بسم اللھ الرحمن الرحیم

Sudan University of Sciences and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

A Comparative Study for the Supplied Intended and Actual Irrigation Water Requirements of Sennar Sugar Scheme

دراسة مقارنة بین الامداد المائى , وطلبیات المیاه واحتیاج میاه الرى الفعلیھ لمشروع سكر سنار

A thesis Submitted in partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of M.Sc. in Agricultural Engineering

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THE DEDICATION

I dedicate this research To my parents who supported me though out my Life and gave me full confidence

To my wife,

my brothers

And my friends,

 To everybody who helped me.

 Acknowledgment

 First of all thanks to Allah for everything Deep thanks and respect are conveyed to Doctor: Elsadig Elmahdi Ahmed For his guidance and support Great thanks are conveyed to Dr: Mysara Ahmed Mohammed *For his guidance and valuable help Thanks are conveyed to the teachers and workers of agriculture engineering department in Sudan University For their help and Co-operation.*

مستخلص الدراسة

أجریت ھذه الدراسة فى عام 2014_2015 بمشروع سكر سنار بھدف دراسة اداء منظومة الرى بمزرعة سكر سنار وذلك من خلال حساب ومقارنة كمیات المیاه المرفوعة بواسطة محطة الرفع وكمیات المیاه المطلوبة بواسطة ادارة الحقل و الاحتیاجات المائیة الفعلیھ المحسوبة. تم الحصول على المعلومات المناخیھ المتعلقة بالمنطقة من محطة ارصاد المشروع وتم استخدام معامل المحصول من البیانات الواردة من ادارة الحقل بالمشروع. بالنسبة للمطر الفعال تم حسابھ من خلال طریقة حساب المطر الفعال لبرنامج CropWat تمت مقارنة كمیات المیاه المرفوعة وكمیات المیاه المطلوبة مع الاحتیاج الفعلى المحسوب. تبین من التحلیل الاحصائى ان ھنالك فروق معنویة عالیھ بین كمیات المیاه المرفوعة بواسطة محطة الضخ والاحتیاج الفعلى المحسوب مما یشیر الى ضرورة مراجعة برنامج تشغیل محطة الضخ. كما تبین من الدراسة ان ھنالك فروق معنویة بین كمیات المیاه المطلوبة بواسطة ادارة الحقل والاحتیاج الفعلى للمحصول الشئ الذى یحتم ضرورة مراجعة برنامج طلبیات المیاه. توصى الدراسة الى امكانیة اعادة استخدام الفاقد الكبیر فى المیاه فى انتاج محاصیل اخرى .

ABSTRACT

The field work of this study was conducted at sennar sugar scheme 2014_2015.The main objective was to study the performance of the irrigation network of sennar sugar scheme ,through the determination and comparison of the irrigation water supplies ,irrigation water intended and the actual irrigation water requirements. Meteorological data was obtained from the scheme meteorological station .Crop coefficient data was taken as given by the field authorities .Effective rain was determine according the cropwat program method .

Statistical analysis revealed high significant difference between the supplied irrigation water and the actual crop irrigation water requirements this fact necessitates the reversion of the pumping station program .

A significant difference was also found between the intended irrigation water and the actual irrigation water requirements .This indicates that the irrigation water intending program has to be revised.

The study reflects that the huge amount of irrigation water losses can be reused for production of other crops.

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ABBERVIATIONS

- γ psychometric constant (kPa ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$)
- Δ Slope vapor pressure curve (kPa ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$),
- ℮a Actual vapour pressure (kPa),
- e_s Saturation vapour pressure (kPa),
- $e_s e_a$ Saturation vapour pressure deficit (kPa),
- ET_c crop water requirements
- ETo The reference evapotranspiration
- ETri Average initial period reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹)
- FAO Food Agricultural Organization
- G Ground heat flux density (MJ $\text{m}^{\text{-2}}$ day⁻¹),
- IF Normal interval between irrigations or significant rainfall (days)
- Ig Gross irrigation
- II Irrigation interval
- In Net irrigation
- K_c Crop coefficient
- K^c mid Crop coefficient in the mid stage.
- Kcin Initial stage crop coefficient
- Req requirement
- R_n Net radiation at the crop surface (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹),
- S.S.C Sudanese Sugar Company
- SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences
- U_2 Wind speed at 2 m height (ms⁻¹),
- USDA United States Department of Agric
- WHO The world health organization.

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction

An adequate water supply is important for plant growth. When rainfall is not sufficient, the plants must receive additional water from irrigation. Various methods can be used to supply irrigation water to the plants. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages. These should be taken into account when choosing the method which is best suited to the local circumstance. The irrigation network of the scheme is open cannal surface irrigation which known to have low efficiency. Hydroflume was introduced to raise the irrigation efficiency but it encountered many problems that led to its abandonment .

1.2 Problem:

In sugar production schemes its noticed that these are a lot of water losses to the drains that flow back to the river .

Irrigation water is lifted from the sources by pumps powered from electrical supply its well known the cost of energy is one of the highest input cost this study is directed to estimation of the overall irrigation efficiency of the sennar sugar schemes.

1.3 Objectives:

 Main objective is to study the performance of the irrigation net work of Sennar Sugar Scheme through the determination of the following subobjective:

1/to find the amounts of water lifted from the river by the scheme pump station.

2/ to find the intended amounts of water ordered by the field staff.

3/Determination of the actual crop water requirements.

CHAPTER TWO REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Back ground:

 Sudan is the largest country in Africa and has a special geopolitical location binding The Arab world to Africa South of the Sahara. It has an area of 2.5 million km^2 extending between 4° and 22° latitudes north and 22° to 38° longitudes East. Its north - south extent is about 2000 km , while its maximum east-west extent its about 1500 km. it is bordered by the Red Sea and its shares common borders with nine countries: Eritrea and Ethiopia in the east, and the republic of Southern Sudan in the south, The Central Africa Republic, Chad and the Libyan Jamahiriya in the west , and Egypt In the north . Boron (2005).

2.2 Sugar cane production schemes of Sudanese Sugar Company(S.S.C).

 Sugar cane is a tropical crop which can be grown successfully under a wide range of environmental conditions. Most of the enormous industries for cane sugar production were distributed in subtropical areas between latitudes 15° and 30° (Black –Burn, 1984, Tanico 1986). Sugarcane performs well under Sudan conditions because of the suitable soil type ,water supply, light intensities and long duration for milling .The availability of qualified personnel with the technical knowhow is a great achievement towards the promotions of sugarcane production After the end of the second world war, the production of sugars was not sufficient to meet the world demand , so the local prices shot up very high . To meet the local consumption , Sudan began with the establishment of the Gunied sugar factory on the eas t bank of the Blue Nile some 120 kilometers southeast of Khartoum in1962 on an area of about 42000 Faddens.The factory was designed to crush 4,000 tons of cane per day with an annual production of 60,000 tons of refined sugar. It was the only growing sugar scheme in Sudan and it was adopted from a cotton irrigation scheme. A second sugar factory, New Halfa located near the Atbara river 350 kilometers east of Khartoum began production in 1965 in an area of about 16385 ha. The factory was designed to cruch 5,000 tons of cane per day to produce 75,000 tons of refined sugar. The third factory ,sennar, began production in1976in an area about 34000 feddan and was designed to crush 6,500 tons of cane per day and have an annual production capacity of 110,000 tons of refined sugar. . The factory is located in the southern Gezira Scheme about 240 kilometers southeast of Khartoum. .Assalaya sugar factory, located on the east side of the White Nile about 240 kilometers south of Khartoum near the town of Rabak, began producing in 1979 in an area of about 15126ha. As the fourth sugar factory in Sudan. It was built with a capacity to crush 6,500 tons of cane per day and produce 110,000 tons of sugar annually. The last of the sugar factories built was Kenana which began production in 1980 with a crushing capacity of 17,000 tons of cane per day and production capacity of 300,000 tons of refined sugar per year. The factory is located 250 kilometers south of Khartoum. It was expanded in 2001 to crush 26,000 tons of cane per day and have production capacity of 450,000 tons of sugar per year. The total cane crushing capacity of all factories is 48,000 tons and the sugar production capacity is 805,000 tons(Table 2.1). Sugar production reached a high of 754,915 tons in 2003 and averaged 656,395 tons during 2008-2009.

Kenana produced 45 percent of the total sugar, and the other (Galaleldin,2011) .

factories produced the remaining 55 percent. A new sugar company, the White Nile, is being constructed about 250 kilometers south of Khartoum with investment and technical assistance from Kenana. It is scheduled for completion in 2012 and will expand national sugar production by 350,000 tons when fully operating (Table 2.1). (Galaleldin,2011).

Table(2.1) Existing and under development sugar production schemes in Sudan

(Galaleldin , 2011)

2.3 Introduction

An adequate water supply is important for plant growth. When rainfall is not sufficient, the plants must receive additional water from irrigation. Various methods can be used to supply irrigation water to the plants. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages. These should be taken into account when choosing the method which is best suited to the local circumstance.

A simple irrigation method is to bring water from the source of supply.

This can be a very time-consuming method and involves very heavy work. However, it can be used successfully to irrigate very small plots of land, such as vegetable gardens, that are close to the water source.

More sophisticated methods of water application are used when larger areas require irrigation. There are

three commonly used methods: surface irrigation, sprinkler irrigation and drip irrigation;

- 1. Surface irrigation: basin irrigation
- 2. furrow irrigation
- 3. border irrigation
- 4. Sprinkler irrigation
- 5. Drip irrigation

2.4.1Surface Irrigation

Surface irrigation is the application of water by gravity flow to the surface of the field. Either the entire

field is flooded (basin irrigation) or the water is fed into small channels (furrows) or strips of land(borders) . **(Prins**. **K** , **Ka. M, and Heibloem M.,2001)**,

2.4.2 Furrow Irrigation

Furrows are small channels, which carry water down the land slope between the crop rows. Water

infiltrates into the soil as it moves along the slope. The crop is usually grown on the ridges between the

furrows

2.4.3 Border Irrigation

Borders are long, sloping strips of land separated by bunds. They are sometimes called border strips.

Irrigation water can be fed to the border in several ways: opening up the channel bank, using small

outlets or gates or by means of siphons or spiles. A sheet of water flows down the slope of the border,

2.4.4 Sprinkler Irrigation

Sprinkler irrigation is similar to natural rainfall. Water is pumped through a pipe system and then sprayed onto the crops through rotating sprinkler heads.

2.4.5 Drip Irrigation

With drip irrigation, water is conveyed under pressure through a pipe system to the fields, where it drips

slowly onto the soil through emitters or drippers which are located close to the plants. Only the

immediate root zone of each plant is wetted. Therefore this can be a very efficient method of irrigation **(Prins**. **K** , **Ka. M, and Heibloem M.,2001)**,

2.5 Irrigation is the artificial application of water for the cultivation of crops, trees, grasses.

Irrigation, the addition of water to lands via artificial means, is essential to profit-able crop production in arid climates. Irrigation is also practiced in humid and sub-humid climates to protect crops during periods of drought. Irrigation is practiced in all environments to maximize production and, therefore, profit by applying water when the plant needs it... (**USDA**, 1997).

2.6 Irrigation methods:

Various types of irrigation techniques differ in how the water obtained from the source is distributed within the field. In general, the goal is to supply the entire field uniformly with water, so that each plant has the amount of water it needs, neither too much nor too little.

Table. (2.2)**The various irrigation techniques Hoogeveen, P. Döll, J-M. Faurès, S. Feick, and K. Frenken (2006).**

(**Arid poop, 2012**)

2.7 surface Irrigation:

In surface irrigation systems, water moves over and across the land by simple gravity flow in order to wet it and to infiltrate into the soil. Surface irrigation can be subdivided into furrow, border strip or basin irrigation. It is often called flood irrigation when the irrigation results in flooding or near flooding of the cultivated land. It may also be applied as a small discharge to each plant or adjacent to it. Drip irrigation, spray or micro-sprinkler irrigation and bubbler irrigation belong to this category of irrigation methods

Figure (2.1) Surface irrigation diagram

2.7.1 Sub-irrigation:

Sub-irrigation also sometimes called seepage irrigation has been used for many years in field crops in areas with high water tables. It is a method of artificially raising the water table to allow the soil to be moistened from below the plants' root zone. Often those systems are located on permanent grasslands in lowlands or river valleys and combined with drainage infrastructure. A system of pumping stations, canals, weirs and gates

allows it to increase or decrease the water level in a network of ditches and thereby control the water table. Sub-irrigation is also used in commercial greenhouse production, usually for potted plants. Water is delivered from below, absorbed upwards, and the excess collected for recycling. (**Arid poop, 2012**).

2.8 Centrifugal pumps:

A centrifugal pump consists of a set of rotating vanes, called impellers, enclosed within a stationary housing called casing water is forced into the center (eye) of the impeller by atmospheric or pressure and set into rotation by impeller vanes. The resulting centrifugal force accelerates the fluid outward between the vanes until it is thrown from the periphery of the impeller into the casing. The casing collects the liquid, converts a portion of its velocity energy into pressure energy and direct the fluid to the pump outlet .

 Centrifugal pumps are either single or multistage depending on the number of impeller. Single-stage pumps have only one impeller, while multistaged pumps have several impellers connected in series(i.e. , the outflow of the first impeller is directed into the eye of the second, the outflow of the second impeller into the third, etc) . Centrifugal pumps are classified as either horizontal or vertical according the orientation of their axis of rotation. Horizontal pumps are sub-classified according to the location of the suction nozzle (inlet) as end-suction, side suction ,bottom-suction ,or top-suction .In addition , pumps are also classified by casing and impeller type **(James,1988)**

2.9 Cultivation of sugar cane in Sennar

2.9.1 Method of cultivation:

2.9.a Soil preparation operations:

 Deep plowing using heavy disc to a depth between 50ــ80cm in medium or light soils ,followed by harrowing using disc harrow. shown in figure (2.2) .

Figure(2.2) Deep plowing

Land leveling is done by laser leveler, followed by ridging for manual planting. shown in figure(2.3)

Figure(2.3a) laser leveller

Figure(2.3b) laser leveller.

2.9.b Ridger

Ridge spacing 55cm. shown in figure(2.4) The ridge length ranges between 250 to 800m

Figure(2.4)

2.9.c Sugar cane planting dates

 Sugar cane planting starts in May and continues through June to July .This resembles Summer Planting Winter planting start in October and proceeds to December Planting is either manual or mechanical. In manual planting a cane plant is chopped into two to three nodes cuttings . Cuttings are laid in furrows between ridges with an overlap. Cuttings are buried manual using hand hoes

In mechanical planting the planting machine is designed to carried out four operations:

- a) Open the furrow
- b) Laying cuttings within the furrow
- c) Burying or covering planted cuttings
- d) Applying the granule fertilizer

This operation has been modified so that the machine opens the furrows and lays the cuttings within the furrow

Arranging the cuttings in an overlap and covering the cuttings is carried out manually . shown in figure(2.5)

Figure(2.5) mechanical planting

2.9.d Sugar cane varieties:

1 / **c**o. 6806 This verity represents about 95% of the total cultivated area

2 / **c**o.527 this verity represents about 3 %

- 3 / Br.8116 this verity represents about 1%
- 4 / CD. 881 762 and FR.9821 and FR. 9641 all represent 1 %

2.9.e First light watering

The first light watering comes immediately after the fertilizer distributer. Then irrigation continues with an irrigation interval of 7to10 days in summer and 12 to 14 days in winter

Weeding is done by chisel cultivator three months from planting as shown in figure(2.6).

Figure(2.6) chisel caltivator use for weeding

Split ridging is done by a ridger where by the old ridge is turned into furrow and the planted furrow is turned into planted ridge. The cultivation and split ridging process can be done by a single combined implement that combines a cultivator and ridger a Irrigation continues to just before harvest s shown in figure(2.7).

Figure(2.7) combined cultivator and ridger

2.9.f Cane harvest

Sugar cane crop is left to dry for about 25ــ30 days without irrigation in summer .

In winter drying takes about 30ــ35 days

There are two methods of harvest

- 1) Manual
- 2) Mechanical

2.10 Estimation of crop water requirements

Irrigation systems are designed, constructed and operated to meet the deficit in crop water requirements due to shortages in precipitation or soil-moisture storage capacities. Nevertheless, little efforts are sometimes exerted in estimating crop water requirements for the purpose of design and management of irrigation systems. The portion of system capital costs allocated for improved water requirement estimates is very minor, compared to that spent on equipment specifications and other hydraulic aspects.

The crops water requirement is the driving force of the entire system. Improper crop water estimates may offset the economic profitability of the system and lead to complete economic failure. The reasons why crop water requirement estimates was given secondary priority are lack of personnel training and the complexity of the methods used in crop water requirement estimation. This confusion is gradually being rectified by the leading work performed by specialized committees or consultants for the American Society of Agricultural Engineers (**Ahmed,2005**)

Proper estimation of crop water requirements (crop water demand) is a pre-requisite for proper irrigation water management. Irrigation management is concerned mainly with the optimization of water supply and demand. The end goal is to sustain an optimum water supply avoiding both excess and deficit conditions. This is achieved by fair compensation of the depleted portion of soil moisture, predetermined depletion, after the excess soil water has been drained. Crop water requirements and soil storage characteristic have to be known as priority to achieve proper water management. Effective precipitation is a very important factor in determining the crop water needs. Crop water demand is a function of climatic factors, crop type, its growth stage, soil characteristics and their interaction. The climatic factors are the essential inputs in estimating reference Evapotranspiration (ET_0) (Ahmed, 2005)

2.11 Determination of reference evapotranspiration (ETo)

Reference evapotranspiration can either be measured through actual measurement methods or calculation methods.

Actual measurement methods: include soil water depletion, lysimeters and soil-water balance (Allen *et al.,* 1991; Carrijo and Cuenca, 1992; Grebet and Cuenica, 1991; Waiter *et al.,* 1991). Actual measurement method are more accurate but more expensive and require well trained personnel.

Calculation methods: early approaches were laborious and site specific but newly developed methods are of general and wider use. Their level of accuracy depends on the accuracy of climatic data involved. The calculation methods are extensively used for irrigation planning, scheduling and system operation (Bailey and Spackman, 1996; Carazza *et al.,* 1996; De Jager an Kennedy, 1996; Hess, 1996; Hill and Allen, 1996). These methods can be classified into:

ـــــــــــــ Temperature methods (Blaney-Criddle equation 1950 and Thornth wait equation, 1948).

ـــــــــــــ Radiation method: (Jensen-Haise equation, 1963 and Mak kink equation, 1957). -Pan evaporation (Allen *et al.,* 1998 and Christiansen, 1968). They include class A pan, sunken pan, Piche tube and evaporometers.

ـــــــــــــ Combination method (Penman equation, 1948 and Penman-Montieth, 1998).

 Calculation methods are based on the concept of reference crop (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977). A number of theoretical and practical attempts have been made to improve the estimation performance of these methods for different locations and data availability(Batchelor, 1984; Beven, 1979; Coleman and De Coursey, 1976; Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977; Jensen *et al.,* 1990 and Perrier, 1985). Still, many of these attempts have manifested some weaknesses under global application, due to:-

a- grass variety and its morphological characteristics have not been standardized for different climatic conditions, causing a great difficulty in relating calculated (ETo) to a reference crop.

b- grass management such as (alfalfa) varies with location (Allen *et al.,* 1994a).

c- problems associated with lysimeters and microclimatological measurement as they affect (ETo) values (Abu Khalid *et al.,* 1982 and Allen *et al.,* 1991).

 The FAO adopted Penman combination equation (Doorenbos and Pruitt, 1977), although considered as the most comprehensive equation, it is still found to overestimate (ETo) for many reasons pertaining to the conceptual procedures used to compute the parameters within the equation and party for data reliability and processing.

Other equations such as the FAO-Radiation, FAO Blaney-Criddle and FAO-Pan evaporation equations have exhibited variable adherence to a reference ETo. Nevertheless the deviation of these equations from the

grass reference is not as wide as that of the FAO –Penman.

Methodologies used to improve the estimation of crop water requirement were revised by FAO, in collaboration with the International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage (ICID). Consequently, a decision was taken to

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change the concept of reference evapotranspiration and revise the calculation procedures, in an expert consultation held in Rome (1990). A hypothetical reference canopy, as described by Penman-Montieth equation has been substituted for a living reference crop (Smith *et al.,* 1991). Grass reference evapotranspiration (ETo) is defined as: The rate of evapotranspiration from a hypothetical reference crop with an assumed crop height of 0.12 m of a fixed surface resistance of 70s/m and an albido of 0.23 m. It closely resembles the evapotranspiration from an extensive surface of green grass of uniform height, actively growing, completely shading the ground, with adequate water supply and free from diseases.

The FAO Penman-Montieth equation (1994) of estimating ETo is as follows:-

ETo = 0.408 (Rn – G) + 900 U² (℮^s - ℮a) (2.1) T+273 + [(1 + 0.34 U2)]

Where:

 ET_0 = Reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹),

- R_n = Net radiation at the crop surface (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹),
- $G =$ Ground heat flux density (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹),
- U_2 = Wind speed at 2 m height (ms⁻¹),

 e_s = Saturation vapour pressure (kPa),

 e_a = Actual vapour pressure (kPa),

 $e_s - e_a$ = Saturation vapour pressure deficit (kPa),

 Δ = Slope vapor pressure curve (kPa ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$),

 γ = psychometric constant (kPa ${}^{\circ}C^{-1}$)

2.12 Determination of crop water requirements (ETc)

Reference evapotranspiration is estimated for a standard crop grown in vast fields under standard field conditions, securing optimum agronomic and soil water conditions. These conditions can rarely be maintained for field crops. This is why crop evapotranspiration (ETc) is distinctly different from ETo, as ground cover, canopy properties and aerodynamic resistances of field crops are different from those of the standard reference crop. The effects of the characteristics that distinguish field crops from standard (reference) crop are integrated into the crop coefficient (Kc). Consequently, crop evapotranspiration is calculated using crop coefficient approach as follows: -

$$
ET_c = ET_0^* K_c \tag{2.2}
$$

Where:

 ET_c : Crop evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹)

- ET_0 : Reference crop evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹)
- K_c : Crop coefficient

The crop coefficient (Kc) is basically the ratio of the (ETc) to the (ETo) (Elliott *et al.,* 1988). Factors for determining the crop coefficient are: - Crop type, climate, soil evaporation and crop growth stages (Elliott *et al.,* 1988; Grattan *et al.,* 1998; Martin and Gilley, 1993 and Snyder *et al.,* 1989 a and 1989b). The procedure suggested by Doorenbos and Pruitt (1977) for the determination of crop coefficient (Kc) for various crop stages is based on selecting (Kc) for mid and late stages from established tables. For initial crop growth stage it uses a curve relating the evapotranspiration of the initial growth stage and average recurrent

interval of irrigation or significant rainfall. This procedure for estimating initial (Kc) was considered by many researchers as laborious, cumbersome and tedious (Elkayal, 1983 and Rayan and Cuenca, 1984). Regression equations have been developed to allow for convenient computation and calculation of initial (Kc) (Elkayel, 1983 and Rayan and Cuenica, 1984) follows:-

a- Kcin =
$$
(1.286 - 0.27
$$
 LnIf) exp $[(-0.01 - 042$ LnIf) ETri]

 $(for$ If \lt 4 days) (2.3a)

b- Kcin = 2 (If) – 0.49 exp $[$ (-0.02 – 0.04 LnIf) ETri]

(for If \geq 4 days) (2.3b)

Where:

 $IF = Normal interval between irrigations or significant rainfall (days)$

 $Kcin = Initial stage crop coefficient$

 $ETri =$ Average initial period reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹)

Such regression equations are limited by an irrigation interval of four days only. However, for drip and sprinkler irrigation systems four days interval is considered very large while in surface irrigation a wide range of intervals is used such as seven or even fourteen days. Unfortunately

the developed regression equations treat the seven, ten and fourteen day's interval as the same. This case needs to be corrected if proper irrigation scheduling is targeted. (**Ahmed,2005**).

2.13 FAO Method for Determination of Crop Coefficient (Kc)

The growing period of the crop is divided into four general growth stages namely the initial, development, mid-season and late season stage. Kc values are determined for each of these stages referred to as Kcin, Kc dev., Kcmid and Kc end respectively.

The values for (kcin) provided in FAO paper 56 are only approximations to be used in planning studies. Only one value for Kcin is given for several crop group types and is considered to be representative of the whole group. For a typical irrigation water management more accurate estimates of Kcin can be obtained by considering: -

ــــــــــــــ Time interval between wetting events:

Evapotranspiration during the initial stage for annual crops is predominately in the form of evaporation. Therefore, accurate estimates

for Kcin should consider the frequency with which the soil surface is wetted during the initial period. When the evaporation from soil surface is considerable Kcin will be large. Where the soil surface is dry, evaporation is restricted and the Kcin will be small.

ـــــــــــــ Evaporative power of the atmosphere:

The value of (Kcin) is affected by the evaporating power of the atmosphere (i.e ET_0). The higher the evaporative power of the atmosphere; the quicker the soil will dry between water applications and the smaller the time averaged Kc will be for any particular period.

ـــــــــــــ Magnitude of the wetting event:-

As the amount of water available in the topsoil for evaporation ,and hence the time for the soil surface to dry, is a function of the magnitude of the wetting event, Kcin will be smaller for light wetting events than for larger wettings. (**Ahmed,2005**).

2.13 FAO method for determination of Kcmid:-

Values for Kcmid are listed in Tables in FAO paper (56). The values for Kcmid as well as Kc end in these tables represent those for a sub-humid climate with an average day light, minimum relative humidity (RH min) of 45% and with calm to moderate wind speeds averaging 2 m/s. For more humid or arid conditions, or for more or less windy conditions, the Kc coefficient for the mid-season and end of late season stages should be modified. The values in these tables are values for non-stressed crops cultivated under excellent agronomic and water management conditions and achieving maximum crop yield (standard conditions). When stand density, height or leaf area are less than attained under such conditions the values for Kcmid, and for most crops, for Kc end need to be modified

Kcmid from these tables is adjusted as follows:-

Kcmid = Kemid (Tab) + [0.04 (u₂ - 2) - 0.004 (RH_{min}- 45)]
$$
\frac{h^{0.3}}{3}
$$
 (2.4)

(**Ahmed,2005**).

2.15 Crop coefficient for the end or the late season stage (Kc **end):-**

Typical values for the crop coefficient at the end of the late season growth stage (Kc end) are giver in FAO Kc tables for various agricultural crops. The value given in these tables reflect both crop and water management practices adopted for those crops.

 The Kc end values provided in FAO tables are typical values expected for average Kc end under the standard climatic conditions. More arid climates and conditions of greater wind speed will have higher values of Kc end. More humid climates and conditions of lower wind speed will have lower values of Kc end. Specific adjustments for climate changes are made as follows: -

Kc end = Kc end (tab) + [0.04(u₂-2)- 0.004 (RH_{min}- 45)]
$$
\frac{h}{3}
$$
 (2.5)

2.16 Construction of the Kc curve:-

For the construction of Kc curve for annual crops only three point values are required to describe and to construct the Kc curve. The curve is constructed using the following three steps:-

- The crop growing period is divided into four general growth stages that describe crop phenology or development (initial, crop development, midseason and late season stage).

 - The length of the growing stage are determined, the three values of Kc that correspond to Kcin, Kcmid and Kc end are identified from FAO tables.

- Adjust the Kc values to the frequency of wetting and/or climatic conditions of the growth stages as outlined earlier.

 - Construct a curve by connecting the straight line segments through each of the four growth stages. Horizontal lines are drawn through Kcin in the initial stage and through Kcmid in the mid-season stage. Diagonal lines are drawn from Kcin to Kcmid within the course of the crop development stage and from Kcmid to Kc end within the course of the late season stage. (**Ahmed,2005**).

Concerning maximum Kc Hess (1996) reported values of 1.1 or 1.2 depending on crop type. It is well known that values higher than 1.2 are sometimes used. It should be pointed out that these values were probably obtained from field experiments performed under advective conditions (very small plots) and that they are not valid for fields larger than one hectare. The crop coefficient (Kc) being a ratio of the crop ET_c to the reference ET_o, represents an integration of the effects of four primary characteristics that distinguish the crop from reference grass. These characteristics are:-

Crop height: The crop height influences the aerodynamic resistance term, (Ra), of the FAO Penman-Montieth equation and the turbulent transfer of vapour from the crop into the atmosphere. The (Ra) term appears twice in the full form of the FAO Penman-Montieth equation.

Albedo (reflectance) of the crop-soil surface: The albedo is affected by the fraction of the ground covered by vegetation and by the soil surface wetness. The albedo of the crop-soil surface influences the net radiation of the surface, Rn, which is the primary source of the energy exchange for the evaporation process.

Canopy resistance: The resistance of the crop to vapour transfer is affected by leaf area (number of stomata), leaf age and condition and the degree of stomatal control. The canopy resistance influences the surface resistance (rs).

Evaporation from especially exposed soil: The soil surface wetness and the fraction of ground covered by vegetation influence the surface resistance (rs). Following soil wetting, the vapour transfer rate from the soil is high, especially for crops having incomplete ground cover. The combined surface resistance of the canopy and of the

soil determines the (bulk) surface resistance (rs). The surface resistance term in the Penman-Montieth equation represents the resistance to vapour flow from within plant leaves and from beneath the soil surface.

The (Kc) in the equation $ET_c = Kc * ET_0$ predicts ET_c under standard conditions. This represents the upper envelope of the crop evapotranspiration and represents the conditions where no limitations are placed on the crop growth or evapotranspiration due to water shortage, crop density, disease, weed, insect and salinity pressures.

The calculation procedure for crop evapotranspiration, (ET_c) involves the following steps:-

Identifying the crop growth stages, determining their lengths and selecting the corresponding Kc coefficients.

Adjusting the selected Kc coefficients for frequency of wetting or climatic condition during the stage.

Constructing the crop coefficient curve (allowing one to determine ETc as the product of ET_0 and Kc).

2.17 Determination of effective rainfall:-

According to cropwat, FAO Irrigation and Drainage Paper (46) (1992) and El-Ramlawi (1999) four different methods are used to determine the effective rainfall. The different options are:-

Fixed percentage of rainfall: effective rainfall is calculated according to:

$$
P_{\rm eff} = a \cdot P_{\rm tot}
$$

 Where (a) is a fixed percentage to be given by the user to account for losses from runoff and deep percolation. Normally the losses are around 10%to 30%, thus $a = 0.7 - 0.9$. A value of 0.75 was given by Adam (19) for conditions of central clay plains of the Sudan.

Dependable rain: based on an analysis carried out for different arid and sub-humid climates an empirical formula was developed in FAO/AGLW to estimate dependable rainfall, the combined effect of dependable rainfall (80% probability exceedance) and estimated losses due to runoff and percolation this formula may be used for design purposes where 80% probability of exceedance is required calculation according to:-

$$
P_{\text{eff}} = 0.6 P_{\text{tot}} - 10 \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} \le 70 \text{ mm}
$$

$$
P_{\text{eff}} = 0.8 P_{\text{tot}} - 24 \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} > 70 \text{ mm}
$$

a) Empirical formula:- The parameters may be determined from an analysis of local climate records. An analysis of local climate records may allow an estimate of effective rainfall. The relationship can, in most cases, be simplified by the following equations:-

$$
P_{\text{eff}} = a P_{\text{tot}} + b \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} < Z \text{ mm}
$$
\n
$$
P_{\text{eff}} = c P_{\text{tot}} + d \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} > Z \text{ mm}
$$

a, b, c and d are correlation coefficients.

b) USDA Soil Conservation Service Method:

Where effective rainfall can be calculated according to:

$$
P_{\text{eff}} = P_{\text{tot}} (125 - 0.2 \, P_{\text{tot}}) / 125 \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} < 250 \, \text{mm}
$$
\n
$$
P_{\text{eff}} = 125 + 0.1 \, P_{\text{tot}} \qquad \qquad \text{for } P_{\text{tot}} > 250 \, \text{mm}
$$
\n(Ahmed, 2005)

CHAPTER THREE MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 The study site:

The field work of this study was conducted at Sennar Sugar Scheme (2014) which is located in Sennar State about 300 kilometers south of Khartoum and 12 km west of Wad Alhdad City .The dada used in this study belongs to seasons 2011-2012-2013.

 The project is irrigated from a pump station at Iraidiba on the western bank of the Blue Nile It lies about 56 kilometers south of the plant site. The pump station has four pumps two of them have a pumping capacity of 6.1 cubic meters / second and other two have a pumping pumping capacity of 6.8 cubic meters / second. **(Field Managing Office,2014)**.

3.2 Determination of crop water requirements:

Determination of reference evapotranspiration was carried out from sennar meteorological data which was fed into cropwat program to compute reference evapotranspiration table (3.1) .

Table(3.1) Calculation of reference evapotranspiration (ETo)

Table (3.2) K^c data as given by sennar farm records and cropwat data base

Table (3.3) Average monthly rainfall as taken from Cropwat data base, Sennar meteorological station and Sennar cane farm rain data

Table (3.4)Calculation of cane crop evapotranspiration(ETc) Equation(3.1)was used to calculate (ET_c) $ET_c = ET_0 * K_c$

Table(3.5)Net irrigation requirements in mm per day

Equation(3.2) $\ln = ET_c$ - effect rain

Table (3.6) Gross irrigation requirements in mm per day

60 per cent irrigation efficiency was taken as upper level for surface irrigation efficiency equation(3.3)

 $Ig = In*100/60$

Table(3.7**) Gross irrigation requirements in mm per**

watering equation(3.4) Gross irrigation requirements in mm per watering $=Ig*I.I$ I.I= irrigation interval

Table(3.8) Gross irrigation requirements in m³ per Fadden per watering equation (3.5) Gross irrigation requirements in m³ per

Fadden per watering = lg /watering*4200/1000 or = lg /watering * 4.2

Table (3.9) Gross irrigation requirements in m³ for area planted on first May equation (3.6) Gross irrigation requirements in m³ for area planted on first May = \lg Reg m³ fd * Area planted

Table (3.10) Total intended water and total applied water as

supplied by Sennar scheme for seasons (2011_2012_2013)

3.3 Introduction to Cropwat:

 The main purpose of CROPWAT is to calculate crop water requirements and irrigation schedules based on data provided by the user. These data can be directly entered into CROPWAT or imported from other applications.

For the calculation of crop water requirements (CWR), CROPWAT needs data on evapotranspiration (ETo). CROPWAT allows the user to either enter measured ETo values, o r to input data on temperature, humidity, wind speed and sunshine, which allows CROPWAT to calculate ETo using the Penman-Monteith formulae. CROPWAT fully supports the .PEN and . CLI files from t he CLIMWAT database.

Rainfall data are also needed, and are used by CROPWAT to compute effective rainfall data as input for the CWR and schedule.10ing calculations. Finally, crop data (dry crop or rice) are needed for the CWR calculations, and soil data if the user also wants to calculate irrigation schedules (dry Whereas CROPWAT normally calculates CWR and schedules for 1 crop , it can also calculate a scheme supply which is basically the combined crop water requirements of multiple crops, each with its individual planting date (a so-called cropping pattern).

Both for data input and for the calculations CROPWAT offers a wide variety of options that can be set interactively by the user during programme execution by clicking on the Options button on the toolbar, or through the Settings>Options menu

3.4 Program structure:

 The CROPWAT program is organised in 8 different modules, of which 5 are data input modules and 3 are calculation modules. These modules can be accessed through the CROPWAT main menu but more conveniently through the Modules bar that is permanently visible at the left hand side of the main window. This allows the u ser to easily combine different climatic, crop and soil data for calculation of crop water requirements ,irrigation schedules and scheme supplies. The data input modules of CROPWAT are:

- 1. Climate/ETo: for the input of measured ETo data *or* of climatic data that allow calculation of ETo Penman-Monteith;
- 2. Rain: for the input of rainfall data and calculation of effective rainfall;
- 3. Crop (dry crop or rice): for the input of crop data and planting date;
- 4. Soil: for the input of soil data for (only needed for irrigation scheduling);
- 5. Crop pattern: for the input of a cropping pattern for scheme supply calculations

Note that in fact Climate /Eto and Rain modules are not only for data input but also calculate data, namely Radiation /ET0 andEffective rainfall respectively.

The calculation modules of CROPWAT are:

- 6. CWR for calculation of Crop Water Requirements
- 7. Schedules (dry crop or rice) for the calculation of irrigation schedules
- 8. Scheme for the calculation of scheme supply based on a specific croppin

3.5 Determination of conveyance percent losses

Conveyance percent losses = supplied – actual compute $*100$ (3.1)

Table (4.4) Supplied

3.6 Determination of percent losses of intended irrigation water

Intended losses $% =$ intended efficiency – actual compute $*100$

Table (4.5) Intended

(3.2)

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTSAND DISCUSSION

Fig.(4.1) shows the total amounts of supplied irrigation water for the three seasons versus the intended irrigation water .

Figure (4.1) shows that the total supplied amounts exceed by far the total intended amounts.

Fig.(4.2) shows the total supplied water for three seasons 2011-2013

versus the total actual computed irrigation requirements for the same period.

The figure shows that (4.2) great differences between the two supplied and actual computed quantities.

Fig.(4.3) shows the total intended irrigation water versus the total actual computed irrigation water .

The figure shows that (4.3) clearly over estimation of the intended amounts .

Fig (4.4) Illustrates the comparison between the total supplied , total intended and total actual computed irrigation requirements.

The over supplies and over intends are very clear in the above figure.

Table(4.1)

Total Supplied water $= V_2$ Total actual water $= V_3$

Table (4.1) Statistical analysis using pair t- test showed high significant difference between total Supplied irrigation water and total actual computed irrigation water.

Table (4.2)

Total Supplied water = V_2 Total Intended water = V_1

Paired Samples Test

Table (4.2) Statistical analysis using pair t- test showed high significant difference between total supplied in and total intended irrigation water.

45

Table (4.3)

Total Intended water $=V_1$

Total actual water $= V_3$

Table (4.3) Statistical analysis using pair t- test high showed significant difference between total Inte and total actual computed irrigation water.

46

Table (4.4)

Determination of conveyance percent

Average supplied losses percent = 80.8

Table (4.5)

Average intended losses percent = 70.6

This study proved that the total supplied irrigation water exceeds by far the total actual irrigation requirements with average total loss that may exceed 80% table (4.5).

This fact implies that the practiced supplies and demands incur unnecessary high cost which will reflect on the cost of the production .

Fig(4.5) Shows the annual monthly percent losses in total supplied irrigation water.

Fig(4.6) Shows the annual monthly percent losses in total intended irrigation water .

The three drops in graph coincide with August where rainfall satisfies the crop water requirements with nearly no intended or supplied irrigation water .

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion:

The water intended for the scheme is over estimated .

The cane planting program of the scheme which starts on May and resumes on October dictates the overlap of seasons which makes the water orders a complicated process.

Recommendations:

The study manifested that the amounts of total irrigation water losses exceed 80%**.**

This fact necessitate the reversion the water supply program of the scheme .

The huge surplus water deflected to the drainage system can be reused to produce other crops**.**

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Appendix

Comparison between total intended, applied and actual computed irrigation water requirements in thousand cubic meter

