

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 . Background

Groundwater and mineral potential of one country is vital for its sustainable economic development and planning. According to the Geological Survey of Ethiopia, only 36% of the total landmass of the country mainly in the Precambrian terrain has been covered by geological mapping and 35% is covered by hydrogeological mapping at the scale of 1:250,000. Precambrian terrain in the west, south and north of the country is well known geologically because they are prone to gold and associated base metal exploration. But these activities covered only a small portion of the country. Southeastern plateau of the country is one of the area not yet well understood geologically and its groundwater and mineral potential. Some work has been carried out in northwestern plateau, particularly around Lake Tana; mapping of dykes and fracture system with the outcome that shows potential groundwater and hydrothermal mineralization areas (Chorowicz, et al., 1998; Mege and Korme, 2003a and 2003b).

In addition to this, the water resources of Ethiopia have not been well studied and developed. To feed Ethiopian population on a sustainable basis, traditional rain fed agricultural practices must shift to irrigated agricultural practices. Likewise, the huge livestock potential of the country has to get reliable water supply. The shortage of water is acute in lowland and in some highland areas. Therefore, it is essential to explore water and mineral resources of the country for sustainable water supply and food self-sufficiency (anonymous, 2000).

In developing countries like Ethiopia most of geological, hydrogeological and mineral exploration works have been done with the absence of the application of Remote Sensing and Geographic Information System (GIS). Satellite remote sensing provides efficient data and effective method for geological mapping, groundwater and mineral exploration. Satellite remote sensing data are useful because they provide up-to-date information on the accessibility of an area to be surveyed particularly, concerning roads, treks, new settlements, land use, general topography, the presence of surface water and drainage system. The use of remote sensing data allows effective localization of targets and reducing costs and time spent during geophysical, geochemical and fieldwork prospecting (Rokos et al., 2000). GIS is a computer-based data capture, analysis and management system. Its main purpose is to provide support and evidences for decisions using spatial data integrations. This purpose can be achieved through organizing,

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visualizing, querying, combining, or generally analyzing data, or by making predictions with the data (Bonham-Carter, 1994). A critical factor governing the incorporation of remotely sensed data into a GIS is the digital nature of the data (Legg, 1994).

There are two general approaches for using remote sensing in mineral explorations (Sabins, 1999). One approach is to map geology and structures at regional and local scale; the other is to recognize hydrothermal alterations that can be associated to mineral deposits. Because geology, structure, and hydrothermal alterations can be used as indications of the presence of mineral deposits, the combination of both approaches, which can be done in a GIS, is the most efficient. In addition, topographic data in the form of Digital Elevation Models (DEM) can be combined with remotely sensed imagery to map geological features indicative of mineralization of the type sought (Rokos et al., 2000). Likewise, the concept of integrated remote sensing and GIS techniques has proved to be an efficient tool in groundwater studies (Krishnamrthy et al 1996, Saraf and Chaudhary 1998, Khan and Mohrana, 2002)

The study area is covered by hard rock terrain; the occurrence of groundwater in this type area can be effectively mapped using the integration of thematic maps generated from remotely sensed data on a model developed based on GIS techniques. The thematic maps include geological structures (dykes, faults and lineaments), drainage density, slope, elevation, soil type, landcover, annual rainfall and biological factors (burrowing of rodents). The integration of the thematic layers will be performed using the techniques of overlay analysis.

The study of dyke composition, geometry and associated planar regional fracture in the Ethiopian plateaus can greatly help in locating hydrothermal vein minerals and groundwater recharge and discharge zones. The main recharge zones of groundwater in the near by drought prone lowlands is the dykes and fracture system on the plateau. Fracture analysis is one of the major techniques used in the exploration of groundwater in crystalline rocks and hydrothermal mineralization. The application of remote sensing and geographic information system is one of the most effective techniques in mapping fractures and dykes, hydrothermal alteration zones, drainage network, soil type, slope steepness, topographic height, landuse/landcover and lithology and allow integrating them in a spatial environment. Therefore, the study of groundwater and mineral potential of the area is crucial for the economic development of both the plateau and adjacent lowland areas. It could help the national poverty reduction strategy in locating precisely the places for drilling to

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obtain sustainable groundwater supply for irrigation, consumption, crops and livestock production, and in locating hydrothermal alteration areas on the plateau.

1.2 . The study area

Southeastern Ethiopian Plateau, namely Arsi-Bale Mountains is located south east of Addis Ababa. It is bounded by 39º33'41.59''-39º58'46.42'' longitudes (561850E-607744E) and 6º40'24.67-7º16'5''.53'' latitude (737740N-803375N). The access to the area is either using Addis Ababa-Nazareth-Asela-Goba road or Addis Ababa-Shashemene-Assassa–Goba road.

Figure 1.1. Location map of the study area, Bale Mountains and the surrounding

1.2.1. Glaciations

Former glaciations have considerably modified the volcanic landscape of the Bale Mountains. Traces of former glaciers are common in the Ericaceous and Afro-alpine Belts: ice striations, glacial cirques and tongue basins with recent swamps or lakes, and moraines (clearly observed at Sebsebe washa, left side of the road from Dodola to Dinsho) that characterizes unsorting, loosely consolidated sediments of varying size and shape and angular and sub angular fragments. Deep valleys of smoothed U-shaped cross-section are indicators of the presence of former glaciations

on the mountains. Mt. Badda, 100km North of the Sanetti plateau, was a significant center of alpine glaciation in the Pleistocene (Potter, 1975). He also noted that only a few, very high mountains in eastern Africa with peaks generally over 3500m.a.s.l are known to have been glaciated. There have been at least two glacial periods in the history of the mountains but they were glaciated as little as 2000 years ago. The glaciers descended to a level of about 3000-3500m and valleys such as Togona are characteristics of glacial valleys.

1.2.2. Physiography

The Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas classified as plateau forming massifs, the Sanetti plateau and the Harenna plain and the adjacent lowlands. The altitude on the study area varies from 1760m at SW and SE corner of the Harenna forest and to the highest peak in southern Ethiopia at Tullu Dimtu, is 4377m a.s.l. EW trending the Harenna erosional escarpment lies between significant topographic variations within less than 10km distance (Figure 1.2). The edges of the flat topped Sanetti plateau are highly dissected. The slope from the foot of the escarpment southwards is relatively gentle.

The Bale Mountains, the Sanetti plateau, is characterized by extensively flat areas formed by Cenozoic volcanic rock of alkaline basaltic and trachytic lava flows that originated from vents on the plateau. The lavas flowed west wards and northwards and stopped on the edge of the present day rivers, locally forming sub-vertical step like cliffs Highly dissected country, showing ridges and intervening valleys mostly identify the plateau edges. In general the highland area marks a very important nearly E-W oriented watershed characterized by swampy areas and many small shallow lakes. The headwater of Genale and WabeShebele rivers also emanate from this plateau. The rivers on the study area lie with in these river basins.

Figure 1.2. The Herenna escarpments

1.2.3 Climate

Significant variation in climate resulted from great variation in altitude and the bulk of the massif over the area of the Bale Mountains attracts large amounts of orographic rainfall.

1.2.3.1. Rainfall

In general, the rainfall in the area is characterized by one eight-month rainy season-from march to October, followed by a four-month dry season-from November to February. Precipitation falls on the high altitude plateau during the dry, cold season is in the form of sleet or snow. This general pattern differs only in the far south and lower altitudinal area, which has a shorter, four-month rainy season from February-June. The lower altitudes of the area receive between 600-1000mm of rainfall annually, whereas the higher altitudinal areas receive up to 1200mm. The rainfall is received from two directions during the rainy season-the equatorial westerlies and The Indian Ocean air streams. The Harenna plain and associated lowlands are characterized by double rainy and dry seasons. March to June and September to October are the main and lesser rainy seasons, whereas November to February and July to August are the main and lesser dry seasons, respectively (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3. Climate of Bale Mountains, Snow cover, Sanetti plateau.

1.2.3.2. Temperature

Temperature falls with increasing altitude. At the higher altitudes, the lowest temperatures occur at night in the clear skies of the dry season and the highest temperatures during the day during the same season. The daily temperatures during the dry season show a vast fluctuation. The lowest temperature that has been recorded in the mountains is -15° C at night, with the highest recorded temperature the next day of $+26^{\circ}$ C and thus a range of 40 $^{\circ}$ C within a 24-hour period! In contrast, the rainy season is warmer and the temperature shows much less daily fluctuation. It rarely freezes during the rainy season but the temperature rarely climbs over 20° C.

1.2.3.3. Hydrology

The Bale Mountains act as water catchments for the region. Water is the fundamental resource for all life. People, livestock and the environment in the southeast of Ethiopia and further into Somalia are dependent on the water that originates from the Bale massif. The Bale massif plays a crucial role in climate control in the region by attracting large amounts of orographic rainfall (rainfall that occurs because of the mountains nature of the area). This has obvious implication for rain fed agriculture. Over forty streams arise within the BMNP (Bale Mountains National Park). These join to form four major rivers-the Webe Shebelle, the Web (leading to the Genale and Juba Rivers), the Welmel and Dumal Rivers. In addition, the water for the numerous springs emerging in the lowlands originates from the Bale Mountains. These rivers and springs are the only sources of perennial water for the arid lowlands of the east and southeast of Ethiopia, including the Ogaden and Somalia areas, and neighbouring Somalia.

1.2.4. Flora and Fauna

The Bale Mountains are characterized by unique and diverse natural resources. It also contains species that are endemic to Ethiopia and the mountain itself. These include the largest Afroalpine habitat on the continent. Of the area's recorded birds, 6.1% are Ethiopian endemics. There are several rare endemic species of amphibian. The area contains the largest population of the endemic mountain nyala about 1500 individuals in the Bale Mountains are estimated to be approximately half the global population. The area contains the entire global population of the giant molerat. Of the area's recorded mammals, 26% are Ethiopian endemics. The Bale Mountain is the most important area for birds in the on the country, of the areas recorded birds, 6.1% are Ethiopian endemics. The Afroalpine plateau and the Harenna forest (the second largest stand of moist and tropical forest remaining in Ethiopia) form watershed of the area. The Bale Mountains contains over half the global population of the Ethiopian Wolves. This is the rarest (Critically Endangered) canid in the world and is found only in suitable Afroalpine habitats in Ethiopia. (Figure 1.4.).

A B

Figure 1.4. Endemic animals of the Bale Mountains, the Ethiopian wolf (A) and Mountain Nyala (B)

The area can be divided into five vegetation zones: these are primarily demarcated by altitude. Each of these zones has their own characteristics flora and fauna. There is a small area of grassland in the Gaysay valley in the very north of the park. The northern slopes of the area are covered with woodland. Above this zone, there is a belt of Erica or heather. Again, above this zone lies the area of the central peaks and the plateau consisting of Afroalpine Moorland. Finally, the southern part of the area-the Herenna Forest-is dense, closed canopy forest. (Stuart Williams, 2002).

1.3. Previous work in the study area

The Bale Mountains and the surrounding area lie within Arsi-Bale Mountains of the eastern Ethiopia plateau. Unlike the western Ethiopian plateau, geological, dyke and hydrogiological investigations have been carried out to a lesser extent in the eastern Ethiopia plateau. Regional geological mapping has been published at 1:250000 scale (EIGS, 1998). This is one of the areas that provide important data on Ethiopian volcanics. In southeastern Ethiopian plateau, the Cenozoic volcanics of Bale area have been described, dated and correlated with volcanic rocks across Ethiopia Berhe et al., (1987). Based on seven new K-Ar dating Berhe et al., (1987) described the general stratigraphy of the Bale area into four major groups forming a succession of basalts and trachytes about 2000 m thick: the Lower Stratoid Basalts, the Reira Basalts, the Dodola and Aroresa Trachytes and the Sanetti basalts and Batu Trachytes. These can be considered as basic stratigraphic reference for the study area. According to Hambisa, (2000) the southeastern Ethiopian plateau, the Dodola area is built of two coexisting bimodal alkaline magma series. This includes the late Oligocene lower (pre-rift) basanite-phonolite lineage and the Mid Miocene-Late Pliocene Upper (rift-type) basanite/alkali basalt-trachyte/rhyolite lineage. The rocks are fairly porphyritic to aphyric; the essential minerals are olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase in the mafic lavas, and feldspars, clinopyroxene, and titanomagnetite in the salic lavas with minor apatite and ilmenite in some rocks. The petrological and geochemical data imply that fractional crystallization is the major process responsible for the evolution of both lava series. Major elements chemistries display features agreeable with extraction of olivine, clinopyroxene, and plagioclase from mafic magmas followed by feldspars, titanomagnetite, and apatite from felsic ones. The strong similarities in Sr and Nd isotopic compositions of these lavas to basalts from western Ethiopia, the Afar, main Ethiopian rift, and Salali (Kenya) evidently suggest that the existence of similar mantle beneath Ethiopia and Kenya.

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1.4. The present research

1.4.1. Objectives

- To map in detail the dyke swarms from satellite images and analyze dyke samples composition. Remote sensing technique allows high-resolution structural mapping of extensive area in short time and low cost.
- To produce thematic maps of geological structures (dykes, faults and lineaments), drainage density, slope steepness, elevation, soil type, Landcover, and Biological factors (burrowing of rodents) from remotely sensed data, which are input for the GIS model.
- To develop a GIS model by integrating different thematic layers generated from remotely sensed and the existing data of the area in order to predict groundwater potential zones.
- To identify lithologic units using different image processing techniques.

1.5. Materials and methods

1.5.1. Materials

In order to achieve the above-mentioned objectives, the generation of new data and collection of secondary data have been carried out for the study area. The primary data derived are drainage density, lineament, elevation, slope, and the secondary data includes rainfall, land cover and soil map of the area. Remotely sensed satellite images of Landsat ETM+ data and topographic maps were used to synthesize the primary and rectify the secondary data. Table 2.1. below show the available secondary data for the study area.

Table 2.1. Summary of the data used for the study

1.5.1.1. Remote sensing data

The remote sensed data used for this study are Landsat ETM+ (Enhanced Thematic Mapper Plus) and aerial photographs. The Landsat ETM+ has different spectral and spatial resolutions. The spectral bands ranges from the panchromatic data having 15 m spatial resolution, six bands in the visible, near-IR, and mid-IR spectrum at a resolution of 30 m and one thermal band at 60m resolution. For the purpose of this study only visible, near-IR, and mid-IR band and a few aerial photographs were considered. The Landsat 7 ETM+ images of the study area lies on two scenes having path/row as 167/55 and 168/55, each covers about 185km by 185km that are taken on two different periods, 31 January 2001 and 5 February 2000 respectively. To carry out image analysis, two scenes were mosaicked and resized to the area of interest. In order to set the correct geographic position of each features, georeferencing of layer stacked Landsat ETM+ bands Band 1, blue (0.45-0.515 µm), band 2, green (0.525-0.605 µm), band 3, red (0.63-0.69 µm), band 4, near-IR (0.75-0.9 µm), band 5, mid-IR (1.55-1.75 µm) and band 7, far-IR (2.09-2.35 µm) with topographic map at the scale 1:50,000 were done by collecting 14 ground control points using nearest neighbour resembling techniques that gives an acceptable RMS value of 0.777. The six spectral bands of the Landsat ETM+ ranges from visible, near-IR and mid-IR regions at a resolution of 30m.

1.5.1.2 Field data

Geological data collection

Geometrical description of dykes, samples of rock and dykes were collected to analyze petrographic description and some samples were sent to France for dating.

1.5.1.3 Software used

The softwares used in this research are as follows:

- ENVI 3.5 was used for georeferencing and different image processing techniques;
- Cartlinx for the digitization and editing of all vector data.
- Arcview 3.2 for data acquisition, analysis and presentation (on screen digitization, grid generation, and overlay analysis);
- AutoCAD Map 2000 for creating 768 grids (2km by 2km) of the area to be used for drainage density calculation and for on screen digitization of contours.
- MapInfo Professional 6 for the purpose of calculating the length of drainage within the grids.

• Microsoft Excel for creating databases for different thematic layers.

1.5.3. Methodology

The flow chart designed below was utilized as a methodology to obtain the desired final out put of the objectives.

Figure 1.5. Flowchart of the methodology

APPLICATION OF REMOTE SENSING AND GIS FOR GEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION AND GROUNDWATER POTENTIAL ZONE IDENTIFICATION, SOUTHEASTERN ETHIOPIAN PLATEAU, BALE MOUNTAINS AND THE SURROUNDING AREAS

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ABSTRACT

The application of remote sensing and GIS has found to be a quick and inexpensive technique in order to obtain the desired output efficiently. For the present study an attempt was made to map dykes, lithology and other thematic maps such as of drainage density, slope, elevation, lineament, rainfall, landcover and burrowing of rodents and then to integrate them in a GIS environment to get information about the occurrence of groundwater and used to select promising areas for further groundwater exploration.

The present study was conducted on southeastern part of Ethiopia plateau, the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas. Satellite image of Landsat ETM+ of all bands except the thermal bands were utilized for lithologic and geologic structures mapping. Topographic map at the scale of 1:50,000 were used to generate elevation contour at the interval of 20m. Slope map were derived from TIN (Triangulated Irregular Network), which is derived from elevation contour map. Spatial distribution of drainage density was derived by using three softwares AutoCAD map 2000 engineering software, Arcview3.2 and MapInfo professional 6.0. The burrowing of Rodents were mapped from field Knowledge and using 742(RGB) that shows areas of rodent burrowing activities. Secondary data of landcover, soil were also utilized. Groundwater potentiality in the area has been assessed through the integration of the different thematic layers that contributes for the natural recharging of aquifer. The predicted groundwater potential zones were divided into 5 classes from very good up to poor.

Color composite, ratio and PCA (Principal Component analysis) were made to interpret the lithology of the area. Due to vegetation cover and similarities of reflectance of different rock units it was difficult to separate them. The field knowledge and some petrographic analysis support the identification of the lithology.

Key words: dykes, lithology, groundwater potential zone prediction, Remote Sensing and GIS

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CHAPTER 2: Geological setting

2.1. Regional geology

Continental flood volcanic provinces, mostly composed of flood basalts, were erupted over extensive periods with greater inconsistencies in the range of their ages Mohr (1983a), Carlson (1991) and Baker et al. (1996). Thick sequences of volcanic rocks dominated by the eruption of flood basalts occurred during Cenozoic time where the major volcanic activities took place over large part of Ethiopia. A greater part of immense volcanic pile outpoured in a geologically short period of time, probably of the order of 1 million years. Many of the volcanic episodes were linked with the change in global climate and mass extinction Kent 1995; Hofmann et al., 1997. Flood volcanism occurs only within the mantle thermal anomaly caused by the plume and that the plumes most likely originate from the core mantle boundary layer and/or from the 660/670 km seismic discontinuity (Carlson, 1991; Kent, 1995; Hofmann, 1997 and references therein as cited in Hambisa, 2000). In the Middle East and East Africa, the Cenozoic lava flows form one of the conspicuous volcanic association coupled with the development of the Arabo-African rift system. The pre-rift (also called 'Trap Series', or Plateau volcanics) continental flood volcanism (CFV) in Yemen and Ethiopia is both spatially and temporally intimately associated with the geodynamic evolution of the Arabo-African continental break up. This Cenozoic CFV extends over a large area from Kenya and southernmost Ethiopia through Eritrea, Djibouti and Yemen to southern Saudi Arabia, being the majority occurred in the African plate (Figure 2.1, after Baker et al., 1996 as cited in Hambisa, 1997). Because this province embraces the Afar triple junction, where the East African rift system meets the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden sea floor spreading zones, it has prompted a search for tholeiitic basalts in the region

Figure 2.1. Distribution of Cenozoic volcanism in East Africa and Arabian Peninsula after Baker et al. (1996).

The Ethiopian plateau is cut by the Afar and rift valley into two parts, the western and eastern Ethiopian plateau. In SE Ethiopia, the lower stratoid flood basalts range from 30±4.5 to 23.5±4.5Ma.and unconformably overlain by the Reira-Sanetti shield volcanics, which range from c. 15 to c. 2Ma. The unconformity is marked by a paleosol, as are several of the intervals between the major volcanic stages of Ethiopia. (Berhe et al, 1997)

The Ethiopian flood basalts were erupted in three major stages. Stage 1, which is mainly older than 40Ma, is separated from stage 2, 34 to 30Ma for NW Ethiopia and 40 to 30Ma for SW Ethiopia, by erosional unconformities. Stage 3 spans 30 to 26Ma in NW Ethiopia, and 30 to 21Ma in SW Ethiopia and both are marked by the incoming of silicic volcanism. In W Ethiopia, stages 1 and 3 are not developed, whilst in SE Ethiopia the tertiary volcanism commences with stage 3 flood basalts. The overlying shield volcanics; (25 to 13Ma in NW Ethiopia and 15 to 7Ma in W Ethiopia) represent a localized terminal episode built on the plateau and are considered a fourth stage.

The earliest volcanism is restricted two areas: in SW Ethiopia, where the Akobo basalts give ages as old as 49.4Ma (Davidson and Rex 1980), and in NW Ethiopia the Ashenge basalts underlie the Aiba basalts which are dated at 34 to 30Ma.

The Cenozoic volcanism of Bale area, a layer of basalt and trachytes form a thickness of about 2000-2300 m. The Lower Stratoid Basalts, the Reira Basalts, the Dodola and Arorsa Trachytes and the Sanetti Basalts and Batu Trachytes. The Lower Stratoid Basalts, which is the oldest volcanics, is represented by Aiba flood basalts. These are overlain by the Damole Ignimbrites that composed of rhyolites and alkali rhyolites with welded and unwelded ashflow tuffs (Berhe et al, 1987). The silicic lavas and the pyroclastics belonging to the Alaji Formation have no representative in this region. The shield- forming Termaber basalts are represented by the Bale Shield volcanics which are localized and terminal episodes built on the plateau flood volcanics.

There are four major formations of flood volcanic successions that are subdivided based on composition and age. These are:

- 1. Ashenge flood Basalt Formation,
- 2. Aiba flood Basalt Formation,
- 3. Alaji Rhyolite Formation, and
- 4. Termaber Shield Basalt Formation

The older rock formations cover much of the plateau regions of Ethiopia.

The volcanic successions in Bale area are divided into four groups (Berhe et al, 1987). From the oldest to the youngest are described below:

- 1. The Lower Stratoid Basalts,
- 2. The Reira Basalts,
- 3. Dodola and Aroresa trachytes, and

4. Sanetti Basalts and Batu Trachytes.

1. The Lower Stratoid Basalts

This volcanic rocks, 10m to 150m of thickness, lie on Proterozoic basement rocks. The rock types are dominated by basaltic flows that are weathered and aphyric texture. K-Ar dating shows age range from 30 ± 4.5 to 23.5 ± 4.5 Ma (Berhe et al, 1987). This unit is overlain by Damole ignimbrites (200m-250m thick composed of rhyolites and alkali rhyolites with welded and unwelded ashflow tuffs) to the east and by the Reira basalts to the west.

2. The Reira Basalts

It a succession of aphyric, pyroxene and plagioclase-phyric basalts having thickness of 600m. The various units are separated by scoracious basaltic horizons and paleosols. This unit is unconformably overlie the Damole Ignimbrites to the east and the Stratoid Basalts to the west. The Reira basalts have been dated as middle to upper Miocene (5.3 ± 1) Ma) (Berhe et al, 1987) and unconformably overlain by Aroresa Trachytes and Dodola Ignimbrites.

3. Dodola and Aroresa Trachytes

This group of rocks consists of rhyolitic ignimbrites, trachytes and ash flow tuffs, with fluviolacusterine intercalations within the ignimbrites. The rocks are restricted to the Dodola area and are unconformably underlain by the Reira basalts. These units are of upper Miocene to Pliocene (5.3-2.1 Ma). These volcanics were described by Merla et al, 1979 as the Ginir Unit to which were ascribed age of 6 to 2Ma. The Dodola ignimbrite is named separately as the Adaba Ignimbrite of age 2.35 Ma. (Eberz et al. 1988).

4. Sanetti Basalts and Batu Trachytes

This forms the second volcanic edifices in Ethiopia. These volcanics were erupted from different centres show rapid lateral thickness variations. Frequently recent olivine basalts are observed along riverbeds, in a few cases covering tens of kilometres. These rocks are dated as late Pliocene (2 Ma, Sanetti basalts) to Quaternary (Batu Trachytes).

2.2. Field observations

At the central part of the study area there are huge trachytic and rhyolitic lavas that flow towards west and north from their sources. The sources of the lava flows looks like coming from central vents aligned along a given structure (elongated fissure). Satellite image interpretation shows the presence of major NE-SW structure along the source of the lava. There are NE-SW aligned rivers that are indicative of pre-existing tectonic event. The evidence of succession of volcanic products of Ash, Ignimbrite flow and Trachytic lava are typical exposures around central volcano. The presence of trachytic plugs is also indicative of central volcanic activities on the area. The sense of flow of the lava looks like as it come out from a given centre and expands away from the centre.

Due to regional coverage capability satellite image, caldera feature was identified. It shows tilting blocks around the rim of the caldera (Figure 2.2.). The caldera is \sim 16 km by \sim 13 km in diameter. Post caldera volcanic activities are observed inside the caldera as interpreted from images.

The presence of recent mafic scoracious basalt, the presence of normal faults morphology which are not well matured and the presence of elongated structure (fissure) where recent lava flows come out through vents possibly show the area is still geologically active. Unlike rift valley, where there are regional extensions, the Bale Mountains and the surrounding area does not show well defined tectonics.

Figure 2.2. Tilting blocks on the rim of the caldera.

CHAPTER 3: Application of remote sensing in geological investigation

Geological mapping involves recording geological information on to a map. The geological information includes the distribution, nature and age relationships of the rock units and the occurrence of structural feature, mineral deposits (Jackson 1997). Since conventional geological mapping involves men working in the field and logistics, it is time, cost and effort consuming work. In contrast, remote sensing images that cover large area with in short time and low cost is usually used for geological explorations before conducting field works. Remote sensing sensors can detect different reflectance beyond human eye can detect that is limited to the visible portion of electromagnetic spectrum.

Areas covered by vegetation and/or weathering product, the images obtained from these covers are not representative of the bedrock geology. On the other hand different bedrocks support different vegetation, and different bedrocks produce different alterations. This shows that it is possible to indirectly reflect the characteristics of the bedrock, therefore it is used to support geological mappings. In addition to geological mapping, hydrothermal alterations that are related to certain mineral deposits can be well mapped Sabins, (1999). The six spectral bands of the Landsat ETM+ at visible, near-IR and mid-IR regions at a resolution of 30m were considered for this purpose. Landsat ETM+ bands are (Band 1, blue $(0.45-0.515 \mu m)$, band 2, green $(0.525-$ 0.605 µm), band 3, red (0.63-0.69 µm), band 4, near-IR (0.75-0.9 µm), band 5, mid-IR (1.55-1.75 μ m) and band 7, far-IR (2.09-2.35 μ m) (Figure 3.1). Here an attempt was made to identify features (geologic or landcover) using remote sensing image interpretation.

Figure 3.1 Landsat ETM+ bands, band 1,2,3,4,5, and 7 of the study area.

3.1 Ratio images

Remote sensing softwares help to analyze the mineral content of an area from the Landsat images. Figure 3.3 shows laboratory reflectance of iron oxides and clay minerals that is the basis for ratio analysis. The three ratios, 3/1, 5/7, and 5/4 were selected for their sensitivity to lithologic variables and for their lack of statistical redundancy (Crippen, 1989, Crippen et al., 1988). Iron oxides have high reflectance at Band 3 and low reflectance at Band 1 of the Landsat images (Figure 3.4 A.). Ferrous minerals have high reflectance on the ratio of band 5 and band 4 (5/4) (Figure 3.4.B). Clay minerals and vegetation have high reflectance at Band 5 and significantly lower reflectance at Band 7 (Figure 3.4.C). The ratios, Band 5/Band 7 for vegetation and clay minerals, Band 5/Band 4 ratio for ferrous minerals, Band 3/Band 1 ratio for iron oxides (ferric iron), and color composite of the three ratios were tested on the study area.

As it is clearly observed the deep blue colour on (Figure 3.4 D) may be misinterpreted as clay rich terrain, but it is vegetation. This is because clay minerals and vegetation characterize high reflectance on ratio image of band 5 and band 7. To separate the clay and vegetation area ratio of band 4 and band 3 were tested due to the reason that the reflectance of vegetation is higher on this ratio than band 5 and band 7 but it was difficult to distinguish them.

Color composite of the ratio bands 3/1, 5/4 and 5/7 clearly identified the vegetated area and the rocky terrain. As it is observed on (Figure 3.4 D) southern and northern central part of the area is well-vegetated area as depicted from its blue color in response to high reflectance of vegetation on band 5/7. The Sanetti plateau entirely covered by volcanic products show high response for ferrous and ferric iron content and appears as variation of green and red. On the Sanetti plateau the ferrous minerals appears the dominant geochemical composition especially on the intermediate (Trachytic lava flow) and acidic (rhyolitic lava flow) that flows towards western and northern part of the Sanetti plateau.

Further enhancement of the hybrid colour composite 3/1, 5/4, 5/7 (RGB) transformed into the HLS (hue, lightness, saturation) identify distinct geologic unit in the vegetated area. (Figure 3.5). On the 1:250000 geological map, only one intrusive syenite exposure is mapped as Hornblende alkali-feldspar syenite and lesser Hornblende nepheline syenite that intruded aphyric and porphyritic basalt.

A= Ratio:(3/1) **B=** Ratio:(5/4)

Figure 3.4 Ratio images and their colour composite 3/1, 5/4, 5/7 (RGB)

Figure 3.5 Ratio color composite 3/1, 5/4, 5/7 (RGB) transformed into the HLS (hue, light and saturation), the syenite rock is clearly identified within forest.

3.2 Principal component analysis

The application of principal component analysis on geological investigation is a means of concentrating important information about earth features into a few principal component images. The analysis generates the same number principal components as the number of bands used. The first principal component contains the highest variance from all bands used. As the order of the principal component increases the information contents will decrease. The principal component images are expressed by Eigen vectors, which are the loadings of each band to highlight spectral variation between the principal components. The loadings are high and positive for the first principal component indicating that the first PC is the average of all bands involved in the principal component analysis. Principal component analysis is a means of data reduction by compressing the original data into a lower order component. The principal components can be displayed as false colour composite image. The decolrrelation between different principal components allow subtle variation of surface features. Based on these assumptions principal component analysis were tested for the study area. The available ETM+ bands 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7 grouped into band 1, 3, 4 and 5 and bands 1, 4, 5 and 7 due to their sensitivity for ferric minerals and OH- containing minerals respectively. Principal component with high positive or negative loadings for band 1 and band 3 in the eigenvector matrix gives a measure of redness that is related to oxidized iron minerals. Likewise, principal component of OH will similarly have high loadings for bands 5 and 7 in the eigenvector matrix. By adding these two PCs will give the third PC which highlight areas rich in iron oxides and/or OH⁻ (Drury, 2001).

Table 3.1. PCs for bands 1, 3, 4, and 5

Interpretation of statistics of the above eigenvector matrix shows that the eigenvector for PC 1 shows high degree of variability of loading from band 1 having positive eigenvector in contrast to negative loading of band 3 (Figure 3.6 A). PC 1 is considered to detect ferric minerals. A component that has high positive loading on band 4 and high value with negative loading band 5, expresses the vegetation density and variability (Figure 3.6B) shows distinct bright feature of vegetation). PC 4 shows high positive and negative loading between band 1 and band 5 that show the presence of clay containing soil. PC 3 lacks to show any peculiar feature as a reason it is omitted to be incorporated in the false color composite (Figure 3.6 D). Figure 3.7 shows PC 1, PC 2, PC 3 displayed as (RGB) that distinctly identify the vegetated area, the clay containing soil and ferric rich volcanic materials.

Figure 3.6. Principal component images derived from bands 1, 3, 4, and 5 (A, B, C, D)

Figure 3.7. PC1, PC2, PC3 displayed as false colour composite in (RGB).

For the analysis of principal components derived from band 1, 4, 5 and 7 the following eigenvectors table were generated (Table 3.2) and interpreted the similar way as interpreted for PCs generated from band 1,3,4 and 5.

Eigenvectors

Table 3.2 PCs for band 1, 4, 5, and 7

PC 1 enhances the rocky surfaces (band 7 has high sensitivity for rocky surface); PC 2 and PC 3 enhance the vegetated area (high positive loading of band 4). PC 4 has high loading for from band 5 and negative loading from band 7 that may imply the presence of clay.

Figure 3.8 Principal component color composite image PC1, PC2, PC3 (RGB) derived from Principal component analysis of band 1, 3, 5 and 7.

Different rock types can have similar reflectance; trachyte and/or Rhyolite, and basalt show similar reflectance depending on the surface smoothness. As shown on the PC color composites image, both rock types have red color at places where the surface smoothness is similar. The sanetti plateau is mainly basaltic volcanic material that is also evidenced from petrographic analysis- e.g. porphyritic olivine basalt (see Table 3.3 petrographic analysis San-2). The blue color represents intermediate and acidic materials-trachyte and rhyolite. The blue color at SW part of the image, on the eroded (rough surface) Harenna escarpment represents Aphyric basalt.
Therefore, It can be concluded that smooth areas within the trachyte and rhyolite rocks appears red in color as the basalt on the sanetti plateau.

From Table 3.1 PC1 (detecting ferric mineral) and from Table 3.2 PC4 (detecting clay mineral) were tested to enhance the sensitivity of ferric mineral and/or OH. This is done by adding PC1, PC4, then displaying PC1, PC2 and PC1+PC4 as (RGB). The resultant image is shown below (Figure 3.9). It shows similar regions like the images interpreted above

Figure 3.9 Color composite images of PC1, PC4, PC1+PC4 (RGB)

Generally it can not be totally rely on remote sensing for geologic mapping because as shown in the study area the vegetation cover hinders information that can be obtained from rocks and similar reflectance can be recorded due to compositional similarities of rocks e.g. Trachyte and Rhyolite.

Table 3.3 petrographic descriptions of volcanic rocks of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

Sample	Location	Rock types	Description
$Din-14$	576889E	Porphyritic	The rock shows porphyritic texture. The phenocrysts occupy $(30 \text{ vol.}\%)$ in groundmass of $(70 \text{ vol.}\%)$. The phenocrysts
	797980N	Olivine	contain subhedral plagioclase (15 vol. %), subhedral pyroxene (10 vol. %), and euhedral olivine (5 vol. %). The
		Basalt	(70 vol. %) groundmass is composed of lath-shaped plagioclase, anhedral pyroxene, and euhedral opaques (Iron
			oxides) and some volcanic glasses. Some of alteration of plagioclase into Calcite and pyroxene into chlorite is observed
			glomeroporphyritic texture and some of them shows zoning.
Kote-2	580357E	Rhyolite	Considering the volume proportionin the groundmass and phynocrysts the rock contains (75 vol. %) euhedral
	775907N		sanadine, (15 vol. %) euhedral to subhedral quartz, (10 vol. %) volcanic glass and (<1%) tiny granules of hornblende.
			No secondary and opaque minerals exist. The groundmass contains volcanic glass and fine-grained sanadine, quartz
			and hornblende. The rock shows flow/trachytic texture that appears on the parallel alignments of sanadine minerals in
			preferred direction.
$Din-03b$	574659E	Trachyte	The phenocrysts and groundmass occupy equal proportions (50 vol. %) each. The phenocrysts contain (35 vol. %)
	770688N		euhedral to subhedral sanadine, (15 vol. %) subhedral to anhedral quartz and (1 vol. %) subhedral pyroxene. The
			groundmass is composed of very fine-grained sanadine, lath-plagioclase, pyroxene, quartz, and volcanic glass and
			opaque (iron oxides). No secondary minerals observed. The rock texture is flow/trachytic texture defined by sub-
			parallel alignments of sanadine and some plagioclases.
Kawa-3	576208E	Porphyritic	The rock shows porphyritic texture. The phenocrysts and groundmass occupy equal proportions (50 vol. %) each. The
	796628N	Basalt	phenocrysts contain (35 vol. %) subhedral to anhedral plagioclase, (13 vol. %) subhedral to anhedral pyroxene and (2
			vol. %) subhedral olivine. The groundmass is composed of lath-shaped plagioclase, very fine-grained pyroxene,
			olivine and opaque. Some of the plagioclases show zoning. Little alteration products of calcite and chlorite are
			observed. The rock texture is porphyritic.

CHAPTER 4: Dyke analysis

4.1 Regional distribution of dykes in Ethiopia

On the rift margin, the Sagetu Ridge dyke swarm has been studied by Mohr and Potter (1976), Mohr (1980), and kennan et al., (1990). On the western Ethiopian plateau, the best known dyke swarm exposures are on the Afar margins and the plain area southwest of Lake Tana, Dykes exposed across the tilted blocks of the Afar margin along the Kombolcha-Bati road were investigated by Abate and Sagri (1969), Justin-Visentin and Zanettin (1974), and Mohr (1983). Reconnaissance mapping of dykes in Tana-Belaya area, western Ethiopia, has been carried out by Jepsen and Athearn (1963a). In Tana Belaya area field investigation and satellite image analysis shows the existence of two dyke swarms, the NE-SW Serpent-God dyke swarm, and the NW-SE Dinder-dyke swarm having age of 30Ma, is believed to be feeders of the Traps (Mege et al. 2004). Other investigated dyke swarms in Ethiopia and Eritrea include the dykes from the Angareb ring complex (Hahn et al. 1977) and the Asmara dyke swarm (Mohr, 1999). Other dyke swarms have been identified (Mohr, 1971; Mohr and Zanettin, 1988, and personal observations). (Figure 4.1)

Figure 4.1 Distribution of the main dyke swarms in Ethiopia according to and Modified after Mohr and Zanettin (1988). Many of the dyke swarms except some have not studied yet and unreported swarms may exist.

4.2 Dykes of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas

Dyke swarms of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas have not yet been investigated with regard to their structural and geometrical aspect. Measurements of dip, strike, thickness and composition were taken in the field mainly from the northern part of the study area, called Atiba or Kawa. About 43 dykes were identified on the field that are localized on Kawa area. Due to the problem of inaccessibility it was difficult to identify the likely occurrence of more dykes on the Harenna escarpment and Sanetti plateau. At the southern end of sanetti plateau where the Harenna escarpment starts dykes where observed from the interpretation satellite images. It may imply that there would be many basaltic dykes that likely act as feeders for flood basalt. Age analysis on the dykes and the flood basalt could be a confirmation whether they are a feeder or not. Basaltic dyke exposures may be covered by the thick Harenna forest or not exposed to the surface due to high viscosity of the magma.

Majority of the silicic and mafic dykes are oriented NS and some NE-SW direction (Figure 4.2 and 4.3). In addition, it is observed that EW trending fresh basaltic dyke crossing the older one (Figure 4.4). The dyke strikes are consistent with the strike measured from satellite image and aerial photograph.

Figure 4.2 Histogram of strike of dykes as a function of compositional variation and frequency for 43 dykes measured in the field.

Figure 4.3 Scatter plot of strike angle of 43-dyke measured in the field.

Figure 4.4 Basaltic dykes around Kawa area, where fresh basaltic dyke (injection 2) cross cut the other older basaltic dyke (injection 1).

The dip of the dykes ranges from 45° W-85°W, out of 8 field measurements, 7 dykes are basaltic and only 1 dyke is silicic in composition. All dykes have dipping towards west; most of them have dip between 75° and 85° (Figure 4.5)

Figure 4.5 Histogram of dip of dykes measured in the field as a function of compositional variation and frequency.

Majority of the dykes have thickness (surfacial cover measurement) less than 10m (Figure 4.6.). During field observation only two dykes have a thickness of about 20m and 25m.

Figure 4.6 Scatter plot of 43-dyke thickness measured in the field.

Satellite interpretation of the Landsat ETM+ image was not spatially detailed enough to identify the short thickness and length of dykes on the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas. Short length of the dykes can be interpreted, as due to local tectonics, otherwise the dykes must have kilometres of length if it is related to regional tectonics. High viscosity of the silicic dykes creates vertical topographic relief for these dykes than basaltic dyke and is more easily identifiable on the field and aerial photograph. Some of the silicic dykes on Kawa area show en echelon arrangement.

Around Kawa the composition of the dykes is variable ranging from mafic, intermediate to acidic (majority). It may imply the area is the center of volcanism. It is also evidenced that there are N15^oE, N5^oE, N170^oE dykes oriented that looks radiating from a given center (Figure 4.7). The basaltic rocks and dykes exposed at Kawa area have porphyritic texture was showing the presence of shallow magma chamber that allow the crystals to grow at a bigger size.

Figure 4.7 Radiating dykes around northern part of the study area (Kawa).

During fieldwork springs have been observed emerging out through fractures at the contact between the country rock and basaltic dykes, and between the valley and the dyke (Figure 4.8). These could be the effect of local groundwater movement. Unlike the mafic dykes the silicic dykes do not show baked and chilled margin (Figure 4.9a and Figure 4.9b)

Figure 4.8 Altered and fractured dyke with chilled and baked margin.

Figure 4.9a Silicic dyke not showing chilled and baked margin.

Figure 4.9b Field photograph of columnar jointing due to cooling effect on Basaltic dyke; strike N5^oE, thickness 1.8 m. Water comes out at the contact of dyke and country rock

Though the trend of the dykes is similar to those found in the main Ethiopian rift and the Sagetu ridge dyke, the dykes on Bale Mountain and the surrounding area are smaller both in thickness and length so that it may imply local tectonic effect.

The silicic dykes are sub-vertical and the s_3 the direction of the minimum compressive principal stress is horizontal and perpendicular to trend of these dykes. During dyke emplacement, the minimum principal compressive stress was therefore mostly trending EW. Table 4.1 below shows measurements of different parameters measured in the field and figure 4.10 shows mapped dykes, faults, lineaments and thin section sample locations.

Table 4.1. Geometric measurements and composition of dykes.

Figure 4.10 Dykes, faults, lineaments and thin section location on Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

CHAPTER 5: Application of remote sensing and GIS for groundwater potential zone identification.

5.1. Introduction

Exploration of groundwater initially involves the application of remote sensing and GIS before conducting any fieldwork, geophysical prospecting, and drilling test. This will reduce effort, time and money used in exploration and also increase the accuracy of finding groundwater. Keeping this in view, the present work has been attempted on hard rock terrains of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas by integrating newly generated and existing thematic layers that influence the occurrence and distribution of groundwater. The generation of new layer has been done through the application of remote sensing data and then integrating them in GIS environment to obtain correct information about the layers. Studies of this type has been conducted by many authors Prakash, 1993, Roy and Ray 1993, Chaudhary et al., 1996 and Ravindran and Jeyram, 1997). Eight thematic layers were considered for the determination of groundwater potential zones on Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas. These are: drainage density, lineament, elevation, slope steepness, landcover, soil, rainfall, and biological factor (burrowing of rodents). Different classes were identified for each criterion and arranged in their decreasing order of weight. Appropriate weightage has been defined on the basis of their contribution to the groundwater potentiality (availability). In order to demarcate the final groundwater potential zone a methodology has been followed. (see Figure 1.5)

5.1.1 Drainage density

The drainage density depends on the slope, nature and attitude of bedrocks and the existing regional and local fracture patterns. They reflect the lithology and structure of a given area and can be of great value for groundwater resources evaluation. Drainage density is approached in two ways with respect to groundwater: the drainage pattern and the drainage density. In the study area denderitic, trellis and parallel types of drainage patterns are recognized. Parallel types of drainage patterns are indicative of the presence of structures that act as conduits or storage for sub-surface water. These structurally controlled drainage patterns are observed NE part of the study area. The denderitic drainage pattern is the manifestation of lithological and topographic homogeneity.

The drainage density with respect to groundwater potential is determined by analysing the drainage density calculated using the stream length within grid area. Higher the drainage density the lesser the infiltration capacity that is low void ratio of the terrain which in turn the lesser the groundwater potentiality. This is because much of water coming as rainfall goes as run off. In general drainage density is the most important parameter that control groundwater occurrence and distribution.

Due to the lack of software that directly calculate drainage density, a methodology is designed by integrating different softwares. Different analyses on different softwares were applied to map the drainage density. The first step is generating the grids, which are done on AutoCAD Map 2000 engineering application software. The grids with 4km2 area having 24 columns and 32 rows is exported as *.dxf format to Arcview 3.2 to carry out the clipping of the drainage by each grids. The *.dxf format is changed to *.shp then the *.dbf file is edited to assign ID for each grids on Microsoft excel and clipping according to the ID is done by loading the geoprocessing extension. Then, the clipped drainages were imported to MapInfo professional 6.00 software to determine the length of the drainage. Database for each clipped drainage and the area of the grid $4km^2$ were entered on Microsoft excel worksheet to calculate the drainage density. Finally coordinates were assigned for the centre of each of 768 grids to get point data of drainage density (Figure 5.1). The drainage density were calculated in each of the grid area using the following formula:

DD=∑L/A where, DD= Drainage density, L=Total length of streams with in 4km² grid, and A=Area of the grid.

Using Arcview 3.2, the point drainage density data were interpolated using IDW (Inverse Distance weighted) nearest neighbor interpolation technique having output grid cell size of 100m. 768 drainage density point data is classified into four groups based on logical reasoning considering the variation of drainage density that affect groundwater occurrences of the area (Table 5.1)

Figure 5.3 and figure 5.4 show the drainage network and drainage density grid map of the study area respectively.

Figure 5.3 Drainage network map of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas

Figure 5.4 Drainage density map of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.1.2 Slope steepness

Slope plays an important role in influencing the recharge of groundwater depending on the degree of gradient of the landscape. The study area lies topographically at higher elevation and having flat to dissected sloppy morphology. Flat areas are capable of holding the rainfall and facilitate recharge to groundwater as compared to steep slope area where water moves as runoff quickly. Slope was generated from elevation contour digitized from 1:50000 topographic maps prepared by Ethiopian Mapping Authority. TIN were generated from 20 m interval contour and then converted to grid using IDW nearest neighbor interpolation techniques with 100 m out put grid cell size. The grids were reclassified into 5 classes based on their relevance to groundwater recharge. (Table 5.2) and (Figure 5.5)

The Sanetti plateau have distinct geomorphologic feature that characterizes smooth rolling plain, with small alpine lakes and swamps distributed on Sanetti plateau (Figure 6.5). The Sanetti plateau extends between 3800 and 4050m a.s.l. (Sabine and Georg Miech, 1994). One of the alpine lakes for example the Garba Gurecha Lake recharged by springs that originates from the surrounding mountains (Figure 5.6a). The northeastern and west central part is also morphologically characterizes flat areas as it is shown from slope (0°-6°). Towards southern, southeastern and southwestern, the Sanetti plateau starts to change its elevation abruptly into very rugged escarpment known as Harenna escarpment, which has slope ranges dominantly from 12°-75°. North of Sanetti plateau, Eastern, and northwestern part of the study have rugged topography.

Figure 5.5 Slope map of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

Figure 5.6a One of Afro-alpine lakes, Garba Gurecha, on Sanetti plateau where recharged from springs originated from the surrounding highland.

Figure 5.6b The Afroalpine Lake and the associated swamp showing the retreating of the lake.

5.1.3 Elevation

Topographic information has been collected from topographic map prepared by Ethiopian Mapping Authority at the scale of 1:50,000 scale and TIN has been generated from 20 m contour interval. The elevation in the study area ranges from 1760 m to the highest peak at Tullu Dimtu, 4377 m. Grid were generated from TIN and seven classes of elevation were made. Many springs emerges out at lowlands are originated from bale mountains. Water tends to store at lower topography than at higher topography as a reason high weight is assigned for lower elevation areas as compared to higher elevations (Table 5.3) and Figure 5.7

Figure 5.7 Elevation map of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.1.4 Landcover

One of the parameter that influence the sub surface groundwater occurrence is the present condition of landcover and landuse of the area. The effect of landcover/landuse is manifested by either by reducing runoff and facilitates recharge or trap water on their leaf and water droplets go down to recharge groundwater or negatively they facilitate loss by evapotranspiration (especially in arid and semi-arid areas). For this particular case, the effect of evapotranspiration, interception assumed to be constant. Keeping this assumption, the effect of landcover on runoff was investigated. The landcover map at the scale of 1:100000 prepared by woody biomass inventory and strategic planning and confirmed using remote sensing techniques. The general classification comprises about 5 classes after regrouping the similar classes in a way that is suitable for groundwater prospecting (Table 5.4). Figure 5.8 shows the landscape with the associated vegetation belts and figure 5.9 shows landcover map of the study area.

Figure 5.8 Main landscape units of the Bale Mountains; cross section runs from SW-NE. The three belts of the present vegetation are indicated (Sabine and Georg Miech, 1994)

Figure 5.9 Landcover map of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

The Harenna forest is one of thick extensive the natural forest in Ethiopia. It has significant contribution in controlling the runoff coming from the plateau as a result first priority has been given. The second weight is given to the Ericaceous belt, which contains 8 m tall Erica dominated trees to 1-3 m tall scrub. The scrub is more or less open and being composed of different regeneration stages (Sabine and Georg Miech, 1994). The Erica scrub gradually disintegrate into 1.5 m to 0.5 m low solitary shrubs of spherical shapes which grow more or less closed these are the Afroalpine; grassland/moreland and third priority has been given (Figure 6.10). The cultivated land characterized by intensive cultivation and permanently coverd by crops. The last priority has been given to the grassland/unstocked (woody plant) is characterized by expansion of settlement and the land is becoming degraded as a consequence runoff is increasing.

Figure 5.10 The Afroalpine vegetation on Sanatti plateau.

5.1.5 Soil

The soil forming factors, climate, parent rock, vegetation, fauna and physiography are responsible for the type of soil formed and plays an important role on groundwater recharge through infiltration and loss through run-off. The type of soil and permeability affects the water holding and infiltrating capacity of a given soil. The Bale Mountains are entirely covered by volcanic products, the soils, mainly derived from basaltic and trachytic parent rock, are fairly fertile silty loams of reddish-brown to black color (Sabine and Georg Miech, 1994). Table 5.5 and Figure 5.11

The soil classes used for the groundwater investigation are based on the hydrologic property of FAO classification of soil FAO, (2001). In the study area there are about 6

types of soil classes. These are Cambisols, Histosols, Nitosols, Luvisols, Lithosols, and Vertisols (Table 6.5)

Cambisols

Most Cambisols are medium-textured and have a good structural stability, a high porosity, and good water holding capacity and good internal drainage. Most Cambisols also contain at least some weatherable minerals in the silt and sand fractions. Based on these characteristics, Cambisols have good infiltration capacity to recharge groundwater.

Histosols

Soil formed in organic containing material, incompletely decomposed plant remains, with or without admixtures of sand, silt or clay. It has large total pore volume of Histosols (typically > 85). Fibric Histosols are loosely packed in their natural state. Histosols are unlike all other soils in that they are formed in organic soil material with physical, chemical and mechanical properties that differ strongly from those of mineral soil materials. Organic soil material is soil material that contains more than 20 percent organic matter by weight, roughly equivalent to 30 - 35 percent by volume. Histosols that formed in organic soil material under the permanent influence of groundwater.

Nitosols

Nitosols are deep, well-drained, red soils. Finely textured weathering products of intermediate to basic parent rock, possibly rejuvenated by recent admixtures of volcanic ash. The clay assemblage of Nitisols is dominated by kaolinite. Nitisols are rich in iron and have little water-dispersible clay. It is red or reddish brown clayey soils. They are well-drained soils with a clayey subsurface horizon. Nitisols are free-draining soils and permeable to water (50- 60 percent pores). Their retention of `plant-available' moisture is only fair (5-15 percent by volume) but their total moisture storage is nonetheless satisfactory because the rootable soil layer extends to great depth, commonly deeper than 2 m. Most Nitisols can be tilled within 24 hours after wetting without serious deterioration of the soil structure.

Luvisols

Luvisols have distinct clay accumulation horizon. Most Luvisols are well drained but Luvisols in depression areas with shallow groundwater may develop gleyic soil properties in and below the argic horizon. Stagnic properties are found where a dense illuviation horizon obstructs downward percolation and the surface soil becomes saturated with water for extended periods of time. Soils in which clay is washed down from the surface soil to an accumulation horizon at some depth.

Leptosols

Leptosols accommodates very shallow soils over hard rock, within 25 cm from the soil surface, mostly land at high or medium altitude and with strongly dissected topography. Leptosols are found in all climatic zones, particularly in strongly eroding areas. Leptosols are genetically young soils and evidence of soil formation is normally limited to a thin A-horizon over an incipient B-horizon or directly over the unaltered parent material. Stagnic properties can occur in Leptosols on gentle slopes or in pockets but are rather exceptional. Their shallowness and/or stoniness, and implicit low water holding capacity. Swelling and shrinking smectitic clays in the mineral residue are accountable for the dominance of blocky structures. The excessive internal drainage of many Leptosols can cause drought even in a humid environment.

Vertisols

Commonly known as black cotton soil containing smectite clay that characterize sticky nature and have high water holding capacity and low infiltration capacity. Vertisols become very hard in the dry season and are sticky in the wet season. Tillage is difficult, except for a short period at the transition between the wet and dry seasons.

Figure 5.11 Soil map of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.1.6 Rainfall

Rainfall is one of the major sources for groundwater. The high rainfall amounts imply the possibility of high groundwater recharge and vice versa. The area characterized by high rainfall amount shows high groundwater potential zones. Spatial distribution of rainfall was generated using rainfall data from National Meteorological Services Agency. Due to uneven distribution of the rainfall stations the rainfall data might not indicative of the exact figure but it gives workable rainfall distribution. In addition to 7 rainfall stations data of the past 10 years taken from National Meteorological Services Agency, 3 stations records of mean annual rainfall from the year 1985-1991 were added from a book entitled with Ericaceous Forests and Heathlands in the Bale Mountains of South Ethiopia; Ecology and Man's Impact to increase meaningful distribution of rainfall. The isohyetal map were generated from point rainfall with out put grid cell size of 100 m using IDW nearest neighbor interpolation techniques. Then rainfall is classified into 4 regions and weight is assigned based on their relevance to groundwater exploration (Table 5.6)

Figure 5.12 Rainfall map of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.1.7 Lineaments

Faults and dykes are discontinuous earth's features that can be more easily identified and extrapolated on image than on the ground. These features are mapped as lineaments (indicators of subsurface fractures) influencing the occurrence of groundwater acting as conduits and/or reservoirs. The dykes can be either a conductor or a barrier depending on the intensity of fracturing. The length of dykes is also an important parameter in controlling regional subsurface water flow rather than local movement. The majority of the dykes have small thickness and length that shows their influence is on local groundwater movement rather than regional. Springs have been observed at the contact between the country rock and fractured basaltic dykes. The structures, locations, and orientations with respect to groundwater flow are very important. Mapping of the lineaments were done using false colour composite image of 742 (RGB) and each bands were investigating and compared interms of contrast and band 4 were selected because it shows good contrast and geological lineaments. Shaded relief of the also supports the lineament mapping. Distance analyses were carried out on the digitised structures (dykes, faults and lineaments) with output grid cell size of 100 m and weight has assigned based on distance to the structures. Areas close to the structures have got high weight and vice versa. Table 5.7. See (Figure 5.13 and 5.14)

Figure 5.13 Geological structures on the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

Figure 5.14 Distance to geological structures (dykes, faults and lineaments) of the Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.1.8 Biological factor (burrowing of rodents)

The extensive burrowing activities of numerous rodents especially the endemic Giant molerat, on the Bale Mountains on the level ground of broad valleys Weiyb and on Sanetti plateau in the vicinity of swamps or seasonally waterlogged areas (Sabine and Georg Miech, 1994). Geysey valley is also good area for rodents. The burrowing activities give the area the appearance of ploughed field. The estimated density of Molerate ranges from between 2600 (Beyene 1986) and 6300 per square kilometre in suitable habitat (Yalden 1975). The soil is very loose, burrowed as a consequence the recharge capability of the soil is significantly enhanced. It is also seen that this action maintains the vegetations at permanent stages. The burrow system of molerat is very extensive because the species harvests only those herbs which grow within the radius of its body length from a hole, allowing it to retreat very quickly if a predator approaches (Beyene, 1986, Yalden 1975). Thus, several holes have to be opened per day to satisfy the food demand of one individual. Consequently, large amounts of soil are turned over within short time (Figure 5.15 and 5.16). The soil excavated from the burrow system and deposited around the holes is successively colonized by afroalpine pioneer herbs and grasses. The burrowing activities have been classified into three classes. (Table 5.8)

Figure 5.15 shows the burrowed soil with the rodent (Giant Molerat).

Figure 5.16 Soil affected by burrowing of rodents

Figure 5.17 Burrowing affected areas on Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.2. Integration of thematic layers and modelling through GIS

The thematic layers include Drainage density, Slope, Elevation, Landcover, Rainfall, Soil, Geologic structures (dykes, faults and lineaments), and Biological factor (burrowing of rodents) (Figure 5.18). All point, contour and polygon data were converted to grid. Each of the class in the thematic layers was qualitatively described and reclassified by assigning numbers starting from 1 up to 7. Numbers were assigned based on groundwater potentiality of each class in layers. The higher the number the better groundwater potentiality (availability). After assigning weight the integration of all layers were carried out applying raster overlay analysis in a GIS environment (Arcview 3.2) using the following formula:

GWP=DD+EL+SL+SO+LC+RF+ST+BF Where, **GWP**=Groundwater Potential

 DD=Drainage density, **EL**=Elevation, **SL**=Slope, **SO**=Soil, **LC**=Landcover, **RF**=Rainfall, **ST**=structures and **BF**=Biological factor (burrowing of rodents)

Through this analysis the total weights of the final integrated grids were derived as the sum of the weights assigned to the classes of the different layers. The delineation of the groundwater potential zone was made by grouping the grids of the final integrated layers into different potential zones. The grouping was made by considering logical reasoning instead of dividing the maximum and the minimum value into different categories. Based on this 5 classes of groundwater potential zones were identified (Table 5.9).

Figure 5.19 Groundwater potential zones of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

Figure 5.20 The most suitable groundwater potential zones of Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas.

5.3 Concluding remarks

The delineation of preliminary groundwater potential zones through the integration of different thematic layers obtained from remote sensing interpretation and other secondary data has found to be effective techniques for analysing the information content of each layer in GIS environment. The analysis would give meaningful results without the need of conducting fieldwork, geophysical and test drilling which are time, effort and cost consuming activities. This technique would give broad ideas about the groundwater potentiality of the areas and then minimize the areas where detail groundwater exploration activities to be carried out to study sub surface aquifer condition (storability and conductivity) through geophysics and drilling test. The outcome of the application of remote sensing and GIS on Bale mountains showed reasonable results where high potentiality on the areas of Weyib valley and Geysey valley due to the cumulative effect of high contribution of the rodents, soil, slope, drainage density, rainfall give one of the potential area for natural recharging of the aquifer of the area. The Weyib valley is one of the most important catchments of the Bale Mountain. The burrows of the Giant Molerat are confined to open, afroalpine habitat where there is high groundwater table or periodic water stagnation. The eroded and steep part of the Harenna escarpment and the rugged geomorphology on the northern part of Sanetti plateau shows less groundwater potentiality. Groundwater potential map generated through this process will help planners and decision makers for devising and feasible groundwater development plans. This type of analysis similarly can be applied at a regional scale on another part of Ethiopia where there is a significant need of water for irrigation, drinking purpose.

CHAPTER 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions

- The dykes on Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas are generally small in thickness and length that may relate to local tectonics.
- The dykes exposed at the margin of the Harenna escarpments suggest the existence of more dykes in the Harenna forest.
- The dykes on Kawa area have various lithology and some of them looks radiating from a given source that indicate the source of the magma may situated around Kawa.
- The application of remote sensing and GIS has found to be effective techniques for generating data and integrating the different layers such as drainage density, slope steepness, elevation, soil types, land cover, annual rainfall, geological structures and biological factors for groundwater resource assessment which reduce costs, time and effort used for conducting detail work and in turn increase the accuracy of final results.
- Geological mapping using only remote sensing give partial correct result due to the problems of high vegetation cover and two or more rock types may show similar reflectance like observed on the study area, Bale Mountains.

Recommendations

- On Bale Mountains and the surrounding areas the utilization of high spatial resolution remote sensing data like SPOT and/or RADAR image is recommended. RADAR is useful to enhance and locate small dykes due to corner reflector of the dykes.
- Basaltic dykes exposed on Kawa (north of study area) show systematic dipping towards the west. Further study needs to be done to reason out what geodynamic implication it has.
- The area between Dinsho and Goba must be studied in detail from structural point of view.
- Geological Mapping using only remote sensing mislead to incorrect result so it must be supported with fieldwork.
- GIS experts can successfully use the methodology designed to obtain spatial distribution of drainage density.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: Drainage density

2.426 8.146 2.323 1.587 2.910 1.650 1.265 2.843 3.018 2.257 3.202 1.729 2.843 3.018 2.257 3.202 1.729

ANNEX 2: Rainfall data

887 602051 740686 2.911