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Focus areas	Fragility statements	Members			
		Sai nath, SE, RWSS	Sujatha, AE, RWSS	K.V.L.N.P Chowdary, SE, APSWRD	Azamuddin , AE, APSWRD
	property, livelihood, assets, health and at times lives				



























































Micro-catchment solutions						
Focus area and fragility statement	Micro-catchment solutions	Members				
		M. Narendra Babu, MPEO	K. Rajasekhar, Farmer	P. Mallikarjun, Farmer	K. Eshwara Rao, Farmer	B. Satyam Naryana, Farmer
	Drainage system					
<b>River flooding:</b> Due to the reduction of river bed and heavy rains caused by monsoon depressions, Krishna river gets flooded and there is loss of property, assets, and livelihoods, health and at times lives	Develop hazard maps for low lying areas outlining areas at risk for flooding – awareness programs on possible impact, safety concerns, potential risk and appropriate responses	-	-	-	-	-

































## **Annex 1**













Water resources for the micro-catchment			
Number of water bodies	<i>Number, sq km</i>		
Major source of water supply (village wise)	<i>List</i>		
Classification of water bodies (ponds, lakes, rivers)	<i>Number, sq km, list</i>		
Depth of ground water table (village wise)	<i>Metres, list</i>		





Coverage of pockets of urban poor by sewerage network and/or septic tank provision	<i>Number, percent</i>		
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Summer water demand		
Summer: demand-supply Gap		



Water demand: 150 MLD  
Water supply demand GAP: 50 MLD

Integration solution





	other stakeholders			
9	SWM	Segregated waste collection, treatment and disposal available; no impact on water quality or drainage	3	
		Simple collection without segregation, treatment and disposal available; low impact on water quality or	2	

Sr . N o	Integration Indicators	Criteria Scoring		
		Criteria/sub criteria	Scale	Selected Score
		drainage		
		Simple collection without segregation, no treatment, only disposal; medium impact on water quality or drainage	1	
		Open dumping, without collection or treatment; high impact on water quality or drainage	0	
10	Waste water	Treatment system available to treat waste water at least to secondary level and septage management system available	3	
		Part sewer connection, and/or septage management available	2	
		No sewer connection, and septage management available	1	
		No sewers and no septage, link to open or natural drains	0	
11	Storm water	Water logging due to encroachment of natural drains is frequent	1	
		Water logging due to encroachment of natural drains is infrequent	3	
12	Ecosystems	More than 50% green cover and supports at least 3 types of ecosystem services	4	
		Between 35-50% green cover and supports at least 2 types of ecosystem services	3	
		Between 20-35% green cover and supports at least 2 types of ecosystem services	2	
		Less than 20% green cover and supports 1 or no ecosystem services	1	

**Table 10 Summary Sheet for Integration Assessment Matrix**

Final Score	
Existing status of integration in the city (Excellent, Good, Average, Poor, Critical)	
Weaknesses	
Strengths	
Quick Improvement Areas	
Focus systems	

### 3.4 Fragile Systems Assessment

This exercise helps to analyse the fragile systems that have been identified through Table 10 as the Focus issues or Weaknesses or Quick Improvement Areas. The systems may include 'core systems', such as

water and food, essential for the survival, and 'secondary systems' such as education and social services, which rely on the core services. The step helps to do the following:

1. Analysis of "fragile systems" i.e. the systems or services which are already weak or under great pressure, by looking at them through a water lens.
2. Assessment of the impact of climate change on these fragile systems.

The tool analyses the causes of the fragility in terms of the **characteristics of resilient systems** - flexibility and diversity, redundancy and safe failure. This information can be obtained largely from the baseline questionnaire that collects information on these systems.

**Flexibility and diversity** - mix of multiple options, key assets and functions are distributed or decentralised, not all affected by a single event

*Example:* A network of hospitals rather than a single, central hospital

**Redundancy** - alternatives / back-up systems / contingency plans, capacity for contingency situations, multiple pathways and options for service delivery in case one or several options fail

*Example:* Hospitals and emergency communications facilities have shared or linked backup electrical generators

**Safe failure** – ability to absorb sudden shocks or slow onset stress so as to avoid catastrophic failure

*Example:* Dikes are designed so that if their capacity is exceeded, they fail in predictable ways, channelling flooding away from populated areas

The systems are also analysed in terms of the impacts of this fragility on other systems and services and the overall responsibility of these systems. The information is then collated to formulate a Fragility Statement for the System as shown in table below.

**Table 11: Analyse Fragile Urban Systems based on information from baseline questionnaire**

System	Why is it critical or fragile?	What are the existing and anticipated problems caused by the fragility of this system?	Responsibility	Fragility Statement
Water Supply	<p>Flexibility &amp; Diversity: Traditional water sources have been lost due to the urbanisation process and the city depends on centralized pumping systems that transport water from significant distances to the city. Supply cannot meet the growing demand</p> <p>Redundancy: Alternatives usually include water supplied by tankers (trucks). Given the mountainous region this limits access of these trucks in addition to them being an expensive and polluting fallback option</p> <p>Safe failure: in case of a disruption in water supply, individual</p>	<p>Disruption of water supply to citizens</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Additional financial burden on individual households to purchase water from water tankers</li> <li>Water shortage adversely impacts the tourism industry</li> <li>Increased pollution and emissions from the plying of water tankers</li> </ul>	<p>Shared with the Irrigation &amp; Public Health Department</p>	<p>The water supply system in the city is old and largely dependent on transporting water over large distances, whereby even minor disruptions cause significant shortages in the city in the face of an ever growing demand; alternatives are not cost effective or sustainable</p>

	households have to fend for themselves. One of the systems is over a 100 years old			
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To assess the impacts of climate change on the fragile systems identified in the table above, we have to develop a Climate Fragility Statement for each fragile system, considering the climate scenario summaries and the possible impacts of these climatic changes on the fragile systems.

**Table 12: Climate Fragility Statements**

Urban System	Fragility Statement	Climate fragility statement	<b>Climate fragility statement</b>
		Climate Risk 1: increased precipitation	Climate Risk 2: Increased Temperatures
Water Supply	Water supply system in the city is old and largely dependent on transporting water over large distances, whereby even minor disruptions cause significant shortages in the city in the face of an ever growing demand; alternatives are not cost effective or sustainable	Increased precipitation disrupts / damages water supply infrastructure	Increased temperatures will lead to increased demand for water thereby posing additional stress on the supply system
		Increased precipitation can cause water to freeze in the pipelines	

### 3.5 Risk Assessment of Climate Fragility Statements

After the climate fragility statements for the fragile systems are identified, these can be prioritized on the basis of their likelihood and consequence. It is recommended that the Core Team conducts a workshop to assess the risk status. It is important to incorporate the views of all stakeholder group as well. The Risk Assessment exercise should be undertaken jointly with the stakeholders as part of a consultation process through group exercises in the workshop. Every group can present their results and debate and finalise together the outputs of the exercise.

To assess the climate risks, we need to assess the likelihood and consequence of each climate fragility statement of each of the systems.

The likelihood of each risk can be assigned a score from 1 to 5 as per the table below. It is recommended that you refer back to the 'Level of Confidence' that has been assigned to each of the identified climate change conditions, which indicates if the likelihood of occurrence is higher or lower.

**Table 13: Likelihood Rating and Scoring**

Likelihood Rating	Description	Score
Almost certain	Is highly likely to occur, could occur several times per year; Likelihood probably greater than 50%	5
Likely	Reasonable likelihood, may arise once per year; Likelihood 50/50 chance	4
Possible	May occur, perhaps once in 10 years; Likelihood less than 50% but still quite high	3
Unlikely	Unlikely but should still be considered, may arise once in 10 to 25 years	2
Rare	Likelihood probability significantly greater than zero. Unlikely in foreseeable future – negligible probability	1

Next, for each climate risk, assess the consequence, or impact, if the risk does occur. Consequences can be assigned a score from 1 to 5, where 5 is Catastrophic and 1 is Insignificant. Table below shows how to assess the different consequence rating, using "Impact on the System" and "Impact on the City Government" as measures. It is necessary to consider the impacts on both, the system as well as the poor and vulnerable, while deciding on the Consequence ratings.

**Table 14: Consequence Rating and Scoring**

Consequence Rating	Impact on System	Impact on poor and vulnerable	Score
Catastrophic	System fails completely and is unable to deliver critical services,, may lead to failure of other connected systems	Severe impacts on poor and vulnerable groups in the city leading to situations of extreme destitution	5
Major	Serious impact on the system's ability to deliver critical services, however not complete system failure;	Loss of confidence and criticism in city government; ability to achieve city vision and mission seriously affected;  Significant impacts on poor and vulnerable groups in the city that seriously affects their lives and livelihoods	4
Moderate	System experiences significant problems, but still able to deliver some degree of service	Moderate impacts on the lives and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable groups in the city	3
Minor	Some minor problems experienced, reducing effective service delivery, possibly affecting certain other systems or groups	Minor impacts on the lives and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable groups in the city	2
Insignificant	Minimal impact on system – may require some review or repair, but still able to function	Minimal impacts on the lives and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable groups in the city	1

The likelihood and consequence scores can be multiplied to get the Risk Score. The Risk Score can be compared to the Risk Matrix to assess the Risk Status.

**Table 15: Risk Matrix**

Likelihood	Consequences				
	Insignificant	Minor	Moderate	Major	Catastrophic
Almost certain	Medium (RS=5)	Medium (RS=10)	High (RS=15)	Extreme (RS=20)	Extreme (RS=25)
Likely	Low (RS=4)	Medium (RS=8)	High (RS=12)	High (RS=16)	Extreme (RS=20)
Possible	Low (RS=3)	Medium (RS=6)	Medium (RS=9)	High (RS=12)	High (RS=15)
Unlikely	Low (RS=2)	Low (RS=4)	Medium (RS=6)	Medium (RS=8)	Medium (RS=10)
Rare	Low (RS=1)	Low (RS=2)	Low (RS=3)	Low (RS=4)	Medium (RS=5)

RS=Risk Score

The climate risk statements **with high or extreme risks should be given priority during the solutions assessment in the later stages.**

**Table 16: Prioritization of Climate Risks**

Climate Risk Statements	Likelihood	Consequence	Risk Score (Likelihood X Consequence)	Risk Status
Increased precipitation disrupts/ damages water supply infrastructure	4	4	16	High

### 3.6 Vulnerability assessment

The workshop conducted by the Core Team will further conduct the vulnerability assessment. The vulnerability assessment will include identification of vulnerable areas that are prone to the climate risks identified above and the social groups or stakeholders who are impacted by these risks in these areas.

Maps showing the distribution of the high priority climate risks across the micro-catchment area are produced. This can be done using hard copies of the micro-catchment map showing different village boundaries and city wards. Different colours representing different climate risk statements can be put in the areas that the Core Team perceives to be at greatest risk.

The Core Team will then identify the Actors (i.e. individuals, households and public/private sector organisations), that can play a critical role towards building urban resilience. Their ability to contribute to resilience and adaptation is broadly dependent on the following three key capacities:

- Capacity to organise and respond - the capacity to organise and re-organise in response to threat or disruption.
- Resources – access to the resources necessary to respond (manpower, technology, funds).
- Access to information – availability of data and information necessary to develop effective plans and actions and to improve responses to disruptions.

The combination of these three characteristics would help determine the adaptive capacity of each of the urban actors.

**Table 17: Actors' Capacities Rating and Scoring**

Key Capacities of Actors	Score
<b>Capacity to Organize and Respond</b> - to organise and re-organise in response to threat or disruption	
Low capacity	1
Medium capacity	2
High capacity	3
<b>Resources</b> - necessary to respond (manpower, technology, funds)	
Low access	1
Medium access	2
High access	3
<b>Access to Information – data and information to develop effective plans for better responses to disruptions</b>	
Low access	1
Medium access	2
High access	3

**Table 18: Levels of Adaptive Capacity of Urban Actors**

Adaptive Capacity Score	Level of Adaptive Capacity
1-8	Low
9-17	Medium
18-27	High

The score for each capacity can be multiplied to get the total score for the adaptive capacity of the actors. Actors having a 'Low' or 'Medium' level of adaptive capacity would be those that would need to be specifically targeted in the actions (or resilience strategies) that are undertaken to reduce the fragility of

the identified fragile system. Actors with a 'High' level of adaptive capacity can be engaged in the proposed actions as they have the capacity to effectively respond to the impacts of the fragile systems.

**Table 19: Actor Analysis**

Climate Fragility Statements	Area/ward/ village	Actors	Capacity to Organize & Respond (A)	Resources (B)	Access to Information (C)	Adaptive Capacity Score (A)*(B)*(C)	Supporting Notes
Contamination of water supply due to flooding made worse by lack of alternative sources	Village <i>Name</i>	Slum dwellers	1	1	1	1 (low)	Dependent on shallow aquifers that are easily contaminated; access to water tankers too expensive; no information on water purification techniques
		Private Sector	2	3	2	12 (medium)	
		RWA	2	2	1	4 (low)	
		Water Authority	2	3	3	18 (High)	
		NGO	2	1	3	6 (low)	

Outcome Phase 3

- Water Balance
- Climate scenarios
- Vulnerable sectors, areas and populations

## 4. Phase 4: Solutions Assessment

In this Phase, the Core Team will use the information and analysis from Phases 2 and 3 to develop a list of possible adaptation actions, or “interventions” that will support integrated water resource management. These interventions will be screened and prioritised, linked to existing city plans, and assembled into a Catchment Management Plan.

### 4.1 Identification of interventions for Catchment Water Resources

The exercise will be conducted by the core team and verified by the RURBAN Platform. All the climate fragility statements should be listed along with their vulnerable areas (villages, or city wards) and the vulnerable actors (social groups) as identified through above exercises. Based on these, interventions and solutions will be identified to address these issues by the Core Team together as part of a workshop. While selecting the interventions, it is important to remember to:

- Focus on the most vulnerable groups, sectors, neighbourhoods
- Develop measures to address current issues and to prevent future problems
- Aim for a mix of “hard” (e.g. infrastructure related) and “soft” (e.g. policy changes, capacity building) solutions
- Consider links with other existing plans and processes to facilitate implementation of the Catchment Management Plan.

Climate Fragility Statements	Vulnerable Sectors	Urban Actors		Micro-Catchment Solutions
		Vulnerable Actors	Supporting Actor	
e.g.: Contamination of water supply due to flooding made worse by lack of alternative sources	Water, waste water etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Slum Dwellers</li><li>• Resident Welfare Association</li><li>• NGOs</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Private sector</li><li>• Water Authority</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Rooftop water harvesting and safe storage</li><li>• Capacity building on hygiene and sanitation</li><li>• Provision of low cost, effective water purifiers</li></ul>

### 4.2 Prioritisation of Interventions and Solutions

Once the interventions are selected, they are first assessed for their contributions to climate resilience using a set of resilience indicators and their contribution to integrated water management through a set of integration indicators. They are then assessed for their feasibility and impact.

The resilience of the interventions and solutions can be measured if they are able to build in the following resilience characteristics into the fragile system:

- Redundancy: A resilient system can function and achieve results through multiple paths, so that if one path fails, the others still function. In contrast, a “single best solution” is not resilient because if this single option fails, the system collapses. Back-up systems, or decentralised nodes for service delivery in a linked network, are preferable.
- Flexibility and diversity: Essential systems should be able to work under a variety of conditions and not be rigid or designed only for one specific situation.
- Re-organisation and responsiveness: Under extreme conditions, systems should be able to respond and change to meet unexpected shocks. This requires access to different kinds of resources (information, skills, equipment, knowledge and experience) and high level of coordination among

departments.

- Access to information: Resilient systems have mechanisms to learn from and build on experience, so that past mistakes are not repeated and lessons from other cities can be integrated into planning. This requires procedures for monitoring and evaluating that can be shared among different departments.

The contribution of the interventions to the principles of IWRM are also assessed to analyse their priority for the region. The primary concepts of IWRM are considered:

- Consider all parts of the water cycle – whether the intervention helps to include different sources and forms of water into the water resources for the region.
- Consider various requirements for water – whether the intervention helps to assign different quality of water for different uses.
- Consider the local context – whether the intervention is locally relevant and addresses pertinent local issues
- Considers requirement of various stakeholders – whether the intervention addresses requirements of different stakeholders in the region.

**Table 20 Prioritizing resilience interventions – Example and exercise**

Interventions and Solutions	Resilience Indicators				IWRM Indicators				Overall Prioritisation Score
	Redundancy (yes/no)	Flexibility (yes/no)	Responsiveness/ Re-organisation (yes/no)	Access to Information (yes/no)	Consider all parts of the water cycle (yes/no)	Consider various requirements for water (yes/no)	Consider the local context (yes/no)	Considers requirements of various stakeholders (yes/no)	1-2 yes – Low 3-4 yes – Medium 5-6 yes – average 7-8 yes – High
<i>Roof top water harvesting to be made mandatory to deal with water stress due to anticipated increasing temperatures and decreasing precipitation</i>	<i>Yes Supports a higher degree of self sufficiency at the household level</i>	<i>Yes System allows for water to be channelized towards recharging groundwater as well</i>	<i>Yes In case of shutdown of the city's water supply system, households have stored rainwater for use</i>	<i>No City helplines exist, but responsibility lies with individual households</i>	<i>Yes Considers rainwater as a resource</i>	<i>Yes Assigns different quality of water to different uses</i>	<i>Yes Addresses local water scarcity</i>	<i>Yes All stakeholders can benefit</i>	7

Apart from building resilience, interventions should be checked for their feasibility and expected

impact. Feasibility can be assessed using the following criteria:

- Technical – the region has the necessary technical expertise to implement the project, or can access the required skills; the project is implementable, realistic and suitable to the local conditions.
- Political – the intervention will be seen as acceptable to city leaders and the community and is consistent with the city's values and vision
- Financial – the cost is within the capacity of the region, or the region will be able to access required funds from the state or central

government, and the anticipated benefits of the action will justify the cost; any low hanging fruits for early implementation

Impact can be assessed using:

- Timeframe – most actions should be able to be completed within a short or medium timeframe.
- Criticality or Overall impact - the proposed intervention will have a significant and measurable impact on the targeted climate risk

For each of these parameters, the Core Team should discuss and decide a scoring such as low or medium or high for each intervention or solution. On the basis of these scores, a prioritized list of interventions and solutions will be developed for the micro-catchment.

**Table 21: Feasibility and Impact**

Interventions and Solutions	Feasibility			Impact – Timeframe	Impact - Criticality
	Technical (high/medium/ low)	Political (high/medium/ low)	Financial (high/medium/ low)	(short/medium/long term)	(high/medium/ low)
<i>e.g. Roof top water harvesting to be made mandatory to deal with water stress due to anticipated increasing temperatures and decreasing precipitation</i>	<i>High (technology is easily available)</i>	<i>Medium (would require a change in building by- laws and building codes)</i>	<i>High (not an expensive option to implement with substantial results)</i>	<i>Short term (can be completed in a short time)</i>	<i>High (Can help to deal with water stress areas with immediate focus)</i>

### 4.3 Verification and Ratification

The interventions and solutions selected will be discussed in the RURBAN platform to get their opinions and suggestions. Once they are discussed and ratified by the RURBAN Platform they can be integrated into the Catchment Management Plan for implementation and eventual evaluation. The District Collector and the Municipal Commissioner should be present in the meeting to discuss potential immediate actions.

#### Outcome Phase 4

- ☐ List of solutions for catchment water resources
- ☐ Scoring and Prioritization of the solutions on the basis of resilience, IWRM principal
- ☐ Feasibility and impact assessment of the prioritized solutions
- ☐ Ratification at the RURBAN platform
- ☐ Pilot project

## 5. Phase 5: CMP Formulation

### Structure of Catchment Management Plan

The catchment management plan should be developed while keeping the overall fragility and vulnerability of the resources and the community. To prepare an integrated catchment management plan following steps need to be followed.

**Introduction:** Introduces the concept of integration (IWRM, IUWM), the rationale of conducting an integrated catchment management and adopting integrated approaches to assess the vulnerability to climate change. Methodology and approaches used to develop catchment management plan.

1. What are IUWM and IWRM?
2. What are the principles to adopt these approaches?
3. Benefits of adopting these approaches while developing catchment management plan, explain the socio- economic and environmental benefits.
4. **Methodology of assessment**
  - a Explanation of the different steps of the IADAPT Process
  - b Possible annexes and tools
    - i. List of members of RURBAN Platform and the
    - ii. List of members of core team
    - iii. Public communications from the core team (for instance, minutes of meeting, newspaper cuttings, memos, etc)
    - iv. Tools of IUWM, IAP &TEEB

### Catchment profile:

#### Location of the catchment:

This will include the information about main Rivers and its tributaries and basins. Information on area, number of water sources within the catchment and potential of the catchment area, location, number and capacity of dams within the catchment etc.

### Demography:

- a. Number of villages and urban centers
- b. Population data – general v/s urban poor
- c. Population projections

### Socio-economic profile

- a. Information on population, number of households, number of slums, marginalized groups, urban poor
- b. Information on economic profile of the population, major livelihood activities and other development activities within the catchment
- c. Urbanization pattern and percentage

### Climate pattern and geomorphology of the catchment

- a. General climatic pattern of the city
- b. Seasonal information on temperature, precipitation
- c. Information on soil, slope and forest cover
- d. Past events in the catchment – droughts, floods, cyclones etc. i Date of occurrence of event

ii Details of the event (for instance, reasons of occurrence of the event, details of the event)

- iii Impacts of the event on life and livelihood of the citizens, urban systems, and environment
- iv Measures undertaken by the city or regional government to mitigate impacts of the event
- v. Actions or measures undertaken by the city or regional government to address such occurrences in future, if any

## Planning and designing of an integrated micro catchment management plan

The catchment plan will includes four phases

1. **Engagement phase:** In this phase various stakeholders from rural and urban areas within the micro catchments will come together and discuss the issues, develop strategies to overcome the challenges and implement best possible solutions.
  - a) **Formation of core teams** representatives from city departments who have responsibilities for, or an impact on, development planning, water use, pollution, waste, food security, water security, public health, local economic development, infrastructure, and agricultural development. It is important to identify a **Project Nodal Officer** at the rural and urban level who can be the focal point for the process in the city
  - b) **Formation of RURBAN platform** for timely discussion and privatization of the strategies in the main agenda. Core Team and the state officials to formulate a **RURBAN committee**. The committee will involve key individuals (from the district departments, core team member and officials from State departments and Ministries representing urban and rural authorities). The committee will be responsible for developing the RURBAN platform for interactions and discussions on integrated water management strategies and actions.
2. **Baseline assessment:** Data and information on micro catchment level. Water resources (water availability, water supply and water management), waste water, storm water and solid waste will be collected. Demographic data within the micro catchment including population characteristics and composition, health, exposure to disasters, bio diversity and ecosystem services of various resources within the micro catchment will be collected. The ongoing or proposed policies and programs for integration at basin level or micro catchment level will also be studied.
3. **Assessing the climate vulnerability:** In this phase a water balance will be calculated to understand the present and future stress on water resources due to urbanization, population growth and other economic development activities. The benefits of integrated approaches will be calculated based on demand and supply data and water balance calculations. Focus sectors will be selected on the basis of integration matrix. Vulnerability assessment of the water and allied sectors, develop climate statements and analyze the fragile rural-urban system and impact of climate change on these system. In the end list of most vulnerable systems will be prepared.
4. **Solution assessments:** A list of solutions will be prepared to combat all the issues/ vulnerability of the specific sector. Responses by one or more of the approaches will be listed for each of the Water and Climate Risk Statements. An exercise on resilience scoring will help in identifying the gaps present in the availability of data for each fragile urban system. This will help in determining the need for detailed sector wise studies that need to be undertaken for each of these urban systems. Based on that list of projects/ strategies/projects will be developed and projects will be prioritized for implementation. And an action plan will be developed to implement the solutions/strategies/projects with specific objectives and outcomes.
5. **Monitoring and evaluation framework:** RURBAN committee will ensure a regular monitoring of the catchment management plan and will monitor the effectiveness of the plans in achieving their stated objectives and delivering the outcomes that will underpin the rationale for the need for the plan. A monitoring procedure will include reporting on the plan and to update the

implementation of action plan. Cumulative responsibilities of RURBAN committee and core team require regular reviews the plans. it is proposed that reporting should be done by nodal officer and the core team. Yearly discussion with the core team and local residents to understand the impact and effect of the implementation. After the completion of one project the project prioritization tool will be re implemented and new projects will be selected.

**Table 22: Monitoring Framework**

Monitoring and Evaluation Framework					
Intervention	Implementing Agency	Indicator	Responsibility of monitoring	Method/ tool of monitoring	Frequency of monitoring

**Table 23: CMP Implementation Monitoring Table**

Status of Implementation of the CMP				
Phase	Outcome	Responsibility	Methodology/tools	Status

#### Outcome Phase 5

- Catchment management plan

## **Annex 2**

# SWOT Analysis Report

## Introduction

SWOT analysis (or SWOT matrix), an acronym for *strengths*, *weaknesses*, *opportunities*, and *threats*, can be used to measure the effectiveness and requirement of a project. It helps to identify the internal and external factors that are favorable and unfavorable to achieve the project objectives. The degree to which the internal environment of the project matches with the external environment is expressed by the concept of strategic fit.

- Strengths: characteristics that are advantages give it an advantage over others
- Weaknesses: characteristics of the project at a disadvantage relative to others
- Opportunities: elements in the environment that the project could exploit to its advantage
- Threats: elements in the environment that could cause trouble for the project

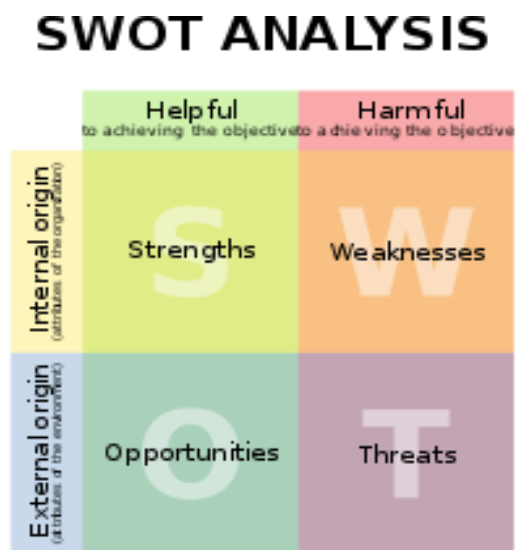


Figure 1: SWOT Analysis Method

Identification of SWOTs is important because they can inform later steps in planning to achieve the objective. SWOT analysis was used to identify the micro-catchment around each city where detailed project activities will be undertaken. The results drawn from the focus group discussions, key personnel interviews, inputs from officials and secondary data collected were used to carry out the SWOT analysis (refer Figure 2). The parameters that were used for the analysis include:

- Urban rural integration
- Biodiversity
- Pollution
- Regional significance of water bodies

- Agriculture and Economy
- Attitude of the community
- Related ongoing work

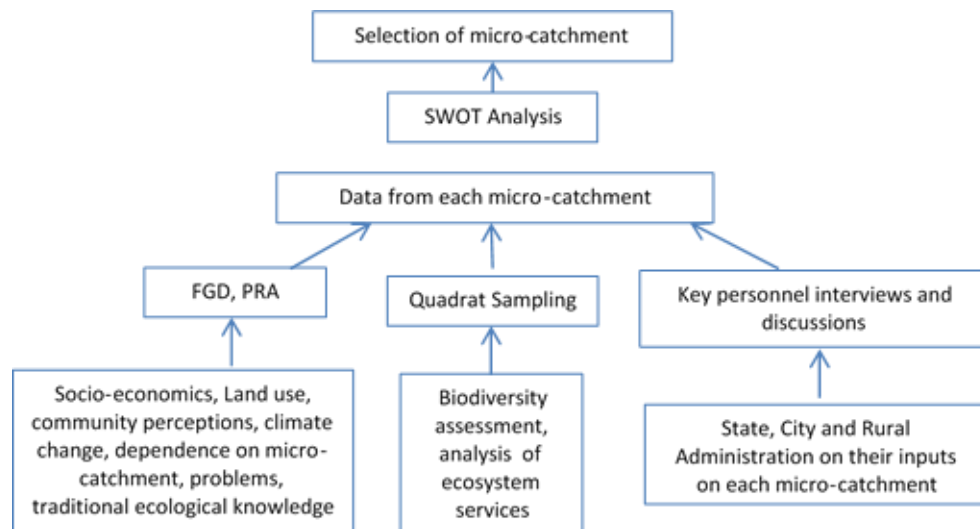


Figure 2: Inputs from various activities which were used for the SWOT analysis

### SWOT Analysis of Urban-Rural Micro catchments in Solapur

Micro-catchment S1- Bale (within city), Kawathe, Degaon (within city), Gulwanchi	
Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Micro-catchment includes largest sewage treatment plant of Solapur Municipal Corporation.</li> <li>• Community has undertaken water conservation works like nallah (stream) widening, ground water recharge pits under various schemes by government.</li> <li>• Micro-catchment is close to Great Indian Bustard Sanctuary.</li> <li>• Highest Shannon Diversity.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Untreated sewage discharged by Degaon stream and underground drainage is being used to irrigate sugarcane crop.</li> <li>• Issues like increased hardness of the ground water, smell, mosquito and sometimes colour in the water are very common in the villages in the micro-catchment.</li> <li>• Incomplete coverage of septic tanks and drainage system in the villages in the micro-catchment.</li> <li>• Villages in the micro-catchment close to the industrial belt are affected by pollution</li> <li>• High incidences of human-wildlife conflicts</li> </ul>
Opportunity	Threat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Planning is in progress to treat the wastewater till tertiary level in the sewage treatment plant and reuse for industrial purposes at National Thermal Power Corporation's plant near Solapur, which will reduce stress on Ujani reservoir and increase water share for Solapur city.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High levels of pollution in the water bodies can see further increase due to industries and sewage from villages.</li> <li>• Stress of rapid development and ignorance of villagers resulted into de-notification of some areas from wild life sanctuary</li> </ul>

Strength 4	Weakness -5	Total -1
Opportunity 1	Threat -2	Total -1
Overall		-2

Micro-catchment S2 - Hotagi lake - Hotgi-Sawathed, Yatnal, Kumbhari	
Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Micro-catchment has second prominent lake in the region, serving for drinking water, irrigation and industrial uses.</li> <li>• Major sugarcane producing region and thus high dependency on the water supply from the lake.</li> <li>• Community has initiated water conservation projects like constructing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High levels of pollution in lake, leading to loss of fish and related livelihoods.</li> <li>• Incomplete coverage of septic tanks and drainage system in the villages in the micro-catchment.</li> <li>• Discharge of untreated sewage and industrial wastewater have polluted nearby water bodies in the micro-catchment.</li> </ul>

weirs to recharge ground water under various schemes of government and CSR activities of industries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Agriculture area is reducing due to unavailability of water for irrigation.</li> <li>• Lowest Shannon Diversity</li> </ul>
Opportunity	Threat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditional practices of worship and protection of nature can be revived.</li> <li>• Industry and ecology co-existence can be retrieved</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High levels of pollution in the lake (Oil on water surface, odour and sometimes colour are prominent characteristics noted by community members) can see further increase due to pollution.</li> <li>• Villages in the micro-catchment are already facing water stress, which will further increase due to climate change</li> <li>• Politically and administratively sensitive area because of industries (sugar mill)</li> <li>• Rapidly developing micro-catchment affecting ground water quality and quantity</li> </ul>

Strength 3	Weakness -5	Total -2
Opportunity 2	Threat -4	Total -2
Overall		-4

Micro-catchment S3 – Ekrukh lake - Tale hipparga, Haglur, Ekrukh, Tartgaon, 70% area of core city	
Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Close proximity of Ekrukh - major lake in the micro-catchment to city</li> <li>• Solapur Municipal Corporation and 10 more villages are sharing this water resource.</li> <li>• Community highly dependent on water from Ekrukh lake for their agricultural fields.</li> <li>• Community well aware of need for conservation and taking initiatives for plantation, water conservation projects like constructing weirs to recharge ground water, recharge pits through various state level programs.</li> <li>• City government also wants this micro-catchment to be focused on to maintain quality and quantity at intake</li> <li>• Regional stakeholders are interested</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Due to siltation over the period and inadequate rainfall, capacity of Ekrukh lake has reached nearly half of its original.</li> <li>• Unavailability of wastewater treatment plant in the neighboring villages leads to pollution of the lake due to gray water and septic tank discharge.</li> <li>• Solid waste treatment plant of the Solapur Municipal Corporation is defunct and leachate from this place might be adding pollution of the lake.</li> <li>• Severe from fertilizers and sewage discharged through runoff. Siltation and pollution may lead to eutrophication problem.</li> </ul>

(ongoing lake conservation activities could be strengthened) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relatively high Shannon Diversity.</li> <li>• Highest species abundance over time, as predicted through Rarefaction curve.</li> <li>• Micro-catchment also holds Sidhheashwar lake – an oldest lake of a region and pilgrim location in addition to Kambar lake - facing eutrophication issue.</li> </ul>	
Opportunity	Threat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditional culture of co-existence with nature can be revived.</li> <li>• Being a regional resource; efforts and initiatives would reach out to maximum population and set an example</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further siltation and decreased rainfall due to climate change can lead to reduction in water supply from Ekrukh lake and increase stress on the micro-catchment.</li> </ul>

Strength 9	Weakness -4	Total 5
Opportunity 2	Threat -1	Total 1
Overall		6

Micro-catchment S4 – Pakani, Shivani, Tirhe	
Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Micro-catchment harbours agriculture zones and industries.</li> <li>• Micro-catchment includes water treatment plant (80 MLD) of Solapur Municipal corporation on Ujani water supply scheme</li> <li>• Community has undertaken water conservation works like construction of weirs, widening of streams, recharge of open well, recharge pits and plantations various schemes by government and NGOs.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sinna river, a river in this micro-catchment, used to be a perennial river but construction of a dam, industrial development and wastewater discharge has transformed it to a seasonal water resources.</li> <li>• Industrial development, wastewater discharge and increased number of consumers resulted in pollution and stress on the available water resources.</li> <li>• Wastewater from industrial areas resulted in colour and odour problems in the agricultural fields in the micro-catchment.</li> </ul>
Opportunity	Threat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Close proximity to National Highway.</li> <li>• Industrial co-operation for runoff management can be acquired to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased industrial and infrastructural development along with climate change will put additional stress on</li> </ul>

reduce pollution of water resources	the water resource in future.
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Strength 3	Weakness -3	Total 0
Opportunity 1	Threat -1	Total 0
Overall		0

## SWOT Analysis of Urban-Rural Micro catchments in Vijayawada

Micro catchment V1:	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In the rural areas, agriculture is the dominant occupation with many practicing fishing as another means of livelihood</li> <li>Water demand for irrigation is met through the <i>Pattiseema</i> project</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Limited drinking water supply in few areas of the micro-catchment including hilly areas</li> <li>Irrigation water availability from <i>Tummalapalem</i> lift irrigation is dependent on upland condition</li> <li>Poor drinking water quality within the micro-catchment compels households to purchase drinking water from RO plants</li> <li>The storm water drains are open and mostly blocked causing bad odour, flooding of waste water and rampant breeding of mosquitos often leading to outbreak of vector-borne diseases in some of the villages/wards in the micro-catchment</li> <li>Villages in the micro-catchment have had crop losses due to cyclone impact</li> <li>The urban area of the micro-catchment is currently poorly connected by UGD network</li> <li>Most urban households/apartments have a private borewell connection indicating disappointment over the current water supply thereby causing over exploitation of ground water</li> </ul>
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The larger community is aware about the metrics of climate change and its likely impacts</li> <li>The city is being connected by storm water drains and proposed to be connected by underground sewage drains</li> <li>Many sewage pumping stations have been proposed in the urban area of the micro-catchment</li> <li>A barrage is being proposed near Vijayawada to allow for more storage (prevent discharge of surplus water from Prakasham barrage to the sea)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There is no conscious effort by the government/ community to recharge the ground water</li> <li>Not every official agrees with climate change as a phenomenon which could bring about severe harmful impacts if climate resilience and adaptation is not considered. There is very less co-ordination observed among departments in the water and sanitation sector</li> <li>Budgetary constraint is preventing the ULB from constructing more STPs. The proposed no. of treatment plants is not enough to hold the capacity of</li> </ul>

and to prevent salinity creep.	Vijayawada's sewage and storm water in the future years
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Strength 2	Weakness -7	Total -5
Opportunity 4	Threat -3	Total 1
Overall		-4

Micro catchment V2:	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In the rural areas, the micro-catchment is observed to be harvesting multiple crops</li> <li>Water demand for irrigation is met through the <i>Pattiseema</i> project</li> <li>Rain water harvesting irrigation tanks exist in few rural areas of the micro-catchment</li> <li>In return for utilising the old quarry area in one of the villages for the city's solid waste dumping, the village is allowed to procure drinking water from the adjacent ward which is supplied water by VMC.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Due to shortage of surface water, irrigation canals are filled only during the Kharif season. This shortage of surface water for irrigation leads to overexploitation of ground water by farmers. Due to this over exploitation, there is drop in ground water level rendering to higher costs in pumping water from a deeper level to meet irrigation needs</li> <li>Most urban households/apartments have a private borewell connection indicating disappointment over the current water supply thereby causing over exploitation of ground water. They are compelled to rely on tankers during summers</li> <li>A village's households who go to the adjacent ward to collect drinking water tend to have conflicts during collection.</li> <li>Post <i>Pattiseema</i> project, the water quality has become unfit for drinking thereby creating a shift towards purchasing RO drinking by households who can afford to.</li> <li>Losses during transmission of water supply in the urban areas is observed to cause reduction in water supply quantity.</li> <li>During rains, flooding of storm water and irrigation canals occur in several areas of the micro-catchment.</li> <li>The drains are open and mostly blocked causing rampant breeding of mosquitos often leading to outbreak of vector-borne diseases in some of the</li> </ul>

	villages/wards in the micro-catchment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Occurrence of skin diseases have also been reported due to poor quality of water used for domestic purposes.</li> <li>• The urban area of the micro-catchment is poorly connected by UGD network</li> </ul>
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The city is being connected by storm water drains and proposed to be connected by underground sewage drains</li> <li>• There is a proposed remediation of all solid waste dumping grounds where the land may be converted into an open space thus creating a natural aquifer for ground water recharge.</li> <li>• There is a proposal to lay new water supply lines reducing loss in transmission in some urban areas of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• The larger community is aware about the metrics of climate change and its likely impacts</li> <li>• A barrage is being proposed near Vijayawada to allow for more storage (prevent discharge of surplus water from Prakasham barrage to the sea) and to prevent salinity creep.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no conscious effort by the government/ community to recharge the ground water</li> <li>• Not every official agrees with climate change as a phenomenon which could bring about severe harmful impacts if climate resilience and adaptation is not considered. There is very less co-ordination observed among departments in the water and sanitation sector</li> <li>• The newly constructed storm water drains will be diverted to the three irrigation canals causing even more water pollution. Eluru, Bandar and Ryves canals are being used by rural communities for domestic, irrigation purposes. The polluted irrigation canals, after serving their purpose, is diverted into sea without any treatment</li> <li>• Budgetary constraint is preventing the ULB from constructing more STPs. The proposed no. of treatment plants is not enough to hold the capacity of Vijayawada's sewage and storm water in the future years</li> </ul>

Strength 4	Weakness -9	Total -5
Opportunity 5	Threat -4	Total 1
Overall		-4

Micro catchment V3:	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In the rural areas, agriculture is the dominant occupation</li> <li>• Government has subsidised RO drinking water for rural areas through</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Due to shortage of surface water, irrigation canals are filled only during the Kharif season. This shortage of surface water for irrigation leads to</li> </ul>

<p>the NTR Sujala Scheme</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The micro-catchment has a significantly high Shannon diversity and high species abundance.</li> <li>• Agriculture is practiced by few households living in the urban areas due to their proximity to peri-urban agricultural lands and irrigation canals</li> <li>• There is a fair amount of UGD coverage in the urban area of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• There are 4 Sewage Treatment Plant (STP) in the rural and urban areas of the micro-catchment</li> </ul>	<p>overexploitation of ground water by farmers. Due to this over exploitation, there is drop in ground water level rendering to higher costs in pumping water from a deeper level to meet irrigation needs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The drains are open and mostly blocked causing rampant breeding of mosquitos often leading to outbreak of vector-borne diseases in some of the villages/wards in the micro-catchment</li> <li>• Flooding of waste water is perceived to be polluting the ground water on which households depend for their domestic and drinking water use.</li> <li>• Poor drinking water quality from ground water is creating a shift towards purchasing RO drinking by households who can afford to.</li> <li>• Climate induced heat waves has led to few deaths in the rural areas of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• Sewage and industrial waste in the urban areas of the micro-catchment is released into Ryves, Eluru, Bandar canals – the main source of water for irrigation and its water is also used for household purposes by few locals.</li> <li>• Villages in the micro-catchment have had crop losses due to cyclone impact</li> <li>• There are households in the micro-catchments who do not have an individual water connection</li> <li>• Most urban households/apartments have a private borewell connection indicating disappointment over the current water supply thereby causing over exploitation of ground water</li> </ul>
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a proposed capacity augmentation of the Sewage Treatment Plant (STP) in the rural area of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• The city is being connected by storm water drains and proposed to be connected by underground sewage drains</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no conscious effort by the government/ community to recharge the ground water</li> <li>• Not every official agrees with climate change as a phenomenon which could bring about severe harmful impacts if climate resilience and adaptation is not considered. There is very less co-</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a proposal to lay new water supply lines reducing loss in transmission in some urban areas of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• The larger community is aware about the metrics of climate change and its likely impacts</li> <li>• Many sewage pumping stations have been proposed in the urban area of the micro-catchment</li> <li>• A barrage is being proposed near Vijayawada to allow for more storage (prevent discharge of surplus water from Prakasham barrage to the sea) and to prevent salinity creep.</li> </ul>	<p>ordination observed among departments in the water and sanitation sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The newly constructed storm water drains will be diverted to the three irrigation canals causing even more water pollution. Eluru, Bandar and Ryves canals are being used by rural communities for domestic, irrigation purposes. The polluted irrigation canals, after serving their purpose, is diverted into sea without any treatment</li> <li>• Budgetary constraint is preventing the ULB from constructing more STPs. The proposed no. of treatment plants is not enough to hold the capacity of Vijayawada's sewage and storm water in the future years</li> </ul>
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Strength 6	Weakness -9	Total -3
Opportunity 6	Threat -4	Total 2
Overall		-1

Micro catchment V4:	
Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In the rural areas, agriculture is the dominant occupation with many practicing fishing as another means of livelihood</li> <li>• The micro-catchment has is observed to have the highest Shannon diversity among all micro-catchments</li> <li>• There are 2 Sewage Treatment Plants (STP) in the industrial estate of the city</li> <li>• A barrage is being proposed near Vijayawada to allow for more storage (prevent discharge of surplus water from Prakasham barrage to the sea) and to prevent salinity creep.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Industrial pollution from Jawaharlal Nehru Autonagar Industrial Estate is discharged into Eluru and Ryves irrigation canal causing bad odour for residents in the micro-catchment as well affecting the agriculture irrigated by the canal water.</li> <li>• During rains, there is an occurrence of flooding of the canals causing skin diseases and other health concerns when residents come in contact with the polluted water.</li> <li>• The drains are open and mostly blocked causing rampant breeding of mosquitos often leading to outbreak of vector-borne diseases in some of the villages/wards in the micro-catchment</li> <li>• Poor drinking water quality within the micro-catchment compels households to purchase drinking water from RO</li> </ul>

	<p>plants.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In the rural area, where the dependency for drinking and domestic water is from ground water, health concerns have been reported.</li> <li>• The urban area of the micro-catchment is poorly connected by UGD network</li> <li>• Most urban households/apartments have a private borewell connection indicating disappointment over the current water supply thereby causing over exploitation of ground water</li> </ul>
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The larger community is aware about the metrics of climate change and its likely impacts</li> <li>• The city is being connected by storm water drains and proposed to be connected by underground sewage drains</li> <li>• Few sewage pumping stations have been proposed in the urban area of the micro-catchment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no conscious effort by the government/ community to recharge the ground water</li> <li>• Not every official agrees with climate change as a phenomenon which could bring about severe harmful impacts if climate resilience and adaptation is not considered. There is very less co-ordination observed among departments in the water and sanitation sector</li> <li>• The newly constructed storm water drains will be diverted to the three irrigation canals causing even more water pollution. Eluru, Bandar and Ryves canals are being used by rural communities for domestic, irrigation purposes.</li> <li>• Budgetary constraint is preventing the ULB from constructing more STPs. The proposed no. of treatment plants is not enough to hold the capacity of Vijayawada's sewage and storm water in the future years</li> <li>• The polluted irrigation canals, after serving their purpose, is diverted into sea without any treatment</li> </ul>

Strength 4	Weakness -7	Total -3
Opportunity 3	Threat -5	Total -2
Overall		-5

## **Annex 3**

# **Hydrological and Climate Modeling of Vijayawada**

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 General**

Climate change is currently a key issue in almost all parts of the world. Frequent drought and flood, the rise in sea levels are a major concern for a country like India. It can be observed that within a country only, at a time when one part of the country is completely flooded other is suffering from drought. All these phenomena is a clear sign of need of a sustainable management plan. This plan can be made only when there is a proper assessment of demand and supply is available.

In the last 100 years, some parts of the county have seen a clear decline in rainfall pattern while others have seen an increase in rainfall. Hence, it is important to bring climate change into consideration to assess water availability. These days GCM models are available which can be coupled with different GHGs emission scenarios, to get a better estimate of the hydrological variable.

Impact of climate change can be incorporated in hydrological models to check the correlation and dependence of one parameter on another.

### **1.2 Climate Change and Its Impact**

The Earth's climate is changing throughout time. In the last 650,000 years, there have been seven cycles of glacial advance and retreat, with the end of last ice age about 7,000 years ago which marks the beginning of the modern climate era.

The current warming trend is of prime significance as most of it is extremely likely to be the result of human activity, since the mid-20th century and proceeding at a rate that is unprecedented over decades to millennia.

Evidence for rapid climate change:

- Global temperature rise (rise of about 2 degrees Fahrenheit)
- Shrinking ice sheets
- Sea level rise (rise of about 8 inches)
- Extreme events (more flood and drought)
- Ocean acidification (About 30% increase)

Anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions have a significant impact on climate change. Based on the IPCC report, GHG emission from 1750 to 2011, is about  $2040 \pm 310 \text{ GtCO}_2$ , out of which 405 remained in the atmosphere, 30% has been absorbed by the ocean.

GHG emission, climate change, and our hydrological system are interdependent. Increase in GHGs emission has resulted in climate change which now has altered the hydrological system. Changes in many extreme weather and climate events, increase in high sea levels have been observed since about 1950. Continued emission of greenhouse gases will cause further warming and long-lasting changes in all components of the climate system.

IPCC baseline report indicates a strong, consistent, almost linear relationship between cumulative  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions and global temperature change to the year 2100.

Based on IPCC report, the Surface temperature is projected to rise over the 21st century under all assessed emission scenarios. It is very likely that heat waves will occur more often and last longer, and that extreme precipitation events will become more intense and frequent in many regions.

### **1.3 Assessment of Water Availability**

Water availability can be assessed in two parts, one is by proper estimation of surface water, and the other is by groundwater. Surface water can be estimated using any rainfall- runoff relation. SCS-CN is one such a good option. Surface water for the current study area largely depends on rainfall. While groundwater assessment requires estimation of groundwater flow, recharge, and pumping.

### **1.4 Sustainable Development Plan**

Integrated Rural-Urban Water Management for Climate-based adaptation in Indian Cities (IAadapt) project is being implemented in two Indian cities - Solapur in Maharashtra, and Vijayawada in Andhra Pradesh and their surrounding catchments – which face issues related to droughts, floods, and water conflicts. The project will support the project cities to move from traditional approaches of water management (that plan, establish and operate water supply, wastewater, and stormwater systems as separate entities) to an 'Integrated Approach' based on the principles of IWRM and IUWM.

## 1.5 Objectives

The overall objective of the project is to institutionalize climate change adaptation measures by creating an enabling ecosystem within cities to adopt and implement IUWM approaches at a city level and an approach towards IWRM at catchment level guided by participatory Catchment Planning, simple decision support tools, preparation of catchment level action plans and multipronged financing approaches.

The specific objectives of the project include:

1. Expanding an existing IUWM framework to catchment area while addressing challenges presented by climate change for improved water security at the catchment level
2. Developing multi-stakeholder platforms to bring together rural and urban stakeholders and upstream and down-stream users to enable greater exchange of information and promote collaborative action and planning for improved water management. Special focus will be laid on marginalized communities.
3. Scientifically-informed and participatory Catchment Management Plan formulation for long term water security and management at the catchment level by including urban and rural stakeholders
4. Capacity building of stakeholders on various aspects of IUWM, climate change, scientific decision making, and project financing.
5. Creation of a compendium on 'innovative' financing options for IUWM and IWRM, with focus on innovative approaches, facilitated through cross learning.

Towards fulfilling these objectives, the tasks for IIT Madras was set as follows:

1. To estimate the runoff from the watersheds/ sub-watersheds of both the cities and to study its variability over the years.
2. To plan the IWRM approaches tailor-made for each of these two watersheds taking into account the existing practices, livelihood, and other potentiality of reuse/regenerate of wastewater.
3. To develop strategies for adaptation to climate change vulnerability.

# Chapter 2

## METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 General

The overall methodology can be divided into four sections, namely, catchment delineation, trend analysis of hydrological variable under climate change and climate change projection, estimation of runoff generation and total water availability and sustainable management plan. Catchment delineation is done using ArcGIS, which classifies the catchment into various sub zones based on land use, soil type, and infiltration capacity. Trend analysis is done using linear regression, and its significance is tested using student t-test. Further to assess the impact of climate change on rainfall and temperature, suitable GCM model has been adopted for different scenario (RCP) of carbon emission. Runoff generation is calculated using HEC-HMS model. Preliminary runoff estimation every month is done using the SCS-CN method or in some cases using empirical equations. Based on the estimate, a further sustainable management plan is made.

### 2.2 Watershed Delineation

SRTM Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of 90m resolution for the catchment area is obtained from Earth Explorer. It is then processed in ArcGIS 10.1 for land use and land pattern. ArcGIS 10.1 software is an updated Geographic Information Software released in 2012 by ESRI (Environmental Systems Research Institute) which is useful for creating maps, compiling geographic data, analyzing mapped information, etc. ArcGIS supports DEM, Digital Elevation model that contains all the geographic details for the selected region.

Areas are classified as agricultural, residential, barren land, vegetation, and water body. The land use and Hydrological Soil Group map (HSG) is generated to calculate the Curve Number and for the preparation of the rainfall-runoff model by the mean of HEC-HMS.

The extraction of the drainage network of the study area is carried out from ASTER DEM, in raster format. ArcHYDRO tools in ArcGIS, version 10.1 (ESRI 2008) is used to extract drainage channels. The delineation of the watershed is followed by running the following functions: filling, flow accumulation, flow direction, stream definition, stream Segmentation,

catchment grid delineation, catchment Polygon and drainage line. The processes involved in the analysis is shown in Fig. 2.1

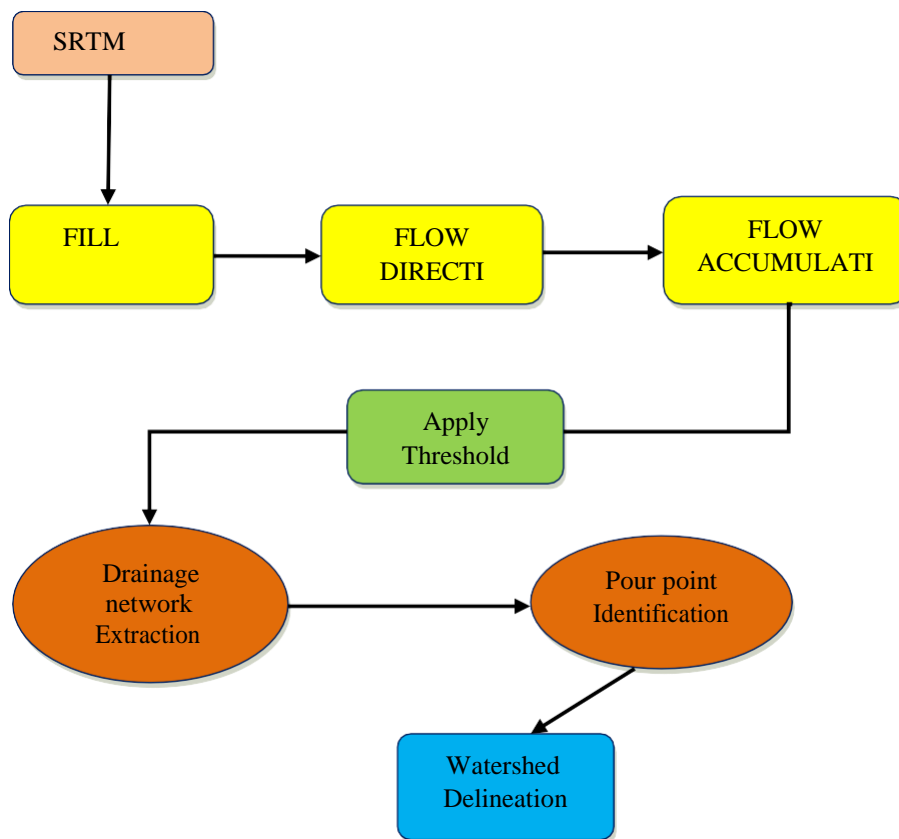


Fig. 2.1 Flow Chart for Delineation of Watershed

The watershed (Water basin analysis program) analysis in the Arc GIS raster commands is used to delineate the catchment areas. This water basin analysis generates the following outcome:

- flow accumulation,
- drainage direction, the location of streams and catchment, and
- Slope length, steepness and slope steepness factor for Universal Soil Loss Equation (USLE).

The analysis includes multiple parameters which are extracted from the DEM raster (input) file.

## 2.3 Trend Analysis

As a preliminary study, a trend analysis is required to check if there is any significant change in hydrological variables with time. The analysis is done using statistical test on time series data of hydrological variable (e.g., rainfall).

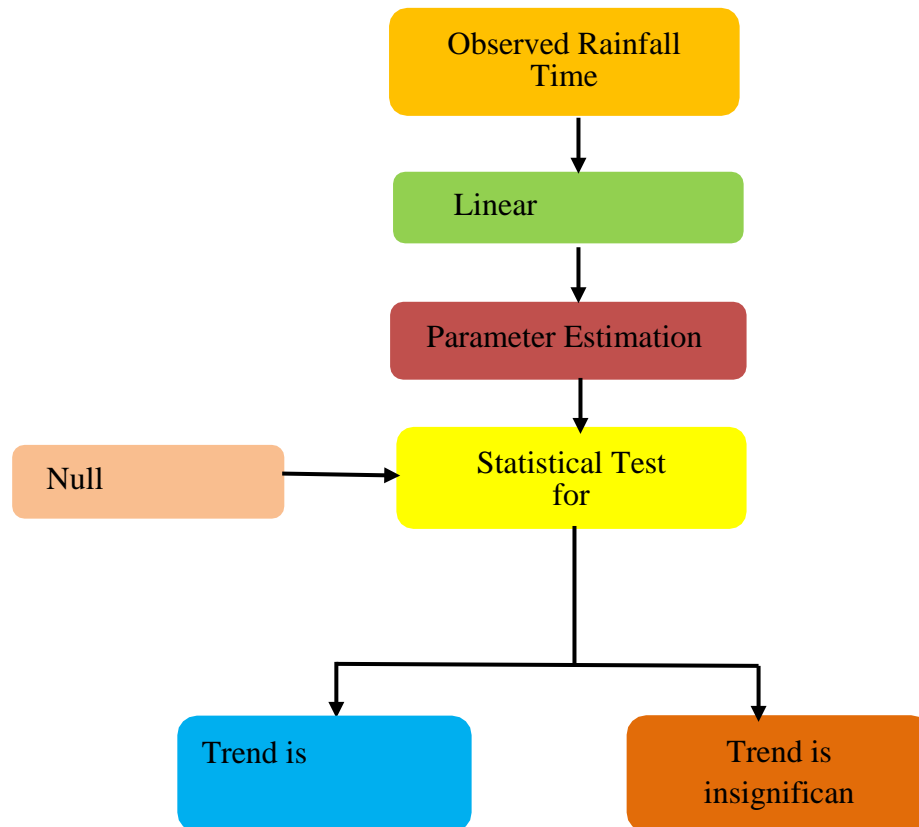


Fig 2.2 Flow chart for Trend analysis

In the present study, the significance of the trend is analyzed using Student T-test. A linear regression is fitted to time series data of rainfall. The null-hypothesis adopted is that the slope of the linear regression line is zero which means that there is no significant change in hydrological variable pattern. Fig. 2.2 shows the flow chart for Trend analysis. Based on a statistical test, it is decided if the change is significant.

## 2.4 Climate Change and its Assessment

The climate of earth results from complex and extensive interactions between many processes in the atmosphere, ocean, land surface and cryosphere (snow, ice, and permafrost). Due to its complexity, the quantitative predictions of the impact on the climate due to greenhouse gas increases cannot be made just through simple, intuitive reasoning.

For this reason, computer models have been developed which try to mathematically simulate the climate, including the interaction between component systems. An ideal model will simulate all of the physical, chemical and biological mechanisms.

Anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions have a significant impact on climate change. Based on the IPCC report, GHG emission from 1750 to 2011, is about  $2040 \pm 310 \text{ GtCO}_2$ , out of which 405 remained in the atmosphere, 30% has been absorbed by the ocean.

GHG emission, climate change, and our hydrological system are interdependent. Increase in GHGs emission has resulted in climate change which now has altered the hydrological system. Changes in many extreme weather and climate events, increase in high sea levels have been observed since about 1950. Continued emission of greenhouse gases will cause further warming and long-lasting changes in all components of the climate system. GHG emissions are mainly driven by population size, economic activity, lifestyle, energy use, land use patterns, technology, and climate policy.

#### **2.4.1 General Climate Models (GCMs)**

Global Climate Models (GCMs) are the primary tool for understanding how the global climate may change in the future. They are the most advanced tools currently available for simulating the response of the global climate system to increasing greenhouse gas concentrations. These are numerical models which represent physical processes in the atmosphere, oceans, cryosphere and land surface. They depict the climate using a three-dimensional grid. These models use quantitative methods to simulate the interactions of the important drivers of climate, including atmosphere, oceans, land surface and ice. They are used for a variety of purposes from study of the dynamics of the climate system to projections of future climate.

Atmospheric general circulation models (atmospheric GCMs) are mathematical models based on numerically discretized versions of differential equations that describe the atmospheric physics and dynamics, which are utilized to simulate time series of climate variables globally, accounting for the effects of the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere.

Three-dimensional models which simulate the atmosphere are called Atmospheric General Circulation Models (AGCMs) and have been developed from weather forecasting models. Similarly, Ocean General Circulation Models (OGCMs) have been developed to simulate the ocean. AGCMs and OGCMs can be coupled to form an atmosphere-ocean coupled general circulation model (CGCM or AOGCM).

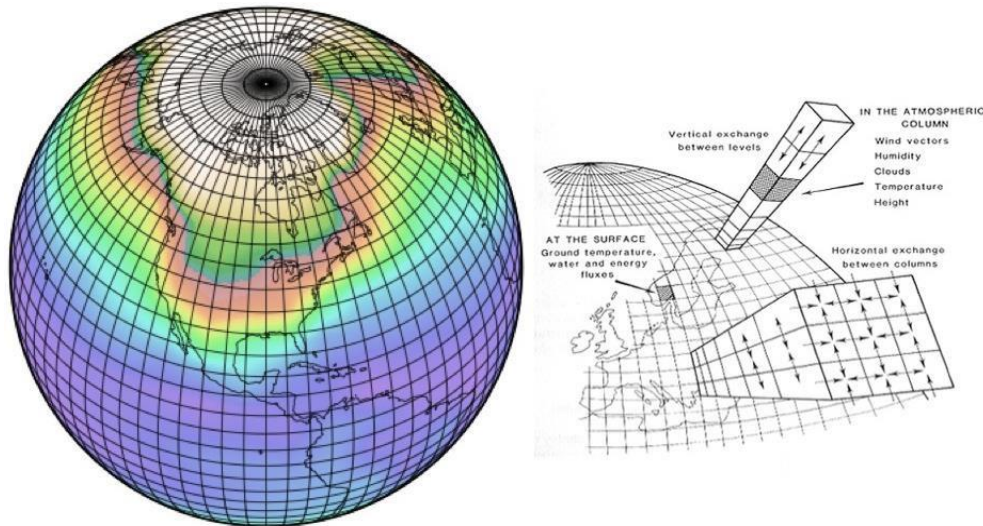


Fig. 2.3 Grid Point Model (Henderson-Sellers, 1985)

Scenarios have long been used by planners and decision-makers to analyze situations in which outcomes are uncertain. In climate research, emission scenarios are used to explore how much humans could contribute to future climate change given uncertainties in factors such as population growth, economic development, and development of new technologies. Projections and scenarios of future social and environmental conditions are also used to explore how much impact lesser or greater amounts of climate change would have on different possible states of the world, for example, futures with greater or lesser amounts of poverty. The purpose of using scenarios is not to predict the future, but to explore both the scientific and real-world implications of different plausible futures.

There are several GCM models available on the IPCC website. Depending upon the study area, a particular RCP scenario can be chosen. Any GCM model can be adopted for the study. It is good to choose several GCM model for the study to get a better forecast band.

## 2.4.2 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs)

The Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) is the latest generation of scenarios that provide input to climate models. The word 'representative' signifies that each RCP provides only one of many possible scenarios that would lead to the specific radiative forcing pathway. Radiative forcing is a measure of the additional energy taken up by the Earth system due to an increase in climate change pollution. Studies show that the radiative forces are bound to increase in the future even with the current rate of carbon emission. Fig. 2.4 shows the different representative concentration pathways and the radiative forces at which these scenarios will stabilize with the rate of sustainable consumptions and production (SCP) rate.

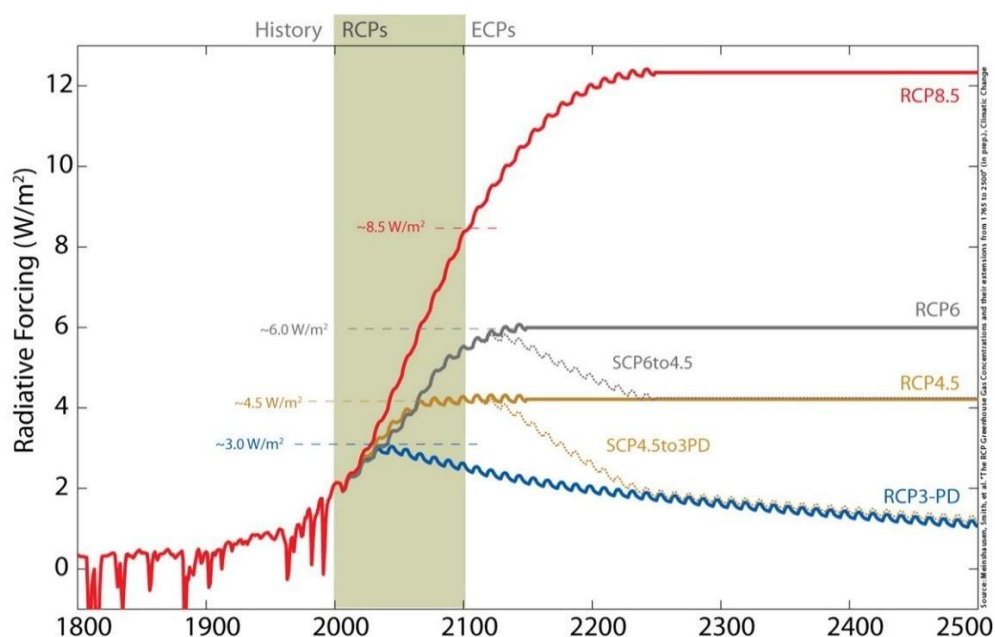


Fig. 2.4 Radiative forcing for different climate scenarios

RCPs are four greenhouse gas concentration (not emissions) trajectories adopted by the IPCC for its fifth Assessment Report (AR5) in 2014. It supersedes Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES) projections published in 2000. The pathways describe four possible climate futures, all of which are considered possible depending on how much greenhouse gases are emitted in the years to come. The four RCPs RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6, and RCP8.5 are named after a possible range of radiative forcing values in the year 2100 relative to pre-industrial values. For RCP2.6, the radiative forcing first reaches a value around 3.1 W/m mid-century, returning to 2.6 W/m<sup>2</sup> by 2100. Under this scenario greenhouse, gas emissions and

emissions of air pollutants are reduced substantially over time. RCP4.5 is a stabilization scenario where total radiative forcing is stabilized before 2100 by employing a range of technologies and strategies for reducing greenhouse gas emissions. RCP6 is again a stabilization scenario where total radiative forcing is stabilized after 2100 without overshoot by employing a range of technologies and strategies for reducing greenhouse gas emissions. RCP8.5 is characterized by increasing greenhouse gas emissions over time representative of scenarios in the literature leading to high greenhouse gas concentration levels.

### 2.4.3 Downscaling GCM

There occurs a general mismatch between the spatial resolution of output from global climate models and the scale of interest in regional assessments of climate change impacts. To overcome the problem, various downscaling techniques were developed to bridge the resolution gap. These downscaling methods are used to obtain local scale weather and climate. In statistical downscaling, a range of techniques has been proposed to model the relationship between predictors and the predictand. They include multiple regression models. Regression-based downscaling methods rely on empirical relationships between local-scale predictand and regional-scale predictor(s).

Any information that is presented at spatial scales finer than 100 km x 100 km and temporal scales finer than monthly values have undergone a process called downscaling.

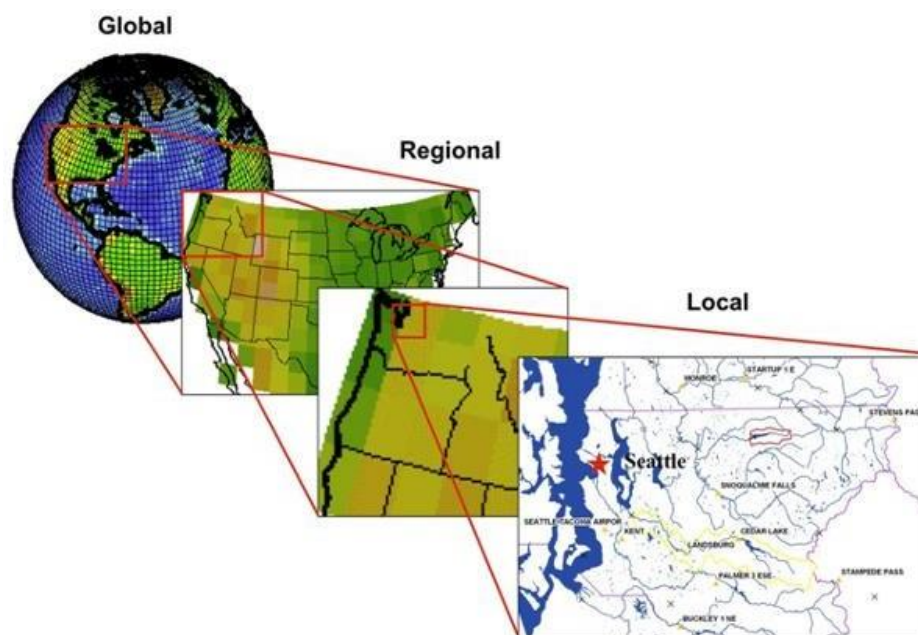


Fig. 2.5 Downscaling Global Climate Model

Downscaling is based on the assumption that the local climate is a combination of large-scale atmospheric and local conditions. It can be applied either spatially or temporally or both. Broadly, there are two methods of downscaling, Dynamical downscaling and Statistical downscaling. Dynamic downscaling is computationally intensive and requires large data. Statistical downscaling establishes a statistical relationship between large-scale climate features and local climate characteristics. Statistical methods are easy to implement and interpret. There are different techniques available for downscaling depending on the purpose.

In statistical downscaling empirical relationships between historical large-scale atmospheric and local climate characteristics is established. The basic assumptions in this method are as follow:

- Statistical relationship between the predictor and predictand does not change over time.
- A strong relationship exists between the predictor and predictand.
- GCMs can accurately simulate the predictor.

Statistical downscaling can be Methods can be classified into three main categories, i.e., linear methods, weather classifications, and weather generators. In the present study, a linear method is applied as this method is suitable for the downscaling of data on a monthly scale. In the linear method, change factor method is used.

The various predictor variables for stations is obtained from different GCM models. Using different models, data for various variables for both historical as well as future scenarios are obtained for all the different scenarios RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0 and RCP 8.5.

## Change factor Method (CFM)

CFM is widely applicable and used in impact analysis studies. CFM is categorized by its mathematical formulation (additive or multiplicative) out of which multiplicative change factor is used for rainfall prediction. The ratio between future and current GCM simulations is calculated and multiplied to the observed values to obtain local scaled future values. This method assumes that the GCM produces a reasonable estimate of the relative change in the value of a variable, and is typically used for precipitation. The mean values of GCM simulated baseline (current GCM simulation) and future climates are estimated.

$$GCMb_{mean} = \sum_{i=1}^{Nb} \frac{GCMb_i}{Nb} \quad (2.1)$$

$$GCMf_{mean} = \sum_{i=1}^{Nf} \frac{GCMf_i}{Nf} \quad (2.2)$$

Where  $GCM_b$  and  $GCM_f$  represent the values from the GCM baseline and GCM future climate scenario respectively for a temporal domain (20 years).  $N_b$  and  $N_f$  are the number of values in the temporal domain of the GCM baseline and GCM future scenario.

Multiplicative change factor ( $CF_{mul}$ ) is given by Eq. 2.3,

$$CF_{mul} = \frac{GCMf_{mean}}{GCMb_{mean}} \quad (2.3)$$

The local scaled future values can be computed as follow,

$$LSf_i = LOb_i * CF_{mul} \quad (2.4)$$

Where  $LOb_i$  represents the observed values of the variable.

## 2.5 Runoff Generation Using SCS CN Method

The SCS curve number method, an event-based model, chosen from empirical studies have been used for small agricultural watershed management [SCS, 1985]. It estimates excess precipitation as a function of cumulative precipitation, soil cover, land use, etc. This method is based on the assumption of a direct relationship between precipitation and storage.

$$\frac{F}{S} = \frac{Q}{P - I_a} \quad (2.5)$$

Where,  $F$  = Actual retention,  $S$  = Potential retention,  $Q$  = Actual runoff,  $P$  = Precipitation,  $I_a$  = Initial abstraction. The basic equations to calculate  $S$  and  $I_a$  are

$$S = \frac{1000}{CN} - 10 \quad (2.6)$$

$$I_a = 0.2S \quad (2.7)$$

The final equation for runoff calculation is

$$Q = \frac{(P - 0.2S)^2}{P + 0.8S} \quad (2.8)$$

The only parameter needed is curved number which can be obtained directly from SCS (Soil Conservation Service) developed by USDA Natural Resource Conservation Service or can be computed for areas having composite geology.

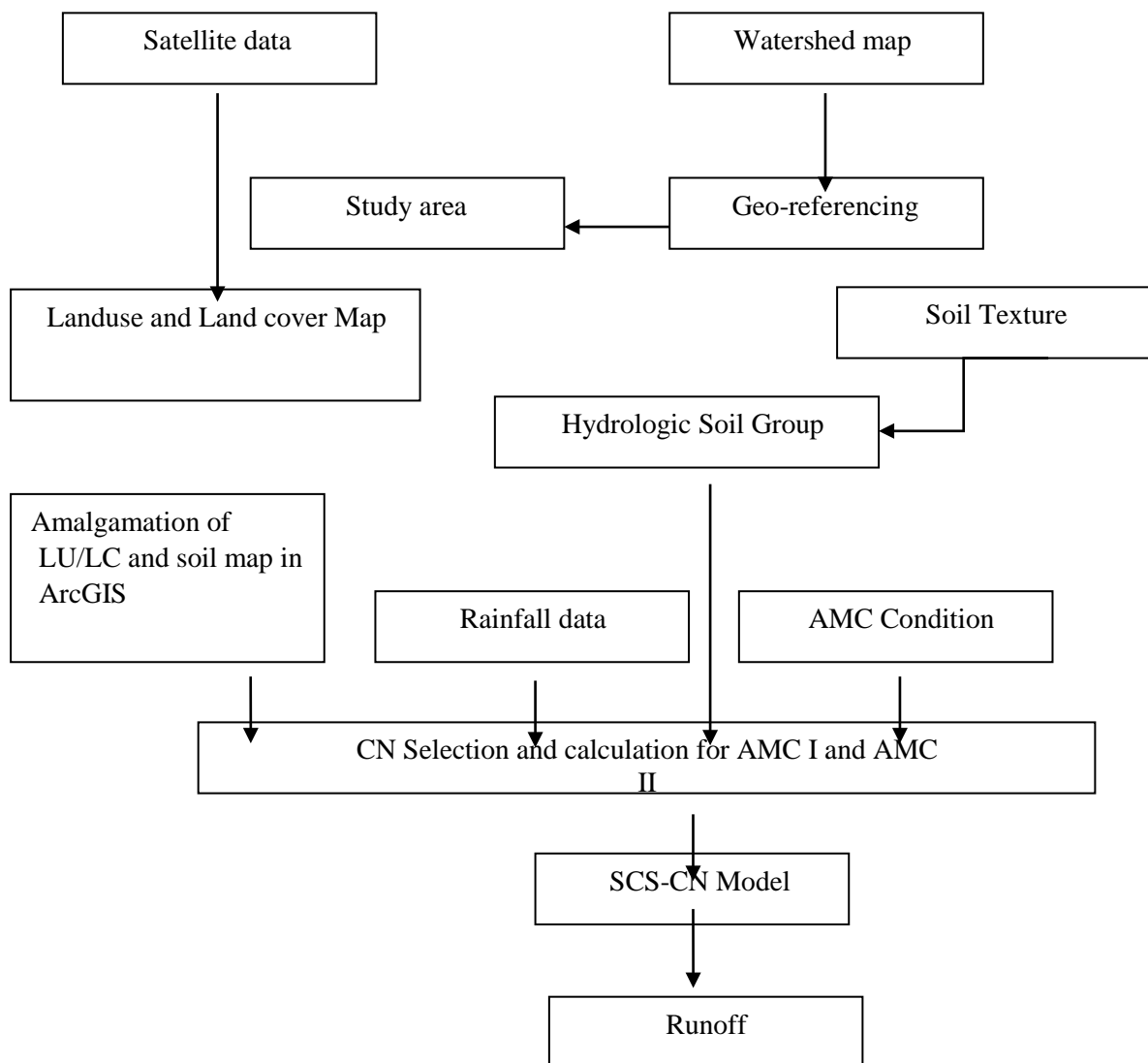


Fig. 2.6 Flow chart for SCS-CN Method

## Curve Number and Impervious Areas

The selection of suitable curve number depends on land use and soil cover of that area. Composite curve number can also be computed manually using equations which deals individually with impervious surface, soil and land type. According to Hydrologic soil groups, clay loam comes under Group C and Loamy sand comes under Group A and loam comes under Group B. Table 2.1 provides the selection of curve number and percent impervious for the basin.

Table 2.1 Selection of curve number and average % impervious

Land use type	Average impervious (%)	Hydrologic soil group			
		A	B	C	D
Agriculture	5	67	77	83	87
Barren land	5	39	61	74	80
Residential (Plot size 0.1 - 0.4 ha)	30	57	72	81	86
Residential (Plot size >0.4 ha)	15	48	66	78	83
Vegetation – Woods (Thin cover)	5	43	65	76	76
Water body	100	100	100	100	100

## Initial abstraction

The definition of initial abstraction in the NRCS Runoff Curve Number method follows from the method's original development as "For a given storm depth  $P$  and runoff curve number  $CN$ , the initial abstraction  $I_a$  is the fraction of the storm depth after which runoff begins, regardless of the storm duration. Initial loss can be computed from equation 3.3.

## 2.6 Runoff Generation Using Empirical Formula

There are several empirical formulas available for runoff estimation. SCS curve number method works well under all conditions provided all the necessary data required is available. Under such condition where daily rainfall data is not available any empirical equation with proper analysis can be used to estimate runoff generation from a catchment.

### 2.6.1 Inglis and Desouza Formula

Based on careful stream gauging in 53 sites in Western India, Inglis and DeSouza (1929) evolved two regional formulae, between Runoff  $R$  in mm and Rainfall  $P$  in mm as follows:

For Ghat regions of western India usually Highlands

$$R = (0.85 \times P) - 30.5 \quad (2.9)$$

For Deccan plateau usually Plain areas

$$R = P(P - 17.8)/254 \quad (2.10)$$

Where R is the runoff in mm and P is rainfall in mm

## 2.6.2 Indian Irrigation Department

Indian Irrigation Department uses the following equation between Rainfall and Runoff

$$R = P - (1.17 \times P^{0.86}) \quad (2.11)$$

Where R is the runoff in mm and P is rainfall in mm

## 2.7 HEC HMS Hydrologic Modelling

Watershed can be sub divided into sub watershed for modeling purpose at our convenience so that the parameters representing the entire watershed can be approximated to be homogenous. However, the size of a sub watershed affects the homogeneity assumption because larger sub-basins are more likely to have variable conditions than the smaller one. Mainly three elements constitute the basin model, namely Sub-basin, Junction and Reach.

### 2.7.1 Reach Characteristics

A reach performs an independent hydrograph routing through an open channel, natural streams, etc. Routing accounts for changes in flow hydrograph as a flood wave pass the downstream. This helps in accounting for storages and studying the attenuation of peak discharge.

Method of selection of routing techniques is based on input data available for the watershed. Table 2.2 provides guidelines for the routing selection procedure. Fing

Muskingum method is selected for routing. The two parameters namely x and K parameters are evaluated theoretically where x is constant coefficient, and K is the time of the passing of a wave in reach length. For natural stream, X value is 0.1 to 0.3, average of 0.2 [KishorChoudhari, 2014].

Precipitation data plays an important role as an input. Precipitation for each sub-basin is calculated by Thiessen Polygon method. It is an interpolation method which assigns Thiessen weights for precipitation value to calculate average area precipitation. Mean precipitation over a catchment is calculated by equation 3.8.

$$P_{mean} = \sum_i^n P_i \frac{A_i}{A} \quad (2.12)$$

Where,  $P_{mean}$  = mean precipitation over catchment in mm,  $P_i$  = Precipitation in mm,  $A_i$  is the Thiessen area, and  $A$  is the total area.

**Table 2.2 Guidelines for routing method selection**

Model	Criteria
Modified Puls	Backwater influence discharge hydrograph
Lag	The ratio of length of stream to flow velocity less than analysis time step
Muskingum	i. The ratio of length of stream to flow velocity greater than analysis time step ii. The product of 2 times of Muskingum K and X should be less than analysis time step
Muskingum Cunge	i. Known cross-sectional characteristics of stream ii. Non-linear flow
Kinematic	known cross-sectional characteristics of the stream
Straddle Stagger	To obtain composite unit hydrographs at various locations in a basin

### 2.7.2 Running Control Parameter for Simulation

The period of a simulation is controlled by control specifications. Control specifications include a starting date and time, ending date and time, and a time interval. The model is simulated for some time of 28 years from 01 Jun 1967 to 31 May 1997 for one-day interval. A simulation run is created by combining a basin model, meteorological model, and control specifications. The basin model represents physical watershed. In this study, the basin model was developed in HEC-GeoHMS which was imported into the HEC-HMS. The meteorological model calculates the precipitation input required by a sub-basin element. Time series data from precipitation gauges was taken into the model.

However, two similar storm events were selected for validation of the model. One day time step for rainfall was chosen for calibration, validation, and simulation of the model. SCS

Curve Number method was used to calculate losses, SCS unit hydrograph method was used to determine transformation and Recession method was used to account for base flow in the model.

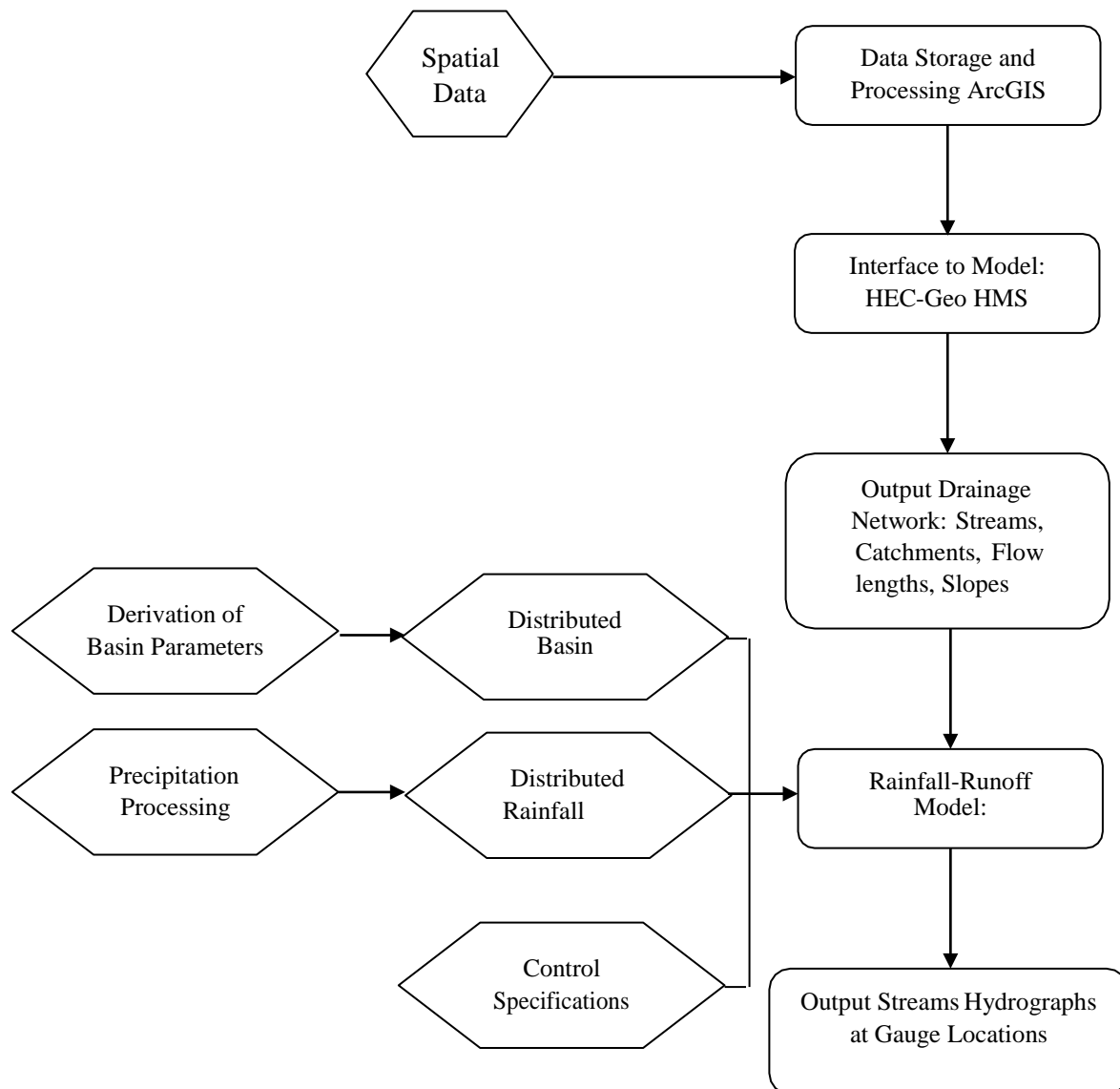


Fig. 2.7 Flow chart for HEC HMS Modelling

## 2.8 Urban Heat Island

An urban area is said to be an urban heat island (UHI) if it is found significantly warmer than its surrounding areas. The assessment of urban heat island is mainly based on region. The temperature variation over the different months was used to assess the urban heat island. The urban heat island effect is also linked to the characteristic land use within a

city/urban area as such. Land surface temperature, as defined by Barun refers to the temperature measured in the air close (1 m) to the earth surface in an open area rather at a higher level at which recorded temperature by weather stations. If a city has a good network of weather stations for every land use type, UHI can be directly measured. However, for most of the cities, the measurement of temperature in a spatial network is not available. Therefore, UHI is determined by processing thermal remote sensing image for each of the cities using GIS.

The study employed to generate the Land Surface Temperature (LST) maps from Landsat satellites thermal infrared with 100 m and 120 m spatial resolution. Higher LST is seen in areas with less vegetated land use and land cover (LULC) and vice versa. LST and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) have widely been accepted as reliable indicators of UHI and vegetation abundance respectively.

Quality of urban life and energy cost are mainly affected by Urban Heat Island. With each degree temperature, the power used for air conditioning is enhanced. The level of atmospheric temperature gets elevated due to the subsequent increased use of electricity for cooling. The earth's rising temperature is the hot issue today in the world since the industrial revolution the temperature of the planet has been increased.

The very low value of NDVI (0.1 and below) corresponds to the barren area of rock, sand or snow. Moderate values of NDVI represent shrub and grassland (0.2 to 0.3), while large values of NDVI (>0.3) indicate temperate and tropical rainforests. From the LST images, it is clearly understood that surface temperature is more in an urban area compared to rural areas. It is necessary to estimate the urban heat island so that planning of remedial measures like planting trees, the revival of water bodies, etc. can be suggested and implemented.

The study analyses and verifies the spatial pattern of surface temperature with urban spatial information related to land use/land cover and NDVI using remotely sensed data and GIS. The various steps involved in the assessment of urban heat island are as follows:

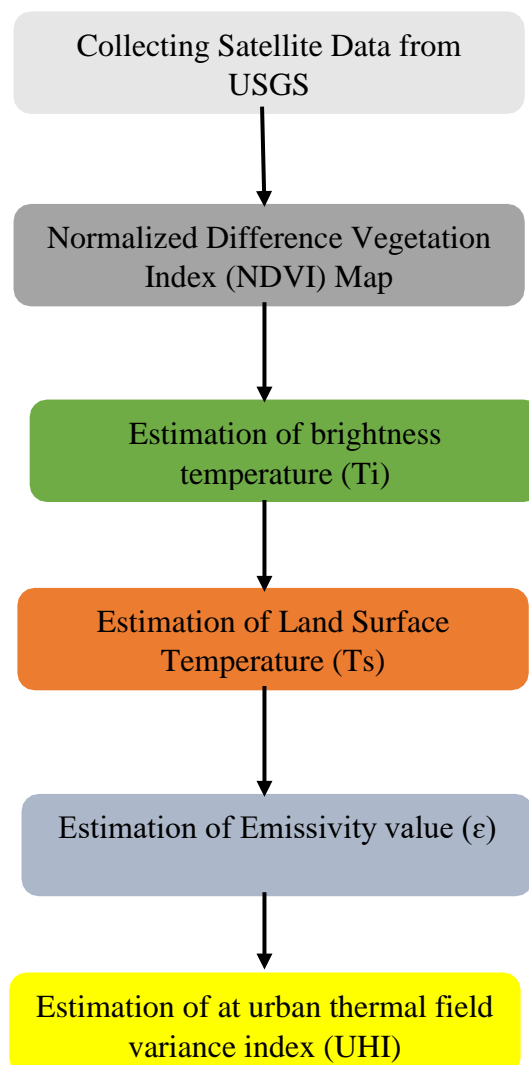
- 1) To determine the NDVI value
- 2) To determine the Brightness temperature
- 3) To determine the Land Surface Temperature

- 4) To estimate the urban heat Island Effect using remote sensing data of temperature map and emissivity map

### 2.8.1 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)

The derivation of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is a standard procedure and has already been enlightened in the literature. Because the mean of land, water, forest, and other things are all reduces from band4 to band5 on the TM and ETM+ images. NDVI maps using Landsat 8 satellite images downloaded from USGS site. The study adopted this standard mathematical formula for NDVI as below.

$$NDVI = \frac{TM5 - TM4}{TM5 + TM4} \quad (2.13)$$



Where TM5- Band 5 Satellite Data; TM4- Band 4 Satellite Data; NDVI- Normalized Difference Vegetation Index. Fig. 2.8 shows a flow chart for the estimation of urban heat island index.

Fig. 2.8 Flowchart for estimation of UHI Index

## 2.8.2 Brightness Temperature ( $T_i$ )

The temperature detected by the remote sensor is the radiation temperature of the urban surface features (brightness temperature), this radiation temperature is the average surface radiation temperature which takes the pixel as a unit and considers the features as black bold without the atmospheric correction. It can express the urban temperature field. If the study area is small and the image quality is good, brightness temperature can be directly used to compare and analyze; this method is convenient, simple and easy. Thermal band of TM and ETM+ are used to retrieve brightness temperature, band10 is the thermal band for the TM and ETM+ data. First, formula (2) is used ETM+ uses the formula (2) to turn the DN values into radiation temperature and then formula (3) is used to turn the radiation temperature into brightness temperature.

where,  $L_\lambda$  = TOA spectral radiance (Watts/(  $m^2.srad.\mu m$ ));  $M_c$  = Band-specific multiplicative

$$L_\lambda = M_c Q_{cal} + A_L \quad (2.14)$$

rescaling factor from the metadata;  $A_L$  = Band-specific additive rescaling factor from the metadata; and  $Q_{cal}$  = Quantized and calibrated standard product pixel values (DN)

The spectral radiance of thermal infrared bands was converted into active radiance at sensor brightness temperature (the temperature values of a black body) using Planck's function equation as follows:

$$T_i = \frac{K_2}{\ln\left(\frac{K_1}{L_\lambda}\right) + 1} - 272.15 \quad (2.15)$$

In Landsat 8, the bands 10 and 11 are used to determine the brightness temperature, respectively; equations were simplified to the following form and used to convert Landsat data where constant parameter value used for band 10 and band 11 the  $\lambda$  value for band 10 is 10.6  $\mu m$ , and band 11 is 11.3  $\mu m$  for respectively); and  $L_\lambda$  is spectral radiance, where  $K_2$  represents the calibration constant 2 is 1321.08 in Kelvin;  $K_1$  is the calibration constant 1 is 774.89 in W/ ( $m^2.sr.mm$ ).

Mean-Standard Deviation Method for average temperature is an ideal method for temperature grade classification (Songlin and WANG, 2009). Classify urban brightness temperature into the low-temperature area, secondary low-temperature area, medium temperature, secondary high-temperature area, and high-temperature area. The basic

principle of using Mean-Standard Deviation Method for temperature classification is shown in Table 2.3

**Table 2.3 Heat island temperature classification using mean-standard deviation method**

Temperature Classification	Interval of Temperature Classification
High-temperature area	$T_s > \mu + \text{std}$
Secondary high-temperature area	$\mu + 0.5\text{std} < T_s \leq \mu + \text{std}$
Medium temperature area	$\mu - 0.5\text{std} \leq T_s \leq \mu + 0.5\text{std}$
Secondary low temperature area	$\mu - \text{std} \leq T_s < \mu - 0.5\text{std}$
Low-temperature area	$T_s < \mu - \text{std}$

### 2.8.3 Land Surface Temperature ( $T_s$ )

The LST data is derived from the thermal infrared (TIR) Band 10 of brightness temperature. The satellite thermal infrared sensors measure Top of the Atmosphere (TOA) radiances, from which brightness temperature (known as blackbody temperatures) can be derived based on Plank's law. The TOA radiances are the result of mixing three parts of energy. The first is the emitted radiance from the earth's surface, the second is the upwelling radiance from the atmosphere, and the third is the downscaling radiance from the sky. The difference between TOA and land surface brightness temperature is subject to the influence of atmospheric conditions. Therefore, to obtain an actual land surface brightness temperature, atmospheric effects, including upward absorption-emission and downward irradiance reflected from the surface, should be corrected first. This correction is done by calculating spectral emissivity ( $\epsilon$ ), (Weng and Larson, 2005; Al Kuwari et al., 2016; Van and Bao, 2010). LSTs were obtained by recovering satellite temperature  $T_i$  by applying the correction for emissivity.

Emissivity as a function of wavelength is controlled by several environmental factors such as surface water content, chemical composition, structure, and roughness. For vegetated areas, emissivity varies significantly with plant species, areal densities, and growth rates. Land surface emissivity is closely related to. Therefore, the emissivity can be estimated from NDVI as shown in Table 2.4 (Liu and Zhang, 2011). The emissivity-corrected land surface temperature can be obtained using the following equation

$$T_s = \frac{T_i}{1 + \left( \lambda \frac{T_i}{\rho} \right) \ln \epsilon} \quad (2.16)$$

where  $T_s$  represents land surface temperature;  $T_i$  indicates sensor brightness temperature in Kelvin,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the emitted radiance;  $e$  is the land surface spectral emissivity, and  $p$  is the Plank's constant =  $1.438 \times 10^{-2} \text{mk}$ .

**Table 2.4 NDVI values and its corresponding values of Land-surface spectral emissivity**

NDVI	Land surface Emissivity(e)
NDVI<-0.185	0.995
-0.185≤NDVI<0.157	0.970
0.157≤NDVI≤0.727	$1.0094+0.047\ln(\text{NDVI})$
NDVI>0.727	0.990

#### 2.8.4 LST Normalization Urban Heat Island (UHI)

Finally, the effect of UHI, at district level taking into consideration socio-economic parameter, can be quantitatively described using urban thermal field variance index (UTFVI) given by (Liu and Zhang, 2011; Zhang, 2006):

$$UTFVI = \frac{T_s - T_m}{T_s} \quad (2.17)$$

where  $T_s$  is the land surface temperature,  $T_m$  is the mean of the land surface temperature of the study area. UTFVI is divided into six levels by six different ecological evaluation indices (Liu and Zhang, 2011; Zhang, 2006). Thresholds in the six UTFVI levels are shown in Table 2.5

**Table 2.5 Threshold values of urban thermal field variance index**

Urban Heat Island Phenomena	Urban thermal field variance index
Very Weak	<0
Weak	0 – 0.005
Medium	0.005 – 0.01
Strong	0.01 -0.015
Stronger	0.015 – 0.2
Strongest	>0.2

## **2.9 Sustainable Management Plan and Wastewater Reuse**

Once an overall estimate of total water available is done, then the only a proper plan can be made. These management plans include management of demand side as well as on the supply side. In demand side, another requirement like irrigation, etc. can be optimized. While on the supply side, a lot of works can be done which include, groundwater recharge, modification of storage structures, rainwater harvesting, etc. Wastewater reuse is another good option to be adopted. These wastewater even when it is partially treated can be used for irrigation purpose. There is a wide scope in wastewater uses.

## Chapter 4

# CLIMATE CHANGE MODELLING

### 4.1 General

The GCM models developed by IPCC were used for the prediction of climate variables. Depending upon the geographical coordinates of the study area, the historical (from 1970 to 1999) and projected (from 2020 to 2079) data for all the RCP scenarios were extracted from the nearest GCM location to the study area. A total of 7 GCM models were used. These models were selected from a total of 56 models on the condition, that it has variables of same realizations.

Presently there are as many as 56 models available under IPCC based on the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5). And almost 30 different institutions is involved in the development of these models. In AR5, the simulation is done for the historical data and four different future scenarios, i.e. RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0 and RCP 8.5. These models are developed for almost all the climate and hydrological variable. Out of the 56 different models, presently only 21 models have future scenarios for all the RCPs condition. In fact, these 21 models also have a future scenario for a limited number of variables. In the present study, five variable is considered, rainfall, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, Following models have been used in the study:

- [BCC CSM 1.1 M](#) (Beijing Climate Centre, China)
- [BCC CSM 1.1](#) (Beijing Climate Centre, China)
- [FIO ESM](#) (The First Institute of Oceanography, SOA China)
- [MIROC ESM CHEM](#) (Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Japan)
- [NCAR CESM 1 \(CAM5\)](#) (National Center for Atmospheric Research, USA)
- [NCC NOR ESM1 -M](#) (Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research, , Norway)
- [NIMR KMO KadGEM2 A0](#) (National Institute of Meteorological Research, Korea Meteorological Administration, South Korea)

## 4.2 Procedure

The methodology consists of five steps:

### Step 1. Data filling and error checking

The meteorological data obtained from IMD was first checked of any data error and missing data. These values were filled based on temporal interpolation and statistical properties

### Step 2. Trend analysis

Once a time series is obtained, trend analysis was done on a monthly basis using Student t-test. Three variables were considered: monthly rainfall, monthly maximum temperature, and Monthly minimum temperature. The null hypothesis is, the slope of the trend is 0, and, i.e. there is no net change in the pattern.

### Step 3. GCM downscaling

For downscaling the GCM variable, change factor method has been used. In this approach, for rainfall, multiplicative change factor is used, and for temperature, the additive change factor has been used. These change factors recalculated based on the change in the mean monthly value of the variable.

### Step 4. Predictions

Based on the change factor calculated, the projection for the variables was made using the same factor to the historical data of the study area.

### Step 5. Indices

To identify the extreme events, the rainfall of the region is divided into seven categories, i.e. Extreme drought, severe drought, moderate drought, normal rainfall, moderate flood, severe flood, and extreme flood.

The threshold value for this division is based on the deviation of total annual rainfall from the mean, i.e.  $\text{mean} \pm 0.5 \text{ std. dev}$ ,  $\text{mean} \pm \text{std. dev}$  and  $\text{mean} \pm 1.5 \text{ std. dev}$ .

## 4.4 Climate Modelling for Vijayawada (Gannavaram Station)

For Vijayawada, only daily rainfall data is available from 1967 to 1997. Climate change projection is done for all the RCPs using all the seven models. For temperature, only the change is evaluated for the future scenario,

### 4.4.1 Trend

## Analysis

### Monthly

### rainfall

Fig. 4.8 shows the variation of monthly rainfall.

Mean annual rainfall: 906.3 mm

Standard deviation: 236.1 mm

Linear regression,

$$y(t) = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}t + \varepsilon(t)$$

$\alpha = 71.75$ ;  $\beta = 0.02$  (Slope of

line) Null Hypothesis:

$\beta = 0$ , i.e. Mean of the annual rainfall remains same

Using Student-t-test, (for a significance level of 0.05%)

$$T\_score = 0.42 < T\_critical = 1.96$$

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted. So, the change in the mean annual rainfall is statistically significant.

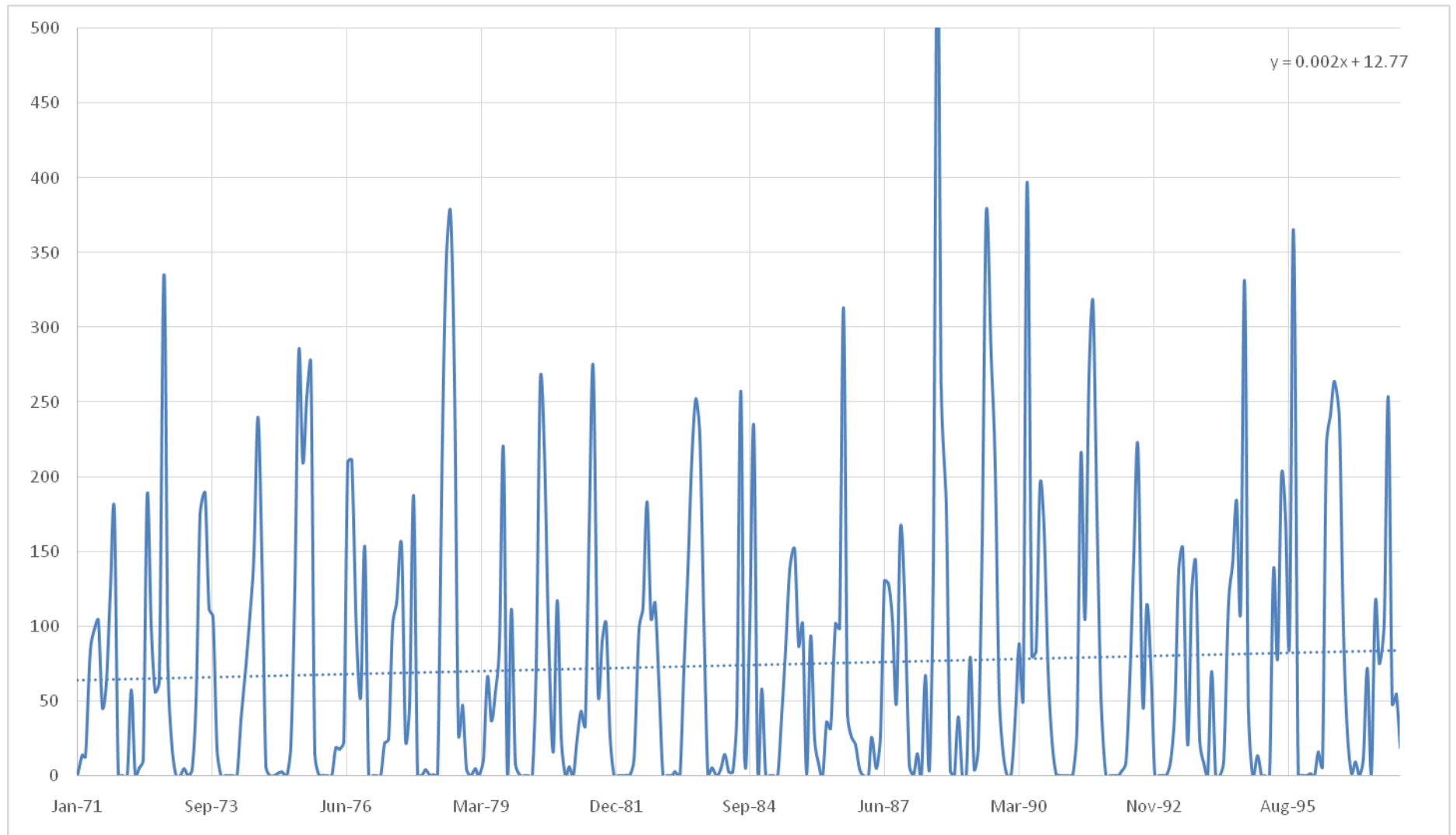


Fig. 4.8 Trend of monthly rainfall for Vijayawada

## 4.4.2 GCM Projections

GCM projection for rainfall, maximum temperature, and minimum temperature was done for all the RCP scenarios, taking into account all the 7 GCM models.

## RCP 2.6

### Projection for Rainfall

The projection shows that annual average rainfall in the next 58 years is going to decrease on an average by 40mm. In the last 29 year, the mean annual rainfall was around 900 mm. Fig. 4.9 shows a projection of annual rainfall for the RCP 2.6 scenario. Considering all the experiments, the results show peak rainfalls of 1650 mm in the wet year and low rainfall of 500 mm during the dry year.

Table 4.20 Number of floods and droughts as per RCP 2.6 for Vijayawada

	Global Climate Models						
	NCAR CESM1 (CAM5)	FIOM	NIMR KMO KadGE M2 A0	MIROC ESM CHEM	NCC NOR ESM1 - M	BC C CS M 1.1 M	BC C CS M 1.1
Extreme drought	0	3	0	0	1	12	5
Severe drought	7	22	5	2	11	15	21
Moderate drought	15	10	20	18	14	8	8
Normal	16	13	15	16	16	17	15
Moderate flood	6	6	4	6	6	4	6
Severe flood	5	3	7	6	3	2	1
Extreme flood	9	1	7	10	7	0	2

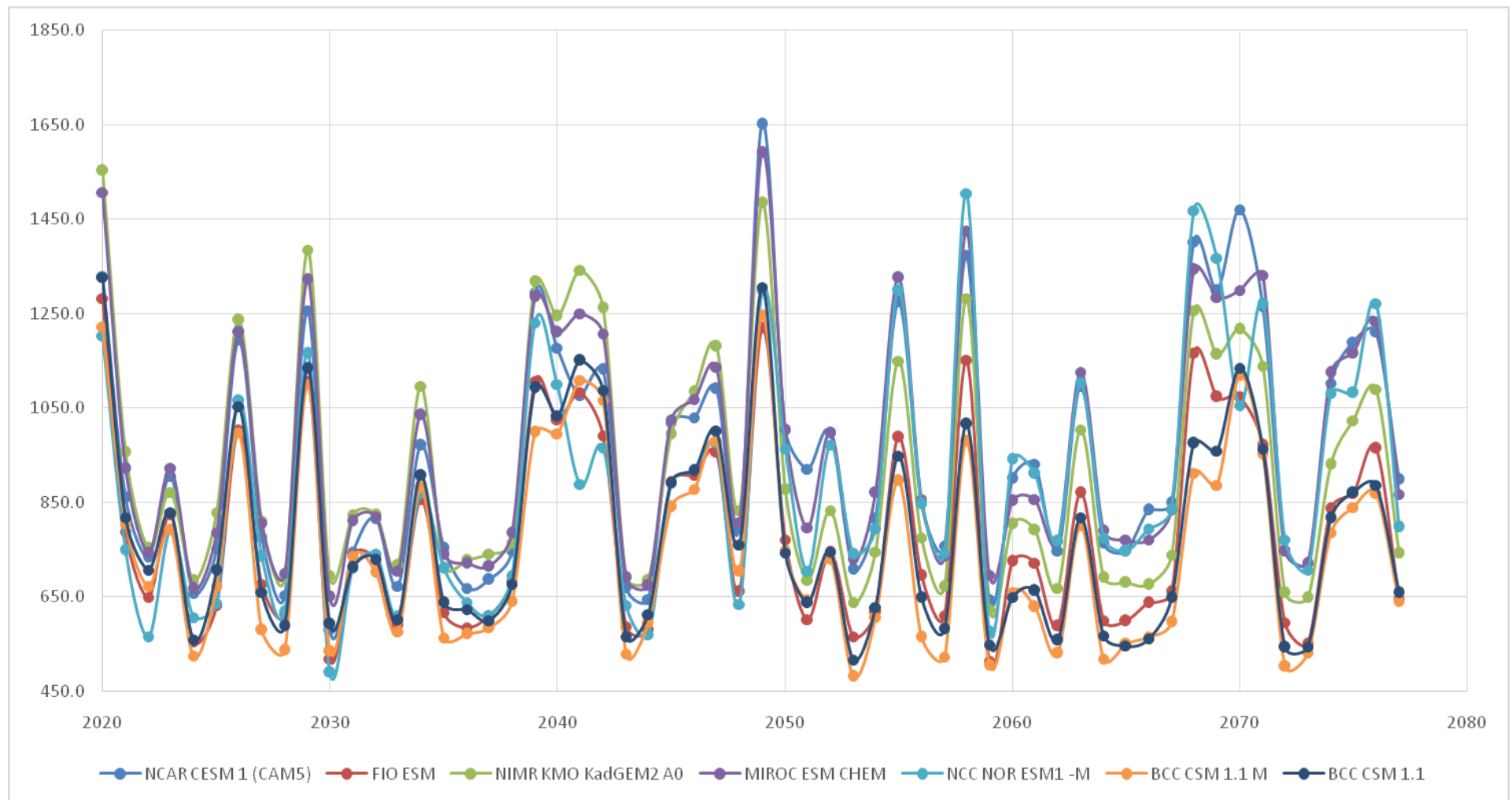


Fig 4.9 Annual rainfall projection for RCP 2.6 scenario for Vijayawada

The projection for flood and droughts are projected based on the historical mean and standard deviation. Table 4.20 shows the number of floods and droughts in the next 58 years. For Vijayawada under RCP 2.6, the first four models are showing a large number of floods while the rest are showing a large number of droughts. But one conclusion can be made that large number (about 25-30) of moderate to severe drought is expected to occur in the near future.

Table 4.21 shows the percentage change in mean monthly rainfall from that of historical rainfall. It can be seen that the rainfall during monsoon is decreasing, though there is little increase in rainfall during the non-monsoon period. In the later 30 years, all months are showing decreasing rainfall, except for April where is hardly receive rain.

## Projection for Maximum Temperature

Table 4.22 shows the increase in monthly maximum temperature for the RCP 2.6 scenario. Out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $1.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and rises to  $1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the future.

## Projection for Minimum Temperature

Table 4.23 shows the increase in monthly minimum temperature for the RCP 2.6 scenario. Here also, out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and rises to  $1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the minimum temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

## RCP 4.5

### Projection of rainfall

Fig. 4.10 shows annual rainfall projection for RCP 4.5 for all the seven models. The projection shows that the annual average rainfall in the next 60 years is going to decrease by about 50mm. Though MIROC ESM CHEM shows a very high annual average rainfall of 1022 mm but rests all models are shows fewer values. The figure shows 8-10 peaks of high annual rainfall of 1500mm and more. During the dry year, the rainfall may go as low as 450 mm.



	Nov	2.2	-7.1	8.4	16.2	-4.5	-24.9	8.1	-0.2
	Dec	-8.3	-13.5	-3.7	16.2	-15.0	-14.1	-29.3	-9.7



	Dec	1.4	0.9	0.6	1.2	1.2	0.6	0.6	0.9
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	Nov	1.8	0.7	0.8	1.2	2.0	1.0	0.9	1.2
	Dec	2.3	0.8	0.8	1.1	2.0	1.0	0.8	1.2

Table 4.24 Number of floods and droughts as per RCP 4.5 for Vijayawada

	Global Climate Models						
	NCA R CESM 1 (CAM5 )	FI O ES M	NIMR KMO KadGE M2 A0	MIRO C ESM CHE M	NCC NOR ESM1 - M	BC C CS M 1.1 M	BC C CS M 1.1
Extreme drought	4	6	0	0	0	21	2
Severe drought	13	10	9	1	12	12	18
Moderate drought	10	15	18	11	17	11	13
Normal	17	14	13	22	11	12	14
Moderate flood	4	4	7	5	9	1	7
Severe flood	5	6	7	6	4	1	2
Extreme flood	5	3	4	13	5	0	2

Table 4.24 shows a projection of some floods and droughts. These projections are made based on the historical mean and standard deviation. As per the prediction, the city has a high risk of frequent (about 20-25) moderate to severe droughts in the next 58 years with a magnitude of 450 mm or less. During the dry year, the rainfall is expected to decrease by the  $\frac{1}{4}$  amount of any past driest year. A number of the extreme floods are also on the rise with the much higher magnitude to 1600 mm or more.

Table 4.25 shows the percentage change in mean monthly rainfall for that of historical rainfall. The rainfall is showing a significant increase in January to May, but a fair amount is decreasing in the monsoon period. This also shows that in the future the city will receive more rainfall during the non-monsoon period than that in monsoon. As per the average projection, January, June, and November have the highest decrease in rainfall of around 10%.

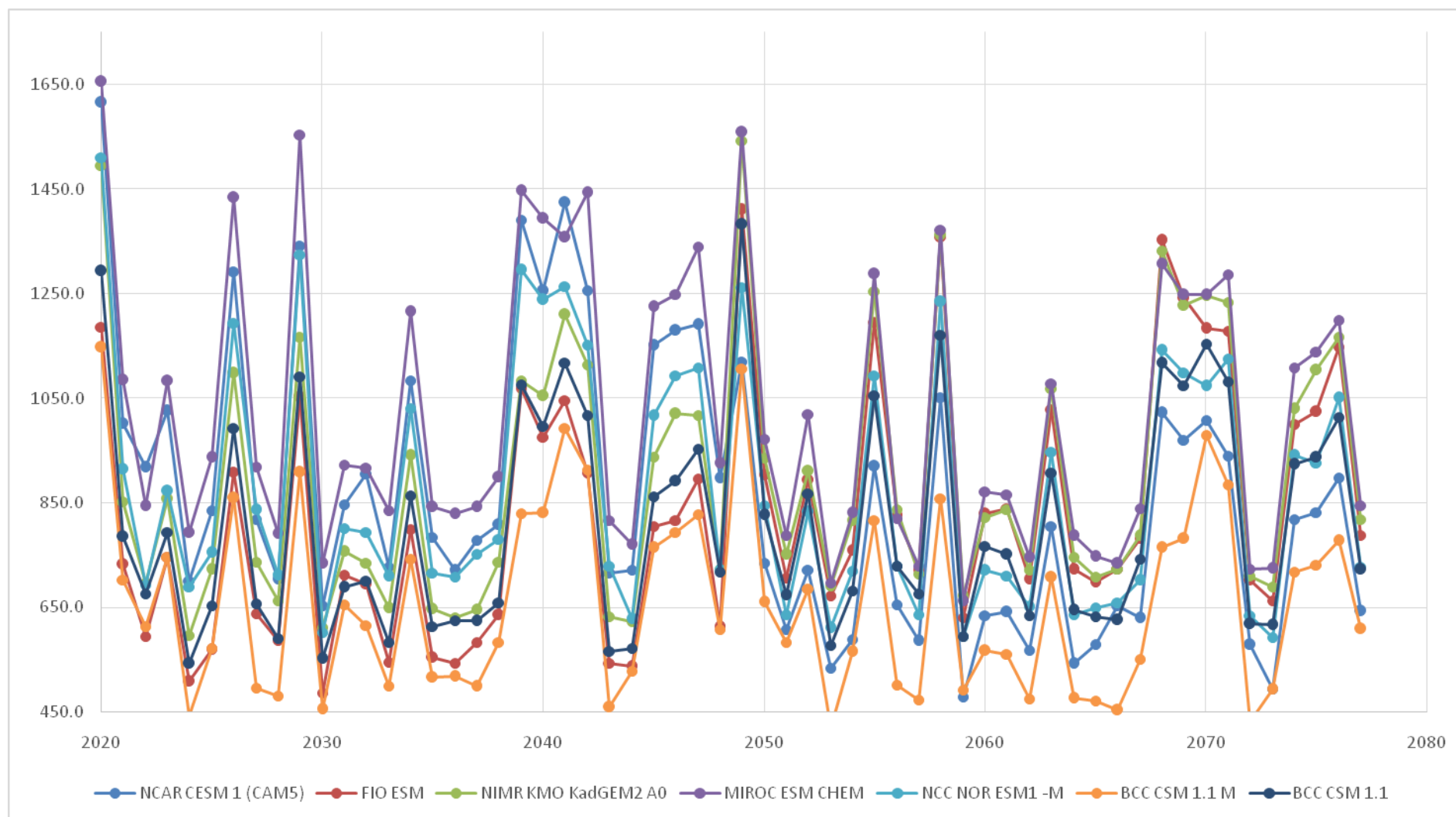


Fig 4.10 Annual rainfall projection for RCP 4.5 scenario for Vijayawada



	Nov	-9.9	19.1	16.8	18.5	5.4	-14.6	29.2	9.2
	Dec	3.1	-3.8	-14.9	14.1	4.4	-29.5	2.8	-3.4

## Projection for Maximum Temperature

Table 4.26 shows the increase in monthly maximum temperature for RCP 4.5 scenario. Out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is about  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  to in the first 30 years and rises to  $1.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $1.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by about  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and by  $1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.

## Projection for Minimum Temperature

Table 4.27 shows the increase in monthly minimum temperature for the RCP4.5 scenario. Here also, out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $1.4^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and rises to  $2.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and by  $1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.



	Nov	2.6	1.1	1.5	1.7	2.3	1.3	1.3	1.7
	Dec	2.7	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.2	1.1	1.6



	Nov	2.1	1.1	1.5	1.7	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.6
	Dec	2.2	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.5

## RCP 6.0

### Projection of Rainfall

This scenario also shows almost no change in mean annual rainfall. NIMR KMO KadGEM2 A0 predicts a very high annual rainfall of 1043 mm. Annual rainfall projection for RCP 6.0 scenario is given in Fig. 4.11. The figure shows that 7 to 8 peaks in the annual rainfall and 10- 15 severe droughts. The maximum rainfall as per RCP 6.0 scenario, may go to 1700 mm. For drought year, the annual rainfall will go as low as 450 mm.

Table 4.28 shows Number of floods and droughts estimated from the predicted value as per RCP 6.0. These projections are made based on the historical mean and standard deviation. The above result shows a large number of moderate to severe droughts.

Table 4.28 Number of floods and droughts as per RCP 6.0 for Vijayawada

	Global Climate Models						
	NCA R CESM 1 (CAM5 )	FI O ES M	NIMR KMO KadGEM 2 A0	MIRO C ESM CHEM	NC C NO R ESM1 - M	BC C CS M 1.1 M	BC C CS M 1.1
Extreme drought	0	6	0	0	0	17	9
Severe drought	12	20	9	0	4	16	12
Moderate drought	16	9	18	10	23	10	15
Normal	14	15	12	23	12	10	13
Moderate flood	7	5	5	4	5	4	5
Severe flood	4	2	8	6	10	1	3
Extreme flood	5	1	6	15	4	0	1

Table 4.29 shows the percentage change in mean monthly rainfall from that of historical rainfall. The decrease is maximum for July and November while the increase in maximum in February month. The next 30 years shows a large decrease in rainfall during the monsoon period.

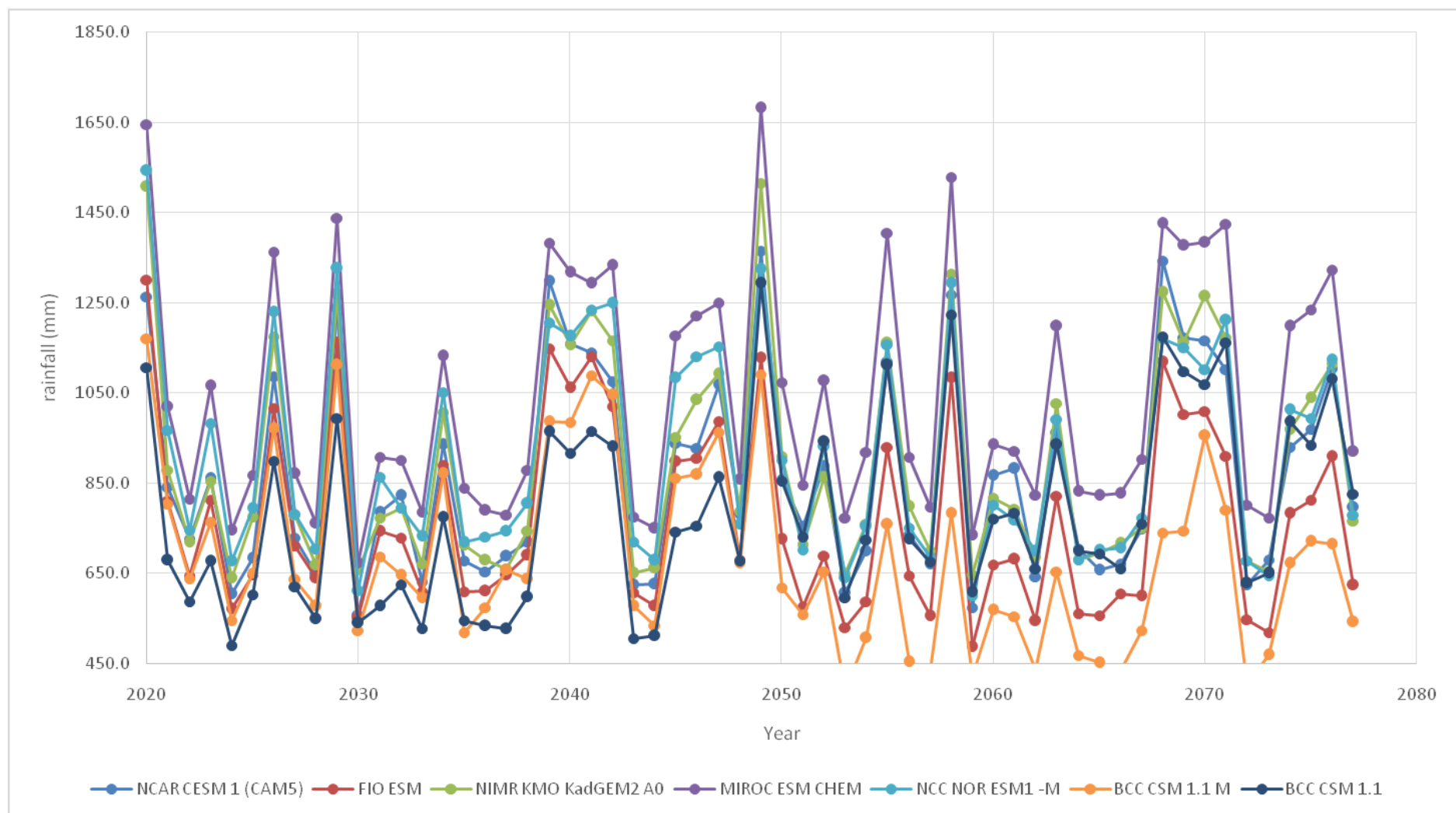


Fig 4.11 Annual rainfall projection for RCP 6.0 scenario for Vijayawada

Table 4.29 Percentage change in monthly rainfall for RCP 6.0 scenario for Vijayawada

Period	Month	Global Climate Models							Mean
		NCA R CESM 1 (CAM5 )	FI O ES M	NIMR KMO KadGE M2 A0	MIRO C ESM CHE M	NCC NOR ESM1 - M	BC C CS M 1.1 M	BC C CS M 1.1	
2020- 2048	Jan	0	-17	20	21	-24	-4	-13	-2
	Feb	44	45	-21	10	-1	10	-25	9
	Mar	28	-4	-14	14	-23	-8	7	0
	Apr	78	2	-2	1	-30	-4	17	9
	May	-22	0	16	-1	10	-9	-27	-5
	Jun	10	-4	-14	9	16	2	-28	-1
	Jul	-2	-13	-4	3	-21	-49	-36	-17
	Aug	-12	-9	-13	13	17	6	-32	-4
	Sep	-9	-19	23	15	-4	-12	4	0
	Oct	-20	-24	-7	31	18	-22	-32	-8
	Nov	-8	7	15	19	4	-20	5	3
	Dec	7	-12	0	17	4	-33	-2	-3
2049- 2078	Jan	0	13	4	13	-34	-7	6	-1
	Feb	4	15	3	12	0	-13	32	8
	Mar	-3	-11	-43	15	8	4	10	-3
	Apr	78	6	-7	1	-13	-10	44	14
	May	-4	-15	26	9	-28	0	-38	-7
	Jun	31	-19	-2	20	21	-12	22	9
	Jul	10	-9	-4	-3	-29	-55	-29	-17
	Aug	-29	-15	4	24	9	-55	-17	-11
	Sep	-8	-25	6	32	4	-26	11	-1
	Oct	-19	-40	-16	23	1	-27	-3	-12

	Nov	-4	-21	15	26	10	-32	20	2
	Dec	-10	-23	-1	23	22	-29	57	6

## Projection for Maximum Temperature

Table 4.30 shows the increase in monthly maximum temperature for RCP 6.0 scenario. Out of the seven models, here also NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $1.9^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and rises to  $2.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and  $1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $1.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.

## Projection for Minimum Temperature

Table 4.31 shows the increase in monthly minimum temperature for RCP 6.0 scenario. Here also, out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is at most of  $1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and rises to  $2.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and  $1.5^{\circ}\text{C} - 1.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.



	Dec	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.2	1	1.2	1.4
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	Dec	2.7	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.6
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## RCP 8.5

### Projection of Rainfall

The projection shows that annual average rainfall in the next 60 years is going to decrease to 830 mm, almost 70 mm less than the historical mean. Table 3.16 shows annual rainfall projection for the RCP 8.5 scenario.

Fig 4.12 shows a graph of annual rainfall projection for 8.5 scenarios. As per RCP 8.5, the peak rainfall of 1500 mm might occur during the wet year. The drought year with rainfall of 450 mm is also frequent.

Table 4.32 Number of floods and droughts as per RCP 8.5 for Vijayawada

	Global Climate Models						
	NCA R CESM 1 (CAM5 )	FI O ES M	NIMR KMO KadGE M2 A0	MIRO C ESM CHE M	NCC NOR ESM1 - M	BC C CS M 1.1 M	BC C CS M 1.1
Extreme drought	0	4	0	0	1	25	4
Severe drought	6	22	10	6	16	9	17
Moderate drought	16	9	19	18	12	9	12
Normal	15	13	12	14	15	12	15
Moderate flood	8	5	6	8	7	2	5
Severe flood	9	4	8	4	5	1	3
Extreme flood	4	1	3	8	2	0	2

Table 4.32 shows a projection of some floods and droughts. RCP 8.5 indicates number of moderate to severe droughts, almost 25-30 drought years. The peak of flood and drought are also higher from that occurred in the past. Table 4.33 shows the percentage change in mean monthly rainfall for that of historical rainfall. The decrease in maximum in July and August month in first 30 years while in the next 30 years, it is maximum in May, July, and August.

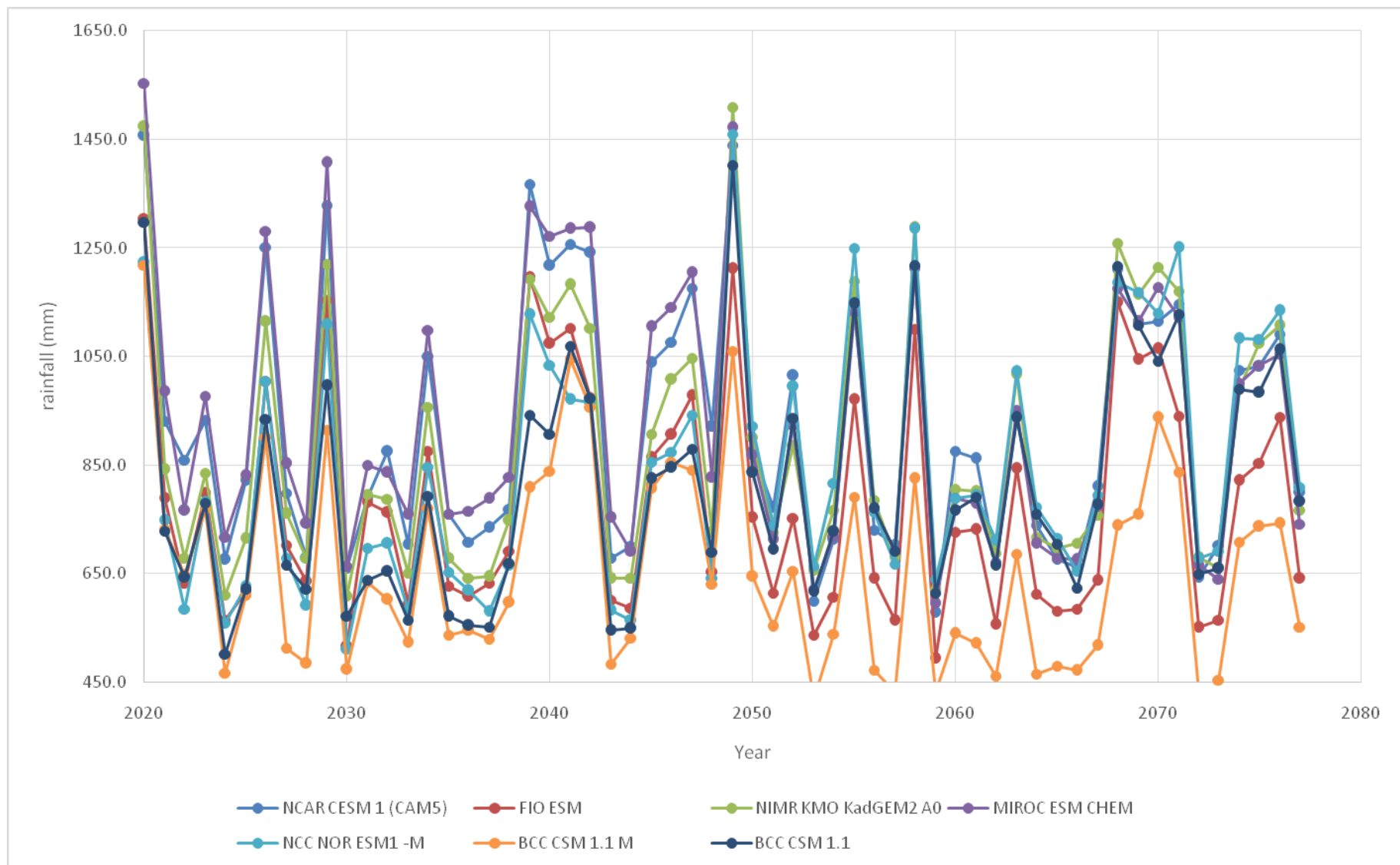


Fig 4.12 Annual rainfall projection for RCP 8.5 scenario for Vijayawada



## Projection for Maximum Temperature

Table 4.34 shows the increase in monthly maximum temperature for RCP 8.5 scenario. Out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $2.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the first 30 years and may rise maximum to  $3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the maximum temperature will rise by  $1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  –  $1.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and  $2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  –  $2.4^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.

## Projection for Minimum Temperature

Table 4.35 shows the increase in monthly minimum temperature for RCP 8.5 scenario. Here also, out of the seven models, NCAR CESM 1 (CAM5) shows the maximum increase which is almost  $1.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  in first 30 years and may rise to a maximum of  $3.9^{\circ}\text{C}$  in next 30 years. BCC CSM 1.1 shows a minimum increase in temperature. Overall the temperature will rise by  $1^{\circ}\text{C}$  –  $1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2020 to 2048 and  $2^{\circ}\text{C}$  –  $2.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  in 2049-2078.





#### 4.4.3 Sum

mary

### Rainfall

Table 4.36 shows the percentage change in monthly rainfall in next 60 years for all RCPs scenarios. As per the projection for all RCP scenarios, the mean annual rainfall for Vijayawada city is likely to decrease by 50-70 mm in the near future. Presently, the mean annual rainfall of Vijayawada is 900 mm. RCP 8.5 predicts the maximum decrease in annual rainfall by 70 mm.

### Maximum Temperature

Table 4.37 shows the increase in monthly maximum temperature for all the RCP scenarios. It is evident that in any case the maximum temperature is bound to rise at least by 1<sup>0</sup>C. From 2020 to 2048, the change in temperature for RCP 2.6 is 0.9<sup>0</sup>C, change in temperature for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 is around 1<sup>0</sup>C-1.2<sup>0</sup>C which will rise to 1.5<sup>0</sup>C in 2050-2079. RCP 8.5 is the extreme case wherein the first 30 years the rise is more than 1<sup>0</sup>C, but in the next 30 years, the rise will be around 2<sup>0</sup>C. For a few months, it may rise by 2. 2<sup>0</sup>C also.

### Minimum Temperature

Table 4.38 shows the increase in monthly minimum temperature for all the RCP scenarios. It is evident that even if RCP 2.6 follows, the minimum temperature will rise by about 0.8<sup>0</sup>C to 0.9<sup>0</sup>C. From 2020 to 2049, the change in temperature for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 is around 1<sup>0</sup>C which will rise to 1.5<sup>0</sup>C in 2050-2079. RCP 8.5 is the extreme case wherein the first 30 years the rise is more than 1<sup>0</sup>C, but in the next 30 years, the rise will be around 2<sup>0</sup>C. The increase in maximum temperature and minimum temperature is almost the same. Fig. 4.42 shows a projection of monthly minimum temperature for all RCPs.

Table 4.36 Percentage change in monthly rainfall for all RCPs for Vijayawada

<b>Period</b>	<b>Month</b>	<b>RCP 2.6</b>	<b>RCP 4.5</b>	<b>RCP 6.0</b>	<b>RCP 8.5</b>
2020- 2048	Jan	3.6	2.9	-2.3	1.6
	Feb	2.8	15.7	8.8	-6.5
	Mar	1.4	3.9	0.1	-0.4
	Apr	7.2	17.3	8.9	15.4
	May	-8.8	5.4	-4.7	-3.1
	Jun	-5.0	-2.9	-1.2	-5.6
	Jul	-11.3	-17.9	-17.4	-18.1
	Aug	-11.6	-4.9	-4.2	-13.9
	Sep	3.0	-2.7	-0.3	-4.1
	Oct	-8.3	-2.9	-8.2	-7.6
	Nov	-3.3	0.0	3.1	4.6
	Dec	-3.5	-6.9	-2.8	0.3
2049- 2078	Jan	-3.2	-5.2	-0.7	3.6
	Feb	-6.8	5.1	7.7	6.0
	Mar	8.4	0.2	-2.8	-1.6
	Apr	16.0	-0.4	14.1	2.1
	May	2.4	-8.2	-7.1	-11.1
	Jun	1.0	-4.1	8.6	0.6
	Jul	-11.0	-19.4	-17.1	-17.6
	Aug	-0.9	-7.2	-11.3	-19.0
	Sep	-4.0	1.1	-1.0	-3.3
	Oct	-7.8	-10.0	-11.6	-0.5
	Nov	-0.2	9.2	1.9	5.6
	Dec	-9.7	-3.4	5.5	11.2

Table 4.37 Increase ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in maximum temperature for all RCPs for Vijayawada

<b>Period</b>	<b>Month</b>	<b>RCP 2.6</b>	<b>RCP 4.5</b>	<b>RCP 6.0</b>	<b>RCP 8.5</b>
2020- 2048	Jan	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.3
	Feb	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2
	Mar	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2
	Apr	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2
	May	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3
	Jun	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.3
	Jul	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.1
	Aug	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1
	Sep	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1
	Oct	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
	Nov	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3
	Dec	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1
2049- 2078	Jan	1.1	1.6	1.7	2.2
	Feb	1.3	1.7	1.5	2.2
	Mar	1.1	1.3	1.5	2.1
	Apr	1.0	1.6	1.5	2.4
	May	1.2	1.8	1.7	2.3
	Jun	1.2	1.6	1.6	2.3
	Jul	0.9	1.5	1.5	2.1
	Aug	0.9	1.5	1.4	2.1
	Sep	1.0	1.6	1.4	2.1
	Oct	1.1	1.7	1.6	2.3
	Nov	1.2	1.7	1.7	2.3
	Dec	1.2	1.6	1.6	2.2

Table 4.38 Increase ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in monthly minimum temperature for all RCPs for Vijayawada

Period	Month	RCP 2.6	RCP 4.5	RCP 6.0	RCP 8.5
2020- 2048	Jan	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2
	Feb	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2
	Mar	0.9	1.2	1.0	1.2
	Apr	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.3
	May	0.8	1.1	0.9	1.2
	Jun	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.1
	Jul	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9
	Aug	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8
	Sep	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0
	Oct	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1
	Nov	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2
	Dec	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1
2049- 2078	Jan	1.0	1.6	1.6	2.3
	Feb	1.1	1.7	1.6	2.3
	Mar	1.1	1.4	1.5	2.2
	Apr	1.1	1.5	1.5	2.4
	May	1.1	1.5	1.5	2.2
	Jun	1.1	1.5	1.5	2.2
	Jul	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.9
	Aug	0.9	1.2	1.3	2.0
	Sep	1.0	1.5	1.4	2.0
	Oct	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.2
	Nov	1.0	1.6	1.6	2.3
	Dec	1.0	1.5	1.6	2.3

## Vijayawada

The annual average rainfall for Vijayawada city is around 900 mm. The monthly rainfall variation shows a high variation of rainfall from June to September. An increasing trend was observed for annual rainfall (+0.02 mm/month). It has witnessed a few moderate droughts and a few flood events in the past.

RCP 2.6 scenario show some peak rainfalls of 1650 mm and a few dry years with annual rainfall less than 550 mm but an overall decline in annual rainfall. Results show that the rainfall during the non-monsoon season will increase by about 10%. The mean temperature will rise by 1<sup>0</sup>C.

RCP 4.5 also shows a decline in annual average rainfall by about 40 mm. The city has a high risk of moderate to severe droughts. The maximum temperature may increase by 1<sup>0</sup>C in the first 29 years and later stabilizes at 1.5<sup>0</sup>C.

As per RCP 6.0 scenario, the mean annual rainfall may rise to 850 mm in the next 58 with 3 to 4 very high peaks of about 1680 mm in the annual rainfall and several severe droughts. The average increase in monthly temperature is around 1<sup>0</sup>C in the first 28 years which increases to 1.5-1.8<sup>0</sup>C in next 29 years.

The projection of RCP 8.5 shows a decline in annual average rainfall by 70 mm. It also indicates almost 20-25 number of moderate to severe droughts and extreme floods during some years. Results show the temperature to rise by 1.2<sup>0</sup>C in the first 29 years and may go to 2.5<sup>0</sup>C in the later years.

## 7.2 Hydrological Modelling

The study area is delineated based on land use and land cover. Solapur city has a total area of 672.18 km<sup>2</sup>, in that 43% is agricultural, Residential is 54% and the remaining 3% belongs to another category. Vijayawada has a total area of 1280.32 km<sup>2</sup> out of which about 23 % is agricultural, 73% Residential and 4% comes under other categories. Comparison of these two study area build up area is higher in Vijayawada city and Solapur is having less area. Solapur has mostly loamy soil while Vijayawada has clayey loam.

HEC-HMS model is used for simulation of runoff for the Vijayawada basin for Krishna watershed, which uses SCS-CN Method to calculate runoff generation from a catchment. The mean annual runoff for Vijayawada city is found to be 1243.95 TMC with a standard deviation of 10.08 TMC, against an annual average rainfall of 42.89 TMC. Thus on an annual basic about 72% of rainfall is converted to runoff from the basin.

For Solapur city, the simulation of runoff for Krishna watershed, which uses SCS-CN Method to calculate runoff generation from a catchment. The mean annual runoff for Solapur city is found to be 696 TMC with a standard deviation of 5.87 TMC, against an annual average rainfall of 19.89 TMC. Thus, the results show that on an annual basic about 67% of rainfall goes as runoff from the basin.

Based on an analysis of 29 years of rainfall data in Vijayawada basin, it is found that sub basin-3 contribute maximum runoff compare to another sub basin while sub-basin 12 contributes the least. A similar trend is observed for runoff depth. The runoff is maximum during the monsoon season, i.e. between July-August months, while it is least during the summer season of a year.

Based on an analysis of 35 years of rainfall data in Solapur basin, it is found that sub basin-7 contribute maximum runoff compare to another sub basin while sub-basin 5 contributes the least. A similar trend is observed for runoff depth. The runoff is maximum during the

monsoon season, i.e. between July-August months, while it is least during the summer season of a year.

### **7.3 Urban Heat Island Map**

Solapur has 72% of residential land while 12% are water body and 16% with vegetation. Based on the present temperature variation, 38% of the area shows a strong heat island effect. Though the effect is very weak in about 51 % of the area.

Vijayawada has 61% of residential land, 29% water body and 10% with vegetation. Presently, 46% of land has very strong heat island effect and almost 37 % of the land with very weak heat island effect.



