ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

Evaluation of Climate Change Impacts on Rainwater Harvesting

Shreshta Bandhu Rastogi, Assistant Professor,

Department of Mechanical Engineering, Teerthanker Mahaveer University, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India Email Id- Shreshtha.polytechnic@tmu.ac.in

ABSTRACT: Because of the increasing worry about water shortage, water management is an essential problem in urban planning. As a consequence, rainwater collecting systems have gotten a lot of interest as a source of alternative water. Rainwater is one of the cleanest forms of water, and a rainwater collecting system can readily obtain it. In general, the performance of a rainwater collecting system is evaluated using historical rainfall data, ignoring any potential climate change effects on rainfall. However, as a result of climate change, rainfall patterns are expected to alter in the future, affecting the effectiveness of a rainwater collecting system. However, there is a scarcity of study on the effects of climate change on rainwater collecting. Based on predicted future rainfall circumstances, the goal of this research is to evaluate the probable effects of climate change on the performance (i.e. water savings, dependability, and water security) of a home rainwater collecting system. To simulate the operation of a rainwater harvesting system, a continuous daily simulation water balance model is created based on behavioral analysis and yield-after-spillage criteria. The research is carried out at five sites throughout Australia's Greater Sydney area. The findings suggest that future climate change circumstances will have a detrimental effect on the functioning of a rainwater collecting system. It was discovered that, in the future, a given tank capacity at the chosen sites will not be able to provide the anticipated amount of water due to changing climatic conditions.

KEYWORDS: Climate, Collect, Harvesting, Population, Rainwater.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to ever-increasing water demand arising from population expansion, rapid urbanization, and industrial development, water supply security has become a significant issue throughout the globe. Furthermore, as a result of growing urbanisation and industrialization, the availability of water resources is dwindling globally due to water contamination Simeonov. Water scarcity affects about 2.4 billion people worldwide (or 36% of the global population) at the moment (IFPRI), with water scarcity being particularly acute in poorer nations. According to the United Nations, the world's population will reach 9.6 billion by 2050, with approximately 70% of that population residing in cities (FAO). Water demand in the household, irrigation, and industrial sectors will be magnified throughout the globe to service this massive population. Several studies predicted that worldwide water consumption will rise by approximately 55 percent by 2050, making naturally restricted water supplies even more precious[1]–[3].

Furthermore, if no adequate adaptation and mitigation measures are done to source new water sources, it is estimated that approximately 52 percent of the world population would be vulnerable to severe water shortages by 2050. (IFPRI). Changes in the climatic condition are regarded to be

ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

another significant influence in water demand and supply, in addition to increasing population, fast urbanisation, and industrialization showed that climate change was one of the influencing factors that adversely influenced catchment water production (i.e. volume decrease) and altered water demand pattern in an Australian research [4].

As a consequence of climate change as a result of global warming, water resource availability may be adversely affected. Evapotranspiration and atmospheric water storages are expected to be altered as a consequence of global warming, which will modify the magnitudes, frequency, and intensities of future rainfall [5]–[7]. Climate change would also have an impact on rainfall variability, both seasonal and interannual, as well as regional distributions. Water scarcity situations are expected to worsen in the future as a result of these probable fluctuations in rainfall and temperature. For example, owing to reduced precipitation and increased evapotranspiration, the author has discovered a declining trend in annual streamflow in 5 of the 8 catchments in Northwest China.

Many areas of the globe have already seen evidence of climate change. Furthermore, evidence of global warming as a result of increased greenhouse gas emissions is mounting (IPCC). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), global mean air temperature may rise by 1.5 Ce4.5 C under high greenhouse gas emission scenarios, based on predictions from global climate models (IPCC). As a result, climate change concerns must be addressed in water resource planning and management to guarantee sufficient water supply in a changing environment.

In general, affluent nations have a lower danger of water scarcity than developing ones. However, providing enough water to cities requires a significant quantity of other resources, such as electricity and infrastructure. As a result, even nations with excellent water balance circumstances between demand and available water resources are constantly assessing options (e.g., water consumption reduction and discovery of new water supply sources) to improve water management. Rainwater for use in structures, particularly residential buildings, is one of the most frequent and flexible alternative sources [8]. The centuries-old tradition of harvesting rainwater has been resurrected, and in the last decade, the globe has seen a growing focus on rainwater harvesting to relieve strain on major water sources and supply water for life in many areas. Rainwater tanks, for example, have grown popular in many Australian towns as a consequence of increased environmental consciousness and the implementation of statutory water restrictions. Rainwater harvesting is also seen as a long-term water resource management strategy[3], [4].

Rainwater harvested from a rainwater harvesting (RWH) system is utilized as the primary or secondary source of water for a residential building's main water supply system. RWHS has been implemented in other types of buildings such as commercial buildings and collective houses in countries such as Japan, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Germany. In general, RWHS consists of three modules: collection, storage, and treatment, with the produced rainwater being utilized for both potable and non-potable purposes depending on the location's water need and availability. RWHS is primarily used to manage water supply shortages in developing countries for both potable and non-potable uses, such as Bangladesh, Botswana, China, India, Kenya, and other

ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

African countries. In developed countries such as Germany, France, Japan, Singapore, and the United States, on the other hand, it is primarily used to supplement main supply for non-potable uses such as toilet and laundry, as well as garden irrigation Rainfall is the most important variable for a RWHS system, and its temporal variability is the most important controlling element in its performance. The most common issue in RWHS design is selecting the best tank size to provide enough water supply for the expected usage. An enormous tank wastes resources (such as energy, time, and money), while an undersized tank will be unable to provide the necessary water demand.

As a result, while developing a RWHS, household requirements and regional features should be taken into account. Many studies on the benefits, design, performance, and feasibility analysis of a RWHS are available in the literature.

To conduct such research, the majority of these studies are based on historical climatic conditions in the study site. Only a few research factored in future unpredictable rainfall events while calculating RWHS dependability. For example, used a Markov Chain method to create ensembles of synthetic rainfall time series to include rainfall uncertainty in a RWHS. Wallace estimated necessary catchment area and tank capacity for a specified dependability using daily rainfall data statistically downscaled from Global Climate Models (GCMs). To include rainfall variability in a RWHS, Lo and Koralegedara combined statistically downscaled rainfall data from GCMs with historical rainfall circumstances. However, as previously stated, rainfall patterns and variability are expected to vary in the future as a result of climate change, which may lead to uncertainty when building a RWHS if the predicted changes in rainfall are not factored in. Understanding how the performance of a rainwater tank varies in response to variations in climatic conditions is critical to the design, management, and growth of RWHS as a source of alternative water. However, there is currently a scarcity of study on the effects of climate change on rainwater collecting[9].

1.1 Future Rainfall Changes:

The CSIRO Mk.3 GCM predicts that annual average rainfall would decrease by 14 to 34 percent at five chosen sites in NSW, Australia, during the next several decades. Katoomba station, which has the highest historical annual average rainfall, will see the greatest decrease in rainfall (approximately 34 percent). The average rainfall in the dry season is projected to drop by 42e65 percent, while average rainfall in the wet season is expected to rise by 0.45e10 percent at four stations, with only Katoomba station showing a 5 percent reduction in wet season rainfall. The results show that climate change will have a greater effect on dry season rainfall, which is anticipated to be drier, than on wet season rainfall, which is expected to be wetter.

Monthly rainfall variations in the future period suggest that the months of January and December will be wetter, since all five rainfall stations show greater rainfall in these two months than in the past. For most of the stations, rainfall is lower than the historical average in all other months. Rainfall in January and December would rise by approximately 15% and 41%, respectively, based on average rainfall increases across all stations; November rainfall would remain unchanged, while rainfall in all other months would drop by roughly 2% e81 percent. Climate change is expected to

ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

have a significant impact on rainfall in the months of April to September, since these months have seen a larger decrease in rainfall than in the past.

1.2 The effects of a RWHS on water savings:

Research paper

In contrast to the historical era, water savings for indoor water demand under 3 kL rainwater tank are expected to be decreased by approximately 2% e14% at 5 stations for the 2020e2039 timeframe.

Katoomba station will be the most affected of the five stations, with the greatest projected decrease in water savings. The decrease in water savings at the stations is most likely linked to the decrease in rainfall at the stations. As previously computed, the decrease in rainfall is expected to be 14 percent e 34 percent of the five stations, resulting in a 2 percent e14 percent loss in water savings. For all tank sizes, the greatest amount of water savings is predicted at Katoomba station, while the least amount of water savings is calculated at Richmond station. These findings also show a link between rainfall quantity and water savings, with Katoomba station having the greatest annual average rainfall and Richmond station having the lowest.

to obtain comparable water savings from 3 kL rainwater tanks, the tank capacity for the stations will need to be raised to various sizes in the future. For example, in Parramatta, Sydney, and Blacktown, the tank size must be increased to 5 kL; in Richmond, the tank size does not need to be changed because the water savings for a 3 kL tank are similar in the historical and future periods; and in Katoomba, the tank size must be increased to 10 kL tank to achieve the same water savings as a 3 kL tank in the historical period.

Outdoor demand is about 16 times [i.e. outdoor demand (1.5 kL)/indoor demand (0.0935 kL)] greater than indoor demand. Outdoor demand saves considerably less water than indoor demand for all tank sizes. Under future rainfall circumstances, water savings for outdoor demand are also expected to decrease. For the five sites, the projected decrease ranges from 0.21 percent to 15.92 percent for 3 kL tanks. The Katoomba stations would see the greatest decrease in water savings (15.92%), since the projected rainfall reduction is the greatest of all the stations. Because outdoor demand controls the quantity of water demanded in combined demand, the results in water savings under future circumstances for combined demand follow the pattern of outdoor demand conditions.

Table 4 shows estimated water savings for the dry and rainy seasons under a 3 kL tank for the past and future periods. The findings show that water savings are lower in the dry season than in the wet season for all stations. For example, estimated water savings in the dry season in Parramatta are 88.65 percent, whereas savings in the wet season are 97.71 percent during the historical period, which is 9 percent higher than the savings in the dry season. When comparing past and projected water savings, it was shown that water savings will decrease throughout the dry season.

2. DISCUSSION

ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

The author has discussed about the evaluation of climate change impacts on rainwater harvesting, Rainwater is one of the purest types of water, and it's easy to collect with a rainwater collection system. In general, the performance of a rainwater collection system is assessed based on historical rainfall data, with any possible climate change impacts on rainfall taken into account. Rainfall patterns are anticipated to change in the future as a consequence of climate change, reducing the efficiency of a rainwater collection system. However, research on the impact of climate change on rainwater collection is limited. The aim of this study is to assess the likely impacts of climate change on the effectiveness (i.e. water savings, reliability, and water security) of a residential rainwater collection system based on projected future rainfall conditions [10]. A continuous daily simulation water balancing model based on behavioral analysis and yield-after-spillage criteria is developed to mimic the functioning of a rainwater collecting system. The reduction in water conservation at the station is most likely due to a decrease in rainfall. The reduction in rainfall is anticipated to be 14 percent e 34 percent of the five stations, leading in a 2 percent e14 percent loss in water savings, as previously calculated. The most water savings are anticipated at Katoomba station for all tank sizes, whereas the least volume of water savings is estimated for Richmond station.

3. CONCLUSION

The performance of a rainwater collecting system under changing climatic conditions in the future was examined in this research at five sites in Australia's Greater Sydney area. The findings show that future rainfall reductions will have a detrimental impact on the functioning of a RWHS. In compared to the historical era, water savings from a 3 kL rainwater tank are expected to be reduced by 2% e14 percent for indoor consumption, 0.21 percent e15.92 percent for outdoor demand, and 0.79 percent e 19.68 percent for combined demand in the future time. The number of days it takes a 3 kL rainwater tank to satisfy the water demand (reliability) is expected to be decreased by 3% e16 percent for indoor demand, 19% e30 percent for outdoor demand, and 19% e31 percent for combined demand. Furthermore, the likelihood of a rainwater tank being entirely empty will certainly rise.

The performance of a RWHS is shown to be substantially impacted during the months of June to September (dry season in Sydney); the most probable cause is a greater percentage of rainfall decrease in those months in the future period, as predicted by the global climate model. The study's findings show that the dry season has a greater effect on a RWHS' performance than the rainy season. Seasonal variations in rainfall would have a greater effect on a RWHS' performance for outdoor demand than for interior demand.

One of the study's main conclusions is that a 3 kL rainwater tank will not be able to supply the same amount of water in the future as it does now. According to the findings, all of the stations will need a rainwater tank with a larger storage capacity in order to achieve the same performance as a 3 kL tank. These results suggest that climatic change circumstances should be considered while developing an effective RWHS to determine the best tank size to meet future requirements. This research is based on rainfall predictions from a single global climate model, which will be

ISSN PRINT 2319 1775 Online 2320 7876

Research paper

© 2012 IJFANS. All Rights Reserved, UGC CARE Listed (Group -I) Journal Volume 11, Iss 8, August 2022

supplemented by projections from several global climate models in the future. The results and methods used in this research, on the other hand, will aid policymakers and homeowners in understanding the effect of climate change circumstances on RWHS performance.

REFERENCES

- [1] O. O. Aladenola and O. B. Adeboye, "Assessing the potential for rainwater harvesting," *Water Resour. Manag.*, 2010, doi: 10.1007/s11269-009-9542-y.
- [2] Y. GDumit Gomez and L. G. Teixeira, "Residential rainwater harvesting: Effects of incentive policies and water consumption over economic feasibility," *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.resconrec.2017.08.015.
- [3] B. Helmreich and H. Horn, "Opportunities in rainwater harvesting," *Desalination*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.desal.2008.05.046.
- [4] M. M. Haque, A. Rahman, and B. Samali, "Evaluation of climate change impacts on rainwater harvesting," J. Clean. Prod., 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.07.038.
- [5] O. Aladenola, A. Cashman, and D. Brown, "Impact of El Niño and Climate Change on Rainwater Harvesting in a Caribbean State," *Water Resour. Manag.*, 2016, doi: 10.1007/s11269-016-1362-2.
- [6] L. Woltersdorf, S. Liehr, and P. Döll, "Rainwater harvesting for small-holder horticulture in Namibia: Design of garden variants and assessment of climate change impacts and adaptation," *Water (Switzerland)*, 2015, doi: 10.3390/w7041402.
- [7] S. Lebel, L. Fleskens, P. M. Forster, L. S. Jackson, and S. Lorenz, "Evaluation of In Situ Rainwater Harvesting as an Adaptation Strategy to Climate Change for Maize Production in Rainfed Africa," *Water Resour. Manag.*, 2015, doi: 10.1007/s11269-015-1091-y.
- [8] D. N. Pandey, A. K. Gupta, and D. M. Anderson, "Rainwater harvesting as an adaptation to climate change," *Current Science*. 2003.
- [9] K. E. Lee, M. Mokhtar, M. Mohd Hanafiah, A. Abdul Halim, and J. Badusah, "Rainwater harvesting as an alternative water resource in Malaysia: Potential, policies and development," J. Clean. Prod., 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.03.060.
- [10] L. N. Fisher-Jeffes, N. P. Armitage, and K. Carden, "The viability of domestic rainwater harvesting in the residential areas of the liesbeek river catchment, Cape Town," *Water SA*, 2017, doi: 10.4314/wsa.v43i1.11.