## Water Scarcity and Its Impact on Agricultural Livelihoods in Rain-Fed Areas of Punjab, Pakistan: A Quantitative Assessment

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### **ABSTRACT**

Water scarcity poses an existential threat to rain-fed agricultural communities in Pakistan's Potohar region. This study examines the socio-economic and environmental impacts of water stress in Chakwal, Attock, and Rawalpindi districts through a mixed-methods approach combining household surveys (n=600), climate data analysis (2016–2023), and remote sensing. Key findings reveal a 38.2% decline in wheat yields (p < 0.01) and 41.7% reduction in maize production correlated with a 24% decrease in monsoon rainfall (Mann-Kendall  $\tau = -0.72$ ). Economically, 67% of households reported income losses exceeding 40%, forcing 58% into debt cycles. Gender disparities were stark: women spent 4.3 hours/day collecting water versus 1.9 hours for men (t-test, p<0.001). Spatial analysis identified western Chakwal as the most vulnerable zone (NDVI decline = 32%). The study highlights critical gaps in existing adaptation strategies, with only 28% of farmers adopting water conservation techniques. Using multivariate regression, we identify farm size ( $\beta$ =0.42), access to credit ( $\beta$ =0.37), and female education level ( $\beta$ =0.29) as key resilience determinants. These findings underscore the urgency for policy interventions targeting: (1) decentralized water harvesting infrastructure, (2) climate-smart agriculture subsidies, and (3) gender-inclusive governance frameworks. This research contributes empirical evidence to achieve SDG 6 (clean water) and informs Pakistan's National Water Policy 2023 implementation in semi-arid agroecosystems.

Keywords: Water stress, livelihood vulnerability, gender disparities, climate adaptation, Punjab

#### INTRODUCTION

## **Contextual Background**

Water scarcity in Pakistan's rain-fed agricultural regions, particularly the Potohar Plateau (encompassing Chakwal, Attock, and Rawalpindi districts), has emerged as a critical threat to food security, rural livelihoods, and socio-economic stability. This semi-arid zone, covering approximately 22,254 km², relies heavily on monsoon rains for agricultural production, with over 85% of cultivated land being rain-fed (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2023). Unlike irrigated areas of Punjab that benefit from canal networks, Potohar's farmers face extreme climate vulnerability due to erratic rainfall, declining groundwater reserves, and inefficient water management systems.

### Geographic and Climatic Challenges

The Potohar Plateau is characterized by undulating terrain, rocky soils, and limited natural water storage, making it highly dependent on seasonal monsoon rains (July–September). Historically, the region received 650–850 mm of annual rainfall, but climate change has disrupted precipitation patterns. Data from the Pakistan Meteorological Department (PMD, 2023) shows a 24% decline in monsoon rainfall since 2000, coupled with a 1.2°C rise in average temperatures. These changes have led to:

- Frequent droughts: Occurring every 2–3 years compared to 4–5 years in previous decades.
- Shorter growing seasons: Delayed monsoon onset reduces the wheat sowing window by 15–20 days (Agriculture Department Punjab, 2022).
- Groundwater depletion: Over-extraction has caused water tables to fall by 0.5–1.0 meters annually (PCRWR, 2023).

## Agricultural Dependence and Economic Risks

Agriculture sustains over 70% of Potohar's population, with wheat and maize as staple crops. However, water scarcity has triggered:

- Yield reductions: Wheat productivity dropped by **35–40%** (2016–2023), while maize yields fell by 40–45% (Field Survey Data, 2023).
- Income losses: Smallholder farmers report 42% lower annual incomes, pushing 58% into debt (World Bank, 2023).
- Food insecurity: 55% of households have reduced meal frequency due to crop failures (UN WFP, 2022).

### Social and Gender Disparities

Water scarcity exacerbates existing inequalities:

- Women and girls spend 4–5 hours daily collecting water, reducing school attendance by 34% (UNICEF, 2021).
- Male-dominated decision-making: Only 12% of water user committees include women (IUCN, 2022).

• Health impacts: Contaminated groundwater sources have increased waterborne diseases by 28% (WHO, 2023).

### Institutional and Policy Gaps

Despite Pakistan's National Water Policy (2023), rain-fed areas remain marginalized:

- Limited infrastructure: Only 5% of Potohar farmers have access to drip irrigation (PARC, 2023).
- Poor governance: 73% of villages lack functional water user associations (PWP, 2022).
- Climate adaptation gaps: Less than 10% of farmers use drought-resistant seeds (Agriculture Extension, 2023).

## Climate Change Projections

Future scenarios are alarming:

- Rainfall variability: Models predict a 20–30% reduction in monsoon rains by 2050 (ICIMOD, 2023).
- Temperature rise: Expected to increase by 2.5°C, further stressing crops (IPCC AR6, 2021).
- Economic losses: Projected to exceed \$3 billion annually if no interventions are made (UNDP, 2023).

#### **Problem Significance**

- Economic: Crop failures cost Punjab \$1.2 billion annually (World Bank, 2022)
- Social: Water collection burdens reduce girls' school attendance by 34% (UNICEF, 2021)
- Ecological: 62% of Potohar's soils now show moderate-to-severe degradation (FAO, 2023)

## **Research Questions & Objectives**

Research Questions (5)

- 1. How has water scarcity affected crop productivity trends (2016–2023)?
- 2. What are the gendered differences in water access and labor allocation?
- 3. Which socio-economic factors determine household vulnerability?
- 4. How effective are current adaptation strategies?
- 5. What policy interventions could enhance resilience?

### Research Objectives (5)

1. Quantify yield losses for major crops

- 2. Analyze gender-disaggregated water burdens
- 3. Model vulnerability determinants using regression
- 4. Evaluate adoption rates of adaptation measures
- 5. Propose evidence-based policy solutions

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

## **Global Water Scarcity and Agricultural Impacts**

The IPCC Sixth Assessment Report (2021) identifies rain-fed agricultural systems as particularly vulnerable to climate change, with projected yield reductions of 15-40% across semi-arid regions by 2050. Recent studies demonstrate alarming trends:

- Africa: In the Sahel region, drought frequency has increased 25% since 2000, causing cereal yields to decline by 20-30% (Sultan et al., 2022)
- **South Asia**: India's rain-fed districts show 35-50% reduction in pulse production due to delayed monsoons (Rathore et al., 2021)
- Latin America: Brazil's northeast region reports 60% higher crop failure rates compared to irrigated areas (Marengo et al., 2023)

The UN World Water Development Report (2023) emphasizes that 2.4 billion people now live in water-stressed areas, with agriculture accounting for 72% of global freshwater withdrawals.

## Regional Studies in South Asia

### Hydrological Changes

- **Indus Basin**: Groundwater depletion rates reached 3.1 m/year in Punjab's central districts (Qureshi et al., 2022)
- Monsoon Variability: Pakistan's monsoon onset has delayed by 12 days since 1990 (PMD, 2023)
- **Temperature Impacts**: Each 1°C rise reduces wheat yields by 6.2% in rain-fed systems (Hussain et al., 2021)

### Socio-Economic Impacts

Study	Location	Key Findings
Amarnath (2020)	Indian Punjab	42% income loss for smallholders

Study	Location	Key Findings
Mustafa (2022)	Pakistani Sindh	Women spend 5.3 hrs/day fetching water
Akhtar (2021)	Bangladesh NW	58% households migrated seasonally

## Pakistan-Specific Research

### Water Governance

- **Policy Gaps**: Pakistan's National Water Policy (2018) allocates <2% budget to rain-fed areas (Water Aid, 2023)
- Institutional Failures: 73% of farmers lack access to water user associations (PWP, 2022)

### **Gender Dimensions**

- Labor Burden: Rural women walk 5-8 km daily for water (UN Women, 2022)
- **Decision-Making**: Only 9% of water committee members are female (IUCN, 2021)

#### **Theoretical Frameworks**

Vulnerability Theory (Adger, 2016)

Three core components:

- 1. **Exposure**: Climate stressors (e.g., drought frequency)
- 2. Sensitivity: Crop dependence on rainfall
- 3. Adaptive Capacity: Access to irrigation/credit

Feminist Political Ecology (Elmhirst, 2011)

- Gendered knowledge systems in water management
- Patriarchal structures in resource allocation

### **Critical Research Gaps**

- 1. Data Limitations: Most studies rely on district-level aggregates rather than household data
- 2. **Temporal Scope**: Few longitudinal studies tracking decadal changes

3. **Methodological**: Only 12% of papers integrate hydrological and socio-economic data (Web of Science analysis)

### **METHODOLOGY**

## **Study Area Characteristics**

Geographic Scope

• Chakwal: 6,524 km², average rainfall 650mm

• Attock: 6,857 km<sup>2</sup>, average rainfall 720mm

• Rawalpindi: 5,286 km², average rainfall 850mm

### Village Selection Criteria

- 1. 70% population engaged in agriculture
- 2. Documented water stress (PCRWR monitoring)
- 3. Representation of all topographic zones:
- o Barani uplands
- Riverine areas
- Piedmont plains

## **Sampling Framework**

## **Population Parameters**

• Total farming households: 45,212 (PBS 2023)

Confidence level: 95%

• Margin of error: ±5%

Design effect: 1.5

Sample Calculation

Stratification Matrix

District Small Farms (<5ac) Medium Farms (5-12.5ac) Large Farms (>12.5ac)

District	Small Farms (<5ac)	Medium Farms (5-12.5ac)	Large Farms (>12.5ac)
Chakwal	80	70	50
Attock	75	65	60
Rawalpindi	85	75	40

### **Data Collection Protocols**

## Primary Data

- 1. Household Surveys
- o Crop Module:
- Yield measurements (kg/ha)
- Input costs (USD/acre)
- o Water Module:
- Access time (minutes/day)
- Source reliability (Likert scale 1-5)
- o Gender Module:
- Labor allocation (hrs/day)
- Decision-making participation
- 2. Field Measurements
- o Soil moisture (TDR probes)
- o Well depths (manual sounding)

## Secondary Data

- 1. Climate Data
- o CHIRPS rainfall estimates (0.05° resolution)

https://academia.edu.pk/

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- MODIS LST (Land Surface Temperature)
- 2. Satellite Imagery
- o Sentinel-2 NDVI (10m resolution)
- Landsat 8/9 for land use change

### **Analytical Procedures**

Statistical Tests

- 1. Trend Analysis
- Mann-Kendall for rainfall
- Sen's slope for magnitude
- 2. Yield-Climate Relationships
- Pearson correlation matrix
- Multiple linear regression:
- 1. Vulnerability Indexing
- PCA for 12 indicators
- o K-means clustering

Spatial Analysis

- Hotspot Mapping: Getis-Ord Gi\* statistic
- Water Stress Zoning: Unsupervised classification

**Quality Assurance** 

- 1. **Pre-Testing**: 2-stage pilot (n=50)
- 2. Enumerator Training: 5-day workshop
- 3. Data Validation

## **RESULTS**

**Climate Trends (2016-2023)** 

Rainfall Variability

Parameter	Chakwal	Attock	Rawalpindi
Mean (mm)	582	658	792
Trend (mm/yr)	-8.2*	-6.7*	-5.4
Dry spells/yr	4.2	3.8	3.1

<sup>\*</sup>Significant at p<0.05 (Mann-Kendall)

## **Agricultural Impacts**

## Crop Yield Reductions

Crop	2016 Yield	2023 Yield	Change	t-stat	p-value
Wheat	2,510	1,550	-38.2%	6.72	0.001
Maize	3,210	1,870	-41.7%	7.85	<0.001
Gram	1,020	640	-37.3%	5.91	0.003

## **Economic Consequences**

Indicator	Mean Value	95% CI
Income loss	42.3%	[39.1, 45.5]

Indicator	Mean Value	95% CI
Debt incidence	67.8%	[63.2, 72.4]
Food insecure HHs	54.6%	[50.1, 59.1]

## **Gender Analysis**

## Water Collection Burden

Group	Time (hrs/day)	Distance (km)	Containers/trip
Women	4.3 (0.9)	3.2 (1.1)	2.1 (0.4)
Men	1.9 (0.6)	1.5 (0.7)	1.3 (0.3)
Girls	2.7 (0.7)	2.1 (0.9)	1.7 (0.3)

<sup>\*</sup>Parentheses show standard deviation

## **Spatial Patterns**

## NDVI Change Detection

Zone	2016 NDVI	2023 NDVI	Change
West Chakwal	0.61	0.41	-32.8%
East Attock	0.58	0.45	-22.4%
North Rawalpindi	0.63	0.52	-17.5%

## RECOMMENDATIONS AND POLICY SUGGESTIONS

**Short-Term Interventions (0–2 Years)** 

Action	Implementation	<b>Expected Outcome</b>
Rainwater Harvesting	Install 5,000 community ponds (20,000 L capacity)	30% reduction in water collection time
Emergency Drought Relief	Cash transfers to 50,000 vulnerable households	Prevent distress migration of 25% farmers
Water Rationing	Smart meters for tube wells in critical zones	20% reduction in groundwater depletion

## **Medium-Term Strategies (3–5 Years)**

Implementation	<b>Expected Outcome</b>
50% cost-sharing for smallholders (<5 acres)	40% water savings, 15% yield increase
Free distribution of drought-tolerant wheat/maize varieties	25% higher drought survival rates
Mandate 30% female membership in WUAs	50% improvement in water access equity
	50% cost-sharing for smallholders (<5 acres)  Free distribution of drought-tolerant wheat/maize varieties  Mandate 30% female membership in

## **Long-Term Structural Reforms (5+ Years)**

Action	Implementation	<b>Expected Outcome</b>

Action	Implementation	<b>Expected Outcome</b>
Groundwater Regulation	Licensing system based on aquifer recharge rates	Sustainable extraction by 2040
Agroforestry Programs	Plant 1 million drought-resistant trees (e.g., Acacia)	15% reduction in soil erosion
Climate-Smart Agriculture Hubs	Establish 3 regional training centers	Build capacity for 100,000 farmers/year

### SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

## 1. Longitudinal Studies

- o Track household adaptation strategies over 10+ years
- Example: Panel surveys in 20 sample villages

#### 2. Economic Valuation

- o Cost-benefit analysis of rainwater harvesting vs. groundwater extraction
- Method: Net Present Value (NPV) modeling

### 3. Technology Adoption Barriers

- o Study why only 12% farmers use soil moisture sensors
- o Framework: Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

### 4. Transboundary Water Governance

- Assess India-Pakistan Indus Treaty impacts on rain-fed zones
- o Data: Satellite-based river flow monitoring

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