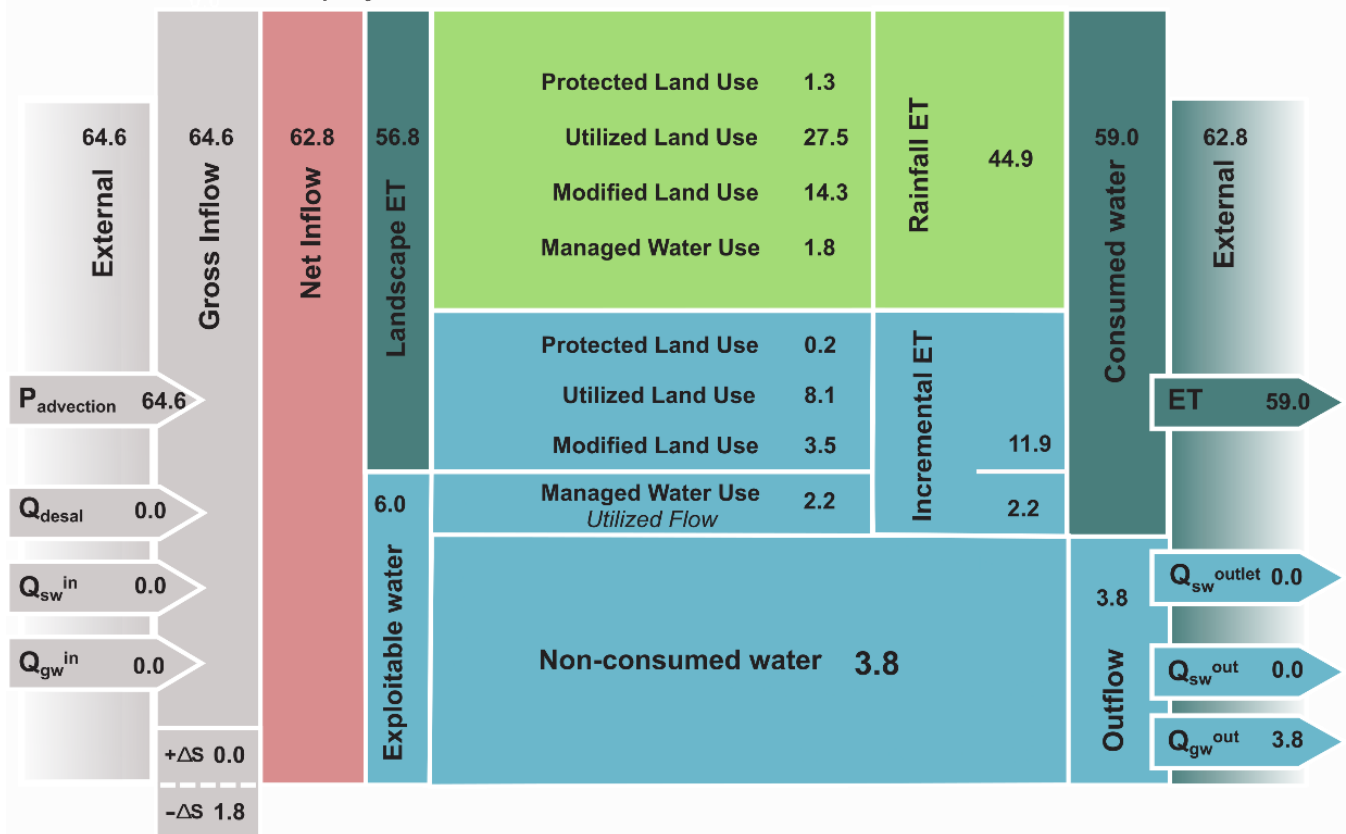


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2014

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

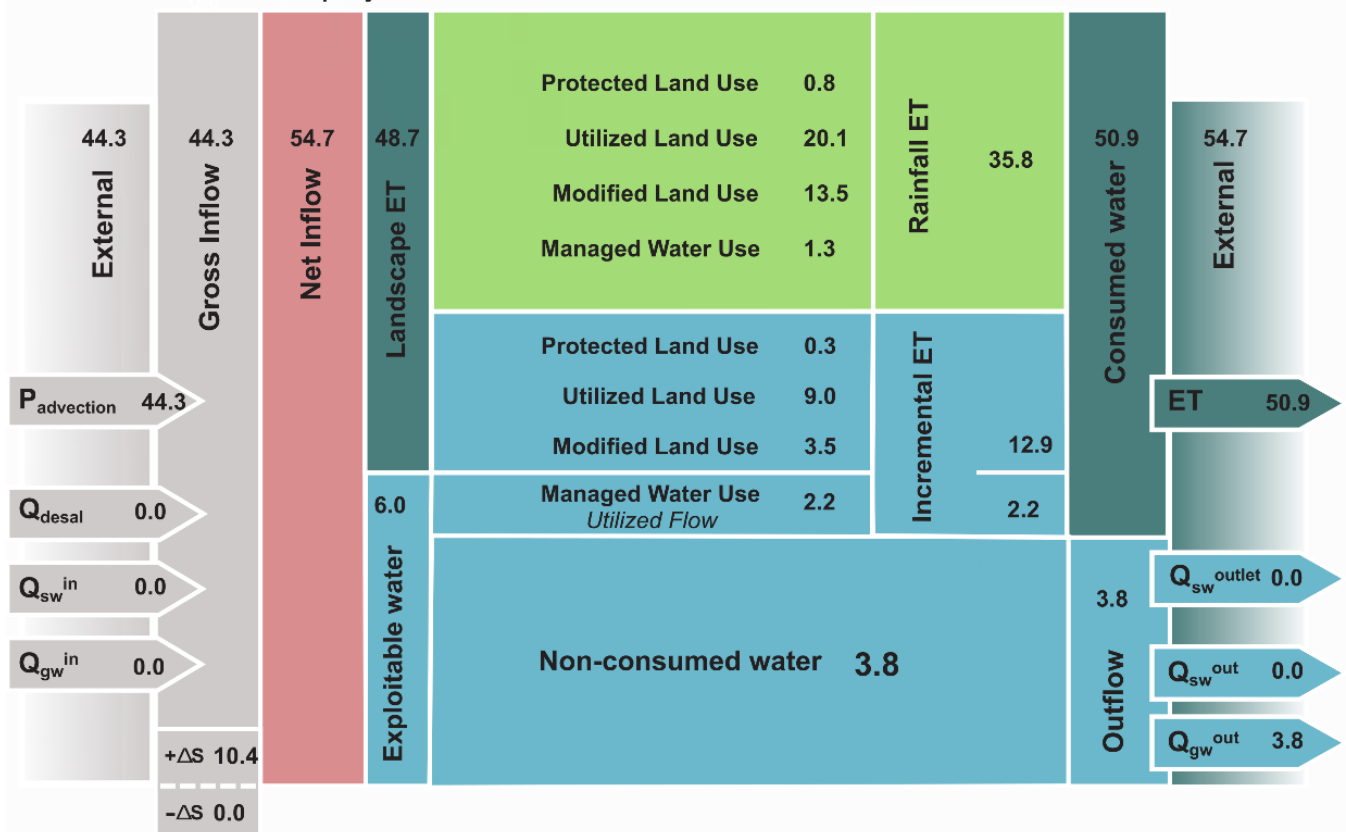


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2015

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

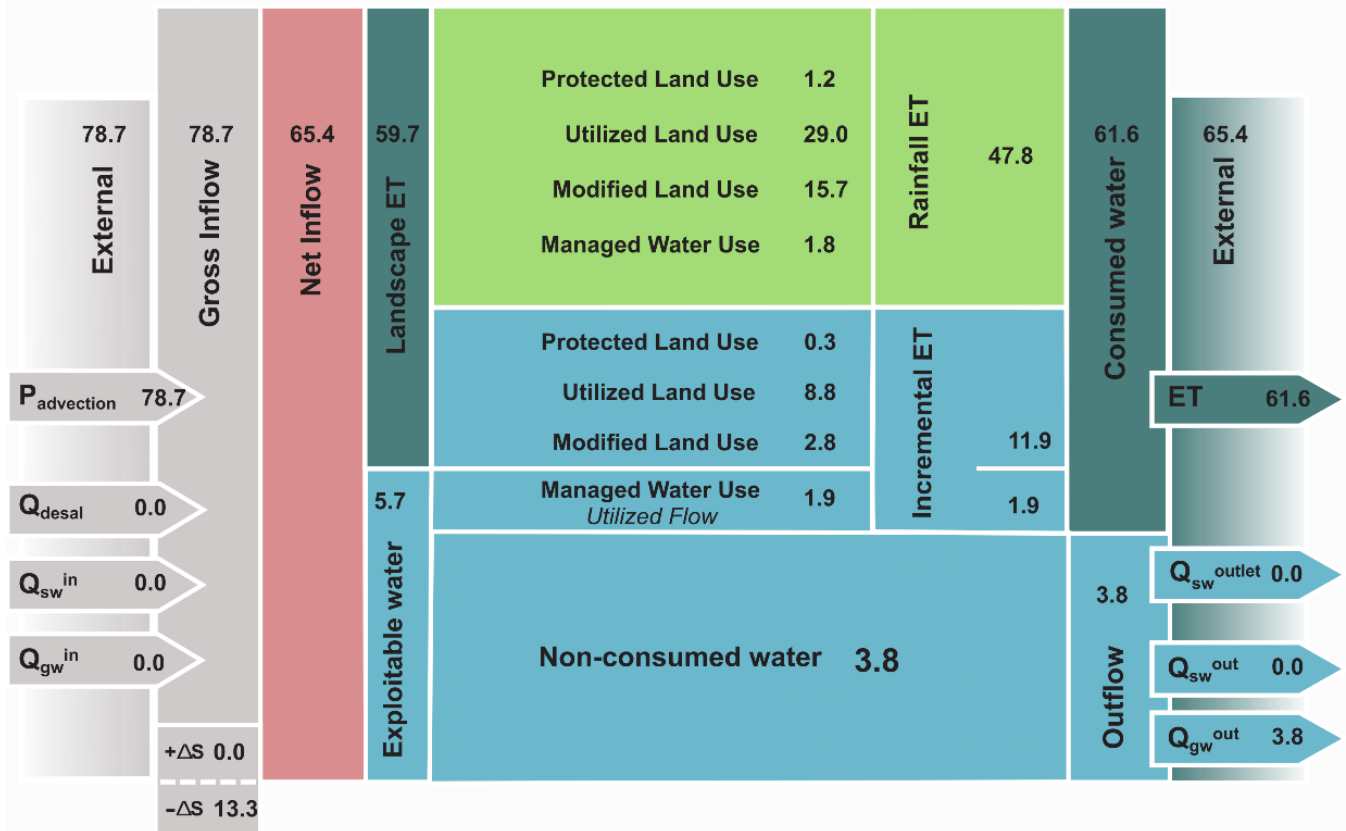


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2016

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year

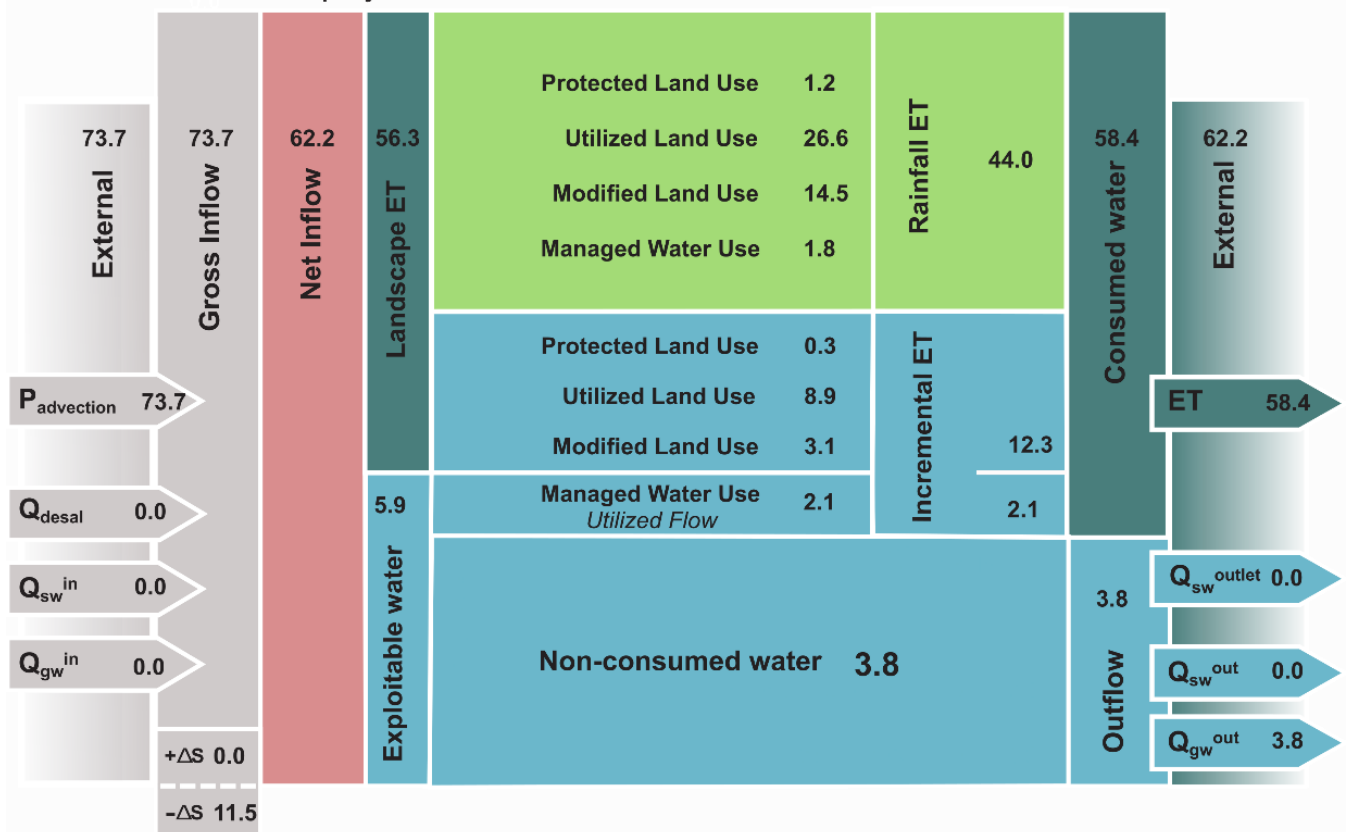


Sheet 1: Resource Base

Basin: Awash

Period: 2017

Unit: Cubic kilometers per year



Annex 7. WA+ Sheet1 Key indicators using change in storage from GRACE gravity measurements

Table 9. WA+ Sheet 1 key indicators of Awash River Basin from 2010 to 2018 based on water balance derived WaPOR dataset and from GRACE gravity measurements

	ET fraction	Stationarity index	Basin Closure	Available water	Managed water	Managed fraction
Year	(%)	(%)	(%)	(km ³ /year)	(km ³ /year)	(%)
2009	98.9	4.6	93.4	2.6	2.0	75.8
2010	79.0	7.3	95.4	19.1	1.8	9.5
2011	102.5	-3.3	93.8	0.7	2.3	316.7
2012	95.6	-1.3	93.9	4.9	2.1	43.6
2013	87.6	5.4	94.7	11.1	2.2	20.0
2014	91.3	5.1	94.1	7.8	2.2	27.8
2015	114.9	-10.3	91.4	-4.4	2.2	-50.8
2016	78.3		95.2	19.0	1.9	10.1
2017	79.2		94.8	17.4	2.1	12.1
2018	88.8		94.7	10.2	2.2	21.3
Numerical average	95.7	-0.2	93.8	6.0	2.1	63.2
Integrated average	92.0	-0.2	94.1	8.6	2.1	49.9

Water accounting in the Awash River Basin

This report provides the water accounting study for Awash River basin in Ethiopia carried out by IHE-Delft using the Water Productivity (WaPOR) data portal of the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).

The Awash River Basin is the most utilized river basin in Ethiopia hosting most of the industrial activities in the country, a number of small to large scale irrigation schemes and the main population centres of the country with more than 18.6 million people (2017 estimate). The basin faces high water stress during the peak of the irrigation season and frequent flooding in rainy seasons.

The Water Accounting Plus (WA+) system designed by IHE Delft with its partners FAO and IWMI has been applied to gain full insights into the state of the water resources in the basin for the period 2009 to 2018. The WA+ framework is a reporting mechanism for water flows, fluxes and stocks that are summarized by means of WA+ sheets. The role of land use and land cover on producing and consuming water is described explicitly.

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