

The delineation of alluvial aquifers towards a better understanding of channel transmission losses in the Limpopo River Basin

V. Mvandaba^{a,b*}, D. Hughes^b, E. Kapangaziwiri^a, J. Mwenge Kahinda^a, P. Hobbs^a, S. Madonsela^a and N. Oosthuizen^{a,b}

^a CSIR, Natural Resources and Environment, PO Box 395, Pretoria 0001, South Africa

^bInstitute for Water Research, Rhodes University, P Bag 94, Grahamstown, 6140, South Africa.

Abstract

Understanding the impact of key hydrological processes on the availability of water resources is an integral component of equitable and sustainable integrated water resource management. Previous hydrological studies conducted in the Limpopo River Basin have revealed a gap in the understanding of surface water-groundwater interactions, particularly channel transmission loss processes. These studies, focused largely on the Limpopo River's main stem, have attributed the existence of these streamflow losses to the presence of significant alluvial aquifers and indicated that the losses account for about 30 percent (or 1000 Mm³ a⁻¹) of the basin's water balance. This paper reports on the delineation of alluvial aquifers across the Luvuvhu sub-basin using Landsat-8 imagery and the estimation of potential transmission losses based on the aquifer properties. To delineate alluvial aquifers, general land cover classes including alluvial aquifers were produced from Landsat-8 imagery through image classification. The areal extent of the delineated alluvial aquifers was calculated using ArcMap 10.3 Results indicate that the alluvial aquifers occur as relatively narrow channel alluvial deposits (32-124 m in width) and extensive vegetated floodplain deposits. In the Luvuvhu sub-basin, these are mostly located along the lower reach of the 200 km long meandering Luvuvhu River. The outcome of the delineation of the alluvial aquifer is seen to be consistent with existing regional hydrogeological maps. Based on the characteristics and size of the aquifer it is estimated that the capacity of the aquifer is approximately 9.34 Mm³, which could be 'lost' from the Luvuvhu River system at any given point in time. The actual transmission losses however depend on a number of factors including the level of flow, the size of the aquifer in contact with the riverbed, regional slope for water loss into the adjacent areas, antecedent moisture content of the aquifer and riparian evapotranspiration.

Keywords: Alluvial aquifers, Hydrological Modelling, Luvuvhu sub-basin, Surface water-groundwater interaction.

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +27 12 841 4641
E-mail address: vmvandaba@csir.co.za (V. Mvandaba)

39 **1 Introduction**

40 **1.1 Integrated water resources management in the Limpopo River Basin**

41 Sustainable socioeconomic development within the Limpopo River Basin depends on the
42 implementation of integrated water resources management during policy-making ().
43 Integrated water resources management (IWRM) is based on the understanding that water,
44 land and other natural resources are interlinked and need to be managed holistically
45 (Malzbender and Earle, 2007). It is widely accepted as ‘*a process which promotes*
46 *coordinated development and management of water, land and related resources, in order to*
47 *maximise the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without*
48 *compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems.*’ (GWP, 2000). Understanding the
49 impact of key hydrological processes on the availability of water resources has therefore been
50 identified as an integral component of equitable and sustainable water resource management.
51 A review of previous hydrological studies (Görgens *et al.*, 1991; Görgens and Boroto, 1997;
52 JULBS, 1991; Meyer and Hill, 2013) conducted in the Limpopo River Basin has revealed a
53 gap in the understanding of surface water-groundwater interactions, particularly channel
54 transmission loss processes. These studies attribute the existence of streamflow losses to the
55 presence of significant alluvial aquifers and indicated that the losses account for about 30
56 percent (or 1000 Mm³ a⁻¹) of the basin’s water balance. The focus of these studies, however,
57 has been primarily on alluvial aquifers along the Limpopo River’s main stem, and therefore
58 streamflow loss processes in sub-basins remain largely unknown.

59 **1.2 Alluvial aquifers**

60 An alluvial aquifer is described as “an aquifer comprising unconsolidated material deposited
61 by water, typically occurring adjacent to rivers and buried palaeochannels.” (DWS, 2011).
62 The distribution of alluvial deposits (aquifers) is determined by the river gradient, geometry
63 of the channel, fluctuation of stream power as a function of decreasing discharge downstream
64 due to evaporation and infiltration losses, as well as rates of sediment input due to erosion
65 (Moyce *et al.*, 2006). The geomorphology of the Limpopo River is characterised by 100 m to
66 500 m wide alluvial deposits ranging in thickness between 5 and 10 m, as well as rocky
67 outcrops and floodplains in the upper and middle reaches and extensive floodplains further
68 downstream (Boroto and Görgens, 2003). The aquifers comprise mainly unconsolidated
69 Quaternary sequences of clay, sand and gravel beds (CSIR, 2003; Gomo and van Tonder,
70 2013), and are sources of groundwater abstraction for multiple communities due to their high
71 permeabilities (Owen and Madari, 2010) and good water quality (CSIR, 2003; Moyce *et al.*,

72 2006). The alluvial aquifers along the Limpopo River are considered to have the potential for
73 high yields, whereas those along tributaries such as the Luvuvhu River display much lower
74 potential due to limited aquifer extent and less than optimum hydraulic characteristics (CSIR,
75 2003).

76 **1.3 Delineation of alluvial aquifers**

77 Traditional methods of identifying and marking the extent of alluvial aquifers have included
78 field observations, the use of geological and hydrogeological maps as well as aerial
79 photography (DWAF, 2005; Meijerink *et al.*, 2007). More recently, the application of remote
80 sensing techniques and mapping using geographical information systems (GIS) to
81 hydrogeology and other scientific fields, has proven more beneficial in terms of time and
82 cost-efficiency for observing inaccessible locations, acquiring up-to-date imagery as well as
83 covering larger geographical areas (Meijerink, 1996; Meijerink *et al.*, 2007; Campbell and
84 Wynne, 2011). Studies that have delineated alluvial aquifers using remote sensing and GIS
85 techniques have focused primarily on identifying groundwater recharge sites and
86 groundwater potential development zones (Khan and Moharana, 2002; Solomon and Quiel,
87 2006; Javed and Wani, 2009; Saha *et al.*, 2010; Magesh *et al.*, 2012; Elbeih, 2015). Few
88 others have looked at physiographical soil mapping (Afify *et al.*, 2010; Dobos *et al.* 2013)
89 and characterising the soil, hydrogeological and physical characteristics of alluvial aquifers
90 for water estimation purposes (Millaresis and Argialas, 2000; Moyce *et al.* 2006). The
91 methods employed to locate, measure and characterise alluvial aquifers through remote
92 sensing and GIS techniques have included the use of: multi-layer spatial analysis (Khan and
93 Moharana, 2002), LiDAR-derived vegetation heights which give indication of the extent of
94 alluvium along river systems (Levick and Rogers, 2011) and manual digitisation using
95 Landsat 7 False Colour Composite (FCC) images (Moyce *et al.*, 2006). The study by Moyce
96 *et al.* (2006) demonstrated the possibility of distinguishing channel alluvial deposits from
97 floodplain alluvial deposits and similarly, the approach is applied in this study.

98 **1.4 Channel transmission losses**

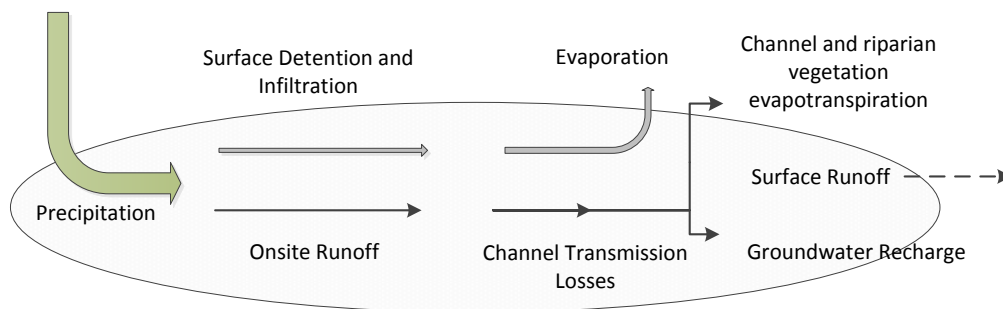
99 Channel transmission losses describe surface water and groundwater interactions where
100 streamflow is reduced by infiltration through the river bed, seepage into channel banks and
101 flood plains (Walters, 1990). Compared to other hydrological processes, information on
102 channel transmission losses remains largely lacking, however the dynamics between alluvial
103 aquifers (alluvium) and channel transmission losses have been covered by several
104 hydrological studies across the world (Walters, 1990; Hughes and Sami, 1992; Boroto and

105 Görgens, 2003; Smathkin, 2001; Lange, 2005; Hughes, 2008; Renard *et al.*, 2008; Morin *et*
106 *al.*, 2009; Owen and Madari, 2010; Costa *et al.*, 2012; Jarihani *et al.*, 2015).

107 From these studies it is understood that, due to their water storage capabilities, the presence
108 of alluvial aquifers results in significant channel transmission losses in ephemeral river
109 systems found in semi-arid catchments such as the Limpopo River Basin (LRB) of southern
110 Africa (Boroto and Görgens, 2003; LBPTC, 2010;). Figure 1 illustrates what is conceptually
111 understood to occur in ephemeral channels when runoff traverses dry alluvial streambeds. In
112 the LRB, as is similar in other semi-arid regions, factors that contribute to these losses
113 typically include (Smakhtin and Watkins, 1997; Boroto and Görgens, 2003):

- 114 • Infiltration and extraction from bank storage,
- 115 • Recharge of storage in alluvial channel beds,
- 116 • Evaporation and evapotranspiration from the recharged beds and banks,
- 117 • Evapotranspiration from riparian vegetation, and
- 118 • Direct evaporation from the free water surface.

119



120

121 Figure 1. Illustration of what conceptually happens in ephemeral channels where runoff
122 traverses dry alluvial streambeds. (Adapted from Renard *et al.*, 2008)

123 Further discussion of the hydrological processes involved in channel transmission losses can
124 be found in Renard (1970), Abdulrazzak and Morel-Seytoux (1983), Knighton and Nanson
125 (1994), Lange *et al.* (1998), Dunkerley and Brown (1999), Lange (2005), Konrad (2006),
126 Dahan *et al.* (2007, 2008) and Dag'és *et al.* (2008), Renard *et al.* (2008) and Jarihani *et al.*
127 (2015). The behaviour of channel transmission losses is summarised by Costa *et al.* (2012):
128 "...small sub-bank flows must firstly fill pool abstractions and channel filaments in order to
129 propagate downstream; then bank-full flows infiltrate predominantly into bed and levees;
130 and, at high stream discharges, overbank flows lose water for pools, subsidiary channels and
131 floodplains, but once they become fully saturated, the most direct floodways become fully
132 active and channel transmission losses decrease." According to Costa *et al.* (2012) this

133 behaviour is dependent on the seasonality of precipitation and runoff, the underlying
134 groundwater system and flow and the (micro-)layered structure of alluvial and floodplain
135 sediments.

136 Ultimately, channel transmission losses affect the availability of streamflow, hence it is
137 imperative to understand their role in the alluvial aquifers of the LRB.

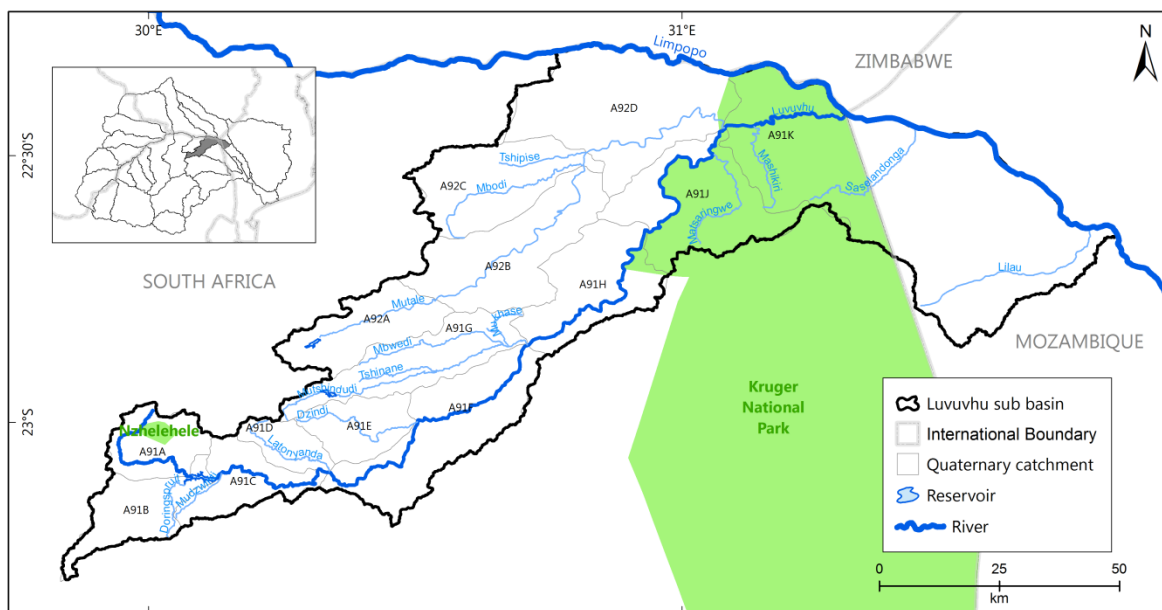
138 **1.5 Estimation of channel transmission losses**

139 Quantitative estimation of channel transmission losses through alluvial aquifers requires a
140 conceptual understanding of the processes that govern water flow in the system and the
141 hydraulic properties of these aquifers (Costa *et al.*, 2012). Several methods of estimating
142 transmission losses and groundwater recharge using field-based applications are reviewed by
143 Shanafield and Cook (2014). These include controlled infiltration experiments, monitoring
144 changes in water content, using heat as a tracer of infiltration and conducting reach length
145 water balances. Walter *et al.* (2012) investigate the estimation of aquifer recharge through
146 visual analyses of satellite imagery, but indicate that the methods applied are best suited for
147 explaining the spatial distribution of relative channel losses. For quantitative estimates of
148 absolute losses, the study stipulates that in-stream flow measurements are required.
149 According to Walter *et al.* (2012) and Shanafield and Cook (2014), streamflow losses into the
150 underlying alluvium can be estimated by measuring discharge at two points in the channel
151 system. If hydrometric data are available upstream and downstream of a channel reach,
152 inflow and outflow volumes may be compared and transmission losses quantified (Tanner,
153 2013). Volumes of transmission loss may be related to flow and channel characteristics by
154 means of regression analysis (Lange, 2005); however, this approach can be complicated by
155 unknown lateral inflows (Tanner, 2013). The methods investigated by both Shanafield and
156 Cook (2014) and Walter *et al.* (2012) do however indicate the importance of approaching
157 transmission loss estimation holistically - *“Therefore, interdisciplinary studies linking the*
158 *transmission losses (hydrology), infiltration (hydrology/soil physics), riparian response*
159 *(ecology), and aquifer response (hydrogeology) would be extremely beneficial to the general,*
160 *applied understanding of arid zone processes”* (Shanafield and Cook, 2014). In deriving a
161 volumetric estimate of potential alluvial groundwater resources, Owen *et al.* (1989) utilised
162 the product of the volume of the saturated aquifer and the specific yield of the aquifer. Moyce
163 *et al.* (2006) used the product of the saturated aquifer thickness, the aquifer areal extents and
164 specific yield to estimate water resources related to alluvial aquifers in the Mzingwane
165 catchment of Zimbabwe.

166 To build on the knowledge of transmission loss processes in the Limpopo River Basin, this
167 study delineates alluvial aquifers in the Luvuvhu sub-basin utilising Landsat 8 imagery and
168 remote sensing techniques, and estimates the potential streamflow losses to the alluvial
169 aquifer by using available hydrogeological data from previous regional studies as well as the
170 derived aquifer extents.

171 2 Study Area

172 The Luvuvhu (Levuvhu) sub-basin (Figure 2) is one of the 27 sub-basins which make up the
173 transboundary Limpopo River Basin (LRB) of southern Africa (Meyer and Hill, 2013). The
174 sub-basin, which straddles the border between South Africa and Mozambique in the north of
175 the Kruger National Park, is situated on the right bank of the Limpopo River between
176 coordinates 22°17'57" - 23°17'31"S and 29°49'16" - 31°23'02"E, covering an area of 5 941
177 km² (Kundu *et al.*, 2014).



178
179 Figure 2. The location of the Luvuvhu sub-basin of the Limpopo River Basin

180 The Luvuvhu River rises in the Soutpansberg mountain range and flows for 200 km through a
181 diverse range of landscapes before joining the Limpopo River at Crook's Corner near Pafuri,
182 an area which marks the three-point boundary between Zimbabwe, South Africa and
183 Mozambique (SoR, 2001). In South Africa the Luvuvhu sub-basin forms part of the Limpopo
184 Water Management Area (WMA) (DWS, 2016). It is divided into 14 Quaternary catchments,
185 namely A91A to A91K and A92A to A92D (DWAf, 2004). A Quaternary catchment is a
186 fourth order catchment in a hierarchical classification system in which a Primary catchment is

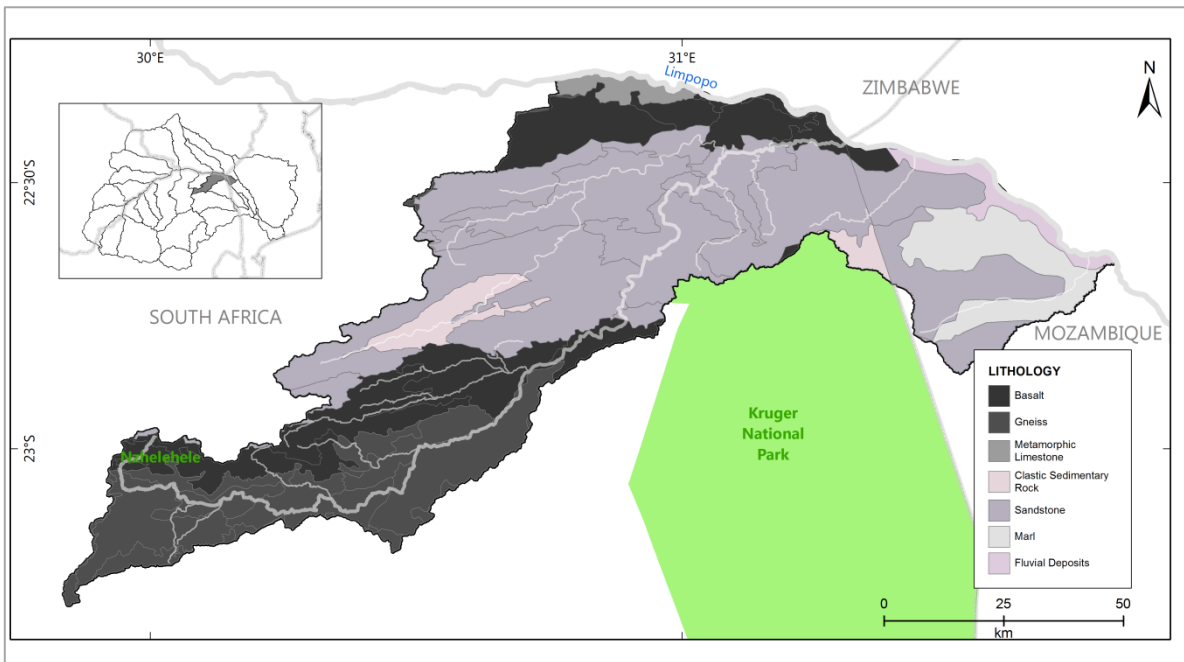
187 the major unit (DWS, 2011). It is used as the basic unit for water resource management in
188 South Africa (Odiyo *et al.*, 2012).

189 The topography of the Luvuvhu sub-basin is characterised by mountainous highlands in the
190 southwest, deep gorges across the length of the sub-basin which run parallel to the river
191 channel and low-lying floodplains in the northeast (DWA, 2004). In the Soutpansberg
192 Mountains, which mark the headwaters of the Luvuvhu River, elevations are as high as 1587
193 metres above sea level (m.a.s.l.) and gently decrease through the steeply-incised Luvuvhu and
194 Lanner Gorges before reaching 200 m.a.s.l at the Pafuri floodplain near the Limpopo River
195 confluence (SoR, 2001; DWA, 2012).

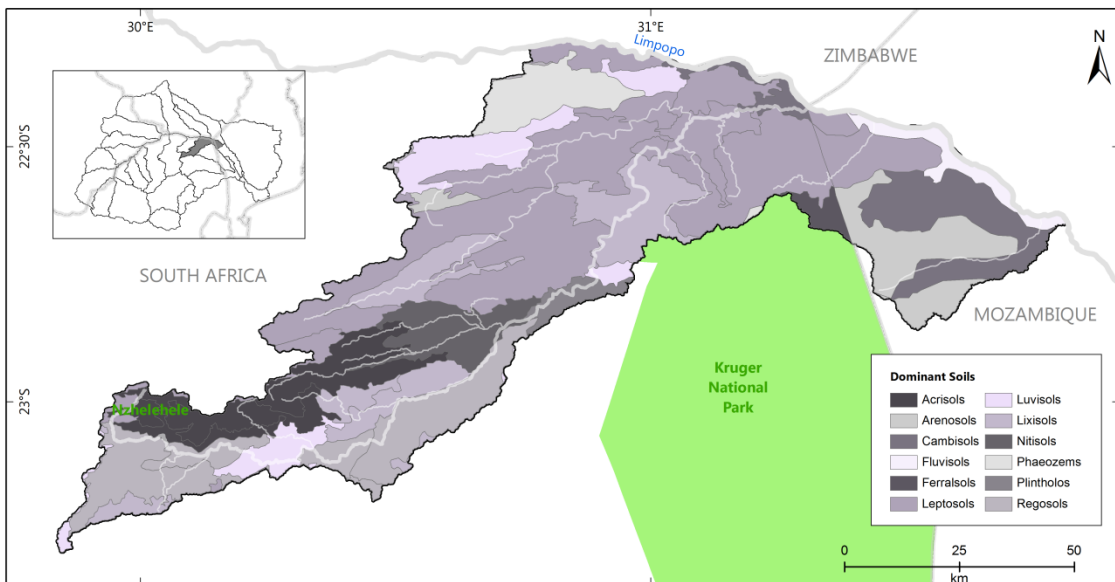
196 The distinct change in topography gives rise to varied climatic conditions across the length of
197 the sub-basin. Climate ranges from humid areas in the mountainous southwest to warmer,
198 more arid areas in the north-eastern lowveld (DWA, 2012). The mean annual temperature
199 ranges from about 18°C in the mountainous areas to more than 28°C in the northern and
200 eastern parts of the sub-basin, with an average of about 25.5°C for the Limpopo WMA as a
201 whole. Maximum temperatures are experienced in January and minimum temperatures occur
202 on average in July (DWA, 2012).

203 Rainfall and evaporation in the Luvuvhu sub-basin is characterised by high spatial and
204 temporal variation with the highest rainfall and lowest potential evaporation over the
205 Soutpansberg mountain range, and the lowest rainfall and highest potential evaporation on
206 the northeastern low-lying plains (Jewitt *et al.*, 2004). Rainfall occurs mainly during the
207 summer months (October to March) and is strongly influenced by the topography (DWA,
208 2012; Odiyo *et al.*, 2015). The mean annual precipitation (MAP) varies from 450 mm on the
209 low-lying plains to 1149 mm in the mountainous areas (Meyer and Hill, 2013). The
210 combination of wetter, cooler conditions and steep slopes in the southwest contributes to this
211 region providing the major component of the sub-basin's water resources (DWA, 2012). The
212 mean total potential evaporation is 1678 mm (Jewitt *et al.*, 2004). Natural runoff in the basin
213 is indicated as 560 mm a⁻¹ (Meyer and Hill, 2013).

214 Hydrogeological systems in the area are characterised by fractured and hard rock aquifers
215 | ([Figure 3](#)), and extensive areas of floodplain alluvium occur at the confluence of the Luvuvhu
216 | and Limpopo rivers (SoR, 2001). Soil types ([Figure 4](#)) are varied Leptosols (sandy loam) and
217 | Cambisols (clayey loam) most common in the lowlands (Ashton *et al.*, 2001; Batjies, 2004).



218
219 Figure 3. Dominant lithology in the Luvuvhu sub-basin (source?)



220
221 Figure 4. Dominant soil types across the Luvuvhu sub-basin (Batjies, 2004)

222 Groundwater contributes to baseflow throughout the catchment via subsurface seepage and
 223 springs (DWAF, 2004). Recharge was calculated as 4 percent of the MAP (Meyer and Hill,
 224 2013). Aquifer productivity in the sub-basin ranges from 0.1- 0.5 L s⁻¹ in the southern regions
 225 of the sub-basin, to 1-5 L s⁻¹ in the north (MacDonald *et al.*, 2012).

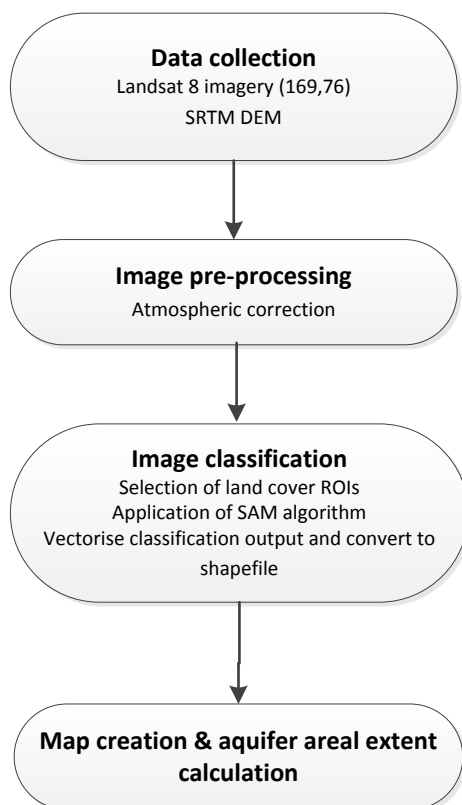
226 Land-use activities in the Luvuvhu sub-basin include commercial forestry (4%) in the upper
 227 reaches of the Luvuvhu and Latonyanda rivers, commercial dry land agriculture (10%),
 228 commercial irrigation agriculture (3%), range land (50%), conservation areas (30%) and
 229 urban areas (3%) (Griscom, 2010; Odiyo *et al.*, 2015).

230 3 Methods and materials

231 3.1 Aquifer delineation

232 Remote sensing and GIS techniques were used to identify and delineate alluvial aquifers
233 within the sub-basin, and existing literature and hydrogeological datasets consulted to verify
234 the alluvial deposits and determine the hydraulic properties of the aquifer. [Figure 5](#) illustrates
235 the methods applied in delineating alluvial aquifers in the Luvuvhu sub-basin.

236



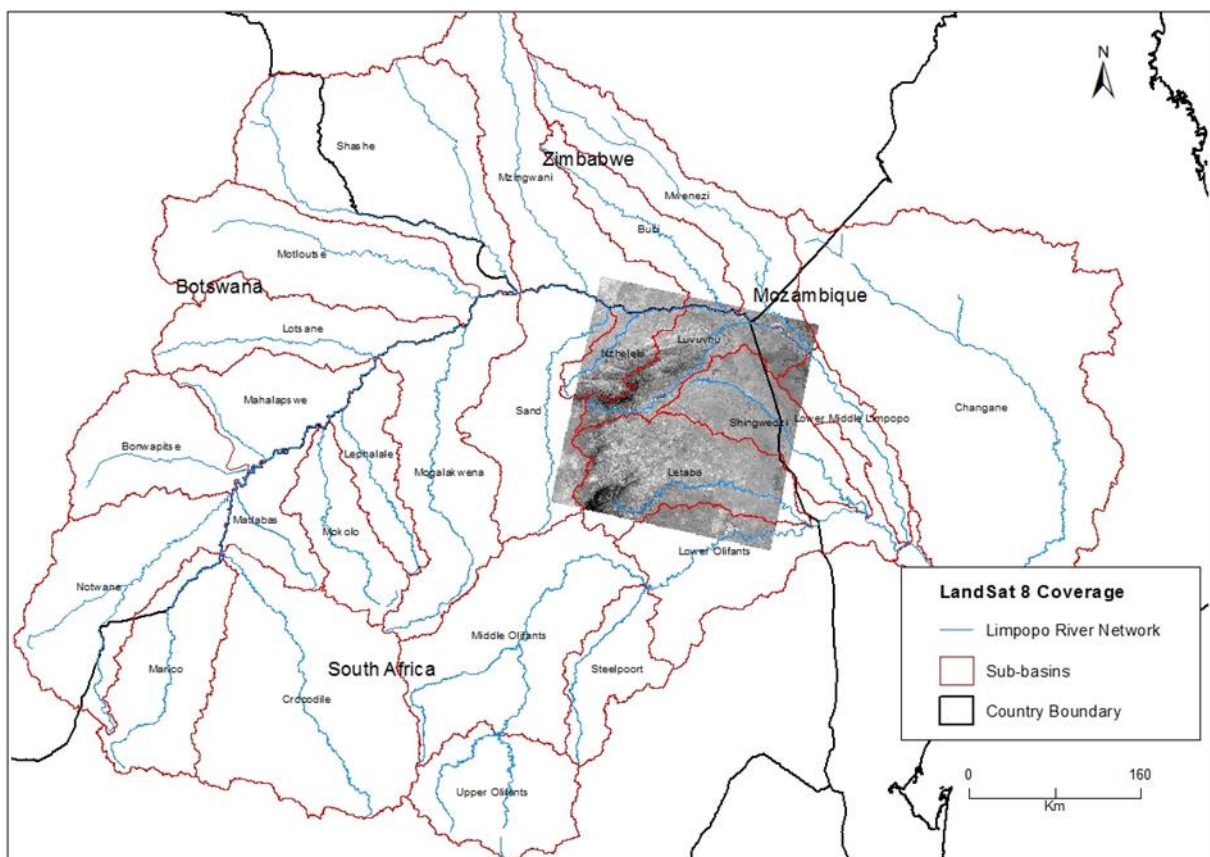
237

238 Figure 5. Approach applied to delineating alluvial aquifers in the Luvuvhu sub-basin

239 3.1.1 Data collection

240 The primary data used for alluvial aquifer delineation comprised georeferenced multispectral
241 Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI) imagery and Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission
242 (SRTM) Digital Elevation Model (DEM) Both datasets have global coverage, are well
243 calibrated and processed and available freely from reliable sources. Landsat 8 imagery (Path
244 169, Row 76) (Figure 6) captured on 8 August 2015, were downloaded from the United
245 States Geological Society (USGS) (<https://glovis.usgs.gov/>) download portal with geometric
246 correction already implemented. In southern Africa, August represents the dry season and
247 since alluvial plains deposits are often used for agricultural purposes in the Limpopo River
248 Basin (Ashton *et al.*, 2001; Moyce *et al.*, 2006), it was important to use dry season image in

249 order to maximise the spectral distinction between naturally-occurring and irrigated
 250 vegetation. Landsat-8 is a multispectral sensor with eight spectral bands in the visible, near
 251 infrared (NIR) and shortwave infrared (SWIR) regions and collects data at a spatial resolution
 252 of 30m. The 12-bit quantisation of data has enhanced the signal-to-noise radiometric
 253 performance of Landsat-8 thus increasing its utility for landcover mapping (Pervez *et al.*,
 254 2016). A 30m SRTM DEM data was downloaded from the Remote Pixel download portal
 255 (<https://remotepixel.ca/>) and used in the atmospheric correction of Landsat-8 images.
 256 Landsat-8 images were atmospherically corrected using ATCOR-3 software which accounts
 257 for topographic effect. Ancillary data, to verify the location and extent of the identified
 258 alluvial aquifers, included literature (SoR, 2001; CSIR, 2003) and GIS spatial datasets
 259 (DWAF, 2001; Batjies, 2004) from previous hydrogeological studies conducted in southern
 260 Africa which detail the hydraulic properties of alluvial aquifers in the region. Table 1
 261 indicates the description and sources of the data used.
 262



263
 264 Figure 6 Landsat 8 OLI coverage of the Luvuvhu sub-basin.

265 Table 1. Spatial data collected and used in the study

Data set	Description	Spatial Resolution	Source
----------	-------------	--------------------	--------

Satellite imagery	LandSat 8 OLI ^a coverage of study area	30 m	USGS, 2015
Elevation	SRTM ^b digital elevation model	30 m	Jarvis, 2008
Terrain slope	SRTM digital elevation model	30 m	Jarvis, 2008
Soil types	Regional soil classification	1:2 000 000	Batjies, 2004
Dominant lithology	Messina 2127 hydrogeological map	1:500 000	DWAF, 2002
River Network	Delineation of Limpopo River Basin river network	1:5 000 000	Howard <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Land cover and use	Google Earth coverage of study area	30 m	Google Earth, 2016

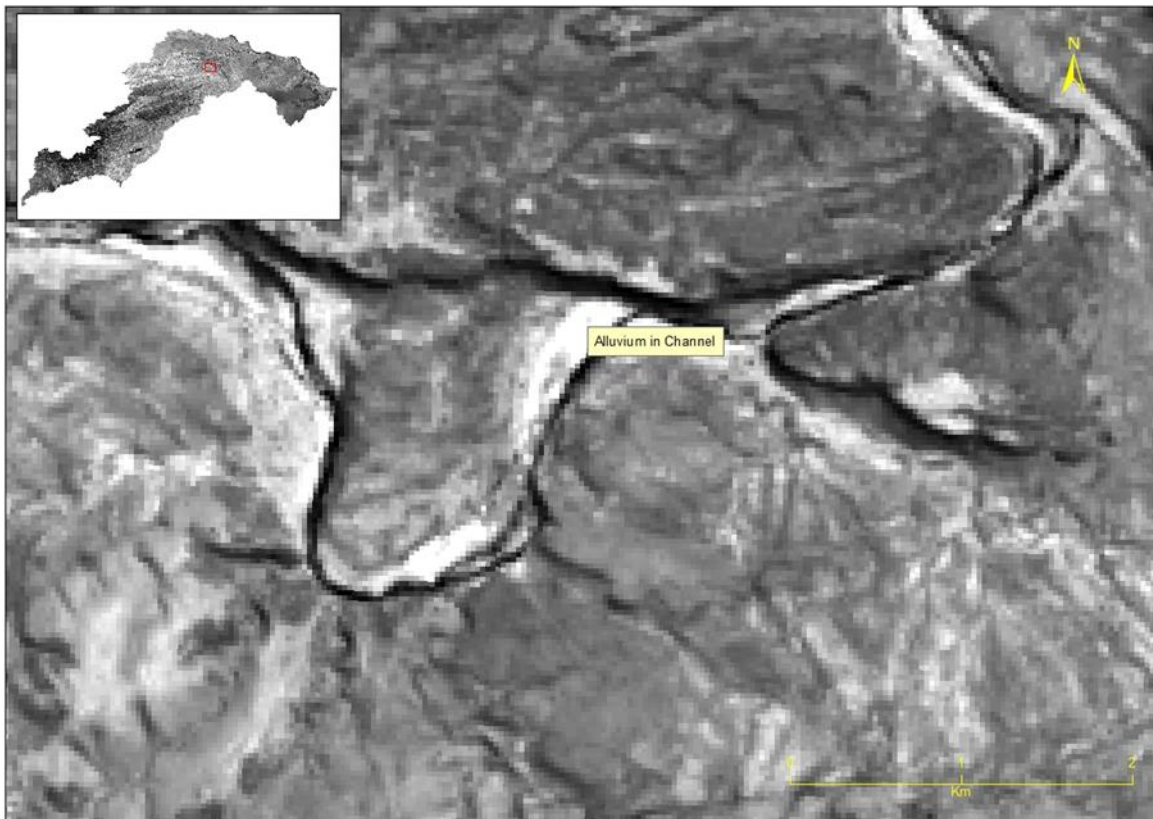
266 ^aOLI Operational Land Imager

267 ^bSRTM Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission

268

269 3.1.2 Image classification

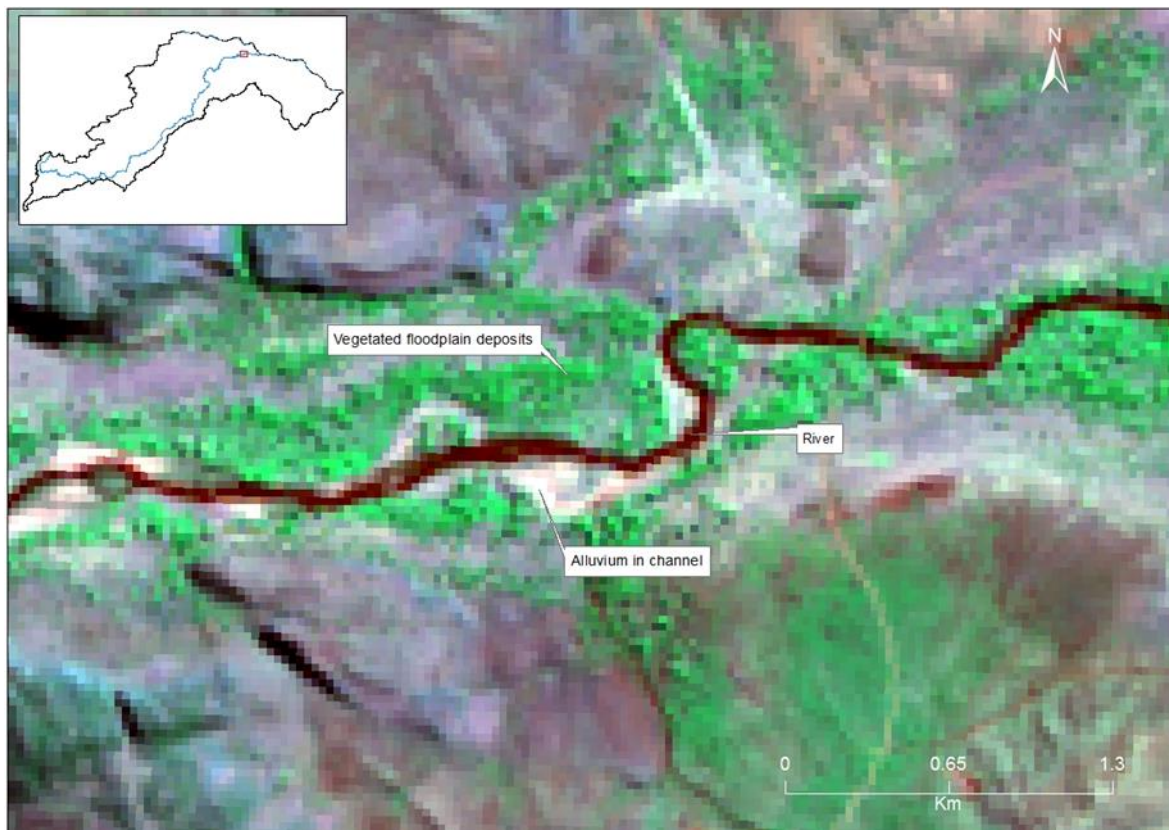
270 To delineate alluvial aquifers, general land cover classes including alluvial aquifers were
271 produced from Landsat-8 imagery through image classification. Image classification was
272 implemented using Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM). Essentially, SAM is a similarity measure
273 that computes the level of similarity between two spectra and is insensitive to illumination-
274 induced differences among spectra. A high angle between spectra indicates that the two
275 objects are spectrally separable (Keshava, 2004). SAM has been used successfully in other
276 studies (Cho *et al.*, 2010; Madonsela *et al.*, 2017) and we expected it to classify alluvial
277 aquifers accurately. Interpretation of the Landsat 8 image was based on supervised
278 classification and analysis of panchromatic Band 8 and false colour composites produced
279 from Band 4, Band 5, and Band 6, using ENVI 4.8. Alluvial deposits stand out as bright
280 white areas within the extent of the river channel on a panchromatic band (Figure 7). In the
281 FCC RGB 456 image, the dry alluvial deposits are also white with moist sands reflecting an
282 off-white pink hue. Sands that are more saturated reflect a brighter pink and regions where
283 surface flow is prominent are a bright to deep red (Figure 8). The floodplain alluvial deposits
284 are identified by the green riverine zone that lines the channel boundary, representing
285 naturally vegetated deposits.



286
287
288

Figure 7 On the panchromatic image of LandSat 8 (169, 76), channel alluvium stands out as bold white deposits within the extent of the river channel.

289



290

291 Figure 8 On the false colour composite image (RGB 456) of LandSat 8 (169, 76), the
 292 contrast between channel alluvium, vegetated floodplain deposits and river
 293 (with streamflow) can be observed.

294 Land cover classification involved the identification of 8 land cover classes (Table 2) and
 295 collection of regions of interest (ROIs) in the Landsat scene; an average of 33 pixels was
 296 assigned to each ROI. The chosen land cover classes were based on land cover and land use
 297 characteristics verified with existing land cover studies (Kundu *et al.*, 2015) and 2016 Google
 298 Earth image. Each class had 40 ROIs that were used for training the classifying algorithm i.e.
 299 SAM. The algorithm was applied with a pixel angle of 0.15 to obtain the land cover
 300 classification results (Figure 9). An accuracy assessment of the land cover classification was
 301 conducted using an unprocessed Landsat image as reference data. A collection of 10 ROIs
 302 per class was used to classify regions on the reference data that correspond to the 8 classes
 303 identified in Table 2, and to compute a confusion matrix that reveals the accuracy of the
 304 classification.

305 Table 2. Description of classes chosen for land cover classification

Class name	Description
Channel alluvial deposits	Alluvial deposits confined within the boundary of the river channel; river bed alluvium
Vegetated floodplain deposits	Naturally vegetated riverine zone that lines the river channel
River	Areas indicating streamflow within the river channel
Dams	Artificial (man-made) water bodies
Built-up areas	Urban residential areas and industrial sites including shopping complexes, mines/quarries
Rural settlements	Open cleared fields with isolated buildings
Cultivated areas	Irrigated and non-irrigated agricultural lands, centre pivots and forest plantations
Open grassland	Bare land with no fences/boundaries

306
 307 Post image classification, three classes i.e. channel alluvial deposits, vegetated floodplain
 308 deposits and river which define alluvial aquifers were vectorised and converted to shapefiles
 309 for the areal extent to be determined using the GIS software, ArcMap 10.3. In ArcMap 10.3,
 310 the areal extent of identified alluvial deposits was calculated by manually digitizing the
 311 boundary determined by the classification. This process was implemented to ensure that

312 misclassified or missing pixels within the boundary of alluvial deposits could be accounted
313 for. Other studies (Griscom *et al.*, 2010; Kundu *et al.*, 2015) in the region have successfully
314 characterised the land use and cover of the Luvuvhu sub-basin with some indication of the
315 location and extent of alluvial deposits however, they do not report the actual size and
316 characteristics of the deposits.

317 **3.1.3 Estimation of saturated aquifer volume**

318 The volume of water that can be stored in the alluvium was calculated from estimated
319 saturated aquifer thickness, the derived areal extents and the effective porosity of the soil
320 material making up the alluvial deposit. The method applied is discussed by Masike (2007).
321 The equation used is as follows:

$$V_w = A \times b \times \tilde{n} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

322 where: V_w = Aquifer Capacity, A = Areal extent of aquifer, b = Estimated Aquifer
323 Thickness and \tilde{n} = average porosity

324 The estimated saturated aquifer thickness and effective porosity are based on previous
325 hydrogeological work conducted in southern Africa for similar alluvial aquifer environments
326 in neighbouring sub-basins. Field results from Love *et al.*, (2007), McCormick, (2010) and
327 Cobbing *et al.*, (2008) respectively recorded saturated alluvial aquifer thicknesses of 1.60 m
328 to 2.45 m for the Mushawe alluvial aquifer in the Mwenezi sub-basin, 0.5 m to more than
329 2.00 m for an upper stream alluvial aquifer in the Letaba sub-basin and an average of 3.5 m
330 for the alluvial aquifer underlying the main stem of the Limpopo River. While, the effective
331 porosities recorded in the region are 32.5% (McCormick, 2010), 39% (Masvopo, 2008) and
332 43% (Love *et al.*, 2007). For the Luvuvhu alluvial aquifer a maximum thickness of 3.5 m was
333 used with an average effective porosity of 38%. The thickness was based on the proximity of
334 the Luvuvhu channel to the Limpopo main stem and the similar slope element. The effective
335 porosity was averaged from the effective porosity range of 25% to 50%, given by Freeze and
336 Cherry (1979) for unconsolidated sand deposits.

337 **4 Results and Discussion**

338 **4.1 Alluvial aquifer delineation**

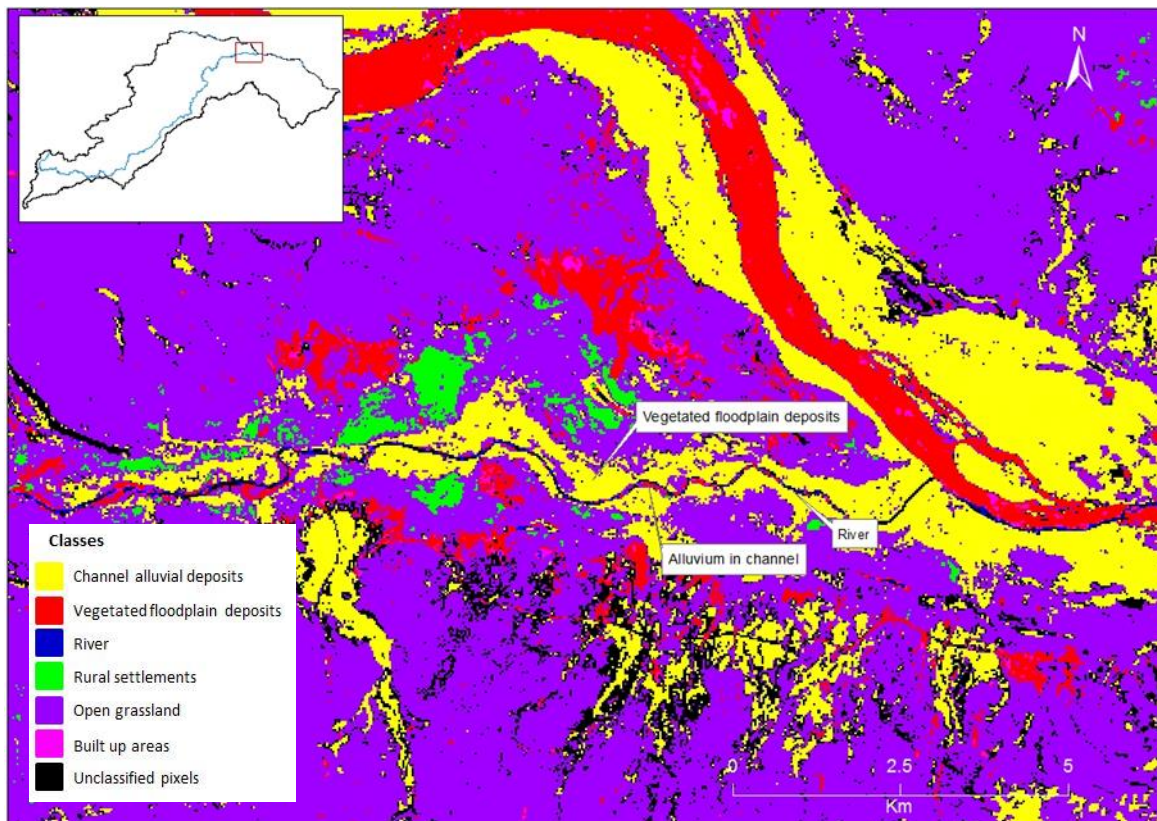
339 Results from image classification (Table 3) shows that the overall accuracy of the SAM
340 classified image (Figure 9) is 75.20%, while the average producer's and user's accuracies are
341 69.75% and 70.19%, respectively. This indicates that a high proportion of the reference data

342 was accurately mapped, therefore validating the accuracy of the land cover classification.
 343 This evaluation is further supported by the Kappa coefficient which shows that the
 344 classification was efficiently performed. With regards to the 3 classes (channel alluvial
 345 deposits, vegetated floodplain deposits, river) that were vectorised for estimation of alluvial
 346 areal extent and volume, high accuracy is observed with the channel alluvium, while the
 347 vegetated floodplain deposits and river classes respectively show moderate and low
 348 accuracies. Majority of the errors for vegetated floodplain deposits are due to misclassified
 349 rural settlements and cultivated areas classes and are resultant of low spectral separability
 350 between the classes affected; water was observed to be most misclassified with unclassified
 351 pixels and built-up areas. Nonetheless, visual assessment of the classified alluvial aquifer
 352 location shows a satisfactory agreement with the existing hydrogeological maps (Figure 10
 353 and 11).

354 Table 3. Producer's and user's accuracy

Class	Producer's accuracy (%)	User's accuracy (%)
Channel alluvial deposits	88.24	69.82
Vegetated floodplain deposits	65.25	40.31
River	34.30	29.50
Dams	88.20	99.88
Built up areas	70.07	92.78
Rural settlements	78.22	69.06
Cultivated areas	75.45	89.96
Open grassland	58.32	70.19
<i>Total</i>		
Overall accuracy	75.20%	
Kappa co-efficient	0.7054	

355



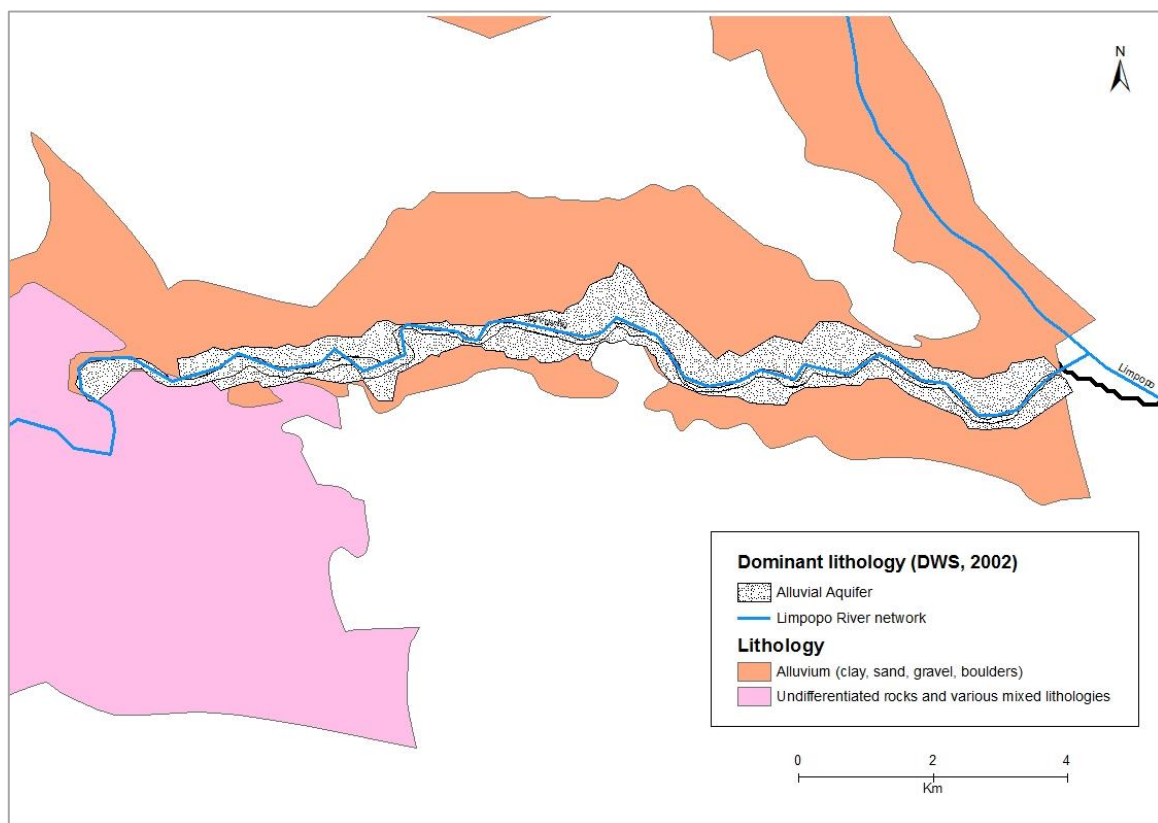
356
 357 Figure 9. Output from the LandSat land cover classification using Spectral Angle
 358 Mapper. The image indicates the confluence between the Luvuvhu River and
 359 the lower reach main stem of the Limpopo River. Some regions of
 360 misclassification (marked by unclassified pixels and rural settlements)
 361 are also noted in the output as one moves further away from the current river course.

362 The location of alluvial deposits is observed along the lower reach of the Luvuvhu River, a
 363 low-lying area that marks the confluence between the Luvuvhu River and the main stem
 364 Limpopo River. The area is conventionally known as the Pafuri floodplain (Griscom et al.,
 365 2010) due to the extensive floodplain alluvium deposited there. From the land cover
 366 classification (Figure 9), extensive vegetated floodplain deposits are observed on either side
 367 of a relatively narrow strip of channel alluvium. The channel alluvium occurs as 32 m to 124
 368 m wide deposits covering an areal extent of 1.92 km² while the vegetated floodplain deposits
 369 range in width from 26 m to 892 m covering an areal extent of 7.8 km² (Table 4); the total
 370 alluvial aquifer extent is therefore an estimated 9.72 km². The length of the aquifer zone
 371 measures 14.5 km. The Messina 2127 1:500 000 hydrogeological map (DWA, 2002) (Figure
 372 10) and the SOTWIS-SAF soil classification (Batjies, 2004) (Figure 11) validate the alluvial
 373 aquifer delineation in the area. According to the Messina 2127 1:500 000 hydrogeological
 374 map, alluvium occurs as unconsolidated sand deposits with a borehole yield of $\geq 5 \text{ l s}^{-1}$ in the
 375 region. The soil types constituting the alluvial deposits are described as a Eutric Cambisol
 376 and Leptosol (Batjies, 2004).

378 Table 4. Hydrogeological characteristics of the Pafuri alluvial aquifer in the Luvuvhu sub-
379 basin

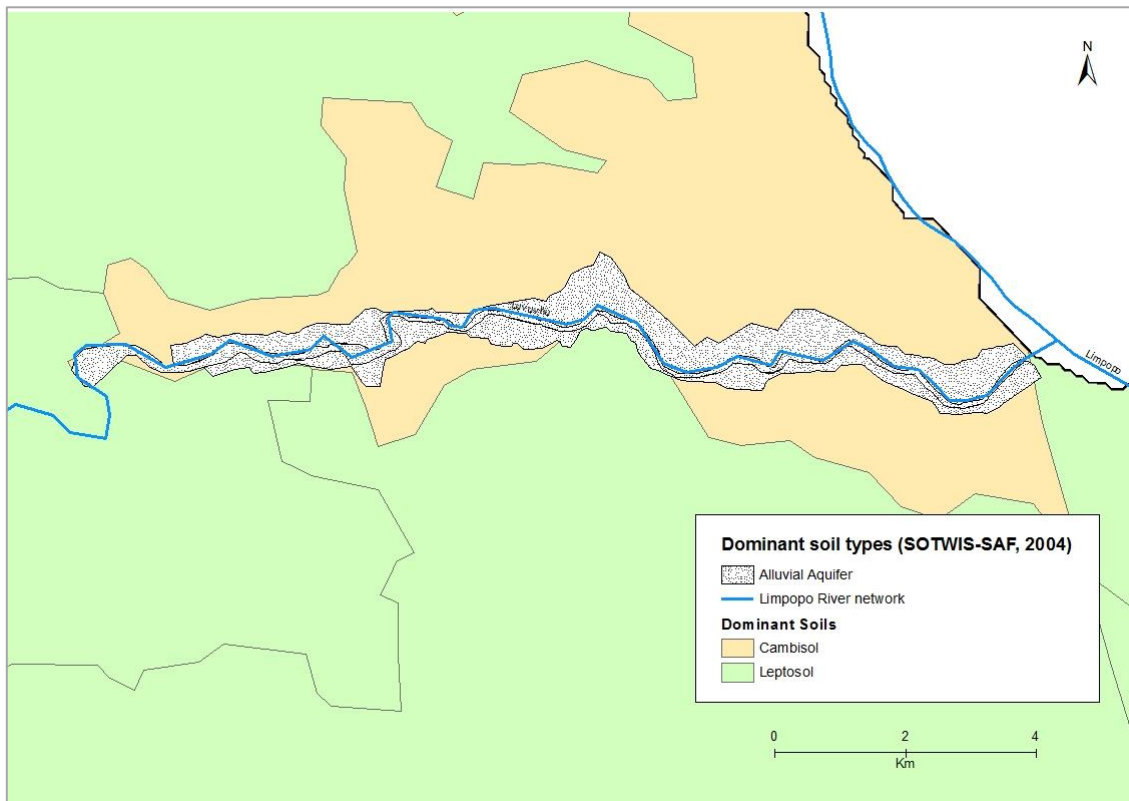
<i>Channel alluvial aquifer</i>	
Channel type	Meandering along old and current river course
Channel slope (regional)	0.00%
Channel width (range)	32 m – 124 m
Approximate areal extent of channel deposits	1.92 km ²
Natural barriers	Vegetated floodplain (wetland)
Alluvial sediments characteristics	Cambisols (clayey loam), Leptosols (sandy loam)
Estimated saturated volume of channel alluvium	2.36 Mm ³
<i>Alluvial plains</i>	
Plains width (range)	26 m – 892 m
Approximate areal extent of alluvial plains (range)	7.80 km ²
Alluvial sediments characteristics	Cambisols
Estimated saturated volume of plains aquifer	6.98 Mm ³

380



381

382 Figure 10. The delineated alluvial deposits are overlain on top of the Messina 2127 1:500
383 000 hydrogeological map (DWAf, 2002) to illustrate the consistency of the
384 delineated alluvial aquifers with existing hydrogeological maps. The white
385 areas indicate the extent of the sub-basin.



386
 387 Figure 11. The delineated alluvial deposits are overlain on top of the SOTWIS-SAF soil
 388 classification (Batjies, 2004) to illustrate the consistency of the delineated
 389 alluvial aquifers with existing hydrogeological maps.

390 Figure 12 illustrates the appearance of the channel alluvium and vegetated floodplain deposits
 391 on a Google Earth image. A study by Ashton and Turton (2009) illustrates the possible
 392 extension of this alluvial aquifer and considers it to be a transboundary aquifer; however no
 393 scaled measurements are provided regarding the areal extent of the deposit.



394
 395 Figure 12. Google Earth image of the Pafuri alluvial deposits. Reaches E and D (Figure
 396 13) are displayed. The image indicates the current course of the Luvuvhu

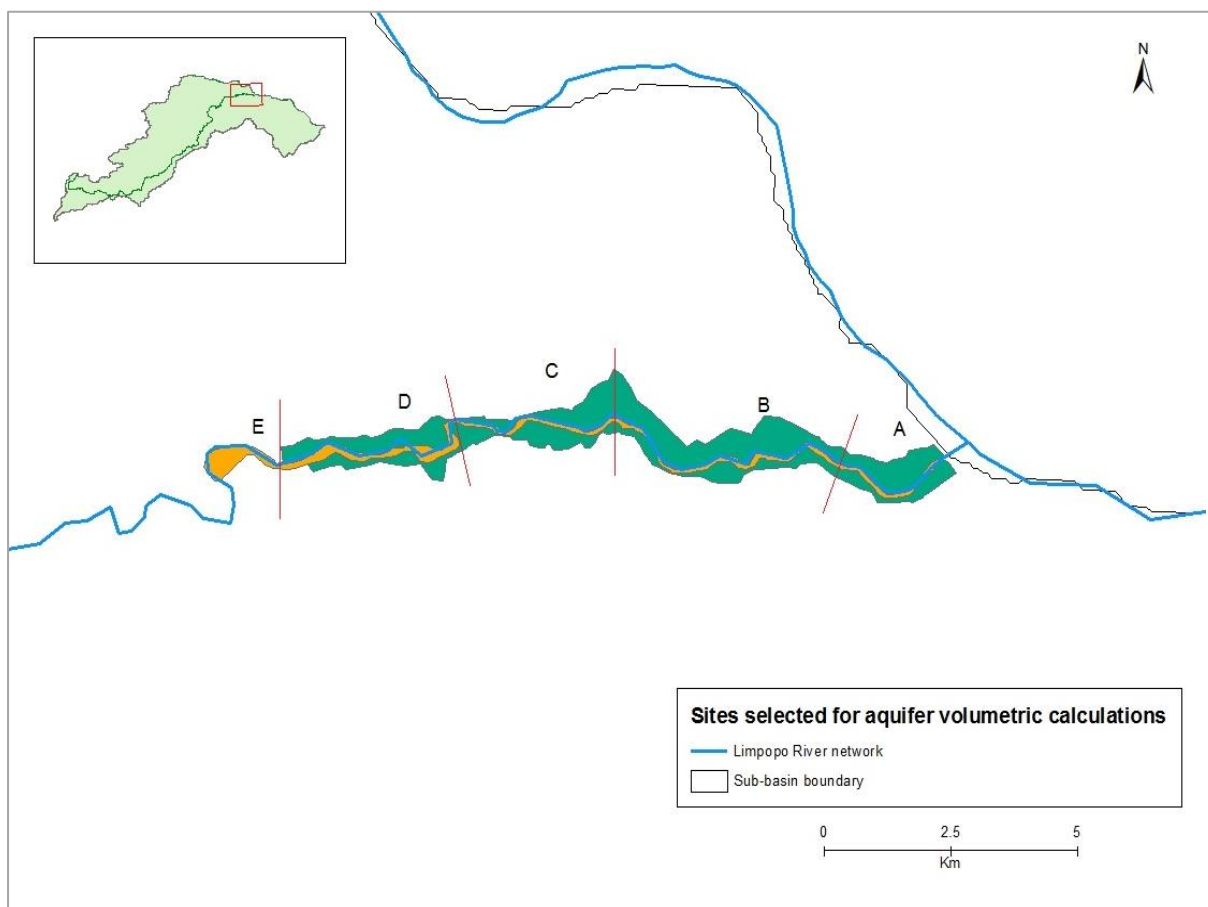
397
398

River as well as alluvial deposits which occur along the riverbed (old and current) and vegetated floodplains.

399 **4.2 Estimation of aquifer volume**

400 The estimation of the hydraulic properties of the alluvial aquifer was based on available
401 spatial datasets as well as literature pertaining to general hydraulic characteristics of the soil
402 types, Cambisol and Leptosol. Although several boreholes have been noted in the aquifer
403 zone, only data on the yield capacity are reported. According to the spatial dataset of the
404 Messina 2127 1:500 000 hydrogeological map (DWAF, 2002), yields within the channel
405 boundary range from 6.34 l s^{-1} to 1.27 l s^{-1} , decreasing towards the mouth of the Luvuvhu
406 River. Yields along the vegetated floodplain alluvial deposits range between 6.31 l s^{-1} to 4.99
407 l s^{-1} , also decreasing towards the confluence of the Luvuvhu River and the Limpopo main
408 stem.

409 The delineation of the alluvial aquifer is illustrated in [Figure 13](#), along with the reach
410 segments used in calculating the total potential alluvial aquifer water resources along the
411 lower Luvuvhu River.



412
413

Figure 13. Alluvial aquifer discretisation for aquifer volume estimation.

414 | [Table 5](#) indicates the estimated area, soil type, average thickness and porosity of each reach
 415 | segment along the alluvial aquifer extent. The estimated volume of water stored is based on
 416 | [Equation 1](#). The volume of water that can be stored in the alluvial aquifer, at a given point in
 417 | time, amounts to an estimated 2.36 Mm³ and 6.98 Mm³ for channel deposits and vegetated
 418 | floodplain deposits, respectively. These values are, however, uncertain due to the paucity of
 419 | groundwater-related data in the area (e.g. streamflow discharge, groundwater level series) - a
 420 | typical situation in semi-arid basins (Hughes, 2008; Costa *et al.*, 2013; Tanner and Hughes,
 421 | 2015) and do depend on the measured dimensions of the alluvial aquifer.

422 | Table 5. Estimated saturated volume of the alluvial aquifer

Sites	Channel Deposits				Plains Deposits					
	Estimated Area (km ²)	Soil type	Average saturated thickness (m)	Average effective porosity	Estimated volume of water stored (Mm ³)	Estimated Area (km ²)	Soil type	Average saturated thickness (m)	Average Effective Porosity	Estimated volume of water stored (Mm ³)
A	0.20	Cambisol	3.5	0.38	0.26	1.38	Cambisol	2.5	0.38	1.31
B	0.42	Cambisol	3.4	0.38	0.55	3.12	Cambisol	2.4	0.38	2.85
C	0.26	Cambisol	3.3	0.38	0.32	1.68	Cambisol	2.3	0.38	1.46
D	0.58	Cambisol Leptosol	3.2	0.38	0.71	1.62	Cambisol	2.2	0.38	1.36
E	0.45	Cambisol	3.0	0.38	0.52					
Total	1.92				2.36	7.80				6.98

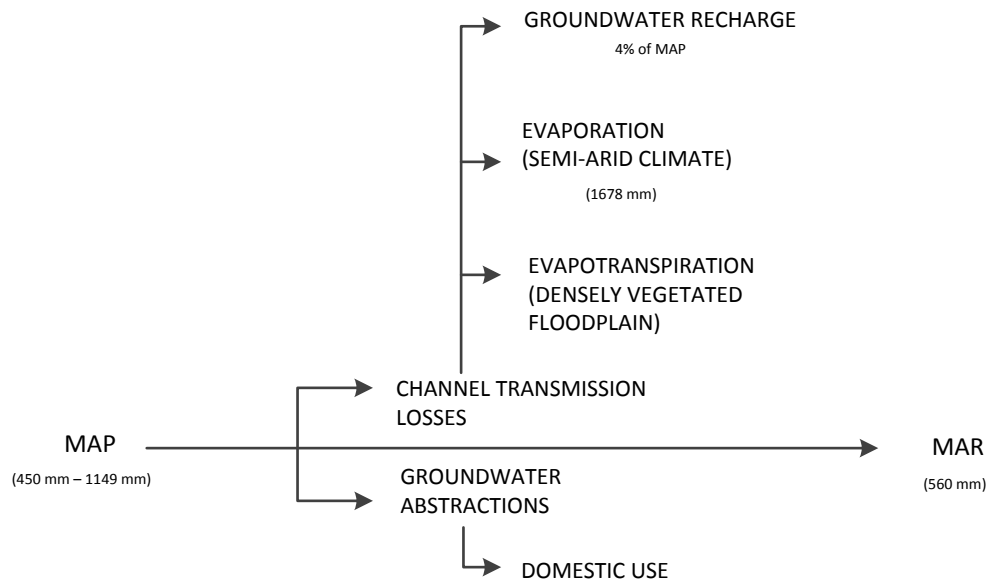
423

424 | **4.3 Conceptual understanding of channel transmission losses in the Luvuvhu** 425 | **sub-basin**

426 | To gain a broader conceptual understanding of channel transmission loss processes along the
 427 | delineated alluvial aquifer in the Luvuvhu sub-basin a schematic of the water budget ([Figure](#)
 428 | [14](#)) is considered. The climatic characteristics (Section 2) of the Luvuvhu sub-basin indicate
 429 | that the low-lying plains are dominated by a semi-arid climate consistent with low rainfall
 430 | and high evaporation, therefore it is expected that evaporation will play a significant role as
 431 | part of the channel transmission loss processes. Furthermore, the alluvial deposits are
 432 | relatively shallow in depth compared to the 15 m thickness reported (Busari, 2008) further
 433 | downstream along the Limpopo River hence evaporation is likely to impact the capacity of
 434 | water stored by the alluvial aquifer, especially during the dry season. The other dominant
 435 | process expected to influence the capacity of water stored by the alluvial aquifer, is
 436 | evapotranspiration; the floodplains of the identified alluvial aquifer are significantly
 437 | vegetated with riverine forests which increase the potential for evapotranspiration. Although
 438 | not indicated on the schematic, the streamflow regime in the Luvuvhu is highly impacted

439 with several large dams and farms dams storing water for commercial forestry and
 440 agriculture. Furthermore, groundwater abstraction (from fractured aquifers) for domestic use
 441 and irrigation is reported however the quantity is uncertain (DWS, 2016b). These reduce the
 442 amount of natural flow in the channel which decreases the amount of water seeping into the
 443 local aquifer system.

444



445

446 Figure 14. Conceptual understanding of channel transmission losses in the Pafuri alluvial
 447 aquifer of the Luvuvhu sub-basin. MAP and MAR respectively denote the
 448 mean annual precipitation and mean annual runoff (Meyer and Hill, 2013).

449 5 Conclusion

450 Equitable and sustainable integrated water resources management requires a holistic
 451 understanding of the impact of key hydrological processes on the availability of water
 452 resources in any hydrological basin. In the semi-arid Limpopo River Basin of southern
 453 Africa, the dynamics between channel transmission losses and alluvial aquifers has been
 454 noted to impact significantly on the basin's water balance. An improved understanding of
 455 these processes is therefore considered integral to advancing knowledge of water resource
 456 estimations in semi-arid regions. To facilitate the understanding and quantification of
 457 transmission losses and hence determine the impact on the water resources of the Luvuvhu
 458 sub-basin of the transboundary Limpopo River Basin, the study located and delineated
 459 alluvial aquifers in the sub-basin using LandSat 8 imagery and remote sensing techniques.
 460 Alluvial channel and floodplain deposits were identified in the lower reach of the Luvuvhu

461 River proximate to the confluence with the Limpopo River main stem. This area is commonly
462 known as the Pafuri floodplain. The total area measured for channel alluvial deposits is 1.92
463 km² while a larger extent of 7.80 km² was recorded for the floodplain deposits, giving a total
464 alluvial aquifer extent of 9.72 km². These extents are based on the outcome of the land cover
465 classification which presented, in itself, a few misclassifications. The estimation of the
466 hydraulic properties of the alluvial aquifer was based on available spatial datasets as well as
467 literature pertaining to similar alluvial aquifer environments in neighbouring sub-basins.
468 Based on the physical and hydraulic properties used, the capacity of the alluvial aquifer was
469 estimated to be approximately $9.34 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^3$. This value is however uncertain as evaporative
470 losses due to vegetation were not included in the calculation. Furthermore, field data relating
471 to groundwater and alluvial deposits in the Luvuvhu sub-basin were found to be sparse,
472 therefore estimates based on work conducted in other catchments were used. Despite the
473 uncertainty regarding transmission loss estimation, consistency was observed between the
474 results of the delineation of the Pafuri alluvial aquifer and the existing regional
475 hydrogeological maps. Furthermore the study was able to conceptualise the dynamics of
476 channel transmission loss processes in the sub-basin based on an understanding of the
477 climatic influences and the properties of the alluvial aquifers delineated. Qualitatively, it is
478 understood that water is likely to be ‘lost’ from the alluvial aquifers than gained, with
479 evaporation and evapotranspiration from the vegetated floodplains being the dominant
480 channel transmission loss processes.

481 The Luvuvhu sub-basin is one of 27 sub-basins in the Limpopo River Basin, therefore to
482 expand knowledge on the dynamics between channel transmission losses and alluvial
483 aquifers in the basin it is recommended that similar studies are conducted in each of the other
484 sub-basins, with the inclusion of uncertainty analysis for the loss estimations.

485 **6 Acknowledgements**

486 This paper forms part of a project titled: ‘Upstream-Downstream Hydrological Linkages in
487 the Limpopo River Basin’ which is co-funded by the Water Research Commission (Project
488 K5/2439/1) and the CSIR parliamentary grant.

489

490 7 References

- 491 Abdulrazzak, M. J. and Morel-Seytoux, H., 1983. Recharge from an ephemeral stream
492 following wetting front arrival to water table. *Water Resources Research* **19**, 194–
493 200.
- 494 Afify, A.A., Arafat, S.S., Aboel Ghar, M. and Khader, M.H., 2010. Physiographic soil map
495 delineation for the Nile alluvium and desert outskirts in middle Egypt using remote
496 sensing data of EgyptSat-1. *Egyptian Journal of Remote Sensing and Space Science*
497 **13**(20), 129-135.
- 498 Ashton, P.J., Love, D., Mahachi, H. and Dirks, P.H.G.M., 2001. *An Overview of the Impact*
499 *of Mining and Mineral Processing Operations on Water Resources and Water*
500 *Quality in the Zambezi, Limpopo and Olifants Catchments in Southern Africa.*
501 Contract Report to the Mining, Minerals and Sustainable Development (Southern
502 Africa) Project by CSIR Environmentek, Pretoria, South Africa and Geology
503 Department, University of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe. Report No. ENV-P-C
504 2001-042. xvi + 336 pp.
- 505 Ashton, P. and Turton, A., 2009. Water and security in sub-Saharan Africa: Emerging
506 concepts and their implications for effective water resource management in the
507 southern African region. In *Facing Global Environmental Change* (pp. 661-674),
508 Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- 509 Batjies, N.H., 2004. SOTER-based soil parameter estimates for Southern Africa. Report
510 2004/04, ISRIC - World Soil Information, Wageningen.
511 http://www.isric.org/isric/webdocs/docs/ISRIC_Report_2004_04.pdf
- 512 Boroto, R.A.J and Görgens, A.H.M., 2003. Estimating transmission losses along the
513 Limpopo River: an overview of alternative methods. *Hydrology of the*
514 *Mediterranean and Semi-Arid Regions. IAHS Publication* **278**, 138-143.
- 515 Busari, O., 2008. Groundwater in the Limpopo Basin: occurrences, use and impact.
516 *Environment, Development and Sustainability* **10**(6), 943-957.
- 517 Campbell, J.B. and Wynne, R.H., 2011. *Introduction to Remote Sensing*. The Guilford Press,
518 New York. pp 3-7, 13-18.
- 519 Cho, M.A., Debba, P., Mathieu, R., Naidoo, L., van Aardt, J., Asner, G.P., 2010. Improving
520 discrimination of savannah tree species through a multi-end member spectral angle
521 mapper approach: canopy-level analysis. *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and*
522 *Remote Sensing* **48** (11), 4133–4142. Cobbing, J.E., Hobbs, P.J., Meyer, R. and
523 Davies, J., 2008. A critical overview of transboundary aquifers shared by South
524 Africa. *Hydrogeology Journal* **16**, 1207-1214.
- 525 Costa, A.C., Bronstert, A. and De Araújo, J.C., 2012. A channel transmission losses model
526 for different dryland rivers. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences* **16**(4), 1111-1135.
- 527 Costa, A.C., Foerster, S., De Araujo, J.C. and Bronstert, A., 2013. Analysis of channel
528 transmission losses in a dryland river reach in north-estern Brazil using streamflow
529 series, groundwater series and multi-temporal satellite data. *Hydrological Processes*
530 **27**, 1046-1060.

- 531 Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR)-Environmentek., 2003. *Protection and*
532 *strategic uses of groundwater resources in drought prone areas of the SADC*
533 *Region: Groundwater situation analysis of the Limpopo River Basin - Final Report.*
534 Environmentek Report No. ENV-P-C 2003-026, Pretoria.
- 535 Dag`es, C., Voltz, J. G., Lacas, O., Huttel, O., Negro, S., and Louchart, X., 2008. An
536 experimental study of water table recharge by seepage losses from a ditch with
537 intermittent flow. *Hydrological Processes* **22**, 3555–3563.
- 538 Dahan, O., Shani, Y., Enzel, Y., Yechieli, Y., and Yakirevich, A., 2007. Direct measurements
539 of floodwater infiltration into shallow alluvial aquifers, *Journal of Hydrology* **344**,
540 157–170.
- 541 Dahan, O., Tatarsky, B., Enzel, Y., Kulls, C., Seely, M., and Benito, G., 2008. Dynamics of
542 flood water infiltration and ground water recharge in hyperarid desert *Ground*
543 *Water* **46**, 450–46.
- 544 Dobos, E., Seres, A., Vadnai, P., Michéli, E., Fuchs, M., Láng, V., Bertóti, R.D. and Kovács,
545 K., 2013. Soil parent material delineation using MODIS and SRTM data. *Hungarian*
546 *Geographical Bulletin* **62** (2), 133–156.
- 547 Dunkerley, D. and Brown, K., 1999. Flow behaviour, suspended sediment transport and
548 transmission losses in a small (sub-bank-full) flow event in an Australian desert
549 stream, *Hydrological Processes* **13**, 1577–1588.
- 550 DWA (Department of Water Affairs, South Africa)., 2012. *Development of a Reconciliation*
551 *Strategy for the Luvuvhu And Letaba Water Supply System: Literature Review*
552 *Report.* Prepared by WRP Consulting Engineers DMM Development Consultants,
553 Golder Associates Africa, WorleyParsons, Kyamandi, Hydrosol and Zitholele
554 Consulting. Report No. P WMA 02/B810/00/1412/2
- 555 DWAF (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, South Africa)., 2002. Messina 2127
556 1:500 000 Hydrogeological map series of the Republic of South Africa.
- 557 DWAF (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, South Africa)., 2004. *Luvuvhu/Letaba*
558 *Water Management Area: Internal Strategic Perspective.* Prepared by Goba
559 Moahloli KEEVE Steyn (Pty) Ltd in association with Tlou and Matji, Golder
560 Associates Africa and BKS on behalf of the Directorate: National Water Resource
561 Planning. DWAF Report No. P WMA 02/000/00/0304.
- 562 DWAF(Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, South Africa), 2005. A practical field
563 procedure for identification and delineation of wetlands and riparian areas, pp. 20.
- 564 DWS (Department of Water and Sanitation, South Africa)., 2011. Online Groundwater
565 Dictionary: Second Edition. Accessed 14 May 2015 on
566 <https://www.dwaf.gov.za/Groundwater/GroundwaterDictionary.aspx>.
- 567 DWS (Department of Water and Sanitation)., 2016. *New Water Management Areas of South*
568 *Africa.* Government Gazette No. 40279, 16 September 2016, pp.169-172. Accessed

569 from http://www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/40279_gon1056.pdf on 17 January
570 [2017](http://www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/40279_gon1056.pdf).

571 DWS (Department of Water and Sanitation)., 2016. *Water Resources Situation Assessment*.
572 Accessed from <https://www.dwa.gov.za/Projects/Luvuvhu/WRSA.aspx> on 13
573 February 2017.

574 Elbeih, S.F., 2015. An overview of integrated remote sensing and GIS for groundwater
575 mapping in Egypt. *Ain Shams Engineering Journal* **6**(1), 1–15.

576 Freeze, R.A. and Cherry, J.A., 1979. *Groundwater*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New
577 jersey, 604pp.

578 Gomo M. and van Tonder, G.V., 2013. Development of a Preliminary Hydrogeology
579 Conceptual Model for a Heterogeneous Alluvial Aquifer using Geological
580 Characterization. *Journal of Geology and Geophysics* **2** (128), 1-7.

581 Google Earth Pro 7.1.5.1557. March 27, 2016. Pafuri Floodplain, Lat. -22.416758 Long.
582 31.164007, Eye Alt 9.97 km, CNES/Astrium. Accessed via Google Earth Pro
583 computer application © Google Inc. 2015.

584 Görgens, A.H.M., Beuster, H. and Hallifax, P., 1991. The Upper Limpopo: Flow generation
585 in a very large semi-arid river basin. *Proceedings of the Fifth SA Hydrological*
586 *Symposium*, SAN CIAHS, Stellenbosch, South Africa: 6-4-1 - 6-4-11.

587 Görgens, A.H.M. and Boroto, R.A.J., 1997. Flow balance anomalies, surprises and
588 implications for Integrated Water Resource Management. *Proceedings of the Eighth*
589 *SA Hydrological Symposium*, SAN CIAHS, Pretoria, South Africa.

590 Görgens, A.H.M. and Boroto, R.A.J., 1999. Limpopo River: Hydrological Investigations to
591 prepare for Integrated Water Resources Planning. *Proceedings of the Ninth SA*
592 *Hydrological Symposium*, SAN CIAHS, Cape Town, South Africa.

593 Görgens, A.H.M., Howard, G., Walker, N., Kleynhans, M. and Denys, F., 2014. Long-term
594 surface water balance for the Limpopo Basin. *Proceedings of the Seventeenth SA*
595 *Hydrological Symposium*, SAN CIAHS, Cape Town, South Africa.

596 Griscom, H.R., Miller, S.N., Gyedu-Ababio, T. and Sivanpillai, R., 2010. Mapping land cover
597 change of the Luvuvhu catchment, South Africa for environmental modelling,
598 *GeoJournal* **75**,163–173

599 GWP (Global Water Partnership)., 2000. *Integrated Water Resources Management*. TAC
600 Background Papers No. 4. Global Water Partnership, Stockholm.

601 Howard, G., Denys, F., Walker, N. and Görgens, A., 2013. *Volume C1- Surface Water*
602 *Hydrology: LRBMS-81137945*. Supplementary Report to Final Limpopo River
603 Basin Monograph. Prepared for LIMCOM.

604 Hughes, D.A. and Sami, K., 1992. Transmission losses to alluvium and associated moisture
605 dynamics in a semiarid ephemeral channel system in southern Africa. *Hydrological*
606 *Processes* **6**, 45-53.

- 607 Hughes, D.A., 2008. *Modelling semi-arid and arid hydrology and water resources- The*
608 *Southern African Experience.* Accessed from
609 gwadi.org/sites/gadi.org/files/hughes_L5.pdf on
- 610 Jarihani, A.A., Larsen, J.R., Callow, J.N., McVicar, T.R. and Johansen, K., 2015. Where does
611 all the water go? Partitioning water transmission losses in a data-sparse, multi-
612 channel and low-gradient dryland river system using modelling and remote sensing.
613 *Journal of Hydrology* **529**, 1511-1529.
- 614 Javed, A. and Wani, M.H. J., 2009. Delineation of groundwater potential zones in Kakund
615 watershed, Eastern Rajasthan, using remote sensing and GIS techniques. *Geological*
616 *Society of India* **73**, 229.
- 617 Jarvis A, Reuter H.I., Nelson A. and Guevara E., 2008. Hole-filled SRTM for the globe.
618 Version 4, available from the CGIAR-CSI SRTM 90 m Database.
619 <http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org>.
- 620 Jewitt, G.P.W., Garratt, J.A., Caalder, J.A. and Fuller, L., 2004. Water resources planning
621 and modelling tools for the assessment of land use change in the Luvuvhu
622 Catchment, South Africa. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth* **29**, 1233–1241.
- 623 JULBS (Joint Upper Limpopo Basin Study) Government of South Africa – Department of
624 Water Affairs and Forestry (GOSA–DWAF)., 1991. *Joint Upper Limpopo Basin*
625 *Study*. Pretoria, Ninham Shand/MacDonald and Partners.
- 626 Keshava, N., 2004. Distance metrics and band selection in hyperspectral processing with
627 applications to material identification and spectral libraries. *IEEE Transactions on*
628 *Geoscience and Remote Sensing* **42** (7), 1552–1565.
- 629 Khan, M.A. and Moharana, P.C. J., 2002. Use of Remote Sensing and Geographical
630 Information System in the delineation and characterization of ground water prospect
631 zones . *Indian Society of Remote Sensing* **30**, 131.
- 632 Knighton, A. D. and Nanson, G. C., 1994. Flow transmission along an arid zone
633 anastomosing river, Copper Creek, Australia, *Hydrological Processes* **8**, 137–153.
- 634 Konrad, C. P., 2006. Location and timing of river-aquifer exchanges in six tributaries to the
635 Columbia River in the Pacific Northwest of the United States, *Journal of Hydrology*
636 **329**, 444–470.
- 637 Kundu, P.M., Singo, R.L., Odiyo, J.O. and Nkuna, R.N., 2014. *An evaluation of the effects of*
638 *climate change on flood frequency in the Luvuvhu River Catchment, Limpopo*
639 *Province, South Africa.* Sustainable Irrigation and Drainage V, WIT Transactions on
640 Ecology and The Environment, Vol 185, www.witpress.com, ISSN 1743-3541 (on-
641 line) WITS Press
- 642 Kundu, P.M. Mathivha, F.I. and Nkuna, T.R., 2015. *The use of GIS and remote sensing*
643 *techniques to evaluate the impact of land use and land cover changes on the*
644 *hydrology of the Luvuvhu River Catchment in Limpopo Province*, WRC Report No.
645 2246/1/15 ISBN 978-1-4312-0705-3

- 646 Lange, L., Leibundgut, Ch., Schwartz, U., Grodek, T., Lekach, J., and Schick, A. P., 1998.
647 Using artificial tracers to study water losses of ephemeral floods in small arid
648 streams, *IAHS Publication* **247**, 31–40.
- 649 Lange, J., 2005. Dynamics of transmission losses in a large arid stream channel. *Journal of*
650 *Hydrology* **306**, 112-126.
- 651 Levick, S.R. and Rogers, K.H., 2011. Context-dependent vegetation dynamics in an African
652 savanna, *Landscape Ecology* **26**, 515–528
- 653 Love, D., Owen, R., Uhlenbrook, S. and van Der Zaag, P., 2007. *The Mushawe meso-alluvial*
654 *aquifer, Limpopo Basin, Zimbabwe: an example of the development potential of*
655 *small sand rivers*. Paper for the CGIAR Challenge Program on Water and Food
656 project “Integrated Water Resources Management for Improved Rural Livelihoods:
657 Managing risk, mitigating drought and improving water productivity in the water
658 scarce Limpopo Basin”.
- 659 MacDonald, A. M., Bonsor, H. C., O’Dochartaigh, B. E. and Taylor, R. G., 2012.
660 Quantitative maps of groundwater resources in Africa. *Environmental Research*
661 *Letters*, 7024009.
- 662 Madonsela, S., Cho, M.A., Mathieu, R., Mutanga, O., Ramoelo, A., Kaszta, Z., Van De
663 Kerchove, R., Wolff, E., 2017. Multi-phenology WorldView-2 imagery improves
664 remote sensing of savannah tree species. *International Journal of Applied Earth*
665 *Observation and Geoinformatics* **58**, 65–73.
- 666 Magesh, N.S., Chandrasekar, N. and Soundranayagam, J.P., 2012. Delineation of
667 groundwater potential zones in Theni district, Tamil Nadu, using remote sensing,
668 GIS and MIF techniques. *Geoscience Frontiers* **3**(2), 189-196.
- 669 Malzbender, D. and Earle, A., 2007. Water Resources of the SADC: Demands, Dependencies
670 and Governance Responses. Paper commissioned as part of the Institute for Global
671 Dialogue’s (IGD) and the Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa’s (OSISA)
672 “Research Project on Natural Resources Dependence and Use in Southern Africa:
673 Economic and Governance Implications”. Accessed from
674 http://www.acwr.co.za/pdf_files/IGD_Water%20Resources.pdf on 29 September
675 2015.
- 676 Masike, S., 2007. The Impacts of Climate Change on Cattle Water Demand and Supply in
677 Khurutshe, Botswana. Unpublished PhD Thesis, International Global Change
678 Institute, University of Waikato.
- 679 Masvopo, T.H., 2008. Evaluation of the groundwater potential of the Malala alluvial aquifer,
680 Lower Mzingwane river, Zimbabwe. Unpublished MSc Thesis, University of
681 Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe. Accessed from <http://hdl.handle.net/10646/1019> on 27
682 [January 2017](#).
- 683 McCormick property Development., 2010. Draft Environmental Impact report for the
684 proposed establishment of a filling station at the Maake Plaza Shopping Centre on
685 part of the remainder of the farm Rita 668-LT, Tzaneen Area, Limpopo Province.
686 Ref: 12/1/9-7/3-M13, pp 45.

- 687 Meijerink, A.M.J., 1996. Remote sensing applications to hydrology: groundwater.
688 *Hydrological Sciences Journal* **41**(4), 549-561.
- 689 Meijerink, A. M. J., Bannert, D., Batelaan, O., Lubczynski, M., and Pointet, T., 2007.
690 *Remote sensing applications to groundwater*. IHP-VI, Series on Groundwater
691 No.16, UNESCO.
- 692 Millaresis, G. C. and Argialas, D.P., 2000. Extraction and Delineation of Alluvial Fans from
693 digital Elevation Models and Landsat Thematic Mapper Images. *Photogrammetric*
694 *Engineering and Remote Sensing* **66** (9), 1093-1101.
- 695 Meyer, S. and Hill, M., 2013. *Volume C2- Groundwater Assessment: LRBMS-81137945*.
696 Supplementary Report to Final Limpopo River Basin Monograph. Prepared for
697 LIMCOM with the support of GIZ.
- 698 Midgley, D.C., Pitman, W.V. and Middleton. B.J., 1994. *Surface water resources of South*
699 *Africa 1990, a user guide plus 6 volumes of data, appendices and map*. Water
700 Research Commission Reports 298/1/94 to 298/6/94. Pretoria, South Africa.
- 701 Morin, E., Grodek, T., Dahan, O., Benito, G., Kulls, C., Jacoby, Y., Van Langenhove, G.,
702 Seely, M., and Enzel, Y., 2009. Flood routing and alluvial aquifer recharge along the
703 ephemeral arid Kuiseb River, Namibia. *Journal of Hydrology* **368**, 262–275.
- 704 Moyce, W., Mangeya, P., Owen, R. and Love, D., 2006. Alluvial aquifers in the Mzingwane
705 catchment: Their distribution, properties, current usage and potential expansion.
706 *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth* **31**, 988-994.
- 707 Msangi, J.P., 2014. Combating Water Scarcity in Southern Africa. *Environmental Science*.
708 Part of the series SpringerBriefs in *Environmental Science*, pp 21-41.
- 709 Odiyo, J.O., Phangisa, J.I. and Makungo, R., 2012. Rainfall–runoff modelling for estimating
710 Latonyanda River flow contributions to Luvuvhu River downstream of Albasini
711 Dam. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth* **50-52**, 5-13.
- 712 Odiyo, J.O., Makungo, R. and Nkuna, T.R., 2015. Long-term changes and variability in
713 rainfall and streamflow in Luvuvhu River Catchment, South Africa. *South African*
714 *Journal of Science* 111(7/8) <http://dx.doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2015/20140169>
- 715 Owen, R.J.S., Rydzewski, J. and Windram, A., 1989. *The Use of Shallow Alluvial Aquifers*
716 *for Small Scale Irrigation: with reference to Zimbabwe*. Final Report of ODA
717 Project R4239.
- 718 Owen, R. and Madari, N., 2010. *Hydrogeology of the Limpopo Basin: Country studies from*
719 *Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe*. WaterNet Working Paper 12.
- 720 Pervez, W., Uddin, V., Khan, S.A., Khan, J.A., 2016. Satellite-based land use mapping:
721 comparative analysis of Landsat-8, Advanced Land Imager, and big data Hyperion
722 imagery. *Journal of Applied Remote Sensing* **10** (2), 026004–026004.
- 723 Renard, K. G., 1970. *The hydrology of semiarid rangeland watersheds*. Report ARS-41-162,
724 Agricultural Research Service, US Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.
- 725 Renard, K.G., Nichols, M.H., Woolhiser, D.A. and Osborn, H.B., 2008. A brief background
726 on the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Research Service Walnut Gulch

- 727 Experimental Watershed. *Water Resources*, 44 (W05S02). Saha, D., Dhar, Y.R. and
728 Vittala, S.S., 2010. Delineation of groundwater development potential zones in parts
729 of marginal Ganga Alluvial Plain in South Bihar, Eastern India. *Environmental*
730 *Monitoring Assessment* **165**, 179.
- 731 Shanafield, M. and Cook, P.G., 2014. Transmission losses, infiltration and groundwater
732 recharge through ephemeral and intermittent streambeds: A review of applied
733 methods. *Journal of Hydrology* **511**, 518-529.
- 734 Smathkin, V.Y., 2001. Low flow hydrology: a review. *Journal of Hydrology* (240), 147-186.
- 735 Smakhtin VY and Watkins DA., 1997. *Low-flow Estimation in South Africa*. WRC Report
736 494/1/97. Pretoria, South Africa
- 737 Solomon, S. and Quiel, F., 2006. Groundwater study using remote sensing and geographic
738 information systems (GIS) in the central highlands of Eritrea. *Hydrogeology Journal*
739 **14**, 729.
- 740 SoR (State of Rivers Report)., 2001. *South African River Health Programme Letaba and*
741 *Luvuvhu River Systems*. WRC report no: TT 165/01. Water Research Commission,
742 Pretoria, South Africa. ISBN No: 1 86845 825 3 Accessed from
743 https://www.dwa.gov.za/iwqs/rhp/state_of_rivers/state_of_letluv_01/luvuvhu.html
744 on 30 June 2016.
- 745 Tanner, J.L., 2013. *Understanding and Modelling of Surface and Groundwater Interactions*.
746 Unpublished PhD Thesis, Rhodes University, South Africa.
- 747 Tanner, J.L. and Hughes, D.A., 2015. Surface water–groundwater interactions in catchment
748 scale water resources assessments—understanding and hypothesis testing with a
749 hydrological model. *Hydrological Sciences Journal* **60**(11), 1880-1895.
- 750 USGS (United States Geological Survey). LC81690762015220LGN00, LandSat 8 OLI,
751 Imaged collected on 8 August 2015.
- 752 Walter, G.R., Necsoui, M. and McGinnis, R., 2012. Estimating Aquifer Channel Recharge
753 Using Optical Data Interpretation. *Groundwater* **50** (1), 68-76.
- 754 Walters, M.O., 1990. Transmission losses in arid regions. *Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*
755 **116** (1), 129-138.
- 756 Wang, A., Liu, B., Wang, Z. and Liu, G., 2016. Monitoring and predicting the soil water
757 content in the deep profile of Loess Plateau, China. *International Soil and Water*
758 *Conservation Research* (4), 6-11.