IMPROVING GROUNDWATER GOVERNANCE IN RAPIDLY URBANIZING AREAS UNDER MULTIPLE STRESSES: A CASE OF KHON KAEN, THAILAND

by

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AHP	Analytic Hierarchy Process
ANN	Artificial Neural Network
CORDEX	Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment
CMIP	Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
DGR	Department of Groundwater Resources

DIW	Department of Industrial Works
ESGF	Earth System Grid Federation
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
GCM	General Circulation Models or Global Climate Model
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GGI	Groundwater Governance Index
GW-MATE	Groundwater Management Advisory Team
IUWM	Integrated Urban Water Management
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LDD	Land Development Department
LULC	Land Use and Land Cover
LMB	Lower Mekong Basin
LMR	Lower Mekong Region
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PWA	Provincial Waterworks Authority
QM	Quantile Mapping
RCM	Regional Climate Model
RCP	Representative Concentration Pathway
RID	Royal Irrigation Department
SSP	Shared Socioeconomic Pathway
SWAT	Soil and Water Assessment Tool
SRES	Special Report Emission Scenario
TMD	Thai Meteorological Department
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
UN	United Nations
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USGS	United States Geological Survey

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Globally, the movement of rural settlement to an urban area is estimated to increase, elevating the world's urban population to 68% by 2050 with the majorly in the developing nations of Asia and Africa (United Nations, 2018). The interconnection of the trio i.e. urbanization, industrialization, and globalization in economic development has a crucial role in the transformation of society, thus, motivating both established as well as freshly industrialized nations to the dynamic process of urbanization thru specialization and exchange of labor and services (Chen et al., 2014). The term "urbanization" is a demographic movement to an urban area and is a complex socio-economic process that shifts the spatial distribution of a population included with the transformation of the built environment (Malik et al., 2017; United Nations, 2018). Currently, the rate of urbanization in freshly developing nations is dramatically high than technologically and socio-economically advanced nations. This unprecedented rate is mainly by the increased urban population with economic growth (Angel et al., 2011; Bian et al., 2018). Studies have shown the consensus that despite the importance of urbanization in economic and other aspects of development, the entire process is excessively destroying the environment (Hua et al., 2020). Furthermore, urbanization is an important driver for alteration in the normal functioning of the hydrological cycle, biogeochemical cycle, carbon cycle at the local and global scale (Hua et al., 2020), and while the urban transformation is evolving, the natural driven or urban-growth driven climate change is expected to affect the urban hydrological cycle (McDonald et al., 2011).

Climate change is the alteration in the statistical distribution of climatic variables for a comparatively longer period and is currently the most highlighted global interest. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), stated the influence of humans and their activities on the climate system and projected the global temperature increase between 1.4℃ -5.8℃ by 2100 as compared to the temperature during 1900 AD. The unprecedented rate of urbanization further stresses its impact especially in the context of a warming climate (naturally and human-induced) altering spatial and temporal rainfall patterns and intensity (Paul et al., 2018). The urban land cover is crucial in defining the city's thermal characteristics as the increased tendency of using fuels emitting greenhouse gas by the huge number of populations, expansion in rough impervious surfaces, rise in the number of multifaceted elevated urban structures but a massive reduction in carbon sinking vegetative sources adds more instability in warmer air at the local level creating urban heat islands (Paul et al., 2018; Pramanik & Punia, 2019). Huong & Pathirana, (2013), mentioned about the generation of extremely intense rainfall events in urban areas because of changes in local climatic features (local temperature, evaporation, and evapotranspiration rate, absorption in solar radiations, etc.) as an effect of urban heat islands.

The environment and climate have been greatly affected by the process of urbanization as the multiple human activities alter the consumption pattern of water, energy, food, land, and in-turn pollute the urban environment. But in contrast to this, urbanization is inextricably associated with the economic development quantified as population, income, and output. This demonstrates the significance of urban centers or cities in domestic economics and its requirement to supply the highest quality of public and private services. So, rapidly urbanizing areas are extremely stressed in terms of public service deliveries like traffic, education, employment, health, waste management, etc. (Bloom et al., 2008) and one of the major urban public services is the "water supply and sanitation" (H. Jones et al., 2014).

Water, being the basic requirement for human well-being is finite and only renewable when properly managed. It has a critical role in sustainable development, but the propagation of its scarcity has crossed borders of the areas experiencing constant water shortages and thus, making it as the major global challenges today (Jacobson et al., 2013; Ojeda Olivares et al., 2020). Studies have revealed the scarcity of freshwater resources is likely to amplify in the future mainly due to human-induced climate change impacts and increased demand for freshwater resources (Boretti & Rosa, 2019; Veldkamp et al., 2017). Out of 2.5% freshwater available in the Earth, much of the portion is sealed in glaciers and ice leaving groundwater as the major source of freshwater resources.

Globally, groundwater is the source of one-third of all freshwater withdrawals, supplying an estimated 36, 42, and 27% of water used for domestic, agricultural, and industrial purposes, respectively (Döll et al., 2012). It is a moving natural resource below the earth's surface and shows double character as a "mineral resource" and as a "water resources". Thus, the safe yield of the groundwater depends on both the hydro-geologic environment of the area and physical-geographical factors as it is directly interlinked with the surface water and atmosphere (Zektser & Everett, 2004). Furthermore, the human-induced dynamics also play a vital role in its safe yield, used for multiple human activities. Besides being one of the most readily available freshwater resources, its superior quality, uniform regional spread, level of safety from the possible pollutants, very lesser tendency to periodic fluctuation, and reduced investment and operational cost has comparatively reinforced its advantages over surface water as a source of water supply. In addition to this, with the increasing demand for urban infrastructures, the cities impervious surfaces expand exponentially (Han & Burian, 2009; Sankalp & Sahoo, 2018) impacting freshwater availability, quality, and delivery. The reduction in the infiltration capacity of the urban centers on one side decreases the probability of the groundwater resources being recharged and on the other side, the increased abstraction to fulfill the demand of increased populations lowers the level of groundwater thus, making it more scare and vulnerable to availability and contaminants. According to FAO, (2016), the volume of groundwater extraction has raised by fourfold over the past 50 years and the tendency is likely to persist in the future due to increased demand for agriculture, industry, and domestic water supply included with ecosystems services. Furthermore, the silent side of this escalating trend is due to the improvement in extraction technology, increased exploration in hydro-geological understanding, and ease of energy availability. This over-extraction tendency, on one hand, has exploited the limited freshwater resources and on the other hand, has worsened both the quality and quantity of available water each year resulting in water table drawdown and increasing salt intrusion in coastal areas (Mohamed & Elmahdy, 2015).

The 1-3% annual increase in abstraction of groundwater (Wada et al., 2014) included with its extensive challenge of continuous contamination has increased its adverse effects in groundwater-dependent ecosystems (de Chaisemartin et al., 2017). In addition to this, climate change and climate variability have further impacted both recharge and demand of groundwater (Taylor et al., 2013) and the landcover changes have further exaggerated the process. The decreasing level of aquifer, increasing demand, and pollution in one hand and on the other hand, unfair access to the resource it's poor management has created challenges worldwide (Closas & Villholth, 2020). So, one of the gentle approaches of managing and addressing the water crisis challenges is realizing and understanding the importance of groundwater governance (Closas & Villholth, 2020; de Chaisemartin et al., 2017; Mukherji & Shah, 2005). The process of groundwater governance ensures the protection and control of this common-pool resource with its sustainability by supporting the promotion of responsible collective action (Closas & Villholth, 2020). Further, this is aided by the legal regulatory frameworks, policies and plans, effective institutional arrangement, shared information and knowledge, finances, and motivative structure that is aligned to the goal of the society (FAO, 2016). Thus, groundwater governance has emerged as an appropriate recipe for the management of groundwater resources sustainably with the attention of all the related stakeholders. Responsible use of groundwater with equity, efficiency, and sustainability can only result in effective groundwater management policies that are identified and applied based on the principles of governance (Varady et al., 2013). Therefore, largely, managing groundwater resources equitably and sustainably among nations, regions, and sectors means making informed decisions and influencing the behavior of multiple actors and individuals. Therefore, it is very essential to assess the current state of groundwater governance in rapidly urbanizing areas to recommend the possible improvements for the sustainable use and management of the resources under multiple future stresses.

1.2 Problem Statement

Groundwater is a common-pool resource of global importance. This, real hidden treasure is vulnerable to unrestricted exploration and exploitation by humans without considering the interests of the wider community (S. Foster & Garduño, 2013; Megdal et al., 2015). At least half of the global population use groundwater as drinking water supply and in the context of agriculture, about 43% of all water used for irrigation is groundwater (Connor, 2015) making it a crucial component for supply for domestic, agricultural, industrial sectors, ecosystem services, etc. and also a challenging component for effective and efficient management on the context of increased stress and demand.

One of the key stresses for this escalating dependence is urbanization leading to rapid demographic growth, increased freshwater demand, and change in local climatic conditions (naturally and/or human-induced) impacting both demand and supply (Megdal, 2018). As the evolution of urbanization involves spatial and vertical transformation of unmoved soil and natural land cover with the modern service infrastructures and impervious surfaces (Paul et al., 2018). These impervious surfaces are anthropogenically altered surfaces impact hydrologic response and increases the surface water runoff, rate of sediment deposits within any catchment, and averts sub-surface infiltration (Sankalp & Sahoo, 2018). One of the significant effects is on the carbon and the water cycle due to the exaggeration between the natural environment and the humans. The consequences of rapid urbanization are reduction in green vegetation, escalation in urban population density, excessive use of fossil fuels which creates a discrepancy between production and consumption of greenhouse gases like carbon dioxide affecting the carbon cycle (Churkina, 2016). On the other side, this alteration in natural cover also reduces percolating capacity, escalates the surface runoff, and rate of sediment deposition shifting the natural urban watercourse, and thus, impacting the entire water cycle (Viger et al., 2011). Furthermore, the prolongation of this trend is likely to alter climatic characteristics, globally and locally with extreme effects on the hydrologic cycle mainly due to rainfall and temperature with evapotranspiration and soil water content (Kumar, 2012). The process of urbanization further amplifies the process by increasing the heat stress because of urban rough surfaces and rising temperature creating Urban Heat Island (UHI) effect. The effect alters the urban climate, thus intensifying the unequally distributed rainfall and increasing the rate of evaporation exposing the urban residents to more heat stress (Chapman et al., 2017). This has a significant impact on ample freshwater availability as well as management for the regular anthropogenic activities and ecosystem services.

Globally, the population residing in the urban centers is likely to rise to 68% by 2050 and the major contribution is projected from the middle and low-income nations from Asia and Africa (United Nations, 2018). In the Asian context, the rate of urbanization is escalating very rapidly to about 30%, 48%, 55%, 40% in South Asia, South East Asia, East Asia, and Central and West Asia respectively in 2015 which was about 25% in South Asia and about 30% for other Asian regions during 1995 (Arfanuzzaman & Dahiya, 2019). This increased urban economic centers in the Asian regions have not only upsurge the urban population and changes in land-use but also has increased the rate of resource exploitation and degradation of the environment because of the increasing demand for resource accessibility. This in Asia has been further amplified by the changes in climate naturally and most importantly changes driven by human activities and has become an essential topic for the urban water system (Collin & Melloul, 2003). One of the primary concerns of all the pressures and impacts of urbanization is on the groundwater (Hua et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2019).

Groundwater is an very essential freshwater resources for the social and economic development in all countries of Lower Mekong Region (LMR) in South East Asia where the stress in land and freshwater resources has considerably increased with the accompanying economic growth (Lyon et al., 2017). Many studies have revealed the consequences of urbanization in the quantity, quality, and interaction between surface and groundwater hydrology in the region (Adhikari et al., 2020; Homdee et al., 2011; Ly et al., 2020). Thus, the understanding of groundwater management which is repeatedly ignored and underrated in the rapidly urbanizing areas of LMR under multiple stresses and increased demand is very crucial and challenging. Additionally, realizing the importance of the groundwater resource governance is a crucial soft approach towards its management which is more about guiding the actions of the multiple actors/stakeholders and its successes and failure are often the result of the adequacy of its governance arrangements (S. Foster & Garduño, 2013). So, it is very important to understand the provisions of groundwater governance at the local level rather than the top-level as it is a widely distributed local resource. All the aspects of socio-economic development should be combined with the integrated groundwater management such that it addresses multi-disciplinary sectors and actors for effectively managing the hidden resources (de Chaisemartin et al., 2017). The governing and managing groundwater resources, which exploitation is distributed in space (especially among private sectors) is a process of changing the attitude and manipulating the decisions of multiple actors. Rapidly urbanizing areas of LMR are already stressed for delivering freshwater resources and future stresses pressurize it more. Therefore, these areas essentially require assessing the current state of groundwater development, governance, and management to explore its strengths, gaps, and areas for improvement. Furthermore, the assessment also enables shall be a benchmark for planning and developing strategies in improving the governance gaps for the sustainable and equitable use and management of the groundwater resources under multiple stresses in rapidly urbanizing areas of the LMR.

1.3 Research Question

This study provides an answer to the following research questions:

1. What is the current state of groundwater governance and management in the study area? Does the current groundwater governance address the social equality, conflicts & gender dimensions?
2. How will the multiple stresses like population, land-use, climate, and water demand change in the study area?
3. How will the multiple stresses in the study area impact the future surface and groundwater availability?
4. What would be the possible suggestion for improving groundwater governance under multiple stresses?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of the study is to recommend ways for improved groundwater governance in rapidly urbanizing areas of the Lower Mekong Region (LMR) under multiple stresses. The specific objectives are:

1. To assess the current state of groundwater governance in the rapidly urbanizing area of LMR.
2. To predict future change in multiples stresses (climate, land-use, demographic, sectoral demand) under various scenarios.
3. To analyze the impact of climate and land-use change in surface and groundwater availability.
4. To provide recommendations for improved groundwater governance under stresses.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The research covers the following scope:

1. Development of groundwater governance framework in rapidly urbanizing areas.
2. Analyze the current state of groundwater governance in the study area.
3. Project future climate of the study area under multiple climate change scenarios.
4. Project future demographic and land-use change in the study area using the Dyna-CLUE model.
5. Project future sectoral (domestic, industrial, and agricultural) water demand of the study area.
6. Estimate the current and future availability of surface water and spatiotemporal distribution of groundwater recharge under multiple stresses using the SWAT hydrological model.
7. Estimate the current and future groundwater level under multiple stresses on using GMS-MODFLOW - groundwater model
8. Identify the future possible conflicts due to multiple stresses in the groundwater resources and provide recommendations for improved groundwater governance.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are:

1. The future demand estimation in the study shall not consider the effect of climate change and urbanization on change in demand.
2. The study shall not consider groundwater vulnerability to pollution and focuses more on quantity aspect.
3. Transboundary aspect of groundwater aquifer shall not be considered in the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews and summarizes various information regarding multiple stresses in groundwater, individual and combined impact due to the stresses in groundwater resources, different type of climate models, climate scenarios, bias correction methods, land use, population and sectoral water demand projection techniques. Furthermore, the chapter also summarizes different ways for assessing groundwater vulnerability and groundwater governance included with the concepts of water governance, hydrological and hydrogeological modelling based on the critical review of related literatures.

2.1 Multiple Stresses in Groundwater Resources

Groundwater resources are the huge subsurface reservoirs that are accessible or provides a buffer storage during surface water shortages (Lapworth et al., 2013) and are less vulnerable to drought and degradation in quality when compared to the surface water resources (Schwartz & Ibaraki, 2011). Globally, this complex hydrological system provides 33% of total water withdrawal satisfying the need of about 85% rural and about 50% urban water needs (Aslam et al., 2018). It is evident that dependence of groundwater in semiarid regions is more, especially in Asia where irrigation dominates the withdrawal of the freshwater resources followed by the domestic and industrial use in rapidly growing cities. Furthermore, multiple studies reveal that the freshwater resources are threatened more by the rapid growth in the world's population leading to urbanization, global and local climate change, agricultural commercialization, and industrial development (Hutchins et al., 2018; Vörösmarty et al., 2010; Wen et al., 2017). Regardless of the importance of fresh (ground)water resources for sustainable development, its mismanagement and additional stress for multiple drivers have depleted and degraded in terms of quantity and quality respectively making it more vulnerable in the future. These multiple stressors can be both climatic and non-climatic factors waring the quality and quantity of the groundwater resources. Studies have enlisted climate change, urbanization (increased population density, higher living standards, increased water-energy-food demand, change in land-use and land cover, etc.), development of industrial and commercial zones, tourism development as major stressors for groundwater resources, especially in the urbanizing areas (Hutchins et al., 2018; J. M. Lee et al., 2019; Olivares et al., 2019; L. Qiu et al., 2018; Shrestha, Pandey, et al., 2016). These stressors can be natural and human-induced that impacts the sustainability of groundwater resources (J. M. Lee et al., 2019). Olivares et al., (2019), adopted climate, land use/land cover, and demographic change as drivers for the depletion of groundwater resources in Mexico which generated stress to encourage its unsustainable use. The study in five different provinces and cities in the coastal areas by Qiu et al., (2018), showed economic growth as a stressor that alters the groundwater consumption thus substantially exploiting it (both in terms of water level and salt intrusion) because of socioeconomic development. Furthermore, studies on the groundwater environment of 14 different Asian cities considered population growth, urbanization, tourism, industrialization, agricultural intensification, and climate change (precipitation and temperature) as the main driver for current and future groundwater degradation (Shrestha, Pandey, et al., 2016). Thus, these complexes, interlinked, and intra-linked multiple stresses impact on the flow, storage, and chemistry of groundwater bodies should be identified and analyzed for sustainable use and management of the limitedly available groundwater resources.

2.2 Impact of Urbanization on Groundwater Resources

Urbanization is a complicated socio-economic transformation that shifts the spatial distribution of the population and the environment (Malik et al., 2017). It is the process in which the quantity of people gets concentrated in smaller areas forming cities. The United Nations projects that the people living in the urban areas by 2050 shall reach to 68% and this transformation will be majorly in freshly developing nations in Asia and Africa (United Nations, 2018). Studies reveal the exploitation of the environment, imbalance in biogeochemical, water, and carbon cycle, urban growth-driven climate change because of the rapid urbanization despite its contribution and importance in economic and social development (Hua et al., 2020; McDonald et al., 2011). The extraction of groundwater has increased four times in the last 50 years and this is expected to remain increasing in the future due to an increase in sectoral demand, ecosystem services (FAO, 2016) included with modernization and improvement of pumping technology, energy availability, and understanding of hydrogeological settings.

One of the major transformation due to the process of urbanization is the land use with the replacement of the natural landcover with the impervious one (Batisani & Yarnal, 2009; Hassan & Nazem, 2016; Mohan et al., 2011). These surfaces increase the volume of the surface runoff, rate of sediment deposits, and reduces the urban population increases the rate and quantity of abstraction to meet the quantity of rainfall infiltrating into the ground (Sajikumar & Remya, 2015; Sankalp & Sahoo, 2018). In addition to this, the rough and reflecting urban surfaces and increased local temperature creates the urban heat island (UHI) effect which modifies the urban micro-climatic parameters exposing the urban population to increased heat stresses (Chapman et al., 2017). This has a significant impact on ample groundwater availability due to an increased rate of evaporation (UHI effect) and decreased rate of infiltration (imperviousness). On the other hand, the increasing sectoral (domestic, agricultural, and industrial) demand of the rapidly growing demand resulting in depletion and unequal accessibility of the groundwater resources in the cities (Foster et al., 1994; Sajikumar & Remya, 2015). Thus, the groundwater recharge rate and level are the two crucial variables that are impacted by the process of urbanization. Studies show a decrease in the groundwater recharge and an increase in surface runoff compared to natural conditions due to the urban surface sealing (Grischek et al., 1996; Hardison et al., 2009; Rose & Peters, 2001). The study by (Rose & Peters, 2001), in the vicinity of Atlanta in the United States showed a significant fall in water level in wells in urban areas as compared to non-urban wells. In contrast to the theory that the impermeabilization due to urbanization decreases the urban groundwater recharge, several case-studies in cities worldwide indicate an increase in urban recharge contributing through sources such as excessive water supply and wastewater leakages, reduction in evapotranspiration, use of green urban infrastructures, etc. (Barron et al., 2013; Garcia-Fresca, 2007; Lerner, 2002; Wakode et al., 2018). Overall, it is difficult to calculate the actual total effect of urbanization on urban groundwater recharge and thus water level as each case is different in setting and climatic conditions. Furthermore, the water level is also dependent on other factors of urbanization which is the population growth leading to increased demand and water abstraction. Not only in quantity, but the impact of urbanization is also impacting in its quality as multiple anthropogenic contaminants are likely to transport by the recharging water generated through urban runoff, urban industrial discharge, and wastewater leakages (Carlson et al., 2011; Lohse et al., 2010; Minnig et al., 2018; Wakode et al., 2018). Thus, the process of urbanization and multiple anthropogenic activities impacts both the climate and groundwater environment stressing the urbanizing areas in urban public service delivery.

2.3 Impact of Climate Change on Groundwater Resources

The earth (including oceans and atmosphere) absorbs 70% of the solar energy which is transmitted by heat fluxes or infrared radiation. But some layer of gases in the troposphere and stratosphere blocks or absorbs it from going back to space thereby increasing the temperature of the lower atmosphere. These gases are called greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2007) and its effect on earth being warmer is referred to as the greenhouse effect. Though the greenhouse gases are very important for the life of the earth but its increased concentration because of several human activities is the major concern that changes the thermal characteristics of the lower atmosphere altering the usual climatic patterns. Thus, the (IPCC, 2007), defines climate change as “any change in climate over time, whether due to natural variability or as a result of human activity”. This change in climate (long term) or climate variability (short term) has a great influence in the groundwater environment majorly in terms of its recharge and use which is furthermore modified by the human activities and level of infrastructural and socio-economic development (Taylor et al., 2013).

Several studies around the world revealed that the change in rainfall patterns and increase in the temperature as a result of climate change shall pose a high risk to groundwater resource predicted affecting its accessibility and recharge (Eslamian & Eslamian, 2017; Meixner et al., 2016; Salem et al., 2018). The study to assess the impact of climate change on groundwater resources done by Shrestha, et al., (2016), in the Mekong Delta aquifer, revealed a decline in groundwater recharge and thus, drop in level and storage resulting due to seasonal change in rainfall and increase in average annual temperature. Several studies have assessed the impact of changes in the climatic conditions on the level of the groundwater resources (Ranjan et al., 2006b; Treidel et al., 2011).

However, studies also revealed an increase in the recharge because of climate change (Gurdak & Roe, 2010; Jyrkama & Sykes, 2007). The recharge of groundwater not only depends on the overall climatic parameters but also on the temporal climate variability, land-use scenario, and the type of soil and vegetation in the selected area. Included with the amount of rainfall and other factors, evapotranspiration and surface water changes also impact subsurface hydrology. The change in storage of groundwater also results from the enhancement of evapotranspiration, snowmelt, and increased pumping driven by climate change (Wu et al., 2020). Also, flood and droughts because of increased rainfall variability and increased extreme events (both rainfall and temperature) caused by climate change immediately affects the groundwater resources availability and dependency (Delpla et al., 2009). The longer duration and occurrence of droughts in areas with shallow aquifer increases the higher risk in quicker depletion and rapid urbanization increases the demand for groundwater resources. In addition to this, climate change also impacts the groundwater quality particularly in the unconfined aquifer with higher hydraulic conductivities (Aladejana et al., 2020). Studies on the Eastern Dahomey basin showed a threat to water quality in shallow aquifers due to seasonal flooding caused because of climate change (Ayolabi et al., 2015; S. & B., 2017). Furthermore, sea-level rise resulting due to the change in the climate change (Aladejana et al., 2020), leads to the intrusion of saltwater in coastal aquifers contaminating the entire freshwater system. The extent of the intrusion depends on multiple factors such as landscape, recharge, and abstraction of groundwater in the area (R. G. Taylor et al., 2013). This effect is more likely to be exaggerated in the urban areas and its vicinity where the abstraction is more. Studies have revealed the effect of saltwater incursion majorly due to intensively groundwater pumping in the vicinity of highly dense cities such as Gaza, Bangkok, Jakarta (Taniguchi, 2011; Yakirevich et al., 1998). Thus, groundwater for surcharging global demand and food security is likely to intensify due to frequent climate extremes, variability, and urbanization. So, assessing the availability of groundwater resources under natural and human-induced changes in climatic conditions is critically important and required.

2.4 Combined Impact of Urbanization and Climate Change on Groundwater Resources

Freshwater resources are being threatened more due to multiple stresses like urbanization, industrialization, and climate change (Wen et al., 2017) impacting the flow, storage, and chemical properties. Furthermore, the change in the water cycle, surface energy budget, and yield is the result of a significant impact on the water resources due to rapid urban development and climate change affecting availability and demand (Mirchi et al., 2013; Wada et al., 2011). Groundwater is a common-pool resource of global importance and urbanization implicating rapid population growth, change in land use and land cover, increased living standard and demand for freshwater, and changes in microclimatic conditions impact both demand and supply (Megdal, 2018). The urban land cover also impacts the thermal characteristics of the area as a result of increased greenhouse gases, expansion of imperviousness, and reduction in carbon sinking sources adding more instability in warmer air creating the urban heat island effect (Paul et al., 2018; Pramanik & Punia, 2019). A study by Huong & Pathirana, (2013), revealed about the changes in the microclimatic events as an effect of urban heat islands in cities. Thus, urbanization driven changes in land use alter the groundwater recharge (Ranjan et al., 2006a) and distribution of the temperature (Majorowicz et al., 2006), evaluated the dual impact of urbanization and climate change in Sendai plain, Japan with a major focus on aquifer temperature and found about 75% change in ground surface temperature resulting due to urbanization. Furthermore, the study also predicted a likely decrease in groundwater recharge despite of increase in rainfall because due to increased evapotranspiration because of increased surface air temperature. Studies have predicted changing rainfall and temperature patterns and other climatic variables due to climate change impacting groundwater recharge, level, and accessibility (Eslamian & Eslamian, 2017; Meixner et al., 2016; Salem et al., 2018). The change in groundwater storages is a complex process and it not only depends on the amount of the precipitation or recharge but also depends on other factors like the rate of recharge, evapotranspiration, and rate and quantity of abstraction driven by urbanization as well as climate change (Wu et al., 2020). In addition to this, rapid urbanization, increased demand, and changes in climatic conditions collective puts coastal cities under immense pressure to water availability including risk to contamination. Saltwater intrusion in coastal freshwater resources is the major threat (Chang et al., 2016; Green et al., 2011; Praveena et al., 2010). Chang et al., (2016), evaluated the impact of the vulnerability of coastal aquifer to climate change and urbanization in Dauphin Island between the Mississippi Sound and the Gulf of Mexico. The result of the study showed a decreased level of the water table, moderate to severe intrusion of seawater under the dual impact of urbanization and climate change concluding the unsustainability of the shallow unconfined aquifer for any substantial future urbanization and adverse climatic setting. Thus, understand the coupled impact of climate change and urbanization with change in human dependent activities to understand the sustainability of the groundwater resources is very crucial for integrated planning, governance, and management.

2.5 Climate Models

The investigation or prediction or projection of the climate-related variables and assessment of its impact in the future (seasonal to decadal) usually rely on climate models. These are based on the laws of physics, chemistry, and fluid motion constituting a system of differential equations. This mathematical form replicates the interconnection and interaction of the complex climate system. Thus, to understand the phenomena of climate science the climate models are the essential tools (Knüsel & Baumberger, 2020). These models predict the current and future climatic variables in grids which illustrate the depth-wise associated physical and chemical reactions. The projection of change in the climatic variables is mainly based on the greenhouse gas concentration or emission, concentration of the aerosols, or multiple radiative forcing settings which presents the uncertainties associated with the climate model and its projection (Anandhi et al., 2008). There is a necessity to investigate the impact of climate change in the water sector and IPCC's Assessment Report Five (AR5) has already stated the associated risks of climate change on freshwater resources is likely to increase more resulting due to the increased anthropogenic activities which have increased the concentration of greenhouse gas in the atmosphere (Field, 2014). Thus, the study of the impact on freshwater resources depends on many factors and some of them are the geographical coverage, level of necessity, and accessibility of observed data. And, based on these factors different climate models are used to investigate the impact.

The General Circulation Models or Global Climate Models (GCMs) are the finest, powerful, and suitable tools in anticipating changes in the future climatic variables. These are usually representing via three-dimensional grid cells with 250-400 km or greater spatial resolution horizontally with multiple uncertainties (Singh et al., 2019a). The IPCC defines GCMs as “numerical models, representing physical processes in atmosphere, oceans, cryosphere and land surfaces and are the most advanced tools for simulating the response of global climate system to increasing greenhouse gas concentration”. The uncertainties in GCMs observation are mainly due to larger grid size and coarser-resolution failing to accurately provide an estimation of the radiative forcing (Storelvmo et al., 2016). Multiple studies have used a number of GCMs for assessing the impact of climate change in water resources, hydrological flows, and water requirements under future change in climate (Babel et al., 2014; Chun et al., 2009; Deb et al., 2018; Konzmann et al., 2013; Lofgren et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 2013). The accuracy of the GCMs is highly uncertain with finer-scale studies and studies have found inaccurate results in local-scale studies (H. Chen et al., 2012; Singh & Goyal, 2016). These errors due to multiple factors in GCMs need to be minimized before performing impact studies (Singh et al., 2019a). Two approaches are generally used to minimize the disparity between large and local-scale climate data named as statistical and dynamical downscaling (Maraun et al., 2010). The statistical downscaling approach assumes that the relation between the 20th century’s observation and GCM model output shall hold in the 21st century and thus, the entire method includes the use of the empirical relationship between climate model output and observed high-resolution data (Shrestha et al., 2014).

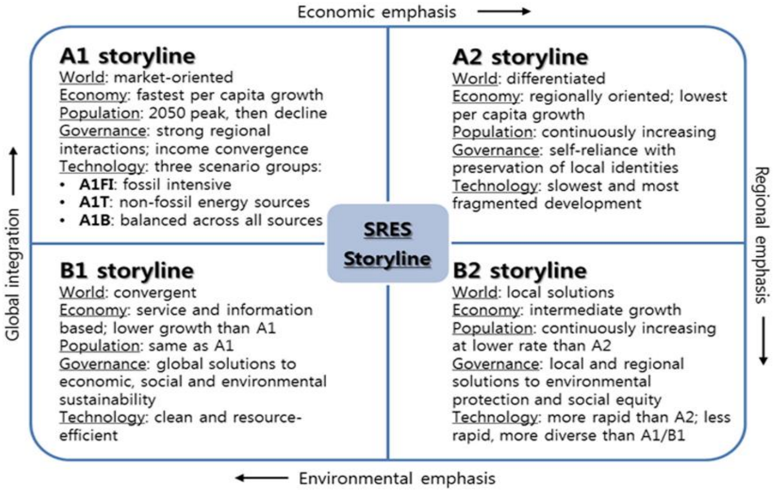
On the other hand, formulating adaptation and management policies as a response to the impact of changing climate at the local level requires finer spatial information, and recent studies have substituted by finer resolution Regional Climate Models (RCMs) produced through the dynamic downscaling of GCMs (Miao et al., 2016). This approach uses lateral boundary conditions for the coarser climate models to generate high-resolution outputs (Fowler et al., 2007) but requires more storage, processing time, and capacity (Shrestha et al., 2014). RCMs as compared to GCMs are better suitable for complicated physiographical areas because of its finer resolution and several studies on groundwater, flood assessment, surface water, land use and land cover change has used outputs from different RCMs to evaluate the impact of climate change (Park et al., 2016; Suh & Lee, 2004; van Roosmalen et al., 2007). The Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX) has made available several RCMs (https://cordex.org/) and for the list of RCMs in the Southeast Asia domain (http://www.ukm.my/seaclid-cordex/), list of RCMs, it's driving GCMs and name of contributing institution for the member countries of SEACLID/CORDEX are provided.

2.5.1 Climate Change Scenarios

The Special Report Emission Scenarios (SRES) are storyline approach for the future emission of greenhouse gases where the emission stories are developed based on the socio-economic development included with change in demographics, use of resources, technological advancement, polices and structure of governance. IPCC developed four different families (A1, A2, B1, B2) based on which 40 different scenarios has been developed. These four families are future categorized as more global and economic development aspect and the next is on more regional and environmental emphasized aspects. Figure 2.1 below shows how the storyline for these four families are developed based on assumptions made on economy, governance, technology, population change and aspect (i.e. global, regional, local). These scenarios are used to apply and investigate the driving forces is likely to impact, evaluate the future uncertainties and plan for appropriate adaptation and management strategies (Gregory et al., 2000).

Figure 2.1

Summary of SRES storylines storyline for these four families (Source: IPCC, 2007)



A1 storyline
World: market-oriented
Economy: fastest per capita growth
Population: 2050 peak, then decline
Governance: strong regional interactions; income convergence
Technology: three scenario groups:
- **A1FI**: fossil intensive
- **A1T**: non-fossil energy sources
- **A1B**: balanced across all sources

A2 storyline
World: differentiated
Economy: regionally oriented; lowest per capita growth
Population: continuously increasing
Governance: self-reliance with preservation of local identities
Technology: slowest and most fragmented development

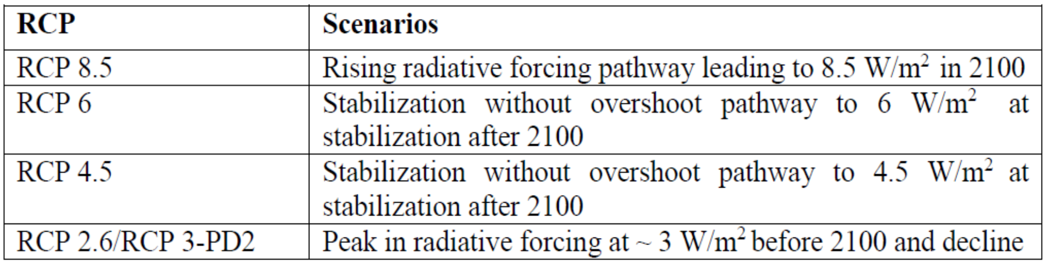
B1 storyline
World: convergent
Economy: service and information based; lower growth than A1
Population: same as A1
Governance: global solutions to economic, social and environmental sustainability
Technology: clean and resource-efficient

B2 storyline
World: local solutions
Economy: intermediate growth
Population: continuously increasing at lower rate than A2
Governance: local and regional solutions to environmental protection and social equity
Technology: more rapid than A2; less rapid, more diverse than A1/B1

In 2014, the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) replaced the SRES scenarios which adopted “*radiative forcing approach*” (Moss et al., 2010) rather than the previous storyline approach. The RCP scenarios which includes multiple factors like future land-use patterns, global economics, technological advancement, and other environmental factors along with the future likely concentration of greenhouse gases and aerosols. Being subject to the radiative forcing with respect to the time and socioeconomic hypothesis, the RCP scenarios focuses on four different greenhouse gases concentration trajectories which is widely used for impact assessments and develop mitigation strategies figuring out the uncertainties (Moss et al., 2010; Rogelj et al., 2012). Table 2.1 presents the 4 RCP scenarios with respect to the radiative forcing from greenhouse gases concentration up to the 21st century.

Table 2.1

RCP scenarios with respect to the radiative forcing (Source: Moss et al., 2010)

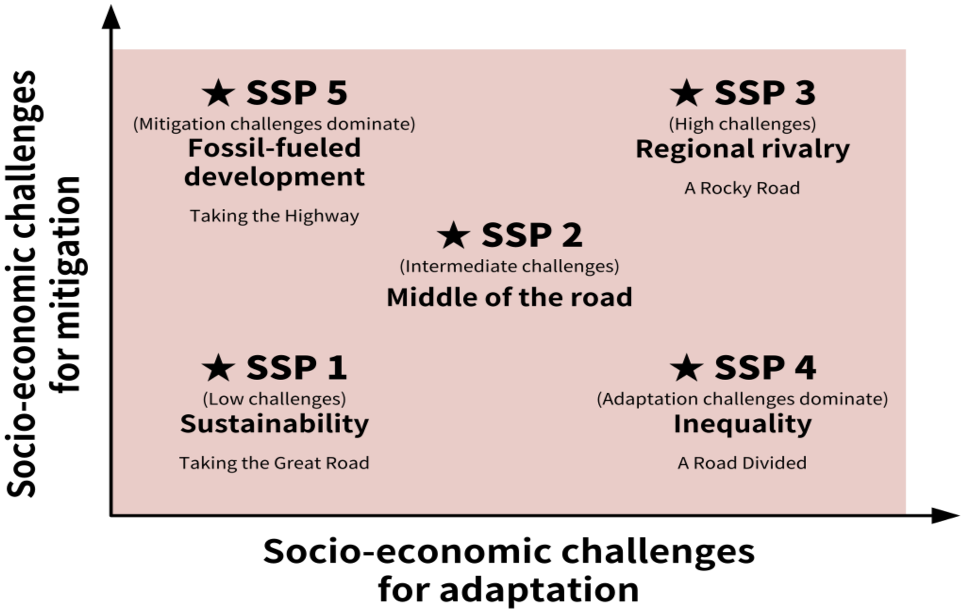


RCP	**Scenarios**
RCP 8.5	Rising radiative forcing pathway leading to 8.5 W/m^2 in 2100
RCP 6	Stabilization without overshoot pathway to 6 W/m^2 at stabilization after 2100
RCP 4.5	Stabilization without overshoot pathway to 4.5 W/m^2 at stabilization after 2100
RCP 2.6/RCP 3-PD2	Peak in radiative forcing at ~ 3 W/m^2 before 2100 and decline

Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) are the climate projection scenarios driven by a new set of emissions and land use scenarios (Riahi et al., 2017) produced with integrated assessment models (IAMs) based on new future pathways of societal development and related to the RCPs. The SSPs were developed over the last several years as a community effort and describe global developments leading to different challenges for mitigation and adaptation to climate change. The specific content of the SSPs comprise five alternative narratives (Figure 2.2) that describe the main characteristics of the pathways in qualitative terms as well as quantitative descriptions for key elements including population, economic growth, and urbanization (O’Neill et al., 2016).

Figure 2.2

Shared Socioeconomic Pathways mapped in the challenges to mitigation/adaptation space

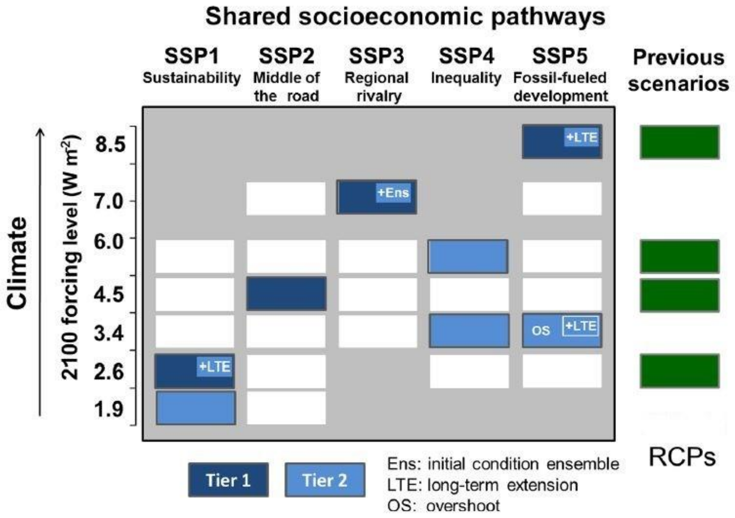


In short, the SSPs describe alternative evolutions of future society in the absence of climate change or climate policy. SSPs 1 and 5 envision relatively optimistic trends for human development, with substantial investments in education and health, rapid economic growth, and well-functioning institutions. However, SSP5 assumes an energy intensive, fossil-based economy, while in SSP1 there is an increasing shift toward sustainable practices. SSPs 3 and 4 envision more pessimistic development trends, with little investment in education or health, fast growing population, and increasing inequalities. In SSP3 countries prioritize regional security, whereas in SSP4 large inequalities within and across countries dominate, in both cases leading to societies that are highly vulnerable to climate change. SSP2 envisions a central pathway in which trends continue their historical patterns without substantial deviations.

Currently, the Scenario Model Intercomparison Project developed a set of eight pathways of future emissions, concentrations, and land use, with additional ensemble members and long-term extensions, grouped into two tiers of priority which implies new, SSP-based versions of RCPs (Figure 2.3)

Figure 2.3

SSP-RCP scenario matrix (Source: O'Neill et al., 2016)



2.5.2 Bias Correction of Climate Models

The impact of change in the climatic conditions are frequently computed using the climate models where these models normally requires finer resolution input data. Output from these impact models do not statistically fit with the observed gauging data for a control period and this difference is term as bias (Soriano et al., 2019). The model output for rainfall and temperature often biased mainly due to faulty conceptualization, discretization, and spatial averaging within grid cells (Teutschbein & Seibert, 2012). These biases in the climate model makes the impact studies unrealistic and more complicated (Bergström et al., 2001; Christensen et al., 2008). Thus, the correction of these biases from the climate models through a process to account errors from the model and improves their fitting to observations referred as bias correction of the climate models. Several methods ranging from simple scaling to sophisticated probability mapping are developed for correcting the biases from climate models (Chen et al., 2011; Johnson & Sharma, 2011). Various bias correction techniques such as linear scaling, local intensity scaling, quantile mapping, power transformation approaches etc. have been reviewed, discussed, and applied in many studies (Themeßl et al., 2011; Mpelasoka & Chiew, 2009; Soriano et al., 2019; Teutschbein & Seibert, 2012). These studies show that all the methods have their own advantages and disadvantages like the liner scaling is based on mean monthly correction but do not account for frequency distribution. Similarly, correcting biases in the mean and variance is handy using power transformation method. Most of these approaches provide an emphasis on correcting rainfall and fit to the observed value irrespective to the extreme value behavior and for correcting the distribution function quantile mapping technique is more useful (Soriano et al., 2019). A study by Teutschbein & Seibert, (2012), to correct the biases of RCMs simulation for the hydrological climate impact assessment showed that all the different correction techniques could correct the mean value but have different capacity in correcting other statistical properties like percentiles or standard deviations but the hydrological simulation from bias corrected input fitted better with the observed values rather than the biased one. Furthermore, studies have also considered the effect of the correction technique on flow frequency curves but the selection of best technique shall be based on the requirement of the application and improvement in the entire timeseries rather than any specific one (Soriano et al., 2019).

2.6 Demographic Projection Techniques

The major share of the current global population currently lives in the cities (Buhaug & Urdal, 2013) and the projection from United Nations, (2018), shows that that the trend is likely to increase to up to 68% by 2050. Urbanization is referred as the rural population to an urban area transforming the built environment (Malik et al., 2017). It is the processes of the increase share of urban population and is mainly governed by the phenomena of reclassification of rural to an urban area, natural growth, and the migration trend (Buhaug & Urdal, 2013). Furthermore, the migration from the rural to urban area as a process of urbanization can be the consequences of few factors one is the increased pressure of population in the rural area leading to rural shortage to the resources, the second can be the impact of the environmental degradation and climate change leading to desertification, droughts, soil salinization etc. affecting the rural livelihood and other factors such as limited opportunities to education, employment, health and other public services (Grimm et al., 2008; Homer-Dixon, 2010). Ayhan, (2018), categorized population projections techniques as mathematical and cohort component projection models. Furthermore, the study also revealed that using past population data to forecast the future total population, mathematical models are handy and useful. In case of the cohort technique, it disaggregates the cohorts and components.

The mathematical models' projects based on the arithmetic or geometric or exponential growth and can be classified as the Linear Model, Geometric Model, Logistic Growth Model, Exponential Model (Ayhan, 2018). The common methods used in applying these mathematical models in projecting the population of the cities are:

Arithmetical increase method assumes the constant rate of population increase and uses the average decadal increase in population from past census and is generally useful for large and old cities where substantial development has occurred. The population (P_i) in this method after ith decade is given by:

$$P_n = P + n.C \qquad \text{eq.2.1}$$

Where, P is the current population and C is the constant rate of change of population w.r.t time given by

$$C = \frac{dP}{dt} \qquad \text{eq.2.2}$$

Another common method for projecting population of the cites is the Geometrical progression or increase method which assumes that the decadal percentage increase in population remain constant. In contrast to the Arithmetic method, this method gives higher future increment and is useful in applying new industrial town at the beginning of development. The population (P_i) in this method after ith decade is given by:

$$P_i = P\,(1 + I_G/100)^i \qquad \text{eq.2.3}$$

Where, P is the current population, i is the number of decades and I_G is the geometric mean in percentage.

Incremental increase method is another popular population forecasting method which is a modified version of the arithmetic increase method and is appropriate for average sized cities having normal increasing growth rate. The method used the increment in the increase of the population is considered on decadal basis. The population (P_i) in this method after ith decade is given by:

$$P_i = P + {}_{i}.X + \{i\,(i+1)/2\}.\,Y \qquad \text{eq.2.4}$$

Where, P is the current population, i is the number of decades and X and Y are the average increase and the incremental increase, respectively.

Another popular population forecasting method in the urban areas is the Logistic Curve Method which adopts growth curve characteristics within a limit of socioeconomic opportunities and space. The method is generally used when the population growth rate is not subjected to any exceptional changes and takes place under normal conditions of birth, migration, and deaths. This curve follows the S-shaped curve called as logistic curve. If P_0, P_1, and P_2 are the population of an area at time t = t_0 = 0, $t_1$and t_2 = $2t_1$ respectively over the past, the population after time t (P_t) and saturated population P_{sat} is given by:

$$P_t = \frac{P_{sat}}{1 + e^{(a+b\Delta t)}} \tag{eq.2.5}$$

$$P_{sat} = \frac{2P_0P_1P_2 - P_1^2(P_0 + P_2)}{P_0P_2 - P_1^2} \tag{eq.2.6}$$

$$a = \ln(\frac{P_{sat} - P_0}{P_0}) \tag{eq.2.7}$$

$$b = \frac{1}{n}\ln\frac{P_0(P_{sat} - P_1)}{P_1(P_{sat} - P_0)} \tag{eq.2.8}$$

Similarly, graphical methods, comparative graphical methods, master plan methods are other methods used in forecasting population of cities.

2.7 Urban Land Use and Land Cover Change Projection

Urbanization is the process of transformation which includes the rapid growth of the urban population included with an increase in demand for urban infrastructures and services. The expansion and the modification of urban land transforming the natural built environment is an important aspect of the urbanization process and this involves both spatial and vertical transformation on natural land cover with the modern service infrastructures and impervious surfaces (Paul et al., 2018). The Land Use and Land Cover Change (LULCC) alters the hydrology, energy balance, biodiversity, habitats cycle, and human livelihoods (Pielke et al., 2011; Trisurat et al., 2010). The impervious surfaces because of change in the land use and land cover impact hydrologic response and increases the surface water runoff, rate of sediment deposits within any catchment, and averts sub-surface infiltration (Sankalp & Sahoo, 2018). The consequences of the LULCC due to the rapid urbanization are reduction in green vegetative cover and excessive use of fossil fuels creating an inconsistency between the creation and utilization of greenhouse gases impacting the carbon cycle (Churkina, 2016). Furthermore, this alteration in natural cover also reduces water seeping capability, accelerates the surface runoff, and rate of sediment deposition thus altering the urban hydrological course and impacting the entire water cycle (Viger et al., 2011). Studies have acknowledged that the LUCCC as one of the key drivers for global climate change (Kumar, 2012; Yao et al., 2015), and the continuation of this trend is likely to alter urban climatic characteristics inducing extreme effects on rainfall, temperature, evapotranspiration and soil water content (C. P. Kumar, 2012). The Urban Heat Island (UHI) effect is the other major consequence of LULCC in urban areas because of urban rough surfaces and rising temperatures which exposes the urban residents to more heat stress (Chapman et al., 2017). Thus, in the context of rapid urbanization by 2050 as projected by the United Nations, the changes in the trend of urban land use and land cover should be emphasized as it acts as a catalyst for many consequences that result due to urbanization.

The projection of future LULCC is usually done by using different types of land-use change models which preferably quantify the change and predict future use. The LULCC models are the supporting tools to supplement the existing LULC mentalities, analyze the cause and consequences of the change and assist the planners and policymakers for informed decision making (Verburg et al., 2004). The concept of LULCC modelling is mainly based on six different features that are usually deemed to be important while discussing the modelling techniques and these are the level of analysis, the driving factors, the cross-scale dynamics, the temporal dynamics, the spatial interaction, and neighborhood effects and the level of integration of the model (Verburg et al., 2004). The LULCC models can be broadly categorized as spatially and non-spatially explicit (statistical) based models.

The statistical model uses a mathematical formula to predict the future change in the land-use change and Markov Model and System Dynamics models are some examples (Akbar et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2016). On the other hand, the spatially explicit models such Cellular Automata (CA) model the Agent-Based model (ABM), Dynamics of Land System model (DLS), and Dyna-CLUE model are used to forecast and analyze the spatial distribution of future land use (Adhikari et al., 2020; Samie et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2016; Trisurat et al., 2019). The study was done by Tang & Di, (2019), used combined multi-temporal Landsat images and the Markov-CA model with the socio-economic dynamics to examine farmland loss in the Delhi, India and the results from the model provided good accuracy and a better understanding of LULC change in past and future but the entire process accumulated the errors of the models from various sources and steps followed and also could not integrate other essential factors such as climate, policies, etc. The Dyna-CLUE model which is the modified version of the CLUE-s model (Castella & Verburg, 2007) can stipulate scenarios for land-use change via the model parameters and successfully used in some countries and continents (Verburg et al., 2008; Y. Wang et al., 2018). This model has the capabilities of not only simulating under multiple land-use scenarios but also takes into account the driving forces for the change, management policies to generate more precise predictions (Wang et al., 2019).

2.8 Sectoral Water Demand Estimation

The process of rapid urbanization has greatly affected the environment and the climate as the various anthropogenic activities modify the utilization pattern of water, energy, food, land, and in-turn pollute the natural environment even though urbanization is intimately interlinked to the socio-economic of the country. This validates the role and importance of urban centers in domestic economics and its obligation to deliver higher quality of services to its inhabitants. So, rapidly urbanizing areas are enormously stressed in delivering multiple (traffic management, education, employment opportunities, waste management, etc.) public-oriented services and among many of the urban public services is the “water supply and sanitation” is one of the important (Bloom et al., 2008; H. Jones et al., 2014). So, urban planners and water managers need to have an informed understanding of sectoral (domestic, industrial, and agriculture) water demand for present and future conditions sustainable management of resources, and delivery of public services. Consistent prediction of the urban water demand offers a scientific basis for strategic (long-term), tactical (medium-term), and operational (short-term) decisions making in water utilities (Donkor et al., 2014). The application of the forecasting discipline in the future estimation water demand faces relatively many challenges mainly due to the multiple hypothesis and variables affecting the demand included with actual filed availability of the baseline data for different sectors (Arbués et al., 2003). Furthermore, the difference in the practice followed by service providers or researchers and forecast periodicities in water demand forecasting significantly makes differences in the methodology and hypothesis used. Several studies used various techniques in estimating domestic, industrial, and agricultural water demand (Joseph et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020). In the study done by (Li et al., 2017), in Shanghai, China estimated the effect of the growth in the population and economics in future needs of public water by extrapolation of previous tendencies and principal component regression analysis creating three scenarios (future GDP and population). Furthermore, the study by (Joseph et al., 2018), used census-based statistical data in estimating future water withdrawal from irrigation, domestic, industrial, and environmental sectors. The same study used several factors such as economic development, production information, qualitative survey in projecting industrial water demand. The review is done by Donkor et al., (2014), on different methodologies and models for forecasting urban water demand shows that multiple methods and applications are used to forecast the demand depending on variables, periodicity, and the forecast horizon of the forecasting agency. Furthermore, the same study concluded that the use of artificial neural networks (ANN) models are handy for short-term demand forecasting which coupled models (econometric models coupled with scenario-based forecasting) is more convenient for strategic forecasting and decision making.

2.9 Assessment of Vulnerability of Groundwater Resources to Availability

Vulnerability is the susceptibility towards the impact of hazards and the definition varies depending on the context and the scholars. Various climatic and non-climatic factors such as population growth, rapid industrialization, urbanization, and increased sectoral water demand has stressed the groundwater (Taylor, 2014; Van der Gun, 2017), thus increasing its vulnerability in the present and future. The IPCC in the fourth assessment report defines vulnerability to climate change as "*the degree to which a system is susceptible to and unable to cope with, adverse effects of climate change, including climate variability and extremes*". Thus, it is a function exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity of a system to current and possible threats (Aslam et al., 2018). Exposure refers to the alteration in climate stimuli to which the system is being exposed, sensitivity is an intrinsic property which refers to the degree of impact on the system being exposed to the threat whereas the adaptive capacity is the ability of the system to bounce back or adjust to the potential damage. The variability in climatic parameters (rainfall, temperature, evapotranspiration) has created a greater challenge in alleviating groundwater vulnerability and the non-climatic factors exaggerate the impact and increase the uncertainties in the assessment. Studies used various locations and its rate of recharge as a benchmark for assessing the groundwater vulnerability to examine seasonal variations such as variation in pumping rates and fluctuation in recharge (Döll, 2009; Segal et al., 2014). The study by (Döll, 2009), assessed global scale groundwater vulnerability to climate change by examining its impact on the recharge and storage and the study discovered that the aquifers in the African regions are highly vulnerable and highly sensitive areas with increased population is likely to decrease in recharge up to 10% by 2050. Segal et al., (2014), analyzed the seasonal recharge patterns in California using stable isotopes and the results concluded increased vulnerability of shallow aquifers due to the alteration in amount groundwater recharge under warmer climatic conditions. The combined impact of climate, population change, urbanization, and industrial development on groundwater resources shows increased abstraction due to increasing demand resulting from water table drawdown (Lutz et al., 2011). Most of the literature limited the scope of the study either to the impact assessment only (Eshtawi et al., 2015; Lutz et al., 2011; Segal et al., 2014). Studies have quantified the intrinsic and specific vulnerability to contamination. These methods are overlay/index method; DRASTIC method; GOD; SINTACS, AVI, DART commonly used when assessing groundwater vulnerability to the quality aspects (Aslam et al., 2018; Luoma et al., 2017). Furthermore, Aslam et al., (2018), proposed an impact modelling and an-index based approach in assessing the groundwater vulnerability to external stressors. Limited studies have adopted the vulnerability of groundwater based on its function as exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity as defined by IPCC. An indicator-based approach is likely to be effective to examine the system vulnerability as a cumulative effect of all the stressors. Babel et al., (2011), applied the indicator-based approach in assessing the vulnerability of freshwater resources where the study selected several indicators for water stress index and adaptive capacity to calculate the vulnerability index.

2.10 Hydrological Modelling

Hydrological modelling portrays real-word hydrological system using some physical models and mathematical equations via multiple computer simulations. The model focuses on the individual flows of the entire system and is used for predicting system behavior to various processes using several parameters like climatic variables, catchment topography, land use conditions, and other relevant boundary conditions. In hydrological modelling runoff estimation is a key can be one or both i.e. infiltration and saturation excess (Anees et al., 2016). Estimating a hydrological runoff model developed to estimate runoff is defined through a set of mathematical equations with rainfall and drainage being the major inputs along with watershed topography, soil properties, vegetative cover, and aquifer characteristics (Devi et al., 2015). The process of hydrological modelling consists of replicating actual flow with as minimum errors as possible and a good model is insensitive to any alteration in circumstances. Seiller et al., (2012), defined that the robust hydrological model is insensitive to any change in environmental conditions and is thus competent in replicating its results to different periods than that of only the calibrated and validated period. Devi et al., (2015), classified hydrological models as a lumped and distributed model as a function of time and space, and based on the other criteria the hydrological models can also be divided as deterministic and stochastic models. Furthermore, the additional classification based on the time factor is the static (excludes time) and dynamic (include time) models. The lumped model considers an entire watershed or basin as a single used irrespective of the spatial variability whereas in the distributed models divides the entire catchments into smaller sub-units considering all the spatial processes. The deterministic and the stochastic models differ in terms of the output from the model where the first gives the same output for the set of given input whereas stochastic models produce multiple values of output can be for a single set of given input. Furthermore, these models can be mainly categorized as empirical, conceptual, and physically-based models. Empirical models are also known as the data-driven model as it inputs the information from the currently available data without pondering other characteristics and processes of the system and thus, involving the mathematical equations from the simultaneous input and output time-series. Conceptual models include the semi-empirical equations and portrays the majority of all the components of the system and its processes and are based on connected reservoirs concepts in which rainfall, percolation, infiltrations recharges the system and drainage, runoff, evaporation empties the system. Physically-based models which are also known as mechanistic models where the real-world phenomenon is ideally represented mathematically and usually requires morphology of the catchment with initial state data. The choice of these various types of models varies based on the purpose, its application making it more subjective. Studies have found the ANN model to be useful in modelling the complex hydrological processes and used for the estimation of streamflow values (Jimeno-Sáez et al., 2018; Juan et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2016). Wang et al., (2006), used the HBV model to analyze the impact of climate change on the river discharge whereas other study used other models such as the HSAMI model, NAM model for the same climatic influence in hydrological flows in different areas (Boyer et al., 2010; Thodsen, 2007). Several studies used the WetSpass model for assessing the impact of multiple stresses such as climate and land-use change on surface discharge and subsurface recharge (Dams et al., 2008; Moiwo et al., 2010; Tilahun & Merkel, 2009).

Currently, the "*Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT)*", a semi-distributed model having the capability of continuous simulation and developed by USDA-ARS is being frequently used in hydrological studies in estimation of river flow, modelling of the ungauged basins/catchments, and assessing the impacts on both quantity and quality of water under multiple stresses like climate and land-use changes (Trang et al., 2017). The model is data-driven, it requires a huge quantity of data, its process, and expertise in analyzing the results. However, the model being efficient for simulation of hydrological processes in large basins with an option of splitting the watershed to subunits simulating impacts of both natural and anthropogenic interventions on surface water and sediment yield make it advantageous over other models. Furthermore, a wide range of components like soil and crop characteristics, weather, land-use and management options, nutrient load, etc. can be included in the model. Neitsch et al., (2011), provide a detailed description and insight of the SWAT model. Several research studies have used the SWAT model in hydrological simulation and analyzing the problems for better possible solutions (Alansi et al., 2009; Arias et al., 2014; Piman et al., 2013; Yen et al., 2015).

2.11 Groundwater Modelling

Groundwater modelling is the representation of the sub-surface flow system and is mainly used in the simulation and prediction of the aquifer behavior responding to different conditions at present and the future. The groundwater model represents both the natural subsurface flow within the system and the quality aspects of the system including its movement. Thus, it is a very useful and influential tool in predicting the impacts of hydrological alteration on the aquifer system and used in planning and implementing various water management strategies, protection of groundwater resources, and application of various remediation initiatives based on multi-scenario impact analysis for ensuring sustainable availability of freshwater resources. Baalousha, (2009), stated the classification of groundwater models as (i) physical models, (ii) analogue models, and (iii) mathematical models. Furthermore, the study states that the mathematical models are solved either by analytical methods which are limited to solving simple problems and can be used with less data and the other is the numerical solutions which manages more complex problems and are more effective and simple to use but requires more processing capacity and speed of computers that are being used. The groundwater models or subsurface flow models can be one-dimensional which is mainly used for the vertical flow within the horizontal parallel layers (Olsthoorn, 1985), or can be a two-dimensional models which is mainly used for the two-dimensional flow below the ground and assumes that the conditions in the applied vertical plane is repeated in other parallel planes. Furthermore, the models can also be three-dimensional models which are very sophisticated and involves discretization of the entire domain into smaller cells horizontally and vertically. The parameters in each of the elements/cells are kept constant while may vary with other cells and thus the flow equations are then used to find the flow direction in multiple dimensions.

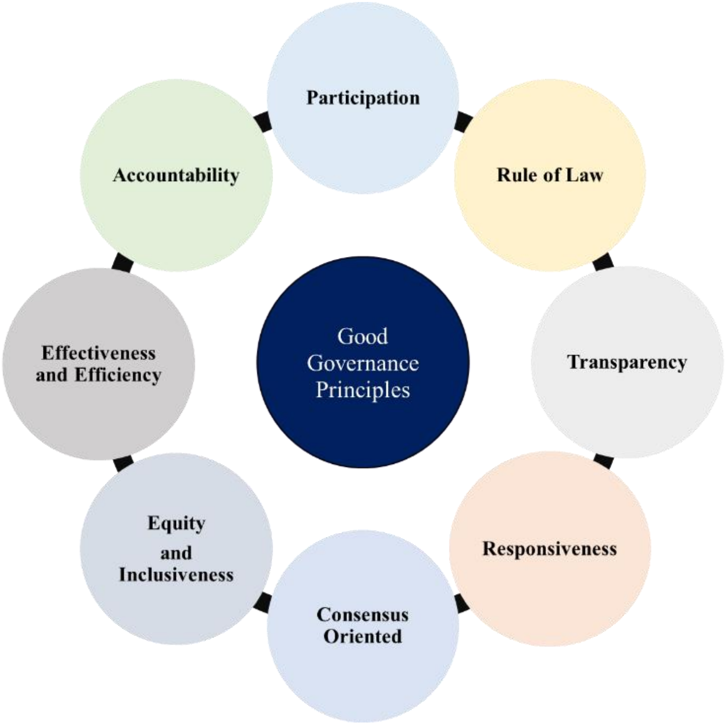
The Groundwater Modeling System (GMS) is a full modelling application for creating and simulating groundwater flows making the entire process more convenient through various processing tools before, during, and after model development. The system supports various subsurface related models such as FEMWATER, MT3DMs, UTEXAS, MODPATH, MODFLOW, etc. as the GMS has a modular interface to simplify the choice of only the needed modelling abilities (Jones, 2001). Furthermore, it also features two-dimensional as well as three-dimensional stratigraphic modeling included with the geo-statistics and the conceptual model. The MODFLOW model from the GMS which is a modular finite-difference flow model is one of the widely used by hydrogeologists around the globe for analyzing the dynamics of aquifer systems and understanding the flow patterns (Shrestha et al., 2020). Several studies have used MODFLOW to simulate the flow through aquifers (Abdalla, 2015; Cheng et al., 2014; Chitsazan & Movahedian, 2015; Qiu et al., 2015; Shrestha et al., 2020).

2.12 Water Governance

The concept of governance is frequently associated with government or the courses of governing. The common and fixed definition of governance is not available as it differs between defining organizations (Landman & Robinson, 2009). The policy paper by (UNDP, 1997), defines governance as “the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country’s affairs at all levels’, which ‘covers mechanisms, processes, and institutions through which groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences”. For the OECD, it is ‘the use of political authority and exercise of control in a society in relation to the management of its resources for social and economic development,’ which ‘includes the role of public authorities in establishing the environment in which economic operators function and in determining the distribution of benefits as well as the nature of the relationship between the ruler and the ruled’ (OECD, 1995). The three mutual elements of governance regardless of any definition are the process; power (authority); collectively manage community affairs. In general, governance is the process of exercising the authorized power in handling communal concerns. The explanation of governance suggests various options that how and to what extent the authority exercise its power with ethics and norms and the representation of multiple actors (OECD, 2015; UNDP, 1997), making it more extensive to evaluate the quality of governance. Governance is the ability of a governing authority to make and enforce rules in order to deliver public services (Fukuyama, 2013). This implies fair legal frameworks, transparency, accountability, participation of men and women, and so on (Ngobo & Fouda, 2012). Good governance is an approach to government that is committed to creating a system founded in justice and peace that protects an individual's human rights and civil liberties. Participation requires that all groups, particularly those most vulnerable, have direct or representative access to the systems of government. UNESCAP defined eight principles for the governance to be good (Figure 2.4). It assures that transparent process and the views of minorities most vulnerable in society are heard and taken account in decision-making.

Figure 2.4

Principles of good governance

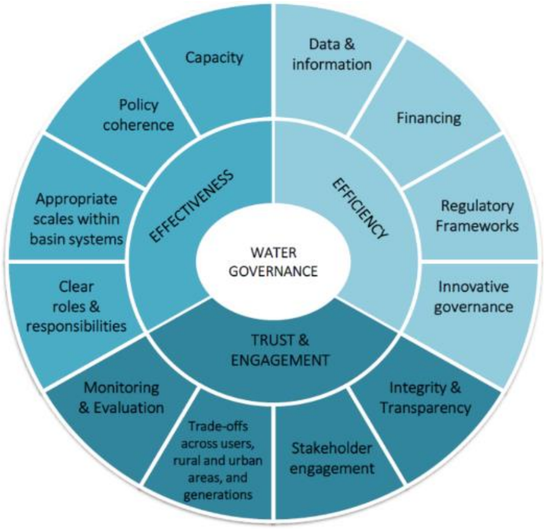


Water, being a renewable natural source is a limited resource that is disproportionately dispersed and is in an extremely pressurized state each day (Zogheib et al., 2018). The situational diversity in finding and using water in space and time makes it challenging to characterize any specific coherent policy for its governance. Water governance is "*the range of political, institutional and administrative rules, practices and processes (formal and informal) through which decisions are taken and implemented, stakeholders can articulate their interests and have their concerns considered, and decision-makers are held accountable for water management*" (Akhmouch & Correia, 2016). The definition differentiates between "*governance*" and "*management*" of water resources where governance of water is a social function which controls and provides direction for the water resources development, management, and its services whereas management are the set of the actions for analyzing and monitoring water resources in-line with the adopted operating measures developed to maintain the desirable condition of the resources.

In recent years, the one major policy level concern worldwide is about water and its good governance as the United Nations has already agreed on making water as the basic human right. Rapid urbanization, environmental issues and changes in the climatic conditions imposes substantial challenges for the effective and sustainable delivery of essential public services related to water and sanitation and environmental safeguard and thus, a probable explanation is likely to be Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) or private ownership (Pahl-Wostl, 2009). Water Governance is a complicated long-term affair engaging multiple actors from diverse sectors varying from household, agriculture, industrial sectors of different scales to the multi-level system of the government (Laban, 2007). The effectiveness, efficiency, mutual trust, and engagement required for a good water governance depends on 12 principles (Figure 2.5) as defined by OECD ranging from transparency, stakeholder engagement to monitoring and evaluation with clear organizational structure, policy coherence, adequate information, and regulating frameworks that guide the entire process and the involved stakeholders. The interactions between actors should be considered when promoting local water governance (Laban, 2007).

Figure 2.5

OECD Principles of water governance (Source: Akhmouch & Correia, 2016)

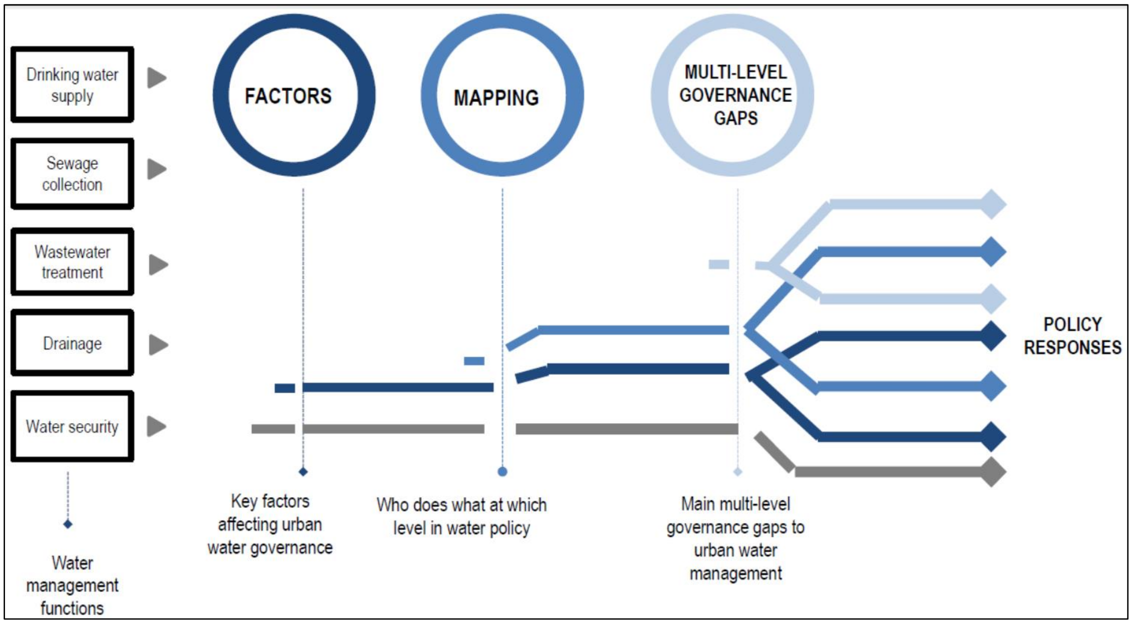


2.13 Urban Water Governance

The United Nations, (2018), projects that the increase in the urban resident to more than 65% by 2050 which is currently more than half the world's population. This signifies a substantial challenge for the management of the water resources and the delivery of essential public services related to water supply and sanitation (Staddon et al., 2017). Thus, there is a need to address these challenges through broader tools and a new integrated approach than the traditional concept of intensive water infrastructure development. A complete approach called "*Integrated Urban Water Management (IUWM)*" that incorporates all the elements of the urban water cycle (Keremane et al., 2017), shall be beneficial in the development of the cities and accomplish sustainable economic, social, and environmental goals. Romano & Akhmouch, (2019), mentioned that the water crisis is mainly a crisis of the governance and often managing this state of crisis become more challenging with insufficient information availability and dissemination, unclear institutional structure, limited capacity, and unclarities in roles and responsibilities. Studies in urban water governance distinguished three different models namely the (i) hierarchical model, (ii) market model, and (iii) network model (de Meene et al., 2011; Romano & Akhmouch, 2019). These models have their features and approaches such as the hierarchical model follow the centralized top-down approach with weaker engagement of the stakeholders in decision-making and implementation processes whereas the market model follows better engagement, ownership, and empowerment of stakeholders in the management processes. Furthermore, the third model i.e. the network model follows a more decentralized approach building cooperation and engagement between multi-sector and multi-actor collaboration for the management and decision-making processes. In practice, "*hybrid models*" are usually followed as cities undergo multiple complexities in addressing water challenges with diverse actors, institutional fragmentation, and distinct system followed by them at different scales. The OECD, (2016), employed an analytical system thinking framework (Figure 2.6) to detect challenges, enhance co-ordination, reduce institutional fragmentation, and bring consistency among relevant policies. The framework integrates the identification of the key internal (water sector) and external (e.g. institutional) factors that influence the effectiveness in decision making in urban water governance. This is followed by an institutional mapping of shared roles and responsibilities at multi-level government entities functioning as a regulatory role, operation role or any other intermediary roles. Furthermore, the frameworks incorporate an appraisal of multiple governance gaps such as communication gaps (between institutions), capacity gaps, financial differences, accountability gaps, information gaps and differences in functional and hydrological boundaries, etc. at the multi-level stage of governance and last but not the least the analytical framework for urban water governance also emphasize on the policy responses for Integrated Urban Water Management (IUWM). These above assessment and challenges identified from the assessment can be responded through the "*3Ps*" framework as developed by the OECD, (2016), which includes the policy, people, and places. The "Policy" coordination within the water sector and cross-sector favors efficient allocation and consumption of water resources in terms of its quality, quantity, and security. The strong engagement of multiple stakeholders i.e. "People" who have share in urban water management is key in building accountability, transparency, trust, and ownership in contributing to integrated water management. In addition to this understanding, the "Place" is crucial in overcoming boundary disparities between cities and its vicinities thus, developing cooperation, partnership, and shared benefits.

Figure 2.6

Analytical framework for assessing water governance in cities (Source: OECD, 2016)



2.14 Groundwater Governance

Globally, groundwater the most reliant freshwater resource, and the volume of its abstractions is increasing annually (Wada et al., 2014). Managing groundwater resources is a complicated task as it includes various stakeholders and decision-makers with opposing goals and are subject to multiple uncertainties triggered by inadequate data and information (Jakeman et al., 2016). Moreover, climate change and variability are influencing the recharge of groundwater (Taylor et al., 2013), as well as the demand with rapid urbanization. It is usually difficult to conceptualize and understand the hidden groundwater resource and thus its management becomes more complex as compared to the surface water which is fairly understood and managed societally (Jakeman et al., 2016). Additionally, groundwater's use and exploitation are exceedingly scattered in space and largely among private sector such as farmers, suppliers (companies) or local well-owners (de Chaisemartin et al., 2017), and thus, groundwater management is a process of influencing the actions and decisions of multiple actors contrasting from the management of the surface water which where public sector with mega infrastructure development plays a vital role.

Groundwater governance is a complicated process guided by regulatory framework and policies for its allocation, coordination, roles and responsibilities, transparent mechanism across the same or cross-sectors, geographical and jurisdictional borders. Thus, one of the gentle approaches of managing and addressing the water crisis challenges is realizing and understanding the importance of groundwater governance (Closas & Villholth, 2020; de Chaisemartin et al., 2017; Mukherji & Shah, 2005). The process guarantees the sustainable protection and control of the shared resource by supporting the promotion of responsible collective action (Closas & Villholth, 2020). Further, this is aided by the legal regulatory frameworks, policies and plans, effective institutional arrangement, shared information and knowledge, finances, and motivative structure that is aligned to the goal of the society (FAO, 2016). Thus, groundwater governance has appeared as a suitable technique for the management of groundwater resources sustainably with the attention of all the related stakeholders. Responsible use of groundwater with equity, efficiency, and sustainability can only result in effective groundwater management policies that are identified and applied based on the principles of governance (Varady et al., 2013), for the benefit of humankind and dependent ecosystems. The process of the governance of groundwater embraces the enabling framework with the administrative principles for groundwater management (Foster & Garduño, 2013), that defines the clear responsibilities and accountability in the formulation and execution of the policies, plans, and strategies between multi-layers of actors with coordination and interaction between multi-stakeholders. The groundwater governance comprises of four crucial components which includes the "*actors*" engagement and participation at various levels; promising "*legal and institutional framework*"; accurate and broadly-shared "*information & knowledge*"; and "*policies*" and incentive structures aligned with goal (de Chaisemartin et al., 2017). The actors (Figure 2.7) in groundwater governance are the related shareholders who are directly (indirectly) associated with groundwater resource consumption, exploitation, governance, and management. Good groundwater governance involves the inclusion of all diverse character actors (Cruz & Soares, 2018), within a beneficial structure associating individual actions with agreed shared goals. The dynamic involvement of the stakeholders, sense of urgency for governance and management among the actors, clear and undisputed mandate, sufficient capacity and motivation among the government agencies in-charge, motivated and clear understanding of the stakeholders and multi-actors collaborating harmoniously are some of the important aspects while diagnosing these components (FAO, 2016).

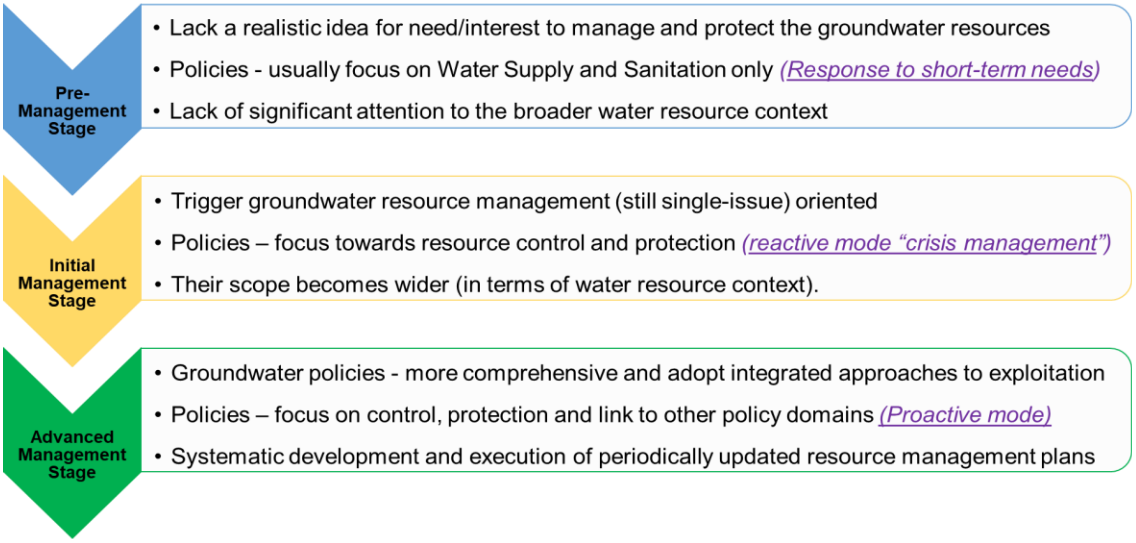
Figure 2.7

Actors in groundwater governance

The second component of groundwater governance is the “*legal frameworks*” which are the legally obligatory standards, within an institutional framework that delineates the roles and responsibilities with alignment of actors with pursued policies and plans (Foster et al., 2010). Laws and regulations are crucial for effective and consistent management of groundwater quality, quantity, and availability. In groundwater governance, the legal frameworks include regulations for ownership and user rights, safeguard from pollution, the role of the state in regulating its use, organizational mandates, rights, and obligations of the different actors, etc. (FAO, 2016). Well-defined regulatory frameworks with clear views on groundwater and its functions, the capacity of agency in-charge in monitoring and enforcing in compliance with the law, and the provisions for harmonization concerning internal as well as international transboundary aquifers are the important aspects while diagnosing these components (FAO, 2016). The third component of the groundwater governance is the “*policies and plans*” which are the set of decisions oriented towards a long-term purpose or to a problem (FAO, 2016). The degree to which they provide the agreed agenda set goals and boundary conditions for action-oriented management plans should be a measure of the governance arrangements. Once policy is formed proper tools, rules, protocols, etc. are required (de Chaisemartin et al., 2017). Groundwater policies and plans are broadly diverse, and this is not only due to differences in location-specific political, cultural, physical, and socio-economic conditions but also in the differences in the stage of advancement (Figure 2.8) of groundwater management and governance.

Figure 2.8

Groundwater policy diversity based on different management stages



- Lack a realistic idea for need/interest to manage and protect the groundwater resources
- Policies - usually focus on Water Supply and Sanitation only *(Response to short-term needs)*
- Lack of significant attention to the broader water resource context

- Trigger groundwater resource management (still single-issue) oriented
- Policies – focus towards resource control and protection *(reactive mode "crisis management")*
- Their scope becomes wider (in terms of water resource context).

- Groundwater policies - more comprehensive and adopt integrated approaches to exploitation
- Policies – focus on control, protection and link to other policy domains *(Proactive mode)*
- Systematic development and execution of periodically updated resource management plans

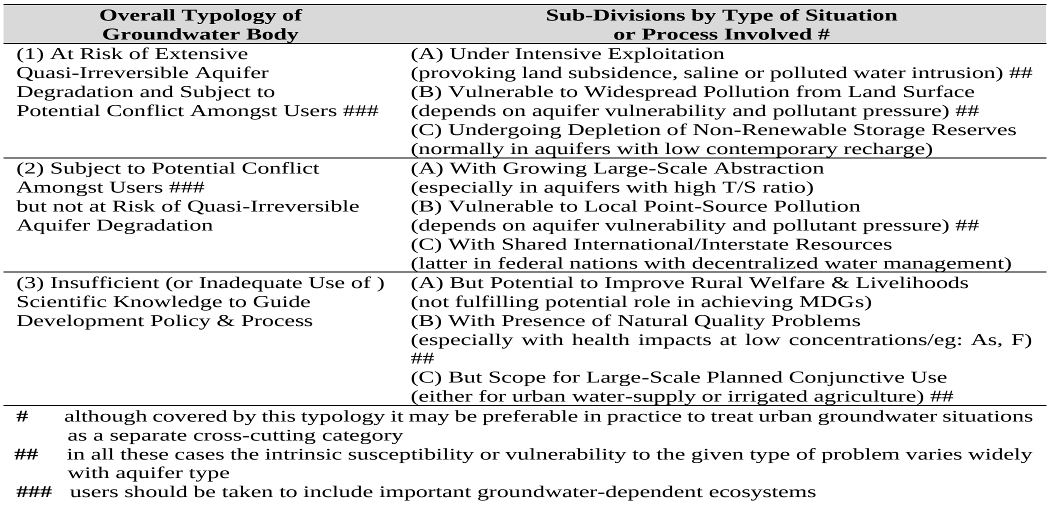
Optimal groundwater management with clear policies and plans is only possible through the quality of the information and knowledge about the setting, which is the fourth major component of the groundwater governance. A basic information (character, quantity, quality, recharge, development, uses, etc.) on the local systems and its setting (socio-economic, ecological, political, etc.) included with the understanding of the processes of change is crucial as the knowledge established on reliable and sufficient data and information is thus vital to guide groundwater exploitation, management, and protection (FAO, 2016). The information for good groundwater governance should comprise both snapshots of static features (groundwater systems: aquifers/aquitards, physical environment, human communities) and monitoring of dynamic changes (levels, quality, withdrawal volume, demography, etc.) (Cruz & Soares, 2018). This information is then transformed into knowledge through the relevant experts which provides direction to the decision-makers and relevant stakeholders for informed decision making. Additionally, the resulting information and knowledge should be disseminated extensively though multiple online (webinars, online-database) and offline (reports, publications, workshops) platforms.

2.15 Assessment of Groundwater Governance

Governance is frequently associated with government or the courses of governing and thus, it refers to both, procedures for implementing the defined regulations and management of the resources by setting defined objectives, principles, and rules. Globally, all the actors (politicians, authorities, management organizations, private sectors) involved in the management of groundwater have understood the necessity for the long-term employment of sustainable groundwater governance and management practices (Colvin & Saayman, 2007). Groundwater governance "*involves collective action to ensure socially sustainable utilization and effective protection of groundwater resources for the benefit of people and groundwater-dependent ecosystems*" (Foster et al., 2010). It refers to forms of guiding the society beyond policy formation and includes multiple non-state actors (industries, scientists, environmental interests, and other parties interested in groundwater) with an accountable decision-making structures and transparent processes at different levels of the society (Foster & Garduño, 2013). Foster et al., (2010), suggested an enhanced groundwater governance evaluation which entails forming logical typology (Table 2.2) of groundwater bodies based on the resource and supply issues and processes involved during exploitation. Furthermore, a pragmatic arrangement (Figure 2.9) of groundwater bodies is used in considering the utmost typology for groundwater governance status and needs.

Table: 2.2

Typology of groundwater bodies with situations and processes involved (Source: Foster et al., 2010)



Overall Typology of Groundwater Body	Sub-Divisions by Type of Situation or Process Involved #
(1) At Risk of Extensive Quasi-Irreversible Aquifer Degradation and Subject to Potential Conflict Amongst Users ###	(A) Under Intensive Exploitation (provoking land subsidence, saline or polluted water intrusion) ## (B) Vulnerable to Widespread Pollution from Land Surface (depends on aquifer vulnerability and pollutant pressure) ## (C) Undergoing Depletion of Non-Renewable Storage Reserves (normally in aquifers with low contemporary recharge)
(2) Subject to Potential Conflict Amongst Users ### but not at Risk of Quasi-Irreversible Aquifer Degradation	(A) With Growing Large-Scale Abstraction (especially in aquifers with high T/S ratio) (B) Vulnerable to Local Point-Source Pollution (depends on aquifer vulnerability and pollutant pressure) ## (C) With Shared International/Interstate Resources (latter in federal nations with decentralized water management)
(3) Insufficient (or Inadequate Use of) Scientific Knowledge to Guide Development Policy & Process	(A) But Potential to Improve Rural Welfare & Livelihoods (not fulfilling potential role in achieving MDGs) (B) With Presence of Natural Quality Problems (especially with health impacts at low concentrations/eg: As, F) ## (C) But Scope for Large-Scale Planned Conjunctive Use (either for urban water-supply or irrigated agriculture) ##

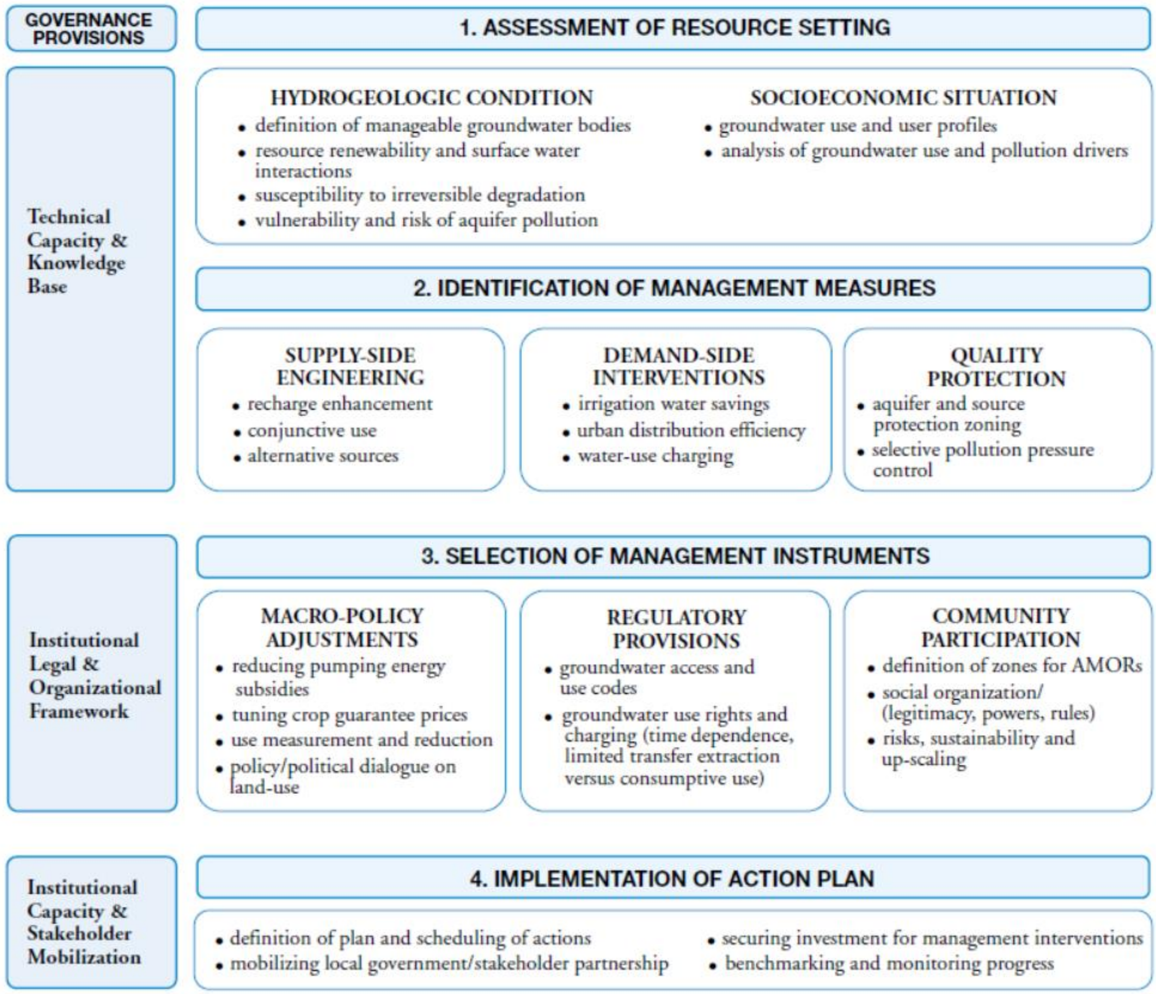
\# although covered by this typology it may be preferable in practice to treat urban groundwater situations as a separate cross-cutting category

\## in all these cases the intrinsic susceptibility or vulnerability to the given type of problem varies widely with aquifer type

\### users should be taken to include important groundwater-dependent ecosystems

Figure 2.9:

Pragmatic framework for elaboration of management action plan with corresponding provision of governance (Source: Foster et al., 2010)



Action plans for the management of groundwater resources with the investment and intervention on both supply and demand side, a transparent and accountable institutional structure ought to be for the areas or system at risk of irretrievable. The pragmatic framework (Figure) outlines the explanation and execution of such groundwater management action plan corresponding to the types of governance provisions. Foster et al., (2010), developed a list of benchmarking criteria (Table 2.3) for evaluating the effectiveness of existing governance provisions and capacity for executing the provision. Studies have applied the benchmarks and the rating for assessing and stocktaking the state of groundwater governance in the defined settings (Cruz & Soares, 2018; Pietersen et al., 2011). Also, FAO, (2016), developed and suggested a set of groundwater governance qualitative indicators for global groundwater governance assessment based on '*strong to weak scale*' as the influencing capacity and status.

Table: 2.3

Checklist of 'top-20' benchmarking criteria for the evaluation of groundwater governance provision and capacity (Source: Foster et al., 2010)

Type of Provision/Capacity	No.	Criterion	Rank
Technical	1	Existence of basic hydrogeological maps	
	2	Groundwater body/aquifer delineation	
	3	Groundwater-piezometric monitoring network	
	4	Groundwater-pollution hazard assessment	
	5	Availability of aquifer numerical management models	
	6	Groundwater-quality monitoring network	
Legal and Institutional	7	Water well drilling permits and groundwater use rights	
	8	Instrument to reduce groundwater abstraction	
	9	Instrument to prevent water well construction	
	10	Sanction for illegal water well construction	
	11	Groundwater abstraction and use charging	
	12	Land-use control on potentially polluting activities	
	13	Levies on generation/discharge of potential pollutants	
	14	Government agency as ground-water-resource guardian	
	15	Community aquifer management organizations	
Cross-Sector Policy Coordination	16	Coordination with agriculture development	
	17	Groundwater-based urban/industrial planning	
	18	Compensation for groundwater protection	
Operational	19	Public participation in groundwater management	
	20	Existence of groundwater-management action plan	

In each instance, the criteria should be individually ranked concerning considerations of 'existing provisions' and 'institutional capacity to implement. Rank: (0: non-existent; 1: incipient; 2: acceptable; 3: optimum)

CHAPTER 3

STUDY AREA AND DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Study Area

The study selects Khon Kaen, Thailand as one of the rapidly urbanizing areas in the Lower Mekong Basin. The major concentration of the study shall be on the Khon Kaen Metropolitan Municipality within Muang Khon Kaen district for improved groundwater governance under multiple stresses, but these recommendations for improving groundwater governance of the city shall be done based on a holistic approach by applying the hydrological and groundwater impact assessment on basin scale.

Khon Kaen province (Figure 3.1) lies in central northeastern, Thailand which is administratively divided into 26 districts. The total area of the province is 10,886 km^2 with the population density of around 166 persons per square kilometers. Geographically, the province occupies part of the Khorat Plateau and the hydrological boundary of the area is covered by the Chi and Mun rivers flow through it (Figure 3.2). The Mueang Khon Kaen district is the capital of Khon Kaen Province with an area of 953.4 km^2 and the population density of around 437 persons per square kilometers (Figure 3.1). The district accompanies the Khon Kaen Metropolitan Municipality (Figure 3.3) which is the largest city of the province located in north-eastern and one of the fastest-growing secondary cities in Thailand. Although, not the most populous secondary city in the region, Khon Kaen is the regional hub of financial, educational, and administrative activities (Marks, 2019). It is designated as an ‘urban growth pole’ for the northeastern region of Thailand, pouring funds into upgrading the city’s infrastructures which has resulted increase in economic transactions and accelerated urban growth, but with significant social and environmental consequences (Elinoff, 2013). Slum formation, traffic congestion, perennial droughts and biological degradation are now common challenges faced by Khon Kaen. In recent years, global climate change has had observable effects on Khon Kaen (Marks, 2019) resulting dry seasons are becoming much longer and droughts more intense, while heavy rainfall occurs more frequently and causes increasingly destructive flooding.

Figure 3.1

Location map of Khon Kaen province with the administrative boundaries and capital city

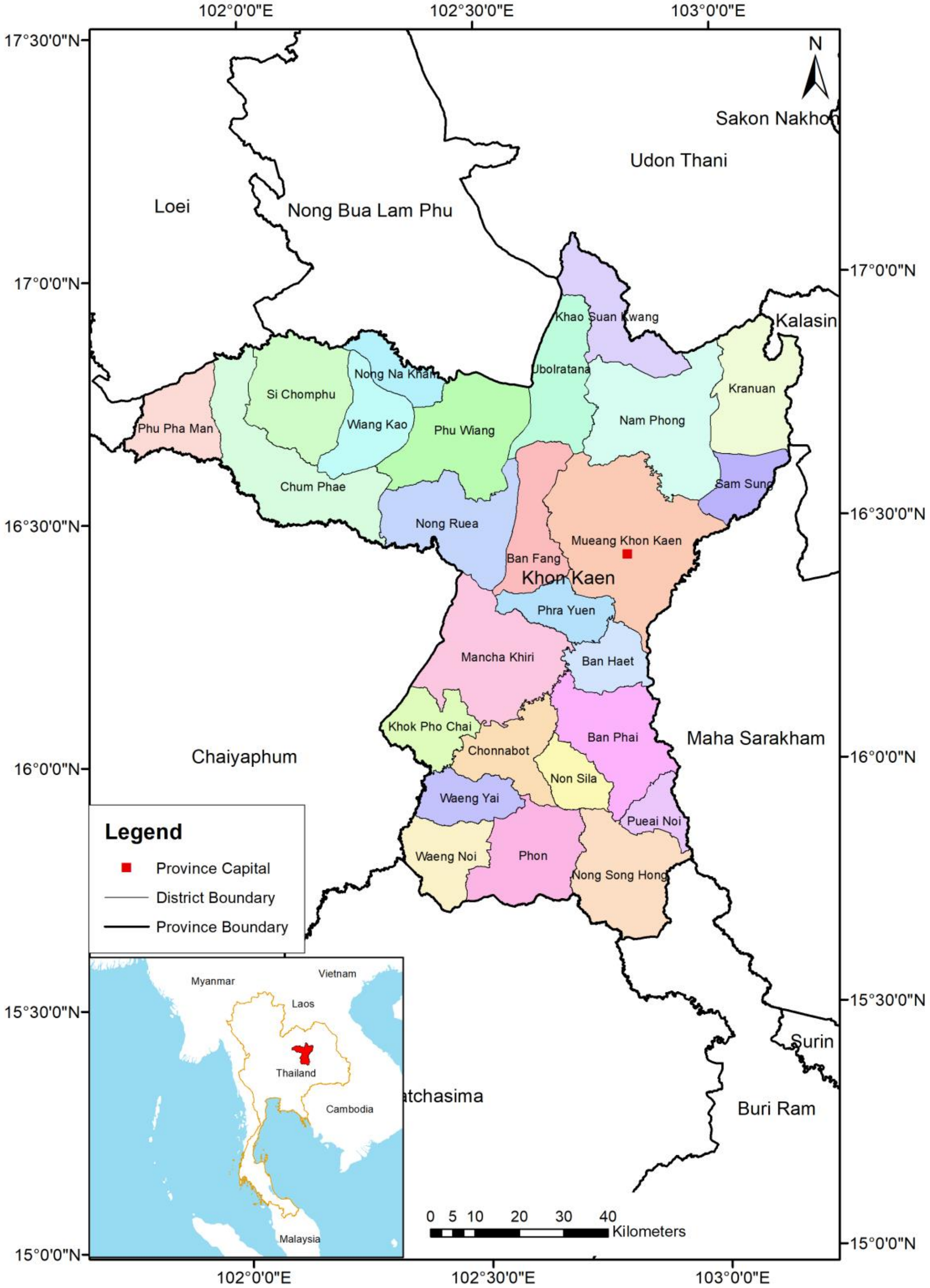


Figure 3.2

Hydrological boundaries of the study area with river network

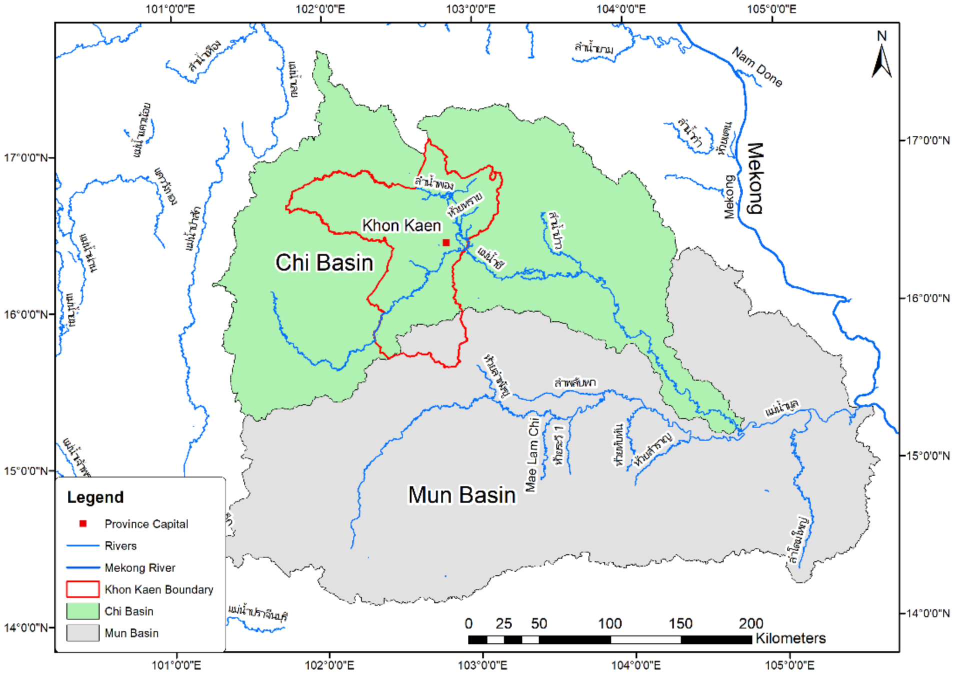
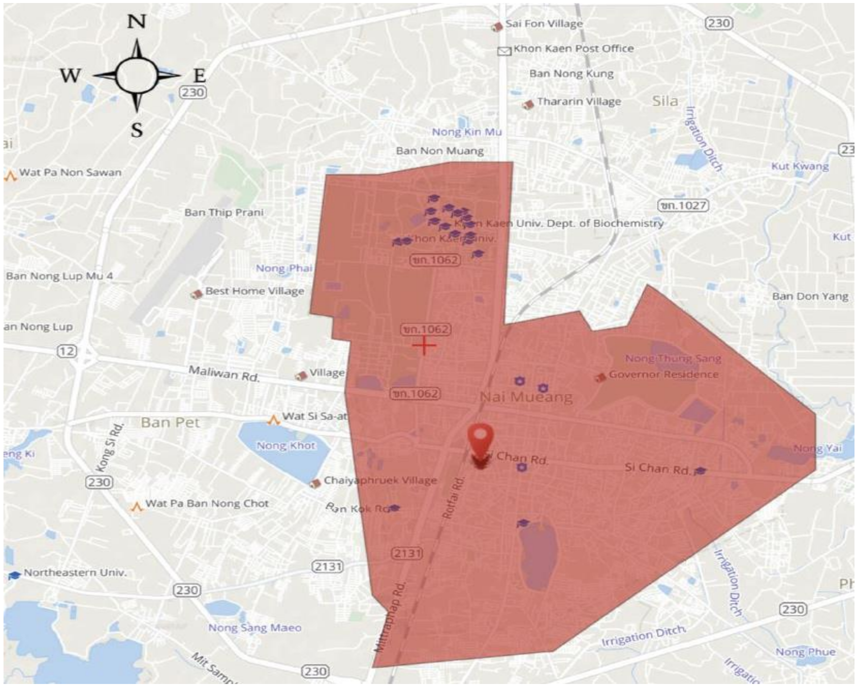


Figure 3.3

Map of Khon Kaen Metropolitan Authority (capital city) (Source: Sudhipongpracha & Dahiya, 2019)



Geographically the Khon Kaen Metropolitan Municipality, is situated approximately 450 km northeast of Bangkok and covers an area of 46 km^2 with the population density of around 2488 persons per square kilometers. Furthermore, the higher population density has resulted in increase in urban built up area. Studies shows that urban and built-up areas extraordinarily increased from 58.03 km^2 in 2006 to 131.39 km^2 in 2016 but paddy field and field crop notably decreased from 763.60 km^2 in 2006 to 599.37 km^2 in 2016 (Ongsomwang et al., 2019). The rapid urbanization and increased population density have resulted urban residents and slum dwellers deprived of access to tap water and consequently, must use groundwater for their daily needs.

Table 3.1

Summary characteristics of different administrative level at Khon Kaen, Thailand

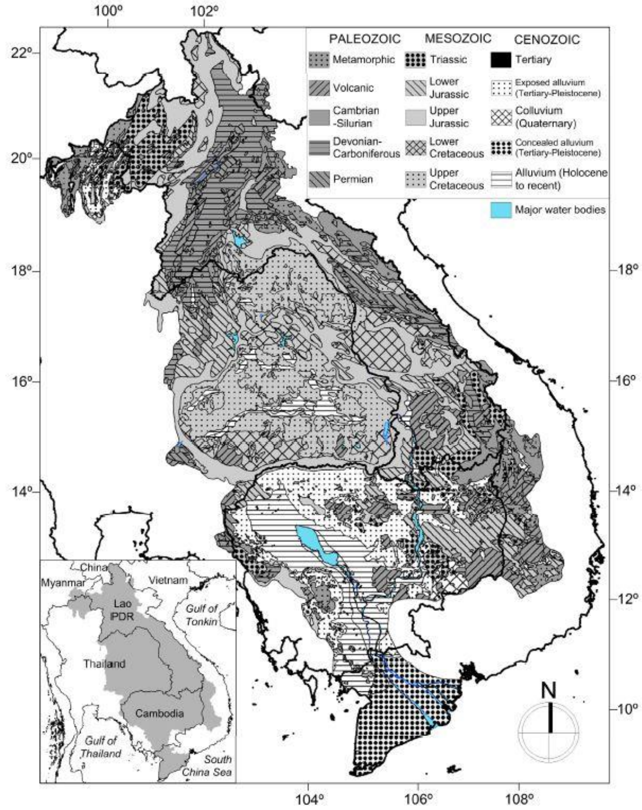
Variables	**Khon Kaen Province**	**Muang Khon Kaen District**	**Khon Kaen Municipality**
Coordinates	16°26'41" N to 102°50'1" E	16°26'18" N to 102°50'20" E	16°26" N to 102°50' E
Area (km^2)	10,886	953.4	46
Population	1.8 Million (2018)	0.40 Million (2017)	0.12 M (2018)
Population Density (person/km^2)	166	437	2600
Average Rainfall (mm/yr)	1246	1246	1246
Average High Temperature (°C)	32.8	32.8	32.8
Average low Temperature (°C)	22.3	22.3	22.3
Average Elevation (m) (above mean sea level)	100-200	100-200	187

3.2 Hydrogeological Units

Four main hydrogeological units (Figure 3.4) can be delineated in the Lower Mekong Basin (LMB). The first is along the eastern and southeastern border of the LMB, volcanic and granitic rocks with water-bearing features (joints, faults, and weathering zones) are overlapped by cemented early Paleozoic metasedimentary rocks with reduced porosity and permeability. The second in the Northern LMB, the porous and permeable late Paleozoic sedimentary rocks, dissected into relatively small blocks by subsequent orogeny, and topped by Mesozoic deposits, supports local groundwater flow systems locally discharging into tributaries of the Mekong River. The third, particularly in the Northeast Thailand consisits deep confined and shallow unconfined aquifers from the Mesozoic are comprised of sandstones. And, the fourth in the Mekong delta Cenozoic alluvial and deltaic sediments of up to 800 m thick form both unconfined and confined aquifers (Lacombe et al., 2017).

Figure 3.4

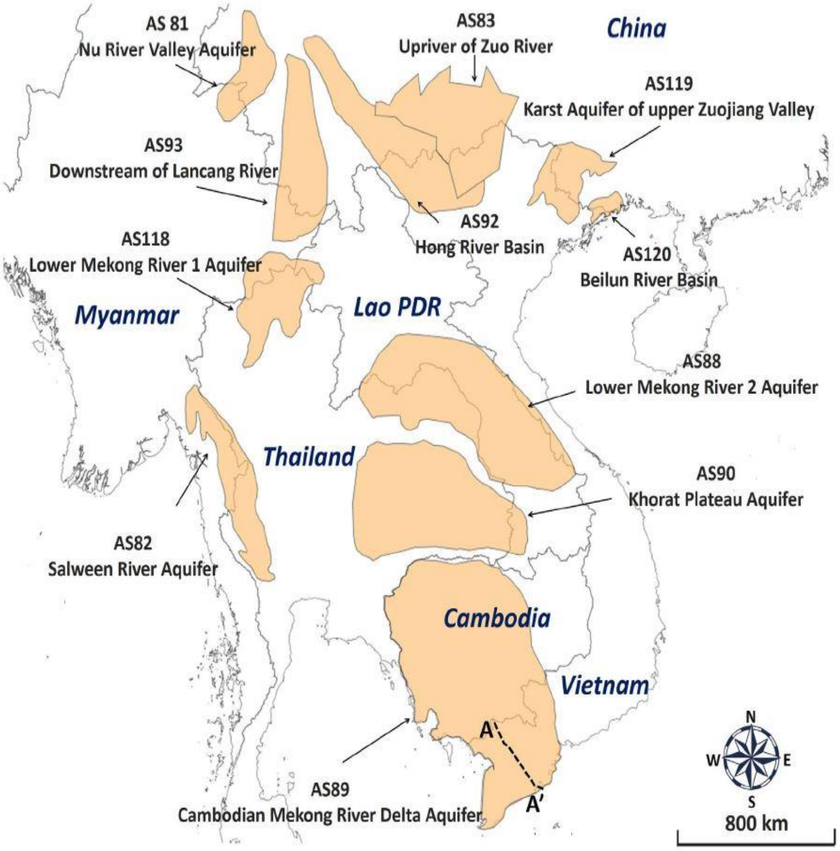
Geology of the Lower Mekong Basin (Source: Lacombe et al., 2017)



In the Lower Mekong Basin, total ground water reserves are thought to be about 100 to 300 km. The proposed study area includes the Khorat Plateau aquifer (Figure 3.5) which is a transboundary aquifer between Thailand and Lao PDR. The area of the aquifer is about 109,000 km^2 and 83.5% is covered in the Thailand. Williamson et al., (1989), observed brackish/saline groundwater due to the existence of salt rock underneath. The strata of the Khorat Plateau aquifer area is mainly composed of limestone, siltstone, shale, sandstone, and Holocene loose sediments. Groundwater in this aquifer is mainly used for the agricultural sector associated with rice paddy or sugarcane cultivation (Lee et al., 2018). Decreasing groundwater levels and deterioration of groundwater quality (salinity), particularly from Thailand, are major concerns threatening a sustainable water supply for irrigation and domestic water demand.

Figure 3.5

Transboundary aquifers in Greater Mekong Subregion and adjacent region (Source: Lee et al., 2018)



3.3 Data and Sources

Table 3.2

Data Required for the proposed study

Data type	Frequency/Time	Unit/ Format	Resolution	Source
Data required for climate change projection				
Observed Rainfall	Daily/1981-2014	mm	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Observed maximum and minimum temperature	Daily/1981-2014	°C	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
GCMs data	Daily/1981-2100	mm	-	Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) data center “or” Hydro-Informatics Institute (HII), Thailand
APHRODITE data	Daily/1981-2014	mm	-	Research Institute for Humanity and Nature (http://www.chikyu.ac.jp)
NOAA climate data sets	Daily/1981-2014	°C	-	NOAA’s National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI) (https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/cdo-web/)
Data required for land use change projection				
Baseline land use map	2010, 2015 &2018	Raster	300m* 300m	European Space Agency (ESA CCI)
Restricted area	-	Raster	30m* 30m	Land Development Department (LDD)
Digital Elevation Model (DEM)	-	Raster	30m* 30m	United States Geological Survey (USGS) website (https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov)
Soil Map	-	Vector	-	Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) website (http://www.fao.org/geonetwork)
Slope	-	Raster	30m* 30m	-
Aspect ratio	-	Raster	30m* 30m	-
River Network	2010, 2015 &2018	Raster	30m* 30m	Land Development Department (LDD)
Road Network	2010, 2015 &2018	Raster	30m* 30m	Land Development Department (LDD)
Population density	2010, 2015 &2018	Raster	30m* 30m	Land Development Department (LDD)

Table 3.2 (Cont.)

Data Required for the proposed study

Data type	Frequency/ Time	Unit/ Format	Resolution	Source
Data required for hydrological modelling				
Observed Discharge	Daily/1976-2018	m^3/sec	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Data required for groundwater modelling				
Observation/Monitoring well data	Monthly/1976-2018	m	-	Department of Groundwater Resources (DGR)
Production/Pumping well data	Monthly/1976-2018	m	-	Department of Groundwater Resources (DGR)
Hydrogeological properties	-	-	-	Department of Groundwater Resources (DGR)
Data required for water demand estimation				
Wind speed	Monthly/1976-2018	m/sec	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Solar radiation	Monthly/1976-2018	W/m^2	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Relative humidity	Monthly/1976-2018	%	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Evaporation	Monthly/1976-2018	mm	-	Thai Meteorological Department (TMD)
Crop calendar	-	-	-	Royal Irrigation Department (RID)/Literature
Area of cultivation	-	ha	-	Royal Irrigation Department (RID)
Irrigation schedule	-	days	-	Royal Irrigation Department (RID)
Sectoral employment	-	-	-	Department of Industrial Works (DIW)
Type of industry, no. & size	-	-	-	Department of Industrial Works (DIW)
Industrial water use standard	-	-	-	Department of Industrial Works (DIW)
Per capita GDP	-	-	-	International Study Report
Water tariff rate	-	-	-	Provincial Waterworks Authority (PWA)
No. of household & size	-	-	-	Land Development Department (LDD)

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overall Methodology

The overall objective of the study is to provide recommendation for improved groundwater governance in rapidly urbanizing areas of the Lower Mekong Region (LMR) under multiple stresses. The overall conceptual framework for the proposed study is given in Figure 4.1. First, a groundwater governance shall be developed and applied to the study area for the diagnostic of current state of groundwater governance and analyze the strength and gaps in different components of governance. Then multiple future stresses shall be projected using different techniques. For climate change, 4 GCM models shall be used under 2 SSPs and the future shall be divided into three timeframes: Near Future (NF), Mid Future (MF) and Far Future (FF). The land use change model Dyna-CLUE shall be used to project the future land use change of the study area under 3 different scenarios. Furthermore, Logistic curve method shall be used to project the future change in demographics and sectoral demand analysis shall be done to project the future groundwater abstraction in the study area. Once the multiple stresses are projected, the impact of these multiple stresses shall be assessed on surface water and groundwater availability using SWAT as the hydrological model and GMS-MODFLOW as the groundwater model to attain future groundwater recharge and level respectively. Finally, based on the impact and current state of governance several recommendations shall be provided for improved groundwater governance. The detail working methodology for objective 1-4 is given in Figure 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 respectively.

Figure 4.1

Overall conceptual framework of the study

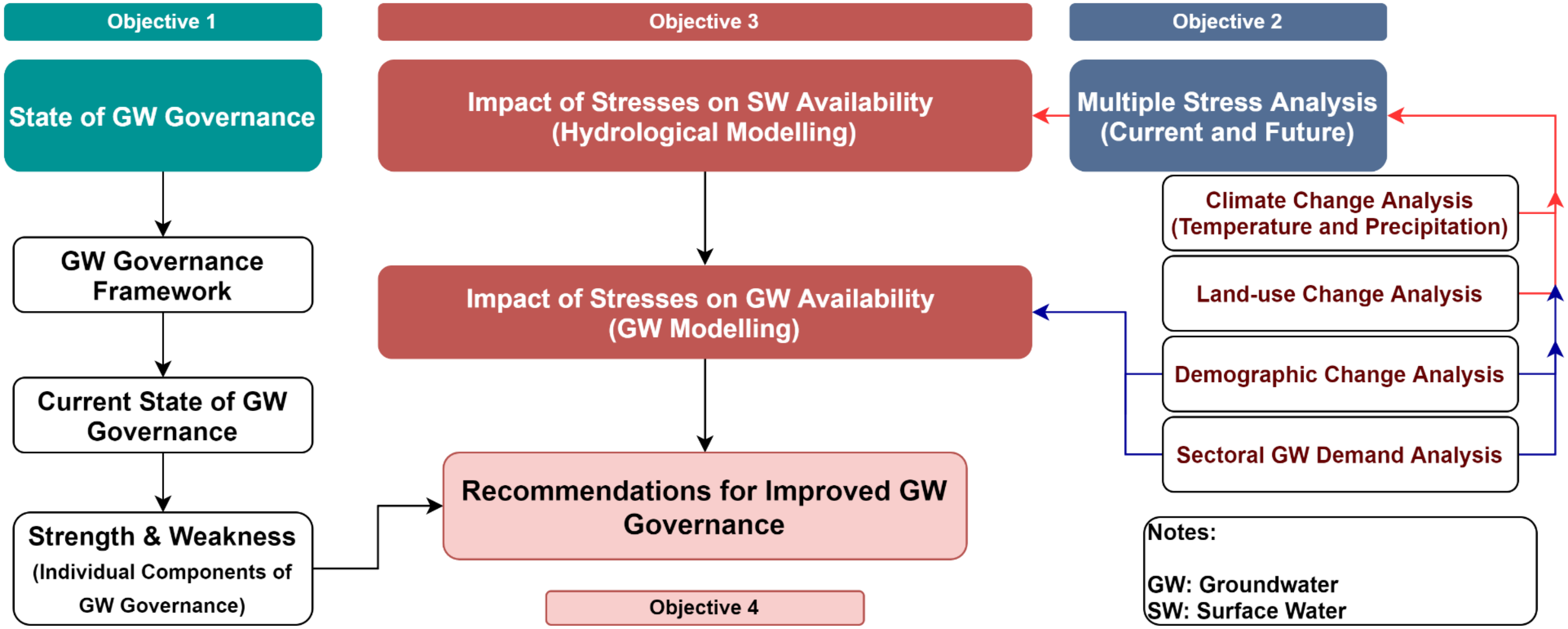


Figure 4.2

Methodological framework to assess the current state of groundwater governance in the rapidly urbanizing area of LMR (objective 1)

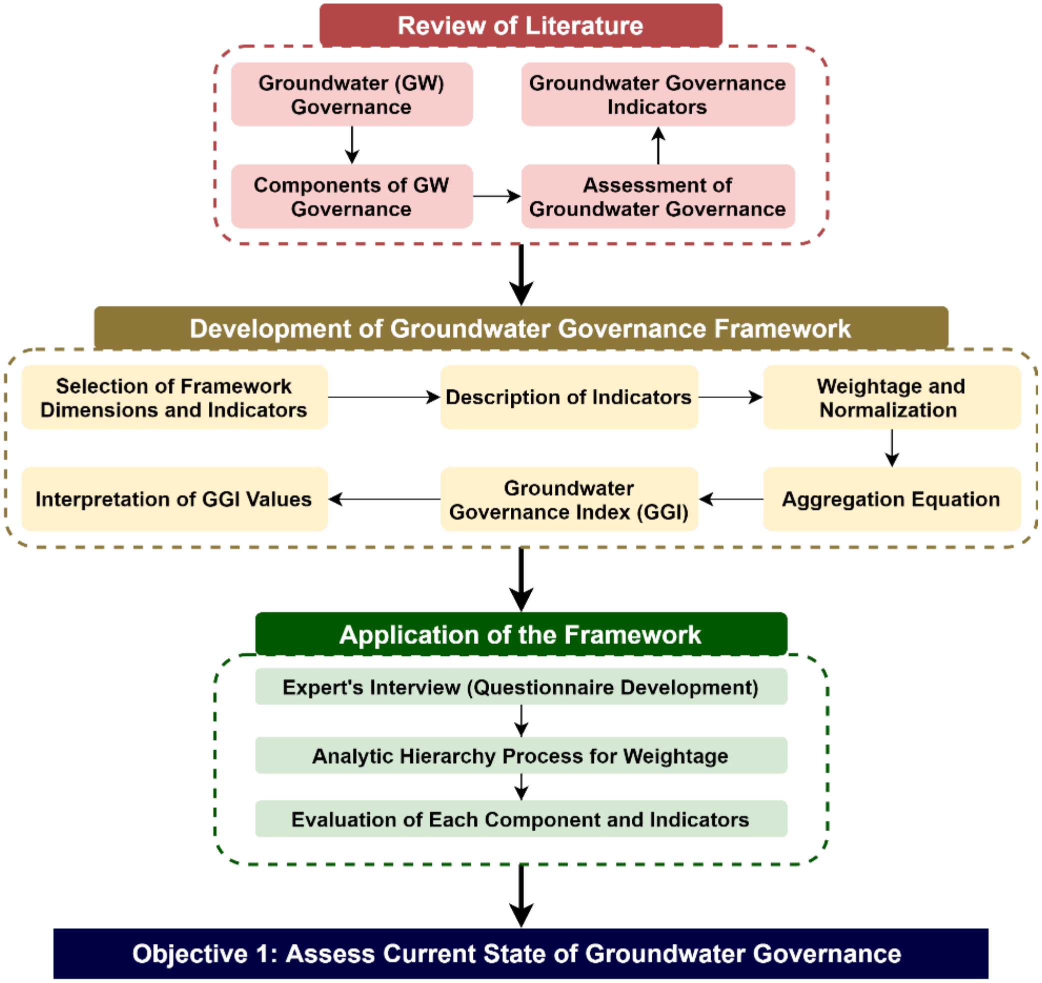


Figure 4.3

Methodological framework to predict future change in multiples stresses (climate, land-use, demographic, sectoral demand) under various scenarios (objective 2)

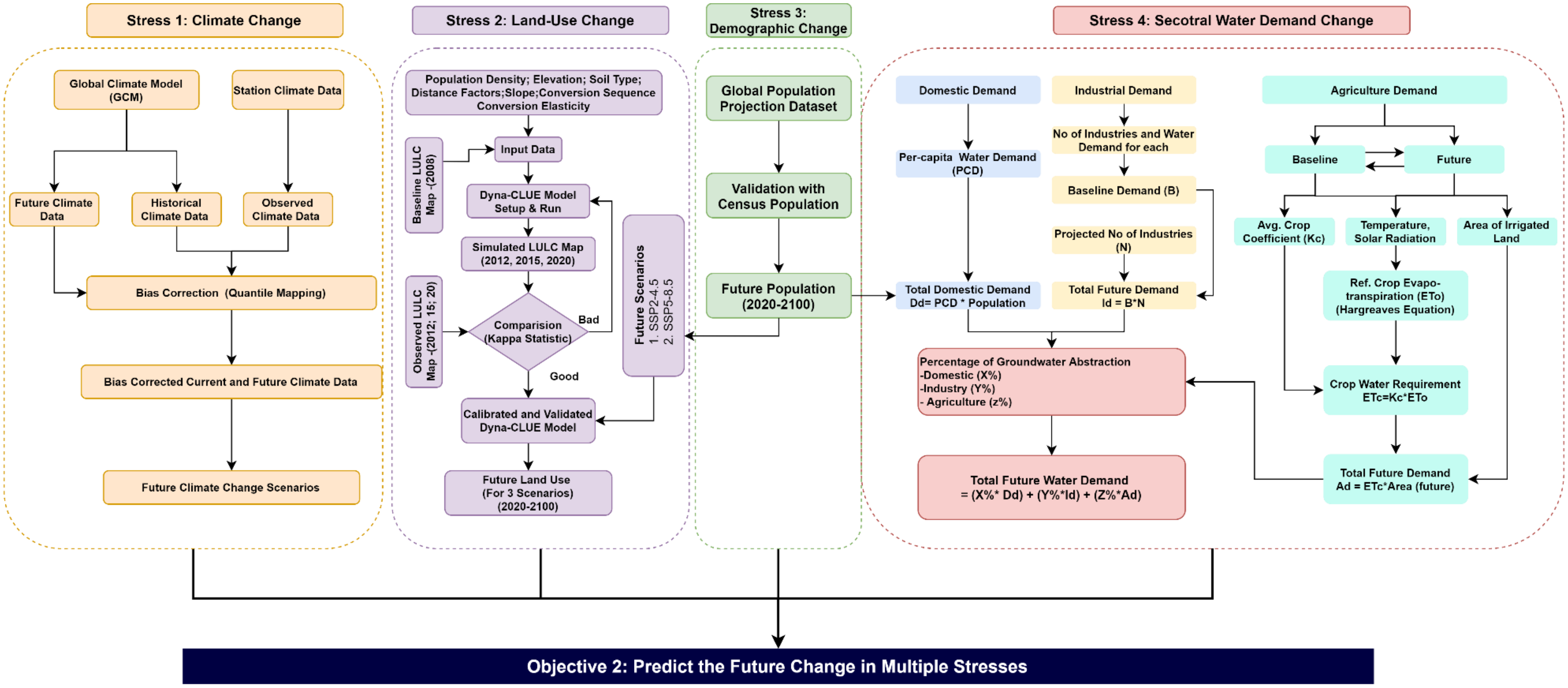


Figure (4.3) continued (Scenario selection)

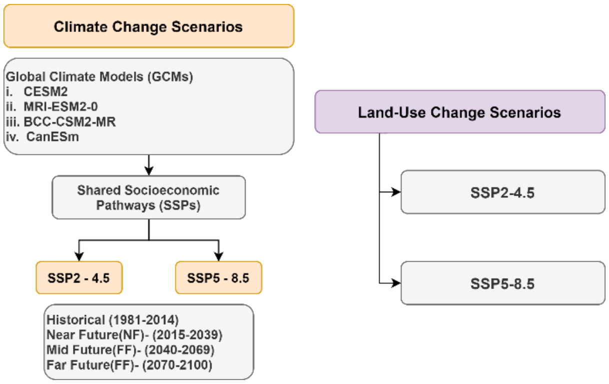


Figure 4.4

Methodological framework to analyze the impact of climate and land-use change in surface and groundwater availability (objective 3)

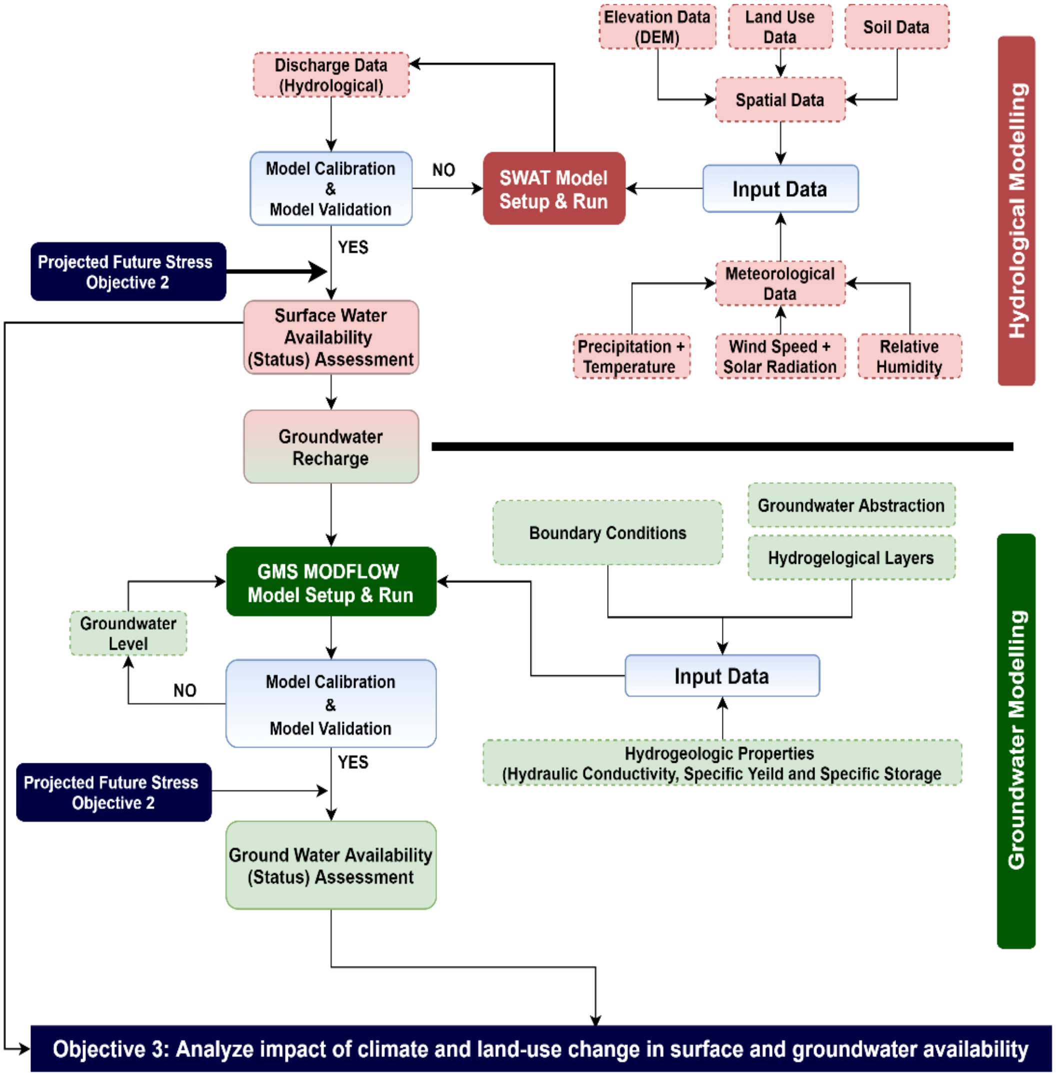
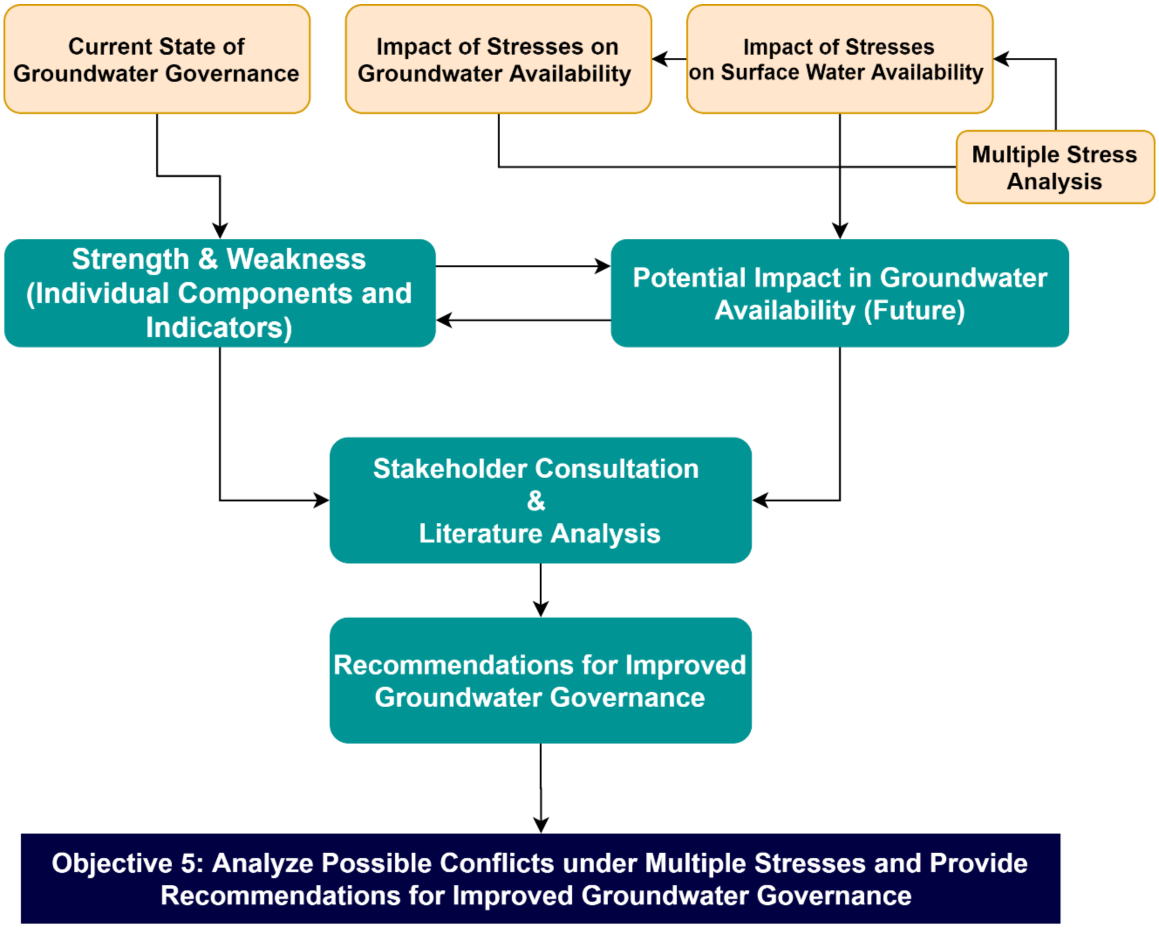


Figure 4.5

Methodological framework to provide recommendations for improved groundwater governance under stresses. (objective 4)



4.2 Assessing Current State of Groundwater Governance

The current state of groundwater governance shall be assessed by developing and indicator-based governance framework, which shall address all four components of groundwater governance. The detail description on development and application of the framework is given below:

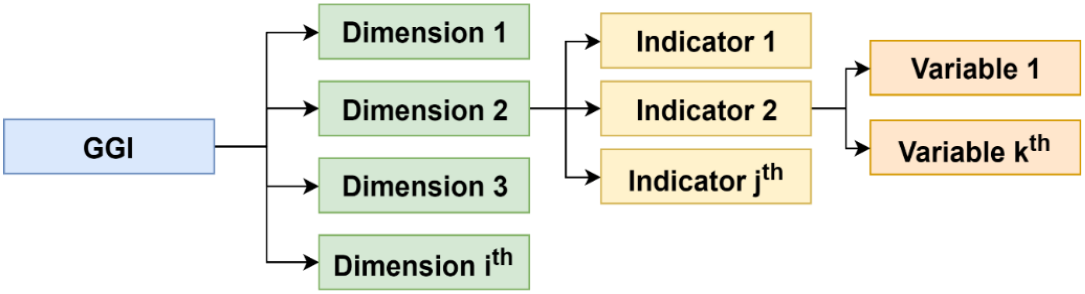
4.2.1 Development of the Framework

The study proposes an inclusive framework for evaluating and quantifying groundwater governance in rapidly urbanizing area using an indicator-based approach. The proposed framework is developed based upon the components of groundwater governance, good governance principles and inclusiveness (gender and right based). The proposed framework consists 4 dimensions with 30 indicators and each indicator will be measured based on 2 variables. The variables shall be rated form 0-3 where 0 shows the non-existence level and 3 shows an optimum level. The selection of the dimensions, variables, rating criteria and 20 indicators has been done based on the GW-MATE (World Bank) project's groundwater governance benchmarking criteria as developed by Foster et al., 2010 and the 10 gender inclusive indicators (Miletto et al., 2019) has been selected based on the WWAP, 2019. The dimensions and indicators are selected in such a way that they can reflect most of the general situation of groundwater components in any urbanizing area. Furthermore, as the state of groundwater governance is highly based on the local setting, the indicators and rating can further be contextualized and modified. While the indicators indicate what to measure in the dimensions, the variables describe how it can be measured. The mathematical equations for aggregating these components provides an holistic index value known as Groundwater Governance Index (GGI) which provides an general overview of the current state of groundwater governance and a detail diagnosis of strength, gaps and areas of improvements for sound governance and management to the decision makers, managers and related actors.

The structure of the proposed groundwater framework is shown in (Figure 4.7) below, where, GGI is the Groundwater Governance Index, i is the number of Dimensions (D), j is the number of Indicators (I) within in each dimensions and k is the number of Variables (V) within each indicators.

Figure 4.7

Structure of the groundwater governance framework



4.2.2 Description of the Framework Components and Indicators

The groundwater governance framework consists of four dimensions i.e. Technical, Legal and Institutional, Cross-Sector Policy Coordination and Operational. Each indicator within a dimension shall be evaluated based on the following two variables (i) adequacy of existing governance provision; (ii) institutional capacity for their implementation. Both the variables are rated on a range of 0-3 (Table 4.1) where 0 represents the non-existence state and 3 represents the optimal state of the measured variables.

Table 4.1

Groundwater governance framework's variables rating scale

Rating	Level
0	Non-Existent
1	Incipient
2	Acceptable
3	Optimum

The technical legal and institutional, cross-sector policy coordination and operational dimensions of the framework shall consist of 7, 14, 4 and 5 indicators, respectively. The indicators of all the dimensions shall provide a stocktaking of currently existing provision and institutional capacity to implement the existing provisions. The components of the groundwater governance framework and detail description with context of application has been tabulated in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3, respectively.

Table 4.2

Components of groundwater governance frameworks

Dimension	S.N	Indicator	Variables	
			Adequacy of Provision	**Institutional Capacity**
Technical	🟦 1	Existence of basic hydrogeological maps		
	🟦 2	Groundwater body/aquifer delineation		
	🟦 3	Groundwater-piezometric monitoring network		
	🟦 4	Groundwater-pollution hazard assessment		
	🟦 5	Availability of aquifer numerical management models		
	🟦 6	Groundwater-quality monitoring network		
	🟧 7	Availability of gender-specific publications (guide) in Public Domain		
Legal and Institutional	🟦 8	Water well drilling permits and groundwater use rights		
	🟦 9	Instrument to reduce groundwater abstraction		
	🟦 10	Instrument to prevent water well construction		
	🟦 11	Sanction for illegal water well construction		
	🟦 12	Groundwater abstraction and use charging		
	🟦 13	Land-use control on potentially polluting activities		
	🟦 14	Levies on generation/discharge of potential pollutants		
	🟦 15	Government agency as ground-water-resource guardian		
	🟦 16	Community aquifer management organizations		
	🟧 17	Gender-responsive groundwater policies or legal frameworks		
	🟧 18	Budget allocation for integrating gender concerns		
	🟧 19	Gender-inclusive groundwater management agencies (government)		
	🟧 20	Customary land and water rights for indigenous groups or communities		
	🟧 21	Agreements and commitments related to international human rights charters		
Cross-Sector Policy Coordination	🟦 22	Coordination with agriculture development		
	🟦 23	Groundwater-based urban/industrial planning		
	🟦 24	Compensation for groundwater protection		
	🟧 25	Sectoral coordination for sex-disaggregated data		
Operational	🟧 26	Transparency in groundwater services for all consumers		
	🟦 27	Public participation in groundwater management		
	🟦 28	Existence of groundwater-management action plan		
	🟧 29	Gender-inclusive participation in aquifer management organizations		
	🟧 30	Gender sensitization training at government level		

Indicator's Source:

🟦 **GW-MATE (World Bank; Water Partnership Program) - Foster et al., 2010**

🟧 **World Water Assessment Programme (WWAP) (UNESCO); 2019**

Table 4.3:

Description of the framework indicators and its context of application

Dimension	S.N	Indicator	Description of Indicators and Context
Technical	1	Existence of basic hydrogeological maps	Hydrogeological map of the study area with basic subsurface geologies, aquifers, groundwater table (contours), flow direction, critical zones, etc. The context of the application is to identify the groundwater resources in the study area.
	2	Groundwater body/aquifer delineation	Pragmatic classification of groundwater bodies showing the linkage of characteristics and status of groundwater bodies. The context of the application is to identify the classification of groundwater bodies with typology.
	3	Groundwater-piezometric monitoring network	Network setup for monitoring groundwater level, extraction, recharge, and use. The context of the application is to establish resource status and trends.
	4	Groundwater-pollution hazard assessment	Groundwater pollution contaminant identification and monitoring pollution hazards from multiple sources like agriculture, industry, solid waste (landfills), mines, etc. The context of the application is to identify quality degradation risk to groundwater.
	5	Availability of aquifer numerical management models	Availability of (at least) basic process-based model for technical analysis and management solutions of aquifers. The context of the application is for assessment of management measures in critical aquifers.
	6	Groundwater-quality monitoring network	Network setup for monitoring groundwater quality at aquifers. The context of the application is to detect incipient pollution/salinization to groundwater.
	7	Availability of gender-specific publications (guide) in Public Domain	Availability of gender (sex differences) specific knowledge resources (declarations, publications, guidelines etc.) in public domain of groundwater governance and management related government institutions. The context of the application is to identify the dissemination strategy of gender-specific knowledge resources.
Legal and Institutional	8	Water well drilling permits and groundwater use rights	Provision of well drilling permits for large scale groundwater users. The context of the application is to identify the groundwater user rights for small scale groundwater users with large users.
	9	Instrument to reduce groundwater abstraction	Provision of policy instruments for well closure or restricting water abstraction in existing well. The context of the application is to identify the controlling measures for the critical areas.
	10	Instrument to prevent water well construction	Provision of policy instruments for controlling of well construction. The context of the application is to identify the controlling measures for overexploited and polluted areas.
	11	Sanction for illegal water well construction	Provision for penalizing construction of illegal/ unpermitted water wells. The context of the application is to identify measures for excessive use above permit.
	12	Groundwater abstraction and use charging	Provision for charging large quantity abstraction and use of groundwater. The context of the application is to identify the provision of “resource charge" on large users.

	13	Land-use control on potentially polluting activities	Provision for constraining land-use activities based on pollution sources that will impact groundwater quality. The context of the application is to identify the measures for restricting groundwater hazards.
	14	Levies on generation/discharge of potential pollutants	Provision of fine/fees in generating and discharging potential groundwater pollutants above the discharge standards. The context of the application is to identify the measures providing an incentive for preventing pollution (for aquifer protection).
	15	Government agency as ground-water-resource guardian	Provision of legal frameworks that defines government as the guardian or empowered center to groundwater resources. The context of the application is to identify the measures that empower the government to act on a cross-sectoral basis.
	16	Community aquifer management organizations	Provision for the formation of community-based aquifer management organizations. The context of the application is to identify the measures that ensure mobilizing and formalizing community participation in aquifer management.
	17	Gender-responsive groundwater policies or legal frameworks	Provision of the groundwater policy framework that identifies and acknowledges the existing differences and inequalities between women and men AND articulates policies and initiatives which address the different needs, aspirations, capacities, and contributions of women and men. The context of the application is to identify the measures that address gender inclusiveness in groundwater management.
	18	Budget allocation for integrating gender concerns	Legal provisions for budget allocation on procedures or mechanisms for identifying and integrating gender concerns (through consultations, workshops, meetings). The context of the application is to identify the measures that ensure activities for planning and formulating gender concerns in groundwater governance and management.
	19	Gender-inclusive groundwater management agencies (government)	Legal provisions for gender-specific staffing ratio (female/male) in different levels in government institutions related to groundwater management. The context of the application is to identify the measures that ensure inclusive decision making in formal groundwater institutions.
	20	Customary land and water rights for indigenous groups or communities	Provisions of customary rights to land and water use for indigenous groups or communities. The context of the application is to ensure the measures for inclusive water use right and for minimizing the possible conflicts.
	21	Agreements and commitments related to international human rights charters	Provision of state ratification/commitments/implementation actions related to human rights charters relevant to groundwater resources right and management. The context of the application is to ensure the measures undertaken for inclusive water-use rights and management.
Cross-Sector Policy Coordination	22	Coordination with agriculture development	Provision for coordination with the agriculture sector in managing groundwater resources. The context of the application is to ensure ‘real water-saving’/pollution control.
	23	Groundwater-based urban/industrial planning	Provision for coordination with the urban/industrial sector for sustainable quality and quantity management of groundwater resources. The context of the application is to ensure the consideration for conservation and protection of groundwater resources.

	24	Compensation for groundwater protection	Provision of compensation for restricting land use activities that support in groundwater recharge and quality protection. The context of the application is to ensure rewards for constraining land use activities.
	25	Sectoral coordination for sex-disaggregated data	Provision of multi-sector (agriculture, water-related industries, enterprises) coordination for sex-disaggregated groundwater use data. The context of the application is to ensure the provision of multi-sectoral groundwater user's gender distribution.
Operational	26	Transparency in groundwater services for all consumers	Provision of information on groundwater services (process for good drilling and service charge; non-availability periods with reasons, water tariffs, water delivery schedules, etc.). The context of the application is to ensure the transparency to basic groundwater services.
	27	Public participation in groundwater management	Provision for active public inclusiveness and support in groundwater management against overexploitation and pollution. The context of the application is to ensure operational effectiveness in controlling exploitation and pollution.
	28	Existence of groundwater-management action plan	Existence of groundwater management action plan for the aquifer considered with consensus on targets and measures. The context of the application is to ensure the provisioning of a groundwater management action plan with agreed targets and instruments.
	29	Gender-inclusive participation in aquifer management organizations	Provision of gender inclusiveness (proportion) in terms of positions and responsibility in decision-making processes in local or community aquifer management organizations. The context of the application is to ensure the provision for a balanced decision-making process during the operation of the aquifer.
	30	Gender sensitization training at government level	Provision/implementation of training related to gender inclusiveness in groundwater governance and management at government institutions. The context of the application is to ensure the sensitization of planners and implementors for inclusive management and decision making.

Notes: Multiple aspects covered by the framework

Components of Groundwater Governance	Relevant Dimensions
Actors	Operational; Cross-sector policy coordination; Legal and Institutional
Legal and Institutional	Legal and Institutional
Policies and Plans	Cross-sector policy coordination; Legal and Institutional
Information and Knowledge	Technical

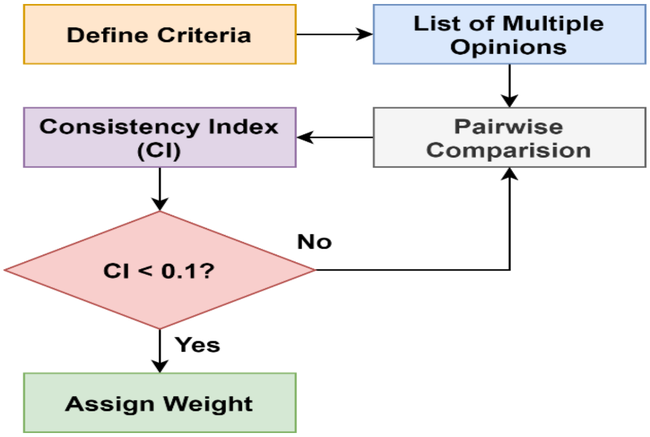
Aspects	List of Indicators
Groundwater-Extraction Related	Indicators: 3,5,8,9,10,11,12
Groundwater Quality Related	Indicators: 4,6,13,14,24
Groundwater-Extraction and Quality Related	Indicators: 1,2,15,16,22,23,27,28
Groundwater-Inclusiveness Related	Indicators: 7,17,18,19,20,21,25,26,29,30

4.2.3 Normalization and Weightage Calculation

The indicators chosen are qualitative, however the rating of each variables within an indicator are rated in a same scale of 0-3 (Table 4.1) : non-existence state (0), incipient state (1), acceptable state (2) and optimum state (3). Furthermore, after aggregation of all the components, the final index value range are assigned in such a way that the range of score is same as earlier. The score values are already in a comparable form (0 being the non-existence and 3 being optimal), so, normalization of the values is not required. Ranking of different components is a delicate task of the addressing various concerns that may not be related (Blanc et al., 2008) and this may also mislead due to lack of attentions. An informed decision making requires access to information in undertaking decision by combining multiple alternatives. Weights can be allocated according to prioritized issues or statistically determined loads (De Carvalho et al., 2009). The analytic hierarchy process (AHP) is a multi-criteria decision-making process that optimizes the decision according to the prioritized factors. The AHP method introduced by (Satty, 1980), establish multi-hierarchy level in solving wide range of unstructured problems. Studies applied AHP method in deriving weights for different dimensions and indicators within an assessment framework (Alawneh et al., 2019; Kamaruzzaman et al., 2018). This study proposes use of AHP in prioritizing the dimensions of the framework through an expert's opinion. A questionnaire shall be prepared and sent to experts for their opinion in different dimensions to do a pairwise comparison. Figure 4.8 shows a conceptual framework in applying AHP.

Figure:4.8

Conceptual AHP framework using expert's opinion



The AHP follows a pairwise comparison between different alternative dimensions or elements to determine their relative importance (Alawneh et al., 2019). Once the matrix is constructed for the pairwise comparison the dimensions of the framework shall be compared using Saaty's scale of intensity (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4:

Fundamental scale in AHP method to define the intensity of importance (Source: Saaty, 1980)

Rating (Intensity of Importance)	**Meaning**
1	Equal
3	Moderate Strong
5	Strong
7	Very Strong
9	Extreme
2,4,6,8	Intermediate Values

Note: The intensity of importance of each element can only be compared for a pair diagonally (example if X_{12} is equal to 5 than, X_{21} will automatically be equal to 1/5).

One the pairwise comparison through the developed matrix and the fundamental scale is completed the local priorities shall be acquired and the outcome's consistency shall be determined to overcome any inconsistencies in the rating by calculating the consistency ratios (CRs) and Consistency Index of each expert using the equation below (Alawneh et al., 2019). If CR < 0.10, then the AHP judgment matrix is consistent which was then aggregated by determining their geometric mean (Alawneh et al., 2019).

$$Consistency\ Ratio\ (CR) = \frac{CI}{RI} \qquad \text{eq.4.1}$$

$$Consistency\ Index\ (CI) = \frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{n - 1} \qquad \text{eq.4.2}$$

where, λ_{max} is the the largest eigenvalue of matrix, n=number of elements compared in the questionnaire and RI is the random consistency index which depends on the size of the matrix used (Table 4.5)

Table 4.5:

Random consistency index (RI) values used *in AHP (Source: Saaty, 1980)*

Size of Matrix	RI
1x1	0.00
2x2	0.00
3x3	0.58
4x4	0.90
5x5	1.12
6x6	1.24
7x7	1.32
8x8	1.41
9x9	1.45
10x10	1.49

4.2.4 Aggregation Technique for the Groundwater Governance Index (GGI)

In order to obtain a quantified value of the overall governance index, the values of dimensions, indicators and variables shall be aggregated. The generalized equation for aggregating the components of the framework for overall governance index is given below. The dimensions, indicators and variables of the framework are represented by D, I, and V in the equations respectively whereas i, j and k indicates the number of dimensions, number of indicators within in each dimensions and number of variables within each indicators respectively. The sum of total weightage in all cases is equals to 1.

The aggregation of the variables within each indicator is done by using the formula,

$$I_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k * V_k}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k} \qquad \text{eq.4.3}$$

where, Iij represents the aggregated value of the jth indicator within ith dimension, wk and Vk represents the weightage and the rating of the kth variables within that indicator, respectively. Here “n” in the equation represents the total number of the variables (k).

Similarly, the aggregation of the indicators within each dimension is done by using the formula,

$$D_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} w_j * I_{ij}}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k} \qquad \text{eq.4.4}$$

where, Di represents the aggregated value of the ith dimension, wj and Iij represents the weightage of the jth indicator within the dimension and Iij represents the aggregated value of jth indicator within the ith dimension. Here “n” in the equation represents the total number of the indicators (j).

And finally, the overall groundwater governance index is calculated by using the formula,

$$GGI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} wi * Di}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} wi} \qquad \text{eq.4.5}$$

where, GGI represents overall Groundwater Governance Index, wi and Di represents the weightage and the aggregated value of ith dimension. Here “n” in the equation represents the total number of the dimensions (i).

4.2.5 Interpretation of Groundwater Governance Index (GGI) Results

After assessing the groundwater governance and quantifying to obtain an overall groundwater governance index, the magnitude of the index shall be interpreted so that it gives an overview of the current state of groundwater governance in the area. The threshold of the governance index is on a range of 0-3 and described (Table 4.6) as given below:

Table 4.6:

Interpretation of the results of groundwater governance index

Threshold	**State of Governance**	**Description**
0 - < 0.5	Non-Existent State of Groundwater Governance	The groundwater governance is at the non-existence state from a dimensional perspective. The country/province/city has no to highly insufficient provisions of technical resources, regulatory and legal outlines, policies for cross-sectoral coordination and operational plans. It faces several issues and conflicts due to the lack of institutional capacity for inclusive multi-stakeholder governance.
0.5 - < 1.5	Incipient State of Groundwater Governance	The groundwater governance is at the initial state from a dimensional perspective. The country/province/city has elementary provisions of technical resources, regulatory and legal outlines, policies for cross-sectoral coordination and operational plans. It faces some issues and conflicts due to the basic institutional capacity for inclusive multi-stakeholder governance.
1.5 - < 2.5	Acceptable State of Groundwater Governance	The groundwater governance is at a satisfactory state from a dimensional perspective. The country/province/city has fair provisions of technical resources, regulatory and legal outlines, policies for cross-sectoral coordination and operational plans. It faces very fewer issues and conflicts due to the decent institutional capacity for inclusive multi-stakeholder governance.
2.5 - ≤ 3	Optimum State of Groundwater Governance	The groundwater governance is at the most favorable state from a dimensional perspective. The country/province/city has adequate provisions of technical resources, regulatory and legal outlines, policies for cross-sectoral coordination and operational plans. It faces none to very little issues and conflicts due to the ample institutional capacity for inclusive multi-stakeholder governance.

4.3 Projecting Future Stresses on Groundwater

Downscaling of RCMs data is not required because, RCMs can determine the local impacts by giving the information of land use and orography (land height) in small scale and giving weather and climate information at resolutions as fine as 50 or 25km. However, there is existence of the logical error in the climate model which cause many faulty concepts causing discretization and dimensional averaging within the grid cell. The crucial need for bias corrections expressively adds doubts in modeling climate change effects. In this study, Quantile mapping approach (QM) will be applied for correcting the biases of RCMs datasets. QM decreases biases of daily temperature and precipitation by coarsely one order of magnitude (Themebl et al., 2012), and it is better than other methods in correcting peak values, especially the 90th percentile (M'Po et al., 2016). The QM is a mapping between two cumulative distribution functions (CDFs); RCMs data and observed data (Themebl et al., 2012). The method corrects the distribution shape of the daily precipitation based on daily constructed pointwise ECDFs (empirical cumulative distribution functions). Both wet and dry days are included in the ECDF estimation. Distribution based QM (Gudmundsson et al., 2012; Teutschbein and Seibert, 2012) as well as Empirical QM (Gudmundsson et al., 2012) are used in correcting precipitation and temperature. In this study, Empirical QM will be used with the 99-percentiles table generated and linear interpolation between them. The QM method was implemented in R language (Venables and Smith, 2012) using package "qmap" (Gudmundsson, 2014). The following equations are used for the quantile mapping technique:

$$P_{his}(d)^* = F^{-1}_{obs,m}\left\lfloor F_{his,m}\left(P_{his,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.6}$$

$$P_{sim}(d)^* = F^{-1}_{obs,m}\left\lfloor F_{sim,m}\left(P_{sim,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.7}$$

$$T_{his}(d)^* = F^{-1}_{obs,m}\left\lfloor F_{his,m}\left(T_{his,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.8}$$

$$T_{sim}(d)^* = F^{-1}_{obs,m}\left\lfloor F_{sim,m}\left(T_{sim,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.9}$$

Where,

P = precipitation, T = temperature, d = daily, m=monthly * = bias corrected, his = Raw RCM data, obs = observed data, sim = Raw RCM future data, F = Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF), F^{-1} = inverse of CDF

The coefficient of determination (R^2), mean, annual rainfall and standard deviation (SD) were considered to evaluate the performance of the bias correction.

4.3.1 Projection of Climatic Parameters

The long term change in climate or even its short term variability has a great influence in the groundwater environment majorly in terms of its recharge and use which is furthermore modified by the human activities and level of infrastructural and socio-economic development (Taylor et al., 2013). Several studies revealed that the climate change has resulted alteration in rainfall patterns and increase in the temperature posing high risk to groundwater resource (Eslamian & Eslamian, 2017; Meixner et al., 2016; Salem et al., 2018). The study to assess the impact of climate change on groundwater resources done by Shrestha, et al., (2016), in the Mekong Delta aquifer, revealed a decline in groundwater recharge and thus, drop in level and storage resulting due to seasonal change in rainfall and increase in average annual temperature. Projection of future change in climatic parameters are usually done by using climate models. Recently, the finer resolution RCMs generated by dynamic downscaling have replaced the coarser resolution GCMs. But several studies have proved the better performance of GCMs as of RCMs and both models showed significant biases (Gupta et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2019b). In the study by Apurv et al., (2015), applied raw Coupled Model Intercomparison Phase (CMIP) 5 GCMs and directly bias corrected rainfall data in Brahmaputra basin, India.

This study proposes use of 5 new generation CMIP-6 GCMs (Table 4.7) under two Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs). The two SSPs selected shall be SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 for assumptions of following the historical trend (medium case) and the optimistic trend of human development trend (extreme case) respectively. Since, the CMIP-6 GCMs are new and are on the process of development, the selection of the 3 GCM models shall be done based on the data availability for the study area and for the selected SSPs (Table 4.7). The data for the selected GCMs will be downloaded from Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) data center https://esgf-node.ipsl.upmc.fr/search/cmip6-ipsl/

Table 4.7:

List of CMIP-6 GCMs with historical (1981-2014) and future (up to 2100datasets for precipitation, maximum and minimum temperature) under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5

S.N.	GCM	Institution	Resolution (km)
1	CESM2	National Center for Atmospheric Research	5 x 5
2	MRI-ESM2-0	Meteorological Research Institute	5 x 5
3	BCC-CSM2-MR	Beijing Climate Center	5 x 5
4	GFDL-ESM4	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory	5 x 5
5	CanESM	Canadian Climate Centre	5 x 5

Once the GCMs data are made available, the biases in the model data shall be corrected using Quantile Mapping (QM) approach. QM decreases biases of daily temperature and precipitation by coarsely one order of magnitude (Themeßl et al., 2012), and it is better than other methods in correcting peak values, especially the 90th percentile (M’Po et al., 2016). The QM is a mapping between two cumulative distribution functions (CDFs); RCMs data and observed data (Themeßl et al., 2012). The method corrects the distribution shape of the daily precipitation based on daily constructed pointwise ECDFs (empirical cumulative distribution functions). Both wet and dry days are included in the ECDF estimation. Distribution based QM (Gudmundsson et al., 2012; Teutschbein & Seibert, 2012) as well as Empirical QM are used in correcting precipitation and temperature. In this study, Empirical QM will be used with the 99-percentiles table generated and linear interpolation between them. The QM method was implemented in R language using package “qmap” (L Gudmundsson, 2014). The following equations are used for the quantile mapping technique:

$$P_{his}(d)^* = F_{obs,m}^{-1}\left\lfloor F_{his,m}\left(P_{his,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.10}$$

$$P_{sim}(d)^* = F_{obs,m}^{-1}\left\lfloor F_{sim,m}\left(P_{sim,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.11}$$

$$T_{his}(d)^* = F_{obs,m}^{-1}\left\lfloor F_{his,m}\left(T_{his,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.12}$$

$$T_{sim}(d)^* = F_{obs,m}^{-1}\left\lfloor F_{sim,m}\left(T_{sim,m}\right)\right\rfloor \quad \text{eq.4.13}$$

4.3.2 Demographic Projection

Urbanization is referred as the rural population to an urban area transforming the built environment (Malik et al., 2017). It is the processes of the increase share of urban population and is mainly governed by the phenomena of reclassification of rural to an urban area, natural growth, and the migration trend (Buhaug & Urdal, 2013). The United Nations, (2018), projects that the people living in the urban areas is likely to increase to up to 68% by 2050. The level of urbanization and change in the population is one of the frequently used indicators in forecasting different trends such as the energy demand and use, poverty use of resources etc. Furthermore, the demand of water and its rate of abstraction can be directly linked with the change in the urban population and thus it is important to understand the growth trend of the urban population future demand and pattern in water-use, land-use and other public services. At the larger scale (national or regional), the coherent component methods are widely used but for cities population there is no single technique dominating. Ayhan, (2018), categorized population projections techniques as mathematical and cohort component projection models. Furthermore, the study also revealed that using past population data to forecast the future total population, mathematical models are handy and useful. The mathematical models' projects based on the arithmetic or geometric or exponential growth and can be classified as the Linear Model, Geometric Model, Logistic Growth Model, Exponential Model (Ayhan, 2018).

This study proposes the Logistic Curve Method or Logistic Growth Model in forecasting the population of the rapidly urbanizing area as this approach adopts growth curve characteristics within a limit of socioeconomic opportunities and space (Shrestha et al., 2020). The method is generally used when the population growth rate is not subjected to any exceptional changes and takes place under normal conditions of birth, migration, and deaths. This curve follows the S-shaped curve called as logistic curve (Ayhan, 2018). If P_0, P_1, and P_2 are the population of an area at time $t = t_0 = 0$, $t_1$and $t_2 = 2t_1$ respectively over the past, the population after time t (P_t) and saturated population P_{sat} is given by:

$$P_t = \frac{P_{sat}}{1 + e^{(a+b\Delta t)}} \qquad \text{eq.4.14}$$

$$P_{sat} = \frac{2P_0P_1P_2 - P_1^2(P_0 + P_2)}{P_0P_2 - P_1^2} \quad \text{eq.4.156}$$

$$a = \ln(\frac{P_{sat} - P_0}{P_0}) \quad \text{eq.4.16}$$

$$b = \frac{1}{n}\ln\frac{P_0(P_{sat} - P_1)}{P_1(P_{sat} - P_0)} \quad \text{eq.4.17}$$

4.3.3 Land Use Change Projection using Dyna-CLUE

Urbanization includes the rapid growth of the urban population included with an increase in demand for urban infrastructures and services. The spatial and vertical modification of the urban natural land and the environment is an important aspect during the process of the urbanization transforming the natural cover with the more impervious surfaces (Paul et al., 2018). This alteration in the Land Use and Land Cover modifies the hydrology, energy balance, biodiversity, habitats cycle, and human livelihoods (Pielke et al., 2011; Trisurat et al., 2010) and thus, should be understood in advance. The projection of the Land Use and Land Cover are generally done by the application of the relevant models which can be broadly categorized as spatially and non-spatially explicit (statistical) based models. The statistical model uses a mathematical formula to predict the future change in the land-use change and Markov Model and System Dynamics models are some examples (Akbar et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2016). On the other hand, the spatially explicit models such Cellular Automata (CA) model the Agent-Based model (ABM), Dynamics of Land System model (DLS), and Dyna-CLUE model are used to forecast and analyze the spatial distribution of future land use (Adhikari et al., 2020; Samie et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2016; Trisurat et al., 2019).

This study proposed the use of Dyna-CLUE model for projecting the future land use change in the study area due to its wide application in detecting change in similar locations (Adhikari et al., 2020; Shrestha et al., 2018). This model is the modified version of the CLUE-s model can stipulate under multiple scenarios for land-use change via the model parameters and also takes into account the driving forces for the change, management policies to generate more precise predictions (Verburg et al., 2008; Y. Wang et al., 2018). In addition to this, the model is easily and freely available in public domain to operate it under user preferences. The model consists of the non-spatial demand and the spatial allocation module. The demand module uses past trend or scenarios to verify the future demand and then and then converts the demand for application by the spatial allocation module (Shrestha et al., 2018). The Dyna-CLUE model considers land use demands, location suitability, neighborhood suitability, spatial restrictions, and conversion parameters as the model inputs. The model uses rainfall, elevation, temperature, slope, geology, soil depth, distance from the road, rail, river, built-up area, crop land, and forest. This study shall use the two observed land-use map of past period in which one of previous period shall be used for development of the model and the next shall be used to compare with the simulated map using the Dyna-CLUE. The verification error shall be computed using Kappa statistical analysis (Shrestha et al., 2018) given as

$$K = \frac{\Pr(a) - \Pr(e)}{1 - P(e)} \qquad \text{eq.4.18}$$

where, Pr(a) and Pr(e) are the observed relative agreement (in all raster) and hypothetical probability of chance of agreement, respectively. And K is referred as Kappa which value ranges from 0 to1 (closer to 1 means there is better agreement between simulated and observed maps).

The location suitability and neighborhood suitability for each land use type is calculated by the stepwise logistic regression technique given as:

$$\log\left(\frac{P_i}{1 - P_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1,i} + \beta_2 X_{2,i} + \beta_n X_{n,i} \qquad \text{eq.4.19}$$

where, P_i is the probability of a grid cell for the occurrences of the considered land use features, X_s are the driving factors and β (coefficient) for each factor in the logistic model.

This study proposes three different assumptions to create three scenarios namely Business as Usual (BaU), Conservation Scenario (CS) and Economic Scenario (ES) to address the multiple uncertainties related to land use change projection. The first BaU scenario assumes that the future demand of land shall follow the historical pattern while the second CS scenario assumes that the government prioritize the conservation of forest and ecology in future limiting the change in built-up area. The last scenario (ES) assumes high economic growth trend with higher demand of agricultural land rather than grassland and forest areas.

4.3.4 Projection of Groundwater Demand

The projection of water demand in rapidly urbanizing areas are very crucial for effective planning, development, and sustainable management of water resources and urban public services. The study proposes the summation of sectoral (domestic, industrial and agriculture) water demand as the total water demand of the selected area. Furthermore, the total share of groundwater for each sector shall be assumed to be constant which shall be adopted from the related government agencies and literature reviews.

The domestic demand shall be computed based on the per capita domestic water demand which shall be obtained from the authentic government sources and the related literatures of the selected area. The total domestic water demand (D_d) for any time is given by

$$D_d = Per\ Capita\ Demand * Population \qquad \text{eq.4.20}$$

Where, the projected population for future periods shall be obtained from logistic curve method as discussed in section 4.3.2.

If the current trend of groundwater abstraction in domestic sector is X%, then the future groundwater abstraction for domestic sector (G_d) is given by:

$$G_d = X\%\ of\ D_d \qquad \text{eq.4.21}$$

The industrial demand shall be computed based on the total number of the industries in the areas and the total water demand for each industry for a baseline period which shall be obtained from respective government sources and literatures. The future number of industries shall be predicted based on current trend and government policies in the area which shall then be multiplied by the water demand of each industry in baseline period to obtain future industrial water demand. The total industrial water demand (I_d) for any project future time is given by:

$$I_d = Industries\ Baseline\ Demand * Future\ Number\ of\ Industries \qquad \text{eq.4.22}$$

If the current trend of groundwater abstraction in industrial sector is Y%, then the future groundwater abstraction for industrial sector (G_i) is given by:

$$G_i = Y\%\ of\ I_d \qquad \text{eq.4.23}$$

The agriculture water demand, the reference crop evapotranspiration for the current (baseline) and future period shall be computed using Hargreaves' equation given by:

$$ET_0 = 0.0135\ R_s(T_{mean} + 17.8) \qquad \text{eq.4.24}$$

where, R_s is the incoming short-wave solar radiation and T_{mean} is the projected mean temperature in °C. The, the crop water requirement (ET_c) for baseline and future shall be computed by:

$$ET_c = K_c * ET_o \qquad \text{eq.4.25}$$

where, ET_o is the reference crop evapotranspiration and K_c is the average crop coefficient (K_c) which shall be adopted from literature in the study area. Then, the total agriculture water demand (A_d) for the respective period shall be given:

$$A_d = ET_c * Total\ area\ of\ irrigated\ land \qquad \text{eq.4.26}$$

where, the total area of irrigated land for the respective period shall be obtained by the land-use projection as explained in section 4.3.3 above.

If the current trend of groundwater abstraction in agricultural sector is Z%, then the future groundwater abstraction for agricultural sector (G_a) is given by:

$$G_a = Z\% \; of \; A_d \qquad \text{eq.4.27}$$

Finally, the total groundwater abstraction {GWA $_{(total)}$} of the city for the selected future time-period shall be given by:

$$GWA_{total} = G_d + G_i + G_a \qquad \text{eq.4.28}$$

4.4 Hydrological Modelling for the Estimation of Groundwater Recharge

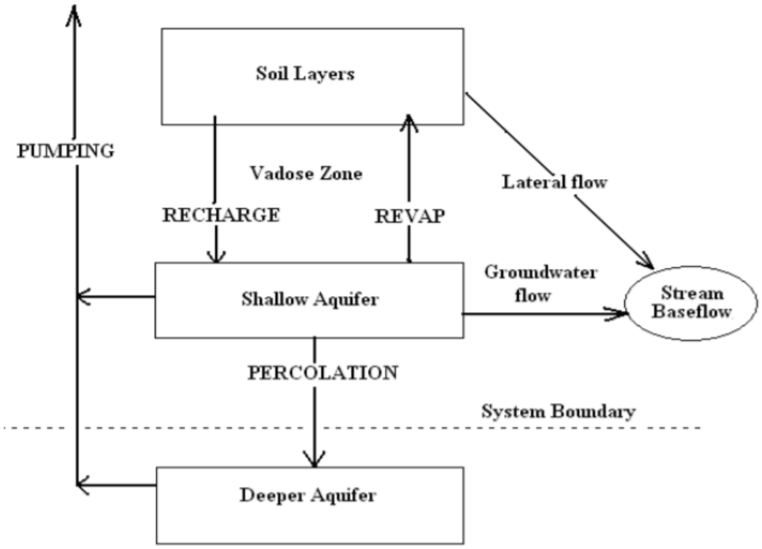
Hydrological modelling portrayal of a real-word hydrological system using some physical models and mathematical equations via multiple computer simulations. In hydrological modelling runoff estimation is a key and is defined through a set of mathematical equations with rainfall and drainage being the major inputs along with watershed topography, soil properties, vegetative cover, and aquifer characteristics (Devi et al., 2015). The choice of these various types of hydrological models varies based on the purpose and its application making it more subjective. Studies have used ANN model and found to be useful in modelling the complex hydrological processes and estimation of streamflow values (Jimeno-Sáez et al., 2018; Juan et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2016). Moiwo et al., (2010), used WetSpass model for assessing the impact of multiple stresses such as climate and land-use change on surface discharge and subsurface recharge. Several other research studies have used the SWAT model in hydrological simulation and analyzing the problems for better possible solutions (Alansi et al., 2009; Piman et al., 2013; Yen et al., 2015). This study proposed to use SWAT Model as the hydrological model to estimate the groundwater recharge in the study area as this model has been extensively used by researchers analyzing the impact of multiple stresses in the watershed hydrology (Arias et al., 2014; Yen et al., 2015).

4.4.1 SWAT Model

The Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model being one of the computationally efficient models has been widely around the globe for hydrological analysis (both on quantity and quality aspect). One of the major advantages of the model is its easiness in calibration in data scare areas (Arnold et al., 1998). Furthermore, the model runs in a GIS interface and can also simulate hydrologically connected sub-basins. In this model the shallow aquifers below the soil layers is represented as reservoir and the zone between the soil layer and the aquifer is the vadose zone (Figure 4.9). The detail schematic of representation of groundwater process in the SWAT model is given below:

Figure 4.9

Groundwater Process in SWAT model (Source: Vazquez-Amábile & Engel, 2005)



This source of the aquifer for receiving the water is through the process of infiltration from the soil which then percolates to deep aquifer and/or discharges to the nearest stream because of surface water groundwater interaction. The water balance for the shallow aquifer as described by the SWAT model can be given as:

$$aq_{sh,i} = aq_{sh,i-1} - w_{rchrg} - Q_{gw} - w_{deep} - w_{revap} - w_{pump,sh} \qquad \text{eq.4.29}$$

Where,

$aq_{sh,\,i}$ is the amount of water stored in the shallow aquifer on day i (mmH_2O),
$aq_{sh,\,i-1}$ is the amount of water stored in the shallow aquifer on day i-1 (mmH_2O),
w_{rchrg} is the amount of recharge entering the shallow aquifer on day i (mmH_2O),
Q_{gw} is the groundwater flow or base flow into the main channel on day i (mmH_2O),
w_{deep} is the amount of water removed from the deep aquifer by pumping on day i (mmH_2O),
w_{revap} is the amount of water moving into the soil zone in response to water deficiencies on day i (mmH_2O), and
$w_{pump,\,sh}$ is the amount of water removed from the shallow aquifer by pumping on day i (mmH_2O)

The time taken by the water to move from the vadose zone to the aquifer depends upon the water table and the hydraulic properties of soil (Yang et al., 2010). The water of the capillary fringe that separates the unsaturated zone and saturated zone is evaporated and removed by diffuse process during the dry period. This part of the water loss is replaced by the movement of water from the saturated aquifer. The deep roots of the plants may also consume water. As water is removed from the capillary fringe by evaporation, it is replaced by water from the underlying aquifer (Vazquez-Amábile & Engel, 2005). SWAT accounts all these as "revap". Revap might occur only if the amount of water stored in the shallow aquifer exceeds a threshold value specified by the users. Main groundwater process in SWAT is as shown in figure 4.8.

SWAT simulation are bases on the water balance equation:

$$SW_t = SW_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} (R_{day} - Q_{surf} - E_a - W_{seep} - Q_{gw}) \qquad \text{eq.4.30}$$

Where,

SW_t is the soil water content (mm water) at the end of the time step t (days),
SW_0 is the initial soil water content in day i (mm water),
R_{day} is the amount of precipitation on day i (mm water),
Q_{surf} is the amount of surface runoff on day i (mm water),
E_a is the amount of evapotranspiration on day i (mm water),
W_{seep} is the amount of water entering the vadose zone from the soil profile on day i (mm water),
Q_{gw} is the amount of base flow from the shallow aquifer on day i (mm water)

The equation for determining direct runoff using curve number (CN method) is as follow (USDA-SCS, 1972):

$$Q = \frac{P - 0.2S^2}{P + 0.8S} \qquad \text{eq.4.31}$$

Where,Q is direct surface runoff (in), P is total rainfall (in), S is potential maximum infiltration (in), which is calculated using the equation below:

$$S = \frac{100}{CN} - 10 \qquad \text{eq.4.32}$$

Where, CN is the curve number (0≤CN≤100)

The equation used in SWAT to calculate actual groundwater discharge is derived from the steady-state response of groundwater flow to recharge as described by (Hooghoudt, 1940).

$$Q_{gw} = \frac{8000K_{sat}}{L_{gw}^2} * h_{wtbl} \qquad \text{eq.4.33}$$

Rycroft & Smedema, (1983), described change in water table elevation due to non-steady-state response of groundwater flow to periodic recharge as

$$\frac{dh_{wtbl}}{dt} = \frac{w_{rchrg} - Q_{gw}}{800\mu} \qquad \text{eq.4.34}$$

4.4.2 Performance Evaluation of Hydrological Model

Four most widely used statistical parameter; the coefficient of determination (R^2), the percentage bias (PBIAS), Ratio of root mean square error to standard deviation (RSR) and the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), will be used to evaluate the hydrological model. The Coefficient of Determination (R^2) measures how well a model can reproduce the output. Its value varies from 1–0, with 1 being the best result, and 0 the poorest. The percentage bias (PBIAS) measures the average difference between the measured and simulated value for a given quantity over a specified period. The optimal value of percentage bias is 0 and negative and positive value shows overestimation and underestimation bias of model, respectively. The Ratio of root mean square error to standard deviation (RSR) is the ratio of the RMSE and standard deviation of measured data. The RSR includes the benefits of error index statistics and a normalization factor, so that the resulting statics and reported value can be applied to various constituents. Lower RSR indicates lower RMSE and better model simulation performance. The Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) is used to indicate the degree of fitness between simulated and observed data. The value of NSE can be between $-\infty$ to 1. If the NSE value is 1 it indicated the perfect fit. If NSE value is negative, the average value of output is the better estimate than the model and prediction are very poor. The equations for the calculation of each statistical parameter is given below:

$$R^2 = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Q_i^{obs} - \overline{Q_i^{obs}}\right)(Q_i^{sim} - \overline{Q_i^{sim}}))^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}((Q_i^{obs} - \overline{Q_i^{obs}})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{sim} - \overline{Q_i^{sim}})^2} \qquad \text{eq.4.35}$$

$$PBIAS = [\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Q_i^{obs} - Q_i^{sim}\right) * 100}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{obs})} \qquad \text{eq.4.36}$$

$$RSR = \frac{RMSE}{STDEV_{obs}} = \frac{[\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{obs} - Q_i^{sim})^2}]}{[\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{obs} - \overline{Q_i^{obs}})^2}]} \qquad \text{eq.4.37}$$

$$NSE = 1 - [\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{obs} - Q_i^{sim})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(Q_i^{obs} - \overline{Q_i^{obs}})^2}] \qquad \text{eq.4.38}$$

where, Q_i^{obs} is the observed data, Q_i^{sim} is the simulated data, $\overline{Q_i^{sim}}$ is the mean of simulated data, $\overline{Q_i^{obs}}$ is the mean of observed data and n is the total number of observation

4.5 Estimation of Future Groundwater Level

Groundwater modelling is the representation of the sub-surface flow system and is mainly used in the simulation and prediction of the aquifer behavior responding to different conditions at present and the future. The groundwater model represents both the natural subsurface flow within the system and the quality aspects of the system including its movement. The Groundwater Modeling System (GMS) is a full modelling application for creating and simulating groundwater flows making the entire process more convenient through various processing tools before, during, and after model development.

The study proposed MODFLOW model from the GMS (GMS-MODFLOW) to simulate the groundwater level and groundwater balance in the study area. The model is a modular finite-difference flow model and is one of the widely used by hydrogeologists around the globe for analyzing the dynamics of aquifer systems and understanding the flow patterns (Shrestha et al., 2020). Several studies have used MODFLOW to simulate the flow through aquifers (Abdalla, 2015; Cheng et al., 2014; Chitsazan & Movahedian, 2015; Qiu et al., 2015; Shrestha et al., 2020).

4.5.1 Governing Equation for GMS-MODFLOW Model

The MODFLOW model was developed to simulate the movement of the water flow below the ground. Using 3D finite difference method, groundwater flow model can simulate several different types of aquifers. The governing equation for 3D groundwater flow is based on the law of mass balance and Darcy's law. This modelling can be performed in both steady state and transient state conditions. Fluxes are constant during the simulation period in steady state while they vary both in space and time in fully transient modelling.

3D groundwater flow through porous medium is governed by the following equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(K_x\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(K_y\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right)+\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(K_z\frac{\partial h}{\partial z}\right)=S_s\frac{\partial h}{\partial t}-W \qquad \text{eq.4.39}$$

Where,

K_x, K_y, K_z are values of hydraulic conductivity along x, y and axes,
h is the hydraulic head,
W is flux per unit volume, representing sink and/or sources of water,
S_s is specific storage of the aquifer.

Solution of the equation is obtained by using a block centered finite-difference approximation. Eq.4.39 when combined with boundary and initial conditions, describes transient flow in a heterogeneous and anisotropic medium provided that the principal axes of hydraulic conductivity are aligned with the coordinate directions. For steady state conditions the term on the right-hand side of the equation reduces to zero.

The flow regime is represented by blocks made of grids (plan view) and layers (side view). Each block is assumed to have uniform medium properties and employ the above eq.7 to calculate the head of the layers. When, at the end of iteration, the head rises above the top elevation of the layer, the layer is confined while vice-versa for unconfined layer (Anderson et al., 2015). Consequently, the heads in the uppermost layer could rise infinitely as the model assumes no upper limit for the uppermost layers.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

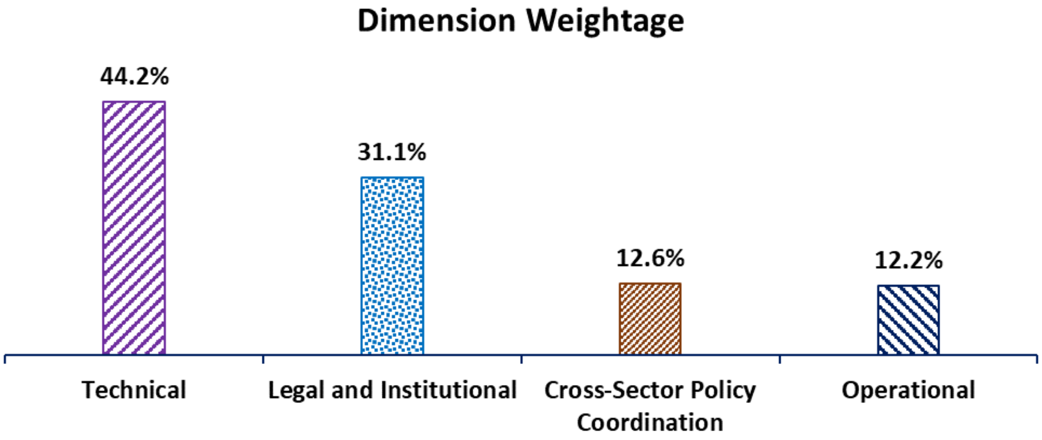
5.1 Assessment of Current State of Groundwater Governance Framework

5.1.1 Priority and Weightage of Framework Dimension

The study applied the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) to obtain the weightage of all four dimensions of the groundwater governance framework. A global expert survey has been carried out to obtain the relative weightage of the framework dimensions. Thirty-one responses (42.5%) have been received from the global groundwater experts (77% male and 23% female) representing 15 countries (Australia, Germany, Hungary, India, Japan, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Thailand and Vietnam) included scientist/ researchers, policymakers and practitioners. The study conducted a consistency ratio (CR) check on all the responses and found that only 20 responses had a consistency ratio of less than 20% (i.e., $CR \leq 0.20$). The selected 20 responses included 13 responses with a consistency ratio of less than 10%, and the remaining 7 had CR between 10-and 20%. The combined results from the 20 eligible responses (geometric mean) show that the technical dimension is the most prioritized, with a weightage of 44.2%, followed by the legal and institutional, cross-sector policy coordination and operational dimension with a weightage of 31.1%, 12.6% and 12.2% respectively (Figure 5.1). The results show an overall consistency ratio of 4.3% and a high consensus (85.2%) among the individual expert's results.

Figure 5.1

Comparison of groundwater governance framework's dimension weightage obtained from an expert (global) questionnaire survey



5.1.2 Groundwater Governance Index (GGI) of Khon Kaen, Thailand

An expert-based questionnaire survey developed based on the groundwater governance framework has been carried out among experts in different institutions related to the governance and management of groundwater in Thailand. The questionnaire has been conducted to receive experts' opinions representing government and non-government institutions at the national, provincial and local levels. Furthermore, the survey also included experts from academic and research institutes involved in groundwater research works in Khon Kaen, Thailand. Overall, 23 expert responses (anonymous) were received, which consisted of 52% of male participants and 48% of female participants who are policymakers, policy implementers/managers, scientists/researchers, practitioners and had an average age of 39 years (27-58 years) and average working experience of 13 years (1-30 years) in groundwater sector. The rating of each questionnaire has been done based on two variables, "the state of the existing provision and the institutional capacity to implement the provision," and then aggregated accordingly, as mentioned in the methodological section above. The results show (Table 5.1) that the groundwater governance of Khon Kaen, Thailand is at the "acceptable state" (GGI = 1.18). The existing state is in a very early stage of a satisfactory state of governance and requires a thorough multi-perspective analysis to understand current provisions and needs.

Table 5.1

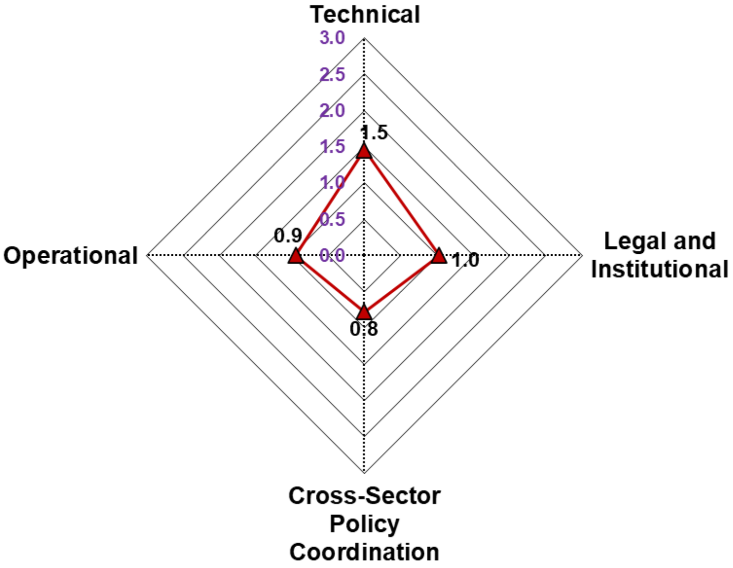
Assessing current groundwater governance index (GGI) of Khon Kaen Thailand using the groundwater governance framework and expert-based evaluation

Type of Provision/ Capacity	Code	Criterion	Average Rating		Aggregation		GGI Value (Weighted)
			Adequacy of Provision	Institutional Capacity	Variable	Dimension	
Technical	TE1	Existence of basic hydrogeological maps	1.78	1.74	1.76	**1.5**	**1.18**
	TE2	Groundwater body/aquifer delineation	1.61	1.61	1.61		
	TE3	Groundwater-piezometric monitoring network	1.48	1.48	1.48		
	TE4	Groundwater-pollution hazard assessment	1.17	1.26	1.22		
	TE5	Availability of aquifer numerical management models	0.96	1.09	1.02		
	TE6	Groundwater-quality monitoring network	1.48	1.48	1.48		
	TE7	Vulnerable and Marginalized (V&M) groups specific publications (guide)	1.61	1.65	1.63		
Legal and Institutional	LI1	Water well drilling permits and groundwater use rights	2.17	1.91	2.04	**1.0**	
	LI2	Instrument to reduce groundwater abstraction	1.78	1.70	1.74		
	LI3	Instrument to prevent water well construction	2.26	1.70	1.98		
	LI4	Sanction for illegal water well construction	2.04	1.43	1.74		
	LI5	Groundwater abstraction and use charging	1.74	1.61	1.67		
	LI6	Land-use control on potentially polluting activities	0.83	0.65	0.74		
	LI7	Levies on generation/discharge of potential pollutants	0.52	0.57	0.54		
	LI8	Government agency as ground-water-resource guardian	1.65	1.61	1.63		
	LI9	Community aquifer management organizations	0.35	0.43	0.39		
	LI10	Gender-responsive groundwater policies or legal frameworks	0.13	0.26	0.20		
	LI11	Gender-inclusive groundwater management agencies (government)	0.17	0.26	0.22		
	LI12	Agreements and commitments to cooperation and coordination	0.74	0.74	0.74		
	LI13	Customary land and water rights for indigenous groups or communities	0.30	0.30	0.30		
	LI14	Agreements and commitments related to international human rights charters	0.43	0.48	0.46		
Cross-Sector Policy Coordination	CS1	Coordination with agriculture development	1.17	1.17	1.17	**0.8**	
	CS2	Groundwater-based urban/industrial planning	1.17	1.04	1.11		
	CS3	Coordination with tourism development	0.87	0.78	0.83		
	CS4	Compensation for groundwater protection	0.87	0.70	0.78		
Operational	OP1	Transparency in groundwater services for all consumers	1.43	1.39	1.41	**0.9**	
	OP2	Public participation in groundwater management	0.70	0.83	0.76		
	OP3	Existence of groundwater-management action plan	0.78	0.70	0.74		
	OP4	Vulnerable and Marginalized (V&M) group inclusiveness in aquifer management organizations	0.48	0.48	0.48		
	OP5	Vulnerable and Marginalized (V&M) sensitization capacity development (government level)	0.39	0.39	0.39		

Figure 5.2 below shows the aggregated rating of each dimension for the current state of provisions in groundwater governance of the study area, and the results show an adequate availability of the technical resources as they are the midway between the incipient to an acceptable stage. Furthermore, the legal and institutional and operational dimensions are at the initial stages and require further improvements to improve the overall groundwater governance in Khon Kaen, Thailand. The cross-sectoral policy coordination dimension has the least provision and institutional capacity for effective governance processes.

Figure 5.2

The experts rating of groundwater governance framework dimensions in Khon Kaen, Thailand

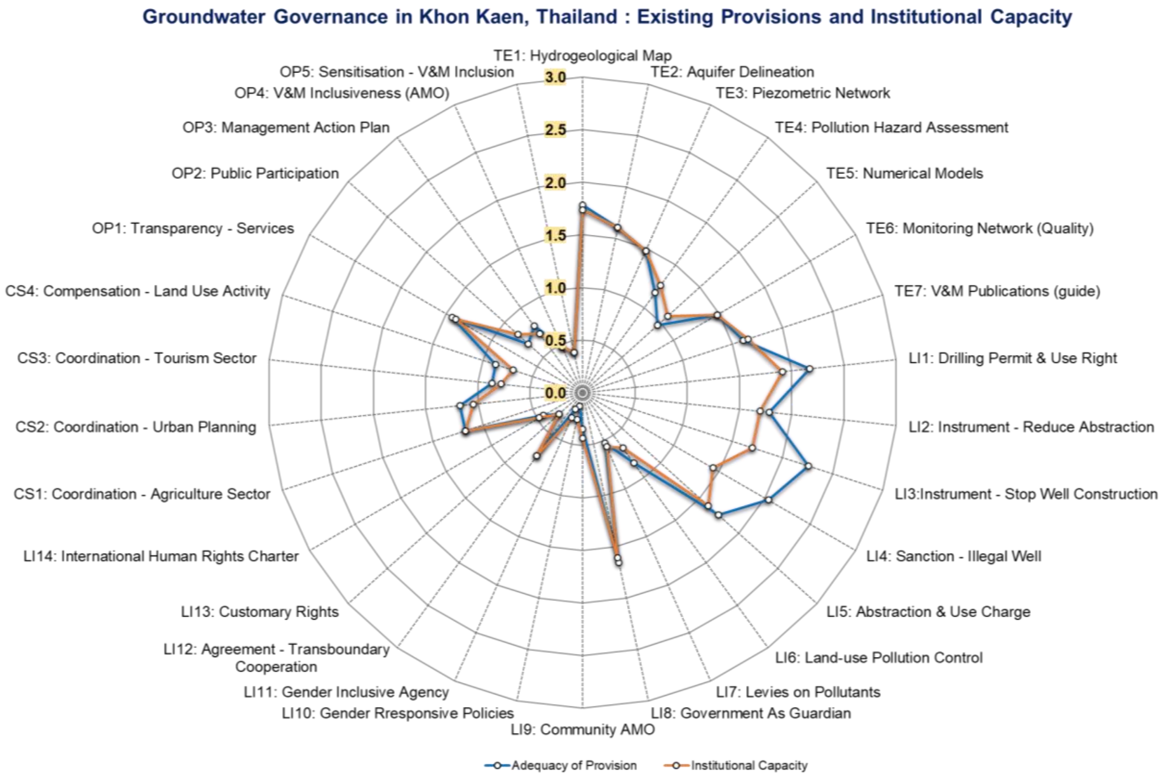


5.1.3 Multi-perspective Analysis of Groundwater Governance in Khon Kaen, Thailand

The radar plot below (Figure 5.3) shows the overall status of each indicator of the groundwater governance rated based on the adequacy of current provisions and the institutional capacity to implement the provision in Khon Kaen, Thailand. The result shows a need to improve the institutional capacity in Khon Kaen to implement existing provisions and then upgrade the provisions. Furthermore, in some areas of technical dimensions, such as the provision of the numerical management models, groundwater pollution hazard assessment needs the improvement in the existing provision though there is an acceptable state of capacity available in the current structure. A detailed discussion of the current state of groundwater governance for each dimension is presented below (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.3

Groundwater governance framework indicators rating by experts in terms of the adequacy of provision and institutional capacity for its implementation in Khon Kaen, Thailand



The current state of the technical dimension after the aggregation is an acceptable state, with the rating ranging from 1-1.8 for the adequacy of provision and 1.1-1.7 for the institutional capacity to implement the provision. The result shows a need to improve the provision of the aquifer numerical management model though there is an adequate institutional capacity for implementing it. Furthermore, the provision of the hydrogeological map, delineation of the aquifer, monitoring network, and availability of publications related to the inclusion of vulnerable and marginalized groups in groundwater is approaching a fully acceptable state.

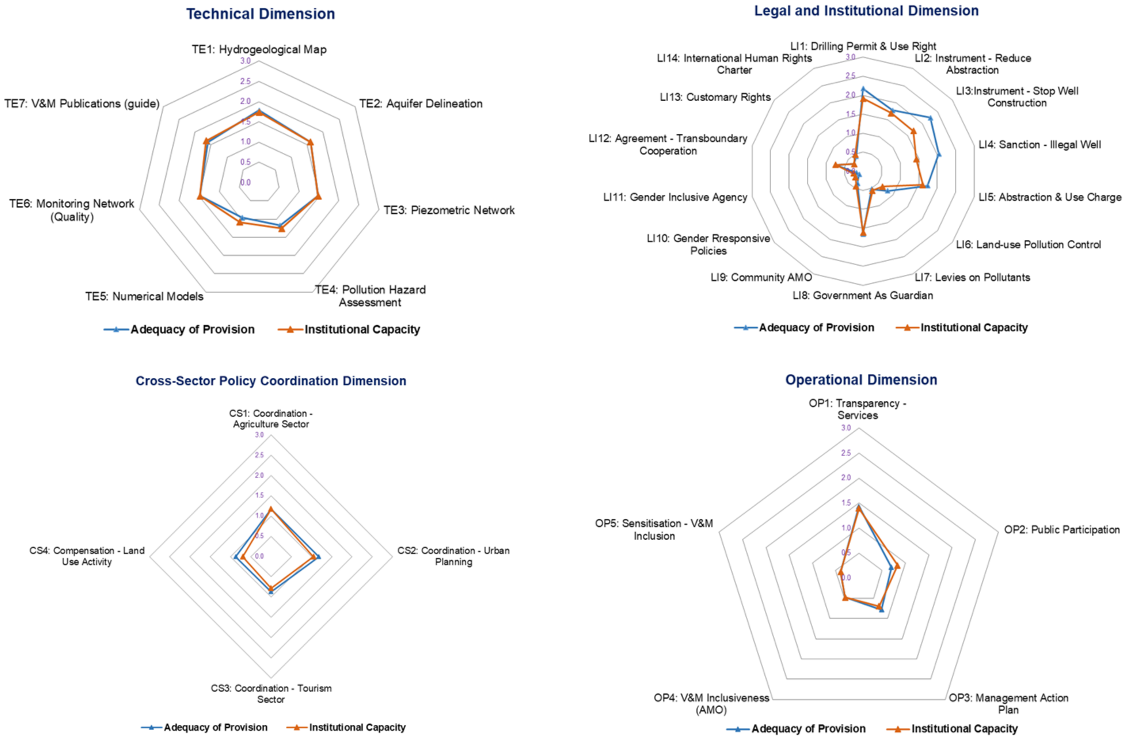
In the case of the legal and institutional dimension, the results indicate a clear need to strengthen the institutional capacity in Khon Kaen, though there is an acceptable - optimum level of provision for drilling permits (rating = 2.2), reducing the inappropriate abstraction (rating = 1.8), stopping the illegal well construction (rating = 2.3), sanctions (rating = 2.0), abstraction and use charging (rating = 1.7) etc. Furthermore, the results also suggest a need to improve other vital legal and institutional indicators such as community aquifer management organizations, vulnerable and marginalized inclusive policies and state ratification for transboundary cooperation and human rights charter etc., for improving the legal dimension and overall governance of Khon Kaen. The indicators mentioned above are currently in the non-existence to the initial stage (variables average rating 0.2 to 0.7) in terms of both adequacies of provision and institutional capacity for its implementation.

The third dimension is cross-sector policy coordination. The results show that the provision for coordination with various sectors ranges from 0.9 to 1.2. In contrast, the institutional capacity to implement such provisions ranges from 0.7-to 1.2, indicating an (early) incipient stage and displaying the need for coordinating with agriculture, urban and tourism sectors to improve the governance and management of groundwater resources of Khon Kaen.

Similarly, the final, i.e., the operational dimension, shows that it is one of the weakest with inadequate provisions and institutional capacity. The transparency in groundwater services is only one indicator of this dimension in the mid between the initial and acceptable stages in terms of adequacy of provision and institutional capacity for its implementation, with an average score of 1.4. All other indicators range from 0.4 to 0.8 and are approaching the incipient stage. The result indicates a primary need to improve the inclusion and sensitization regarding the participation and involvement of vulnerable and marginalized stakeholders in the aquifer management and a better action plan for groundwater management.

Figure 5.4

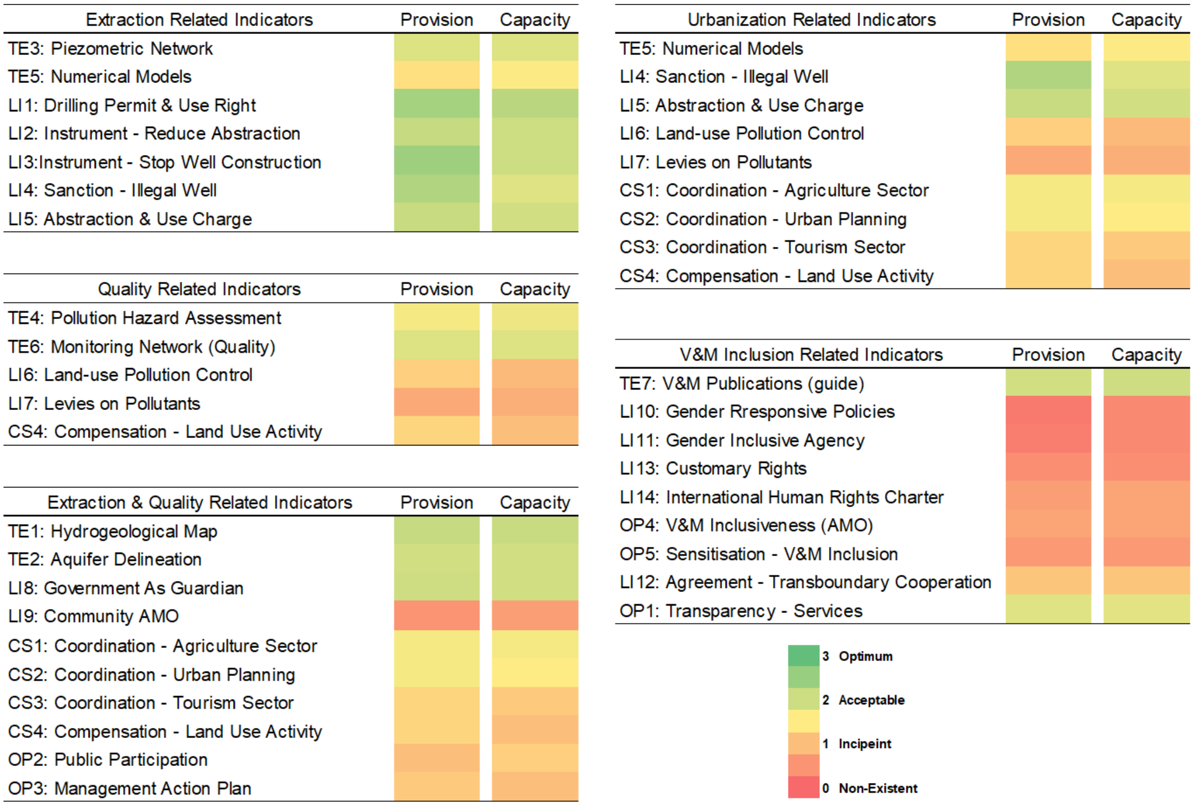
Groundwater governance framework dimensions-based indicators rating by experts in terms of the adequacy of provision and institutional capacity for its implementation in Khon Kaen, Thailand



The study further analyzed the current provision and needs based on the groundwater extraction-related, quality-related, combined extraction-quality-related, urbanization-related, and vulnerable and marginalized inclusion-related indicators (Figure 5.5). The results show that the current provision of the extraction-related governance indicators is acceptable to the optimum state in Khon Kaen, while the quality-related indicators are currently at the initial state and need further improvements in terms of provision and institutional capacity. Similarly, the indicators representing both extraction and quality in groundwater governance and those addressing the governance in urbanizing areas are in a mixed stage. The majority indicate to be in the incipient state. Furthermore, the inclusion-related indicators show an urgent need for adding provisions and institutional capacity for the sensitization and involvement of vulnerable and marginalized groups, customary rights and state ratification for transboundary cooperation in Khon Kaen, Thailand, for improving good groundwater governance and sustainable management.

Figure 5.5

Experts rating on current provision and institutional capacity under multiple perspectives for groundwater governance in Khon Kaen, Thailand



Extraction Related Indicators	Provision	Capacity
TE3: Piezometric Network	🟩	🟩
TE5: Numerical Models	🟨	🟨
LI1: Drilling Permit & Use Right	🟩	🟩
LI2: Instrument - Reduce Abstraction	🟩	🟩
LI3:Instrument - Stop Well Construction	🟩	🟩
LI4: Sanction - Illegal Well	🟩	🟩
LI5: Abstraction & Use Charge	🟩	🟩

Quality Related Indicators	Provision	Capacity
TE4: Pollution Hazard Assessment	🟨	🟨
TE6: Monitoring Network (Quality)	🟩	🟩
LI6: Land-use Pollution Control	🟧	🟧
LI7: Levies on Pollutants	🟧	🟧
CS4: Compensation - Land Use Activity	🟨	🟧

Extraction & Quality Related Indicators	Provision	Capacity
TE1: Hydrogeological Map	🟩	🟩
TE2: Aquifer Delineation	🟩	🟩
LI8: Government As Guardian	🟩	🟩
LI9: Community AMO	🟥	🟥
CS1: Coordination - Agriculture Sector	🟨	🟨
CS2: Coordination - Urban Planning	🟨	🟨
CS3: Coordination - Tourism Sector	🟨	🟧
CS4: Compensation - Land Use Activity	🟨	🟧
OP2: Public Participation	🟧	🟨
OP3: Management Action Plan	🟧	🟧

Urbanization Related Indicators	Provision	Capacity
TE5: Numerical Models	🟨	🟨
LI4: Sanction - Illegal Well	🟩	🟩
LI5: Abstraction & Use Charge	🟩	🟩
LI6: Land-use Pollution Control	🟧	🟧
LI7: Levies on Pollutants	🟧	🟧
CS1: Coordination - Agriculture Sector	🟨	🟨
CS2: Coordination - Urban Planning	🟨	🟨
CS3: Coordination - Tourism Sector	🟨	🟧
CS4: Compensation - Land Use Activity	🟨	🟧

V&M Inclusion Related Indicators	Provision	Capacity
TE7: V&M Publications (guide)	🟩	🟩
LI10: Gender Rresponsive Policies	🟥	🟥
LI11: Gender Inclusive Agency	🟥	🟥
LI13: Customary Rights	🟥	🟥
LI14: International Human Rights Charter	🟧	🟧
OP4: V&M Inclusiveness (AMO)	🟧	🟧
OP5: Sensitisation - V&M Inclusion	🟥	🟥
LI12: Agreement - Transboundary Cooperation	🟧	🟧
OP1: Transparency - Services	🟩	🟩

🟩 3 Optimum
2 Acceptable
🟨 1 Incipeint
🟥 0 Non-Existent

5.2 Projection of Future Climatic Parameters

5.2.1 Ranking of Bias Corrected Global Climate Models

Five linearly bias-corrected CMIP-6 GCMs, namely CESM2, MRI-ESM2, BCC-CSM2-MR, GFDL-ESM4 and CanESM5, made available from Hydro Informatics Institute (HII), Thailand under two SSPs (SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5) has been used for analyzing future climatic conditions. Initially, the statistical performance of five linearly bias-corrected data for the historical period (1981-2014) has been evaluated to rank each precipitation and temperature variable model, which was then future combined to select the four best performing models. The statistical performance of R2, STDV and RMSE for all five RCMs (Table 5.2) after bias correction shows that the three best performing models for precipitation are CanESM5, MRI-ESM2 and CESM2 and for minimum and maximum temperature are CESM2, MRI-ESM2 and BCC-CSM2-MR. So, for further analysis, the study used all four best-performing models for temperature and precipitation. Overall, the statistical performance of the linear bias correction results is similar for all the models where the coefficient of correlation has increased, and the root mean square error for the bias-corrected rainfall data has decreased, and the standard deviation has come closer to the observed deviation.

Table 5.2

Results for the statistical performance of linear bias correction and ranking of GCMs

Variable	Statistical Results							Ranking				
	Statistical Parameters	CESM 2	MRI-ESM-2	BCC-CSM2-MR	GFDL-ESM4	CanESM 5		CESM 2	MRI-ESM -2	BCC-CSM2-MR	GFDL-ESM4	CanESM 5
Precipitation	R2	0.65	0.66	0.62	0.61	0.69		3	2	4	5	1
	STDV	106.97	106.59	120.27	112.31	100.97		3	2	5	4	1
	RMSE	87.36	86.10	99.09	94.75	80.45		3	2	5	4	1
Maximum Temperature	R2	0.56	0.53	0.59	0.49	0.49		2	3	1	4	5
	STDV	2.31	2.54	2.34	2.51	2.50		1	5	2	4	3
	RMSE	1.60	1.78	1.55	1.85	1.83		2	3	1	5	4
Minimum Temperature	R2	0.55	0.55	0.54	0.53	0.49		1	2	3	4	5
	STDV	2.86	2.93	2.81	2.94	2.89		2	4	1	5	3
	RMSE	2.47	2.50	2.39	2.43	2.52		3	4	1	2	5
Sum of Ranking								**20**	**27**	**23**	**37**	**28**
Final Rank								**1**	**3**	**2**	**5**	**4**

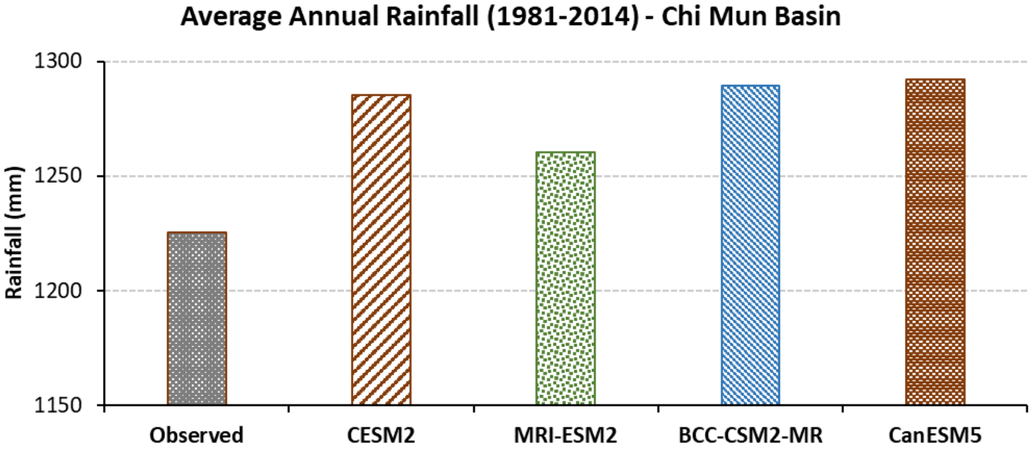
5.2.2 Performance Check of Global Climate Models

The bias-corrected historical rainfall and temperature of all the four individual GCMs have been compared with the observed rainfall and temperature for the baseline period of 1981-2014 to check the performance of linear bias correction on the individual case.

The results for the observed average annual rainfall for the Chi Mun River Basin shown by all the climate models for the baseline period show that the models are overestimated by 35-67 mm after bias correction compared to the baseline 1225 mm annually (Figure 5.6). The MRI-ESM2 models show the least bias of 35mm whereas the CanESM shows the most bias of 67 mm, followed by BCC-CSM2-MR (64mm) and CESM2 (60mm), respectively. Comparatively, it has been observed that the individual GCMs are exhibiting a slight overestimation of the average annual rainfall compared to the observed after linear bias correction.

Figure 5.6

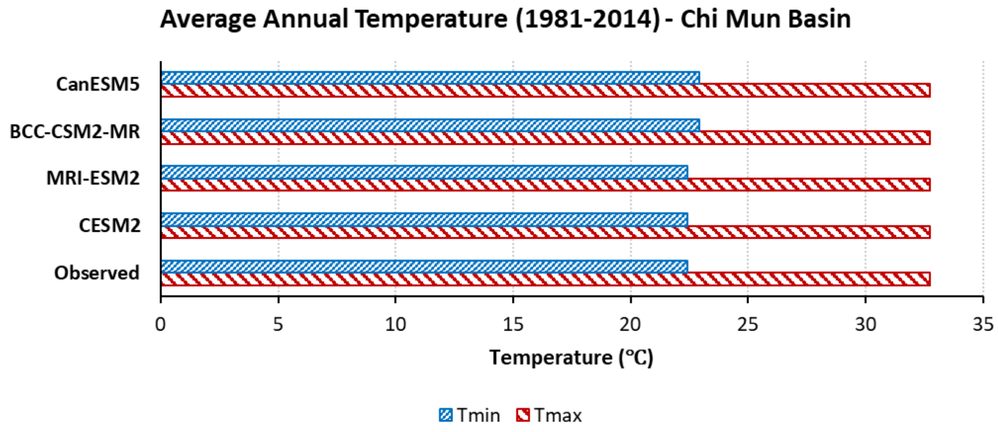
Comparison of GCM's historical average annual rainfall with an observed average annual rainfall of Chi Mun River basin for the baseline period (1981-2014) after linear bias correction



Similarly, the performance check for the average annual maximum and minimum temperature in Chi Mun Basin is shown in Figure 5.7. The results show that all the GCMs have an average annual maximum temperature of 32.7°C, the observed average annual maximum. In the case of the average annual minimum temperature, two models, namely BCC-CSM2-MR and CanESM5, overestimate the observed average annual (22.42℃) by 0.5℃. Comparatively, the results show that all the GCMs are exhibiting better estimation of the average annual temperature than the observed after linear bias correction.

Figure 5.7

Comparison of GCM's historical average annual maximum and minimum temperature with an observed average annual temperature of Chi Mun River basin for the baseline period (1981-2014) after linear bias correction

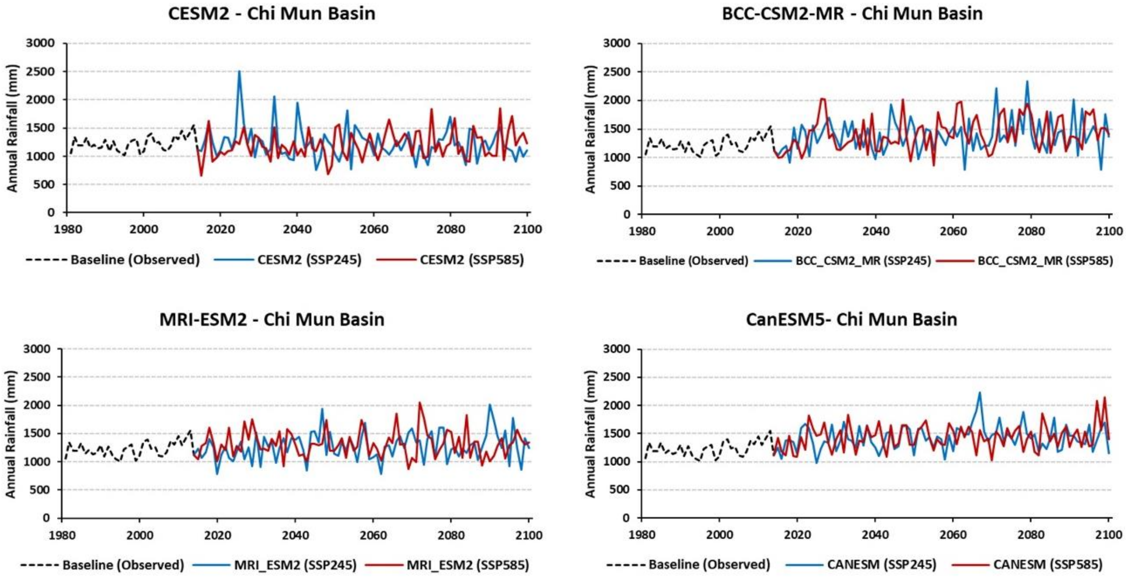


5.2.3 Projection of Future Climate in Chi Mun River Basin

The future rainfall and temperature for each GCMs (CESM2, MRI-ESM2, BCC-CSM2-MR and CanESM5) have been divided into Near Future (NF) (2015-2039), Mid Future (MF) (2040-2069) and Far Future (FF) (2070-2100) under two socio-economic pathways scenarios: SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5. The NF, MF and FF under two SSPs have been compared with the observed baseline (1981-2014). Figure 5.8 below shows the annual rainfall trend plot of Chi Mun Basin for all four GCMs under two SSPs, and the results from the majority of all the GCMs indicate that the annual rainfall is likely to increase under both the SSPs between 2015 to 2100.

Figure 5.8

Projected annual rainfall trend for Chi Mun River basin (2015-2100) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario



For a detailed analysis of change in annual rainfall, the study compared the projected average annual rainfall (NF, MF and FF) of the Chi Mun basin with the baseline (1981-2014) average annual rainfall under both SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (Table 5.3). The table illustrates that under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all the GCMs except MRI-ESM2 in NF and CESM2 in FF projects the increase in average annual rainfall from 5% to 20% compared to baseline 1225.37 mm. BCC-CSM2-MR in FF and CanESM5 in MF projects the maximum increase of 20% and 19%, respectively. The overall results further indicate that the MF and FF are likely to increase annual rainfall under the SSP2-4.5 scenario. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs except CESM2 in NF and MF projects the increase in average annual rainfall from 2% to 22% compared to the baseline. BCC-CSM2-MR in FF and CanESM5 in FF projects the maximum increase of 22% and 20%, respectively. Similar to the SSP2-4.5 scenario, the overall results under SSP5-8.5 further indicate that the FF and MF are likely to have more annual rainfall than the NF compared to the baseline conditions.

Table 5.3

Comparison of projected average annual rainfall (2015-2100) of Chi Mun River basin with baseline (1981-2014) average annual rainfall under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

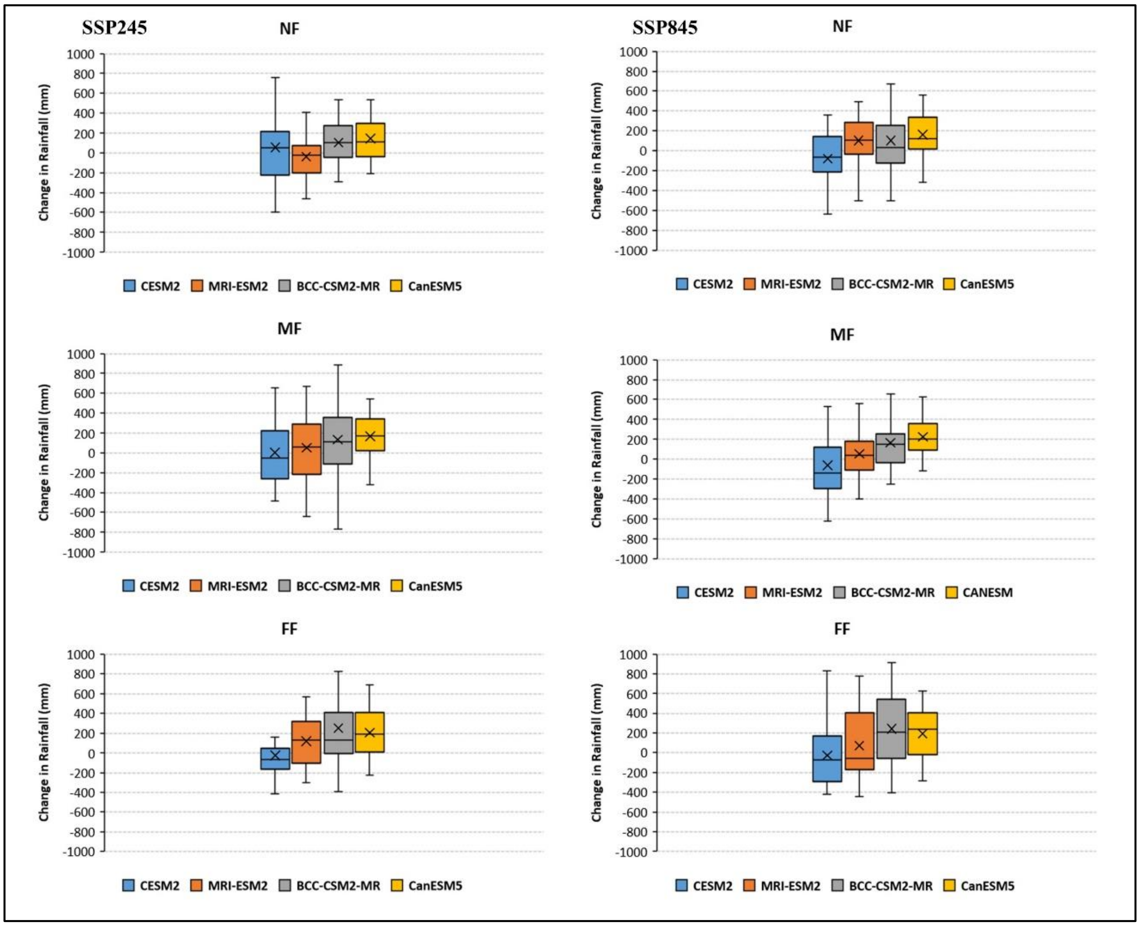
GCMs	Baseline Average Annual Rainfall (mm) (1981-2014)	Projected Average Annual Rainfall					
		SSP2-4.5			SSP5-8.5		
		NF	MF	FF	NF	MF	FF
CESM2	**1225.37**	1290.00	1237.99	1179.99	1154.18	1199.02	1244.58
MRI-ESM2		1197.34	1293.86	1331.43	1338.38	1298.73	1320.28
BCC-CSM2-MR		1339.10	1342.55	1465.15	1336.10	1402.77	1494.34
CanESM5		1380.24	1458.92	1442.00	1395.69	1450.88	1466.53

Change in Annual Rainfall Distribution

The change in the annual rainfall distribution of all four GCMs compared to baseline (Figure 5.9) for Chi Mun River basin shows an increase in mean annual rainfall

Figure 5.9

Comparison of projected change in annual rainfall distribution for Chi Mun River basin (NF, MF,FF) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario



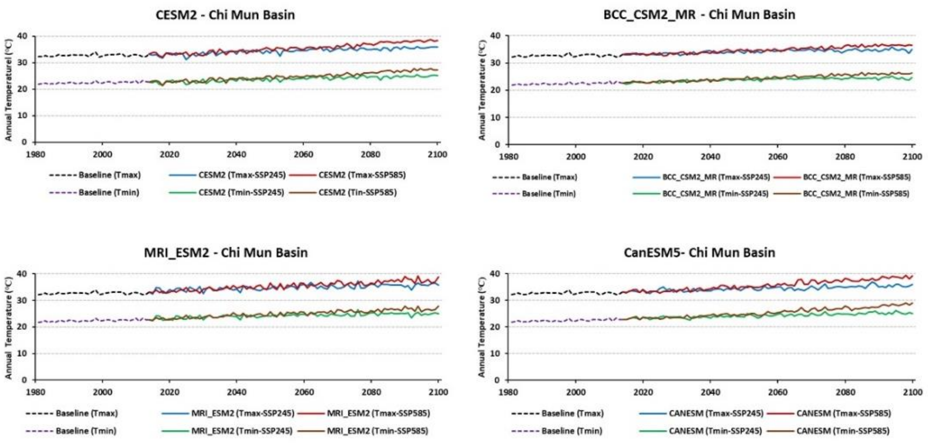
in all future periods except MRI-ESM2 in NF, CESM2 in MF and FF under the SSP2-4.5 scenario. Furthermore, CESM2 project the maximum variation in change followed by BCC-CSM-2 and MRI_ESM2 models. Moreover, under SSP2-4.5, the climate models in NF, MF and FF are more positively skewed excluding MRI-ESM2 in NF, CanESM5 in MF and CESM2 in FF, which is more negatively skewed. In the case of the SSP5-8.5 scenario (Figure 5.x), most of all, the models are positively skewed, indicating an increase in average annual rainfall in the mid and far future.

Projection of Temperature of Chi Mun River Basin

Figure 5.10 below shows the annual maximum temperature (Tmax) and minimum temperature (Tmin) trend plot of Chi Mun Basin for all four GCMs under two SSPs. The results show that all the GCMs indicate that the average annual maximum and minimum temperature is likely to increase under the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios between 2015 to 2100. Furthermore, the line graph also indicates that after 2050 (MF), the SSP5-8.5 scenario is likely to have more increase in both temperatures than the SSP2-4.5 scenario. Under SSP5-8.5 scenario, the GCMs CESM2, MRI-ESM2, BCC-CSM2-MR and CanESM5 project maximum temperature up to 38.7℃, 39.2℃, 36.8℃ and 39.4℃ and minimum temperature for Chi Mun river basin up to 27.8℃, 27.9℃, 26.5℃ and 29.1℃, respectively.

Figure 5.10

Projected annual maximum and minimum temperature trend for Chi Mun River basin (2015-2100) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario



For a detailed analysis of change in average annual maximum and minimum temperature, the study compared the projected average annual maximum and minimum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of the Chi Mun basin with the baseline (1981-2014) average annual temperature under both SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (Table 5.4). The table illustrates that under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.5-1.4℃ in NF, 1.7-2.2℃ in MF and 2-2.9℃ in FF compared to baseline of 32.7℃. MRI-ESM2 model projects the maximum increase in all the future periods. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.7-1.2℃ in NF, 2-2.8℃ in MF and 3.4-5.1℃ in FF compared to baseline of 32.7℃. The most increment is likely to occur in FF as projected by all models, and the CanESM5 in FF projects a maximum of 5.1℃ and 2.8℃ in MF. Overall, the change in average annual maximum temperature shows that the basin is likely to have increased maximum temperature up to 3℃-5℃ as compared to the baseline conditions.

Table 5.4

Comparison of projected average annual maximum temperature (2015-2100) of Chi Mun River basin with baseline (1981-2014) average annual maximum temperature under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

GCMs	**Baseline Average Annual Maximum Temperature (℃) 1981-2014**	**Projected Average Annual Maximum Temperature (Tmax)**					
		SSP2-4.5			**SSP5-8.5**		
		NF	**MF**	**FF**	**NF**	**MF**	**FF**
CESM2	32.7	33.2	34.4	35.4	33.5	35.1	37.4
MRI-ESM2		34.1	34.9	35.6	33.9	35.4	37.0
BCC-CSM2-MR		33.4	34.3	34.7	33.4	34.7	36.1
CanESM5		33.6	34.4	35.3	33.6	35.5	37.8

Furthermore, table 5.5 below compares the projected average annual minimum temperature with the baseline average annual minimum temperature. The results under the SSP2-4.5 scenario shows that all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual minimum temperature of 0.4-1.2℃ in NF, 1.5-1.9℃ in MF and 2.2-2.9℃ in FF compared to baseline of 22.4℃. MRI-ESM2 model projects the maximum increase in NF and MF while CanESM5 projects the maximum increase in the FF. The other models also exhibit a similar trend in the increase in average annual minimum temperature for the basin. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.7-1.2℃ in NF, 2.1-2.7℃ in MF and 3.4-5℃ in FF compared to baseline of 22.4℃. CanESM5 in projects the maximum increment in all the future periods. Furthermore, the most increment is likely to occur in MF and FF as projected by all models. Overall, the change in average annual minimum temperature shows that the basin is likely to have increased average minimum temperature, which is likely to be more than the change in the average annual maximum temperature indicating more hotter days in the basin.

Table 5.5:

Comparison of projected average annual minimum temperature (2015-2100) of Chi Mun River basin with baseline (1981-2014) average annual minimum temperature under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

GCMs	Baseline Average Annual Minimum Temperature (℃) 1981-2014	Projected Average Annual Minimum Temperature (Tmin)					
		SSP2-4.5			SSP5-8.5		
		NF	MF	FF	NF	MF	FF
CESM2	22.4	22.8	23.9	24.7	23.1	24.5	26.5
MRI-ESM2		23.6	24.4	24.9	23.6	24.9	26.4
BCC-CSM2-MR		23.1	24.0	24.4	23.2	24.4	25.8
CanESM5		23.4	24.2	25.1	23.5	25.1	27.4

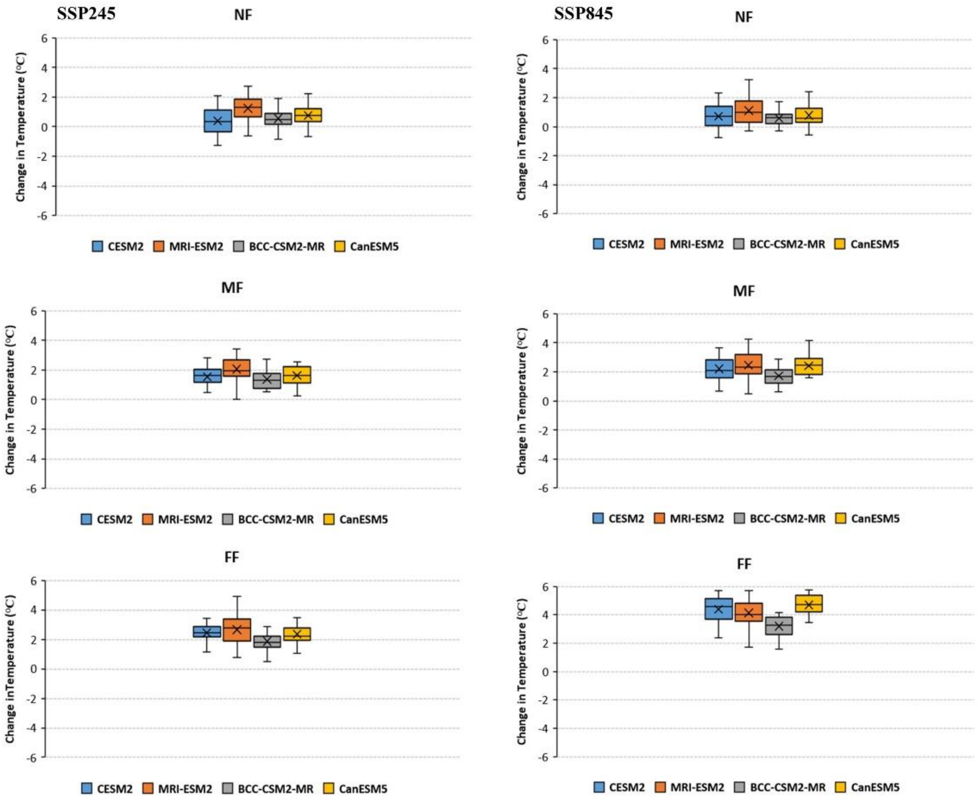
Change in annual temperature distribution

The change in the average annual maximum and minimum temperature distribution of all four GCMs compared to baseline (Figure 5.11) for the Chi Mun River basin shows an increase in mean annual minimum temperature under both SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios.

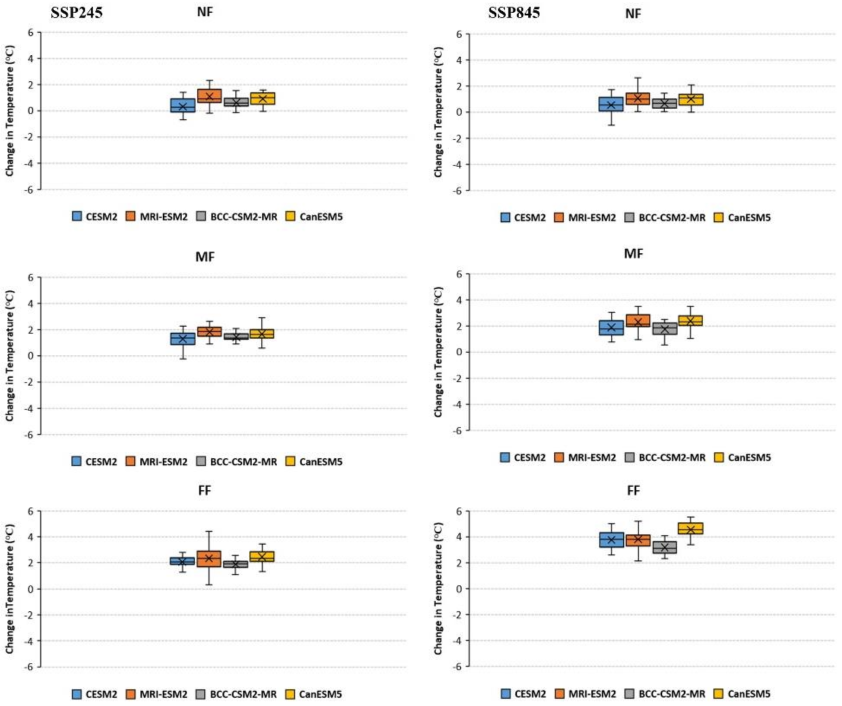
Figure 5.11

Comparison of projected change in average annual maximum and minimum temperature distribution for Chi Mun River basin (NF, MF, FF) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario

Maximum Temperature (Tmax)



Minimum Temperature (Tmin)



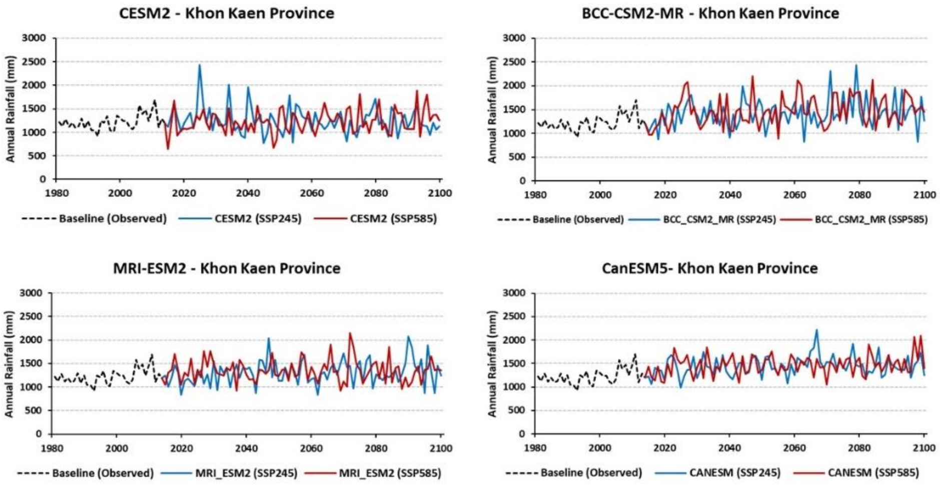
In both the maximum and minimum temperature and under both the SSPs, all the GCMs are positively skewed, indicating an increase in average annual temperature. In most cases, the MRI-ESM2 climate model shows the maximum variation in change followed by CESM2 climate models in both scenarios. Overall, the average annual maximum and minimum temperature results show that all the models are symmetrically distributed with the mean increment likely to happen more in the mid and far future. Furthermore, the percentage change in minimum temperature is likely to be more than the change in the maximum temperature.

5.2.4 Projection of Future Climate in Khon Kaen Province

The study investigates the impact of multiple future stresses on groundwater in rapidly urbanising areas, and Khon Kaen province is the rapidly urbanising area in the selected study basin. Further analysis of changes in rainfall trends for the province has also been conducted. Figure 5.12 below shows the annual rainfall trend plot of Khon Kaen Province for all four GCMs under two SSPs, and the results from the majority of all the GCMs indicate that the annual rainfall is likely to increase in Khon Kaen province under both the SSPs between 2015 to 2100. CESM2 in NF under SSP2-4.5 and MRI-ESM2 in MF under SSP5-8.5 show a decreasing trend.

Figure 5.12

Projected annual rainfall trend for Khon Kaen Province (2015-2100) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario



Furthermore, the change in the projected average annual rainfall (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province is compared with the baseline (1981-2014) average annual rainfall under both SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (Table 5.6). The results illustrate that under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all the GCMs except CESM2 in FF projects, the average annual rainfall in Khon Kaen Province is likely to increase from 3% to 23% compared to baseline 1222 mm. Similar to the basin, BCC-CSM2-MR in FF and CanESM5 in MF projects the maximum increase of 23% and 21%, respectively.

Table 5.6

Comparison of projected average annual rainfall (2015-2100) of Khon Kaen province with baseline (1981-2014) average annual rainfall under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

GCMs	**Baseline Average Annual Rainfall (mm) (1981-2014)**	**Projected Average Annual Rainfall**					
		SSP2-4.5			**SSP5-8.5**		
		NF	**MF**	**FF**	**NF**	**MF**	**FF**
CESM2	**1222.00**	1311.00	1260.00	1203.00	1175.00	1219.00	1276.00
MRI-ESM2		1217.00	1330.00	1368.00	1363.00	1335.00	1349.00
BCC-CSM2-MR		1363.00	1374.00	1506.00	1386.00	1451.00	1534.00
CanESM5		1390.00	1474.00	1465.00	1411.00	1477.00	1497.00

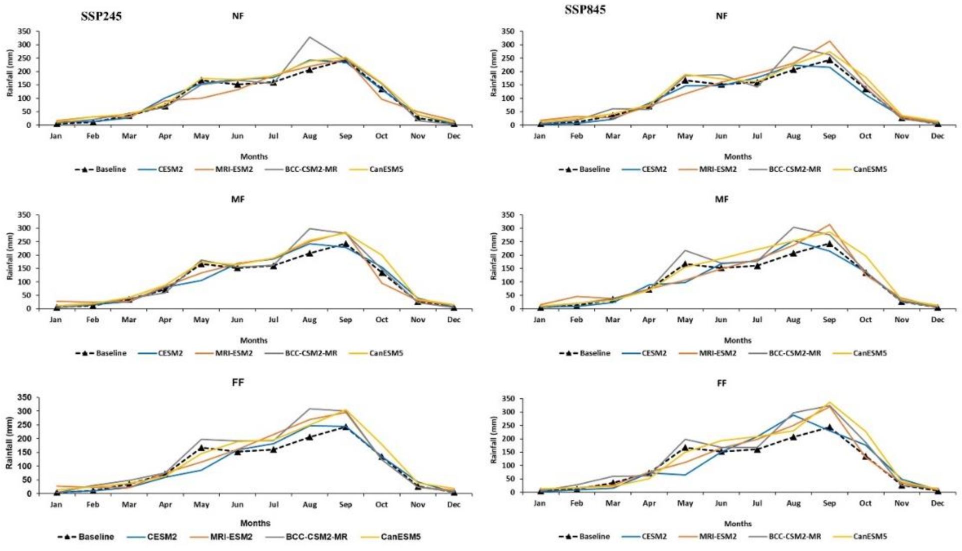
The overall results further indicate that the NF, MF and FF are likely to increase annual rainfall under the SSP2-4.5 scenario. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs except CESM2 in NF projects an increase in average annual rainfall from 4% to 26% compared to the baseline. BCC-CSM2-MR in FF and CanESM5 in FF projects the maximum increase of 26% and 23%, respectively. Similar to the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all future periods are likely to have increased annual rainfall compared to the baseline conditions under SSP5-8.5. Additionally, the overall change in the average annual rainfall indicates that rapidly urbanizing area is likely to have slightly more rainfall than the average annual rainfall of the basin.

Change in Average Monthly Rainfall

The results for the future average monthly rainfall of the Khon Kaen province compared with the observed average monthly rainfall (baseline) for NF, MF and FF under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios are shown in Figure 5.13. Under the SSP2-4.5 scenario majority of all the models shows that the May month of the wet season (May-October) in all the future period is likely to have decreased rainfall, whereas Khon Kaen is likely to have increased future average monthly rainfall in August as compared to the baseline conditions. Furthermore, the overall results show that most of the GCMs project an increase in average monthly rainfall, mainly in the wet season than the dry season (November-April). The major increase is likely from July to October in MF and FF. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, most of all, the GCMs excluding BCC-CSM2-MR projects decrease in average monthly rainfall during April and May in Khon Kaen, whereas July, August, September during wet seasons is likely to receive more average monthly rainfall. Overall, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, most of the GCMs projects increased in the average monthly rainfall in both dry and wet seasons and the increment is likely to be more in NF and MF than the NF.

Figure 5.13

Comparison projected average monthly rainfall for Khon Kaen Province (NF, MF, FF) with baseline average monthly rainfall under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

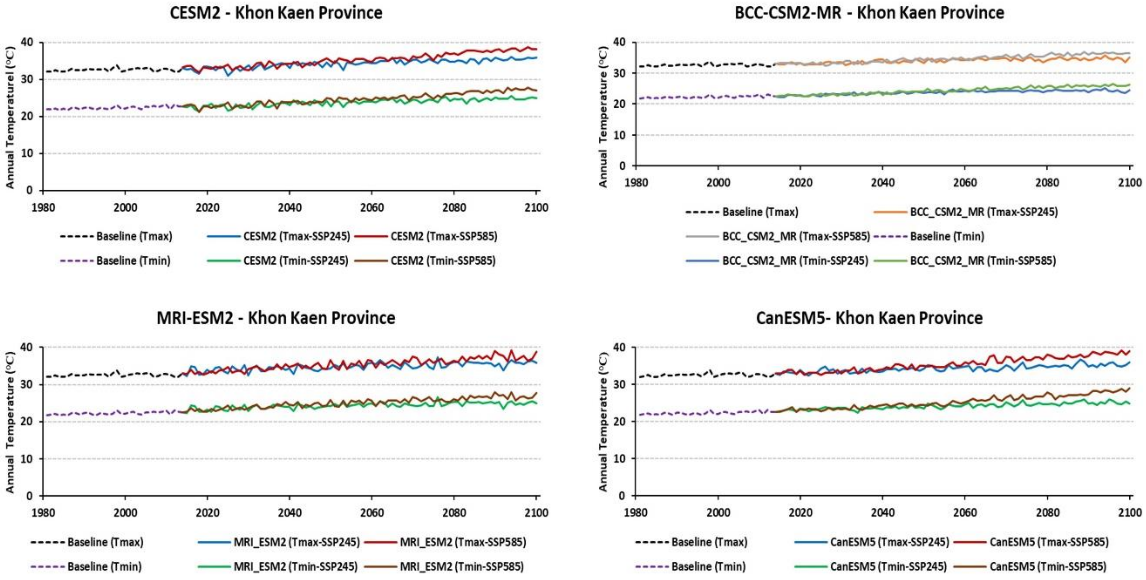


Projection of Temperature of Khon Kaen Basin

The average annual maximum temperature (Tmax) and the average annual minimum temperature (Tmin) of the Khon Kaen province for the baseline is 33.8℃ and 23.2℃. Figure 5.14 below shows Khon Kaen province's average annual maximum and minimum temperature trend plot for all four GCMs under two SSPs. The results show that all the GCMs indicate that the average annual maximum and minimum temperature is likely to increase under the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios between 2015 to 2100. Furthermore, the line graph also indicates that the SSP5-8.5 scenario is likely to have more increase in both temperatures than the SSP2-4.5 scenario, mainly from the MF until 2100. Under SSP5-8.5 scenarios, the GCMs CESM2, MRI-ESM2, BCC-CSM2-MR and CanESM5 project maximum temperature up to 38.6℃, 39.2℃, 36.8℃ and 39.2℃ and minimum temperature for Khon Kaen province up to 27.7℃, 28.0℃, 26.4℃ and 29.0℃, respectively. These maximum and minimum temperature trend for the province is similar to that of the basin.

Figure 5.14

Projected average annual maximum rainfall trend for Khon Kaen Province (2015-2100) for four GCMs under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario



For a detailed analysis of change in average annual maximum and minimum temperature, the study compared the projected average annual maximum and minimum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of the Khon Kaen province with the baseline (1981-2014) average annual temperature under both SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios (Table 5.7). The table illustrates that under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.4-1.4℃ in NF, 1.7-2.2℃ in MF and 1.9-2.9℃ in FF compared to baseline of 33.8℃. MRI-ESM2 model projects the maximum increase in all the future periods. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.6-1.3℃ in NF, 1.9-2.8℃ in MF and 3.4-5.0℃ in FF compared to baseline of 33.8℃. The most increment is likely to occur in FF as projected by all models, and the CanESM5 in FF projects a maximum of 5.0℃ and 2.7℃ in MF. Overall, the change in average annual maximum temperature shows that the basin is likely to have increased maximum temperature up to 3℃-5℃ as compared to the baseline conditions and the trend for the province is similar to that of the basin.

Table 5.7:

Comparison of projected average annual maximum temperature (2015-2100) of Khon Kaen province with baseline (1981-2014) average annual maximum temperature under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

GCMs	**Baseline Average Annual Maximum Temperature (℃) 1981-2014**	**Projected Average Annual Maximum Temperature (Tmax)**					
		SSP2-4.5			**SSP5-8.5**		
		NF	**MF**	**FF**	**NF**	**MF**	**FF**
CESM2	32.6	33	34.3	35.2	33.4	35	37.3
MRI-ESM2		34	34.8	35.5	33.9	35.4	37
BCC-CSM2-MR		33.2	34.1	34.5	33.2	34.5	36
CanESM5		33.4	34.2	35.1	33.4	35.3	37.6

Furthermore, table 5.8 below compares the projected average annual minimum temperature of Khon Kaen province with the baseline average annual minimum temperature. The results under the SSP2-4.5 scenario shows that all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual minimum temperature of 0.4-1.4℃ in NF, 1.5-2.1℃ in MF and 2.0-2.6℃ in FF compared to baseline of 23.2℃. MRI-ESM2 model projects the maximum increase in NF and MF while both MRI_ESM2 and CanESM5 projects the maximum increase in the FF. The other models also exhibit a similar trend in the increase in average annual minimum temperature for the province. Similarly, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all the GCMs projects the increase in average annual maximum temperature of 0.7-1.3℃ in NF, 2.2-2.7℃ in MF and 3.4-5℃ in FF compared to baseline of 23.2℃. CanESM5 projects the maximum increment in the mid and far future, while MRI-ESM2 projects the maximum increment in NF and MF. Furthermore, the most increment is likely to occur in MF and FF as projected by all models. Overall, the change in average annual minimum temperature shows that the province is likely to have increased average minimum temperature, which is likely to be more than the change in the average annual maximum temperature indicating more hotter days in the province.

Table 5.8:

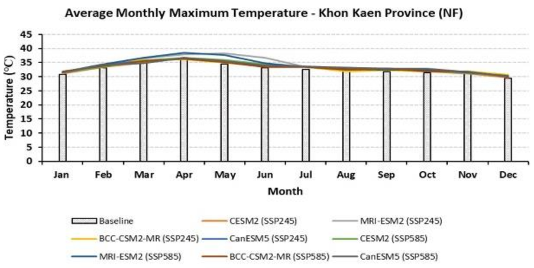
Comparison of projected average annual minimum temperature (2015-2100) of Khon Kaen province with baseline (1981-2014) average annual minimum temperature under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

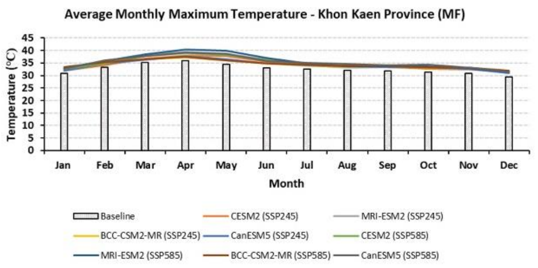
GCMs	**Baseline Average Annual Minimum Temperature (°C) 1981-2014**	**Projected Average Annual Minimum Temperature (Tmin)**					
		SSP2-4.5			**SSP5-8.5**		
		NF	**MF**	**FF**	**NF**	**MF**	**FF**
CESM2	23.2	22.7	23.8	24.6	23	24.5	26.4
MRI-ESM2		23.7	24.4	24.9	23.6	25	26.4
BCC-CSM2-MR		23	23.9	24.3	23.1	24.3	25.7
CanESM5		23.3	24.1	24.9	23.4	25	27.3

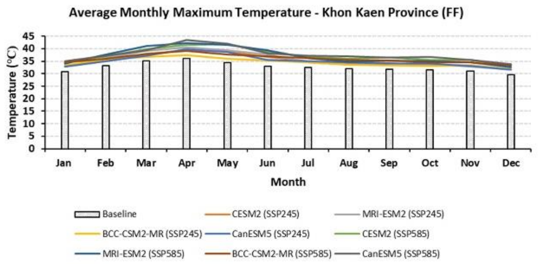
Change in Average Monthly Temperature

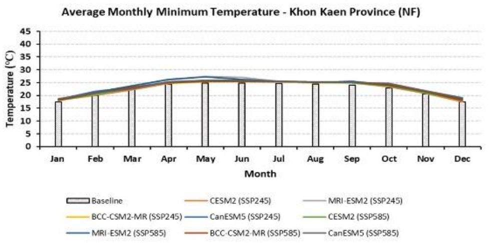
Figure 5.15

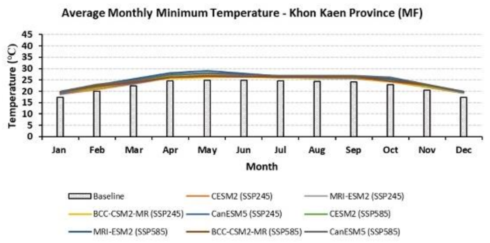
Comparison projected average monthly maximum and minimum temperature for Khon Kaen Province (NF, MF, FF) with baseline average monthly temperature under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios

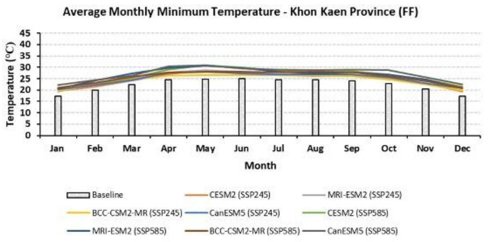












The results for the future average monthly maximum and minimum temperature of the Khon Kaen province compared with the baseline for NF, MF and FF under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios are shown in Figure 5.15. Under both scenarios, all the models show that the average monthly maximum and minimum temperature is likely to increase with more increment in the MF and FF. Furthermore, the results also indicate that the dry season (Nov-Apr) is projected to have more increments than the wet seasons (May-Oct). However, all the models during the future period show that the hotter months of baseline (March-June) are likely to have more increments than other months. Overall, under both the SSP scenario, all the climate models projects increased the average monthly rainfall in dry and wet seasons, and the increment is likely to be more in MF and MF than the NF.

5.2.5 Significant Test of Projected Climate Trend in Khon Kaen Province

Rainfall Trend Significance Test

Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 below illustrates the comparison of project rainfall from all four GCMs for Khon Kaen Province, obtained from Mann Kendall test and Sen slope estimate under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario, respectively. Under SPP245, Table 5.9 shows that the monthly results are a mix of positive and negative trends in all the GCMs for Khon Kaen Province. The annual rainfall for all the climate models except CESM2 shows that the annual, dry season and wet season rainfall is likely to increase in NF, and the results from BCC-CSM-2-MR projects a non-significant (90% level of confidence) increase in dry season rainfall, whereas the other projected increment is not significant. Furthermore, the CESM2 model shows non-significant decreasing annual rainfall by 11.35 mm/year and a significant decreasing trend during the dry season at a 95% confidence level. In the case of MF, the majority of the models show a non-significant decreasing trend for annual, dry season and wet season, whereas the CanESM5 model shows the increasing trend for all three cases with a significant increasing trend in the annual and dry season at 95% level of confidence. In the case of FF, BCC-CSM2-MR and CanESM5 show a non-significant decreasing trend, whereas the CESM2 and MRI-ESM-2 show the non-significant increasing trend for the annual and wet season. All four models in the FF shows a non-significant decreasing trend during dry seasons in Khon Kaen Province.

Table 5.9:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future rainfall (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP2-4.5 scenario

Time series	**1_CESM2**			**2_MRI-ESM-0**			**3_BCC-CSM2-MR**			**4_CanSEM**		
	NF (2015-2039)			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	-0.304		-0.015	-1.238		-0.217	0.350		0.052	0.000		0.005
February	-1.611		-0.150	2.452	*	1.260	1.425		0.444	1.752	+	0.891
March	0.117		0.036	-0.631		-0.405	1.938	+	1.076	0.163		0.153
April	-1.705	+	-2.937	0.490		0.744	-0.070		-0.100	-1.985	*	-1.664
May	-2.079	*	-3.613	0.911		2.171	-0.584		-1.036	-0.257		-0.219
June	-0.210		-0.592	0.724		2.280	1.331		2.859	-0.070		-0.437
July	-0.537		-0.757	0.397		0.665	-0.117		-0.392	0.350		0.586
August	-0.724		-1.434	1.471		1.953	1.565		6.700	1.004		2.269
September	1.518		2.195	-0.257		-0.777	-1.845	+	-4.133	0.677		2.864
October	0.210		0.704	0.117		0.335	-0.257		-1.485	0.537		1.362
November	-0.444		-0.270	1.378		1.102	2.219	*	0.631	-0.257		-0.245
December	-0.350		-0.023	-0.163		-0.035	0.117		0.018	-0.911		-0.153

Annual	-1.611		-11.351	1.144		7.066	1.191		7.211	1.425		7.400
Dry Season	-2.219	*	-5.976	1.285		4.186	1.752	+	3.549	0.397		0.947
Wet Season	-0.817		-3.242	0.817		2.739	0.724		5.634	1.191		7.543
Time series	**1_CESM2**			**2_MRI-ESM-0**			**3_BCC-CSM2-MR**			**4_CanSEM**		
	MF (2039-2069)			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	-1.035		-0.038	-1.142		-0.188	-0.285		-0.021	0.999		0.141
February	-0.393		-0.060	-0.785		-0.155	-0.642		-0.126	0.607		0.120
March	-0.178		-0.107	0.892		0.391	-0.464		-0.242	1.534		1.206
April	-1.106		-0.962	0.000		-0.057	0.856		0.290	0.321		0.200
May	-0.821		-1.205	-1.035		-2.093	0.856		1.397	0.214		0.271
June	0.892		1.249	-1.106		-1.669	-0.678		-0.855	-0.678		-0.585
July	0.785		1.005	1.392		1.135	-1.178		-1.871	0.000		-0.018
August	-0.535		-0.842	1.641		2.091	0.856		2.877	0.250		0.391
September	0.107		0.125	-0.285		-0.629	-0.428		-1.370	0.464		0.935
October	0.749		1.863	-0.393		-0.737	-0.357		-0.876	1.641		5.306
November	1.285		0.388	-1.142		-0.164	1.748	+	0.677	1.677	+	0.668
December	-0.393		-0.010	0.250		0.019	1.178		0.079	0.000		0.000
Annual	-0.464		-3.618	-0.500		-2.916	-0.393		-2.096	2.070	*	10.529
Dry Season	-0.535		-1.142	-0.143		-0.104	0.178		0.209	2.034	*	3.486
Wet Season	-0.500		-1.983	-0.642		-3.187	-0.500		-3.078	1.606		6.769
Time series	**1_CESM2**			**2_MRI-ESM-0**			**3_BCC-CSM2-MR**			**4_CanSEM**		
	FF (2069-2100)			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	-0.748		-0.024	-1.802	+	-0.251	-1.462		-0.044	0.510		0.081
February	1.360		0.148	0.068		0.018	-1.020		-0.424	0.000		-0.002
March	-1.122		-0.180	-0.510		-0.129	-1.870	+	-1.116	-0.340		-0.215
April	1.326		1.043	-0.306		-0.248	-0.748		-0.509	0.612		0.193
May	-0.374		-0.277	-2.074	*	-3.373	-1.496		-2.993	-2.481	*	-2.442
June	0.000		-0.017	-0.680		-0.952	-0.714		-1.220	-1.802	+	-0.995
July	0.476		0.420	0.782		1.017	-0.136		-0.371	-0.850		-0.783
August	1.190		2.304	0.102		0.224	0.068		0.194	-0.782		-1.062
September	0.510		1.351	0.816		2.238	0.578		2.662	1.802	+	3.061
October	-0.782		-1.580	1.190		2.212	0.238		0.621	0.680		0.883
November	-0.340		-0.255	0.442		0.114	-0.408		-0.158	-1.326		-0.571
December	-1.020		-0.034	-0.646		-0.106	-0.238		-0.005	-1.054		-0.192
Annual	0.238		1.119	0.000		-0.248	-0.408		-3.088	-1.122		-4.478
Dry Season	-0.238		-0.301	-1.258		-1.340	-1.632		-2.603	-0.714		-0.807
Wet Season	0.510		2.546	0.102		1.851	-0.136		-1.061	-1.190		-3.797

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at α = 0.001 level of significance. **trend at α = 0.01 level of significance. *trend at α = 0.05 level of significance. + trend at α = 0.1 level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

Under the SPP585 scenario, Table 5.10 also shows that the monthly results are a mix of positive and negative trends in all the GCMs for Khon Kaen Province. The annual rainfall, dry season and wet seasons for all the climate models show a non-significant increasing trend in NF except BCC-CSM2-MR, which shows a significant (90% level of confidence) increasing annual trend by 16 mm/year. Similarly, in the case of MF, all the models except CanESM5 for the annual and wet season show a non-significant rainfall trend (MRI-ESM-2 shows a significant increase by 4 mm/year) in Khon Kaen Province. The trend test for FF under the SSP5-8.5 scenario shows a mixed trend with all the models except BCC-CSM2-MR during dry seasons shows the non-significant decreasing trend while MRI-ESM-2 shows the significant decreasing trend by 2.4 mm/year at a 95% level of confidence. Furthermore, MRI-ESM-2 for the annual rainfall of Khon Kaen province and BCC-CSM2-MR for the wet season in FF shows a non-significant decreasing rainfall trend. Overall, the results for the trend analysis shows that the majority of models shows a non-significant decreasing rainfall trend in MF and FF under SSP2-4.5 while a non-significant increasing trend in NF and FF under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. Furthermore, all models except BCC-CSM2-MR shows that the Khon Kaen province is likely to have lesser rainfall in the dry season during the FF and more rainfall during the NF.

Table 5.10:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future rainfall (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP5-8.5 scenario

Time series	1_CESM2			2_MRI-ESM-0			3_BCC-CSM2-MR			4_CanSEM		
	NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)		
	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q
January	0.117		0.007	2.032	*	0.685	-0.163		-0.008	0.000		-0.001
February	1.144		0.133	-0.771		-0.286	-0.210		-0.037	0.631		0.269
March	1.752	+	0.564	0.350		0.165	0.958		1.032	1.051		0.435
April	0.070		0.075	-0.958		-1.155	0.817		0.730	-0.584		-0.351
May	0.257		0.724	-0.444		-1.084	-0.444		-0.765	0.023		0.132
June	-0.397		-0.516	-0.257		-0.649	0.163		0.444	0.257		0.393
July	0.000		0.003	1.051		1.136	-0.864		-1.381	0.771		1.040
August	0.444		0.346	1.098		2.095	1.191		4.019	1.752	+	3.007
September	0.631		1.118	-0.304		-0.565	1.098		5.092	1.051		4.831
October	0.070		0.154	0.304		0.953	0.163		0.528	-0.584		-1.675
November	2.359	*	1.555	0.304		0.099	1.004		0.512	0.070		0.047
December	-0.584		-0.053	0.490		0.127	1.238		0.113	2.452	*	0.789
Annual	1.098		5.923	0.958		6.279	1.845	+	15.931	1.051		7.122
Dry Season	0.864		1.809	1.191		2.335	0.864		2.569	1.144		1.847
Wet Season	0.631		3.849	0.257		1.202	1.285		14.267	0.771		5.520
Time series	**1_CESM2**			**2_MRI-ESM-0**			**3_BCC-CSM2-MR**			**4_CanSEM**		
	MF (2039-2069)			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Signific.**	**Q**
January	-0.161		-0.004	1.356		0.248	-0.036		-0.003	0.607		0.095
February	-1.035		-0.166	0.357		0.096	1.534		0.454	0.178		0.095
March	0.428		0.127	0.963		0.518	0.821		0.481	-0.428		-0.109
April	0.607		0.650	1.713	+	1.499	1.249		0.872	0.250		0.193
May	0.143		0.155	0.036		0.120	1.356		2.587	0.892		0.860
June	0.321		0.446	1.320		1.890	0.143		0.449	-1.463		-1.475
July	0.178		0.156	-0.214		-0.502	-1.320		-1.653	-1.178		-1.441
August	0.214		0.398	2.248	*	3.093	1.998	*	4.281	1.963	*	2.261
September	1.249		1.209	-1.285		-2.726	-0.107		-0.373	-0.428		-1.032
October	1.606		2.997	-1.070		-1.293	2.177	*	2.929	0.071		0.053
November	0.749		0.294	-1.213		-0.361	0.178		0.058	0.785		0.349
December	-0.357		-0.036	0.535		0.053	-0.892		-0.052	-0.285		-0.038
Annual	1.213		6.464	0.821		4.084	1.249		9.642	-0.107		-0.656
Dry Season	1.035		1.738	1.891	+	3.908	0.999		1.964	0.500		0.940
Wet Season	1.249		4.601	0.107		0.546	1.178		8.379	-0.321		-1.517
Time series	**1_CESM2**			**2_MRI-ESM-0**			**3_BCC-CSM2-MR**			**4_CanSEM**		
	FF (2069-2100)			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	-0.272		-0.007	-0.782		-0.058	0.408		0.024	-0.476		-0.089
February	-1.020		-0.060	-0.306		-0.033	0.306		0.049	-0.204		-0.031
March	-0.782		-0.110	0.238		0.042	0.646		0.605	-0.510		-0.096
April	-0.680		-0.733	-0.680		-0.735	-0.544		-0.332	0.136		0.056
May	-1.564		-1.129	0.374		0.380	0.748		1.024	0.306		0.595
June	0.408		0.803	-0.034		-0.048	-1.258		-2.197	1.326		1.995
July	1.020		0.793	0.374		0.380	-0.136		-0.208	-1.598		-1.469

August	0.884		1.650	0.170		0.348	-0.306		-0.697	-0.034		-0.049
September	0.136		0.379	0.986		2.256	0.204		1.030	0.374		0.899
October	1.156		3.191	-1.020		-1.577	0.340		0.837	1.190		4.047
November	1.224		0.436	-1.292		-0.511	0.476		0.129	0.510		0.196
December	-0.119		-0.008	-2.074	*	-0.187	0.612		0.095	0.000		0.010
Annual	0.714		4.511	-0.340		-1.531	0.068		0.785	1.054		5.095
Dry Season	-0.238		-0.381	-2.244	*	-2.414	0.238		0.361	-0.068		-0.048
Wet Season	0.782		4.742	0.646		3.705	-0.102		-0.771	1.292		5.305

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at α = 0.001 level of significance. **trend at α = 0.01 level of significance. *trend at α = 0.05 level of significance. + trend at α = 0.1 level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

Maximum Temperature Trend - Significance Test

Table 5.11 and Table 5.12 below illustrates the comparison of the maximum temperature of all four GCMs for Khon Kaen Province, obtained from Mann Kendall test and Sen slope estimate under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario, respectively. Under SPP245, Table 5.11 shows that the monthly results are the mix of positive and negative trends in all the GCMs for Khon Kaen Province, with the majority of the positive trends in NF, MF and FF. Under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, CESM2 and BCC-CSM2-MR project a significant increasing maximum temperature trend for the annual, dry, and wet seasons. CESM2 in NF projects about a significant increase of 0.1°C/year at 99% confidence level while BCC-CSM2-MR in NF projects a significant increasing trend of maximum temperature during wet and dry seasons at 95% level of confidence and a significant increase at 99% level of confidence annually. A similar trend is projected in the mid-future by all the climate models where BCC-CSM2-MR projects a significant increase in the maximum temperature trend annually and during the wet season at a 99% confidence level by 0.04-0.05°C/year. Additionally, all the GCMs during the wet season's project a significant increasing trend of maximum temperature at 95 to 99.9% confidence level. In the case of FF, all the climate models project the increasing trend for the maximum temperature annually, wet seasons and dry seasons. Except for BCC-CSM2-MR, all the model projects a significant increasing trend of maximum temperature for annual and wet seasons at 90-99% level in confidence.

Table 5.11:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future maximum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP2-4.5 scenario

Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	NF (2015-2039)			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	1.892	+	0.069	0.724		0.045	0.631		0.029	0.490		0.021
February	-0.023		-0.003	0.864		0.048	-0.117		-0.005	-2.359	*	-0.086

March	2.032	*	0.086	0.958		0.065	0.117		0.007	-0.397		-0.018
April	1.845	+	0.105	1.238		0.080	1.565		0.086	1.471		0.106
May	2.219	*	0.103	-0.257		-0.025	-0.210		-0.014	1.565		0.050
June	1.565		0.058	0.070		0.008	-0.163		-0.010	2.592	**	0.055
July	1.985	*	0.049	0.864		0.021	2.312	*	0.057	1.938	+	0.027
August	2.452	*	0.049	1.144		0.022	-0.724		-0.008	-0.350		-0.006
September	0.304		0.008	2.079	*	0.049	1.331		0.062	-0.210		-0.007
October	1.098		0.031	2.032	*	0.055	2.079	*	0.077	-0.117		-0.009
November	0.958		0.039	1.985	*	0.062	1.051		0.030	1.425		0.050
December	1.938	+	0.095	1.611		0.079	1.285		0.065	0.864		0.054
Annual	2.639	**	0.060	1.098		0.037	3.013	**	0.034	1.004		0.017
Dry Season	2.592	**	0.065	1.752	+	0.072	2.125	*	0.039	0.584		0.014
Wet Season	2.686	**	0.061	0.771		0.025	1.985	*	0.025	1.285		0.017
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	MF (2039-2069)			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	0.500		0.019	0.143		0.008	0.464		0.009	0.250		0.006
February	1.106		0.036	1.570		0.055	1.820	+	0.058	-0.892		-0.043
March	0.250		0.011	0.999		0.044	0.607		0.024	-0.642		-0.021
April	0.963		0.028	0.464		0.010	0.856		0.022	-1.356		-0.064
May	2.105	*	0.088	1.392		0.100	1.035		0.040	0.928		0.026
June	1.106		0.040	2.355	*	0.156	1.927	+	0.058	3.176	**	0.042
July	1.070		0.021	1.320		0.023	3.104	**	0.053	3.854	***	0.036
August	2.676	**	0.048	1.570		0.015	2.284	*	0.048	2.498	*	0.026
September	0.999		0.020	0.928		0.019	1.606		0.045	3.283	**	0.039
October	0.749		0.015	1.249		0.026	1.142		0.033	0.500		0.008
November	1.070		0.048	1.463		0.035	1.070		0.027	0.785		0.017
December	0.607		0.017	0.321		0.010	0.571		0.023	0.214		0.009
Annual	2.391	*	0.029	2.426	*	0.041	3.782	***	0.040	0.642		0.008
Dry Season	1.606		0.025	1.106		0.021	2.105	*	0.023	-0.678		-0.014
Wet Season	2.533	*	0.039	2.533	*	0.055	3.782	***	0.052	3.211	**	0.031
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	FF (2069-2100)			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	2.040	*	0.061	-0.408		-0.015	-0.578		-0.017	1.088		0.064
February	2.583	**	0.066	0.782		0.035	-0.238		-0.010	0.374		0.027
March	1.734	+	0.068	0.680		0.029	1.462		0.041	1.326		0.050
April	-0.204		-0.006	1.190		0.037	0.000		0.001	-0.272		-0.009
May	0.918		0.036	2.583	**	0.174	1.666	+	0.060	2.447	*	0.108
June	0.408		0.015	1.700	+	0.094	1.088		0.017	2.787	**	0.032
July	1.700	+	0.025	-0.102		-0.001	0.714		0.015	1.292		0.010
August	0.544		0.008	1.258		0.018	0.238		0.004	2.481	*	0.025
September	1.326		0.019	1.054		0.018	-0.136		-0.005	0.408		0.004
October	1.870	+	0.049	0.510		0.011	-0.476		-0.015	0.238		0.003
November	-0.136		-0.003	1.156		0.025	0.102		0.006	0.374		0.010
December	-0.374		-0.012	0.102		0.004	-0.408		-0.014	0.646		0.031
Annual	3.093	**	0.029	1.734	+	0.034	1.224		0.011	2.379	*	0.029
Dry Season	2.142	*	0.027	1.190		0.017	0.680		0.007	1.496		0.034
Wet Season	2.176	*	0.033	2.108	*	0.056	1.530		0.016	3.161	**	0.033

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at α = 0.001 level of significance. **trend at α = 0.01 level of significance. *trend at α = 0.05 level of significance. + trend at α = 0.1 level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

Under the SPP585 scenario, as shown in Table 5.12 shows the results are similar to the SSP2-4.5 scenario. The majority of the models show a highly significant increasing trend of maximum temperature in MF and FF for annual, dry and wet seasons of Khon Kaen province. MRI- ESM2 during NF projects highly significant annual and dry seasons increase in maximum temperature by about 0.07℃/year and 0.07℃/year respectively. Similarly, during the three-time series, all the GCMs projects a significant increasing maximum temperature trend in MF at 95-99.9% confidence level. In the case of FF, all the GCMs projects a significant increasing trend at 95-99% level of confidence, excluding MRI-ESM2 during wet seasons, which is significant at a 90% level of confidence. Overall, the results for the trend analysis shows that the majority of models shows that the Khon Kaen province is likely to have a significant increase in maximum temperature under both the SSPs during annual, dry and wet seasons.

Table 5.12:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future maximum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP5-8.5 scenario

Time series	CESM2			MRI-ESM2			BCC-CSM2-MR			CanSEM5		
	NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)			NF (2015-2039)		
	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q
January	0.584		0.028	2.733	**	0.131	-0.210		-0.008	0.817		0.054
February	1.051		0.035	-0.163		-0.012	0.070		0.005	0.210		0.009
March	0.490		0.025	2.452	*	0.110	-0.444		-0.020	0.304		0.015
April	1.051		0.033	3.293	***	0.197	1.938	+	0.077	-0.537		-0.042
May	0.584		0.026	1.471		0.148	-0.397		-0.022	1.985	*	0.075
June	1.238		0.029	0.070		0.003	0.864		0.032	3.060	**	0.050
July	1.004		0.029	0.444		0.011	0.444		0.009	2.919	**	0.042
August	4.087	***	0.067	1.004		0.030	0.631		0.015	2.219	*	0.030
September	1.471		0.027	1.518		0.040	1.144		0.028	0.677		0.015
October	2.312	*	0.070	2.172	*	0.049	1.285		0.060	0.070		0.004
November	1.098		0.056	2.032	*	0.081	0.163		0.010	2.406	*	0.113
December	0.584		0.031	1.658	+	0.084	1.985	*	0.096	1.098		0.047
Annual	1.752	+	0.043	3.620	***	0.073	1.471		0.020	2.125	*	0.028
Dry Season	1.471		0.036	4.087	***	0.092	1.518		0.023	1.191		0.025
Wet Season	1.518		0.040	1.752	+	0.042	1.238		0.023	2.592	**	0.039
Time series	CESM2			MRI-ESM2			BCC-CSM2-MR			CanSEM5		
	MF (2039-2069)			MF (2039-2069)			MF (2039-2069)			MF (2039-2069)		
	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q
January	1.142		0.027	1.713	+	0.069	1.499		0.059	1.463		0.048
February	2.355	*	0.080	2.783	**	0.105	1.570		0.064	1.178		0.041
March	2.426	*	0.088	1.356		0.054	0.785		0.023	1.998	*	0.069
April	2.177	*	0.060	-0.143		-0.011	2.177	*	0.059	1.320		0.075
May	1.677	+	0.063	0.214		0.025	0.714		0.022	1.927	+	0.104
June	1.820	+	0.074	0.678		0.041	1.106		0.022	4.496	***	0.071
July	3.176	**	0.062	2.105	*	0.035	3.640	***	0.055	5.745	***	0.075
August	3.711	***	0.061	1.392		0.021	1.891	+	0.028	5.352	***	0.062
September	3.675	***	0.050	2.391	*	0.048	0.785		0.026	3.925	***	0.066
October	1.641		0.030	2.105	*	0.031	1.035		0.023	3.711	***	0.069
November	0.714		0.025	1.534		0.033	2.391	*	0.062	1.748	+	0.056
December	0.642		0.030	1.570		0.060	1.070		0.032	-0.036		-0.001
Annual	4.032	***	0.051	2.319	*	0.040	4.103	***	0.041	4.068	***	0.058
Dry Season	3.425	***	0.048	2.355	*	0.053	3.568	***	0.047	2.319	*	0.043
Wet Season	3.461	***	0.055	1.392		0.032	3.176	**	0.034	4.425	***	0.072
Time series	CESM2			MRI-ESM2			BCC-CSM2-MR			CanSEM5		
	FF (2069-2100)			FF (2069-2100)			FF (2069-2100)			FF (2069-2100)		
	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q	Test Z	Sig.	Q
January	2.889	**	0.080	-0.068		-0.003	0.646		0.030	1.156		0.057
February	2.685	**	0.101	1.938	+	0.087	-0.374		-0.011	3.025	**	0.129
March	2.685	**	0.088	0.646		0.032	1.122		0.057	1.632		0.055
April	3.195	**	0.096	2.278	*	0.104	-0.442		-0.012	2.312	*	0.095
May	4.147	***	0.118	0.850		0.051	2.176	*	0.065	0.952		0.053
June	2.651	**	0.071	1.224		0.085	1.632		0.049	2.583	**	0.051
July	4.283	***	0.084	3.501	***	0.068	3.229	**	0.070	5.269	***	0.073
August	4.453	***	0.079	3.093	**	0.047	2.040	*	0.034	4.691	***	0.071
September	3.637	***	0.093	2.923	**	0.054	1.734	+	0.033	4.759	***	0.082
October	2.210	*	0.064	1.870	+	0.035	0.102		0.004	4.317	***	0.087
November	0.476		0.022	1.258		0.046	1.462		0.056	3.773	***	0.079

December	2.379	*	0.058	0.748		0.037	0.782		0.033	1.870	+	0.072
Annual	5.609	***	0.077	2.651	**	0.051	3.773	***	0.040	4.521	***	0.071
Dry Season	4.453	***	0.072	2.244	*	0.050	2.413	*	0.036	3.943	***	0.080
Wet Season	5.201	***	0.084	1.802	+	0.056	3.909	***	0.048	4.283	***	0.071

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at α = 0.001 level of significance. **trend at α = 0.01 level of significance. *trend at α = 0.05 level of significance. + trend at α = 0.1 level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

Minimum Temperature Trend - Significance Test

Table 5.13 and Table 5.14 below illustrates the comparison of the minimum temperature of all four GCMs for Khon Kaen Province, obtained from Mann Kendall test and Sen slope estimate under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario, respectively. Under SPP245, Table 5.13 shows that the majority of all the models have projected an increase in monthly minimum temperature at a mixed level of significance. Under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, all four GCMs except CESM2 in the dry season and MRI-ESM2 during wet seasons shows a significant increasing minimum temperature annually and both seasons. The level of confidence of the significant trend ranges from 90% to 99.9%. Similarly, in MF, all climate models project a highly significant increase in minimum temperature during wet seasons at 0.02-0.04°C/year. Further, all the models project increasing the annual minimum temperature of Khon Kaen province during MF. Most of these projections are statistically significant at 99-99.9% confidence level, excluding CESM2, which shows a non-significant increasing trend. The FF under the SSP2-4.5 scenario also projects the increase in the minimum temperature in all the time series, but most of the increments are not significant statistically. Furthermore, the results show that Khon Kaen during FF is likely to have a highly significant increase in minimum temperature trend.

Table 5.13:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future minimum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP2-4.5 scenario

Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	NF (2015-2039)			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	0.677		0.030	0.584		0.052	1.798	+	0.050	1.378		0.051
February	0.444		0.025	1.144		0.073	0.724		0.026	-0.444		-0.035
March	0.817		0.029	0.911		0.071	1.238		0.040	0.023		0.002
April	1.331		0.031	2.312	*	0.087	1.892	+	0.070	1.238		0.033
May	2.265	*	0.093	-0.117		-0.009	0.257		0.006	2.265	*	0.033
June	1.518		0.035	0.724		0.026	1.471		0.020	4.040	***	0.045
July	2.219	*	0.027	3.013	**	0.027	3.153	**	0.034	3.713	***	0.036
August	3.340	***	0.032	2.966	**	0.029	3.340	***	0.025	2.873	**	0.023
September	1.611		0.017	3.386	***	0.045	0.771		0.015	0.257		0.003
October	1.098		0.040	1.098		0.041	3.200	**	0.069	-1.331		-0.040
November	0.117		0.008	1.798	+	0.071	2.499	*	0.045	0.771		0.038
December	1.378		0.060	1.565		0.090	2.686	**	0.085	1.144		0.038

Annual	2.219	*	0.037	2.032	*	0.052	3.807	***	0.046	2.079	*	0.026
Dry Season	1.378		0.044	2.079	*	0.078	3.620	***	0.063	2.359	*	0.033
Wet Season	2.733	**	0.044	1.611		0.026	3.200	**	0.026	1.658	+	0.017
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	MF (2039-2069)			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	0.178		0.014	0.000		-0.004	-0.071		-0.001	0.178		0.003
February	0.393		0.017	1.713	+	0.055	1.320		0.047	-0.036		-0.001
March	-0.071		-0.008	0.963		0.028	0.749		0.019	0.642		0.012
April	0.428		0.008	0.107		0.004	1.463		0.030	0.036		0.002
May	1.891	+	0.054	1.463		0.080	2.962	**	0.057	1.820	+	0.026
June	1.677	+	0.040	2.712	**	0.086	2.105	*	0.027	3.818	***	0.024
July	1.641		0.021	3.533	***	0.028	2.997	**	0.027	3.675	***	0.028
August	3.533	***	0.032	4.246	***	0.025	2.533	*	0.018	4.210	***	0.026
September	3.176	**	0.024	2.855	**	0.019	1.249		0.018	3.283	**	0.036
October	1.677	+	0.043	0.250		0.005	0.999		0.017	2.070	*	0.056
November	0.856		0.035	1.320		0.038	0.428		0.021	1.499		0.054
December	0.535		0.023	0.250		0.007	1.534		0.035	0.999		0.028
Annual	1.606		0.023	2.855	**	0.031	3.640	***	0.026	2.569	*	0.025
Dry Season	0.821		0.014	1.106		0.011	2.212	*	0.027	1.285		0.020
Wet Season	2.997	**	0.035	3.318	***	0.042	3.640	***	0.026	3.711	***	0.032
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	FF (2069-2100)			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	1.666	+	0.057	-1.360		-0.044	-1.292		-0.031	0.714		0.030
February	1.870	+	0.060	0.170		0.015	-0.918		-0.030	0.272		0.014
March	1.904	+	0.050	-0.170		-0.010	0.680		0.015	1.326		0.038
April	1.020		0.025	0.408		0.017	-0.374		-0.011	0.000		0.002
May	1.326		0.035	2.312	*	0.103	1.190		0.017	2.685	**	0.050
June	0.340		0.009	1.598		0.049	2.074	*	0.018	3.841	***	0.019
July	2.549	*	0.023	0.306		0.003	2.855	**	0.027	3.943	***	0.014
August	1.632		0.011	2.176	*	0.011	1.054		0.012	4.215	***	0.019
September	2.855	**	0.022	1.802	+	0.017	0.646		0.009	2.855	**	0.019
October	1.768	+	0.035	1.326		0.029	-0.748		-0.012	0.136		0.002
November	-0.612		-0.024	1.054		0.031	0.238		0.009	-0.510		-0.014
December	-0.816		-0.041	-0.238		-0.012	-1.088		-0.029	0.204		0.004
Annual	2.719	**	0.020	1.428		0.018	0.374		0.003	2.278	*	0.017
Dry Season	1.768	+	0.023	0.000		-0.001	-0.408		-0.003	0.986		0.019
Wet Season	2.583	**	0.024	2.719	**	0.036	1.530		0.011	2.787	**	0.021

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at α = 0.001 level of significance. **trend at α = 0.01 level of significance. *trend at α = 0.05 level of significance. + trend at α = 0.1 level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

Under the SPP585 scenario, as shown in Table 5.14 shows the results are similar to the SSP2-4.5 scenario as the majority of the models shows a highly significant increasing trend of maximum temperature in NF, MF and FF for annual, dry and wet seasons of Khon Kaen province. All the GCMs majorly projected an increase in monthly minimum temperature at a mixed level of significance. Under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, all four GCMs in NF except CESM2 in dry season project a statistically significant increase in minimum temperature annually and seasonally (90-99.9% significance level). Similarly, all the climate models project a statistically significant increase in minimum temperature ranging from 95% to 99.9 % confidence level. The trend is likely to persist similarly statistically in FF, where all models except MRI-ESM2 during dry season show statistically significant increasing minimum temperature. Overall, the results for the trend analysis shows that the majority of models shows that the Khon Kaen province is likely to have a significant increase in minimum temperature under both the SSPs during annual, dry and wet seasons. The major statistically significant projection is likely on MF and FF of the SSP5-8.5 scenario with a highly significant trend during the annual and wet season.

Table 5.14:

Values of Mann-Kendall test and Sen Slope estimate for projected future minimum temperature (NF, MF and FF) of Khon Kaen Province under SSP5-8.5 scenario

Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	NF (2015-2039)			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**			**NF (2015-2039)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	0.257		0.024	2.499	*	0.124	0.304		0.012	0.817		0.036
February	0.444		0.026	-0.257		-0.018	0.350		0.023	0.163		0.012
March	1.144		0.043	2.079	*	0.112	0.444		0.012	1.004		0.049
April	0.817		0.039	3.153	**	0.172	2.219	*	0.060	-0.117		-0.003
May	0.864		0.040	2.125	*	0.122	1.658	+	0.027	2.499	*	0.049
June	1.752	+	0.031	1.098		0.029	1.985	*	0.031	4.461	***	0.032
July	2.359	*	0.032	3.153	**	0.032	1.191		0.012	4.694	***	0.042
August	5.255	***	0.052	2.873	**	0.040	2.312	*	0.026	4.928	***	0.038
September	3.200	**	0.044	3.246	**	0.041	2.125	*	0.052	2.826	**	0.046
October	2.452	*	0.062	1.238		0.043	0.724		0.022	-0.537		-0.010
November	2.639	**	0.111	2.172	*	0.080	0.070		0.002	2.499	*	0.108
December	0.070		0.005	1.518		0.085	2.966	**	0.129	0.911		0.039
Annual	1.752	+	0.046	3.900	***	0.065	3.013	**	0.038	2.919	**	0.037
Dry Season	1.425		0.048	3.340	***	0.090	2.546	*	0.042	2.172	*	0.041
Wet Season	2.452	*	0.041	2.873	**	0.047	3.153	**	0.030	3.713	***	0.037
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	MF (2039-2069)			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**			**MF (2039-2069)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	0.178		0.007	1.427		0.067	1.427		0.053	1.927	+	0.086
February	2.284	*	0.062	2.034	*	0.107	1.820	+	0.074	2.248	*	0.074
March	2.248	*	0.070	0.785		0.041	1.927	+	0.052	2.426	*	0.090
April	2.569	*	0.067	0.856		0.028	2.962	**	0.095	2.070	*	0.084
May	2.426	*	0.058	0.749		0.041	2.712	**	0.042	2.783	**	0.086
June	2.748	**	0.067	1.213		0.041	2.890	**	0.025	5.745	***	0.063
July	4.103	***	0.051	3.640	***	0.034	4.710	***	0.044	6.351	***	0.064
August	5.245	***	0.056	4.175	***	0.031	5.424	***	0.056	6.351	***	0.058
September	4.960	***	0.050	2.105	*	0.025	2.712	**	0.038	6.316	***	0.064
October	2.748	**	0.066	1.249		0.024	1.392		0.033	2.783	**	0.056
November	1.035		0.034	0.571		0.021	2.319	*	0.058	1.499		0.060
December	0.321		0.017	1.142		0.044	0.285		0.011	0.000		0.000
Annual	3.889	***	0.052	2.498	*	0.043	4.603	***	0.048	4.496	***	0.065
Dry Season	3.069	**	0.046	2.533	*	0.055	3.640	***	0.052	2.855	**	0.062
Wet Season	4.282	***	0.058	2.177	*	0.038	5.531	***	0.040	5.816	***	0.065
Time series	**CESM2**			**MRI-ESM2**			**BCC-CSM2-MR**			**CanSEM5**		
	FF (2069-2100)			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**			**FF (2069-2100)**		
	Test Z	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**	**Test Z**	**Sig.**	**Q**
January	1.904	+	0.070	0.000		-0.003	0.850		0.027	1.598		0.063
February	1.530		0.067	1.802	+	0.070	0.714		0.014	3.093	**	0.140
March	2.583	**	0.085	-0.544		-0.018	1.122		0.053	2.278	*	0.076
April	3.773	***	0.103	2.447	*	0.077	0.034		0.000	2.549	*	0.084
May	4.657	***	0.115	0.816		0.038	3.467	***	0.061	1.972	*	0.067
June	3.433	***	0.069	1.768	+	0.065	2.787	**	0.032	4.181	***	0.058
July	5.473	***	0.072	5.099	***	0.053	4.045	***	0.038	6.493	***	0.060
August	5.643	***	0.069	5.133	***	0.046	4.283	***	0.038	6.425	***	0.068
September	5.643	***	0.077	4.725	***	0.043	3.195	**	0.040	6.561	***	0.066

October	3.569	***	0.091	1.258		0.034	1.224		0.026	4.691	***	0.115
November	0.986		0.039	1.122		0.039	1.360		0.035	3.093	**	0.097
December	1.904	+	0.044	0.306		0.014	1.428		0.047	1.836	+	0.082
Annual	5.813	***	0.080	2.515	*	0.039	3.671	***	0.034	5.099	***	0.083
Dry Season	3.773	***	0.076	1.326		0.029	1.938	+	0.028	4.351	***	0.090
Wet Season	6.357	***	0.083	2.753	**	0.048	5.677	***	0.038	5.541	***	0.072

Z is the direction of the trend; positive Z is upward and negative Z is downward. ***trend at $\alpha = 0.001$ level of significance. **trend at $\alpha = 0.01$ level of significance. *trend at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance. + trend at $\alpha = 0.1$ level of significance. Sen's slope estimate Q is a true slope of the linear trend of non-parametric data (change/year)

5.3 Projection of Future Population

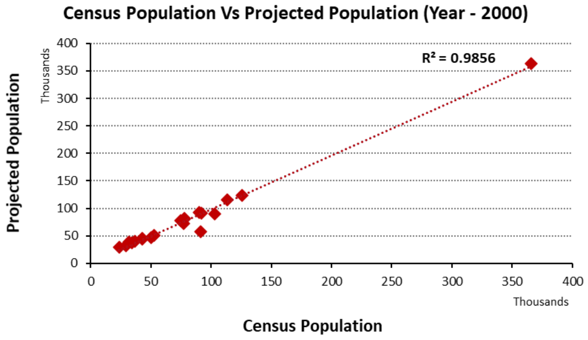
The study used the spatially explicit global population dataset (1-km resolution) developed from the Integrated Assessment Modeling (IAM) group of the National Center for Atmospheric Research's (NCAR) and the City University of New York Institute for Demographic Research, which are consistent with Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs).

5.3.1 Validation of Global Population Dataset for Khon Kaen Province

The datasets have been initially validated with the census population, and then a detailed analysis of the projected total population and urban population under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 has been developed. The number of districts in the Khon Kaen is different (reserve districts) in the past census, while the global dataset used updated 26 districts in the province for the baseline case. Thus, the study utilized 20 matching districts between the 2000 census and modelled data sets covering 93% of the total population to analyze the correlation. The results of the correlation between the census population and the projected baseline population showed the correlation coefficient of about 99% (Figure 5.16).

Figure 5.16:

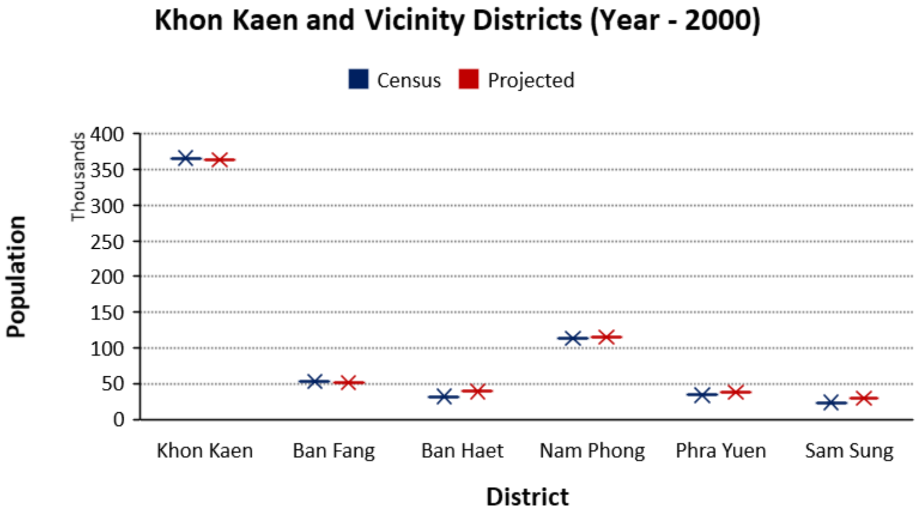
Validation of global population datasets (the baseline year 2000) with the census population (the year 2000) for Khon Kaen Province



Furthermore, as the study is focused on the rapidly 116rbanized116 area, the study future compared the census and baseline population for the most 116rbanized district, i.e., Khon Kaen and its vicinity districts, for further validation. The results (Figure 5.17) from the comparison shows that the projected baseline population is consistent with the census population for Khon Kaen and its vicinity districts.

Figure 5.17:

Comparison of global population datasets (the baseline year 2000) with the census population (the year 2000) for Khon Kaen and its vicinity districts



5.3.2 Projection of Future Population in Khon Kaen Province

The projected total population of Khon Kaen province and district under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario is shown in Figure 5.18. The results for the Khon Kaen province under both SSPs show that the province is likely to increase to 2.1 million in 2030 from 1.8 million in 2020. The increment compared to the baseline is likely to persist until 2060 of the MF. The growth in the population is likely the decrease from 2070 until the end of FF. Furthermore, the population under the SSP5-8.5 scenario is likely to be less than the population under the SSP5-8.5 scenario.

Figure 5.18

Population projection of Khon Kaen province and district under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario

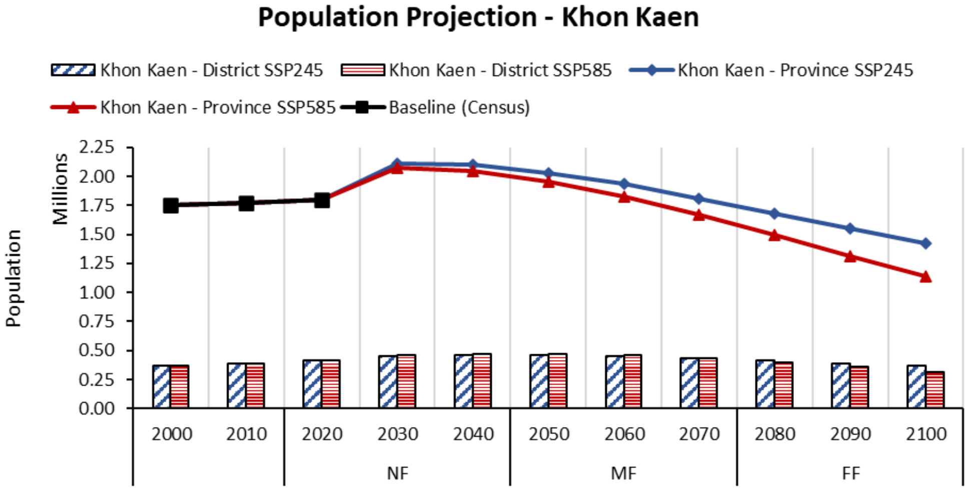


Figure 5.18 also shows the projection for the highly urbanized Khon Kaen district under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. The population in the district is likely to increase 4.6 thousand under the SSP2-4.5 scenario and 4.7 thousand under the SSP5-8.5 scenario compared to the baseline population of 3.8 thousand. Unlike the provincial projection, the SSP5-8.5 scenario project more population in NF and MF. However, the district is also likely to have a decreasing population in late MF and FF gradually. The increase in the population in the highly 117rbanized district shall increase the population density of the Khon Kaen district and its vicinity districts, increasing the increase in water and other demands in rapidly urban areas. Table 5.17 shows the population density of Khon Kaen and its vicinity districts during NF, MF and FF. The results show that the vicinity districts are likely to have a highly denser population in the mid and far future. The population density under the SSP5-8.5 scenario is projected to be more than under the SSP2-4.5 scenario.

Table 5.15

Projected population density of Khon Kaen and its vicinity districts under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario

Future	Year	Population Density (Persons/sq. km)			
		SSP2-4.5		SSP5-8.5	
		Vicinity Districts	Khon Kaen District	Vicinity Districts	Khon Kaen District
NF	2020	175	394	181	399
	2030	241	421	410	438
	2040	384	437	785	474
MF	2050	512	448	778	473
	2060	737	451	738	462
	2070	706	436	707	438
FF	2080	662	416	630	404
	2090	609	394	551	363
	2100	560	369	480	320

5.4 Projection of Future Land Use

The study used the ESA CCI land use (300-m resolution) maps from 2008 to 2020 to analyze the historical land-use change trend and project the future land use under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios using the DynaCLUE model. The year 2008 has been used as the input year, and 7 different factors used are mentioned in the methodological section. The results from the model have been validated for the years 2012, 2015 and 2020. Future land-use scenarios under both the SSPs have been developed based on the historical land use change (2012 to 2020) and the SSP storyline. The observed land-use change (2020) in Khon Kaen province shows that the agricultural land covers 89.71% of the total area, followed by the forest (5.28%), water bodies (2.92%), and urban (1.29%) and grassland (0.80%) respectively. Table 5.16 below compares the change in land use from 2012 to 2020 in Khon Kaen, Thailand, and the result shows that the built-up area is rapidly expanding at the rate of 4.28% per year. This increment in the urban area is in the loss of agricultural land and grassland at about 0.05% and 0.19% per year. The forest and water bodies are relatively constant and show a slow growth rate of 0.02% each year.

Table 5.16

Percentage change of different land-use types per year in Khon Kaen, Thailand, for the period 2012 to 2020

Code	Land Use type	Observed Land Use Change (Khon Kaen Province)					
		2012		2020			
		Area (sq. km)	**Coverage (%)**	**Area (sq. km)**	**Coverage (%)**	**Change**	**% Change/year**
0	Agricultural Land	9587.8	90.04%	9552.9	89.71%	-34.9	-0.05
1	Forest	561.4	5.27%	562.2	5.28%	0.8	0.02
2	Grassland	86.9	0.82%	85.5	0.80%	-1.3	-0.19
3	Urban (Built-up)	102.1	0.96%	137.0	1.29%	34.9	4.28
4	Water Bodies	310.4	2.92%	311.0	2.92%	0.5	0.02
	Total	10648.5		10648.5			

The study developed two scenarios (SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5) based on the historical land-use changes and the SSP narratives. Under SSP2-4.5, it is projected that the urban (built-up) land use will follow the same trend until 2050 and slows down afterward to about half of the prevailing rate. The forest and grassland are also assumed to follow a similar trend but will not have any significant change due to current and future restrictions on their conservation. The major implication of the increase in the urban area shall likely be on the agricultural land. Under SSP5-8.5, the rapid economic and technological development is expected to result in faster urbanization, and thus, it is assumed that the rate of change in the urban area is likely to increase by 1.5 times the rate under the SSP2-4.5 scenario in the cost of agricultural land. The forest and grassland follow a similar trend with no significant change in both scenarios. The land use from water bodies under both scenarios is kept constant.

5.4.1 Validation of Projected Land Use using DynaCLUE

The DynaCLUE model has been used to project the future spatial changes in land use under the two SSP scenarios. The simulated results for 2012, 2015 and 2020 have been validated based on the individual change in the area of different landuse, overall accuracy, and the Kappa coefficient, as mentioned in the methodological section. Table 5.17 shows the validation results comparing the observed and simulated land use. The results show a better agreement of the observed and simulated map with an overall accuracy of more than 98% and a kappa coefficient of more than 0.96, 0.93 and 0.92 for 2012, 2015 and 2020, respectively. Several studies have shown that a Kappa index of greater than 0.70 indicates good agreement between observed and model output (Buhay Bucton et al., 2022; Pinsri et al., 2022; Ghimire et al., 2021). Thus, this confirms the better performance of the model developed for projecting future land use in Khon Kaen province.

Table 5.17

Comparison of observed and simulated land use area, kappa coefficient and overall accuracy for 2012, 2015 and 2020

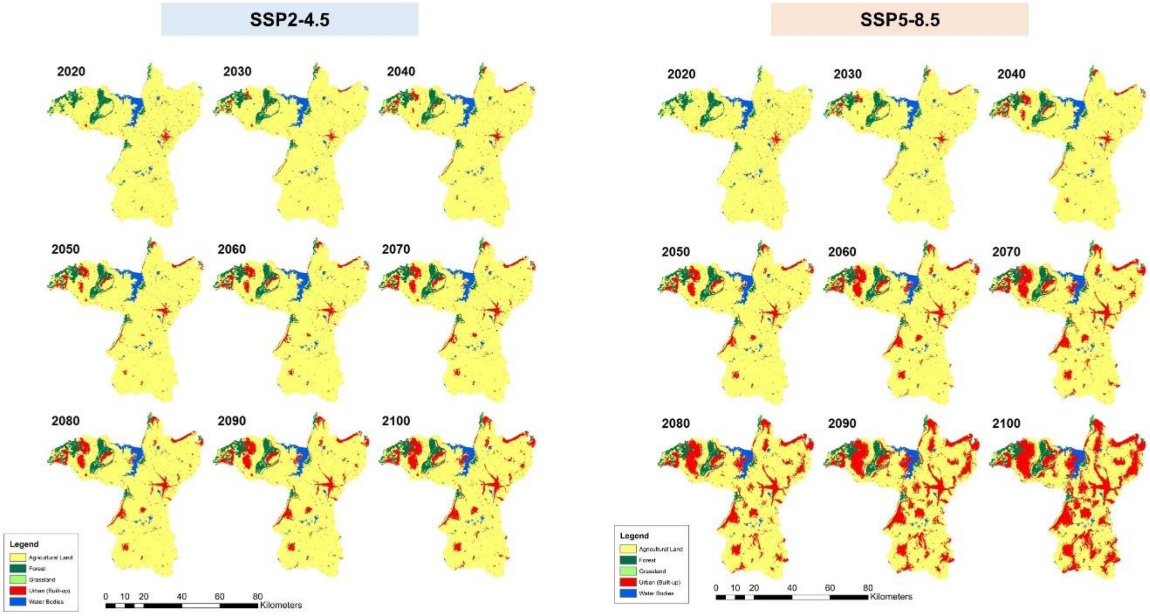
Area (sq. km)							
LU-Code	Land Use (LU)	2012		2015		2020	
		Observed	Simulated	Observed	Simulated	Observed	Simulated
0	Agricultural Land	9587.8	9579.4	9553.3	9545.8	9552.9	9545.5
1	Forest	561.4	562.6	560.5	562.7	562.2	563.8
2	Grassland	86.9	87.7	86.9	87.5	85.5	86.0
3	Urban (Built-up)	102.1	101.2	135.8	134.9	137.0	135.5
4	Water Bodies	310.4	308.9	312.0	308.9	311.0	308.9
Kappa Coefficient (k)		0.96		0.93		0.92	
Overall Accuracy		99.25%		98.61%		98.52%	

5.4.2 Projection of Future Land Use in Khon Kaen Province

Figure 5.19 shows Khon Kaen province's projected future land use under the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios for 2020 to 2100. The results indicate that the coverage of the built-up area is likely to reach 4.18% in 2050 and 11.23% by 2100. This increment is likely to occur at the expense of the agricultural land, which is projected to decrease to 86.84% in 2050 and 79.81% in 2100 compared to the 89.72% land coverage in 2020. The grassland is expected to cover 0.75% of land by 2050 and 0.68% by 2100, whereas the forest area is likely to remain the same. Under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, the coverage of the built-up area is likely to reach 7.38% in 2050 and 32.39% by 2100. This increment is likely to occur at the expense of the agricultural land, which is projected to decrease to 83.66% in 2050 and 58.69% in 2100 compared to the 89.72% land coverage in 2020. The grassland and the forest are expected to remain similar to SSP2-4.5 until 2100.

Figure 5.19

Projected land-use of Khon Kaen province for 2020 to 2100 under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios



5.5 Conclusions

Five linearly bias-corrected CMIP-6 GCMs, namely CESM2, MRI-ESM2, BCC-CSM2-MR, GFDL-ESM4 and CanESM5, has been ranked to select the four best performing models based on its statistical performance (R2, STDV and RMSE) for the historical period (1981-2014). The results show that CanESM5, MRI-ESM2 and CESM2 are the top three performing climate models for rainfall and CESM2, MRI-ESM2 and BCC-CSM2-MR showed better statistical performance for maximum and minimum temperature. So, the study used all four best-performing models for further analysis.

The results from the GCMs for future climatic projection shows that the average annual rainfall in the Chi Mun river basin is likely to increase from 5-20% under the SSP2-4.5 scenario while it is projected to increase up to 22% under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. A similar trend is likely to persist in the rapidly urbanizing Khon Kaen province also where it is expected that the increase in rainfall is likely to be 23-26% under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. Furthermore, under both scenarios, the province is likely to receive more rainfall in wet seasons than the dry seasons. In the case of maximum and minimum temperature, both the basin and province are likely to increase around 1.5-5.5℃, making more hotter days during March-May in future. Furthermore, the results for the trend test shows a non-significant decreasing annual and seasonal rainfall trend mainly in the mid and far future under the SSP2-4.5 scenario, while the trend is increasing (non-significant) under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. In the case of maximum and minimum temperature, most of the models show statistically significant increasing trends annually and seasonally in the future.

The study used the spatially explicit global population dataset under the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) for the future population projection of the Khon Kaen province. The global population datasets of the baseline year 2000 were first validated with the census 2000 population. The results showed a high correlation of the global data set with the census population. The future population of the Khon Kaen province under the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenario showed that the province is likely to have an increased population in the MF, and the trend is likely to decrease in the future. Furthermore, Khon Kaen district is projected to be a highly dense district in the province with a population of about 0.5 million during the mid-future. A substantial increase in urban population is likely to happen in the vicinity districts of Khon Kaen, leading to the increased demand for water and its services.

Furthermore, the study used the ESA CCI global land use maps to analyze the historical land-use change trend and project the future using the DynaCLUE model. The observed and simulated maps have been validated for 2012, 2015 and 2020, and the results show a better agreement with an overall accuracy of more than 98% and a kappa coefficient of more than 0.92 in all the validation years. The projection of future land use shows that urban area coverage is likely to be up to 11% and 32% by 2100 under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. Alternatively, the coverage of the agricultural land is likely to decrease and reach up to 80% and 59% by 2100 under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, respectively. The land coverage of the forest area is likely to increase fractionally, whereas the grassland is likely to have a slight decrement in both scenarios.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH TIMELINE

6.1 Research Timeline

Table 6.1

Research Timeline

Activities	2019	2020					2021												2022											
	August-May	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Coursework	🟩																													
Literature Review	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟧	🟧	🟧					
Development of Groundwater Governance Framework	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩																									
Advancement to Candidacy (ATC) Exam (Proposal Defense Exam)				🟦																										
Secondary (hydrological, hydrogeological, and other) Data Collection					🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩									🟩	🟩	🟩									
Groundwater Governance-Questionnaire Development and Interview				🟩	🟩	🟩												🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩									
Result Analysis for Current State of Groundwater Governance (Objective-1)						🟩	🟩														🟩	🟩								
Future Climate Change Projection											🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩																
Future Population Change Projection								🟩	🟩																					
Future Land-Use Change Projection											🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩								
Progress Exam										🟦																				
Future Groundwater Demand Projection																			🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟧							
Analysis of Results for Future Projection of Multiple Stresses (Objective-2)										🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟧							
Hydrological Model Development																		🟩	🟩			🟩	🟧							
Progress Exam																						🟦								
Groundwater Model Development																							🟧	🟧						
Analysis for Impact of Multiple Stresses in Surface and Groundwater																						🟧	🟧	🟧	🟧					
Recommendations for Improved Groundwater Governance (Objective-4)																										🟧				
Compilation of Results and Discussion and Writing of Dissertation Report									🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟩	🟧	🟧	🟧				
PhD Dissertation Final Exam																											🟦			
Manuscript Preparation																				🟩 1st				🟧 2nd			🟧 3rd			

Note: 🟩 **Completed** 🟧 **To be Done** 🟦 **Exam**

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