

1 INTEGRATED GROUNDWATER RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN INDUS BASIN USING
2 SATELLITE GRAVIMETRY AND PHYSICAL MODELING TOOLS

3
4 Naveed Iqbal¹, Faisal Hossain² and Gulraiz Akhter¹

5 ¹Department of Earth Sciences, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad-Pakistan

6 ²Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Washington-USA
7

8
9
10
11
12 Corresponding Author:

13 Faisal Hossain

14 Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering

15 University of Washington

16
17 Tel: +92-300-4982668

18 Fax: +92-51-9101280, +92-51-9101278
19
20

21

Abstract

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

Reliable and frequent information on groundwater behavior and dynamics is very important for effective groundwater resource management at appropriate spatial scales. This information is rarely available in developing countries and thus poses a challenge for groundwater managers. The in-situ data and groundwater modeling tools are limited in their ability to cover large domains. Remote sensing technology can now be used to continuously collect information on hydrological cycle in a cost effective way. This study evaluates the effectiveness of remote sensing integrated physical modeling approach for groundwater management in Indus Basin. The Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment Satellite (GRACE) based gravity anomalies from 2003-2010 were processed to generate monthly groundwater storage changes using Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) hydrologic model. The groundwater storage is the key parameter of interest for groundwater resource management. The spatial and temporal patterns in groundwater storage (GWS) are useful for devising the appropriate groundwater management strategies. GRACE estimated GWS information with large scale coverage is valuable for basin scale monitoring and decision making. This frequently available information is found useful for the identification of groundwater recharge areas, groundwater storage depletion and pin pointing the areas where groundwater sustainability is at risk. The GWS anomalies were found to favorably agree with groundwater model simulations from Visual MODFLOW and in-situ data. Mostly, a moderate to severe GWS depletion is observed causing a vulnerable situation to the sustainability of this groundwater resource. For the sustainable groundwater management, the region needs to implement groundwater policies and adopt water conservation techniques.

45

Keywords: GRACE, Remote Sensing, Pakistan, Indus Basin, Groundwater Management

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The role of groundwater is very important to maintain the agricultural productivity and
49 economic development in a water scarce country like Pakistan. The irregular surface water
50 supply has encouraged farmers to exploit groundwater for irrigation (Alam et al, 2014). The
51 increasing demand for food and fiber has further aggravated the situation and farmers are
52 pumping extensive groundwater to meet the food security challenges. The agricultural sector
53 is the largest user of groundwater for agricultural production in Pakistan (Qureshi et al. 2008).
54 The overexploitation of groundwater has caused several groundwater management problems.
55 Water table depletion, increased salinity, groundwater quality deterioration and groundwater
56 mining are some of the challenges for the groundwater managers in Pakistan (Qureshi et al.
57 2010; Chandio et al. 1984; Khan et al. 2008; Saeed et al. 2005; Sufi et al. 1998).
58 Groundwater resource management has become more crucial due to climate change,
59 population growth and changing patterns of groundwater availability on spatial and temporal
60 scales (Elliott et al. 2013; Schewe et al. 2013). Groundwater regulation is an important
61 aspect of effective groundwater resource management.

62 Adequate and frequent information is required to formulate groundwater management
63 strategies and provide decision making for operational managers. The variations in
64 groundwater storage are caused by the imbalance between groundwater abstraction and
65 recharge. The assessment of groundwater abstraction and changes in recharge are the
66 major parameters for sustainable groundwater management (Cheema et al. 2014). The
67 groundwater resource management has become more critical in the absence of any
68 groundwater regulation policy in Punjab Province. Due to overexploitation, Pakistan is ranked
69 among the top four countries in the World where groundwater abstraction rate has reached
70 80 km³ per year from 1961 to 2010 (Wada et al. 2014). The availability of frequent
71 groundwater storage information is desired by operational managers for the implementation
72 of groundwater policies.

73 Availability of reliable and frequent data, application of suitable groundwater models
74 and the implementation of groundwater management strategies are equally important for
75 sustainable groundwater resource management. The data and models are interlinked with
76 each other. The models are used for the simplified understanding of complex groundwater
77 system dynamics and defining management strategies based on existing input information
78 on various parameters. The accuracy of models is very much dependent on the reliability of
79 input datasets. Thus, the effectiveness of groundwater models is hampered by unreliable and
80 insufficient data causing uncertainties in groundwater management strategies (Singh et al.
81 2014). The situation is more serious in developing countries due to an inadequate distributed
82 data measurement network, data paucity and accessibility issues (Moore et al. 2012;
83 Brunner et al. 2007).

84 In Pakistan, the in-situ measurements of water table changes are only limited to
85 seasonal scales (bi-annual) and are more likely to be influenced by local drivers of change.
86 The groundwater models have their own limitations of requiring extensive spatially distributed
87 input data (Wondzell et al. 2009). The geophysical data (i.e., resistivity surveys,
88 electromagnetic and physical well drilling) and isotopic methods are accurate but are very
89 costly, laborious and involve field surveys. Remote sensing has now emerged as a
90 progressive tool for spatial input data collection (Dar et al. 2010; Stisen et al. 2011) and
91 analysis of hydrological cycle. It is a cost effective and viable scientific tool that can reduce
92 the uncertainties linked with data collection (Sood et al. 2015). Although remote sensing
93 technology provides large scale spatial and temporal coverage, its accuracy can be limited
94 due to indirect measurement method. All these concerns have hampered effective
95 groundwater management by posing a big challenge for the groundwater managers. The
96 sustainability of groundwater is indirectly related to food security in agrarian countries like
97 Pakistan (Basharat et al. 2013). The piezometric water table monitoring is the most
98 commonly applied method for continuous analysis of groundwater behavior in the Indus

99 aquifer. Different groundwater models were also applied in Indus Basin to devise different
100 management options for the groundwater management. But, the groundwater managers are
101 always demanded for a very cost effective and continuous monitoring application.

102 The groundwater models provide a continuous and accurate prediction of
103 groundwater system dynamics but are more data intensive. Thus, remote Sensing can help
104 to bridge this data gap with improved water management by integrating with physical
105 modeling tools. The integration of remote sensing with traditional groundwater management
106 tools is potentially useful for the improvement of groundwater modeling (Brunner et al. 2007).
107 The remotely sensed frequently available spatial information on groundwater storage
108 variations is a direct measure of changes in groundwater dynamics referring to the variations
109 in abstraction and recharge. The integration of remote sensing derived groundwater storage
110 information with groundwater models is potentially useful for detailed and accurate prediction
111 of management strategies.

112 The satellite gravimetric observation from Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
113 (GRACE) has shown its potential to bridge data paucity (Rodell et al. 2009; Tiwari et al. 2009;
114 Famiglietti et al. 2011). The groundwater storage information can be inferred from GRACE
115 data. Since its launch in 2002, GRACE is continuously providing time varying gravity fields
116 which are linked with the changes in mass over earth surface (Rodell et al. 2004). GRACE
117 has shown its potential for the estimation of groundwater depletion rates over many basins
118 globally (Rodell et al. 2009; Tiwari et al. 2009; Famiglietti et al. 2011; Tiwari et al. 2009;
119 Strassberg et al. 2007; Strassberg et al. 2009; Feng et al. 2013; Scanlon et al. 2012). The
120 groundwater storage is a key parameter of interest for groundwater resource management
121 (Jin et al. 2013) and GRACE is found very skillful for the estimation of groundwater storage
122 changes (GWS) at monthly scales (Rodell et al. 2009; Famiglietti et al. 2011).

123 GRACE satellite provides monthly gravity anomalies at global scale. The large scale
124 coverage, high temporal frequency, water measurement capability of various hydrological

125 parameters and free data availability are the main characteristics of GRACE satellite. Due to
126 these features, GRACE has gained the interests of hydrologists. GRACE has been
127 extensively applied by the research community to improve the understanding of the
128 hydrological cycle by monitoring groundwater storage variations in many big basins (Wouters
129 et al. 2014) and better tuning of hydrological models globally (Lo et al. 2010; Werth et al.
130 2010). It has made possible for the hydrologist to estimate the terrestrial water storage
131 changes (TWS) at earth's surface from regional to global scales with high temporal
132 frequency (Wouters et al. 2014).

133 This study assesses the effectiveness of GRACE based application as a tool for
134 groundwater resource management in the Indus Basin. It demonstrates the use of GRACE in
135 groundwater management strategies for the sustainability of groundwater resources. The
136 study also evaluates the potential to use GRACE in groundwater resource management in
137 Indus basin by forecasting the groundwater storage changes up to 180 days. The study
138 examines the impact of satellite gravimetric groundwater storage (GWS) estimation and
139 monitoring methodology to enable decision making along with traditional modeling
140 approaches. This study is structured as follows. Section 2, describes the study region. The
141 detailed methodology is explained in section 3. Section 4, is focused on the derivation of
142 GRACE based groundwater storage (GWS) estimation. The discussion on results is
143 summarized in section 5. Section 6, is referred to the integration of gravimetry with traditional
144 physical modeling tools and in-situ measurements. Finally, section 7, summarizes the
145 general findings and future directions for further improvements in GRACE based integrated
146 groundwater resource management in the Indus Basin.

147

148 **2. Description of Study Area**

149 The study area consists of four riverine floodplains locally known as doabs spreading
150 over the fertile agricultural land of Punjab Province in Pakistan (Fig. 1). These four doabs

151 (Thal, Chaj, Rechna and Bari) are bounded by the Indus River and its four major tributaries
152 (Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi and Sutlej). The extensive irrigation network as a part of Indus Basin
153 Irrigation System (IBIS) has turned the doabs into a food basket of Pakistan which were once
154 under desert conditions (Alam et al. 2014). The major characteristics of four doabs are
155 summarized in Table 1. All four doabs are part of the unconfined Indus Basin aquifer with
156 unconsolidated sedimentation of Indus River and its tributaries (Alam et al. 2014). The
157 doabs are of alluvial deposits with lithological variations predominantly from fine to medium
158 sand with clay and silt unfolds (Alam et al. 2014). The climate of the area is generally semi-
159 humid to arid with significant seasonal variations in precipitation and temperature. The study
160 area is densely populated and under intensive irrigation for agricultural productivity.

161 The Indus aquifer is mainly recharged through precipitation, seepage from canals and
162 irrigation return flow (Asghar et al. 2002). Whereas, the areas along the rivers are dominantly
163 recharged by rivers. The groundwater quality varies spatially both laterally and vertically. A
164 layer of freshwater with varying thickness overlays saline water in doab areas. It is due to the
165 fact that the saline groundwater in the Indus Basin is of marine origin (Ashraf et al. 2012).
166 The excessive water from three western rivers (Indus, Jhelum and Chenab) is diverted to
167 Ravi and Sutlej through linked canals that maintain a regular surface water supply. The
168 excessive pumping, inadequate precipitation and little flows in two eastern rivers (Ravi and
169 Sutlej) regulated by India has caused water table depletion in Bari doab. Based on the
170 physiographic and lithological variations, each doab is a unique hydrological unit with
171 complex groundwater dynamics.

172 The various studies were conducted in the Indus Basin addressing the different water
173 resource management issues focusing on the conjunctive use of surface water and
174 groundwater (Kazmi et al. 2012), mitigating water logging and salinity (Qureshi et al. 2003;
175 Alam et al. 2014; Chandio et al. 2012; Basharat et al. 2013), groundwater resource
176 management using different models at individual doab level (Ashraf et al. 2008; Khan et al.

177 2008). Remote sensing and GIS techniques were also applied as input data sources for
178 precipitation, evapotranspiration, soil properties, topography and land use/land cover for
179 hydrological modeling in Indus Basin (Cheema et al. 2014; Ahmad et al. 2009; Ahmad et al.
180 2011).

181 About one third of the Thal doab is under Thal desert covered with sand dunes in the
182 upper part and is mainly dependent on rain-fed agriculture. Whereas, the middle and lower
183 parts are under major irrigated agriculture through conjunctive use of surface and
184 groundwater. In the lower part of Thal doab, the inter-flow from two rivers Indus and Chenab
185 is the major sources of groundwater recharge due to narrow distance. Chaj doab is the
186 smallest area in Upper Indus Plain bounded by the Jhelum and Chenab rivers. The
187 groundwater is mainly recharged through various hydraulic structures and extensive irrigation
188 networks along with precipitation in the Chaj doab. The Rechna Doab is the most populated
189 area with highest tube wells of about 0.33 million (Government of Punjab, 2012). The
190 lithological analysis show that the subsurface clay layers in Rechna doab causes hindrance
191 in groundwater recharge. The high vertical heterogeneity due to the alluvial nature of
192 deposition (Bennet et al. 1967) poses variations in the groundwater dynamics of each doab.

193

194 **3. Data and Methods**

195 The groundwater storage anomalies were inferred by subtracting soil moisture and
196 runoff information from GRACE terrestrial water storage. The monthly terrestrial water
197 storage (TWS) is the measure of changes in gravity field observed by GRACE satellite. Data
198 smoothing and decorrelation techniques were applied to process data product (RL05)
199 provided by Centre for Space Research (CSR) from 2003-2010. These techniques are
200 required to improve accuracy by removing noises (Shum et al. 2011; Kusche et al. 2007;
201 Duan et al. 2009). The TWS represents the variations in the hydrological cycle comprising
202 from snow to groundwater (Rodell et al. 2009). By considering major contribution of soil

203 moisture (SM), either field measurements or model generated SM data is required to extract
204 groundwater storage (GWS) information (Rodell et al. 2009). The Variable Infiltration
205 Capacity (VIC) hydrological model simulated soil moisture and surface runoff (SR) data is
206 used in this study. The globally accepted semi-distributed VIC model (Siddique-E-Akbor et al.
207 2014; Liang et al. 1994) was applied in study area at $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ grid scale from 2003-2010.
208 The model showed favorable agreement with annual observed reservoir inflows data at
209 various locations in the Indus Basin.

210 As the study area is extensively exploited for agricultural consumption, it is assumed
211 that variations in TWS are attributed to the major contribution from GWS, SM and SR. The
212 monthly GWS were inferred by subtracting VIC model generated soil moisture (SM) and
213 surface runoff (SR) from GRACE-TWS $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid scale from 2003-2010. In the context of
214 operational groundwater management, the GRACE-GWS anomalies were numerically
215 downscaled to the grid scale of $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ using VIC model. The GRACE based GWS were
216 compared with in-situ piezometric measurements recorded by Scarp Monitoring Organization
217 (SMO). The seasonal (Pre-Monsoon and Post-Monsoon) groundwater level changes were
218 converted in to groundwater storage anomalies by multiplying with specific yield (Strassberg
219 et al. 2007). The GWS anomalies were then calculated by subtracting the seasonal changes
220 from the long term average (2003-2010).

221 The groundwater managers and policy makers required intensive information on
222 groundwater system behavior and understanding of groundwater dynamics for effective
223 groundwater management. The numerical groundwater modeling is a scientific tool for
224 defining appropriate groundwater management strategies and play an important role in
225 groundwater development and management (Zhou Y. and Li W. 2011). MODFLOW is a
226 widely used finite difference numerical groundwater model providing a user friendly
227 simulation environment (Kashaigili et al. 2003). It is commonly used for the simulation of
228 groundwater flow and contaminant transport analysis. The conceptual model was

229 constructed for individual doabs at the cell size of $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$. For each doab, the rivers were
230 considered as horizontal hydraulic boundaries. After characterization of field conditions using
231 various inputs, the model was run for steady state simulation of hydraulic heads. The year
232 1984 was considered as steady state conditions, assuming no change in groundwater
233 storage in the absence of groundwater pumping as the major groundwater development
234 started after 1984. For transient conditions, the output was simulated for flow fluxes as 1991,
235 1996, 2004 and 2009. The model performed favorably well while comparison between
236 measure and simulated hydraulic heads. The simulation output of MODFLOW for the year
237 2004 and 2009 covering study period (2003 to 2010) is used for the validation of GRACE-
238 GWS results and understanding of groundwater system dynamics at individual doab scales.

239

240 **4. GRACE Groundwater Storage**

241 The comparison between numerically downscaled GRACE-GWS anomalies at $0.1^{\circ} \times$
242 0.1° (approx. 10×10 km) with actual GRACE-GWS ($1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$) is given in Table 2. The results of
243 correlation with in-situ data indicate that numerical downscaling of GRACE derived GWS is
244 more useful for operational groundwater management (Table 2). The yearly average
245 groundwater storage variations over four riverine flood plains (Bari, Rechna, Chaj and Thal
246 doabs) were mapped from 2003-2010 (Fig. 2, 3). The yearly variations in GWS are
247 representative of changes in groundwater abstraction and recharge impacted by
248 anthropogenic and climatic variations. A significant change in the groundwater storage is
249 observed in two Southern doabs (Bai and Rechna) from 2003 to 2009 (Fig. 4). The negative
250 groundwater storage anomalies are caused by the overexploitation of groundwater. The
251 spatial patterns of groundwater storage has indicated that the Bari doab is under severe
252 groundwater depletion. Whereas in Rechna doab, the groundwater depletion varies from
253 moderate to severe. The districts of Toba Tek Singh, Nankana Sahib and parts of Faisalabad,
254 Jhang and Sheikhpura are under severe groundwater depletion.

255 At the end of July, 2010, the heavy rainfall caused massive flash flooding in Pakistan
256 and many districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab and Sindh Provinces were extensively
257 flooded. The increasing trend in groundwater storage between July and August, 2010
258 represent the groundwater recharge through the flooding event (Fig. 5). This flooding
259 phenomenon impacted Chaj, Rechna and some parts of the Bari and Thal doabs by
260 replenishing the groundwater storage. Fig. 6, indicates the changes in groundwater storage
261 over the period 2003 to 2010. It is analyzed that most of the Rechna doab areas are under
262 moderate groundwater depletion except Toba Tek Singh and some parts of the Jhang
263 districts. A significant decreasing trend in groundwater depletion is observed in Lahore and
264 some parts of Kasur districts whereas the Bari doab is undergoing severe groundwater
265 depletion. The Chaj doab is found comparatively safe except in the Sargodha and parts of
266 the Jhang district. The lower areas (Bhakkar, Layyah, and Muzaffargarh districts) of the Thal
267 doab are also undergoing moderate to severe groundwater depletion. The spatial variations
268 in changes of groundwater storage are used to identify the areas with excessive groundwater
269 depletion for devising the groundwater management strategies.

270

271 **5. Results and Discussion**

272 It is estimated from GRACE that groundwater storage is depleted at an average rate
273 of about $0.38 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ in Bari and about $0.21 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ in Rechna doabs from 2003-2010.
274 Whereas, an average GWS depletion is calculated about $0.54 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ in Bari and 0.16
275 km^3/year in Rechna doabs based on piezometric data. The satellite estimated groundwater
276 storage anomalies are found to favorably agree with VMOD and in-situ data of 31
277 piezometers in Bari and 56 in Rechna doabs. The statistical analysis shows that GRACE has
278 skillfully captured both magnitude and phase in Bari (correlation= 0.93, RMSE=24.76 mm)
279 and Rechna doabs (correlation= 0.65, RMSE=25.43 mm). In the Chaj and Thal doabs, the

280 average depletion rates are found about $0.06 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ and $0.25 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ respectively. The
281 GRACE groundwater storage estimation results are validated by VMOD output showing an
282 overall decreasing trend in Chaj and Thal doabs. In comparison with in-situ data of 35 (Chaj)
283 and 45 (Thal) piezometric data, a disagreement is observed showing an intermixed
284 increasing and decreasing trend. The one important factor of this disagreement is the
285 limitation of in-sufficient in-situ data. The piezometric records of the upper Chaj doab area
286 (Gujrat and Mandi Bahauddin districts) were sporadic with low frequency during the study
287 period from 2003-2010. The major disagreement in trends is observed from June 2007 to
288 June 2009 where point data has shown a considerable increase in groundwater storage in
289 contrast with GRACE-GWS.

290 The low tube wells density (Table 1) and high groundwater storage depletion rate
291 (Fig. 4) indicates less recharge than pumping in Bari and Thal doabs as compared to Chaj
292 and Rechna doabs. The variability in climatic conditions is another influential factor for
293 decreasing trends in groundwater storage variations (Table 1). Based on the lithologic
294 changes and surface water-groundwater interactions, the sub-doab scale variations in GWS
295 over the Chaj and Thal doabs are more frequent as compared to Rechna and Bari doabs. A
296 persistent depletion trend is observed in Bari (Fig. 7) and Rechna (Fig. 8) doabs whereas,
297 the intermixed recharging and depletion trends are found prominent in Chaj (Fig. 9) and Thal
298 (Fig. 10) doabs. The imbalance between recharge and groundwater abstraction has resulted
299 in a mining situation in the lower parts of Rechna doab (Khan et al, 2008). The high water
300 table depletion is projected from 2002-2025 ranging from 10-20 m in lower parts of Rechna
301 doab (Khan et al. 2008) has caused a serious concern for the sustainability of groundwater.
302 The situation is even worse in the Bari and Thal doabs where groundwater storage is
303 depleted at a much higher rate of about $0.38 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ and $0.25 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ from 2003-2010,
304 respectively. On the other hand, most of the areas in the Chaj doab are under normal
305 groundwater storage depletion due to excessive recharge from irrigation networks, nearby

306 rivers and its small area (Fig. 5). Fig. 6, shows a significant groundwater storage depletion
307 reported by GRACE in the lower part of the Thal doab (Muzaffargarh district) over the period
308 2003 to 2010.

309 In the perspective of operational management, the GRACE groundwater storage
310 estimation were divided into two phases. Considering the period 2003-2007 as calibration
311 with piezometric point data, the regression approach is applied to validate the GWS changes
312 from 2008-2010 (Fig. 7, 8). The average standard errors (SE) are found favorable for
313 seasonal future predictions in the Bari (SE = 9 mm) and Rechna doabs (SE = 7 mm) with a
314 correlation of 0.70 and 0.48 for validation periods, respectively. The predicted scenarios for 6
315 months ahead (180 days) has indicated a decreasing trend in groundwater storage which is
316 useful information for groundwater managers in the perspective of groundwater regulation.

317

318 **6. Integrated Groundwater Management**

319 The monthly to annual scale changes in spatial patterns of groundwater storage are
320 useful indicators for defining appropriate groundwater management strategies. The
321 continuous information on groundwater storage depletion in combination with groundwater
322 abstraction data is a viable approach for groundwater regulation and policy
323 recommendations. It is learned from the spatial and temporal analysis of groundwater
324 storage dynamics that different management strategies are required at individual doabs.

325 Due to persistent high depletion rates and low recharge, the sustainability of the
326 groundwater reserve is at risk in the Bari doab and needs immediate attention. As a first
327 measure, it is required to control the groundwater abstraction and start continuous monthly
328 scale monitoring in Bari doab. The GRACE based monthly monitoring of groundwater
329 storage changes is useful for this purpose. The detailed groundwater modeling using VMOD
330 is also required to be applied annually for the identification of flow patterns and
331 understanding of interaction between surface water and groundwater. Alternatively, water

332 conservation techniques and rainwater harvesting should be required instead of flood
333 irrigation for sustainable groundwater management.

334 The situation of groundwater storage depletion in Rechna is analyzed to be
335 comparably better than Bari doab due to significant recharge from the irrigation system as
336 well as rainfall. The flooding event has also contributed to recharge groundwater system in
337 the upper Rechna doab. The lower Rechna doab needs more consideration as compared to
338 the upper parts. It is required to control abstraction and protect the groundwater recharge
339 areas fur further urbanization. The situation necessitates the continuous monitoring at
340 monthly scale and a more comprehensive understanding of groundwater system behavior
341 using GRACE in combination with VMOD.

342 Due to the small area and considerable recharge from irrigation and rivers during
343 floods, the upper Chaj doab area is comparatively less at risk from groundwater depletion
344 than the lower Chaj doab. However, careful monitoring is required for the sustainability of
345 groundwater reserve through continuous monitoring using GRACE and VMOD. It is also
346 important to protect the recharge areas from further expansion of urbanization.

347 The central part of the Thal doab is under Thal desert and the major groundwater
348 development is in lower areas. It is envisaged that groundwater conservation strategies are
349 required to be adopted along with groundwater regulation for the effective groundwater
350 management in Thal doab.

351

352 **7. Conclusions and Recommendations**

353 This study highlighted the effectiveness of GRACE to derive groundwater storage for
354 the operational groundwater management in the Indus Basin. GRACE estimated spatial and
355 temporal changes in groundwater storage are found useful for defining the groundwater
356 management strategies. The GRACE-GWS anomalies are found more sensitive to significant
357 changes in groundwater storage either caused by recharge or abstraction. The accuracy of

358 GRACE decreases with increasing complexity representing intermixed phenomenon
359 (recharge and depletion) over small scales. GRACE is found skillful for the estimation of
360 groundwater storage variations in Bari and Rechna doabs showing significant depletion
361 trends. A favorable agreement is observed between GRACE and in-situ measurements.

362 It is estimated that groundwater storage has depleted at an average rate of about
363 $0.38 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ in Bari and about $0.21 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$ in Rechna doabs from 2003-2010. The results
364 reveal that the flood event has contributed significantly in Chaj and Rechna doabs for the
365 replenishment of groundwater system. The recharge areas needs to be protected from the
366 further expansion of the urbanization. It is envisaged that the Bari, lower Thal and Rechna
367 doab areas may be under severe risk to their sustainable groundwater resources. This
368 situation demands controlled abstraction rates through groundwater regulation policies and
369 exploitation of alternate groundwater conservation techniques. The Chaj doab is
370 comparatively less at risk with an average depletion rate of about $0.06 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$. In Thal
371 doab, an overall depletion in groundwater storage is estimated as an average rate of about
372 $0.25 \text{ km}^3/\text{year}$. A careful management and monitoring of groundwater abstraction is required
373 in the lower parts of Chaj and Thal doabs. Due to the flood irrigation method, the
374 groundwater exploitation is increasing day by day against the constantly growing needs of
375 food and fiber.

376 This study establishes that GRACE is a cost effective skillful groundwater
377 management tool to monitor the monthly groundwater storage changes at the appropriate
378 scale. The monthly groundwater storage changes are effective for frequent monitoring and
379 decision making for operational managers. This information is also useful for groundwater
380 modeling to bridge data gaps by minimizing the in-situ data requirements where the
381 measuring network is either weak or not available. An integrated approach consisting of
382 GRACE, physical modeling and in-situ piezometric data can be more effective for operational
383 groundwater management.

384 The sub-doab level study of groundwater recharge and depletion is very critical from
385 the perspective of sustainable groundwater management at such effective scales. Therefore,
386 the authors suggest the need for the further use of spatial downscaling of GRACE signal with
387 Synthetic Aperture Radar data. Future studies should evaluate the potential of satellite soil
388 moisture data for the extraction of groundwater storage anomalies from GRACE-TWS signal.
389 The GRACE derived groundwater storage information may also be of interest to groundwater
390 policy makers to see the holistic picture of basin scale hydrology for groundwater regulation
391 and policy recommendations at national level.

392

393 **Acknowledgements**

394 The authors acknowledge the NASA SERVIR program (NNX12AM85AG) and NASA WATER
395 (NNX15AC63G) for supporting this work. Authors also express gratitude to Dr. C K Shum of
396 Ohio State University for providing the GRACE data processing program. Pakistan Council of
397 Research in Water Resources (PCRWR), which is the home of first author, and Quaid-i-
398 Azam University are gratefully acknowledged. This study was made possible because of
399 generous support provided by the Ivanhoe Foundation (to first author), University of
400 Washington Global Affairs and VISIT program that provided the training to first author on
401 GRACE data.

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410 8. References

- 411 Alam N, Olsthoorn Theo N (2014) Punjab scavenger wells for sustainable additional
412 groundwater irrigation. *Agricultural Water Management* 138:55-67
- 413 Ahmad MD, Turrall H, Nazeer A (2009) Diagnosing irrigation performance and water
414 productivity through satellite remote sensing and secondary data in a large irrigation
415 system of Pakistan. *Agricultural Water Management* 96(4):551-564
- 416 Ahmad Z, Ashraf A, Fryar A, Akhter G (2011) Composite use of numerical groundwater flow
417 modeling and geoinformatics techniques for monitoring Indus Basin aquifer, Pakistan.
418 *Environmental Monitoring And Assessment* 173(1-4):447-457
- 419 Ashraf M, Bhatti ZA, Zaka-Ullah (2011) Diagnostic analysis and fine tuning of skimming well
420 design and operational strategies for sustain-able groundwater management-Indus
421 basin of Pakistan. *Irrig Drain* <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ird.636>
- 422 Asghar MN, Prathapar SA, Shafique MS (2002) Extracting relatively-fresh groundwater from
423 aquifers underlain by salty groundwater. *Agric Water Man-age* 52: 119-137
- 424 Bennett GD, Rehman A, Sheikh IA, Ali S (1967) Analysis of aquifer tests in the Punjab region
425 of West Pakistan. *USGS Water Supply Paper* 1608-G, Washington, DC.
- 426 Brunner P, Hendricks Franssen H-J, Kgotlhang L, Bauer-Gottwein P, Kinzelbach W (2007)
427 How can remote sensing contribute in groundwater modeling? *Hydrogeology Journal*
428 15(1):5-18
- 429 Cheema MJM, Immerzeel WW, Bastiaanssen WGM (2014) Spatial quantification of
430 groundwater abstraction in the irrigated Indus Basin. *Ground Water* 52(1):25–36
- 431 Dar IA, Sankar K, Dar MA (2010) Remote sensing technology and geographic information
432 system modeling: an integrated approach towards the mapping of groundwater
433 potential zones in Hardrock terrain, Mamundiya basin. *J Hydrol* 394:285–95

- 434 Duan XJ, Guo JY, Shum CK, Wal W (2009) On the postprocessing removal of correlated
435 errors in GRACE temporal gravity field solutions. *J Geodesy* 83(11):1095-1106. doi:
436 10.1007/s00190-009-0327-0
- 437 Elliott J, Deryng D, Müller C, Frieler K, Konzmann M, Gerten D et al (2014) Constraints and
438 potentials of future irrigation water availability on agricultural production under climate
439 change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*
440 *America* 111(9):3239-3244
- 441 Famiglietti JS, Lo M, Ho SL, Bethune J, Anderson KJ, Syed TH, Swenson SC, De Linage CR,
442 Rodell M (2011) Satellites measure recent rates of groundwater depletion in
443 California's central valley. *Geophys Res Lett* 38. doi: 10.1029/2010GL046442
- 444 Feng W, Zhong M, Lemoine JM, Biancale R, Hsu HT, Xia J (2013) Evaluation of groundwater
445 depletion in North China using the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
446 (GRACE) data and ground-based measurements. *Water Resour Res* 49(4):2110–
447 2118. doi: 10.1002/wrcr.20192
- 448 Government of Punjab (2012) *Pakistan Development Statistics*, Lahore. Bureau of Statistics
449 48
- 450 Kusche J (2007) Approximate decorrelation and non-isotropic smoothing of time variable
451 GRACE-type gravity field models. *J Geodesy* 81(11):733–749. doi:
452 org/10.1007/s00190-007-01
- 453 Kashaigili JJ, Mashauri DA, Abdo G (2003) Groundwater management by using
454 mathematical modeling: case of the Makutupora groundwater basin in dodoma
455 Tanzania. *Botsw J Technol* 12(1):19–24
- 456 Kummerow C, William B, Toshiaki K, James S, Simpson J (1998) The tropical rainfall
457 measuring mission (TRMM) sensor package. *J Atmos Oceanic Tech* 15(3):809–8017.
458 [http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/1520-0426\(1998\)015<0809:TTRMMT>2.0.CO;2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/1520-0426(1998)015<0809:TTRMMT>2.0.CO;2)

- 459 Liang X, Lettenmaier DP, Wood EF, Burges SJ (1994) A simple hydrologically based model
460 of land surface water and energy fluxes for GSMs. *J Geophys Res* 99:14415-14428.
461 doi: 10.1029/94JD00483
- 462 Lo M-H, Famiglietti JS, Yeh P J-F, Syed TH (2010) Improving parameter estimation and
463 water table depth simulation in a land surface model using GRACE water storage and
464 estimated base flow data. *Water Resources Res* 46:5517
- 465 Rodell M, Velicogna I, and Famiglietti JS (2009) Satellite-based estimate of groundwater
466 depletion in India. *Nature* 460. doi: 10.1038/nature08238
- 467 Rodell M, Chen J, Kato H, Famiglietti JS, Nigro J, Wilson CR, (2007) Estimating groundwater
468 storage changes in the Mississippi River Basin (USA) using GRACE. *Hydrogeol J*
469 15(1):159-166
- 470 Schewe J, et al (2013) Multimodel assessment of water scarcity under climate change. *Proc*
471 *Natl Acad Sci USA*. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1222460110
- 472 Scanlon BR, Longuevergne L, Long D (2012) Ground referencing GRACE satellite estimates
473 of groundwater storage changes in the California Central Valley, USA. *Water Resour*
474 *Res.* 48. doi: 10.1029/2011WR011312
- 475 Shum CK, Guo JY, Hossain F, Duan J, Alsdorf DE, Duan X-J, Kuo C-Y, Lee H, Schmidt M,
476 Wang L (2011) Inter-annual Water Storage Changes in Asia from GRACE Data. In:
477 Lal R et al (ed) *Climate Change and Food Security in South Asia*, Springer. doi:
478 10.1007/978-90-481-9516-9_6
- 479 Singh A (2014) Groundwater resources management through the applications of simulation
480 modeling: A review. *Science of the Total Environment* 499:414-423
- 481 Siddique-E-Akbor AHM, Hossain F, Sikder S, Shum CK, Tseng S, Yi Y, Turk FJ, Limaye A
482 (2014) Satellite Precipitation Data Driven Hydrologic Modeling For Water Resources
483 Management, In the Ganges, Brahmaputra And Meghna Basins. *Earth Interactions*
484 18(17) doi: 10.1175/EI-D-14-0017.1

- 485 Stisen S, McCabe MF, Refsgaard JC, Lerer S, Butts MB (2011) Model parameter analysis
486 using remotely sensed pattern information in a multi-constraint framework. *J Hydrol*
487 409:337-49
- 488 Strassberg G, Scanlon BR, Rodell M (2007) Comparison of seasonal terrestrial water
489 storage variations from GRACE with groundwater-level measurements from the High
490 Plains Aquifer (USA). *Geophys Res Lett* 34(14). doi: 10.1029/2007GL030139
- 491 Strassberg G, Scanlon BR, Chambers D, (2009) Evaluation of groundwater storage
492 monitoring with the GRACE satellite: Case study of the High Plains aquifer, central
493 United States. *Water Resour Res* 45. doi: 10.1029/2008WR006892
- 494 Tiwari VM Wahr J, Swenson S (2009) Dwindling groundwater resources in northern India,
495 from satellite gravity observations. *Geophys Res Lett* 36. doi:
496 10.1029/2009GL039401
- 497 Wondzell SM, La Nier J, Haggerty R (2009) Evaluation of alternative groundwater flow
498 models for simulating hyporheic exchange in a small mountain stream. *J Hydrol*
499 364(1):142–151
- 500 Wada Y, Beek LPH, Bierkens Marc FP (2012) Non sustainable groundwater sustaining
501 irrigation: A global assessment. *Water Resour Res* 48. doi: 10.1029/2011WR010562
- 502 Werth S, Guntner A (2010) Calibration analysis for water storage variability of the global
503 hydrological model WGHM. *Hydrol Earth Syst Sci* 14:59–78
- 504 Wouters B, Bonin JA, Chambers DP, Riva REM, Sasgen I, Wahr J (2014) GRACE, time-
505 varying gravity, Earth system dynamics and climate change. *Rep Prog Phys* 77(11).
506 doi: 10.1088/0034-4885/77/11/116801
- 507 Wu J, Hu BX, Zhang D, Shirley C (2003) A three-dimensional numerical method of moments
508 for groundwater flow and solute transport in a nonstationary conductivity field. *Adv*
509 *Water Resour* 26(11):1149–69

510 Zhou Y, Li W (2011) A review of regional groundwater flow modeling. Geoscience
511 Frontiers 2(2):205-214

512 **List of Figures**

513 Fig. 1. Location map of study area.

514 Fig. 2. Yearly average groundwater storage variations over four riverine flood plains from
515 2003 to 2006.

516 Fig. 3. Yearly average groundwater storage variations over four riverine flood plains from
517 2007 to 2010.

518 Fig. 4. Overall changes in groundwater storage over four riverine flood plains from 2003 to
519 2009.

520 Fig. 5. Overall changes in groundwater storage over four riverine flood plains from 2003 to
521 2010.

522 Fig. 6. Changes in groundwater storage due to 2010 flooding event over four riverine flood
523 plains.

524 Fig. 7. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage
525 anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Bari doab area. The
526 green line represents the regression based GWS variations for validation period
527 (2008-2010) along with 180 days future predictions. Lower-Panel: Simulation results
528 of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from
529 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head
530 (m).

531 Fig. 8. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage
532 anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Rechna doab area. The
533 green line represents the regression based GWS variations for validation period
534 (2008-2010) along with 180 days future predictions. Lower-Panel: Simulation results
535 of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from
536 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head
537 (m).

538 Fig. 9. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage
539 anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Chaj doab area. Lower-
540 Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for
541 comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are
542 represented in hydraulic head (m).

543 Fig. 10. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage
544 anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Thal doab area. Lower-
545 Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for
546 comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are
547 represented in hydraulic head (m).

548

549

List of Tables

550 Table 1. Summary of the main characteristics of four doabs

551 Table 2. Comparison of GRACE numerical downscaling results

552

553

554

555

556

557

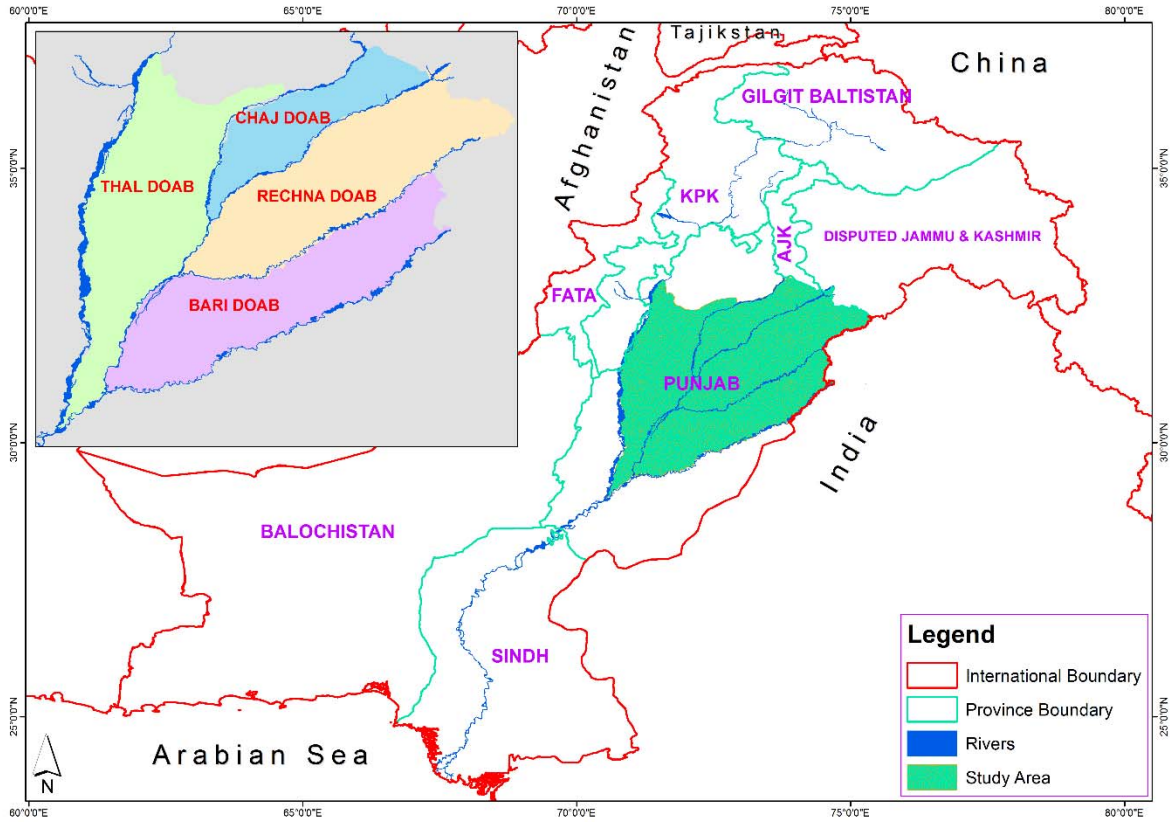
558

559

560

561

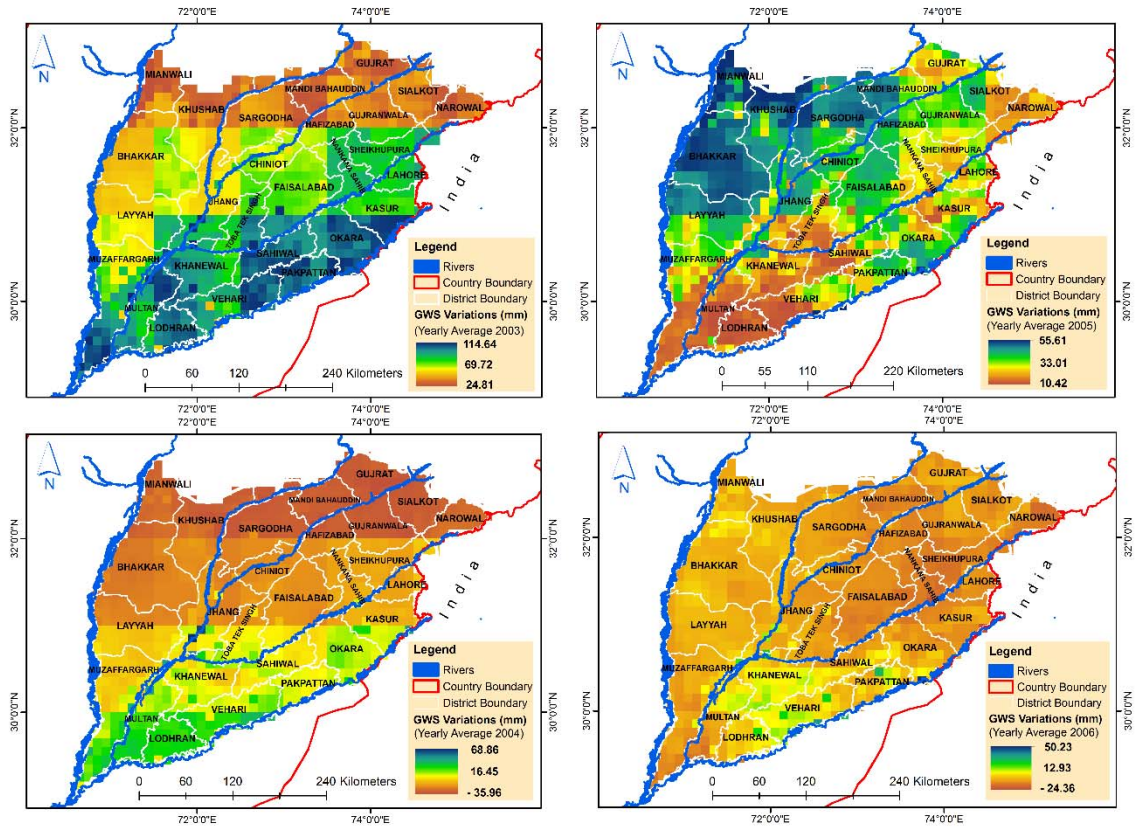
562



563

564

Fig. 1. Location map of study area

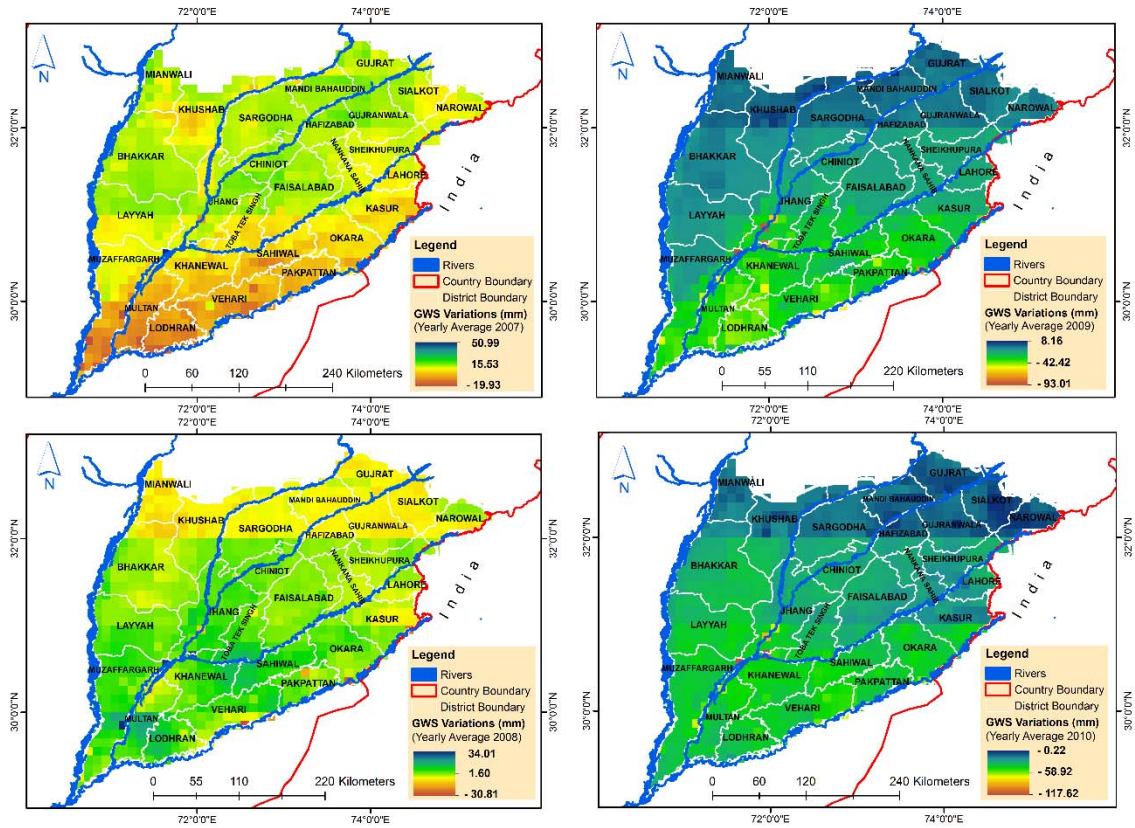


565

566 Fig. 2. Yearly average groundwater storage variations over four riverine flood plains from

567

2003 to 2006



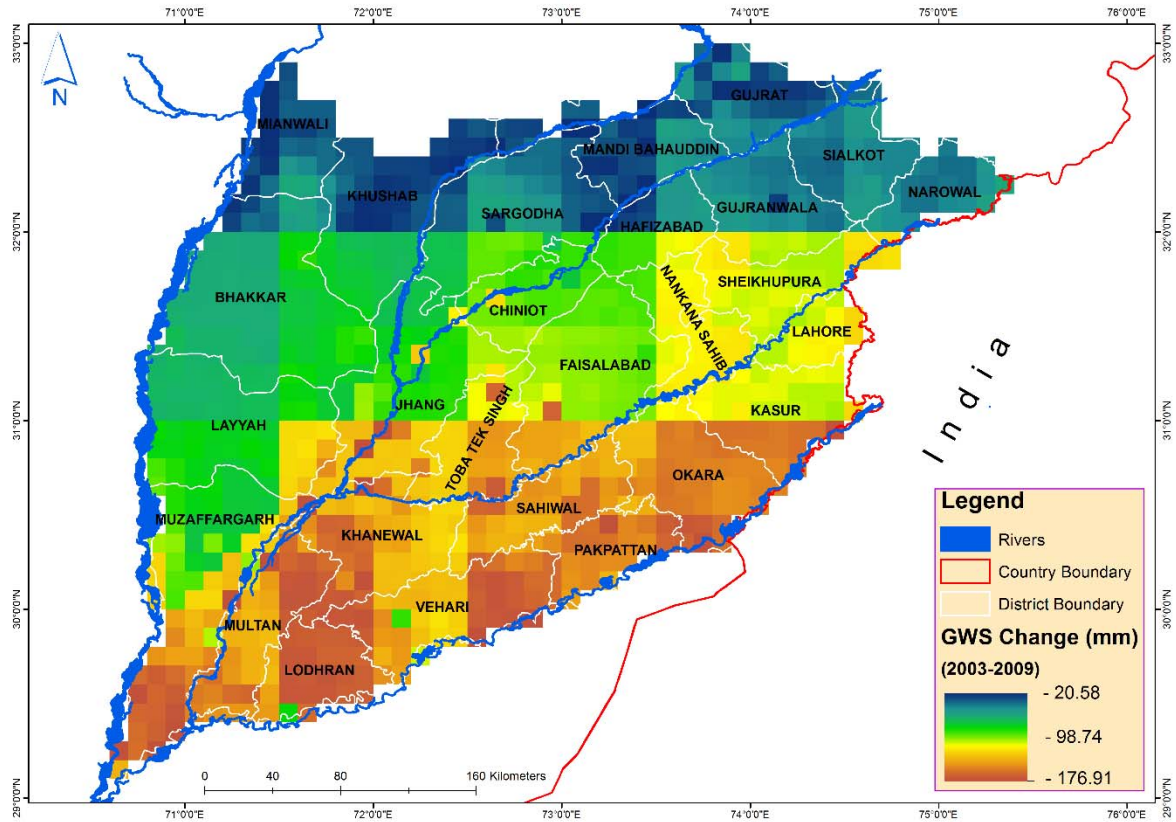
568

569 Fig. 3. Yearly average groundwater storage variations over four riverine flood plains from

570

2007 to 2010

571

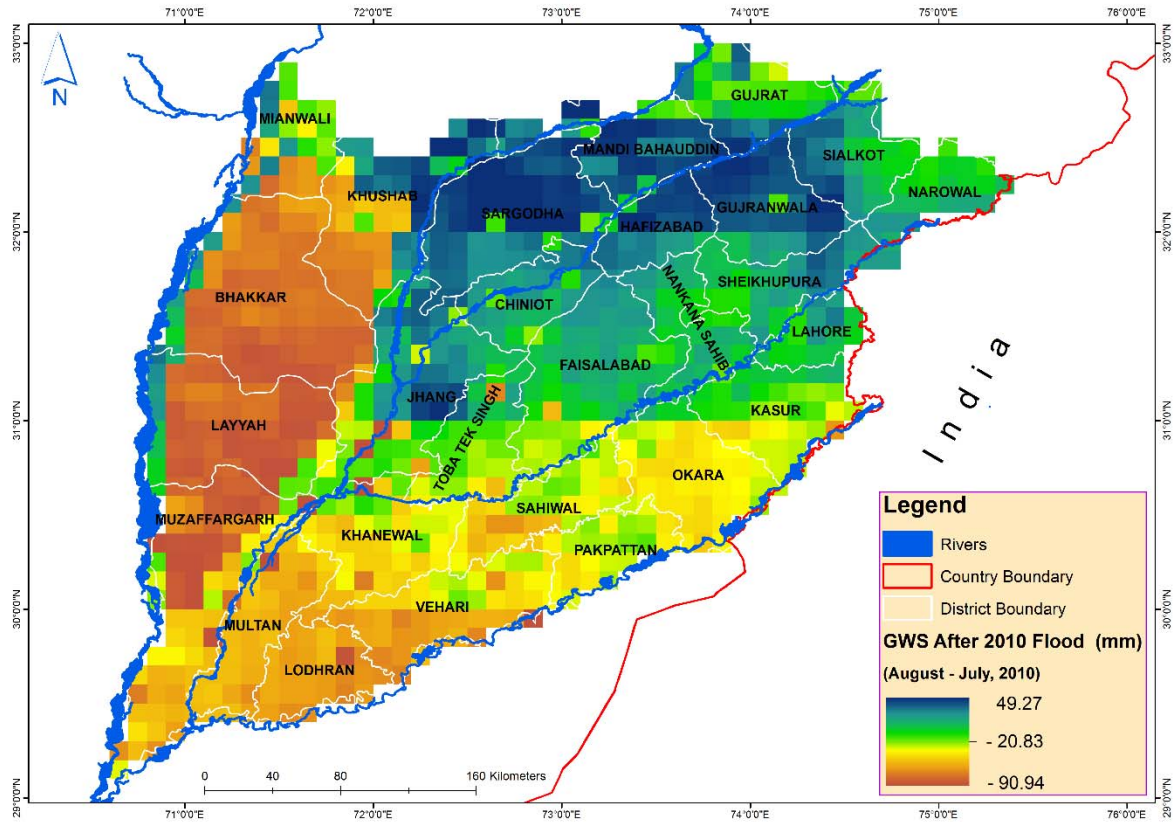


572

573 Fig. 4. Overall changes in groundwater storage over four riverine flood plains from 2003 to

574

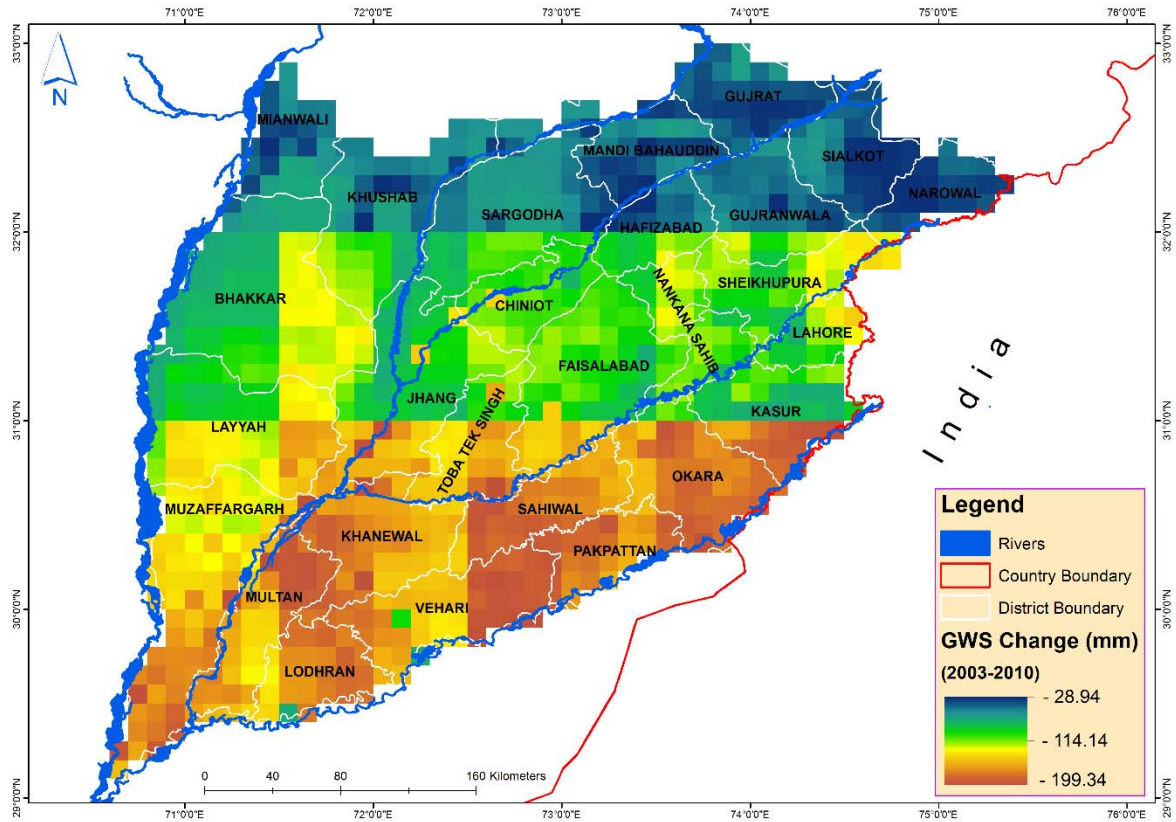
2009



575

576 Fig. 5. Changes in groundwater storage due to 2010 flooding event over four riverine flood
577 plains

578

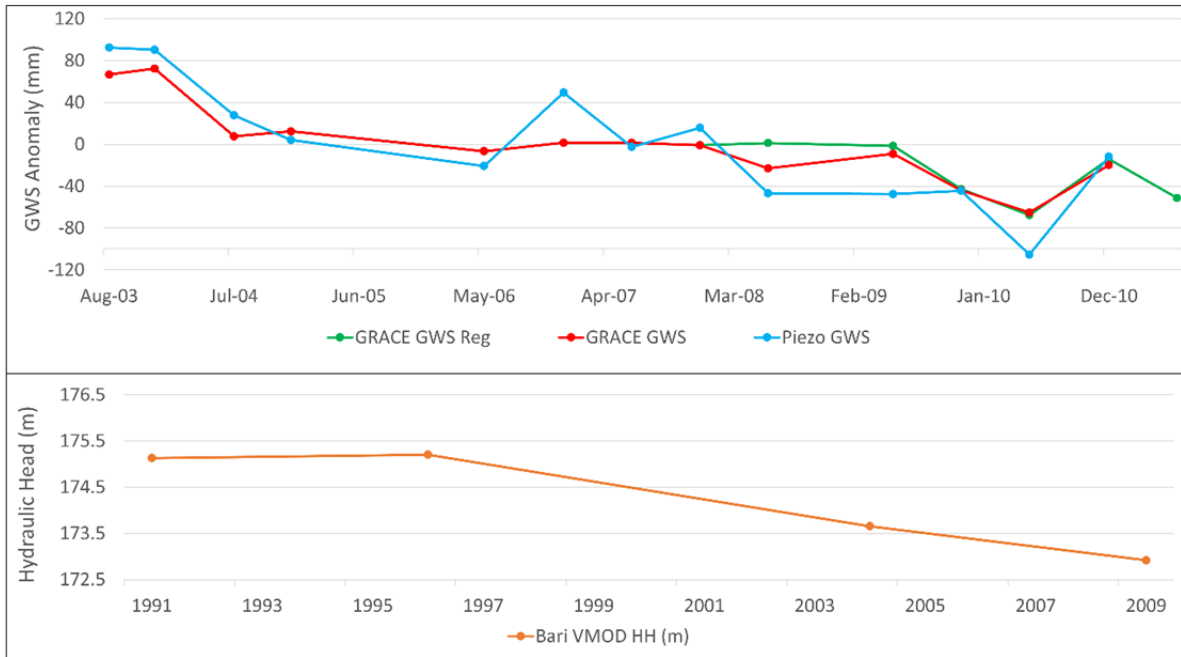


579

580 Fig. 6. Overall changes in groundwater storage over four riverine flood plains from 2003 to
581 2010

582

583



584

585

Fig. 7. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Bari doab area. The green line represents the regression based GWS variations for validation period (2008-2010) along with 180 days future predictions. Lower-Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head (m)

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

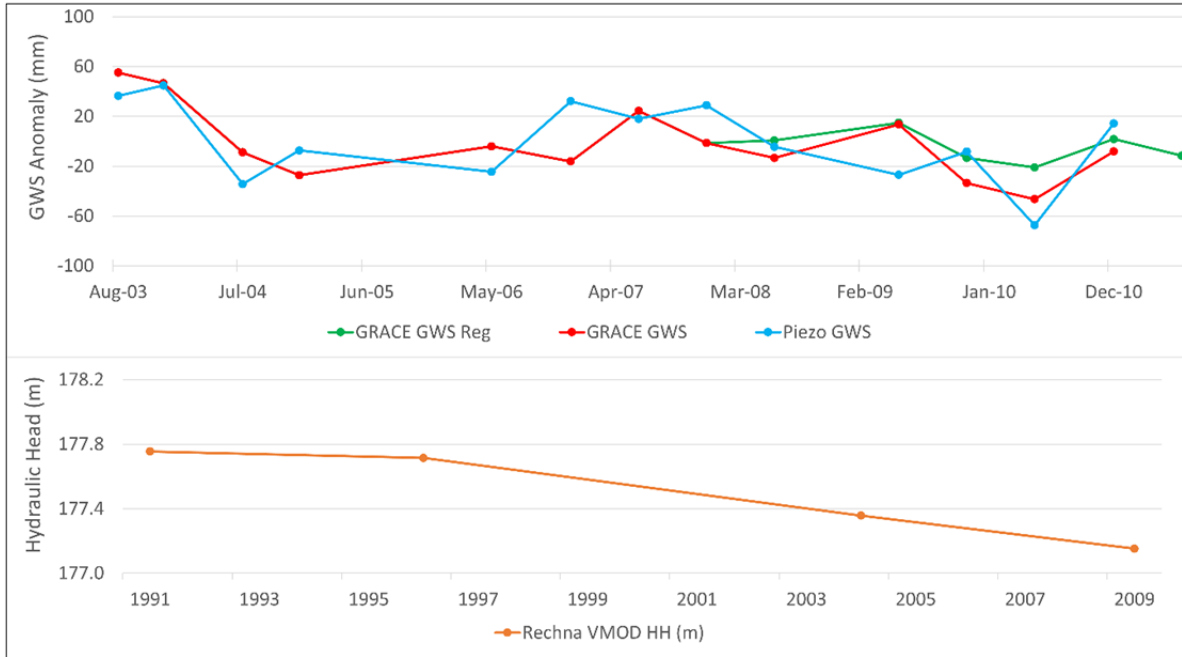
594

595

596

597

598



599

600

Fig. 8. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Rechna doab area. The green line represents the regression based GWS variations for validation period (2008-2010) along with 180 days future predictions. Lower-Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head (m)

606

607

608

609

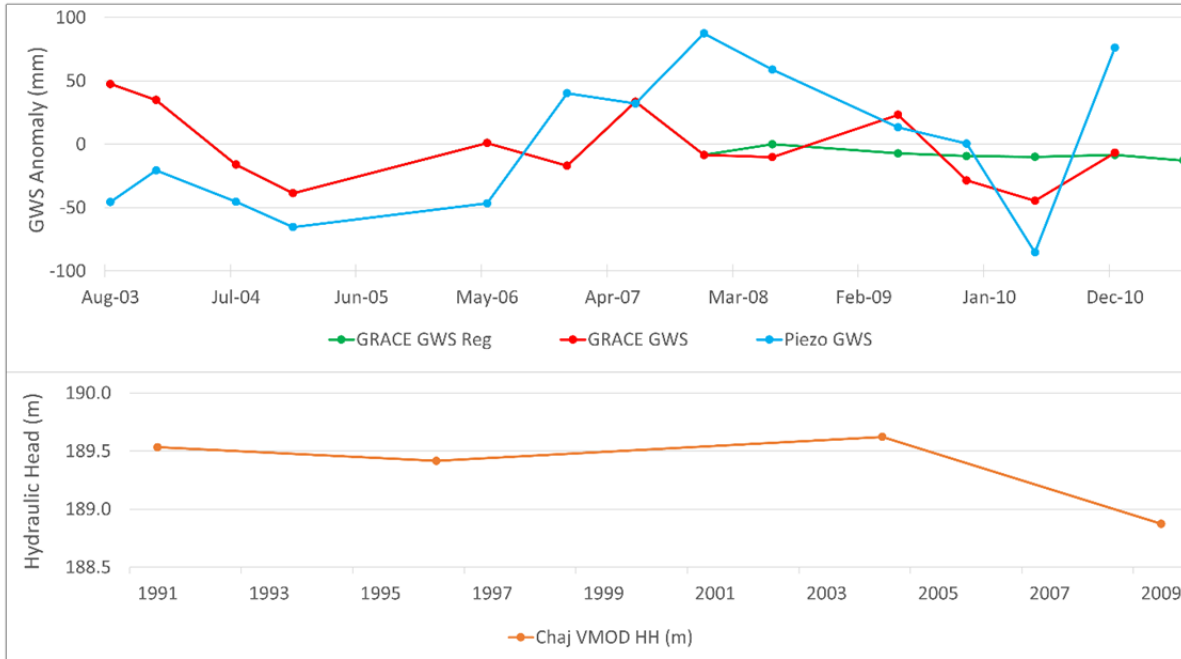
610

611

612

613

614



615

616

Fig. 9. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Chaj doab area. Lower- Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head (m)

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

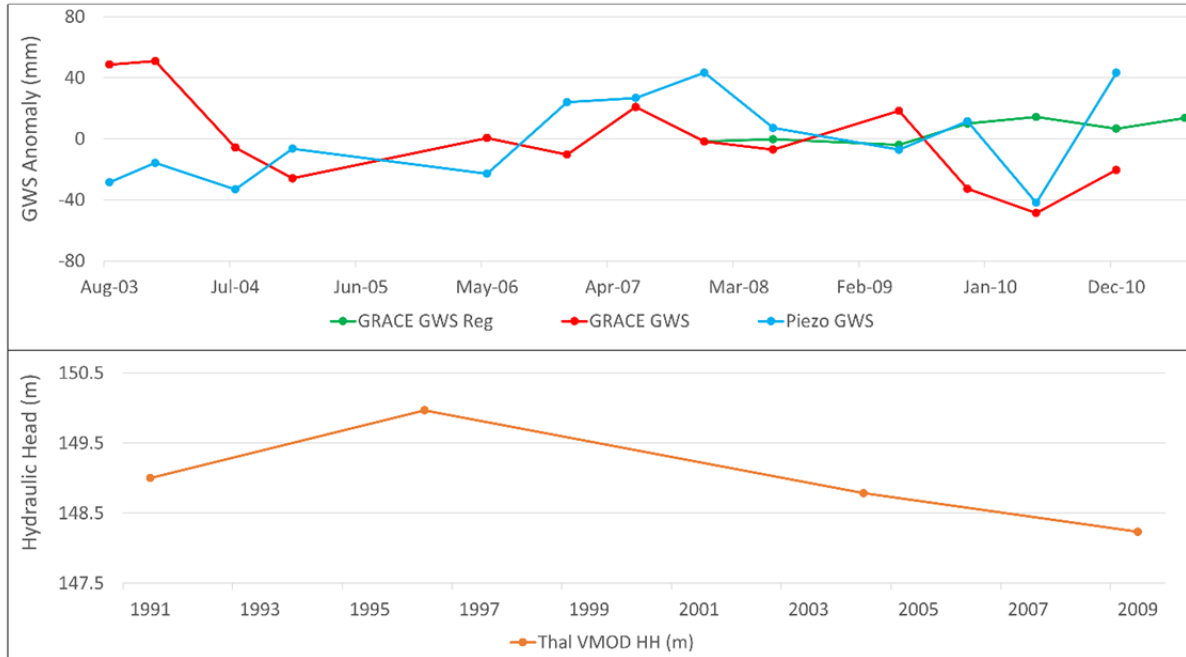
626

627

628

629

630



631

632

Fig. 10. Upper – Panel: Comparison of GRACE derived seasonal groundwater storage anomalies with piezometric in-situ data from 2003-2010 over Thal doab area. Lower-Panel: Simulation results of Visual MODFLOW based groundwater modeling for comparison of trends from 2004-2009. The groundwater storage variations are represented in hydraulic head (m)

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649 Table 1: Summary of the main characteristics of four doabs (Source: Government of
650 Pakistan, 2012)

Characteristics	Bari Doab	Rechna Doab	Chaj Doab	Thal Doab
Bounded by Rivers	Sutlej and Ravi	Ravi and Chenab	Chenab and Jhelum	Chenab and Indus
Area	2.96 Mha	3.12 Mha	1.36 Mha	3.35 Mha
Lithology	Medium to coarse sand, silt with clay lenses	Clay to sandy loam	Fine to medium Sand with Silt	Fine to coarse sand with clay lenses
Total Tube wells	0.12 Million	0.33 Million	0.13 Million	0.17 Million
Precipitation (mm)	Varies from 100-500	Varies from 300-1000	778 average annual	500 Average annual maximum

651

652 Table 2: Comparison of GRACE numerical downscaling results

Grid Scale	Year	Bari Doab (Correlation)	Rechna Doab (Correlation)	Chaj Doab (Correlation)	Thal Doab (Correlation)
1° x 1°	2003-2010	0.92	0.56	0.09	-0.13
0.1° x 0.1°	2003-2010	0.93	0.65	0.15	-0.10

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

Appendix

661 **Stand Errors Calculation:**

$$S_E = S_D / \sqrt{N}$$

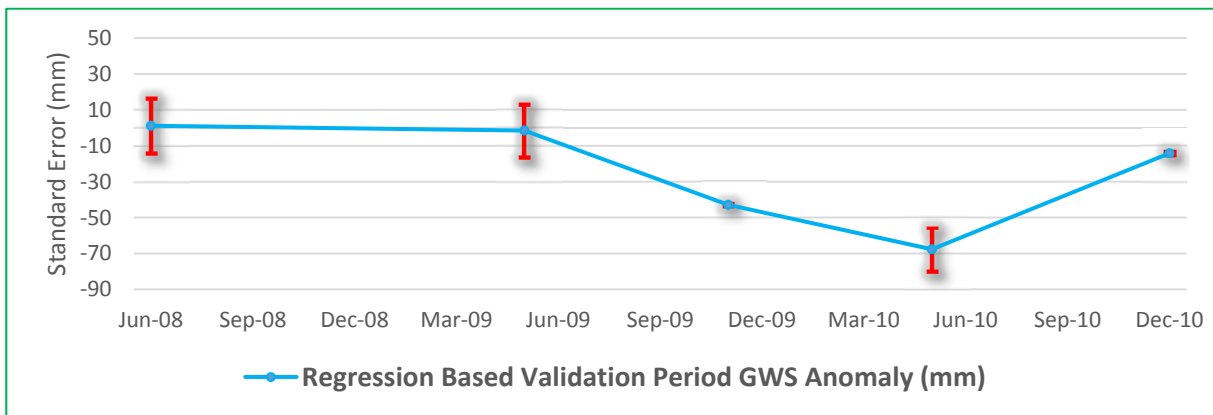
662 Where;

663 S_E = Standard Error

664 S_D = Standard Deviation (between validation period regression GWS with piezometric data)

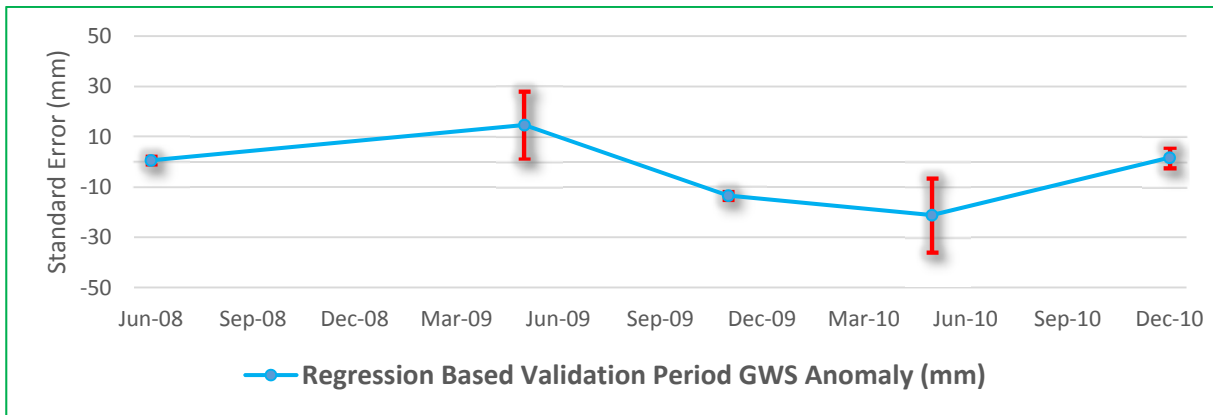
665 N = No. of Data Readings

666



667

668 Appendix A. Results of standard error calculations for validation period (2008-2010) over Bari
669 doab



670

671 Appendix B. Results of standard error calculations for validation period (2008-2010) over
672 Rechna doab