

Sustainability characteristics of drinking water supply in the Netherlands

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30 **Abstract**

31 Developments such as climate change and growing demand for drinking water threaten the
32 sustainability of drinking water supply worldwide. To deal with this threat, adaptation of
33 drinking water supply systems is imperative, not only on a global and national scale, but
34 particularly on a local scale. This investigation sought to establish characteristics that describe
35 the sustainability of local drinking water supply. The hypothesis of this research was that
36 sustainability characteristics depend on the context that is analysed and therefore a variety of
37 cases must be analysed to reach a better understanding of the sustainability of drinking water
38 supply in the Netherlands. Therefore three divergent cases on drinking water supply in the
39 Netherlands were analysed. One case related to a short-term development (2018 summer
40 drought), and two concerned long-term phenomena (changes in water quality and growth in
41 drinking water demand). We used an integrated systems approach, describing the local
42 drinking water supply system in terms of hydrological, technical and socio-economic
43 characteristics that determine the sustainability of a local drinking water supply system. To
44 gain a perspective on the case study findings broader than the Dutch context, the
45 sustainability aspects identified were paired with global aspects concerning sustainable
46 drinking water supply. This resulted in the following set of hydrological, technical and socio-
47 economic sustainability characteristics: (1) water quality, water resource availability, and
48 impact of drinking water abstraction; (2) reliability and resilience of the technical system, and
49 energy use and environmental impact; (3) drinking water availability, water governance, and
50 land and water use. Elaboration of these sustainability characteristics and criteria into a
51 sustainability assessment can provide information on the challenges and trade-offs inherent
52 in the sustainable development and management of a local drinking water supply system.

53

54 **1 Introduction**

55 Climate change combined with a growing drinking water demand threatens the sustainability
56 of the drinking water supply worldwide. The goal set for drinking water supply in Sustainable
57 Development Goal (SDG) 6.1 (UN, 2015) is “to achieve universal and equitable access to safe
58 and affordable drinking water for all by 2030”. Worldwide drinking water supply crises are
59 visible, resulting from a combination of limited water resource availability, lacking or failing
60 drinking water infrastructure and/or increased drinking water demand, due to short-term
61 events or long-term developments (WHO, 2017b). Still, nearly 10 percent of the world
62 population is fully deprived of improved drinking water resources (Ekins et al., 2019), and,
63 additionally, existing drinking water supply systems often are under pressure. For instance,
64 two recent examples of water crises were reported in Cape Town, South Africa and São Paolo,
65 Brazil (Sorensen, 2017, Cohen, 2016). To deal with such challenges and threats to safe and
66 affordable drinking water, adaptation of the current drinking water supply system is
67 imperative, not only on a global and national level, but also on a local scale.

68 In the Netherlands, for instance, the national drinking water supply currently meets the
69 indicator from SDG 6 (UN, 2018) on safely managed drinking water services and safely treated
70 waste water. At the same time the more specific goals on (local) water quantity, quality, and
71 ecology as set by the European Water Framework Directive (WFD), are not met yet (European
72 Environment Agency, 2018). Consequently, drinking water supply in the Netherlands does not
73 meet all SDG 6 indicators, for instance when considering impact to water-related ecosystems
74 (Van Engelenburg et al., 2017), water pollution (Kools et al., 2019, Van den Brink and Wuijts,
75 2016), or water shortage (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of
76 Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019). Additionally, future developments such as the

77 uncertain drinking water demand growth rate (Van der Aa et al., 2015) and the changing
78 climate variability (Teuling, 2018), may put the sustainability of the Dutch drinking water
79 supply under pressure in the future.

80 The abstraction of groundwater or surface water from the hydrological system, and
81 subsequent treatment to drinking water quality before being distributed to customers,
82 requires a local infrastructure (typically a drinking water production facility, embedded in a
83 distribution network of pipelines). Although the daily routine of drinking water supply has a
84 highly technical character (Bauer and Herder, 2009), the sustainability in the long-term
85 depends on the balance between technical, socio-economic and environmental factors. This
86 balance is especially complex for local drinking water supply, which is intertwined with the
87 local hydrological system and local stakeholders through its geographical location.

88 Because of the interconnections between physical, technical, and socio-economic factors as
89 well as across space, organizational levels and time, adaptation of the local drinking water
90 supply to current and future sustainability challenges calls for an integrated planning approach
91 (Liu et al., 2015). Integrated models have been developed to understand the complex
92 interactions between the physical, technical and socio-economic components in various water
93 systems (Loucks et al., 2017). However, a systems analysis to assess local drinking water supply
94 and to identify sustainability challenges on a local scale has not yet been developed.

95 This research aimed to propose a set of sustainability characteristics that describe the drinking
96 water supply system on a local scale to support policy- and decision-making on sustainable
97 drinking water supply. To reach this aim, cases on drinking water supply were analysed using
98 a conceptual framework. The selected cases represented a short-term event and long-term
99 developments that affect water quality and water resource availability, the technical drinking

100 water supply infrastructure and/or the drinking water demand. The system boundaries were
101 set to drinking water supply on the local scale. While the drinking water supply on a local scale
102 is also affected by outside influences from different organizational and spatial scales, the
103 analysis accounted for these external influences too. The hypothesis of this research was that
104 sustainability characteristics depend on the context that is analysed and therefore a variety of
105 cases must be analysed to reach a better understanding of the sustainability of drinking water
106 supply in the Netherlands.

107

108 **2 Method**

109 Sustainable water systems can be defined as water systems that are designed and managed
110 to contribute to the current and future objectives of society, maintaining their ecological,
111 environmental, and hydrological integrity (Loucks, 2000). This study focused on the
112 sustainability of drinking water supply systems on a local scale, in short, local drinking water
113 supply systems. The boundaries of these systems were set by the area in which drinking water
114 abstraction is embedded. The system can be approached from different perspectives. The
115 socio-ecological approach considers relations between the socio-economic and
116 environmental system, whereas the socio-technical approach considers the socio-economic
117 and technical system (Pant et al., 2015). In this study we combined both approaches by
118 describing the local drinking water supply system in terms of hydrological, technical and socio-
119 economic characteristics that determine the sustainability of a local drinking water supply
120 system.

121 Drinking water supply in the Netherlands is of a high standard compared to many other
122 countries. The SDG 6 targets on safe and affordable drinking water and sanitation and

123 wastewater treatment are basically met. But the Dutch government and drinking water
124 suppliers are also challenged to meet the other goals set in SDG 6, such as improvement of
125 water quality, increase of water-use efficiency, and protection and restoration of water-
126 related ecosystems. In addition the standards on water quantity, quality, and ecology as set
127 by the European Water Framework Directive (WFD) have not been achieved yet (European
128 Environment Agency, 2018).

129 The adopted research approach consisted of four steps. The first step was the selection and
130 analysis of three drinking water practice cases in the Netherlands, aiming to identify the main
131 Dutch sustainability aspects in these cases. Three Dutch cases were selected based on their
132 impact to the sustainability of drinking water supply in the Netherlands, considering a short-
133 term event with limited water resource availability, as well as long-term ongoing
134 developments on water quality, and growing drinking water demand and water resource
135 availability. The cases are illustrated with Vitens data (Van Engelenburg et al., 2020b).

136 In the second step the cases were analysed using the DPSIR framework (*Driver, Pressure, State,*
137 *Impact, Response* (Eurostat, 1999), see section 2.1). The sustainability aspects of these cases
138 were identified in the descriptive results of the DPSIR analysis. The results were combined
139 with Dutch governmental reports on these events and developments (Ministry of
140 Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019,
141 Vitens, 2016) and cross-checked with Vitens staff. The sustainability aspects were categorized
142 into hydrological, technical and socio-economic aspects. This resulted in a set of relevant
143 sustainability aspects, which is presented in Appendices A-C. The following step was used to
144 broaden the perspective from the drinking water supply in the Netherlands to a more general
145 perspective, by cross-checking the set of sustainability aspects with the targets and indicators

146 in Sustainable Development Goal 6 (further referred to as “SDG 6”, see App. D) (UN, 2015),
147 and the WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a). The *sustainability aspects*
148 as identified in the analysis were categorized into nine hydrological, technical and socio-
149 economic *sustainability characteristics*. In the final step of the study each sustainability
150 characteristic was elaborated further into five sustainability criteria that describe the local
151 drinking water supply system. The results are described in section 3. A detailed description of
152 the resulting sustainability criteria is presented in Appendix E.

153 **2.1 Case analysis method**

154 To reach the aim of this research to support policy development on sustainable drinking water
155 supply, three practice cases were analysed to identify the main sustainability aspects in these
156 cases using the DPSIR (*Driver-Pressure-State-Impact-Response*) systems approach (Eurostat,
157 1999): *Drivers* describe future developments such as climate change and population growth.
158 *Pressures* are developments (in emissions or environmental resources) as a result from the
159 drivers. The *state* describes the system state that results from the pressures. In this research
160 the aim is to describe the system state of the drinking water supply system in terms of local
161 hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability characteristics (see section 2.1). The
162 changes in system state cause *impacts* to system functions, which will lead to societal
163 *responses*. DPSIR was originally developed to describe causal relations between human
164 actions and the environment. It has also frequently been used for relations and interactions
165 between technical infrastructure and the socio-economic and physical domain (Pahl-Wostl,
166 2015, Hellegers and Leflaive, 2015, Binder et al., 2013).

167 The DPSIR approach was used for the analysis of the three selected drinking water supply
168 cases to obtain an overview of the *impact* of *drivers*, *pressures* and *responses* to the *state* of

169 the drinking water supply system. Although the framework has been applied on different
170 spatial scales, Carr et al. (2009) recommend using the framework place-specific, to ensure that
171 local stakeholder perspectives are assessed as well. With the research focus at the local
172 drinking water supply system, these local perspectives were implicitly included. The *drivers*,
173 *pressures* and *responses* can be on local as well as higher organizational and/or spatial scales,
174 thus ensuring that - where essential - relevant higher scales are accounted for too.

175 DPSIR has previously been used for complex water systems by various well-known
176 researchers in this field, such as Claudia Pahl-Wostl. In Binder et al. (2013) a comparison was
177 made between various frameworks, which concluded that DPSIR is a policy framework that
178 does not explicitly include development of a model, but aims at providing policy relevant
179 information, on pressures and responses on different scales. In Carr et al. (2009) the use of
180 DPSIR for sustainable development was evaluated. Although the authors were critical
181 regarding the use of the DPSIR framework on national, regional or global scales, they
182 considered application on a local scale appropriate. They concluded that practitioners can
183 use DPSIR for local-scale studies because it assesses the place-specific nuances of multiple
184 concerned stakeholders more realistically. In Van Noordwijk et al. (2020) DPSIR was used to
185 understand the joint multi-scale phenomena in the forest-water-people nexus and thus
186 diagnosed issues to be addressed in serious games for local decision-making. Therefore,
187 DPSIR was considered an appropriate framework to meet the aim of the research.

188 The impact of developments on different temporal scales to the drinking water supply system
189 must be considered as well. The long lived, interdependent drinking water supply
190 infrastructure is rigid to change due to design decisions in the past, which is causing path-
191 dependencies and lock-ins (Melese et al., 2015). In addition, consumer behaviour, governance

192 and engineering, and the interaction between these processes cause lock-in situations that
193 limit the ability to change towards more sustainable water resources management (Pahl-
194 Wostl, 2002). For this reason, the case analysis was performed considering both short- and
195 long-term *pressures, impacts* and *responses*.

196 **2.2 Case selection**

197 In this research three drinking water supply cases in the Netherlands were selected. The case
198 studies were analysed to find sustainability aspects caused by the identified *pressures* and
199 short- and/or long-term *responses* in each case, because short-term shocks have different
200 *impacts* and call for other *responses* than long-term stresses (Smith and Stirling, 2010). The
201 cases therefore focused on short-term events as well as long-term developments. All three
202 cases also related to targets set in SDG 6 (UN, 2015). The DPSIR analysis of the case studies is
203 presented in Appendices A-C.

204 **Case 1 “2018 Summer drought”**

205 Summer 2018 in the Netherlands was extremely warm and dry, causing water shortages in the
206 water system, and a long period of extreme daily drinking water demand, resulting in a record
207 monthly water demand in July 2018 (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry
208 of Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019) (see Illustration case 1). The *driver* in this case is
209 the extreme weather condition, which caused several *pressures*, such as high temperatures,
210 high evaporation and lack of precipitation. These *pressures* did not only cause drought damage
211 to nature, agriculture and gardens and parks, as well as limited water availability in the surface
212 water and groundwater systems, they also resulted in an extremely high drinking water
213 demand. Data on drinking water supply volumes (Van Engelenburg et al., 2020b) showed that
214 the extreme drinking water demand during summer 2018 put the drinking water supply

215 system under high pressure, causing extreme daily and monthly drinking water supply
216 volumes that exceeded all previously supplied volumes (see Fig. 1). The capacity of the system
217 was fully exploited, but faced limitations in abstraction, treatment and distribution capacity.

Illustration case 1: 2018 Summer drought

Within the Vitens supply area the average daily supply volume during the summer period June-August over the years 2012-2017 was approximately 965,000 m³/day. During the period 27 June-4 August 2018 the daily supply volume exceeded this average summer volume with approximately 28%, with an average volume of nearly 1,240,000 m³/day (Fig. 1a). On 25 July 2019 the maximum daily water supply reached nearly 1,390,000 m³/day, which was 42% above the baseline daily supply (Fig. 1a). The monthly drinking water supply volume in July 2018 of 38 million m³/month was an increase of 18% compared to the previous maximum monthly supply volumes (Fig. 1b). Although the drinking water supply infrastructure was designed with an overcapacity to meet the regular demand peaks, the flexibility to more extreme peaks, or to long periods of peak demand is limited.

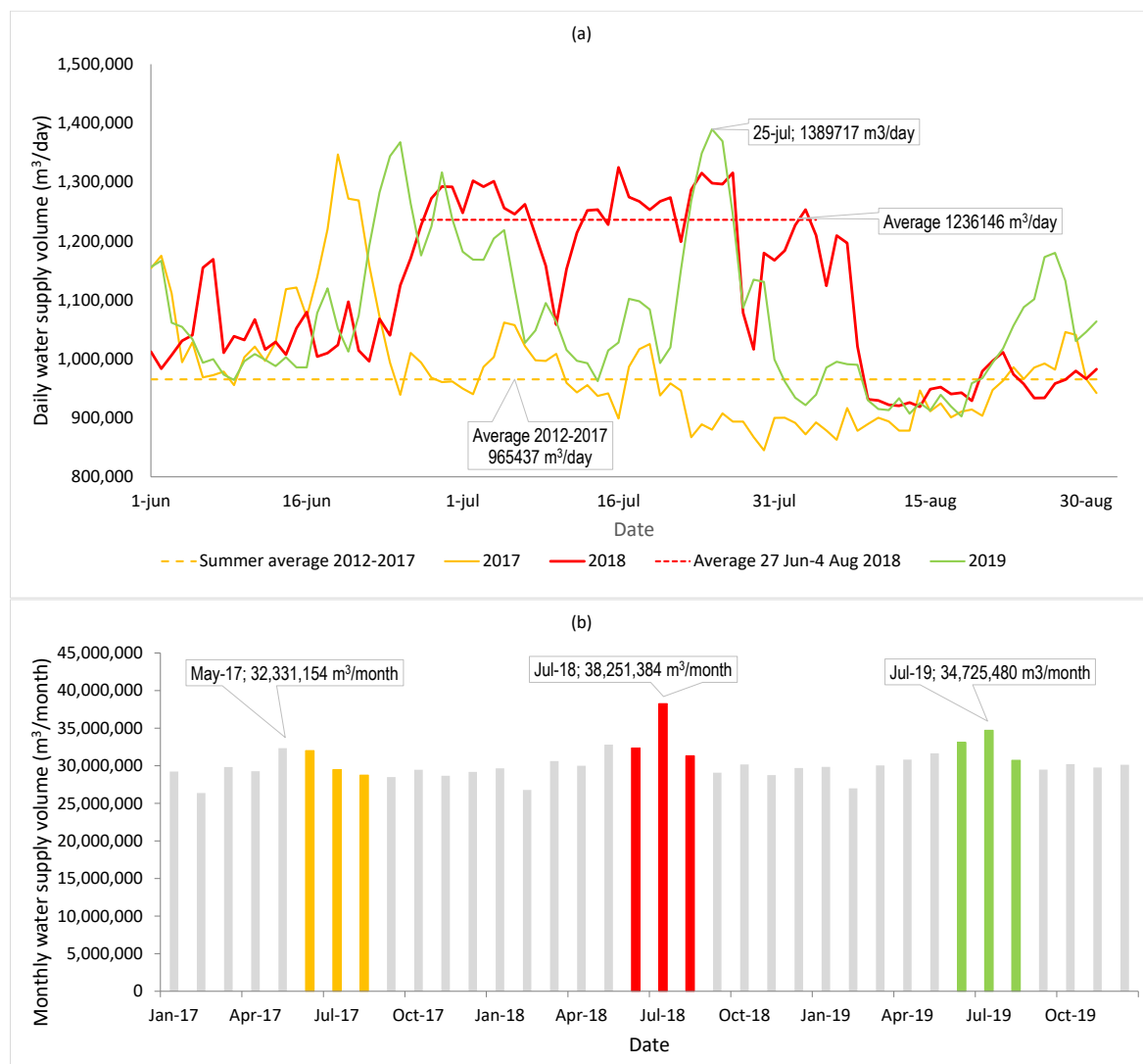


Figure 1 Daily (a) and monthly (b) drinking water supply volume by Dutch drinking water supplier Vitens during summer 2017 (average), 2018 (extreme), 2019 (high) (Van Engelenburg et al., 2020b).

219 The high drinking water abstraction volumes added up to the water shortages in both the
220 groundwater and the surface water system caused by the lack of precipitation and high
221 evaporation during the summer (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of
222 Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019). To ensure an acceptable surface water quality for
223 the drinking water supply, measures were taken to reduce salinization (Ministry of
224 Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019).

225 To reduce the drinking water use, a call for drinking water saving was made, and locally
226 pressures in the drinking water distribution system were intentionally lowered to reduce the
227 delivered drinking water volumes (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of
228 Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019). The problems caused by the summer drought
229 raised a discourse on (drinking) water use and saving, including discussions on controversial
230 measures such as a progressive drinking water tariffs, with tariffs dependent on the consumed
231 drinking water volume, and differentiation between high-grade and low-grade use of
232 (drinking) water (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment and Ministry of Economic Affairs
233 and Climate Policy, 2019). The results of this case analysis are presented in App. A.

234 **Case 2 “Groundwater quality development”**

235 This case focused on the impact of the groundwater quality development in the Netherlands
236 to the drinking water supply. Analysis of the state of the resources for drinking water supply
237 in the Netherlands in 2014 pointed out that, although the drinking water quality met the Dutch
238 legal standards, all water resources are under threat by known and new pollutants (Kools et
239 al., 2019). In the Netherlands 55% of the drinking water supply is provided by groundwater
240 resources (Baggelaar and Geudens, 2017). Long-term analysis of water quality records of
241 Dutch drinking water supply fields shows that the vulnerability of groundwater resources to

242 external influences such as land use strongly depends on hydrochemical characteristics
243 (Mendizabal et al., 2012). Monitoring results show that currently groundwater quality is
244 mainly under pressure due to nitrate, pesticides, historical contamination and salinization
245 (Kools et al., 2019). Nearly half of the groundwater abstractions for drinking water are affected
246 by an insufficient groundwater quality, and it is expected that in the future the groundwater
247 quality at more abstractions will exceed the groundwater standards set in the European Water
248 Framework Directive (European Union, 2000). In addition, traces of pollutants such as recent
249 industrial contaminants, medicine residues and other emerging substances are found,
250 indicating that the groundwater quality will likely further deteriorate (Kools et al., 2019).

251 Groundwater protection regulations regarding land and water use by legal authorities will
252 help to slow down groundwater deterioration (Van den Brink and Wuijts, 2016). However,
253 strategies to restore groundwater quality often will not be effective in the short term,
254 because already existing contaminations may remain present for a long period of time,
255 depending on the local hydrological characteristics (Jørgensen and Stockmarr, 2009) (see
256 Illustration case 2). The impact of contamination cannot be undone, unless soil processes
257 help to (partially) break down contaminants. Thorough monitoring for pollution therefore is
258 essential to follow groundwater quality trends and to respond adequately to these trends
259 (Janža, 2015). Due to the expected deterioration of the raw water quality¹, different and
260 more complex treatment methods are necessary to continuously meet the drinking water
261 standards (Kools et al., 2019). In general, a more complex treatment method leads to higher
262 energy use, use of additional excipients, water loss and production of waste materials, which

¹ Raw water is the (untreated) water that is treated to produce drinking water. This can be abstracted groundwater or surface water depending on the available water resource.

263 will lead to a higher water tariff, and to a higher environmental impact (Napoli and Garcia-
264 Tellez, 2016). The results of the analysis are presented in App. B.

Illustration case 2: Groundwater quality development

In the 1980's the Dutch government installed regulations to protect water quality by limiting the growing nitrate and phosphate surplus due to overuse of livestock manure. This resulted in a decrease of the nitrate surplus from 1985 on. However, due to the long travel times in groundwater it took years before the impact of these regulations became visible in the groundwater quality. Fig. 2 illustrates the period of time in which the nitrate concentration in an abstraction well still increased despite the 1985 regulations on reduction of the nitrate surplus at surface level: the nitrate concentration in this well has increased until 2005 before the nitrate level started to decrease. Only since 2014 the concentration has dropped below the nitrate standard for groundwater of 50 mg/L.

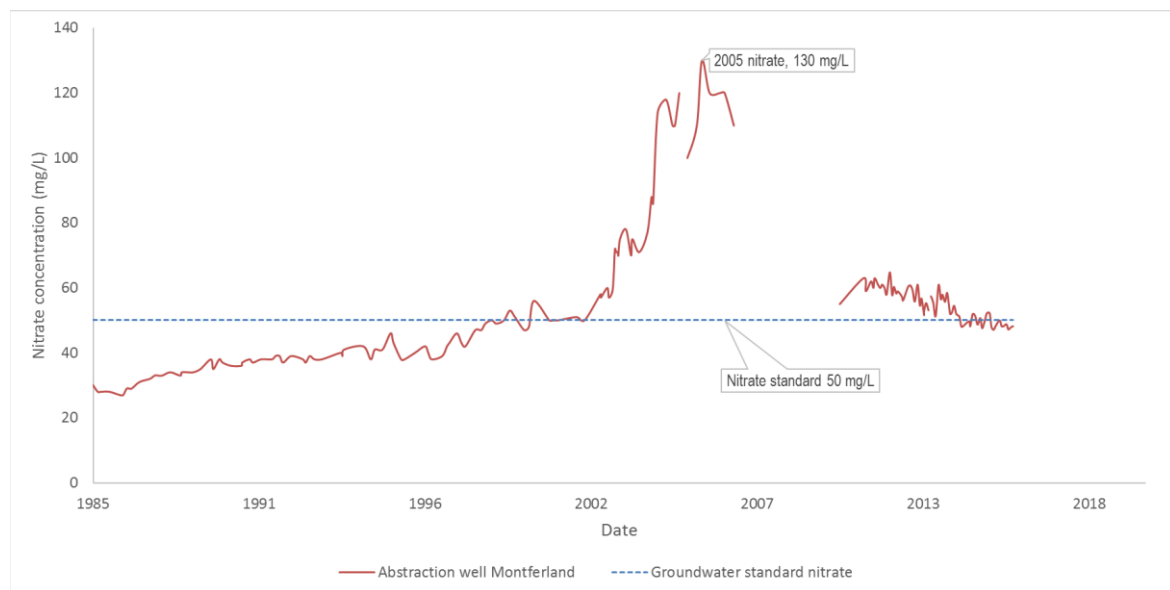


Figure 2 Development of nitrate in an abstraction well in Montferland (HEE-P07-07.0, coordinates X213.540-Y434.761) in the province of Gelderland, the Netherlands (Van Engelenburg et al., 2020b) compared to the Dutch standard for nitrate concentration in groundwater (50 mg/L).

265

Case 3 “Drinking water demand growth”

266 Due to drinking water saving strategies the drinking water use in the Netherlands per person
267 has decreased from 137 litre per person per day in 1992 to 119 litre per person per day in
268 2016 (Van Thiel, 2017). This development resulted in a decreasing total yearly drinking water
269

270 demand volume in that same period, despite the population growth in the Netherlands
271 (Baggelaar and Geudens, 2017). However, 2013 was a turning point, when the total yearly
272 drinking water demand volume in the Netherlands started to grow again (Baggelaar and
273 Geudens, 2017). The trend in the period 2013-2019 shows a strong increase in drinking water
274 demand (see Illustration case 3). Delta scenarios have been developed for the Netherlands,
275 projecting a drinking water demand development varying between a decrease of 10% to an
276 increase of 35% in 2050 compared to 2015 (Wolters et al., 2018).

277 The drinking water demand growth rate of the period 2013-2019 as is seen within the Vitens
278 supply area compares to the growth rate in the maximum delta scenario of 35% growth from
279 2015 to 2050 (See Illustration case 3).

Illustration case 3: Drinking water demand growth

The increase in normalised drinking water supply volume as supplied by Vitens between 2015 and 2019 is 4.5% (Fig. 3). Due to this recent demand growth the reserve capacity within the existing drinking water supply infrastructure is already limited. The drinking water demand growth rate of the period 2015-2019 compares to the growth rate in the maximum delta scenario of 35% growth from 2015 to 2050 (Fig. 3). If this growth rate is not tempered through a significant reduction of the drinking water use, this would require a large extension of the drinking water supply infrastructure.

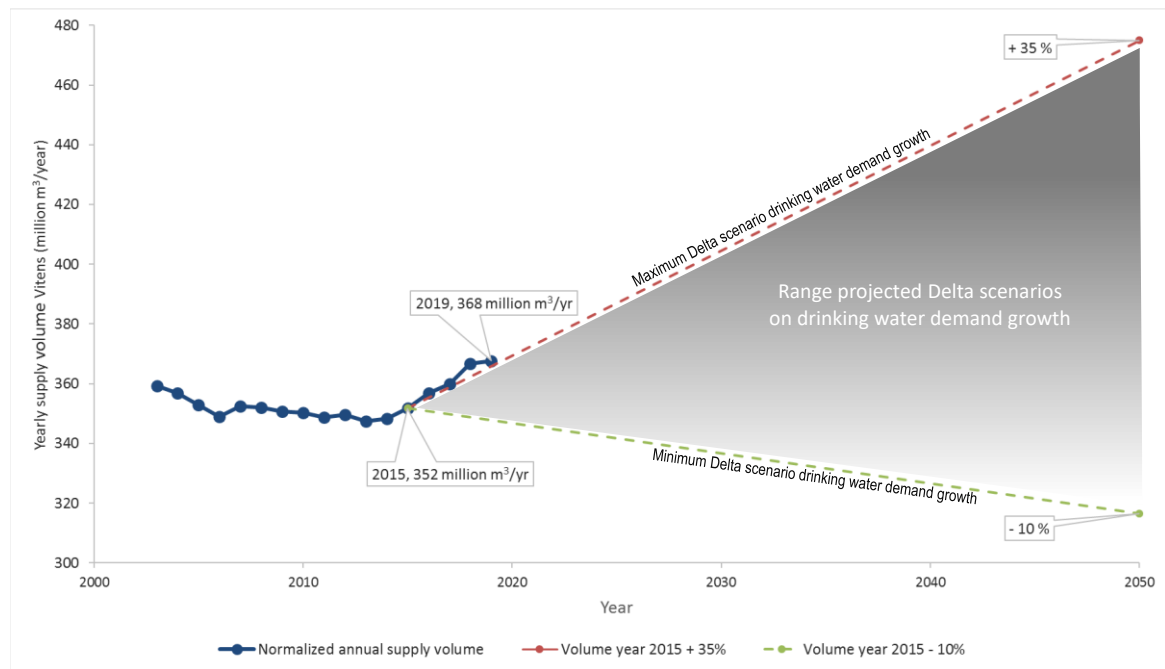


Figure 3 Development of the normalised annual drinking water volume supplied by Vitens (drinking water supplier), the Netherlands 2003-2019 (Van Engelenburg et al., 2020b), compared to the projected Delta scenarios on drinking water demand growth (Wolters et al., 2018), ranging between a decrease of 10% to an increase of 35% in 2050 compared to 2015. The normalized annual drinking water supply volume excludes the impact of extreme weather conditions on the actual supplied annual volumes of drinking water.

280

281

282 If this strong growth rate continues, this will put serious pressure on the drinking water supply.

283 This will partially be due to limitations in the technical infrastructure, but also partially due to

284 limitations in the water resource availability, caused by insufficient abstraction permits, or a

285 possibly negative impact to the hydrological system and stakeholders. Given the inflexibility

286 of drinking water supply infrastructure to change, an integrated strategy is necessary to meet

287 this uncertain development of the drinking water demand. To find sustainable solutions for

288 the future not only the technical infrastructure aspects must be solved. It also requires
289 strategies on water saving, expansion of permits, development of new abstraction concepts
290 using other water resources, as well as stakeholder processes in the design and use of the
291 local drinking water supply system. This case is basically an extension to the first two cases:
292 the growing water demand amplifies the aspects caused by the drought in 2018 and the
293 groundwater quality development. The results of the analysis of this case study are presented
294 in App. C.

295 **3 Sustainability characteristics of drinking water supply**

296 In this section the sustainability characteristics are presented, each elaborated further into
297 five sustainability criteria. A detailed description of the resulting sustainability criteria can be
298 found in Appendix E.

299 **3.1 Hydrological sustainability characteristics**

300 Three hydrological sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the hydrological
301 aspects affecting the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *water quality*, *water*
302 *resource availability* and *impact of drinking water abstraction* (Table 1).

303 *Water quality* includes the monitoring and evaluation of current water quality, and the trends
304 and expected future development of the water quality and emerging contaminants, as
305 described in the case “Groundwater quality development”. In the WHO Guidelines for
306 Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a) additionally the importance of microbial aspects as a
307 global water quality aspect with a health impact is monitored, such as bacteriological
308 contamination due to untreated waste water or emergencies. The WHO Guidelines for
309 Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a) also requires monitoring of water quality aspects

310 without health impact, such as salinization, water hardness, and colour, which affect the
 311 acceptability of the drinking water (WHO and UNICEF, 2017).

312 **Table 1** Summary of proposed hydrological sustainability characteristics, hydrological aspects from
 313 case studies (see App. A-C), relevant SDG¹ indicators and WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality
 314 (WHO, 2017a) aspects, and hydrological sustainability criteria.

Hydrological sustainability characteristics	Water quality	Water resource availability	Impact of drinking water abstraction
Sustainability aspects from case studies	Monitoring and evaluation Sources of pollution Contaminants Emerging contaminants Groundwater quality Surface water quality Raw water quality	Other water resources Surface water quantity Groundwater quantity Vulnerability of the water system Drought impact Water discharge	Impact of abstraction Groundwater levels Abstraction volume Balance between annual recharge and annual abstraction Hydrological compensation
SDG 6 targets¹	6.3, 6.5	6.4, 6.5	6.4, 6.6
WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a)	Health risks from microbial contamination Acceptability of the drinking water (salinization, hardness, colour)	Small- or large-scale emergencies caused by natural hazards, such as droughts, floods, earthquakes or forest fire	-
Sustainability criteria	Current raw water quality Chemical aspects of water quality Microbial aspects of water quality Acceptability aspects of water quality Monitoring and evaluation of water quality trends	Surface water quantity Groundwater quantity Other available water resources Vulnerability used water system for contamination Natural hazards and emergencies risk	Impact on surface water system Impact on groundwater system Balance between annual recharge and abstraction Hydrological compensation Spatial impact of abstraction facility/ storage/reservoir

315 ¹ SDG = Sustainable Development Goal; see App. V for summary of Sustainable Development Goal 6 targets and
 316 indicators related to sustainability characteristics (UN, 2015)

317 *Water resource availability* for drinking water supply can be differentiated into the surface
 318 water and groundwater availability, as illustrated in Case 1 “2018 Summer drought”. Other
 319 sustainability aspects are the vulnerability of the surface and/or groundwater system to the
 320 water quality being affected permanently by land use, as illustrated in the case “Groundwater
 321 quality development”. The water resource availability can also be limited due to small- or
 322 large-scale emergencies caused by natural hazards, such as droughts, floods, earthquakes or

323 forest fires (WHO and UNICEF, 2017), that will put the sustainability of the local drinking water
324 supply under pressure.

325 The *impact of the drinking water abstraction* to the hydrological system entails the impact to
326 both the surface water system and the groundwater system, but also the balance between
327 the annual drinking water abstraction volume and the annual recharge of the (local) water
328 system. Whether the impact of the abstraction is or can possibly be compensated
329 hydrologically is another sustainability aspect. The spatial impact of the local drinking water
330 abstraction facility may also be a sustainability aspect: a drinking water facility requires a
331 certain water storage area or reservoir, which might have a significant spatial impact in the
332 area and thus might affect local stakeholders.

333 **3.2 Technical sustainability characteristics**

334 Three technical sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the technical
335 aspects for the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *reliability* and *resilience of*
336 *the technical infrastructure* and *energy use and environmental impact* of the drinking water
337 supply (Table 2).

338 The *reliability* of the supply system is defined in this research as “the (un)likeliness of the
339 technical system to fail” (Hashimoto et al., 1982). The current technical state of the drinking
340 water production facility and the distribution infrastructure, and the complexity of the water
341 treatment are important technical sustainability criteria for the local drinking water supply
342 system. Other technical criteria that should be considered are the supply continuity of the
343 facility, which stands for the capability to meet the set legal standards for drinking water
344 supply under all circumstances, and the operational reliability, to solve technical failures
345 without disturbance of the drinking water supply.

346 **Table 2** Summary of proposed technical sustainability characteristics, technical aspects from case
 347 studies (see App. A-C), relevant SDG¹ indicators and WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality
 348 (WHO, 2017a) aspects, and technical sustainability criteria.

Technical sustainability characteristics	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Energy use and environmental impact
Sustainability aspects from case studies	Drinking water pressure Drinking water treatment Reliability of abstraction, treatment and distribution infrastructure	Abstraction capacity Treatment capacity Treatment methods Distribution capacity Resilience of technical infrastructure	Energy use Environmental impact Additional excipients Wastewater Waste materials
SDG 6 targets¹	6.1, 6.4	6.1, 6.4	6.4
WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a)	Safely managed drinking water services, i.e. improved drinking water source on premises, available when needed and free from contamination	Resilient technologies and processes Upgrades of water treatment and storage capacity	Reliability of the energy supply Renewability of the energy
Sustainability criteria	Technical state abstraction and treatment facility Technical state distribution infrastructure Complexity of water treatment Supply continuity for customers Operational reliability	Abstraction permit compared to annual drinking water demand Production capacity compared to peak demand Flexibility of treatment method Technical innovations to improve resilience Technical investments to improve resilience	Energy use of abstraction and treatment Energy use of distribution Environmental impact (additional excipients, wastewater, waste materials) Reliability energy supply Use of renewable energy

349 ¹ SDG = Sustainable Development Goal; see App. V for summary of Sustainable Development Goal 6 targets and
 350 indicators related to sustainability characteristics (UN, 2015)

351
 352 In this research the *resilience* of the drinking water supply system is defined as “the possibility
 353 to respond to short- and long-term changes in water demand or water quality” (Hashimoto et
 354 al., 1982). Climate change and other developments in water demand and quality call for the
 355 use of more resilient technologies and processes, and may require upgrades of water
 356 treatment and storage capacity (WHO and UNICEF, 2017). The cases “2018 Summer drought”
 357 as well as “Drinking water demand growth” emphasise the importance of the available
 358 abstraction permits, and treatment and distribution capacity compared to the annual and
 359 peak water demand respectively for the resilience of the local drinking water supply system.
 360 Furthermore, the flexibility of the treatment method determines whether a drinking water

361 supply system can deal with variation in, or deterioration of water quality and emerging
362 contaminants, the sustainability aspects found in the case “Groundwater quality
363 development”.

364 *Energy use and environmental impact* includes the sustainability aspects from the cases
365 “Groundwater quality development” and “Drinking water demand growth”: the energy use of
366 abstraction, treatment and distribution, and the environmental impact of additional
367 excipients, waste water and other waste products of the treatment. Especially when the raw
368 water quality deteriorates, the required water treatment methods become more complex. In
369 general, this leads to large investments, as well as an increasing energy use and environmental
370 impact, e.g. when advanced membrane filtration methods are required. Additional global
371 sustainability aspects are the reliability of the energy supply, and the renewability of the
372 energy that is used (WHO, 2017a).

373 **3.3 Socio-economic sustainability characteristics**

374 Three socio-economic sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the socio-
375 economic aspects affecting the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *drinking*
376 *water availability, water governance, and land and water use* (Table 3).

377 The *drinking water availability* can be quantified by the percentage of households connected
378 to the drinking water supply. A sustainable local drinking water supply provides sufficient
379 drinking water of a quality that meets the national or international drinking water standards,
380 for a tariff that is affordable to all households (UN, 2015). In the Netherlands the drinking
381 water tariff by law must be built on a cost-recovery, transparent and non-discriminatory basis
382 (Dutch Government, 2009). Water saving strategies will reduce the drinking water demand
383 growth and therefore will contribute to the sustainability. Drinking water safety is a

384 prerequisite for public health and sustainable drinking water supply. The WHO Guidelines
385 consider water safety plans essential to provide the basis for system protection and process
386 control to ensure water quality issues present a negligible risk to public health and that the
387 drinking water is acceptable to consumers. Therefore WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water
388 Quality (2017) monitors the availability of water safety plans including emergency plans on
389 how to act in case of drinking water supply disturbances, shortages, or drinking water quality
390 emergencies (WHO and UNICEF, 2017). A water safety plan can be built on various safety
391 protocols.

392 *Water governance* focuses on policies and legislation, enforcement and compliance of
393 regulations. Good governance also includes decision-making processes considering different
394 stakeholder interests, to ensure accountable, transparent and participatory governance
395 (UNESCAP, 2009). The availability of (inter)national and local policies and legislation on
396 drinking water supply as well as on water management, including regulations and permits,
397 and the level of compliance of the drinking water supplier to these policies and legislation, are
398 important for the socio-economic sustainability. The sustainability of local drinking water
399 supply is also characterised by the stakeholders' interests related to the presence of a local
400 drinking water abstraction, and by how local authorities weigh these interests in their
401 decision-making processes. A final aspect in water governance that reaches further than local
402 stakeholder interests is the risk of small- or large-scale emergencies for the drinking water
403 supply caused by human activities or conflicts (WHO and UNICEF, 2017).

404 The local *land and water use*, at surface and subsurface level, affects the water quality and
405 quantity. It may have resulted in historical contaminant sources, causing point or non-point
406 water pollution, but it may also lead to emerging contaminants that provide new risks to water

407 quality. Additionally, water use for other purposes may limit the availability of water
 408 resources for drinking water. Regulations to protect water quality or water quantity may cause
 409 limitations for local land and water use. Financial compensation for suffered economic
 410 damage due to the impact of the abstraction or the limitations caused by protection
 411 regulations can be an important aspect for the sustainability of the drinking water supply
 412 system.

413 **Table 3** Summary of proposed socio-economic sustainability characteristics, socio-economic aspects
 414 from case studies (see App. A-C), relevant SDG¹ indicators and WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water
 415 Quality (WHO, 2017a) aspects, and socio-economic sustainability criteria.

Socio-economic sustainability characteristics	Drinking water availability	Water governance	Land and water use
Sustainability aspects from case studies	Customers Drinking water availability Drinking water demand Drinking water tariff Drinking water quality Drinking water volume Drinking water shortage Emergencies, disturbances Water saving	Abstraction permits Drinking water standards Water authorities Water legislation, policy and regulations Drinking water suppliers Compliance Stakeholders	Water use Land use Agriculture Nature, groundwater-dependent ecosystems Financial compensation Spatial impact
SDG 6 targets¹	6.1	6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 6.6, 6.a, 6.b	6.3, 6.4
WHO Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality (WHO, 2017a)	Water safety plan	Small- or large-scale emergencies for the drinking water supply caused by human activities or conflicts	-
Sustainability criteria	Percentage connected households Drinking water service quality Drinking water tariff Water saving strategy Water safety protocols	Availability of (drinking) water legislation and policies Compliance of drinking water supplier Decision-making process by (local) authorities Local stakeholder interests Emergency risk caused by human activities or conflicts	Land use (including subsurface use) Water use for other purposes than drinking water Regulations on land and water use Limitations to land or water use Financial compensation of economic damage from impact of abstraction or limitations to land use

416 ¹ SDG = Sustainable Development Goal; see App. V for summary of Sustainable Development Goal 6 targets and
 417 indicators related to sustainability characteristics (UN, 2015)
 418

419 4 Discussion

420 4.1 Use of DPSIR systems approach

421 In this study we used an integrated systems approach to analyse the local drinking water
422 supply system, combining hydrological, technical and socio-economic aspects of the system.

423 The analysis of the three selected cases with DPSIR supported the identification of aspects
424 that shape the sustainability of the local drinking water supply system. The case analysis did
425 indeed help to account for differences between short-term and long-term developments, and
426 for the impact of external influences that come from the national and international scale.

427 The applied DPSIR approach is a linear socio-ecological framework originally developed to
428 identify the impact of human activities on the *state* of the environmental system (Binder et
429 al., 2013). However, the local drinking water supply system is a complex system rather than
430 linear, because the *impact* of a *pressure* to one system element could present a *pressure* to
431 another system element. This complicated the identification of *pressures* and *impacts*. For
432 instance, high temperatures and lack of precipitation caused a higher drinking water demand
433 and surface water quality deterioration. Both consequently presented *pressures* with an
434 *impact* to the resilience and reliability of the technical drinking water supply infrastructure.

435 Although this hampered the analysis, the use of DPSIR supported a systematic analysis of the
436 local drinking water supply cases and helped to identify the sustainability aspects. Use of a
437 different integrated systems approach would not have led to a significantly different outcome
438 of the case analysis. A next step could potentially be to use the identified system
439 characteristics for a system dynamics analysis and modelling. However, this is beyond the
440 scope of this current research.

441 **4.2 General applicability of the sustainability characteristics**

442 To increase the general applicability of the results from the analysis of the Dutch cases on
443 drinking water supply, the identified sustainability aspects were related to worldwide
444 acknowledged sustainability aspects, by cross-checking with international policies on drinking
445 water supply. This put the aspects in a broader perspective, which may contribute to the
446 transferability of the proposed sustainability characteristics and criteria to other areas.

447 Assessments to understand the sustainability challenges as well as the impact of future
448 developments and adaptation options are seen as powerful tools for policy making (Ness et
449 al., 2007, Singh et al., 2012). The sustainability characteristics as proposed in this research may
450 be used to develop a sustainability assessment for the local drinking water supply system, that
451 can help to identify sustainability challenges and trade-offs of adaptation strategies. Trade-off
452 analysis supports decision-making processes and makes these processes more transparent to
453 local stakeholders (Hellegers and Leflaive, 2015). Based on the local situation and data
454 availability, adequate indicators and indices can be selected to quantify the sustainability
455 characteristics in a certain area (Van Engelenburg et al., 2019).

456 **5 Conclusions**

457 The aim of this study was to identify a set of characteristics that describe the sustainability of
458 a local drinking water supply system in the Netherlands to support policy- and decision-making
459 on sustainable drinking water supply. The use of the DPSIR systems approach was an adequate
460 method for the analysis of the cases. The results of the analysis of the three cases confirmed
461 the hypothesis that sustainability is contextual, resulting in different sustainability aspects in
462 the various cases. The combined results of the analysis of three different practice cases
463 contributed to a better understanding of drinking water supply in the Netherlands. Cross-

464 checking of the results of case analysis with international policies on drinking water supply
465 provided a wider context than the Netherlands and has thus contributed to the general
466 applicability of the identified sustainability characteristics.

467 Based on the presented analysis, the following set of hydrological, technical and socio-
468 economic sustainability characteristics is proposed, respectively: (1) *water quality, water*
469 *resource availability, and impact of drinking water abstraction*; (2) *reliability and resilience of*
470 *the technical system, and energy use and environmental impact*; (3) *drinking water availability,*
471 *water governance, and land and water use*. Elaboration of the sustainability characteristics
472 into more detailed criteria may further increase the value of the results of this research in the
473 process of development of policies on sustainable drinking water supply in the Netherlands.

474 **Data availability:** The source data used for the illustrations of the cases are available at
475 request.

476 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization J.v.E., P.J.G.J.H., E.v.S.; methodology J.v.E.,
477 P.J.G.J.H., E.v.S.; data curation J.v.E.; investigation J.v.E.; writing – original draft preparation
478 J.v.E.; writing – review and editing J.v.E., P.J.G.J.H., E.v.S., A.J.T., R.U.; visualization J.v.E.;
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487

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615

Appendix A Results of analysis case 1 “2018 Summer drought”

Table A.1 Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability aspects in case 1 “2018 Summer drought” (for complete results of the case study see Table A.2).

Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability aspects
Extreme drinking water use, high drinking water demand.	Drinking water suppliers increased abstraction volume.	Development of water saving strategies.	Drinking water use, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers, abstraction volumes, water saving.
Drought, falling water discharges and groundwater levels, damage to groundwater-dependent ecosystems and agriculture.	Water use limitations, water authorities applied existing drought water policy, risk for water quality.	Development of additional water shortage policy for water management and water governance.	Drought, water discharge, groundwater levels, groundwater-dependent ecosystems, agriculture, water use, water authorities, water policy, water management, water governance, water availability.
Customers worried about drinking water availability.	Drinking water suppliers called upon customers for drinking water saving.	Societal support for drinking water saving strategies.	Customers, drinking water availability, drinking water suppliers, water saving.
Declining surface water discharge and quality.	Drinking water supplies took measures to safeguard raw water quality.	Development of additional policies on water quality protection.	Surface water discharge, surface water quality, drinking water suppliers, raw water quality, water management policies, water use.
Groundwater quality deterioration.	No response possible due to lack of water.	Development of additional policies on water quality protection.	Groundwater quality, surface water quality, water shortage, surface water discharge, water management policies
Drinking water quality at risk due to rising water temperature in pipelines.	Sufficient refreshment due to high demand.	Changing the design standard of distribution pipelines to limit risk of temperature rise.	Drinking water quality, treatment method, distribution infrastructure.
Increasing abstraction volume, resulting in increasing impact to land use.	Stakeholder complaints by agriculture and nature.	Increased societal pressure on reduction of impact of drinking water abstraction.	Drinking water demand, abstraction volume, impact of abstraction, land use, stakeholders, agriculture, nature, drinking water suppliers.
Exceedance of abstraction permits, limiting the resilience of the technical infrastructure.	Enforcement procedures by legal authorities.	Extension of drinking water abstraction permits and water saving strategies.	Drinking water demand, abstraction volume, abstraction capacity, abstraction permit, resilience of abstraction, legal authorities, water regulations, water legislation, drinking water saving.
Shortage of drinking water during peak demand due to insufficient resilience of treatment infrastructure.	Reduced drinking water supply volume.	Adjustment of resilience and reliability of treatment infrastructure.	Treatment volume, treatment capacity, drinking water shortage, reliability of the treatment, resilience of the treatment, drinking water standards, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers.
Insufficient distribution capacity	Lowering drinking water pressure to reduce drinking water volume	Adjustment of resilience and reliability of distribution infrastructure.	Distribution capacity, resilience and reliability of distribution, drinking water suppliers, drinking water volume, drinking water standards.
Major disturbances could cause a serious disruption of the supply.	Maximum personnel deployment by drinking water suppliers.	Investments to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure by drinking water suppliers.	Drinking water demand, reliability of technical infrastructure, drinking water suppliers.

<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
High energy use and environmental impact of extreme drinking water production.	-	Incorporating impact to energy use and environmental impact in design of measures to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure.	Drinking water demand, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water suppliers.

Table A.2 Results analysis of Case 1 “2018 summer drought”. For each pressure the response and impacts to the state of the local drinking water supply system are described. The sustainability aspects in the case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table A.1.

<i>Driver</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Extreme weather event	High temperature, high evaporation, no precipitation	Extreme drinking water use, high drinking water demand.	Drinking water suppliers increased abstraction volume.	Development of water saving strategies.	Drinking water use, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers, abstraction volume, water saving.
		The summer affected the drinking water use : filling swimming pools, watering gardens, extra showering all together led to a very high drinking water demand . Additionally, there also were requests from concerned citizens for applying drinking water to refill ponds that fell dry due to the extreme drought.	Drinking water suppliers increased the abstraction volume to meet the increased drinking water demand.	The drought (re-)initiated a discourse on water saving strategies , including controversial measures such as progressive drinking water tariffs and differentiation in high-grade (household and sanitation, food production) and low-grade (pools, gardens, process water) use.	
Extreme weather event	High evaporation, no precipitation	Drought, falling water discharges and groundwater levels, damage to groundwater-dependent ecosystems and agriculture.	Water use limitations, water authorities applied existing drought water policy, risk for water quality.	Development of additional water shortage policy for water management and water governance.	Drought, water discharge, groundwater levels, groundwater-dependent ecosystems, agriculture, water use, water authorities, water policy, water management, water governance, water availability.
		The drought caused falling water discharges and groundwater levels : river discharges declined, springs and brooks fell dry, and vegetation withered or even died due to low groundwater levels and high temperatures. Groundwater-dependent ecosystems such as wetlands as well as agriculture produce suffered from the drought.	Limitations to water use from water system. Water authorities applied the special water policy that was developed for periods with low water availability. Drinking water supply has a high ranking because of its high societal relevance. In some ecologically vulnerable areas, there is a water policy to resolve local surface water shortages by supplementing from larger water bodies such as rivers. This affects the local surface water quality and may also affect the groundwater quality .	Discourse and policy development on water management and water governance aiming at a further prioritisation and limitations of water use during water shortage, and retention of surface water and groundwater during periods with sufficient water availability .	

<i>Driver</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Extreme weather event	High evaporation, no precipitation	Customers worried about drinking water availability.	Drinking water suppliers called upon customers for drinking water saving.	Societal support for drinking water saving strategies.	Customers, drinking water availability, drinking water suppliers, water saving.
		Because of the visible damage to vegetation due to the drought, customers started to worry about the drinking water availability .	Drinking water suppliers communicated that there still was sufficient drinking water, but people were asked to spread the drinking water use to reduce the peak demand. Later that summer customers were called for water saving .	The drought raised awareness under customers that there are limits to the drinking water availability , thus creating (some) societal support for (drinking) water saving.	
Extreme weather event	No precipitation	Declining surface water discharge and quality.	Drinking water supplies took measures to safeguard raw water quality.	Development of additional policies on water quality protection.	Surface water discharge, surface water quality, drinking water suppliers, raw water quality, water management policies, water use.
		Due to the lack of rain, the share of industrial wastewater and treated sewage water to the surface water discharge increased, which caused the water quality in surface waters deteriorated.	Drinking water suppliers that use surface water as resource took measures to safeguard the raw water quality .	The surface water discharge and quality problems may induce development of water management policies that aim to reduce the impact of treated sewage and industrial wastewater, by reduction of water use or improvement of treatment.	
Extreme weather event	Declining surface water quality	Groundwater quality deterioration.	No response possible due to lack of water.	Development of additional policies on water quality protection.	Groundwater quality, surface water quality, water shortage, surface water discharge, water management policies.
		The impact of an incidental warm and dry summer to the groundwater quality is limited, but when comparable droughts will happen frequently the groundwater quality may deteriorate due to the impact of a declining surface water quality .	In some surface water bodies refreshment was required to guard the surface water quality , but due to the lack of precipitation there was a water shortage , so insufficient water was available for this refreshment.	The fact that surface water discharge and quality may affect groundwater quality supports the need of water management policies that aim to refresh water bodies and to reduce the impact of treated sewage and industrial wastewater.	
Extreme weather event	High temperature	Drinking water quality at risk due to rising water temperature in pipelines.	Sufficient refreshment due to high demand.	Changing the design standard of distribution pipelines to limit risk of temperature rise.	Drinking water quality, treatment method, distribution infrastructure.
		The extreme temperatures led to an increased surface water temperature, and soil temperature, that may have affected drinking water temperature in distribution infrastructure. This introduces a drinking water quality risk.	When surface water is the main resource for drinking water, the water quality risk will be limited by a treatment method that ensures the bacteriological quality of the drinking water. Sufficient refreshment within storage and high stream velocities in pipelines reduce the risk of temperature rise in the distribution infrastructure .	The risk of drinking water quality aspects caused by increased drinking water temperature due to climate change may have consequences for the design of the distribution infrastructure .	
	High drinking water demand	Increasing abstraction volume, resulting in increasing impact on land use.	Stakeholder complaints by agriculture and nature.	Increased societal pressure on reduction of impact of drinking water abstraction.	Drinking water demand, abstraction volume,

<i>Driver</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Extreme weather event		To meet the high drinking water demand , the abstraction volume rose to a high level. In some local areas the impact of the abstraction added up with the extreme drought and high temperatures, affecting the land use .	Stakeholders on agriculture and nature complained about the impact of the extra abstraction to their land use.	The drought impact enlarged the societal pressure to drinking water suppliers to reduce the impact of local drinking water abstraction to the water system.	impact of abstraction, land use, stakeholders, agriculture, nature, drinking water suppliers.
Extreme weather event	High drinking water demand	Exceedance of abstraction permits, limiting the resilience of the technical infrastructure.	Enforcement procedures by legal authorities.	Extension of drinking water abstraction permits and water saving strategies.	Drinking water demand, abstraction volume, abstraction capacity, abstraction permit, resilience of abstraction, legal authorities, water regulations, water legislation, drinking water saving.
		To meet the high drinking water demand , the abstraction volume rose to a high level. The available abstraction capacity combined with the high abstraction volumes led to exceedance of the abstraction permits . Some local drinking abstractions exceeded the monthly permitted volume, and some abstractions even exceeded the yearly permitted volume, failing drinking water regulations. This compromised the resilience of the abstractions .	Legal authorities (provinces and water boards) started enforcement procedures to meet the water regulations . The legal authority urged the drinking water supplier to stay within these limits. However, the drinking water legislation also had to be met to ensure continuous supply of good quality drinking water at all times.	The exceedance of abstraction permit limits set off enforcement actions by the government, resulting in an increased need for additional abstraction permits , as well as drinking water saving strategies to reduce the drinking water demand .	
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	Shortage of drinking water during peak demand due to Insufficient resilience of treatment infrastructure.	Reduced drinking water supply volume.	Adjustment of resilience and reliability of treatment infrastructure.	Treatment volume, treatment capacity, drinking water shortage, reliability of the treatment, resilience of the treatment, drinking water standards, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers.
		To meet the high peak demand, the treatment volume rose to a high level. In some parts of the drinking water supply there was insufficient treatment capacity , causing a temporary shortage of drinking water during peak demand, compromising the reliability of the treatment . These limitations showed that the treatment is not resilient for this extreme peak demand.	There is no response available when the treatment capacity is insufficient, except reducing the drinking water supply volume. Exceeding the treatment capacity (by e.g. increasing the filter flow velocity or reducing the cleansing frequency of the filters) would introduce the risk of not meeting the drinking water standards .	The drought identified various locations in the technical infrastructure where the treatment capacity was not reliable at peak drinking water demand , which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local treatment aspects. To adjust all aspects will take several years.	
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	Insufficient distribution capacity.	Lowering drinking water pressure to reduce drinking water volume.	Adjustment of resilience and reliability of distribution infrastructure.	Distribution capacity, resilience and reliability of distribution, drinking water suppliers, drinking
		In some parts of the drinking water supply there was insufficient distribution	To reduce the drinking water volume that was supplied, drinking water suppliers	The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where the	

<i>Driver</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
		capacity due to hydraulic limitations, insufficient storage capacity, or age and quality of the pipelines. In some areas this caused unintended low drinking water pressures. These limitations put the reliability of the distribution under pressure and showed that the distribution capacity was not resilient for this extreme peak demand.	lowered the drinking water pressure intendedly in some areas. The impact of this pressure reduction is a decreased drinking water volume from taps. By reducing drinking water pressure, the distributed drinking water volume was reduced, however this also led to falling short of the mandatory drinking water standards in some areas.	distribution capacity was not reliable at peak demand , which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local distribution aspects. To adjust all aspects will take several years.	water volume, drinking water standards.
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	Major disturbances could cause a serious disruption of the supply.	Maximal personnel deployment by drinking water suppliers.	Investments to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure by drinking water suppliers.	Drinking water demand, reliability of technical infrastructure, drinking water suppliers.
		The high peak demand required a maximal exploitation of the technical infrastructure . To ensure the reliability of the drinking water supply , many parts of the infrastructure are designed redundant, which limits the impact of disturbances for customers. However, a major disturbance in the infrastructure, such as failure of a large transportation pipeline, could have led to disruption of the supply, because the resilience was limited due to limited reserve capacity and reduced maintenance during the extreme drinking water demand period.	To ensure the reliability of the drinking water supply , disturbances are always solved with priority. During the extreme peak period drinking water suppliers had all personnel put on standby to immediately solve any disturbances.	The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where not reliable at peak demand , which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local aspects, and where necessary create redundancy to decrease the risk of disturbances, and thus improve the reliability .	
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	High energy use and environmental impact of extreme drinking water production.	-	Incorporating impact on energy use and environmental impact in design of measures to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure.	Drinking water demand, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water suppliers.
		The magnitude and duration of the peak demand forced a maximal exploitation of the technical infrastructure, causing a maximal energy use and environmental impact .	There was no short-term response available to reduce the energy use and environmental impact.	The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where not reliable at peak demand , which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local aspects. Energy use and environmental impact are important aspects that are considered in the design of the solutions for these aspects.	

Appendix B Results of analysis case 2 “Groundwater quality development”

Table B.1 Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability aspects in case 2, “Groundwater quality development” (for complete results of the case study see Table B.2).

<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Surface water quality deteriorates due to limited surface water discharge.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Water legislation on water quality and quantity protection, drinking water savings strategies.	Surface water quality, surface water discharge, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quality and quantity, drinking water saving.
Groundwater quality deteriorates due to deteriorating surface water quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Improvement of sewage and wastewater treatment, and water saving strategies.	Groundwater quality, surface water quality, monitoring and evaluation, water saving.
Soil energy systems may affect groundwater quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development, research.	Groundwater protection regulations.	Groundwater quality, groundwater pollution, research, monitoring and evaluation, regulations, groundwater quality protection.
Local and upstream land and water use affects the surface water quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Policy and measures to meet water legislation to protect and improve water quality and quantity.	Surface water quality, land and water use, contaminants, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quantity.
Diffuse and point sources of pollution affect surface water and groundwater quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Measures to remove historical sources of pollution and to prevent new sources of pollution.	Groundwater quality, nutrients, organic micro-pollutants, other contaminants, surface water quality, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quality protection.
Emerging contaminants in surface and groundwater require new drinking water treatment methods.	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on pollution incidents and monitoring and evaluation.	Development of treatment methods to remove emerging contaminants from sewage, industrial wastewater and/or drinking water.	Emerging contaminants, groundwater quality, surface water quality, resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment, groundwater protection, land and water use, water legislation, sources of pollution, drinking water treatment methods, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariff.
Land use (change) may cause groundwater quality deterioration.	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on land use change and monitoring and evaluation.	Combination of extensive land use functions with drinking water abstraction.	Land use change, groundwater quality, sources of pollution, groundwater protection regulations, water use, enforcement of regulations, monitoring and evaluation, drinking water abstraction, extensive land use, nature, agriculture, water system.
Surface water and groundwater quality deterioration determine the required drinking water treatment.	Monitoring of drinking water quality, in case of emergencies measures are taken to safeguard the drinking water quality.	Adjustment of treatment methods to be able to continue to meet the drinking water standards.	Raw water quality, drinking water standards, water quality, vulnerability of the water system for contamination, treatment methods, reliability and resilience of treatment, drinking water quality, emergencies, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariff.
Variations in raw water quality can only be handled if treatment method is resilient to these variations.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Increase of resilience and reliability of drinking water treatment.	Surface water quality, groundwater quality, resilience and reliability of the treatment, monitoring and evaluation, raw water quality, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariff.

Table B.2 Results analysis of Case 2 "Groundwater quality development". The sustainability aspects in this case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table B.1.

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Changing climate variability	Less summer precipitation, higher summer temperatures	Surface water quality deteriorates due to limited surface water discharge.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Water legislation on water quality and quantity protection and drinking water savings strategies.	Surface water quality, surface water discharge, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quality and quantity, drinking water saving.
		In summer surface water quality deteriorates due to limited surface water discharge , combined with increasing contribution of industrial and treated sewage water recharges compared to natural discharges due to lack of summer precipitation.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing surface water quality.	Land and water use must meet water legislation as set by the European Water Framework Directive and national water legislation to protect and improve water quality and quantity . Further improvement of sewage and wastewater treatment will reduce the impact on the surface water quality . Drinking water saving strategies can also lead to reduction of treated sewage water recharges and industrial recharges.	
Changing climate variability	Surface water quality deterioration	Groundwater quality deteriorates due to deteriorating surface water quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Improvement of sewage and wastewater treatment, and water saving strategies.	Groundwater quality, surface water quality, monitoring and evaluation, water saving.
		Groundwater quality may be affected by the deteriorating surface water quality during summer periods through natural or artificial infiltration of surface water.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing surface water quality .	Further improvement of sewage and wastewater treatment will reduce the impact on the surface water quality . (Drinking) water saving strategies can also lead to reduction of treated sewage water recharges and industrial recharges.	
Socio-economic developments	Increase in use of soil energy systems	Soil energy systems may affect groundwater quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development, research.	Groundwater protection regulations.	Groundwater quality, groundwater pollution, research, monitoring and evaluation, regulations, groundwater quality protection.
		There is a transition going on towards renewable energy resources, not only wind and solar energy but also towards use of soil energy. Groundwater quality may be affected by the use of soil energy, due to risk of groundwater pollution by soil energy systems	Research on, and monitoring and evaluation of the impact of soil energy to the groundwater quality (including temperature impact) is necessary to avoid introduction of new sources of pollution by soil energy systems.	Regulations on soil energy help to limit the risk for groundwater quality . Policy is developed to exclude vulnerable groundwater systems that are used for drinking water supply for soil energy use for groundwater quality protection .	

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
		and the risk of leakage through aquitards that protect aquifers.			
Population growth, industrial developments	Increasing sewage and wastewater discharges	Local and upstream land and water use affects the surface water quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Policy and measures to meet water legislation to protect and improve water quality and quantity.	Surface water quality, land and water use, contaminants, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quantity.
		Surface water quality is affected by local and upstream land and water use activities. Discharge of treated sewage water as well as industrial wastewater discharges introduce contaminants in the water system.	Monitoring and evaluation of the water quality development is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing surface water quality.	Land and water use must meet water legislation as set by the European Water Framework Directive and national water legislation to protect and improve water quality and quantity . According to the water legislation in the European Water Framework Directive additional measures must be taken to reach the set goals in 2027.	
Population growth, industrial developments	Historical pollution, increasing sewage and wastewater discharges (change)	Diffuse and point sources of pollution affect surface water and groundwater quality.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Measures to remove historical sources of pollution and to prevent new sources of pollution.	Groundwater quality, nutrients, organic micro-pollutants, other contaminants, surface water quality, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quality protection.
		Groundwater quality is affected by diffuse and point sources of pollution, such as nutrients, organic micro-pollutants and other contaminants caused by historic land and water use. Groundwater can be influenced by (historic and current) surface water quality through natural or artificial infiltration of surface water.	The impact of historical contaminations will proceed further into the groundwater system and cannot be undone, unless soil processes help to break down contaminants. Monitoring and evaluation are necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	Historical contaminations from past land use will affect the groundwater quality for a long period of time due to the low stream velocity of groundwater. Some historical point-pollutions may be removed through soil and groundwater remediation, but diffuse pollution cannot be removed. However, according to the water legislation in the European Water Framework Directive additional measures must be taken to reach the set goals on water quality protection in 2027.	
Population growth, industrial developments	Increasing sewage and wastewater discharges	Emerging contaminants in surface and groundwater require new drinking water treatment methods.	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on pollution incidents and monitoring and evaluation.	Development of treatment methods to remove emerging contaminants from sewage, industrial wastewater and/or drinking water.	Emerging contaminants, groundwater quality, surface water quality, resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment, groundwater protection, land and water use, water legislation, sources of pollution, drinking water
		Emerging contaminants , such as new industrial pollutants, medicine residues and micro plastics, may pose new threats to the groundwater and surface water quality , and consequently the raw	Groundwater protection regulations on land and water use aim to reduce the risk of pollutions to avoid groundwater quality deterioration. This includes regulations for small incidents with point pollutions such as	According to the water legislation in the European Water Framework Directive known sources of pollution must be reduced and new sources of pollution must be prevented. This may include prohibition by law or measures to reduce the use of specific chemical products.	

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
		water quality , especially when they cannot be removed using the currently available treatment methods. The changes limit the resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment .	caused by a car accident to be reported and solved immediately by removing the source of pollution. Continuous enforcement of these regulations is essential. Monitoring and evaluation are necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	To deal with emerging contaminants it is essential to limit or remove the contaminant source . If all these measures fail, the contaminants must be removed by the drinking water treatment. Other or new drinking water treatment methods may be required. New treatment methods may cause an increase of energy use and environmental impact (excipients, wastewater, waste materials). This may lead to a higher drinking water tariff .	treatment methods, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.
Population growth, industrial developments	Land use change	Land use (change) may cause groundwater quality deterioration.	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on land use change and monitoring and evaluation.	Combination of extensive land use functions with drinking water abstraction.	Land use change, groundwater quality, sources of pollution, groundwater protection regulations, water use, enforcement of regulations, monitoring and evaluation, drinking water abstraction, extensive land use, nature, agriculture, water system.
		Land use change may cause groundwater quality deterioration due to the risk of diffuse of point sources of pollution . The impact may be limited if land use changes towards less polluting land use functions.	Groundwater protection regulations on land and water use aim to reduce the risk of pollutions to avoid groundwater quality deterioration. This includes regulations on land use change developments. Continuous enforcement of these regulations is essential. Monitoring and evaluation is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	Combining extensive land use functions such as nature and sustainable agriculture with drinking water abstraction in local areas to reduce the groundwater quality deterioration rate, depending on the land use as well as hydrological and chemical characteristics of the water system .	
Changing climate variability, population growth, industrial developments	Surface water and groundwater quality deterioration	Surface water and groundwater quality deterioration determine the required drinking water treatment.	Monitoring of drinking water quality, in case of emergencies measures are taken to safeguard the drinking water quality.	Adjustment of treatment methods to be able to continue to meet the drinking water standards.	Raw water quality, drinking water standards, water quality, vulnerability of the water system for contamination, treatment methods, reliability and resilience of treatment, drinking water quality, emergencies, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.
		The raw water quality of the abstracted groundwater or surface water determines the treatment that is necessary to meet the legal drinking water standards . When water quality deteriorates in general, due to the vulnerability of the water system for contamination different and more complex treatment methods	The drinking water quality is constantly monitored and checked with drinking water standards. In case of drinking water quality emergencies local measures are taken, such as temporary boiling instructions to customers or temporary additional treatment, to safeguard the drinking water quality.	A deteriorating raw water quality may require adjustment of treatment methods to meet the drinking water standards and to ensure the resilience and reliability of the treatment . In general, a more complex treatment method leads to a higher energy use , and a higher environmental impact due to additional use of excipients, water loss and waste materials, which will lead to a higher drinking water tariff .	

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
		become necessary to ensure the reliability of the treatment to meet the drinking water standards. The resilience of the treatment method or capacity may be insufficient to respond to variability in raw water quality.		If the raw water quality is under extreme pressure, adjustment of treatment methods may not be possible. This can ultimately lead to the decision to close the local drinking water abstraction and force the drinking water supplier to find and develop a replacing abstraction location.	
Population growth, industrial developments	Incidental changes in surface water and groundwater quality	Variations in raw water quality can only be handled if treatment method is resilient to these variations.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development.	Increase of resilience and reliability of drinking water treatment.	Surface water quality, groundwater quality, resilience and reliability of the treatment, monitoring and evaluation, raw water quality, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.
		Especially surface water quality can show strong water quality variations. They can enforce temporary interruption of the surface water intake. Groundwater quality is more stable, and therefore less vulnerable for incidental changes. However, incidents can cause a permanent change of groundwater quality. It depends on the resilience and reliability of the treatment whether sudden variations in raw water quality can be handled well.	Monitoring and evaluation is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	To handle a varying or deteriorating raw water quality the resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment must be extended. This may require innovations in treatment, which can lead to large investments, and higher energy use and an increase in environmental impact of the treatment . This may lead to a higher drinking water tariff .	

Appendix C Results of analysis case 3 “Drinking water demand growth”

Table C.1 Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability aspects in case 3, “Drinking water demand growth” (for complete results of the case study see Table C.2).

Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability aspects
A limited water resource availability will affect the drinking water availability.	See Table A.2.	See Table A.2.	Water resource availability, drinking water availability, resilience of drinking water supply, drinking water demand, water legislation.
A water quality deterioration affects the resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment.	See Table B.2.	See Table B.2.	Water quality, drinking water treatment, reliability of treatment, drinking water standards.
A growing drinking water demand will put the reliability and resilience of the technical infrastructure under pressure.	See Table A.2.	Drinking water suppliers must adapt the technical infrastructure to the growing water demand. Water saving strategies may reduce the growth rate, which will limit the required extension of the technical infrastructure.	Drinking water demand, reliability of technical infrastructure, drinking water suppliers, drinking water availability, treatment, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariff.
A declining drinking water demand may also put the resilience of the technical infrastructure under pressure.	Research on potential risks of a decline in drinking water demand.	Adaptation strategies that increase the resilience of the infrastructure to growth as well as a decline of the drinking water demand.	Drinking water demand, reliability and resilience of technical infrastructure.

Table C.2 Results of analysis of Case 3 “Drinking water demand growth”, where additional to the analysis of the first two cases. The (additional) sustainability aspects in this case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table C.1.

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
Changing climate variability, population growth, industrial developments	Limited water resource availability due to extreme weather events, other water use or limited abstraction permits	A limited water resource availability will affect the drinking water availability.	See Table A.2.	See Table A.2.	Water resource availability, drinking water availability, resilience of drinking water supply, drinking water demand, water legislation.
		A limited water resource availability will affect the drinking water availability . The abstraction permits may be insufficient to meet the drinking demand, and possibilities to extend the permits will be minimal. This will put the resilience of drinking water supply to respond to changes in drinking water demand under pressure. This may cause frequent exceedance of permit conditions, or failure to the drinking water legislation .	See Table A.2.	See Table A.2.	
Changing climate variability, population growth, industrial developments	Surface water and groundwater quality deterioration	A water quality deterioration affects the resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment.	See Table B.2.	See Table B.2.	Water quality, drinking water treatment, reliability of treatment, drinking water standards.
		If the water quality deteriorates, this will affect the raw water quality of the water abstracted for drinking water production. The available drinking water treatment facilities may not be resilient to these changes. This affects the reliability of the water treatment , potentially causing exceedance of drinking water standards .	See Table B.2.	See Table B.2.	
Changing climate variability, population growth,	Growing drinking water demand	A growing drinking water demand will put the reliability and resilience of the technical infrastructure under pressure.	See Table A.2.	Drinking water suppliers must adapt the technical infrastructure to the growing water demand. Water saving strategies may reduce the growth rate, which will limit the required extension of the technical infrastructure.	Drinking water demand, reliability of technical infrastructure, drinking water suppliers, drinking water availability,

<i>Drivers</i>	<i>Pressure</i>	<i>Impact</i>	<i>Short-term response</i>	<i>Long-term response</i>	<i>Sustainability aspects</i>
industrial developments		The overall capacity of the technical infrastructure determines whether the supply is resilient to respond to a higher drinking water demand . The drought in 2018 displayed technical limitations in parts of the drinking water supply system, putting the reliability of the technical infrastructure under pressure	See Table A.2	Depending on the effectiveness of the water saving strategies that are developed, the technical limitations must be solved to meet the growing drinking water demand . Drinking water suppliers must solve the local aspects to ensure the drinking water availability . Because these adjustments take time, drinking water suppliers must start solving the aspects now. This requires substantial investments and also lead to an increasing energy use and environmental impact , which may result in an increasing drinking water tariff .	treatment, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.
Socio-economic developments	Decrease in drinking water demand	A declining drinking water demand may also put the resilience of the technical infrastructure under pressure.	Research on potential risks of a decline in drinking water demand.	Adaptation strategies that increase the resilience of the infrastructure to growth as well as a decline of the drinking water demand.	Drinking water demand, reliability and resilience of technical infrastructure.
		If at some moment the socio-economic developments reverse the drinking water demand growth, the reliability and resilience of the technical infrastructure will be put under pressure. Especially when the focus is on dealing with a growing water demand , there is the risk of over-dimensioning of the technical infrastructure. This will put the drinking water quality under pressure in case of a decreasing drinking water demand .	While working on solutions for the growing drinking water demand , it is important to consider the potential risks of a decreasing demand.	The chosen adaptation strategies for a growing drinking water demand must also be resilient and reliable under a decreasing drinking water demand.	

Appendix D Summary of Sustainable Development Goal 6 targets and indicators related to sustainability characteristics

Table D.1 Summary Sustainable Development Goal 6 targets and indicators related to sustainability characteristics

Target	Indicator	Hydrological system			Technical system			Socio-economic system		
		Water quality	Water resource availability	Impact of drinking water abstraction	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Energy use and environmental impact	Drinking water availability	Water governance	Land and water use
6.1 By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all	6.1.1 Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services				x	x		x		
6.2 By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations	6.2.1 Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a hand-washing facility with soap and water									
6.3 By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimizing release of hazardous chemicals and materials, halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally	6.3.1 Proportion of wastewater safely treated	x							x	x
	6.3.2 Proportion of bodies of water with good ambient water quality	x							x	x
6.4 By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity	6.4.1 Change in water-use efficiency over time				x		x		x	x
	6.4.2 Level of water stress: freshwater withdrawal as a proportion of available freshwater resources		x	x	x	x	x		x	x
6.5 By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through transboundary cooperation as appropriate	6.5.1 Degree of integrated water resources management implementation (0–100)								x	
	6.5.2 Proportion of transboundary basin area with an operational arrangement for water cooperation	x	x						x	
6.6 By 2020, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes	6.6.1 Change in the extent of water-related ecosystems over time			x					x	

Target	Indicator	Hydrological system			Technical system			Socio-economic system		
		Water quality	Water resource availability	Impact of drinking water abstraction	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Energy use and environmental impact	Drinking water availability	Water governance	Land and water use
6.a By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, wastewater treatment, recycling and reuse technologies	6.a.1 Amount of water- and sanitation-related official development assistance that is part of a government coordinated spending plan								x	
6.b Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation management	6.b.1 Proportion of local administrative units with established and operational policies and procedures for participation of local communities in water and sanitation management								x	

Appendix E Overview of sustainability characteristics and criteria

Table E.1 summarises the hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability characteristics and criteria for a local drinking water supply system from Section 3.²

System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria	General description	Sustainable	Under pressure	Unsustainable	Suggestions for general data sources	Reference for general data sources
Hydrological system	Water quality	Current raw water quality	To which extent does the current raw water quality meet set standards?	Current raw water quality meets set standards	Occasionally the current raw water quality exceeds set standards	Current raw water quality is permanently exceeding set standards	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Chemical aspects of water quality	Which trends are found in chemical water quality development?	Chemical water quality is improving	Consistent chemical water quality	Deteriorating chemical water quality	Ibid	Ibid
		Microbial aspects of water quality	To which extent is microbial pollution a threat to the raw water quality?	No risk of microbial pollution	Microbial pollution is a potential risk, but the microbiological quality is sufficient	Microbial pollution is an actual risk and the microbiological quality is insufficient	Ibid	Ibid
		Acceptability aspects of water quality	Are there aspects of water quality that limit the acceptability of the drinking water (salinization, hardness, colour)?	No issues with acceptability of the drinking water	Salinization, hardness or colour cause a minor acceptability issue	Salinization, hardness and/or colour cause serious acceptability issues	Ibid	Ibid
		Monitoring and evaluation of water quality trends	Is there sufficient and adequate monitoring and evaluation of water quality trends available?	Sufficient and adequate monitoring and evaluation of water quality trends	There is monitoring available, but evaluation of data is limited, resulting in a limited understanding of water quality trends	There is limited or no monitoring available, and water quality trends are not investigated	Ibid	Ibid
	Water resource availability	Surface water quantity	Are there current limitations or future threats to the abstracted surface water volume?	Sufficient availability all year round or 'no surface water abstraction'	Surface water availability varies during the year and may occasionally be limited in case of dry weather conditions	There is regularly insufficient surface water volume available in the dry season	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)

² This appendix is an extended and updated version of appendix A of Van Engelenburg e.a. 2019

System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria	General description	Sustainable	Under pressure	Unsustainable	Suggestions for general data sources	Reference for general data sources
		Groundwater quantity	Are there current limitations or future threats to the abstracted groundwater volume?	Abstraction is not limited because groundwater is recharged sufficiently (yearly abstraction < annual recharge minus environmental streamflow) or 'no groundwater abstraction'	Abstraction is not limited but exceeds annual recharge minus environmental streamflow	Abstraction volume is limited because groundwater is abstracted from a confined aquifer that is not recharged ('mining')	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Other available water resources	Are there water resources available for drinking water production other than currently used?	There are sufficient water resources available that could replace the current used water resource with minor adjustments to the drinking water treatment method	There are other water resources available that could replace the current used water resource, but this will require major adjustments to the drinking water treatment method	There are no water resources available that could replace the current used water resource	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Vulnerability used water system for contamination	To which extent is the used water system vulnerable for contamination?	The water system is hardly vulnerable for contamination because the used water resource is protected by an aquitard (groundwater in confined aquifers)	The water system is vulnerable for soil and groundwater pollution (phreatic groundwater)	The water system is vulnerable for calamities and diffuse contamination (surface water)	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Natural hazards and emergencies risk	To which extent are natural hazards (droughts, floods, earthquakes, forest fires) threatening the water resources availability?	Limited risk of natural hazards (<1 per 25 years)	Minor risk of a natural hazard (< 1 per 10 years)	Natural hazards occur frequently (> 1 per 10 years) and are a serious threat to water resources availability	e.g. National flood risk inventory, CSD Indicator of Sustainable Development (Percentage of population living in hazard prone areas)	UN (2007)
	Impact of drinking water abstraction	Impact to surface water system	The scale of impact of the abstraction to the surface water system	Small (groundwater abstraction below aquitard)	Medium (riverbank abstraction, phreatic groundwater abstraction)	Large (surface water abstraction)	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)

System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria	General description	Sustainable	Under pressure	Unsustainable	Suggestions for general data sources	Reference for general data sources
		Impact to groundwater system	The scale of impact of the abstraction to the groundwater system	Small (surface water abstraction)	Medium (riverbank abstraction, groundwater abstraction below aquitard)	Large (phreatic groundwater abstraction)	e.g. Groundwater footprint	Gleeson and Wada (2013)
		Balance between annual recharge and abstraction	The balance between abstraction and recharge of the water system	The net abstraction volume is less than 10 % of the average annual recharge in the recharge area	The net abstraction volume is 10-40 % of the average annual recharge in the recharge area	The net abstraction volume is > 40 % of the average annual recharge in the recharge area	SSI (Renewable water resources)	Van der Kerk and Manuel (2008)
		Hydrological compensation	The extent to which the impact of abstraction is compensated hydrologically	Small impact or impact is hydrologically compensated with a technical measure	There are possibilities for hydrological compensation of the impact of the abstraction, but they are not operational yet	There is a significant impact of the abstraction, but there are no possibilities for hydrological compensation	Local hydrological knowledge, hydrological modelling results	e.g. Van Engelenburg et al. (2017), Van Engelenburg et al. (2020a)
		Spatial impact of abstraction facility/ storage/reservoir	Size of required working area for abstraction facility	Small (groundwater abstraction with basic treatment facility)	Medium (groundwater abstraction with medium treatment facility)	Large (surface water abstraction with storage basins and extended treatment facility)	Drinking water company's information, map	
Technical system	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Technical state abstraction and treatment facility	Is the technical state of the drinking water production facility sufficient and fully deployable?	The technical state of the drinking water production facility is sufficient and fully deployable	Production capacity is sufficient but not fully deployable due to restrictions in permit or technical limitations	Production capacity is insufficient due to technical limitations	IWA (Ph1 Treatment plant utilisation)	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Technical state distribution infrastructure	Are there issues that complicate the drinking water distribution?	The distribution infrastructure is adequate to meet the required distribution capacity and water pressure	The distribution infrastructure is in general adequate but at extreme peak demand limitations in the drinking water distribution cause reduced water pressure and limited drinking water supply	The distribution infrastructure is insufficient and major disruptions of the drinking water supply occur regularly	Performance data of water utilities	e.g. Dutch Drinking Water Law (2009)

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		Complexity of water treatment	How complex is the required treatment and is the treatment effective to meet the water quality issues?	Technical water quality issues (iron/manganese removal, pH-correction), require only basic treatment	Water quality issues such as hardness require medium complex treatment (decalcification)	Serious water quality issues (chemical, microbiological) require a complex treatment (ultra-filtration, reversed osmosis)	Performance data of water utilities	e.g. Dutch Drinking Water Law (2009)
		Supply continuity for customers	Are there frequent drinking water supply interruptions?	Drinking water supply interruptions < 1 hr per year	Drinking water supply interruptions < 10 days per year	Drinking water supply interruptions > 10 days per year	Performance data of water utilities, IWA (QS17 Days with restrictions to water service)	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Operational reliability	Is the facility operationally reliable?	Facility meets corporate standard for operational reliability	The facility does not fully meet corporate standard for operational reliability, but investments are planned to increase the operational reliability < 5 years	Facility is not operationally reliable and there are no investments planned to improve the reliability within 5 years	Performance data of water utilities	e.g. Dutch Drinking Water Law (2009)
		Abstraction permit compared to annual drinking water demand	Are the permitted abstraction volumes sufficient to meet the annual drinking water demand?	The permitted abstraction volumes are sufficient to meet the current and future annual drinking water demand (operational reserve > 10%)	The permitted abstraction volumes are sufficient to meet the current annual drinking water demand but cannot meet the future demand (operational reserve < 10%)	The permitted abstraction volumes are insufficient to meet the current of future annual drinking water demand	Performance data of water utilities	e.g. Dutch Decree on Water (2007)
	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Production capacity compared to peak demand	Is the production capacity per hour sufficient to meet extreme peak demand?	The production capacity per hour is sufficient to meet extreme peak demand	The production capacity is < 5% below the predicted extreme peak demand and therefore is not fully sufficient	The production capacity is > 5% below the predicted extreme peak demand and therefore is insufficient to meet peak demand	Performance data of water utilities, IWA (Ph1 Treatment Plant Utilisation)	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Flexibility of treatment method for changing raw water quality	Is the treatment method flexible to respond to a changing raw water quality?	The treatment method removes a broad spectrum of pollutants and therefore can also handle various new pollutants (e.g. membrane treatment methods)	The treatment method is flexible when concentrations of the currently removed elements change, but cannot remove other pollutants (e.g. decalcification)	The treatment method is not flexible to respond to large changes in concentrations or pollutants (e.g. sand filtration)	Performance data of water utilities	

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		Technical innovations to improve resilience	Are technical innovations developed to improve resilience?	Within society there is an ongoing research to find technical innovations on drinking water use or supply to improve resilience	Within the drinking water company there is an ongoing research to find technical innovations for drinking water supply to improve resilience	There is no or limited research on technical innovations for drinking water supply	Data of water utilities (annual report)	
		Technical investments to improve resilience	Are technical investments made to improve resilience?	Technical investments are made to improve the resilience of the drinking water infrastructure, including investments in technical innovations	There is a limited budget for technical investments to improve the resilience of the drinking water infrastructure	There is no budget for technical investments.	Financial data of water utilities	
		Energy use of abstraction and treatment	Energy use for abstraction and treatment of water per m3	Low (shallow groundwater abstraction, short distance to treatment, basic treatment)	Average (deep groundwater abstraction, short distance to treatment, medium treatment groundwater)	High (long transport distance to treatment, complex treatment)	IWA Ph5 Standardised energy consumption	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Energy use of distribution	Energy use for distribution	Low (average transport distances < 15 km)	Average (average transport distances < 30 km)	High (average transport distances > 30 km)	EBC (electricity use)	European Benchmarking Co-operation (2017)
	Energy use and environmental impact	Environmental impact (additional excipients, wastewater, waste materials)	Are there materials used or produced in the treatment with an environmental impact?	No use or produce of materials with high environmental impact	Use of additional excipients with high environmental impact in the treatment	Production of waste materials and wastewater with high environmental impact	EBC (climate footprint)	European Benchmarking Co-operation (2017)
		Reliability energy supply	Is the energy supply reliable?	Reliable energy supply and emergency energy backup	Average reliable energy supply, no emergency energy backup	Unreliable energy supply, no emergency energy backup	EBC (electricity use)	
		Use of renewable energy	Use of renewable energy sources (own generation or acquired green energy)	All used energy is renewable energy	> 50 % renewable energy is used	< 50 % renewable energy	IWA Ph7 Energy recovery	Alegre et al. (2006b)
Socio-economic system	Drinking water availability	Percentage connected households	Households directly connected to drinking water supply system	> 95 %	80 - 95 %	< 80 %	IWA QS3 Population coverage	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Drinking water service quality	Continuity and quality of supply (local scale)	Continuity and quality of drinking water supply guaranteed 24/7	Continuity of drinking water supply or quality under pressure at peak demand	Drinking water quality and supply continuity not guaranteed	IWA QS12 Continuity of supply, QS18 Quality of supplied water	Alegre et al. (2006b)

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		Drinking water tariff	Average water charges without public charges (company scale)	< 1 €/m ³	1 - 2 €/m ³	> 2 €/m ³	IWA Fi28 Average water charges for direct consumption	Alegre et al. (2006b)
		Water saving strategy	Water saving strategy to reduce average water demand in litre per person per day (national scale)	Effective water saving strategy resulting in an average water demand < 100 l pp pd	Water saving strategy aiming to reduce the average water demand of 100-200 l pp pd	No water saving strategy	SSI (Sufficient to drink)	Van der Kerk and Manuel (2008)
		Water safety protocols	Are there water safety protocols or water safety plans to safeguard the drinking water supply?	Water safety protocols fully cover the drinking water supply and the organisation is performing accordingly	There are safety protocols, but only covering a part of the drinking water supply of not fully performed	There are no safety protocols	Drinking water company's information	e.g. Dutch Drinking Water Law (2009)
		Availability of (drinking) water legislation and policies	Is there adequate legislation on drinking water supply and is there enforcement of this legislation?	There is adequate legislation on drinking water supply combined with sufficient enforcement by legal authorities	There is legislation on drinking water supply but limited or no enforcement by legal authorities	There is no legislation and enforcement on drinking water supply	SSI (Good Governance), national and local legislation	Van der Kerk and Manuel (2008)
		Compliance of drinking water supplier	Are the required permits available, and is the facility compliant to the permit requirements?	All permits are available, and the facility is compliant to the permit requirements	The permits are available, but the facility is not fully compliant to the permit requirements	There is a lack of adequate drinking water supply legislation and drinking water suppliers only follow their company's standard	SSI (Good Governance), permits, TRUST Framework for UWCS-sustainability (G1-G4)	Van der Kerk and Manuel (2008); Brattebø et al. (2013)
	Water governance	Decision-making process by (local) authorities	Are local stakeholders involved in decisions on drinking water supply or the water system?	Local stakeholders are involved in the planning process and can participate in licensing procedures	Local stakeholders are not involved in the planning process but cannot participate in licensing procedures	Local stakeholders cannot easily involve in the decision-making process	SDG 6.b	UN (2015)
		Local stakeholder interests	Does the local authority actively weigh stakeholder interests in the decision-making process?	Stakeholders are involved in the decision-making process and stakeholder interests must be taken into account in the licensing process legally	Stakeholder interests must be taken into account in the licensing process	The interests of (some) local stakeholders are not accounted for by the local authorities	SDG 6.b, national or local legislation	UN, 2015
		Emergency risk caused by human activities or conflicts	Is there emergency risk caused by human activities or conflicts?	There is in general no serious emergency risk caused by human activities or conflicts	There is a low emergency risk caused by human activities	There is an evident emergency risk caused by human activities or conflicts	SDG 16	UN, 2015

System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria	General description	Sustainable	Under pressure	Unsustainable	Suggestions for general data sources	Reference for general data sources
Land and water use		Land use (including subsurface use)	Is land or subsurface use in the area posing a threat to the drinking water supply?	The impact of land or subsurface use is limited due to low-risk use or because the drinking water supply is well protected against the impact	The land or subsurface use forms a potential risk to the drinking water supply but is regulated	The land or subsurface use is affecting the drinking water supply	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Water use for other purposes than drinking water	Does water use in the area pose a threat to the drinking water supply?	In general, there is sufficient water available for all functions and water quality is not affected by water use	In extreme situations the available water resources are limited and must be fairly distributed between water users, or water quality deteriorates	There is constantly insufficient water available for all water users and/or water quality deterioration due to various water use	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Regulations on land and water use	Are there regulations on land use and underground activities to protect the local drinking water abstraction?	There are regulations to remove unwanted activities from the recharge area to protect the local drinking water abstraction	There are regulations to prevent new unwanted activities by using the stand-still/step forward principle	There are no regulations to protect the local drinking water abstraction	(Inter)national legislation, TRUST Framework for UWCS-sustainability (G1-G4)	e.g. Dutch Decree on Water (2007), Brattebø et al. (2013)
		Limitations to land or water use	Is the presence of the facility a significant impediment for current or future land use of underground activities?	The drinking water supply does not present a significant impediment for land or subsurface use	The drinking water supply limits future land use or underground activities	The drinking water supply is a significant impediment for current as well as future land use or underground activities	e.g. Status of water bodies according to European Water Framework Directive	European Union (2000)
		Financial compensation of economic damage from impact of abstraction or limitations to land use	Is there financial compensation of economic damage from the impact of abstraction or limitations to land use?	Financial compensation of economic damage caused by the drinking water supply is organised based on legislation	Drinking water suppliers financially compensate economic damage based on bilateral agreements	There is financial compensation of economic damage caused by the drinking water supply company	National or local legislation	e.g. Dutch Decree on Water (2007)