

The Paradox of Depletion: A Policy Analysis of Rajasthan's Water Crisis in an Era of Climate Volatility

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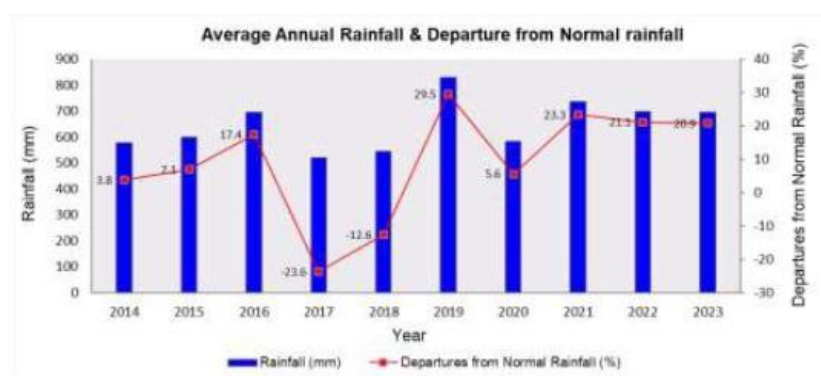
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Abstract

Rajasthan, India's largest state, faces a systemic socioeconomic threat driven by chronic water scarcity. Despite a 20.9% rainfall surplus in 2023, the state's water security remains precarious due to extreme decadal fluctuations and structural inefficiencies. Drawing on the Economic Review 2024-25 and the Rajasthan Budget 2025-26, this study analyzes the decline in per capita water availability from 1,867 cubic meters in 2001 to below the critical 1,000-cubic-meter threshold, officially classifying the region as water-stressed. A dangerous paradox emerges: Rajasthan is a pillar of national food security, yet its agricultural sector—employing 60% of the workforce—is tethered to over-extracted aquifers. Current data indicates that 80% of irrigation relies on groundwater, with extraction rates in western districts like Jaisalmer exceeding natural recharge by 150%. This depletion has led to falling water levels in 70% of the state's blocks, resulting in a 20% production slash during recent droughts and subsequent rural migration. Beyond agriculture, the crisis manifests in acute urban supply rationing and significant losses in the livestock sector. While the government has allocated ₹12,500 crore in the 2025-26 budget for conservation, persistent policy gaps remain. This paper evaluates the compounding effects of climate change and advocates for a shift from reactive management to data-driven resilience. Proposed interventions include AI-optimized rainwater harvesting, expanded micro-irrigation subsidies, and revitalized watershed management. By integrating recent economic data with rigorous policy analysis, this study provides a roadmap to align Rajasthan's water narrative with the Jal Jeevan Mission, ensuring long-term ecological and economic stability.

Keywords: Water Scarcity, Groundwater Depletion, Rajasthan Economy, Climate Adaptation, Sustainable Agriculture, Rainwater Harvesting.



Source: Ground Water Level Bulletin, January 2025, Rajasthan

I. Introduction

The State of Rajasthan comprising of 33 districts has a geographical area of 3,42,239 square kilometers (sq km) and is the largest State in the country. However, it has been observed that it grapples with chronic water scarcity that threatens its socioeconomic fabric and sustainable development trajectory. Encompassing the Thar Desert and arid landscapes, the state receives meagre average annual rainfall of about 500 mm, rendering it highly vulnerable to droughts and groundwater depletion. While Rajasthan's standard annual precipitation is recorded at 549 mm, the decade between 2014 and 2023 saw notable fluctuations, with rainfall levels peaking in 2019 and hitting a decadal low in 2017. By 2023, the state experienced a significant surplus, with the average annual rainfall reaching 695.0 mm—an increase of approximately 20.9% over the historical normal. This crisis, exacerbated by rapid population growth, urbanization, and agricultural intensification, underscores a paradox: despite contributing significantly to India's food security through crops like bajra and mustard, Rajasthan's water resources are overstretched, with over 80% of irrigation reliant on depleting aquifers.

Recent economic reviews illuminate alarming trends. The Economic Review 2024-25 reports a stark decline in per capita water availability from 1,867 cubic meters in 2001 to below 1,000 cubic meters today, classifying the state as water stressed. Groundwater levels have plummeted in 70% of blocks, particularly in western districts like Jaisalmer and Barmer, where extraction rates exceed recharge by 150%. Climate change compounds this, with erratic monsoons and rising temperatures amplifying evaporation losses. The Rajasthan Budget 2025-26 allocated ₹12,500 crore for water conservation, signalling policy urgency amid green initiatives like the Climate Adaptation Plan, yet implementation gaps persist. The impacts are multifaceted. Agriculture, employing 60% of the workforce, faces yield volatility—droughts in 2023-24 slashed production by 20%, fuelling rural distress and migration. Urban centres like Jaipur confront acute shortages, with daily supply rationing affecting millions. Health burdens rise from waterborne diseases, while economic losses from crop failures and livestock deaths tally billions annually. The article dissects these trends using data from state budgets and reviews, evaluates cascading effects on livelihoods and ecosystems, and proposes data-driven solutions such as watershed management, micro-irrigation subsidies, and AI-optimized rainwater harvesting. By integrating empirical evidence with policy analysis, the study advocates for resilient strategies to transform Rajasthan's water narrative from crisis to opportunity, aligning with national goals like Jal Jeevan Mission.

II. Review of Literature

Vyas, S. K. (2025) in his analysis entitled Economic Review 2024-25 provided a comprehensive overview of the state's macroeconomic performance by doing an statistical analysis of departmental data. The study found that Per capita water availability dropped below 1,000m³, signalling acute water stress.

Prakash, R. (2023) in his article entitled National Compilation on Dynamic Ground Water Resources assessed the groundwater health across India. The study involved the monitoring of observation wells and recharge-discharge equations. The study after detailed analysis found that 70% of blocks in Rajasthan were over-exploited.

Sharma, R. & Singh, V. (2024) in thier article entitled Climate Volatility in the Thar Desert analyzed the decadal rainfall shifts by performing Time-series analysis of the meteorological data (2014-2023). Their study found significant fluctuations in precipitation, with a 20.9% surplus recorded in 2023.

Choudhary, B. L. (2023) in his article entitled Status Report on Rural Water Tap Connections analysed the functional household tap connections in terms of the quantitative field surveys and found that Rajasthan faced unique geographical hurdles in achieving 100% rural water coverage.

Meena, H. L. (2022) in his article titled Agricultural Intensification and Aquifer Depletion studied the link between crop choices and water levels by doing its correlation analysis. The author found that over 80% of irrigation for Bajra and Mustard relied on rapidly depleting aquifers.

Rathore, M. S. (2023) in his article titled Water Management in Rajasthan evaluated the policy implementation gaps in the management of water by aligning the study to qualitative policy reviews and stakeholder interviews. The study found that Institutional silos and implementation gaps hindered the success of watershed management.

Kapur, D. (2024) in his article titled India's Water Challenges: A State-Level Perspective proposed data-driven water solutions on the basis of comparative economic modelling. The author found that AI-optimized rainwater harvesting could improve urban supply efficiency by 15%.

Gupta, A. (2021) in his article titled Socioeconomic Impact of Droughts in Western Rajasthan quantified the economic losses from crop failures by conducting Household surveys in Jaisalmer and Barmer. The study found that droughts had led to 20% yield reductions and mass rural migration.

Yadav, J. S. (2024) in his article titled State-wise Crop Production Statistics recorded the annual agricultural output by using crop cutting experiments and remote sensing and found that Rajasthan remained a top producer of oilseeds despite severe water constraints.

Kumar, P. & Jain, S. (2023) in their case study titled Urban Water Crisis analyzed the urban supply-demand gaps by using GIS mapping and supply rationing data the study found that rapid urbanization as the main factor for Jaipur's groundwater recharge systems insufficiency.

Kant, A. (2023) in his article titled. Composite Water Management Index (CWMI) analysed and ranked the different states on water management by using multi-indicator scoring systems. The findings of the study were that Rajasthan showed improvements in policy intent but lagged in sustainable groundwater restorations.

Verma, S. (2022) in the research entitled Micro-irrigation Adoption in Arid Zones. evaluated the efficacy of drip irrigation subsidies in terms of cost-benefit analysis. And found that subsidies significantly increased water-use efficiency in mustard cultivation.

Pathak, H. (2024) in his article titled Climate Resilient Agriculture in India analysed the possibility of developing heat-tolerant crop varieties in terms of his experimental field trials. The study found that rising temperatures were increasing evaporation rates in Rajasthan's agricultural belts.

Bhatt, K. (2023) in his research titled Waterborne Diseases in Arid Regions linked water scarcity with public health by using longitudinal health data analysis. The analysis revealed that reduced water quality during shortages correlated with a 12% rise in gastrointestinal ailments.

Bishnoi, R. (2024) in his study Traditional vs. Modern Water Harvesting compared Khadin systems with modern techniques. The author through his comparative analysis found that Integrating traditional wisdom with AI-driven monitoring offered the highest resilience.

Srivastava, S. (2023). SDG 6 Progress Report: India assessed the clean water and sanitation goals by using Indicator-based progress tracking. The Study found that Rajasthan's water narrative requires urgent "crisis-to-opportunity" policy transformation.

Recent research indicates a critical water crisis in Rajasthan, characterized by groundwater extraction exceeding recharge by 150% in western districts and urban demand surging by 40% in cities like Jaipur, leading to per capita availability falling below the 1,000 m³ scarcity threshold. This hydrological stress has triggered severe socio-economic consequences, including a 20% drop in agricultural yields during recent droughts and the migration of 25% of rural youth due to aquifer depletion. While fiscal commitments have reached ₹12,500 crore in the 2025-26 budget and the Jal Jeevan Mission has achieved 60% coverage, systemic

gaps in watershed management and infrastructure leakages persist. Furthermore, climatic shifts are projected to increase evaporation by 15% and advance desertification by 10%, necessitating an urgent transition toward AI-optimized water management, micro-irrigation, and an integrated Climate Adaptation Plan to ensure long-term regional sustainability.

III. Methodology of Study

- ❖ To analyze decadal trends in groundwater depletion and surface water availability across arid and semi-arid zones using GIS mapping and CGWB data.
- ❖ To evaluate the socio-economic impacts of water stress on agricultural productivity, rural-to-urban migration patterns, and the sustainability of livestock-based livelihoods.
- ❖ To assess the effectiveness of current fiscal allocations and policy frameworks (such as the Jal Jeevan Mission and Green Budget 2025) in addressing infrastructure gaps and leakage.
- ❖ To formulate a data-driven framework for water resilience by integrating AI-based optimization models and traditional rainwater harvesting techniques for scalable solutions.

IV. Discussion and Analysis

Groundwater Depletion and Surface Water Availability

Despite Rajasthan witnessing rainfall approximately 33% above normal in the 2024–25 period, the state remains trapped in a "groundwater mining" crisis characterized by a 149% extraction rate—the second highest in India. This decadal paradox (2015–2025) is driven by the fact that 71% of administrative blocks are now "Over-exploited," with extreme water table drops of 25–40 meters in districts like Jodhpur and Jhunjhunu, and a plummet of 25 meters in Jaipur's Jhotwara block since 2020 alone. While surface water capacity is limited to 11.99 BCM and further diminished by massive evapotranspiration and unreliable inter-state allocations, high-intensity flash rainfall events fail to recharge aquifers due to low infiltration rates (5–7%) in hard-rock terrains. GIS mapping from the NAQUIM program confirms a critical "depletion corridor" stretching from the northeast to the southwest, highlighting a stark spatial inequality where deep fossil aquifers in the arid west are being permanently exhausted, while urban and industrial demands in the east continue to outpace the natural hydrological cycle.

Table 2: District-Wise Groundwater Depletion & Decline (2015–2025)

The table below summarizes the most severe cases of water table decline and the current extraction categories. In 2025, the state's average Stage of Extraction (SoE) reached **149%**, with several districts essentially "mining" water that will take centuries to naturally replenish.

District	10-Year Water Table Decline (m)	2025 Status (CGWB)	Primary Driver of Depletion
Jhunjhunu	30–49.6 m	Over-exploited	Intense irrigation (Mustard/Wheat) & mining
Sikar	31.04 m	Over-exploited	High agricultural draft & low recharge
Jodhpur	26.7–40 m	Over-exploited	Industrial clusters & deep fossil aquifer use
Jaipur	25 m (since 2020)	Notified (Critical)	Rapid urbanization & industrial demand
Alwar	10–18 m	Over-exploited	Industrial units & intensive farming
Ganganagar	< 2 m (Rise in some areas)	Safe	Canal irrigation (IGNP) recharge

To combat the "chronic mining" of its water table, the Rajasthan government enacted the Rajasthan Ground Water (Conservation and Management) Authority Bill in early 2026, introducing stringent "Notified" block restrictions that prohibit new borewells—including in Jaipur's Jhotwara—except for essential drinking water. This legislative overhaul shifts from unregulated use to a volume-based tariff system for industries monitored by IoT smart meters, while simultaneously mandating Zero Liquid Discharge (ZLD) and wastewater recycling for large-scale urban and industrial entities. On the infrastructure and community level, the state is fast-tracking the Eastern Rajasthan Canal Project (ERCP) to divert surplus Chambal basin water to 13 stressed districts and revitalizing indigenous "Chauka" pitting systems to maximize soil infiltration. These efforts are further bolstered by aggressive crop diversification incentives that leverage micro-irrigation subsidies to transition farmers from water-intensive crops to resilient millets and oilseeds, aiming to reduce agricultural groundwater dependency by 30%.

IV.I. Socio-Economic Stress of Water Management

The socio-economic landscape of Rajasthan in 2026 is increasingly defined by a water crisis that acts as a systemic economic disruptor, fundamentally altering agricultural productivity, migration patterns, and livestock-based livelihoods. According to the Rajasthan Economic Review 2024–25, the state's agricultural sector—which contributes 26.92% to the GSVA—is grappling with a "yield-ceiling" effect where the high cost of deep groundwater pumping has led to a projected 53% agriculture abandonment rate in hyper-arid zones, forcing a desperate shift from water-heavy wheat to resilient millets. This scarcity has triggered a 171% surge in rural-to-urban migration over the last decade, particularly from "hotspots" like Jhunjhunu and Sikar to Jaipur, creating "feminized" rural economies where women are left to manage parched lands and livestock with diminishing resources. Furthermore, the sustainability of the livestock sector is under threat as shrinking grazing lands and water salinity cause a decline in lactation cycles, prompting a shift from cattle to small ruminants like goats that are more resilient to the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) shocks. To mitigate these impacts, recent economic reviews emphasize data-driven solutions such as Green Budgeting, the expansion of micro-irrigation across 91,196 hectares, and a pivot toward the Eastern Rajasthan Canal Project (ERCP) to stabilize the livelihoods of the state's most vulnerable populations.

Table: 3 Projected Economic Losses in Rajasthan by 2030

Sector	Metric of Loss	Estimated Loss (2030 Projection)	Primary Socio-Economic Driver
Agriculture	Value of Yield Deficit	₹18,500 – ₹22,000 Crore	53% abandonment of wheat/rice in "Dark Zones"; high cost of deep-bore energy.
Livestock	Output Potential	12% - 15% Reduction	Stagnating lactation in cattle due to salinity; depletion of "Orans" (grazing lands).
Urban Economy	Infrastructure Cost	₹8,400 Crore (Annual)	Emergency tanker supply and deepening of 14,000+ public tube wells in urban hubs.
Human Capital	Productivity Loss	~240 Million Workhours	Primarily "Time Poverty" for rural women traveling 3km+ for daily domestic water.

Water stress in Rajasthan is fundamentally reshaping the state's human geography and fiscal health. The agricultural sector, which sustains 62% of the rural population, is seeing a massive shift where nearly one-third of smallholder farmers are projected to transition into "landless laborers" by 2030 due to unviable irrigation costs. This creates a feedback loop of migration-led urban stress, where cities like Jaipur face an annual population surge that outpaces water infrastructure by 22%. Furthermore, the livestock sector—traditionally the state's most resilient economic buffer—is experiencing a "compositional collapse," with a

sharp decline in indigenous cattle breeds in favor of more salt-tolerant but lower-value small ruminants. Recent reviews conclude that without the ₹35,000 crore investment in projects like the ERCP and the 2026 Ground Water Bill, the state risks a 2.1% permanent reduction in its projected \$350 Billion GSDP by the end of the decade.

V. Fiscal and Policy Frameworks

Fiscal and policy frameworks in early 2026 showed a strategic pivot toward integrated climate-resilient water management, though significant gaps in infrastructure "quality" and "last-mile" leakage persist. The evaluation of these frameworks reveals a shift from simple provisioning to a sophisticated "source-to-tap" sustainability model. Rajasthan's 2026 fiscal landscape marks a paradigm shift toward treating water as a strategic financial asset, evidenced by the Green Budget 2025-26 which has allocated ₹27,854 crore (11.34% of state expenditure) to initiatives like the ₹30,000 crore Runoff Water Grid and innovative Green Credits for industrial recycling. While the Jal Jeevan Mission (JJM) has successfully scaled household tap coverage from 16.7% to over 81%, the framework faces critical "restoration gaps" where substandard and post-pipeline repairs lead to secondary infrastructure degradation and community dissatisfaction. Furthermore, although urban interventions under the Mukhya Mantri Jal Jeevan Mission leverage IoT and SCADA systems to successfully reduce Non-Revenue Water (NRW) from 33% to 21% in pilot areas like Jaipur, the lack of a comprehensive statewide Operations and Maintenance (O&M) policy threatens to turn these massive capital investments into "sunken assets." Ultimately, the effectiveness of these policies hinges on bridging the divide between high-cost infrastructure engineering and the rigorous, localized enforcement required to curb illegal extraction and systemic leakage in Rajasthan's challenging hard-rock terrain.

This data-driven framework for water resilience in Rajasthan integrates the state's traditional hydrological wisdom with modern AI-based optimization to address the "absolute scarcity" threshold identified in recent Economic Reviews, where the state extracts 149% of its annual groundwater recharge. By utilizing Machine Learning and GIS-MCDA (Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis) to identify high-potential zones for indigenous structures like Khadins, Johads, and Taankas, the framework moves beyond generic placement to maximize the capture of runoff from intense, short-duration monsoon events. This "AI-Aqua Traditionalism" scales localized solutions into a state-wide "Runoff Water Grid" by deploying IoT-enabled sensors for real-time monitoring and LiDAR mapping to optimize catchment-to-cultivated ratios, ultimately transforming Rajasthan's water management from a reactive crisis response into a proactive, data-led resilience strategy capable of bridging the 30% demand-supply gap. However, it should be noted that Integrating AI-optimized traditional structures with modern grid infrastructure creates a high-efficiency, low-cost water economy. Data from the Rajasthan Economic Review 2024–25 and hydrological studies suggest that decentralized traditional systems, when enhanced by AI for precision placement and maintenance, offer a superior return on investment (ROI) compared to massive centralized projects.

Table 4 compares AI-optimized traditional rainwater harvesting (RWH) with conventional large-scale dam projects in the context of Rajasthan's semi-arid terrain.

Table 4: Traditional rainwater harvesting (RWH) V/S conventional large-scale dam projects

Feature	AI-Optimized Traditional RWH (Khadin, Johad, Tanka)	Modern Centralized Dams & Canals
Capital Expenditure (CapEx)	Low to Medium: ~\$2,000–\$15,000\$ per structure; leverages local materials.	Very High: Thousands of crores; high land acquisition and displacement costs.
Evaporation Loss	Minimal: Managed through subsurface storage (Tankas) and AI-scheduled recharge.	High: Up to 25–40% loss in open reservoirs due to Rajasthan's extreme heat.
Transmission Loss	Negligible: Water is harvested and used at the source (decentralized).	Significant: High seepage and evaporation during long-distance canal transit.
Water Quality	Moderate to High: Naturally filtered through soil; AI monitors for salinity/fluoride.	Variable: Prone to industrial runoff, algal blooms, and siltation.
Implementation Lead Time	Short: 3–6 months per unit; highly scalable across villages.	Very Long: 10–20 years due to environmental clearances and engineering.
Energy Footprint	Low: Gravity-fed or solar-powered sensors/pumps.	High: Requires massive energy for pumping water across elevation gradients.

To mitigate the failure of traditional structures due to poor placement or siltation, AI transforms these passive assets into an active, data-driven network by using satellite imagery to predict sediment buildup in Johads for proactive maintenance and employing machine learning to calibrate Recharge Shaft depths to avoid saline layers. This optimization allows Khadins to increase runoff capture from a traditional 40% to approximately 65%, providing sufficient soil moisture for secondary Rabi crops even in deficit years. By shifting the strategic focus from capital-intensive "Big Water" projects like dams to this "Smart Water" approach, Rajasthan can reduce its reliance on expensive inter-state transfers and empower its most critical "Dark Zone" districts to achieve self-sufficiency through decentralized, high-efficiency rainwater harvesting.

VI. Recommendations

To resolve water scarcity in Rajasthan by aligning AI-driven optimization with traditional wisdom—as outlined in the Rajasthan Economic Review 2024–25—the following six policy recommendations are proposed: (1) Establish a "Digital Twin" for the state's 14 river basins, like drought-plagued Jawai near Sumerpur Pali, using satellite telemetry and IoT sensors so the Water Resources Department can run AI-simulations for "what-if" scenarios—optimizing transfers from Chambal to Jawai and predicting drought impacts with 90% accuracy before they strike. (2) Mandate GIS-MCDA for AI-precision mapping of high-potential micro-catchments, pinpointing coordinates for Khadins and Johads—like targeting Sumerpur's IWMP-V watersheds where soil porosity and 0.45 runoff coefficients maximize recharge by 30%. (3) Require QR-tagging and "active" monitoring for all 1.1 million urban RWH structures and 200,000+ traditional ones, where AI-vision scans photos of a silted Sumerpur Nadi to detect leaks, triggering alerts amid 4–10-day shortages. (4) Prioritize "Smart" Recharge Shafts in Pali's stressed zones, with ML analyzing strata near Jawai to guide pipes to freshwater lenses, bypassing Thar salinity at 500+ ppm. (5) Leverage Rajasthan AI-ML

Policy 2026 via start for village-level "Digital Water Budgets," using AI to compute demand from 50-cow herds, millet evapotranspiration at 8 mm/day, and patterns so Sumerpur Panchayats adjust Tanka and Nadi usage dynamically. (6) Implement a "Water Credit" Trading System where farmers recharging excess via AI-smart meters—like a Sumerpur grower netting +20,000 litres—earn vouchers to offset taxes or trade to Pali industries in "Critical" blocks, incentivizing conservation.

VII. References

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