

# Water resources within the Upper Orontes and Litani Basins

A balance, demand and supply analysis amid the Syrian refugees crisis

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Increasing refugee populations, industrial demands and agricultural activities have exacerbated water stress in Lebanon's Bekaa Valley. We have provided previously unavailable remotely sensed estimates of agricultural water consumption in the Upper Litani and Upper Orontes basins. We also quantified increases in domestic water demand and mapped water stress hotspots. Due to the distinction between demand, use and consumptive use, increased water demand does not have to mean water shortage. Increased consideration of this distinction is crucial for integrated water resources management planning and climate change adaptation.

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# Summary

The arrival of refugees from Syria has tripled the population in some areas of Lebanon's Bekaa Valley, increasing water demand for domestic use. Transient and resident populations also need water for agriculture, industry and other productive activities to support their livelihoods. This study focused on updating the available water balance figures for the Upper Litani Basin (ULB) and the Upper Orontes Basin (UOB).

We estimated water demand for domestic uses from population figures and refugee influxes. Agricultural water uses were estimated by mapping irrigated lands, surveying crops and calculating evapotranspiration requirements. In 2016, we mapped summer irrigation in Bekaa using a normalized vegetation index approach. We coupled the NDVI with an iso-cluster unsupervised classification scheme to analyse Sentinel-2 and Landsat Imagery.

We identified 35,500ha of irrigated agriculture in the ULB and 12,400ha in the UOB during the irrigation season (end of April–October 2016). Based on these findings, we estimated the volumes of water consumed by these lands in the two basins at 250 million cubic metres per year (MCM) for the Upper Litani and 81MCM for the Upper Orontes.

Major diversions for irrigation are estimated to be at least 35 per cent higher than the consumptive uses due to the spread of sprinkler irrigation in the region and surface irrigation on fruit trees irrigated from springs. Potatoes consume the most irrigation water of the Bekaa (43 per cent), followed by fruit trees and vegetables.

Overall, household demand for water (including for both Lebanese and displaced people) is small compared to agricultural demand. Our estimated water budget for the Litani is negative, whereas the water budget for the Upper Orontes is positive.

These basin-wide calculations mask hotspots of water stress at particular locations and times of the year. Springs are exploited for both irrigation and domestic uses, with surplus of water in some areas and deficit in others. Deterioration in water quality further reduces the availability of surface water for domestic and sometimes agricultural uses. This increases stress on the overmined groundwater reserves.

We analysed hotspots for water stress by overlaying maps of water demand for domestic and agricultural uses, and comparing demand to supply. These hotspots include some areas where displaced people have been staying. The analysis reveals a need for further attention to strategies to increase domestic water supplies to the Lebanese and displaced populations, to adapt to climate change and to enhance integrated water management around the urban centres of Baalbeck, Zahle and Hermel areas.

# Background

Anthropogenic activities create a stress on water resources. Water has become scarcer in the Bekaa Valley due to population increase, including from an influx of displaced Syrians due to the conflict in Syria, and an increase in industrial and possibly agricultural activities (CCIAZ, 2014). Degrading water quality and global warming have made the situation worse. Re-visiting the water balance figures of the Bekaa can better assess the amount of water available for human use.

The Bekaa Valley is divided almost equally between two major river basins: the Upper Litani River (ULB) and the Upper Orontes (UOB) (Figure 1). Due to the crisis in Syria, hundreds of thousands of refugees have flooded into these two basins. In 2014, the Lebanese Ministry of Environment (MoE) and the UN Development Programme (UNDP) assessed the impact of Syrian conflict on the Lebanese environment. MoE-UNDP (2014) says the Bekaa is the most vulnerable area in Lebanon because it has the highest number of refugees and the highest water demand in terms of agriculture.

The objectives of this research are to:

- 1. Re-visit the water balance figures of both basins within the context of climate variability (given the recent flow data)
- 2. Assess consumption of water for irrigation following the Syrian crisis
- 3. Provide insights into the available water supplies (or lack thereof), and
- 4. Explore the effect of the arrival of refugees on the water balance of the two basins.

To achieve these objectives, we need to estimate the current domestic, industrial, and most importantly, agricultural consumption within the two basins. These water uses need to be assessed simultaneously as in most cases they draw water from the same sources and are frequently in conflict. The local balance between availability of water and demands for various uses should be considered in any strategic plan to balance water stress under climate change and population flux.

Springs and wells are the major source of water for the irrigated lands in Bekaa. These also remain the major sources for domestic and industrial use. The linkages between these uses will define any future attempts to prioritise/optimise water allocation in the Bekaa Valley.

In this paper we provide novel estimates of domestic and industrial demands at both the basin and municipal levels, while accounting for water demands of the displaced population. We also provide a new method to calculate agricultural water consumption and estimate diversions. This is based on a remote sensing technique that uses available satellite imagery and ground-truthing of the results via field surveys.

We explore estimates of renewable water resources in the upper parts of the two basins to map hotspots of water stress. This includes estimates of springs and river flows in addition to sectoral water demands and water availability. The work provides an innovative technical approach that is ready for use in other areas of the world facing water stress.

## 1.1 Water demand, supply and overall water balance

Water stress concerns the relationship between the availability of freshwater resources and the magnitude of water withdrawals for human use (see: www.unwater. org/publications/publications-detail/ar/c/428727/). After considering environmental water requirements (also known as water withdrawal intensity), previous researchers recommend estimating the quantity of water stress by focusing on the ratio between total freshwater withdrawn for all economic activities and total renewable freshwater resources. This would require measuring the volumes of water withdrawn for agriculture, manufacturing and electricity, as well as for collection, treatment and supply.

Water accounting and water budget studies have investigated the volumes of water extractions and availability in a range of basins in different parts of the world. Decision makers use these studies to review the share of available water resources consumed by different sectors. Policymakers and planners can then look for ways to reduce water stress by adjusting the allocation of water within or between sectors.

Not all water extractions will necessarily affect the overall water balance. The balance is usually assessed using some variation of the following equation (equation 1, Viessman and Lewis, 1995):

$$P-E-Q=\Delta S$$

Where P = precipitation, E = evapo(trans) piration, Q = outflow (measured at gauge stations) and  $\Delta$  S is the change in storage (net loss or gain in the aquifer and/or soil moisture).

According to this equation, changes in water storage due to groundwater depletion or recharge can be quantified by assessing precipitation, evapotranspiration and river flows. Therefore, estimating E (hereafter 'ET') is crucial for evaluating the changes in groundwater storage from falling groundwater levels. This is important in dry regions, where populations rely on water stored underground. In such situations, although direct observation and measurement of aquifer conditions is difficult, managers need to assess and regulate depletion and recharge rates.

The water balance equation highlights the main hydrological inputs and outputs. The term 'evapotranspiration' does account for water transpired by crops and evaporated from soil surfaces. However, it does not explicitly account for domestic and industrial water uses.

Domestic water reuse can be as high as 90 per cent with appropriate collection and treatment. Industrial water could also have a high recovery rate. Japan, for example, recovers about 78 per cent of its industrial water (JFS, 2003). Domestic and industrial water uses may therefore constitute water diversions rather than consumptive uses.

#### Domestic use and demand

Domestic water use is different than demand. Water authorities use demand to estimate the amount of water needed by the population. It is usually used for water networks design, master planning and other strategic demographic planning. Depending on infrastructure and other factors, however, the amounts of water that the population can actually use may differ from plans and projected demands.

The source for domestic water is usually groundwater, springs or river diversions. Any diversion to domestic water from springs and rivers will be reflected in the 'Q' term. Any diversion from groundwater will reflect in the  $\Delta$  S term.

### Agricultural water demand and consumption

The distinction between agricultural water demand and consumption is important. Agricultural water demand is gross water requirement, or the amount of water that needs to be diverted to the land to meet crop needs. It usually considers system efficiencies. Agricultural water consumption is the actual evapotranspiration that goes into the atmosphere, or net water requirement.

Agricultural water demand is usually calculated based on irrigation requirements. These are measured using crop coefficients and reference evapotranspiration, and added to possible system losses from runoff, wind drift and deep percolation. Agricultural water consumption can be estimated remotely using energy balance models (Allen et al., 2007; Anderson et al., 2013; Bastiaanssen et al., 1998). Agriculture is usually assumed to be the largest consumer of water worldwide (Hoekstra, 2013).

#### 1.2 The study area

The Bekaa Valley is located in the northeastern part of Lebanon, bordering Syria to the North and East (Figure 1). The major groups recognised to make up the population of the Bekaa Valley in 2016 include Lebanese (69.8 per cent), Syrian refugees (29 per cent) and Palestinians (1.2 per cent). The Lebanese population data herein are for 2013. Changes since then are not quantified in this analysis.

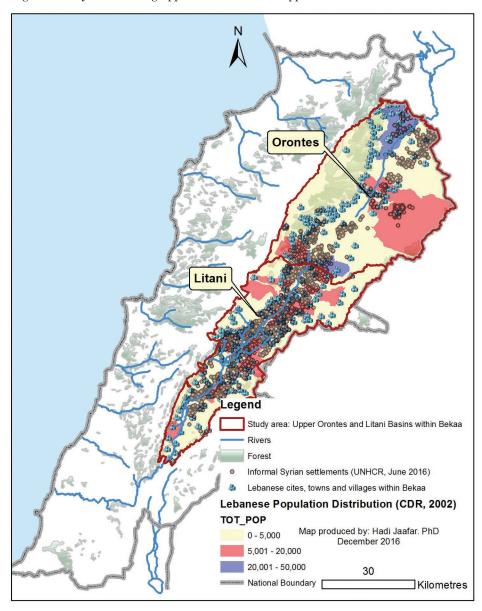
The Bekaa is split between two main hydrographic basins, the Upper Litani (running south of Baalbeck city) and the Upper Orontes (running north of the city) (Figure 1). We have excluded Rachaya from our study; although Rachaya is part of the Bekaa governorate, it lies in the Hasbani Basin and not in the Litani Basin.

Table 1. Total population in Bekaa area

GOVERNORATE/ DISTRICT	LEBANESE	PALESTINIANS	TOTAL SYRIANS	TOTAL POPULATION
BEKAA (excl.Rachaya)	498,947	12,835	275,307	787,089
West Bekaa	134,798	4,975	70,283	210,056
Zahle	364,149	7,672	193,003	564,824
BAALBEK-EL HERMEL	499,614	5,117	138,616	643,347
Baalbek	416,483	5,117	131,997	553,597
El Hermel	83,131	0	6,619	89,750
Total in Bekaa Valley	998,561	17,952	413,923	1,430,436

Source: Lebanese population figures: BWE, 2015; Syrian and Palestinian refugees: IAMP, 2016.

Figure 1. Study area showing Upper Litani Basin and Upper Orontes Basin



#### 1.3 Water availability

#### Precipitation

Precipitation in the form of snow and rain is the major source of water in the area. Rainfall ranges within the study area from a minimum of 200mm/yr in the Qaa (northern-most point of UOB) to above 1,400mm/yr at the western mountain peaks. To our knowledge, the amount of snowmelt that contributes to the waters of the two rivers is unknown.

We assume the rainfall map by Plassard (1971) considers the water equivalent of snowfall. Mean annual rainfall within the UOB and ULB are estimated at 969 and 1,000MCM/yr, respectively. For these figures, we took the digital version of Plassard's rainfall map (BWE, 2015), and multiplied the rainfall isohyets by their corresponding area. We averaged results after clipping by the watersheds' boundary.

Rainfall gauges in the area give a good indication of the amount of rain in the Bekaa Valley. Data from a weather station at the American University of Beirut (AUB) Agricultural Research and Education Center (AREC) show no significant trend in rainfall within the Bekaa since 1957. USAID (2011) confirms these data. Effect on snowfall is unknown due to lack of measurements. However, with a global warming trend, we expect faster melt of snow cover on the mountains of the basins.

Temperatures are expected to increase by around 2°C in the mainland by 2040 (RoL, 2015). By 2090, they will be 3.5°C and 5°C higher, respectively. At the same time, rainfall is projected to decrease by 10–20 per cent by 2040 and by 25–45 per cent by 2090 (see UNESCWA, 2013).

#### Surface water

The mean annual flow rate in the Litani River before dam construction (1932–66) was 378MCM/yr. It decreased at an average rate of 1MCM/yr to an average of 331MCM between 1966–2011. According to available data for the Orontes River in Lebanon, gauge flow measurements are restricted to 1931–43, 1955–74 and 2000–present. Mean annual flows dropped from 13.86 cubic metres per second (m³/s) in the 1930s (which witnessed a drought), to 12.56m³/s in mid-century, to 10.6m³/s between 2000–14. Overall, mean annual

flows in the Orontes at Hermel station have decreased from an average of 13m³/s (413MCM/yr) over 1932–74 to an average of 10.6 m³/s (~330MCM/yr) for 2000–14, a decrease of 16 per cent. All data are from Litani River Authority.

#### Groundwater

The Orontes Basin discharges groundwater from the karstic Upper Cretaceous and Jurassic aquifers of the eastern slope of the western Lebanon Mountains and the western slopes of the Eastern Lebanon Mountains. The former are separated into a number of groundwater flow compartments. Groundwater discharge from the Upper Cretaceous aquifer section into Ain Yammoune (2.8m³/s) is caused by the Yammoune fault. To some extent, subsurface flow from the eastern mountain slopes reaches the Bekaa plain.

On the northeastern mountain sector east of the Yammoune fault, groundwater systems flowing northeast and south feed large springs within the Bekaa Valley (Zarqa spring). On the western slope of the northern part of the Eastern Lebanon mountains, groundwater discharges as the springs of Ras el Ain at Baalbek and the Laboue (Upper Cretaceous) (Jaubert et al., 2015; UN-ESCWA, 2013). Flows of these springs constitute the major surface flow of the Orontes Basin in Lebanon. Data for the Orontes at the Hermel station for 1975–99 are lacking.

The groundwater aquifer boundary between the Orontes Basin and the Litani Basin in the Bekaa Valley is the same as the surface water divide. Surface and groundwater movement starts to flow from 10km west of Baalbeck (Allaiq spring, currently dry) and then south-south-west. Within the Orontes Basin, groundwater flows north-north-west. Historically, the groundwater surface descended to around 700m above sea level (ASL) near Hermel at the northern end of the valley and to 800m ASL at Qaraoun in the south (Wagner, 2011).

A recent report on the groundwater situation in Bekaa focusing on the Upper Litani Basin was under the Litani River Basin Management Support Program. USAID (2011) estimates pumping for irrigation from the basin to be 120MCM/yr, and pumping for domestic supply to be 30MCM/year.

#### 1.4 Previous water balance studies in the Bekaa

Precipitation is the major component of the hydrologic cycle. This has been reasonably measured within the two basins (more so in the ULB than in the UOB). However, evapotranspiration (the major outflow) has never been quantified at the basin scale. Extraction and demands for water by the population are also still not well understood. However, the falling groundwater table across much of the Bekaa suggests the water balance is negative.

A recent groundwater assessment (MoEW-UNPD, 2014) reports the groundwater balance of the aquifers of Lebanon (which may or may not correlate with the surface watersheds). This report mentions the number of private wells and the extraction rates from public and private wells are not adequately defined. Using the best available pumping figures from the Bekaa Water Establishment (BWE), the authors found a deficiency of 50MCM in a dry year.

MoEW-UNDP (2014) states that "due to over exploitation for irrigation, the South Bekaa Neogene-Quaternary Basin and the North Bekaa Neogene Quaternary Basin show deficiencies in their budgets of up to 45.7MCM and 34.2MCM respectively". The report states that BWE pumps water from 209 wells at the rate of 33MCM/year; this estimate does not include the current increase in pumping rates due to the Syrian refugee crisis.

Conversely, USAID (2011) estimates that total groundwater recharge of the Upper Litani Basin is 210MCM/yr. It achieves this figure by estimating the percentage infiltration of precipitation (20 per cent in Carbonate aquifers and 10 per cent on Quaternary aquifers).

The Litani has an estimated recharge of 220MCM/yr and a spring discharge of 130MCM/yr. After building a groundwater model, the report concludes that aquifers underlying the Litani are being depleted at an average of 65MCM/yr. The model shows the change in groundwater levels between 1967-2010. Southern Bekaa shows little decline in groundwater levels (0-5m) compared to the northern and mountainous regions of the basin (10–25m). Aquifers in the Chmistar area witnessed a decline of 50m in groundwater levels. USAID (2011) provides evidence of decreasing groundwater storage within the Upper Litani Basin in Bekaa.

#### Early research on ULB

The first study on the water balance of the ULB, Abdel Al (1943), shows that flows at the Mansoura station (1,429km² basin area) amounted to an average of 287MCM/yr. Several studies also estimated water use within the ULB. FAO (1972), for example, estimates that 15,800ha of irrigated lands consumed 122MCM annually (7,200m<sup>3</sup>/ha) upstream of Qarwan Lake. The Litani River is used for power generation, as well as agriculture, domestic and industrial uses (Jaafar, 2014; Jaafar et al., 2016). Waters of the Litani are diverted to the Awali after generating power in South Bekaa. Together with the waters of the Awali River in South Lebanon, this water generates power in another two plants and also delivers irrigation water to the southern coast (Jaafar, 1999).

The Litani project was also planned to supply water for 30,000ha of irrigated lands in south Lebanon (through a canal called Conveyer 800). Downstream of the reservoir, the 3,270ha Qasmieh project consumed 59MCM, and another 1,140ha in between the reservoir and the Qasmieh consumed 12MCM. This amounted to a total irrigation diversion from the river of 182MCM for 20,120ha. In 1969, the Litani authority estimated that 118.6MCM from the Litani River irrigated lands in Bekaa. USAID (2011) estimates that the 650MCM of the total precipitation (1,100MCM, estimated from FAO, 1972) evaporates between December and May. Flows in the ULB amounted to 400MCM between 1940-50, but have since decreased to 300MCM.

The operation of the Litani River for hydropower does not follow optimal operation rules (Jaafar, 1999). However, any water allocation upstream of Qarawn Lake has to respect water rights, as well as current and future allocations downstream.

For the Orontes River, BWE estimates total flow of 512MCM/year, of which 80MCM constitutes Lebanon's right (Brooks and Mehmet, 2000). World Bank (2003) identifies a flow of 656MCM/yr to Syria. If flows drop to less than 400MCM, then, according to a 1994 agreement between Syria and Lebanon, Lebanon's share will drop proportionally.

Concerning water extractions, Plan Bleu-UNEP (2001) estimates water demand in Bekaa to be 456MCM/ yr (45MCM domestic, 402MCM irrigation and 18MCM industrial).

#### WATER RESOURCES WITHIN THE UPPER ORONTES AND LITANI BASINS

Domestic and industrial uses constitute water diversions from groundwater or surface water sources. In the Bekaa, the fate of water diverted for such uses is unknown. In other words, there are no records or studies that estimate the proportion of industrial or domestic water that goes back into the hydrologic cycle (either as deep percolation to recharge the aquifers or as surface water that returns to the river).

USAID (2011), for example, states that industrial water directly discharges used water either into the river or into the sewer networks that eventually flow into the Litani River. This includes water from industries such as dairy and food processing plants, water bottling, wineries, paper, dyeing/tanning, battery manufacturing and food packaging. As well, around 30 per cent of Bekaa towns are connected to sewer networks (that discharge untreated sewage into the river, with few minor exceptions) or use septic tanks (whose untreated sewage eventually reaches groundwater).

If untreated, these discharges may constitute a major source of water pollution. They could also render a significant amount of surface water unusable as well. USAID (2011) estimates domestic withdrawals in the ULB at 150I/day/capita (USAID 2011 cites a reference to Bekaa Water Authority figures).

USAID (2011) states that: "Neither the municipalities nor the BWE have information about the exact extraction rate for the public wells". Accordingly, well operators estimated domestic pumping based on either tank capacities or number of users multiplied by 180I/day – the water usage per capita from the last estimate by the Ministry of Energy and Water (MoEW). The number of users is calculated based on number of households connected to the water network (which was communicated by the water establishments) and multiplied by four (the size of the average household).

Irrigation withdrawals from the ULB have been estimated at 200MCM/yr (MoA, 1998), 130MCM of which is from groundwater. MoE-UNDP (2014) estimates that 115MCM of irrigation water comes from groundwater. None of the reports attempt to estimate the consumptive use part of that water.

# Domestic and Industrial Water Use/ Demand Analysis

In 2013, before most displaced people arrived, the BWE estimated current and projected domestic water demand in the Bekaa at 190,000m<sup>3</sup>/day or 69.6MCM/ year (Table 2). In this section, we draw on the latest available secondary sources and updated population data to revise the estimates for domestic demand.

#### 2.1 Lebanese population and domestic water demand

The Lebanese population in Bekaa is estimated to be more than 998,000 (Table 2), with more than 413,000 registered Syrian refugees (IAMP, 2016). This is considerably more than in 1959, when only 160,000 inhabited the Bekaa Valley (Abd-EL-Al, 1959). At that time, the water demand was estimated at 112I/day/ capita, amounting to 18MCM/year.

Table 2 shows the projected future population and domestic water demand for the population. This is based on the BWE's estimated per capita demand of 180I/day/capita in 2013 (BWE, 2015). This figure is expected to increase to 195I/day/capita in 2035.

Water use data from institutions (mosques, hospitals) are not available, but are believed to be included within the domestic water demand. Many institutions have their own wells, and the actual water use is not possible without a ground survey.

Table 2. Current and projected domestic demand in Bekaa

	YEAR	2013	YEAR 2	2025	YEAR 2035		
		WATER		WATER		WATER	
	<b>ESTIMATED</b>	<b>DEMAND</b>	<b>ESTIMATED</b>	<b>DEMAND</b>	<b>ESTIMATED</b>	DEMAND	
	POPULA-	(MCM/	POPULA-	(MCM/	POPULA-	(MCM/	
CAZA	TION	YEAR)	TION	YEAR)	TION	YEAR)	
Hermel	83131	5.5	102367	7.0	121762	8.7	
Baalbeck	416483	27.4	512875	35.2	610035	43.4	
Zahle	364149	23.9	448426	30.8	533377	38.0	
West Bekaa	134798	8.9	165992	11.4	197441	14.1	
Rachaiya	60342	4.0	74309	5.1	88382	6.3	
Total	1058903	69.6	1303969	89.5	1550997	110.4	

Source: BWE, 2015.

# 2.2 Displaced people living in houses and flats similar to Lebanese population

More than one-fifth of the population living in Lebanon is Syrian (IFPRI, 2015; UNICEF, HAC). The population of Lebanese and Syrians living in the Bekaa is now roughly the same. Most Syrian refugees – about 269,000 – live with Lebanese host communities, mostly in Baalbeck and the Upper Litani Basin (Table 1). This fraction of the total refugee population in the Bekaa requires about 15.72MCM of domestic water annually (based on 160I/day/capita). The total domestic water demand in the two basins for the displaced Syrians not living in informal settlements is 15.72MCM (11MCM in the ULB and 4.72MCM for the UOB).

## 2.3 Displaced people living in informal settlements

One-third of Syrian refugees, or 145,000 in the Bekaa live in "informal settlements", or IS. According to a recent survey (UNHCR, 2015), one-third of all Syrian refugees have access to tap water for more than two hours per day. Lack of a proper water accounting method, however, makes access to tap water (and other delivery methods) difficult to estimate. The best way to account for water usage is to estimate daily use on a per-capita basis. Since few data exist about the number of times that household/tent water tanks are filled, we assume one filling per day. By dividing the

water capacity of the tanks by the number of settlement inhabitants, we arrive at an approximate water use figure for the informal settlements within the Upper Orontes and Upper Litani basins: (120 and 160 l/capita/day, respectively).

We distinguish water demand from water use; use may be lower or higher than demand. Estimate of water allowance (which is also different than demand) for displaced people is controversial in Lebanon for political reasons. However, there are no plans for Syrians to remain as refugees in Lebanon indefinitely or to receive services not yet assured for much of the Lebanese population. Emergency water supply per capita can be as low as 15I/p/d (House and Reed, 1997). Minimum allocations for bathing, toilet flushing, laundry and other domestic uses need to be added to this estimate.

Many tanks within the tents are filled using water from boreholes. However, some are connected to the piped water supply network, which is more reliable than water from trucks. Still, trucks often fill the gap when water supply from other sources is interrupted.

As of June 2016, there were 10,613 tents in the Orontes Basin, distributed over 750 informal settlements, with more than 55,600 inhabitants (IAMP, 2016). We found total water storage capacity for the tanks of the tents was 6,630m<sup>3</sup>. Assuming tank filling once a day, total use would be 120l/per capita per day, equivalent to 2.4MCM annually.

The total number of tents as of June 2016 in the Litani Basin was 18,775, distributed over 1,900 settlements with more than 109,000 inhabitants. We calculated the total water storage capacity for the tanks surveyed by UNHCR for each tent at 17,220 m³ (160I/capita/

day, assuming filling of tanks once per day equivalent to 6.4MCM annually). This is a small amount if we assume that displaced populations who live in the tents rely only on this water and are not able to purchase water from other sources.

Refugees in the ULB informal settlements use 30 per cent more water per capita than in the UOB. The total estimated yearly domestic demand for the settlements is believed to be 8.8MCM per year.

#### 2.4 Total current domestic demand in the two basins

The 2016 estimate of domestic water demand in Bekaa (BWE, 2015) is 190,600m<sup>3</sup>/day or 69.6MCM/year. Table 3 shows estimated domestic water demand in the two basins of the Bekaa (excluding the Rachaya area, which is part of a different basin) at 90MCM per year (61MCM for the ULB and 29MCM for the UOB).

Table 3. Estimated domestic water demand (DWD) (MCM/yr) in 2016

	DWD FOR LEBANESE	DWD FOR PALESTIN- IANS	DWD FOR SYRIANS IN IS	DWD FOR SYRIANS NOT IN IS	DWD FOR ALL SYRIANS IN LEBANON	TOTAL DWD
Per capita water demand (l/day)	180	180	120 in Orontes and 160 in Litani	160		
West Bekaa (Litani)	9	0	1	3	4	13
Zahle (Litani)	24	1	4	8	11	36
Subtotal: BEKAA	33	1	5	10	15	49
Baalbek (Litani + Orontes)	27	0	3	4	7	34
El Hermel (Orontes)	5	0	0	0	0	6
Subtotal: BAALBEK-EL HERMEL	33	0	3	5	7	40
Grand total in 2 basins	66	1	8	15	23	90

## 2.5 Industrial water demand

There are reportedly 988 industries in the Bekaa (Industrial Guide of Lebanon, 2016), with more than 744 large establishments. Two-thirds lie within the ULB with the rest in the UOB (Figure 2). The main type of industries in the Bekaa are food (including bottling water from springs), dairy, wine, livestock, poultry, paper, ceramics, metal, plastic and chemicals.

In addition, there are at least 124 sand quarries and rock quarries, mainly limestone. Water use of these quarries is not documented. However, similar quarries in the United States can pump up to 26,000m³ per annum (3.2MCM for the quarries).

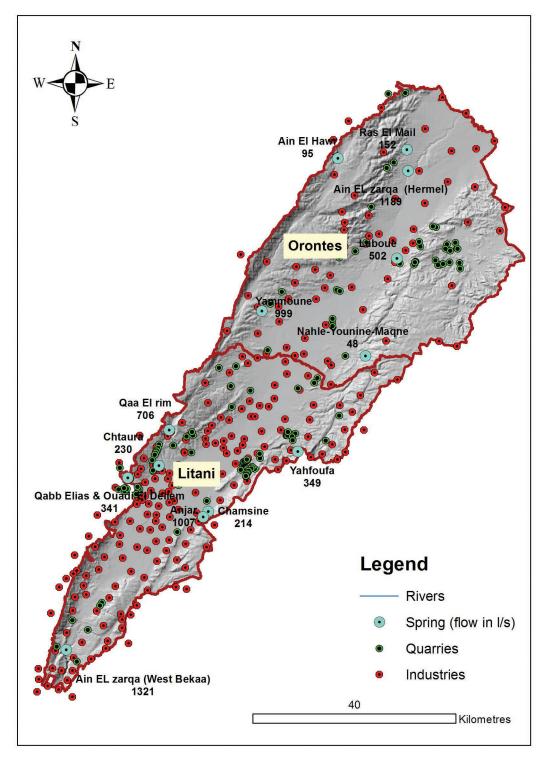
In 2003, MoEW estimated industrial demand in Bekaa at 19MCM. Subscriptions of industrial establishments to public water are not documented. Meters are either not installed or may have been vandalised..

Industrial water demand has been estimated to be between 30–35 per cent of the domestic demand in Lebanon. We estimate 40 per cent because the Bekaa has a higher ratio of industry to domestic population due to its lower population density (Table 4). Using the 40 per cent figure and estimated volumes for domestic water use, the estimated total volume of industrial water use would be 30.6MCM/annum for the ULB and 14.4MCM for the UOB (Table 4).

Table 4. Estimated industrial water demands (MCM/yr) in 2016

	DOMESTIC DEMAND	INDUSTRIAL DEMAND AS 40 PER CENT OF DOMESTIC
Subtotal: BEKAA (Litani)	49	19.6
West Bekaa	13	5.2
Zahle	36	14.4
Subtotal: BAALBEK-EL HERMEL (Litani)	40	16
Baalbek (Litani + Orontes)	34	13.6
El Hermel (Orontes)	6	2.4
Grand total in 2 basins	90	36

Figure 2. Industries and quarries within the Bekaa



Source: CDR-NLUMP, 2004.

# 3

# Agricultural Water Use

This section estimates the irrigation water demand in the Bekaa within the UOB and the ULB in the spring and summer of 2016. To do this, we develop a method that will enable continuous monitoring of irrigated agriculture within the Bekaa Valley using available satellite imagery.

We do so by following these steps:

- Delineate irrigated lands using Sentinel-2 and Landsat satellite imagery to derive vegetation indices and perform image classification to identify the irrigated areas and cluster the irrigated lands over the growing season of 2016
- Identify the existing crops and irrigation practices used in irrigated areas through field surveys and calculate the percentage of total irrigated area under each one
- Calculate net water consumption by estimating the evapotranspiration rate over the season for each crop and calculate the total volume based on the area, and
- Estimate the irrigation water demand as percentage of the net water consumption using knowledge of irrigation practice efficiency.

# 3.1 Satellite imagery analysis

Estimates of the extent of irrigated areas in the Bekaa Valley vary from 33,000ha (Plan Bleu-UNEP, 2001) to 45,000ha (MoEW, 2010).

We mapped summer irrigation in Bekaa in 2016 with Sentinel-2 and Landsat imagery using a normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI). We coupled this approach with an iso-cluster unsupervised classification scheme to identify irrigated lands.

We followed this procedure:

- Delineated the general extent of cultivated areas from high-resolution (0.5m) Google Earth imagery
- Analysed 20 cloud-free (less than 10 per cent cloud cover) Landsat (15m resolution) and Sentinel-2 (10m resolution) scenes covering the area over April— September
- Derived the NDVI from the Surface reflectance product of the imagery, and
- Performed an image classification method (the ISOcluster classification) on individual scenes to classify them into six different classes of NDVI ranges.

For each scene date, we converted the highest class to a polygon feature for which we calculated the area. The resulting feature class depicts the areas having the maximum vegetation for that date. This procedure is repeated for the 20 scenes. The result is the maximum vegetated areas at any given date. We merged the areas for the growing season of April–October, and the result estimates the total extent of irrigated areas in Bekaa (Figure 5).

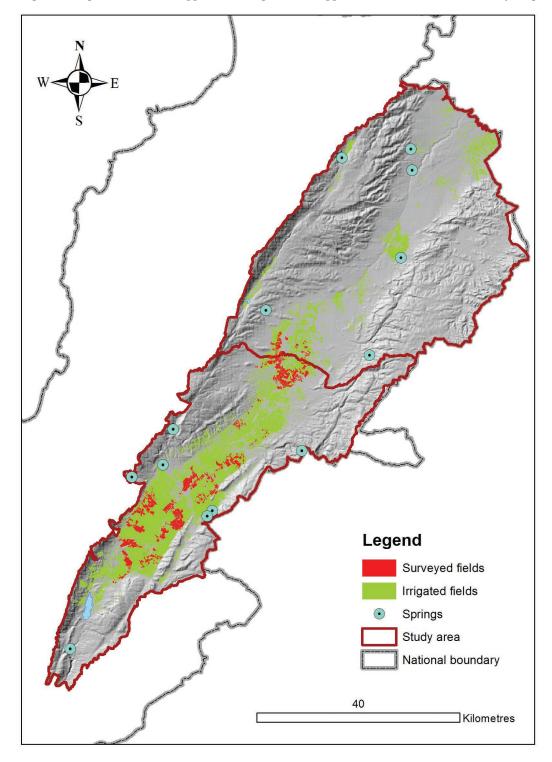


Figure 3. Irrigated areas in the Upper Orontes (green) and Upper Litani basins (2016) and surveyed agricultural fields

Through this process, we calculated 45,700ha of irrigated agriculture in the Upper Litani Basin and 13,800ha in the Upper Orontes Basin during the irrigation season (April–October 2016). Furthermore, around 12,000ha of cereals have been cultivated in the Bekaa in the spring of 2016; 10,000ha are within the Upper Litani Basin, some of which is under supplemental irrigation. The net non-cereals irrigated areas are estimated at 36,000ha in the ULB and 12,000ha in the UOB.

Figure 6 presents the mean seasonal NDVI for the area. The highest NDVI values are near the major springs; Ain Zarqa Hermel, where topography does not allow irrigation of large areas, is the exception. Labwe region (UOB), Anjar (ULB) and Qab Elias (ULB) and the area downstream of Qab Elias in the ULB feature the most intensive agriculture. All of these schemes are mainly fed by the spring systems. Other irrigation in Bekaa relies on wells (locations not available).

#### 3.2 Field survey

Table 5 identifies 1,488 fields for type of crop, growing stage and irrigation system used. We took eight field trips to the study area to determine the types of crops, the growing stages and irrigation methods. The survey covered 7,244ha of crops, of which 1,715ha are wheat and barley.

The most planted crop in the ULB is potato, followed by vegetables and fruit trees (Table 6). Analysis of the results revealed that major crops planted in summer in Bekaa are potatoes (43 per cent), vegetables (15 per cent), industrial crops (8 per cent), vines (12 per cent), fruit trees (12 per cent), corn (4 per cent) and legumes (3 per cent). The two major winter crops are wheat and barley (with an unknown portion of which is supplemental irrigation). There are considerable cannabis plantations in the upstream part of the ULB and the UOB. These are considered as industrial crops (Table 6).

## 3.3 Calculating net water consumption

To determine water use by these irrigated areas, we need to calculate the actual crop evapotranspiration (net water consumed by the crop and lost to the atmosphere). We can determine reference ET (Ref-ET) from weather parameters collected by an agrometeorological station using the Penman-Monteith equation. For the analysis herein, we determined reference ET values for the Bekaa using weather data from AUB's AREC station.

ETc – the actual evapotranspiration – cannot exceed the Ref-ET for a certain crop. ETc is either calculated (Kc\* Ref-ET) or measured (usually remotely using energy balance approaches). ETc estimates from NDVI/energy balance estimate actual crop consumption. This is always less than gross demand that includes system inefficiencies and is calculated for non-restricting water conditions.

Table 5. Field trip dates and number of surveyed fields

FIELD TRIP DATE	NUMBER OF SURVEYED FIELDS	AREA (HA)
6 June 2016	200	1,074
13 June 2016	233	1,046
16 June 2016	208	940
21 June 2016	236	963
23 June 2016	221	1,211
20 July 2016	157	671
July 26 2016	77	516
August 8 2016	156	841
Total	1,488	7,262

Table 6. Surveyed summer crop by field count and area (excluding wheat and barley)

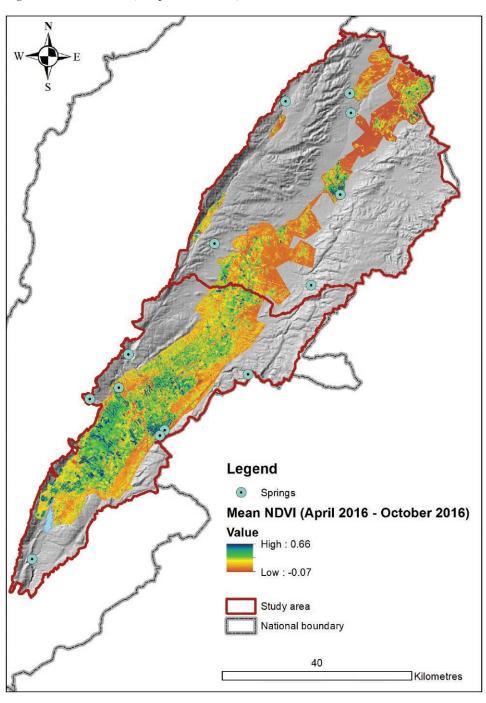
CROP CATEGORY	CROP	FIELDS	AREA (HA)	PER CENT OF TOTAL
Vegetables	Vegetables	395	772	15
Roots & tubers	Potato	336	2,260	43
Legumes	Beans	21	46	1
	Peas	30	95	2
Cereals	Corn	25	221	4
Grapes & berries	Grape vines	108	492	9
Fruit trees	Stone fruits	102	630	12
	Plum	6	19	0
Industrial crops	Cannabis	91	560	11
	Tobacco	52	168	3

Estimating ETc from water balance approaches requires knowledge of the spatial distribution of precipitation, irrigation applications, the change in soil moisture content, runoff, deep percolation and contribution to soil moisture from the water table in areas of high water table.

DisALEXI ET (Anderson et al., 2013) is a diagnostic approach to calculate ET based on how much water evaporates to keep the land surface at the observed temperature. We applied the technique on an area in the Bekaa for crops planted in 2015.

In brief, the Landsat thermal infrared band was fused with the lower resolution ET measurements along with daily MODIS data. This produced a field scale estimate (30m) of ETc. Results show that mean cumulative seasonal ETc for agricultural areas was 364mm for the Upper Orontes and 415mm for the Upper Litani basins, respectively (21 April 2015 to 30 October 2015).

Figure 4. Mean seasonal (23 April-31 October) NDVI for 2016



### 3.4 Estimate of irrigation water demand

Water demand for irrigated areas is different than actual consumption. Demand is usually based on irrigation requirements that are calculated using crop co-efficients and Ref ET. Consumption can be estimated remotely using energy balance models (Allen et al., 2007, Anderson et al., 2013, Bastiannssen et al., 1998).

Due to management and sub-optimal irrigation factors, actual use is usually less than the Ref ET predicts. The diversion to the irrigated areas could be higher, however, due to losses in the transmission, distribution and on-farm system. Knowledge of the types of agricultural crops planted in the Bekaa is necessary both to estimate water requirements for the lands and to verify results of the satellite imagery.

Gross water application is greater than the net consumed water by a factor related to the irrigation system efficiency, field application uniformity, and losses in transmission and distribution. However, the DisAlexi model is based on Land ET in relation to the cover. It accounts for soil evaporation, most often regarded as a non-beneficial use.

Water lost to deep percolation and as runoff during irrigations may not always be lost from the system. Runoff water may return to the Litani or Orontes rivers for use by downstream users, for example. Deep percolation may also help recharge the water table aquifers in areas where the hydrogeology permits.

Given the hot and dry climate of the Bekaa summers, most cultivated crops during April–October are irrigated. Table 7 shows the irrigation practice of the surveyed areas (by method), based on the field survey. Most irrigation is sprinkler-based.

Given the windy conditions in Bekaa, efficiency of sprinklers is estimated at 65 per cent and microsprinklers at 75 per cent. Drip irrigation efficiency is estimated to be 80 per cent, and surface irrigation at 40 per cent. These estimates are crucial to evaluate the current irrigation abstraction in the Bekaa.

Table 7. Percentage of the surveyed areas by irrigation method

IRRIGATION PRACTICE	PERCENTAGE
Drip	22
Furrow	4
Micro-sprinklers	6
Rainfed	3
Sprinkler	65

Table 8 summarises the percentage of the area for each crop by irrigation practice. Drip irrigation is used mostly in production of stone fruits and vegetables. Sprinkler irrigation is largely used to produce potatoes, cannabis, lettuce and onions.

Surface irrigation is evident on fruit trees irrigated via schemes with springs/canals as the major water source. Crop co-efficients were based on FAO-56 (Allen et al., 1998) for analysis of crop water requirement (ETc).

Table 8. Surveyed crops and their irrigation method

GROUP	CROP	DRIP (%)	SURFACE (%)	SPRINKLER (%)	MICRO- SPRINKLERS (%)	RAINFED
Vegetables	Vegetables	3	17	75	4	
Roots & tubers	Potato		2	88	9	
Legumes	Beans	8	40	53		
	Peas	6	39	89	1	
Cereals	Corn		4	96		
Grapes & berries	Grape vines	82		2	9	7
Fruit trees	Stone fruits	66	31	1	1	
	Plum	92	8			
Industrial	Cannabis	3	22	58		16
crops	Tobacco	22	21	50	7	

We use Aquacrop for calculating water requirements for the Bekaa crops. Aquacrop, the FAO crop-water productivity model, calculates net irrigation requirements based on crop and weather data. This constitutes the net irrigation demand by crop at the field level.

We calculated irrigated areas by the monthly crop water requirements and then the seasonal sum. Aquacrop calculations indicate that mean seasonal requirements for irrigated areas are 600mm (based on AREC Weather Data and the Agricultural Survey in 2016). Reference ET from AREC station amount to 1,048mm for the same period. We multiplied the irrigated areas within each basin by the seasonal water requirements to arrive at the irrigation water use in MCM.

The total ETc volume for the areas in summer of 2016 would be 89MCM and 249MCM for the UOB and the ULB respectively, a total of 338MCM for the irrigation season of 2016. Table 9 shows the estimates of crop consumptive use according to different methods.

We conducted field measurements in Anjar to understand irrigation practices of stone fruits in Bekaa. Collected data show that farmers may apply up to 140mm/irrigation in ten hours of irrigation every three weeks using secondary canals and then flooding the field. (A management allowable deficit of 50 per cent and a root depth of 1.2m, and a water holding capacity of 150mm/m, would result in a maximum allowable depth not exceeding 90mm/irrigation. This depth can sustain the plants for about 15-18 days in summer in Anjar).

Applications of 140mm/irrigation indicate that farmers may be losing a percentage of the applied water to deep percolation. The Anjar spring feeds this system, and the safe yield for that spring is estimated at 1,007l/s (BWE, 2015), or 1m<sup>3</sup>/s (31.54MCM/year). This is enough to supply water for 1,000ha of irrigated lands if drip irrigation was used. Other references estimate the monthly flow in the range of 0.3-0.5m<sup>3</sup>/s (Telesca et al., 2013).

As noted earlier, average system efficiency is believed to be 65 per cent for sprinkler irrigation, 80 per cent for drip irrigation and 75 per cent for micro-sprinklers. Surface irrigation efficiency is believed to be much lower. Total efficiency is lower still as other losses (conveyance, distribution) at the project level need to be accounted for.

Based on the proportion of the irrigated crops by method, irrigation water requirements in the ULB and UOB are estimated at 415MCM and 148MCM, respectively, based on a total system efficiency of 60 per cent. A fraction of 20 per cent of total diversions (half of the non-consumptive diversions) is assumed to return to the system.

Table 9. Seasonal agricultural consumptive water use according to different estimates

CUMULATIVE ET (IRRIGATION W CONSUMPTION)	LITANI ET (MM)	ORONTES ET (MM)	
NDVI method (approximation)	ethod (approximation) April-Oct 2016		655
DisAlexi (provisional) (Energy Balance) May-Oct 2015		391 345	
ET <sub>PM</sub> -AREC	May-Oct 2013	1,046	

# 4

# Assessment of water balance and availability vs. demand

# 4.1 Total water balance calculation and mapping the distribution of demand

Our estimated water demand for all sectors shows the proportion of water required for domestic uses in Bekaa is small (13 per cent of total demand) in comparison to the agricultural water demand (82 per cent of the total).

The total water demands in both basins are less than the total annual volume of rainfall that we calculated using the Plassard (1971) map. It has been estimated elsewhere that water stress occurs where total use exceeds 40 per cent of the available supply.

However, the water resources are not evenly distributed across the basins. Overall balance calculations at the level of each basin hide significant local

variations and hotspots of demand. In areas with more demand for water than available sources can supply, demands cannot be met or the water must come from groundwater. If the extraction of groundwater exceeds the annual recharge, it is considered to be over exploited.

The Litani Basin is experiencing an over exploitation of groundwater (87MCM/year on average, given the recent increase in domestic demand) whereas the Orontes is not. This has been observed previously (MoE-UNDP, 2014; USAID, 2011), and is evidenced by the falling groundwater table.

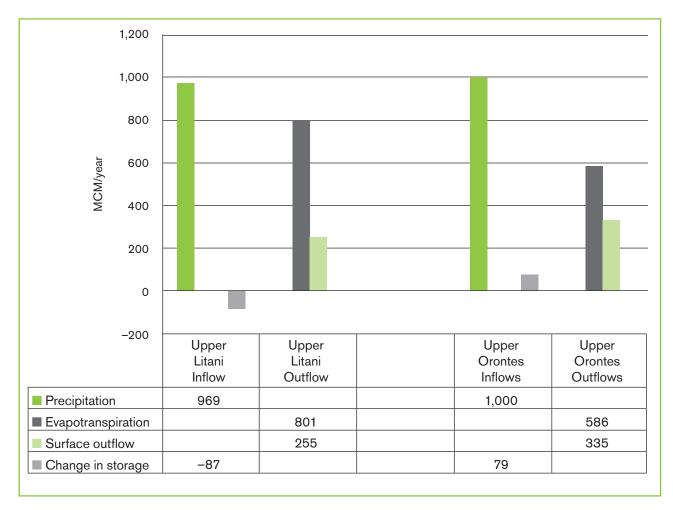
The proposed balances within the two basins consider downstream demand. Outflows include winter and summer ET, as well as flows into Qarawn Lake (Litani), and to Syria (Orontes) (Figure 5).

Table 10. Water demand in the Bekaa Valley in 2016\* (MCM/yr)

DOMESTIC								
Supply areai	Lebaneseii	Palestiniansiii	Syrians in IS <sup>iii</sup>	Syrians not in ISiii	Total Syrians	Subtotal domestic	INDUS- TRIAL <sup>i</sup>	AGRI- CULTURAL
West Bekaa	8.9	0.3	1.3	2.8	4.1	13.3	5.3	162
Zahle	23.9	0.5	3.4	7.5	10.9	35.4	14.2	181
Baalbek	27.4	0.3	2.5	4.3	6.9	34.6	13.8	220
El Hermel	5.5	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.4	5.8	2.3	8
Grand total	65.7	1.2	7.3	15.0	22.3	89.1	35.7	571

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>i</sup>Rachaya was excluded from this study.

Figure 5. Hydrologic balances for the Upper Basins of the Litani and the Orontes in Lebanon (average year)



Based on BWE (2013) population estimates and consumption rate: 1801/c/day.

Based on IAMP population estimates and consumption rates of 1601/c/day (except for Syrians in Assi Basin, who use only 1201/c/day for reasons explained in the study).

40 per cent of total domestic demand.

Assuming 60 per cent project efficiency (total agricultural consumptive use = 343MCM/yr).

# 4.2 Mapping water demand at the municipal level

Figure 8 maps the domestic, industrial and irrigation requirements to highlight areas of highest water demand. Combining agricultural, domestic and industrial demand at the municipal level gives a clearer image of where demand is highest.

We used the following formula:

Domestic demand per municipality (based on Lebanese population + Syrian refugees outside informal settlements + Syrian refugees in informal settlements)

+

Irrigation demand (as calculated from the total irrigated area per municipality from the satellite imagery analysis multiplied by the crop water requirements per season)

+

Industrial demand per municipality (rated at 40 per cent of the domestic demand of the Lebanese population).

The result is presented in Figure 6. Total demand by municipality is shown in Appendix 1.

Barr Elias, Saarine, Baalbeck and surroundings and Zahle and surroundings, and Anjar area feature the highest water demand. We also present the percentage increase in water demand due to the Syrian crisis (Figure 7).

Figure 6. Current total water demand at the municipal level

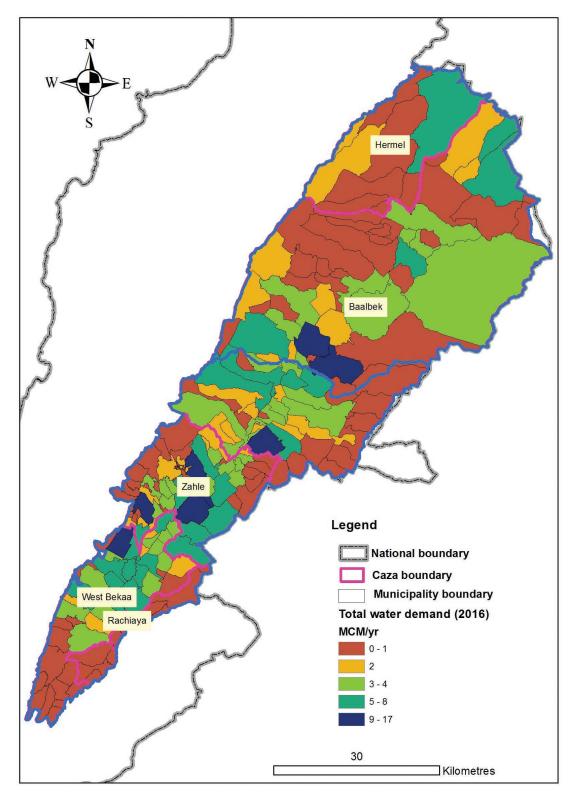
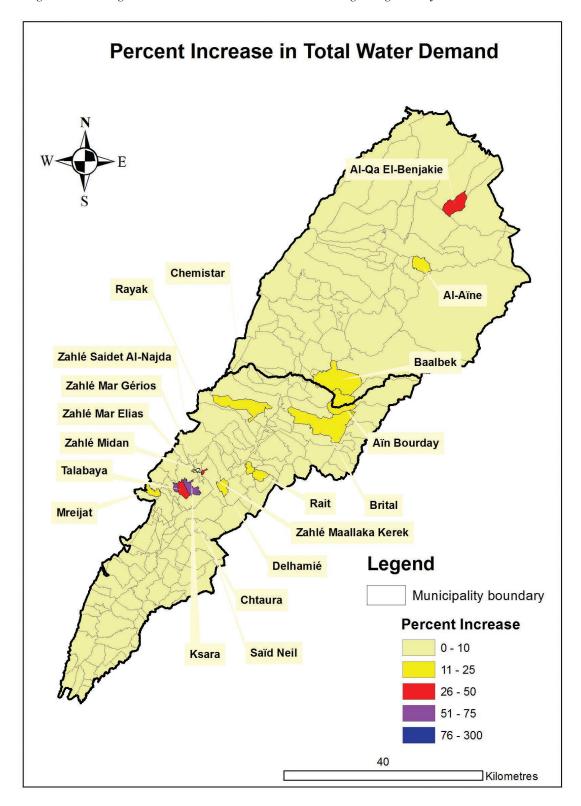


Figure 7. Percentage increase in total water demand since the beginning of the Syrian crisis



#### 4.3 Comparing water flows and demands at supply areas and sources

The irrigation assessment report (BWE, 2015) lists 63 springs in Baalbeck Caza and 22 major springs in Hermel Caza. Hermel area spring flows amount to more than 1,540l/s (or 46MCM/year). Flows at the springs and demands for the service areas as reported in the BWE Master Plan are listed in Table 10.

The total flow of springs in Orontes Basin amounts to 3m3/s. (The average flow of the Ain-Zarqa spring is no less than 10m3/s. However, as the Orontes is a transboundary river, the Lebanese portion is limited by a bilateral agreement between Lebanon and Syria).

Demands are calculated based on the projected water demand of 1951/day/capita. Chamsine system (near Anjar) provides 214l/s. The Barr Elias area requires approximately 2.5MCM/year for domestic uses (around 80l/s) (Table 11). Including other demands (industrial and irrigation) shows that only Hermel has a surplus in spring water supply.

In addition to analysing domestic demand, it would be useful to compare availability of water at each spring to our data on agricultural water use. However, this would require further study to first identify which irrigated areas are supplied from which springs.

Table 11. Available spring flow and domestic demand in Upper Orontes Basin

SYSTEM NAME	DOMESTIC DEMAND 2035 (L/S) *	FLOW (L/S)	DEFICIT/ SURPLUS
Ain eL Zarqa (Hermel)	164	1,189	1,025
Ras El Mail (Hermel)	145	152	7
Nahle-Younine-Maqne (Baalbeck)	69	48	-21
Laboue (Baalbeck)	269	502	233
Ain El Hawr (Hermel)	58	95	37
Yammoune (Baalbeck)	985	999	14
Total	1,690	2,985	

\*based on 1951/day/capita and excluding Syrian refugees Source: BWE, 2015.

Table 12. Available springs and domestic demand in Litani Study Area

SYSTEM NAME	DOMESTIC DEMAND 2035 (L/S)	FLOW (L/S)	SUPPLY – DEMAND (L/S)
Anjar Spring	327	1007	680
Ain El Zarqa (West El Bekaa)	481	1,321	840
Chamsine	625	214	-411
Chtaura Spring	19	230	211
Qabb Elias - Ouadi El Dellem	145	341	196
Yahfoufa	323	349	26
Qaa El Rim - Berdaouni Spring	425	706	281

Source: BWE, 2015.

# 5 Discussion

Across the Bekaa and wider region, there is a need for improved understanding of overall water balance calculations, particularly agricultural water use and water demands for irrigation. In this study, we assessed irrigation water consumption following the Syrian crisis. We used an innovative approach that combines remote sensing with field survey data and available modelling tools. Our estimate suggests higher withdrawals from the ULB than previously reported.

5.1 An innovative approach

Given the absence of systems to measure water extractions for irrigation use, we combined remote sensing with field survey data and available modelling tools. This innovative approach enabled us to estimate volumes of water used in evapotranspiration and irrigation, and water demand. Our estimate suggests higher withdrawals from the ULB than have previously been estimated (e.g. in MoA, 1998).

We hope that by presenting and discussing these estimates, other researchers will be encouraged to critique our findings and use aspects of our work that could be relevant to them and to decision makers.

Our approach to analysis of agricultural water use provides a basis for a continuous agricultural water use monitoring system. This would enable better measurement and management of available water resources in the Bekaa. Such a system would allow bi-weekly agricultural water use analysis (actual consumption) via energy balance techniques based on remote sensing.

In this study we have provided, for the first time, a remotely sensed estimate of agricultural water consumption at the basin level in the Bekaa. We also quantified the recent increase in domestic water demand resulting from the Syrian refugee crisis. We mapped this increase spatially, allowing identification of water stress hotspots.

# 5.2 Observations and insights

From this work, we have gained insights concerning the availability, uses and demands for water supplies in different sectors, including agriculture, domestic supply and industry. This has helped us to better understand the observed lack of water and water stress in the Bekaa. For example, we can see that agricultural water demand and use volumes are likely far higher than domestic water demand and use volumes.

We have also observed that domestic and industrial water demands and uses do not necessarily remove water from the system and deplete the water balance. What matters more is the quality of water that returns to the system in the form of domestic and industrial wastewaters. If these return flows are polluted, they will also pollute the rivers, streams and lakes that they reenter. This, in turn, will reduce the availability of usable freshwater in these water bodies, even while some level of flows in them may be maintained.

Concerning the effect of the arrival of refugees on the water balance of the two basins, we calculated the volume of additional demand, and pinpointed the municipalities with the most rapid increases. We have also identified the uneven spatial distribution on these increases and the types of agricultural demand that they will compete with at certain times of the year. Further analysis could help better understand the spatial and temporal concentration of these competing demands for water in particular municipalities.

#### 5.3 Limitations

The demand-supply relation and the water balance calculations are intricate. Water accounting in the Bekaa is difficult for two reasons: lack of actual measurements of diversions for domestic and industrial use, and lack of sewage networks and operational wastewater treatment plants. Also, the lack of adequate snowfall measurement stations and snowmelt hydrologic studies of the basins make groundwater recharge estimates more uncertain.

The Orontes is a transboundary river, and the Orontes Basin has a limited share of 80MCM/yr. This means that increasing water demand within the Orontes River would require speeding up the Assi Dam construction to regulate use of this allocation.

A more detailed study would need to consider the temporal variability of the hydrologic inputs and outputs, as well as the intra-annual changes in the different water demands. It could possibly disentangle the local anthropogenic effects in the two basins from those of global climate change.

More remotely sensed estimates of evapotranspiration and rainfall (verified by rain gauges), as well as river gauge flow measurements, hold out potential for more accurate water balance estimates. The hydrologic balance approach is recommended to quantify the groundwater recharge/overdraft.

Groundwater reserves are believed to cover current deficits in water supply. The water diversions may be different than assumed. Yet sewage discharges into the Litani River, for example, will register as outflows into Qarawn Lake. Hence, they are not lost from the system. Flow measurements at Qarawn could arguably be re-used for the Litani Basin. Downstream uses should always be considered (hydropower demand, irrigation demand of South Lebanon).

We hope our methods and approaches will contribute to strategic thinking about water stress in Lebanon. They could be helpful for integrated water resources management planning in both basins, and in other parts of Lebanon. In the future, this work could also help with efforts to manage water in Syria as well.

# 6 Conclusions

This paper has presented progress towards assessment of the water balance in the two major basins of the Bekaa Valley. This includes an innovative approach based on remote sensing to understand agricultural water consumption that is 'ready for use'. We hope that water resource planners and practitioners working in the Bekaa consider our approach in their ongoing work.

We also hope that sharing these methods and findings will stimulate debate and raise awareness among scientific and practitioner communities. MoEW should continue to improve water balance calculations by encouraging the approaches demonstrated in this paper. This should help enable progressive improvement of the water balance assessment, highlight knowledge gaps, and encourage researchers and other local actors to contribute to filling them.

# Distinct water supply issues within the two basins

There is a deficit of water supply within the Upper Litani Basin, but not the Upper Orontes (Figure 5). This deficit is believed to be covered from over exploitation of the groundwater table. Additional stress from Syrian refugees causes an increasing demand of 30MCM/ year (subject to increase given the projected increase in Syrian refugee population).

Prior to the Syrian conflict, the MoEW estimated total demand for water in the Bekaa would be 513MCM in 2015 and projected increases of 5MCM per year (MoEW, 2010). The national strategy also estimates total supply in Bekaa at 399MCM/yr (206MCM/yr from surface water and 193MCM/yr from groundwater). The strategy does not explain how the deficit (supply minus demand = 114MCM/yr) is met. Our findings show demand is actually much higher (571MCM/yr for irrigation alone, excluding Rachaya). This is likely overdraft from groundwater reserves.

Domestic demand has also increased, but is still only 15 per cent of irrigation demand. Estimated domestic wastewater generated in Bekaa in 2007 (based on a population of 489,865) was 23.6MCM/year (World Bank, 2010). The amount is actually doubled with the most recent estimate of the Bekaa population (BWE, 2015). This non-conventional water could be another source of water supply if appropriate wastewater networks, treatment plants and treated sewage effluent networks are constructed, operated and maintained.

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# Appendices

KADA	MUNICIPALITY	WATER DEMAND MCM/YR
Baalbek	Aadous	0.841
Baalbek	Aain Baalbek	0.900
Baalbek	Aain Bourday	0.077
Baalbek	Aain El-Barnaya	0.000
Baalbek	Aain Es-Siyaa Chadoura	0.000
Baalbek	Aamchki	0.001
Baalbek	Aarsal	3.845
Baalbek	Aaynata Baalbek	1.126
Baalbek	Baalbek	8.330
Baalbek	Bajjaje	2.405
Baalbek	Barqa	0.082
Baalbek	Bechouat	0.085
Baalbek	Bednayel Baalbak	2.922
Baalbek	Beit Chama	0.910
Baalbek	Bouday	6.043
Baalbek	Brital	3.298
Baalbek	Btedaai	0.528
Baalbek	Chaaibe	0.000
Baalbek	Chaat	3.985
Baalbek	Chlifa	2.241
Baalbek	Chmistar	1.351
Baalbek	Dar El-Ouassaa	0.012
Baalbek	Deir El-Ahmar	2.859
Baalbek	Deir Mar Maroun Baalbek	0.020
Baalbek	Douris	5.020
Baalbek	Fekehe	2.047
Baalbek	Hadath Baalbek	4.067
Baalbek	Halbata	0.058
Baalbek	Ham	0.035
Baalbek	haouch El-Dehab	1.696
Baalbek	Haouch En-Nabi	0.531
Baalbek	Haouch Er-Rafqa	2.832
Baalbek	Haouch Snaid	2.970
Baalbek	Haouch Tall Safiye	2.308
Baalbek	Haouche Barada	2.810
		21010

KADA	MUNICIPALITY	WATER DEMAND MCM/YR
Baalbek	Haour Taala	1.093
Baalbek	Harabta	0.554
Baalbek	Hizzine	1.857
Baalbek	laat	9.530
Baalbek	Jebaa	0.008
Baalbek	Jenta	0.044
Baalbek	Kfar Dabach	1.189
Baalbek	Kfar Dane	2.644
Baalbek	Kharayeb El-Hermel	0.018
Baalbek	Khodr Baalbek	1.307
Baalbek	Khreibet Baalbek	0.104
Baalbek	Kneisset Baalbek	1.782
Baalbek	Laboue	4.223
Baalbek	litige	0.000
Baalbek	litige	0.000
Baalbek	Maaraboun	0.110
Baalbek	Majdaloun	5.714
Baalbek	Magne	1.161
Baalbek	Mazraat beit Mchaik	0.000
Baalbek	Moqraq	0.078
Baalbek	Mousraye	1.207
Baalbek	Nabha Ed-Damdoum	0.185
Baalbek	Nabi Chbay	0.001
Baalbek	Nabi Chit	4.261
Baalbek	Nabi Osmane	2.748
Baalbek	Nahle baalbek	0.338
Baalbek	Ouadi El-Aaoss	0.000
Baalbek	Qaa Baalbek	1.902
Baalbek	Qaa Baayoun	4.374
Baalbek	Qaa Jouar Maqiye	7.279
Baalbek	Qaa Ouadi El-Khanzir	1.885
Baalbek	Qarha Baalbek	0.053
Baalbek	Qsarnaba	1.582
Baalbek	Ram Baalbek	0.041
Baalbek	Ras Baalbek Ech-Charqi	0.012
Baalbek	Ras Baalbek Es-Sahel	0.942
Baalbek	Riha	0.218
Baalbek	Saaide	1.908
Baalbek	Sbouba	0.027
Baalbek	Serraaine Et-Tahta	11.355
Baalbek	Slouqi	0.002

Baalbek         Talia         3.           Baalbek         Taraiya         4.           Baalbek         Temnine El-Faouqa         1.           Baalbek         Temnine Et-Tahta         3.           Baalbek         Yahfoufa         0.           Baalbek         Yammoune         1.           Baalbek         Youmine         2.           Baalbek         Zabboud         0.           Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Hermel         5.           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.	631
Baalbek         Taraiya         4.9           Baalbek         Temnine El-Faouqa         1.9           Baalbek         Temnine Et-Tahta         3.9           Baalbek         Yahfoufa         0.0           Baalbek         Yammoune         1.9           Baalbek         Youmine         2.0           Baalbek         Zabboud         0.0           Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Hermel         5.0           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.0           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.0           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.0	
Baalbek Temnine El-Faouqa 1. Baalbek Temnine Et-Tahta 3. Baalbek Yahfoufa 0. Baalbek Yammoune 1.9 Baalbek Youmine 2.9 Baalbek Zabboud 0.9 Hermel Charbine El-Hermel 0.9 Hermel Hermel Hermel 5. Hermel Hermel Jbab 1.9 Hermel Maaysra El-Hermel 0.9 Hermel Michaa Mrajhine 1.9 Hermel Ouadi Faara 0.9	622
Baalbek Temnine Et-Tahta 3.6 Baalbek Yahfoufa 0.7 Baalbek Yammoune 1.9 Baalbek Youmine 2.9 Baalbek Zabboud 0.9 Hermel Charbine El-Hermel 0.9 Hermel Hermel 5.9 Hermel Hermel Jbab 1.9 Hermel Maaysra El-Hermel 0.9 Hermel Michaa Mrajhine 1.9 Hermel Ouadi Faara 0.9	669
Baalbek         Yahfoufa         0.0           Baalbek         Yammoune         1.9           Baalbek         Youmine         2.0           Baalbek         Zabboud         0.0           Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Hermel         5.0           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.0           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.0           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.0	241
Baalbek       Yammoune       1.9         Baalbek       Youmine       2.9         Baalbek       Zabboud       0.9         Hermel       Charbine El-Hermel       0.9         Hermel       Hermel       5.9         Hermel       Hermel Jbab       1.9         Hermel       Maaysra El-Hermel       0.9         Hermel       Michaa Mrajhine       1.9         Hermel       Ouadi Faara       0.9	882
Baalbek         Youmine         2.           Baalbek         Zabboud         0.           Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Hermel         5.           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.	026
Baalbek         Zabboud         0.           Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Hermel         5.           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.	980
Hermel         Charbine El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Hermel         5.0           Hermel         Hermel Jbab         1.0           Hermel         Maaysra El-Hermel         0.0           Hermel         Michaa Mrajhine         1.0           Hermel         Ouadi Faara         0.0	961
HermelHermel5.HermelHermel Jbab1.HermelMaaysra El-Hermel0.HermelMichaa Mrajhine1.HermelOuadi Faara0.	787
HermelHermel Jbab1.HermelMaaysra El-Hermel0.HermelMichaa Mrajhine1.HermelOuadi Faara0.	632
HermelMaaysra El-Hermel0.0HermelMichaa Mrajhine1.0HermelOuadi Faara0.0	791
HermelMichaa Mrajhine1.HermelOuadi Faara0.	100
Hermel Ouadi Faara 0.	800
	106
Hermel Ras Baalbek El Gharbi 0.	032
	.130
Hermel Ras Baalbek Ouadi Faara 0.	004
Hermel Zighrine 0.	.151
West Bekaa Aain Et-Tine BG 0.	.119
West Bekaa Aain Zebde 1.:	255
West Bekaa Aammiq BG 9.	.812
West Bekaa Aana 5.	521
West Bekaa Aaytanit 0.	626
West Bekaa Baaloul BG 1.	029
West Bekaa Bab Mareaa 0.	.611
West Bekaa Chebrqiyet Aammiq 4.	767
West Bekaa Dakoue 2.4	840
West Bekaa Deir Aain Ej-Jaouze 0.	380
West Bekaa Deir Tahniche 2.	.197
West Bekaa Ghazze 4.	863
West Bekaa Haouch El-Harime 3.	509
West Bekaa Harime Es-Soughra 2.	953
West Bekaa Jazira BG 2.	.718
West Bekaa Joubb Jannine 7.3	336
West Bekaa Kafraiya BG 2.	612
West Bekaa Kamed El-Laouz 4.	246
West Bekaa Khiara 5.	676
West Bekaa Khiara El-Aatiqa 1.	649
West Bekaa Khirbet Qanafar 6.	665
West Bekaa Lala 2.	314
West Bekaa Libbaya BG 0.	016

KADA	MUNICIPALITY	WATER DEMAND MCM/YR
West Bekaa	litige	0.000
West Bekaa	litige	0.000
West Bekaa	Loussa	0.048
West Bekaa	Machghara	0.657
West Bekaa	Manara (Hammara) BG	0.949
West Bekaa	Mansoura BG	5.138
West Bekaa	Marj BG	5.048
West Bekaa	Maydoun	0.000
West Bekaa	Ouaqf BG	1.854
West Bekaa	Qaraaoun	2.109
West Bekaa	Qelaya	0.063
West Bekaa	Raouda (Istabel)	3.831
West Bekaa	Saghbine	2.624
West Bekaa	Sohmor	0.426
West Bekaa	Soltan Yacoub el Aradi	0.397
West Bekaa	Souairi	1.234
West Bekaa	Soultan Yaacoub Faouqa	3.942
West Bekaa	Tall Znoub	4.154
West Bekaa	Yohmor BG	0.174
West Bekaa	Zilaya	0.018
Zahle	Aain Kfar Zabad	0.250
Zahle	Aali En-Nahri	2.006
Zahle	Aanjar (Haouch Moussa)	7.604
Zahle	Ablah	2.524
Zahle	Barr Elias	16.003
Zahle	Bouarej	0.141
Zahle	Chebrqiyet Tabet	0.346
Zahle	Chtaura	0.779
Zahle	Dalhamiyet Zahle	3.244
Zahle	Deir El-Ghazal	0.246
Zahle	Fourzol	5.967
Zahle	Haouch El-Aamara	0.464
Zahle	Haouch El-Ghanam	1.337
Zahle	Haouch Es-Siyade	0.850
Zahle	Haouch Hala	2.947
Zahle	Haouch Mandara	2.420
Zahle	Haouch Qayssar	0.775
Zahle	Hazerta	0.206
Zahle	Hoshmosh	3.804
Zahle	Jdita	2.515
Zahle	Kfarzabad	6.112

KADA	MUNICIPALITY	WATER DEMAND MCM/YR
Zahle	Ksara	0.158
Zahle	litige	0.000
Zahle	Majdel Aanjar	6.310
Zahle	Makse	1.893
Zahle	Massa	0.510
Zahle	Mazraat Er-Remtaniye	0.001
Zahle	Mrayjat Zahle	0.164
Zahle	Mzaraat Zahle	0.098
Zahle	Nabi Ayla	1.230
Zahle	Nabi Ayla	1.230
Zahle	Nasriyet Rizk	0.921
Zahle	Nasriyet Zahle	1.181
Zahle	Niha Zahle	1.149
Zahle	Ouadi Ed-Delm	0.158
Zahle	Ouadi El-Aarayech	0.382
Zahle	Qaa Er-Rim	0.173
Zahle	Qabb Elias	9.498
Zahle	Qoussaya	0.279
Zahle	Raait	0.912
Zahle	Riyaq	2.111
Zahle	Saadnayel	2.906
Zahle	Taalbaya	2.902
Zahle	Taanayel	2.420
Zahle	Tcheflik Edde Haouch	1.134
Zahle	Tcheflik Qiqano	1.384
Zahle	Tell El-Akhdar	4.646
Zahle	Terbol Zahle	7.500
Zahle	Touaite Zahle	0.106
Zahle	Zahle Aradi	1.585
Zahle	Zahle El-Berbara	0.195
Zahle	Zahle El-Maallaqa	1.409
Zahle	Zahle El-Midane	1.285
Zahle	Zahle Er-Rassiye	0.453
Zahle	Zahle Er-Rassiye	0.453
Zahle	Zahle Haouch El-Oumara	0.835
Zahle	Zahle Haouch El-Oumara Aradi	7.889
Zahle	Zahle Haouch Ez-Zaraane	0.151
Zahle	Zahle Maallaqa Aradi	9.147
Zahle	Zahle Mar Antonios	0.000
Zahle	Zahle Mar Elias	0.555
Zahle	Zahle Mar Gerges	0.339

#### WATER RESOURCES WITHIN THE UPPER ORONTES AND LITANI BASINS

KADA	MUNICIPALITY	WATER DEMAND MCM/YR
Zahle	Zahle Saydet En-Najat	0.031
Zahle	Zebdoul	0.287

# Acronyms and Abbreviations

ASL Above Sea Level

AREC Agricultural Research and Education Center

AUB American University of Beirut
BWE Bekaa Water Establishment

ET evapotranspiration

ETc actual evapotranspiration

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the

**United Nations** 

ha hectares

IS Informal Settlements

l litres

I/s litres per second

m³/s cubic metres per second
MoE Ministry of Environment

MoEW Ministry of Energy and Water

MCM million cubic metres

mm millimetres

NDVI Normalized difference vegetation index

UNDP UN Development Programme

USAID United States Agency for International

Development

ULB Upper Litani Basin
UOB Upper Orontes Basin

yr Year

Increasing refugee populations, industrial demands and agricultural activities have exacerbated water stress in Lebanon's Bekaa Valley. We have provided previously unavailable remotely sensed estimates of agricultural water consumption in the Upper Litani and Upper Orontes basins. We also quantified increases in domestic water demand and mapped water stress hotspots. Due to the distinction between demand, use and consumptive use, increased water demand does not have to mean water shortage. Increased consideration of this distinction is crucial for integrated water resources management planning and climate change adaptation.

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