



1 Sustainability characteristics of drinking 2 water supply

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26 **Keywords**

27 Systems approach; DPSIR; drinking water supply; local scale; sustainability

28



29 **Abstract**

30 Developments such as climate change and growing demand for drinking water threaten the
31 sustainability of drinking water supply worldwide. To deal with this threat, adaptation of
32 drinking water supply systems is imperative, not only on a global and national scale, but
33 particularly on a local scale. This investigation sought to establish characteristics that describe
34 the sustainability of local drinking water supply. We use an integrated systems approach,
35 describing the local drinking water supply system in terms of hydrological, technical and socio-
36 economic characteristics that determine the sustainability of a local drinking water supply
37 system. Three cases on drinking water supply in the Netherlands are analysed. One case
38 relates to a short-term development, that is the 2018 summer drought, and two concern long-
39 term phenomena, that is, changes in water quality and growth in drinking water demand. The
40 approach taken recognises that next to extreme weather events, socio-economic
41 developments will be among the main drivers of changes in drinking water supply. Effects of
42 pressures associated with, for example, population growth, industrial developments and land
43 use changes, could result in limited water resource availability, deteriorated groundwater
44 quality and growing water demand. To gain a perspective on the case study findings broader
45 than the Dutch context, the sustainability issues identified were paired with global issues
46 concerning sustainable drinking water supply. This resulted in a proposed set of generally
47 applicable sustainability characteristics, each divided into five criteria describing the
48 hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability of a local drinking water supply
49 system. Elaboration of these sustainability characteristics and criteria into a sustainability
50 assessment can provide information on the challenges and trade-offs inherent in the
51 sustainable development and management of a local drinking water supply system.



52 **1 Introduction**

53 Climate change combined with a growing drinking water demand threatens the sustainability
54 of the drinking water supply worldwide. The goal set for drinking water supply in Sustainable
55 Development Goal (SDG) 6.1 (UN, 2015) is “to achieve universal and equitable access to safe
56 and affordable drinking water for all by 2030”. Reaching this goal is complicated by changing
57 climate variability combined with socio-economic problems and developments. Worldwide
58 drinking water supply crises are visible, resulting from a combination of limited water resource
59 availability, lacking or failing drinking water infrastructure and/or increased drinking water
60 demand, due to short-term events or long-term developments. Still, nearly 10 percent of the
61 world population is fully deprived of improved drinking water resources (Ekins, Gupta, &
62 Boileau, 2019), and, additionally, existing drinking water supply systems often are under
63 pressure. For instance, two recent examples of water crises were reported in Cape Town,
64 South Africa and São Paolo, Brasil. In Cape Town, Sorensen (2017) found that at the end of
65 each summer water use is restricted, pending the winter rains to set in. In São Paolo, drinking
66 water supplies are at a historic low, and on a daily base water pressures are lowered to reduce
67 the water use, which especially affects the poor (Cohen, 2016). To deal with such challenges
68 and threats to safe and affordable drinking water, adaptation of the current drinking water
69 supply system is imperative, not only on a global and national level, but also on a local scale.

70 Typically, the spatial or temporal scale determines whether drinking water supply is
71 considered sustainable, given the set goals. In the Netherlands, for instance, the national
72 drinking water supply currently meets the indicator from SDG 6 (UN, 2018) on safely managed
73 drinking water services and safely treated waste water. At the same time the more specific
74 goals on (local) water quantity, quality, and ecology as set by the European Water Framework



75 Directive (WFD), are not met yet (European Environment Agency, 2018). Consequently, there
76 still are sustainability issues for drinking water supply in the Netherlands, for instance due to
77 water shortage (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment & Ministry of Economic Affairs
78 and Climate Policy, 2019), impact to water-related ecosystems (Van Engelenburg et al., 2017)
79 or water pollution (Kools, Van Loon, Sjerps, & Rosenthal, 2019; Van den Brink & Wuijts, 2016).
80 Additionally, future developments such as the uncertain drinking water demand growth rate
81 (Van der Aa, Tangena, Wuijts, & De Nijs, 2015) and the changing climate variability (Teuling,
82 2018), may put the sustainability of the Dutch drinking water supply under pressure in the
83 future.

84 The interaction with its local environment affects the sustainability of local drinking water
85 supply. The abstraction of groundwater or surface water from the hydrological system, and
86 subsequent treatment to drinking water quality before being distributed to customers,
87 requires a local infrastructure (typically a drinking water production facility, embedded in a
88 distribution network of pipelines). Although the daily routine of drinking water supply has a
89 highly technical character (Bauer & Herder, 2009), the sustainability in the long-term depends
90 on the balance between technical, socio-economic and environmental factors. This balance is
91 especially complex for local drinking water supply, which is intertwined with the local
92 hydrological system and local stakeholders through its geographical location. Local hydrology
93 for instance determines the physical vulnerability to pollution from e.g. land use, and to
94 reduced water resource availability during drought. It also determines the impact of the
95 abstraction to groundwater levels, and to land use and local stakeholders, and thus affects the
96 sustainability of local drinking water supply.



197 Because of the interconnections between physical, technical, and socio-economic factors as
198 well as across space, organizational levels and time, adaptation of the local drinking water
199 supply to current and future sustainability challenges calls for an integrated planning approach
200 (Liu et al., 2015). Integrated models have been developed to understand the complex
201 interactions between the physical, technical and socio-economic components in various water
202 systems (Daniel P Loucks, Van Beek, Stedinger, Dijkman, & Villars, 2017). Systems integration,
203 considering all system characteristics, will help to identify the sustainability challenges in a
204 system (Liu et al., 2015). However, a systems analysis to assess local drinking water supply and
205 to identify sustainability challenges on a local scale has not yet been developed.

206 This research aims to propose a set of sustainability characteristics that describe the drinking
207 water supply system on a local scale. To reach this aim, cases on drinking water supply are
208 analysed using a conceptual framework. The selected cases represent a short-term event and
209 long-term developments that affect water quality and water resource availability, the
210 technical drinking water supply infrastructure and/or the drinking water demand. The system
211 boundaries are set to drinking water supply on the local scale. While the drinking water supply
212 on a local scale is also affected by outside influences from different organizational and spatial
213 scales, the analysis accounts for these external influences too.

214

215 **2 Method**

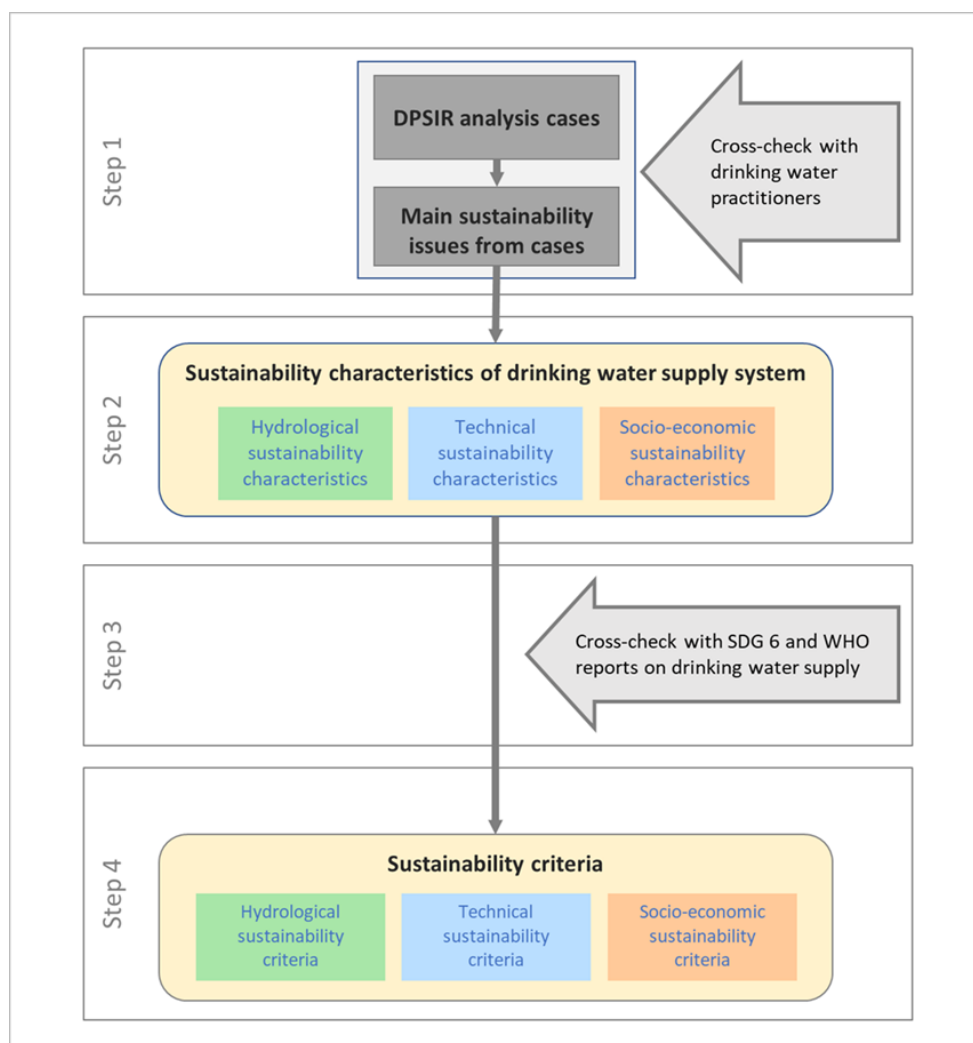
216 The adopted approach consists of four steps. The first step is the analysis of three drinking
217 water practice cases, aiming to identify the sustainability issues in these cases. In step 2 these
218 issues are categorised, and used to propose a set of characteristics that describe the
219 sustainability of the local drinking water supply system. In step 3 the sustainability issues from



120 the case studies are cross-checked with global drinking water supply issues, which in step 4
121 leads to a set of sustainability criteria that describe the local drinking water supply system.
122 The research method outline is presented in Fig. 1.

123 Three Dutch cases were selected based on their potential to negatively affect the
124 sustainability of drinking water supply. The aim was to identify sustainability issues in a short-
125 term event such as extreme summer drought or other disturbances, and the issues resulting
126 from long-term ongoing developments on water quality, water resource availability, or
127 drinking water demand. Because the first author of this article is employed at a drinking water
128 supplier (Vitens, the Netherlands), this provided the researchers with in-depth knowledge of
129 current practice in the Netherlands, obtained through professional involvement in internal
130 and external discussions and meetings on the topics of the cases. The results of the case
131 studies were cross-checked with internal colleagues within Vitens, and combined with Dutch
132 governmental reports on these events and developments (e.g. Ministry of Infrastructure and
133 Environment and Ministry of Economic Affairs and Climate Policy (2019); Vitens (2016)). In
134 section 3 the cases are described, and illustrated with Vitens data, summarising the
135 sustainability issues resulting from the case studies.

136 The sustainability issues as identified in the cases are subdivided into hydrological, technical
137 and socio-economic issues. To cross-check and broaden the perspective from the drinking
138 water supply in the Netherlands to a more general perspective, these issues are related to the
139 targets set for Sustainable Development Goal 6 (see App. B), and reports on the global
140 situation on drinking water supply (UN, 2018; UNICEF & WHO, 2015; WHO & UNICEF, 2017).
141 This results in a proposal for sustainability characteristics and criteria of local drinking water
142 supply systems that can be applied in various contexts (section 4).



143

144 **Figure 1** Outline research method.

145

146 2.1 An integrated systems approach to sustainable drinking water supply

147 This study focuses on drinking water supply systems on a local scale, in short, local drinking
148 water supply systems. The boundaries of these systems are set by the area in which drinking
149 water abstraction is embedded. Local drinking water supply systems are linked to the
150 hydrological system through abstraction, which occurs through the drinking water supply
151 infrastructure. The socio-economic environment is linked to abstraction through that same



152 drinking water supply infrastructure, which is employed to convey drinking water to
153 consumers, and through the hydrological system that connects various forms of land and
154 water use and local stakeholders to the abstraction.

155 A systems analysis of this local drinking water supply system with the focus on sustainability
156 must integrate the complex interactions between the hydrological system, the technical
157 infrastructure, and the socio-economic system. Sustainable water systems can be defined as
158 water systems that are designed and managed to contribute to the current and future
159 objectives of society, maintaining their ecological, environmental, and hydrological integrity
160 (Daniel P. Loucks, 2000). Drinking water supply can be looked at from a socio-ecological
161 perspective as well as from a socio-technical perspective. Socio-ecological systems research
162 considers the interaction between a resource dependent society and nature, to enlarge the
163 ability to adapt to future developments such as climate change and other stresses (Pant,
164 Adhikari, & Bhattarai, 2015). The socio-technical systems approach focusses on the
165 interactions between science and society, in order to effectively move towards more
166 sustainable technologies and behaviour as a response to the impact of socio-economic
167 developments (Pant et al., 2015). As the drinking water supply uses local water resources it is
168 strongly embedded in the local hydrological system, which calls for a socio-ecological
169 approach. Because technology is central but also strongly connected to the public values and
170 their societal relevance, drinking water supply systems can also be considered socio-technical
171 systems (Bauer & Herder, 2009).

172 The socio-ecological approach observes relations between the socio-economic and
173 environmental system, whereas the socio-technical approach observes the socio-economic
174 and technical system. In this study we combine both approaches by describing the local



175 drinking water supply system in terms of hydrological, technical and socio-economic
176 characteristics that determine the sustainability of a local drinking water supply system.

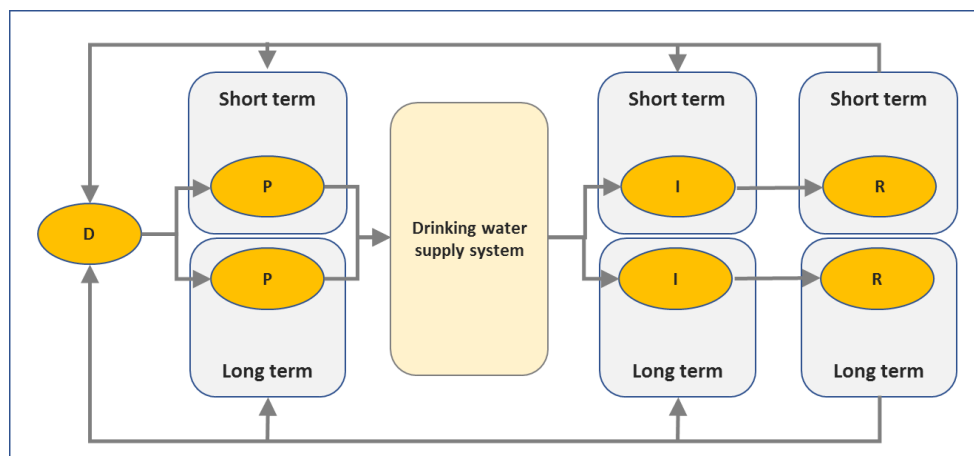
177 **2.2 Case analysis method**

178 The use of a conceptual framework for a consistent analysis of water management cases is a
179 common method to study water management cases. For instance M. P. Smith (2009) used a
180 conceptual framework to review cases that improved the sustainability of water management,
181 while Allan, Xia, and Pahl-Wostl (2013) used a conceptualisation to describe the transition
182 from conventional towards adaptive water governance and management. Here, DPSIR
183 (Eurostat, 1999) is used for the analysis of the three selected drinking water supply cases to
184 obtain an overview of the impact (I) of drivers (D), pressures (P) and responses (R) to the state
185 of the drinking water supply system (S). DPSIR was originally developed to describe causal
186 relations between human actions and the environment. It has also frequently been used for
187 relations and interactions between technical infrastructure and the socio-economic and
188 physical domain (Binder, Hinkel, Bots, & Pahl-Wostl, 2013; Hellegers & Leflaive, 2015; C. Pahl-
189 Wostl, 2015). *Drivers* describe future developments such as climate change and population
190 growth. *Pressures* are developments (in emissions or environmental resources) as a result
191 from the drivers. The *state* describes the system state that results from the pressures. In this
192 research the aim is to describe the system state of the drinking water supply system in terms
193 of local hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability characteristics (see section
194 2.1). The changes in system state cause *impacts* to system functions, which will lead to societal
195 *responses*. Although the framework has been applied on different spatial scales, Carr et al.
196 (2009) recommend using the framework place-specific, to ensure that local stakeholder
197 perspectives are assessed as well. With the research focus at the local drinking water supply



198 system, these local perspectives are implicitly included. The drivers, pressures and responses
199 can be on local as well as higher organizational and/or spatial scales, thus ensuring that -
200 where essential - relevant higher scales are accounted for too.

201 The impact of developments on different temporal scales to the drinking water supply system
202 must be taken into account as well. The long lived, interdependent drinking water supply
203 infrastructure is rigid to change due to design decisions in the past, which is causing path-
204 dependencies and lock-ins (Melese, Heijnen, Stikkelman, & Herder, 2015). In addition,
205 consumer behaviour, governance and engineering, and the interaction between these
206 processes cause lock-in situations that limit the ability to change towards more sustainable
207 water resources management (Claudia Pahl-Wostl, 2002). For this reason the case analysis is
208 performed considering both short- and long-term pressures, impacts and responses (Fig. 2).



209
210 **Figure 2** Analysis of the local drinking water supply system, using DPSIR, considering short-
211 term and long-term pressures (P), responses (R) and impact (I), to identify the sustainability
212 issues affecting the state of the system.

213



214 **2.3 Case selection**

215 Sustainability challenges faced by drinking water supply worldwide are (1) how to respond to
216 short-term events such as extreme drought or other disturbances, and (2) how to adapt to
217 long-term developments that limit the water resource availability, or cause a strong drinking
218 water demand growth. The challenges for drinking water supply in the Netherlands are in
219 nature comparable to these global challenges. Drinking water supply in the Netherlands is of
220 a high standard compared to many other countries. The SDG 6 targets on safe and affordable
221 drinking water (SDG 6.1/6.2) and sanitation and waste water treatment (SDG 6.3) are basically
222 met. But the Dutch government and drinking water suppliers are also challenged to meet the
223 other goals set in SDG 6, such as improvement of water quality (SDG 6.3), increase of water-
224 use efficiency (SDG 6.4), integrated water resources management (SDG 6.5), protection and
225 restoration of water-related ecosystems (SDG 6.6), and the more specific standards on water
226 quantity, quality, and ecology as set by the European Water Framework Directive (WFD)
227 (European Environment Agency, 2018).

228 For the first step of this research three drinking water supply cases in the Netherlands have
229 been selected. Case studies using DPSIR were performed to find sustainability issues caused
230 by the identified pressures and short- and/or long-term responses in each case. The cases
231 focus on short-term as well as long-term developments, because short-term shocks have
232 different impacts and call for other responses than long-term stresses (A. Smith & Stirling,
233 2010). The first case “2018 Summer drought” deals with the impact of an extreme drought
234 period in the summer of 2018 in the Netherlands, not only affecting drinking water demand
235 and availability, but also limiting water resources for other uses than drinking water, as well
236 as water-related ecosystems (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment & Ministry of



237 Economic Affairs and Climate Policy, 2019). Cases 2 and 3 deal with long-term developments
238 in the Netherlands on groundwater quality (Kools et al., 2019) and on drinking water demand
239 (Baggelaar & Geudens, 2017; Van der Aa et al., 2015), respectively. All three cases relate to
240 targets set in SDG 6 (UN, 2015).

241 **3 Case studies**

242 In this section the three cases on drinking water supply are introduced, and the identified
243 impacts, responses and sustainability issues are summarised (research step 1). The complete
244 results of the case studies are presented in App. A.

245 **3.1 Case 1 “2018 Summer drought”**

246 Summer 2018 in the Netherlands was extremely warm and dry, causing water shortages in the
247 water system, and a long period of extreme daily drinking water demand, resulting in a record
248 monthly water demand in July 2018 (see Illustration case 1, Fig. 3). The driver in this case is
249 the extreme weather condition, which caused several pressures, such as high temperatures,
250 high evaporation and lack of precipitation. These pressures did not only cause drought
251 damage to nature, agriculture and gardens and parks, as well as limited water availability in
252 the surface water and groundwater systems, they also resulted in an extremely high drinking
253 water demand (Ministry of Infrastructure and Environment & Ministry of Economic Affairs and
254 Climate Policy, 2019). The extreme drinking water demand during summer 2018 put the
255 drinking water supply system under high pressure, resulting in daily and monthly drinking
256 water supply volumes that exceeded all previously supplied volumes (see Illustration case 1).
257 The capacity of the system was fully exploited, but faced limitations in abstraction, treatment
258 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. 4.3a). 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. 4.3a). 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. 4.3b). 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 3 Daily (a) and monthly (b) drinking water supply volume by Dutch drinking water supplier Vitens during summer 2017 (average), 2018 (extreme), 2019 (high).



260 The high drinking water abstraction volumes added up to the water shortages in both the
 261 groundwater and the surface water system caused by the lack of precipitation and high
 262 evaporation during the summer. To ensure an acceptable surface water quality for the
 263 drinking water supply, measures were taken to reduce salinization.

264 To reduce the drinking water use, a call for drinking water saving was made, and locally
 265 pressures in the drinking water distribution system were intentionally lowered to reduce the
 266 delivered drinking water volumes. The problems caused by the summer drought raised a
 267 discourse on (drinking) water use and saving, including discussions on controversial measures
 268 such as a progressive drinking water tariffs, with tariffs dependent on the consumed drinking
 269 water volume, and differentiation between high-grade and low-grade use of (drinking) water.

270 Table 1 summarizes the impacts, responses and sustainability issues of this case.

271 **Table 1** Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability issues in
 272 case 1 “2018 summer drought” (for complete results of the case study see App. A).

Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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.



Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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.
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.

273

274 **3.2 Case 2 “Groundwater quality development”**

275 In the Netherlands 55% of the drinking water supply is provided by groundwater resources

276 (Baggelaar & Geudens, 2017). Analysis of the state of the drinking water resources in the



277 Netherlands in 2014 points out that, although the drinking water quality meets the Dutch legal
278 standards, all water resources are under threat by known and new pollutants (Kools et al.,
279 2019). Long-term analysis of water quality records of Dutch drinking water supply fields shows
280 that the vulnerability of groundwater resources to external influences such as land use
281 strongly depends on hydrochemical characteristics (Mendizabal, Baggelaar, & Stuyfzand,
282 2012). Monitoring results show that currently groundwater quality is mainly under pressure
283 due to nitrate, pesticides, historical contamination and salinization (Kools et al., 2019). Nearly
284 half of the groundwater abstractions for drinking water are affected, and it is expected that in
285 the future the groundwater quality at more abstractions will exceed the groundwater
286 standards set in the European Water Framework Directive (European Union, 2000). In
287 addition, traces of pollutants such as recent industrial contaminants, medicine residues and
288 other emerging substances are found, indicating that the groundwater quality will likely
289 further deteriorate (Kools et al., 2019).

290 Groundwater protection regulations regarding land and water use by legal authorities will
291 help to slow down groundwater deterioration (Van den Brink & Wuijts, 2016). However,
292 strategies to restore groundwater quality often will not be effective in the short term,
293 because already existing contaminations may remain present for a long period of time,
294 depending on the local hydrological characteristics (Jørgensen & Stockmarr, 2009) (see
295 Illustration case 2). The impact of contamination cannot be undone, unless soil processes
296 help to (partially) break down contaminants. Thorough monitoring for pollution therefore is
297 essential to follow groundwater quality trends and to respond adequately to these trends
298 (Janža, 2015). Due to the expected deterioration of the raw water quality, different and
299 more complex treatment methods are necessary to continuously meet the drinking water
300 standards (Kools et al., 2019). In general a more complex treatment method leads to higher



301 energy use, use of additional excipients, water loss and production of waste materials, which
302 will lead to a higher water tariff, and to a higher environmental impact (Napoli & Garcia-
303 Tellez, 2016). Table 2 summarises the impacts, responses and sustainability issues of this
304 case.

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. 4.4 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.

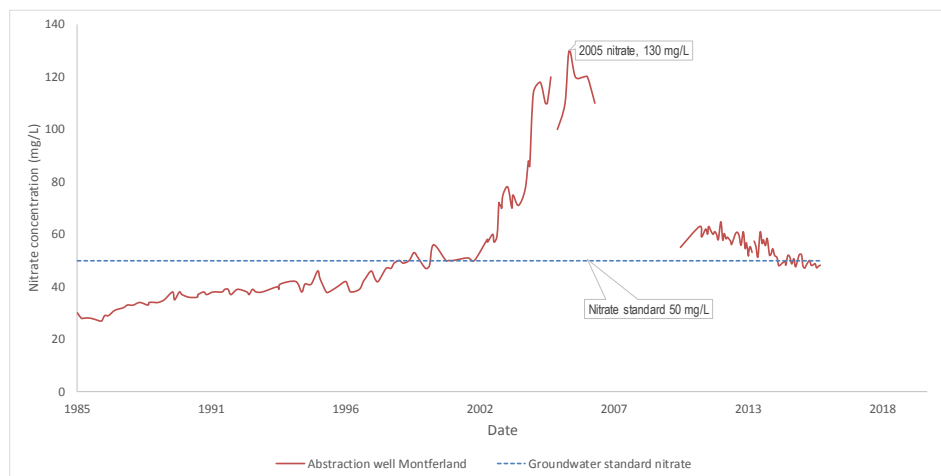


Figure 4 Development of nitrate in an abstraction well in Montferland (HEE-P07-07.0, coordinates X213.540-Y434.761) in the province of Gelderland, the Netherlands (data source Vitens) compared to the Dutch standard for nitrate concentration in groundwater (50 mg/L).

305



306 **Table 2** Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability issues in
 307 case 2, “Groundwater quality development” (for complete results of the case study see App.
 308 A).

Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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 waste water 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 waste water 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.



Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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.

309

310 **3.3 Case 3 “Drinking water demand growth”**

311 Due to drinking water saving strategies the drinking water use in the Netherlands per person
 312 has decreased from 137 litre per person per day in 1992 to 119 litre per person per day in
 313 2016 (Van Thiel, 2017). This development resulted in a decreasing total yearly drinking water
 314 demand volume in that same period, despite the population growth in the Netherlands
 315 (Baggelaar & Geudens, 2017). However, 2013 was a turning point, when the total yearly
 316 drinking water demand volume in the Netherlands started to grow again (Baggelaar &
 317 Geudens, 2017). The trend in the period 2013-2019 shows a strong increase in drinking water
 318 demand (see Illustration case 3). Delta scenarios have been developed for the Netherlands,
 319 projecting a drinking water demand development varying between a decrease of 10% to an
 320 increase of 35% in 2050 compared to 2015 (Wolters et al., 2018).

321 The drinking water demand growth rate of the period 2013-2019 as is seen within the Vitens
 322 supply area compares to the growth rate in the maximum delta scenario of 35% growth from
 323 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. 4.5). 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. 4.5). 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.

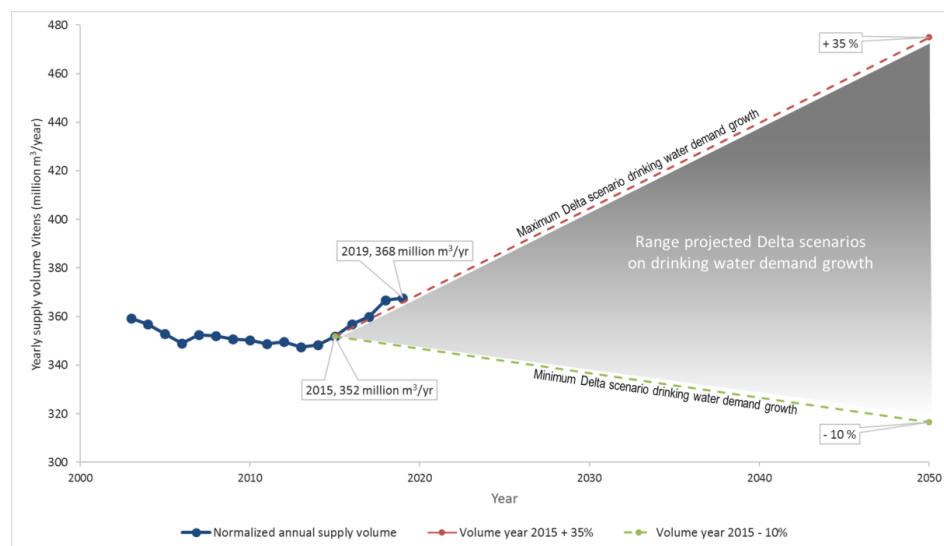


Figure 5 Development of the normalised annual drinking water volume supplied by Vitens (drinking water supplier), the Netherlands 2003-2019, compared to the projected Delta scenarios on drinking water demand growth (Wolters, Van den Born, Dammers, & Reinhard, 2018), ranging between a decrease of 10% 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.

324

325

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

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

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

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

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



331 this uncertain development of the drinking water demand. To find sustainable solutions for
 332 the future not only the technical infrastructure issues must be solved. It also requires
 333 strategies on water saving, expansion of permits, development of new abstraction concepts
 334 using other water resources, as well as stakeholder processes in the design and use of the
 335 local drinking water supply system. This case is basically an extension to the first two cases:
 336 the growing water demand amplifies the issues caused by the drought in 2018 and the
 337 groundwater quality development. Table 3 therefore only summarises the additional
 338 sustainability issues with respect to the first two cases.

339 **Table 3** Summary of impact, short-term and long-term response and sustainability issues in
 340 case 3, “Drinking water demand growth” (for complete results of the case study see App. A).

Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
A limited water resource availability will affect the drinking water availability.	See Table 1.	See Table 1.	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 2.	See Table 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 1.	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.

341



342 **4 Sustainability characteristics of drinking water supply**

343 The first research step (see Fig. 1) resulted in a summary of the sustainability issues for the
344 local drinking water supply system found in the selected cases. In this section the results from
345 research step 1 are combined with the results from research steps 2 to 4 (see Fig. 1). In step 2
346 the sustainability issues from the case studies are categorised into nine hydrological, technical
347 and socio-economic sustainability characteristics. In research step 3, these issues were cross-
348 checked with the targets and indicators in Sustainable Development Goal 6 (further referred
349 to as “SDG 6”, see App. B) (UN, 2015) and the 2017 update of the WHO/UNICEF Joint
350 Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (further referred to as
351 “JMP”) (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). In the final step of the study each sustainability characteristic
352 is elaborated further into five sustainability criteria.

353 **4.1 Hydrological sustainability characteristics**

354 Three hydrological sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the hydrological
355 issues affecting the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *water quality*, *water*
356 *resource availability* and *impact of drinking water abstraction*. Table 4 provides a summary of
357 the results of the subsequent research steps (see Fig. 1).

358 *Water quality* includes the monitoring and evaluation of current water quality, and the trends
359 and expected future development of the water quality and emerging contaminants, as
360 described in the case “Groundwater quality development”. In the JMP additionally the
361 importance of microbial aspects as a global water quality issue with a health impact is
362 monitored, such as bacteriological contamination due to untreated waste water or
363 emergencies (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). The JMP also monitors water quality aspects without



364 health impact, such as salinization, water hardness, and colour, which affect the acceptability
 365 of the drinking water (WHO & UNICEF, 2017).

366 **Table 4** Summary of proposed hydrological sustainability characteristics, hydrological issues from
 367 case studies (see Tables 1-3), relevant SDG¹ indicators and JMP² issues, and hydrological
 368 sustainability criteria.

Hydrological sustainability characteristics	Water quality	Water resource availability	Impact of drinking water abstraction
Sustainability issues 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
JMP²	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, earth quakes 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 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

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

371 ² JMP = 2017 update of the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and
 372 Hygiene (WHO & UNICEF, 2017)

373

374 *Water resource availability* for drinking water supply can be differentiated into the surface
 375 water and groundwater availability, as illustrated in Case 1 “2018 Summer drought”. Other
 376 sustainability issues are the vulnerability of the surface and/or groundwater system to the
 377 water quality being affected permanently by land use, as illustrated in the case “Groundwater
 378 quality development”. These issues are also relevant when considering a shift to other



379 resources, for instance from groundwater resources to surface water resources for drinking
380 water supply. The water resource availability can also be limited due to small- or large-scale
381 emergencies caused by natural hazards, such as droughts, floods, earth quakes or forest fires
382 (WHO & UNICEF, 2017), that will put the sustainability of the local drinking water supply under
383 pressure.

384 The *impact of the drinking water abstraction* to the hydrological system entails the impact to
385 both the surface water system and the groundwater system, but also the balance between
386 the annual drinking water abstraction volume and the annual recharge of the (local) water
387 system. Whether the impact of the abstraction is or can possibly be compensated
388 hydrologically is another sustainability issue. The spatial impact of the local drinking water
389 abstraction facility may also be a sustainability issue: a drinking water facility requires a certain
390 water storage area or reservoir, which might have a significant spatial impact in the area and
391 thus might affect local stakeholders.

392 **4.2 Technical sustainability characteristics**

393 Three technical sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the technical issues
394 for the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *reliability* and *resilience of the*
395 *technical infrastructure* and *energy use and environmental impact* of the drinking water
396 supply. Table 5 provides a summary of the results of the subsequent research steps (see Fig.
397 1).

398 The *reliability* of the supply system is defined in this research as “the (un)likeliness of the
399 technical system to fail” (Hashimoto, Stedinger, & Loucks, 1982). The current technical state
400 of the drinking water production facility and the distribution infrastructure, and the
401 complexity of the water treatment are important technical sustainability criteria for the local



402 drinking water supply system. Other technical criteria that should be considered are the
 403 supply continuity of the facility, which stands for the capability to meet the set legal standards
 404 for drinking water supply under all circumstances, and the operational reliability, to solve
 405 technical failures without disturbance of the drinking water supply.

406 **Table 5** Summary of proposed technical sustainability characteristics, technical issues from case
 407 studies (see Tables 1-3), relevant SDG¹ indicators and JMP² issues, and technical sustainability
 408 criteria.

Technical sustainability characteristics	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Energy use and environmental impact
TSustainability issues 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 Waste water Waste materials
SDG 6 targets¹	6.1, 6.4	6.1, 6.4	6.4
JMP²	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
TSustainability criteria	Technical state abstraction and treatment facility Technical state distribution infrastructure Effectivity and 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, waste water, waste materials) Reliability energy supply Use of renewable energy

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

411 ² JMP = 2017 update of the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and
 412 Hygiene(WHO & UNICEF, 2017)

413
 414
 415 In this research the *resilience* of the drinking water supply system is defined as “the possibility
 416 to respond to short- and long-term changes in water demand or water quality” (Hashimoto et



417 al., 1982). Climate change and other developments in water demand and quality call for the
418 use of more resilient technologies and processes, and may require upgrades of water
419 treatment and storage capacity (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). The cases “2018 Summer drought” as
420 well as “Drinking water demand growth” emphasise the importance of the available
421 abstraction permits, and treatment and distribution capacity compared to the annual and
422 peak water demand respectively for the resilience of the local drinking water supply system.
423 Furthermore, the flexibility of the treatment method determines whether a drinking water
424 supply system can deal with variation in, or deterioration of water quality and emerging
425 contaminants, the sustainability issues found in the case “Groundwater quality development”.

426 *Energy use and environmental impact* includes the sustainability issues from the cases
427 “Groundwater quality development” and “Drinking water demand growth”: the energy use of
428 abstraction, treatment and distribution, and the environmental impact of additional
429 excipients, waste water and other waste products of the treatment. Especially when the raw
430 water quality deteriorates, the required water treatment methods become more complex. In
431 general this leads to large investments, as well as an increasing energy use and environmental
432 impact, e.g. when advanced membrane filtration methods are required. Additional global
433 sustainability issues are the reliability of the energy supply, and the renewability of the energy
434 that is used (WHO, 2017).

435 **4.3 Socio-economic sustainability characteristics**

436 Three socio-economic sustainability characteristics are proposed that summarise the socio-
437 economic issues affecting the drinking water supply as found in the case studies: *drinking*
438 *water availability*, *water governance*, and *land and water use*. Table 6 provides a summary of
439 the results of the subsequent research steps (see Fig. 1).



440 The *drinking water availability* can be quantified by the percentage of households connected
441 to the drinking water supply. A sustainable local drinking water supply provides sufficient
442 drinking water of a quality that meets the national or international drinking water standards,
443 for a tariff that is affordable to all households. Water saving strategies will reduce the drinking
444 water demand growth. The JMP monitors the availability of water safety plans (including
445 emergency plans) on how to act in case of drinking water supply disturbances, shortages, or
446 drinking water quality emergencies, which are essential to ensure drinking water availability
447 (WHO & UNICEF, 2017).

448 *Water governance* focuses on policies and legislation, enforcement and compliance of
449 regulations. Good governance also includes decision-making processes considering different
450 stakeholder interests, to ensure accountable, transparent and participatory governance
451 (UNESCAP, 2009). The availability of (inter)national and local policies and legislation on
452 drinking water supply as well as on water management, including regulations and permits,
453 and the level of compliance of the drinking water supplier to these policies and legislation, are
454 important for the socio-economic sustainability. The sustainability of local drinking water
455 supply is also characterised by the stakeholders interests related to the presence of a local
456 drinking water abstraction, and by how local authorities weigh these interests in their
457 decision-making processes. A final issue in water governance that reaches further than local
458 stakeholder interests is the risk of small- or large-scale emergencies for the drinking water
459 supply caused by human activities or conflicts (WHO & UNICEF, 2017).

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



463 quality. Additionally, water use for other purposes may limit the availability of water
 464 resources for drinking water. Regulations to protect water quality or water quantity may cause
 465 limitations for local land and water use. Financial compensation for suffered economic
 466 damage due to the impact of the abstraction or the limitations caused by protection
 467 regulations can be an important issue for the sustainability of the drinking water supply
 468 system.

469 **Table 6** Summary of proposed socio-economic sustainability characteristics, socio-economic issues
 470 from case studies (see Tables 1-3), relevant SDG¹ indicators and JMP² issues, and socio-economic
 471 sustainability criteria.

Socio-economic sustainability characteristics	Drinking water availability	Water governance	Land and water use
Sustainability issues 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
JMP²	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 quality Drinking water tariff Water saving strategy Water safety plan	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

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

474 ² JMP = 2017 update of the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply, Sanitation and
 475 Hygiene (WHO & UNICEF, 2017)



476 **4.4 Overview sustainability characteristics and criteria**

477 Table 7 summarises the hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability character-
 478 istics and criteria for a local drinking water supply system from Tables 4-6.

479 **Table 7** Overview of the proposed sustainability characteristics and criteria for local drinking
 480 water supply systems

System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria
Hydrological system	Water quality	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
	Water resource availability	Surface water quantity Groundwater quantity Other available water resources Vulnerability water system water for contamination Natural hazards and emergencies risk
	Impact of drinking water abstraction	Impact to surface water system Impact to groundwater system Balance between annual recharge and abstraction Hydrological compensation Spatial impact of abstraction facility/ storage/reservoir
Technical system	Reliability of technical infrastructure	Technical state abstraction and treatment facility Technical state distribution infrastructure Effectivity and complexity of water treatment Supply continuity for customers Operational reliability
	Resilience of technical infrastructure	Abstraction permit compared to annual drinking water demand Production capacity compared to peak demand Flexibility of treatment method for changing raw water quality Technical innovations to improve resilience Technical investments to improve resilience
	Energy use and environmental impact	Energy use of abstraction and treatment Energy use of distribution Environmental impact (additional excipients, waste water, waste materials) Reliability energy supply Use of renewable energy
Socio-economic system	Drinking water availability	Percentage connected households Drinking water quality Drinking water tariff Water saving strategy Water safety plan



System	Sustainability characteristics	Sustainability criteria
	Water governance	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 and water use	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

481

482 **5 Conclusions and discussion**

483 The aim of this study was to identify a set of characteristics that describing the sustainability
484 of a local drinking water supply system. Based on the presented analysis, the following set of
485 hydrological, technical and socio-economic sustainability characteristics is proposed,
486 respectively: (1) *water quality, water resource availability, and impact of drinking water*
487 *abstraction; (2) reliability and resilience of the technical system, and energy use and*
488 *environmental impact; (3) drinking water availability, water governance, and land and water*
489 *use.*

490 In this study we used an integrated systems approach to analyse the local drinking water
491 supply system, combining hydrological, technical and socio-economic aspects of the system.
492 The applied DPSIR approach is a socio-ecological framework originally developed to identify
493 the impact of human activities on the state of the environmental system (Binder et al., 2013).
494 The integrated systems approach of the local drinking water supply system as adopted in this
495 research complicated the identification of pressures and impacts: the impact of a pressure to
496 one system element presented pressures to other system elements. For instance, high
497 temperatures and lack of precipitation caused a higher drinking water demand, and surface



498 water quality deterioration. Both consequently presented pressures with an impact to the
499 resilience and reliability of the technical drinking water supply infrastructure. Although this
500 hampered the analysis, the use of DPSIR supported the systematic analysis of the local
501 drinking water supply cases, and helped to identify the sustainability issues.

502 The analysis of the three selected cases with DPSIR supported the identification of issues that
503 shape the sustainability of the local drinking water supply system. This was an unconventional
504 use of DPSIR, and can be seen as a form of reverse engineering: “extracting knowledge or
505 design blueprints from anything man-made” (Eilam, 2011), in this case from a local drinking
506 water supply system. The results of the research show that DPSIR can be used to extract
507 knowledge on the characteristics of a complex system. According to C. Pahl-Wostl (2015)
508 DPSIR can be used to analyse the temporal and spatial dimensions of complex, multi-level
509 environmental problems such as water resources management. This includes the complex
510 system of local drinking water supply, which was analysed in this study. The case analysis did
511 indeed help to account for differences between short-term and long-term developments, and
512 for the impact of external influences that come from the national and international scale.

513 To increase the general applicability of the results from the analysis of the Dutch cases on
514 drinking water supply, the identified sustainability issues were related to worldwide
515 acknowledged sustainability issues, by cross-checking the targets set in the SDG 6 (UN, 2015),
516 and the JMP (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). This put the issues in a broader perspective, which may
517 contribute to the transferability of the proposed sustainability characteristics and criteria to
518 other areas.

519 Assessments to understand the sustainability challenges as well as the impact of future
520 developments and adaptation options are seen as powerful tools for policy making (Ness,



521 Urbel-Piirsalu, Anderberg, & Olsson, 2007; Singh, Murty, Gupta, & Dikshit, 2012). Examples of
522 sustainability assessments that relate to drinking water supply are the Sustainable Society
523 Index (Van der Kerk & Manuel, 2008), the “EBC Performance Assessment Model” model
524 (European Benchmarking Co-operation, 2017), the International Water Association
525 Performance Indicator System (Alegre et al., 2006), the Groundwater Footprint (Gleeson &
526 Wada, 2013) and the City Blueprint (Van Leeuwen, Frijns, Van Wezel, & Van de Ven, 2012).
527 Although these assessments include criteria that are relevant for sustainable drinking water
528 supply on various spatial and organizational scales, they do not consider drinking water supply
529 on a local scale. The sustainability characteristics as proposed in this research may be used to
530 develop a sustainability assessment for the local drinking water supply system, that can help
531 to identify sustainability challenges and trade-offs of adaptation strategies. Trade-off analysis
532 supports decision-making processes and makes these processes more transparent to local
533 stakeholders (Hellegers & Leflaive, 2015). Based on the local situation and data availability,
534 adequate indicators and indices can be selected to quantify the sustainability characteristics
535 in a certain area (Van Engelenburg, Van Slobbe, & Hellegers, 2019).

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

538 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization J.v.E., P.J.G.J.H., E.v.S.; methodology J.v.E.,
539 P.J.G.J.H., E.v.S.; data curation J.v.E.; investigation J.v.E.; writing – original draft preparation
540 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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548

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Table A.1 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 issues in the case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table 1 in Section 3.1.

Driver	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
Extreme weather event	High temperature, high evaporation, no precipitation	Extreme drinking water use, high drinking water demand. 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 abstraction volume. Drinking water suppliers increased the abstraction volume to meet the increased drinking water demand.	Development of water saving strategies. 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. Development of additional water shortage policy for water management and water governance.	Drinking water use, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers, abstraction volume, water saving.
Extreme weather event	High evaporation, no precipitation	Drought, falling water discharges and groundwater levels, damage to groundwater-dependent ecosystems and agriculture. 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.	Water use limitations, water authorities applied existing drought water policy, risk for water quality. 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.	Drought, water discharge, groundwater levels, groundwater-dependent ecosystems, agriculture, water use, water authorities, water policy, water management, water governance, water availability.
Extreme weather event	High evaporation, no precipitation	Customers worried about drinking water availability. Because of the visible damage to vegetation due to the drought, customers started to worry about the drinking water availability.	Drinking water suppliers called upon customers for drinking water saving. Drinking water suppliers communicated that there still was sufficient drinking water, but people were asked to spread the drinking water	Societal support for drinking water saving strategies. The drought raised awareness under customers that there are limits to the drinking water availability, thus	Customers, drinking water availability, drinking water suppliers, water saving.



Driver	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
Extreme weather event	No precipitation	Declining surface water discharge and quality. Due to the lack of rain, the share of industrial waste water and treated sewage water to the surface water discharge increased, which caused the water quality in surface waters deteriorated.	use to reduce the peak demand. Later that summer customers were called for water saving . Drinking water supplies took measures to safeguard raw water quality. Drinking water suppliers that use surface water as resource took measures to safeguard the raw water quality .	creating (some) societal support for (drinking) water saving. Development of additional policies on water quality protection. 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 waste water, by reduction of water use or improvement of treatment.	Surface water discharge, surface water quality, drinking water suppliers, raw water quality, water management policies, water use.
Extreme weather event	Declining surface water quality	Groundwater quality deterioration. 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 .	No response possible due to lack of water. 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.	Development of additional policies on water quality protection. The fact that surface water discharge and quality may affect groundwater management policies that aim to refresh water bodies and to reduce the impact of treated sewage and industrial waste water.	Groundwater quality, surface water quality, water shortage, surface water discharge, water management policies.
Extreme weather event	High temperature	Drinking water quality at risk due to rising water temperature in pipelines. 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.	Sufficient refreshment due to high demand. 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 .	Changing the design standard of distribution pipelines to limit risk of temperature rise. The risk of drinking water quality issues caused by increased drinking water temperature due to climate change may have consequences for the design of the distribution infrastructure .	Drinking water quality, treatment method, distribution infrastructure.
Extreme weather event	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, impact of abstraction, land use.



Driver	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
Extreme weather event	High drinking water demand	<p>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.</p> <p>Exceedance of abstraction permits, limiting the resilience of the technical infrastructure. 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.</p>	<p>Stakeholders on agriculture and nature complained about the impact of the extra abstraction to their land use.</p> <p>Enforcement procedures by legal authorities.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>The drought impact enlarged the societal pressure to drinking water suppliers to reduce the impact of local drinking water abstraction to the water system.</p> <p>Extension of drinking water abstraction permits and water saving strategies. 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.</p>	<p>stakeholders, agriculture, nature, drinking water suppliers.</p> <p>Drinking water demand, abstraction volume, abstraction capacity, abstraction permit, resilience of abstraction, legal authorities, water regulations, drinking water saving.</p>
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	<p>Shortage of drinking water during peak demand due to insufficient resilience of treatment infrastructure.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Insufficient distribution capacity.</p>	<p>Reduced drinking water supply volume.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Lowering drinking water pressure to reduce drinking water volume.</p> <p>To reduce the drinking water volume that was supplied, drinking water suppliers lowered the drinking water pressure intendedly in some areas. The</p>	<p>Adjustment of resilience and reliability of treatment infrastructure.</p> <p>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 issues. To adjust all issues will take several years.</p>	<p>Treatment volume, treatment capacity, drinking water shortage, reliability of the treatment, resilience of water standards, drinking water demand, drinking water suppliers.</p>
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	<p>In some parts of the drinking water supply there was insufficient distribution capacity due to hydraulic limitations, insufficient storage capacity, or age and quality of the</p>	<p>Adjustment of resilience and reliability of distribution infrastructure.</p> <p>The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where the distribution capacity was not reliable at peak demand, which set drinking</p>	<p>Distribution capacity, resilience and reliability of distribution, drinking water suppliers, drinking water volume, drinking water standards.</p>	



Driver	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	<p>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.</p> <p>Major disturbances could cause a serious disruption of the supply.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>High energy use and environmental impact of extreme drinking water production.</p> <p>The magnitude and duration of the peak demand forced a maximal exploitation of the technical infrastructure, causing a maximal energy use and environmental impact.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>Maximal personnel deployment by drinking water suppliers.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>water suppliers off to solve these local distribution issues. To adjust all issues will take several years.</p> <p>Investments to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure by drinking water suppliers.</p> <p>The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where not reliable at peak demand, which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local issues, and where necessary create redundancy to decrease the risk of disturbances, and thus improve the reliability.</p>	<p>Drinking water demand, reliability of technical infrastructure, drinking water suppliers.</p> <p>Drinking water demand, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water suppliers.</p>
Extreme weather event	High peak demand for drinking water	<p>There was no short-term response available to reduce the energy use and environmental impact.</p>	<p>Incorporating impact on energy use and environmental impact in design of measures to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure.</p> <p>The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where not reliable at peak demand, which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local issues. Energy use and environmental impact are important aspects that are considered in the design of the solutions for these issues.</p>	<p>Incorporating impact on energy use and environmental impact in design of measures to improve resilience and reliability of technical infrastructure.</p> <p>The drought identified locations in the technical infrastructure where not reliable at peak demand, which set drinking water suppliers off to solve these local issues. Energy use and environmental impact are important aspects that are considered in the design of the solutions for these issues.</p>	<p>Drinking water demand, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water suppliers.</p>



Table A.2 Results analysis of Case 2 “Groundwater quality development”. The sustainability issues in this case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table 2 in Section 3.2.

Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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 waste water 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 waste water 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 waste water 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 .	



Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
Population growth, industrial developments	Increasing sewage and waste water discharges	and the risk of leakage through aquifers that protect aquifers. Local and upstream land and water use affects the surface water quality. Surface water quality is affected by local and upstream land and water use activities. Discharge of treated sewage water as well as industrial waste water discharges introduce contaminants in the water system.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development. Monitoring and evaluation of the water quality development is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing surface water quality.	Policy and measures to meet water legislation to protect and improve water quality and quantity. 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.	Surface water quality, land and water use, contaminants, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quantity.
Population growth, industrial developments	Historical pollution, increasing sewage and waste water discharges (change)	Diffuse and point sources of pollution affect surface water and groundwater quality. 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.	Monitoring and evaluation of water quality development. 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 is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	Measures to remove historical sources of pollution and to prevent new sources of pollution. 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.	Groundwater quality, nutrients, organic micro-pollutants, other contaminants, surface water quality, monitoring and evaluation, water legislation, water quality protection.
Population growth, industrial developments	Increasing sewage and waste water discharges	Emerging contaminants in surface and groundwater require new drinking water treatment methods. 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 water quality , especially when they	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on pollution incidents and monitoring and evaluation. 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 caused by a car accident to be reported and solved	Development of treatment methods to remove emerging contaminants from sewage, industrial waste water and/or drinking water. 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. To deal with emerging contaminants it is essential	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



Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
		cannot be removed using the currently available treatment methods. The changes limit the resilience and reliability of the drinking water treatment.	immediately by removing the source of pollution. Continuous enforcement of these regulations is essential. Monitoring and evaluation is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality.	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, waste water, waste materials). This may lead to a higher drinking water tariff.	methods, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.
Population growth, industrial developments	Land use change	Land use (change) may cause groundwater quality deterioration. Land use change may cause groundwater quality deterioration due to the risk of diffuse or point sources of pollution . The impact may be limited if land use changes towards less polluting land use functions.	Enforcement of groundwater protection regulations on land use change and monitoring and evaluation. 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.	Combination of extensive land use functions with drinking water abstraction. 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.	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.
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. 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	Monitoring of drinking water quality, in case of emergencies measures are taken to safeguard the drinking water quality. 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.	Adjustment of treatment methods to be able to continue to meet the drinking water standards. 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.	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.



Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
		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. 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 of water quality development. Monitoring and evaluation is necessary to be able to timely respond to a changing water quality .	Increase of resilience and reliability of drinking water treatment. 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 .	Surface water quality, groundwater quality, resilience and reliability of the treatment, monitoring and evaluation, raw water quality, energy use, environmental impact, drinking water tariffs.



Table A.3 Results of analysis of Case 3 “Drinking water demand growth”, where additional to the analysis of the first two cases. The (additional) sustainability issues in this case are displayed in bold. The grey cells refer to Table 3 in Section 3.3.

Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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. 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.1.	See Table A.1.	Water resource availability, drinking water availability, resilience of drinking water supply, drinking water demand, water legislation.
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. 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 A.2.	See Table A.2.	Water quality, drinking water treatment, reliability of treatment, drinking water standards.
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.1.	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,



Drivers	Pressure	Impact	Short-term response	Long-term response	Sustainability issues
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 IV.1	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 issues to ensure the drinking water availability . Because these adjustments take time, drinking water suppliers must start solving the issues 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. 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 .	Research on potential risks of a decline in 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.	Adaptation strategies that increase the resilience of the infrastructure to growth as well as a decline of the drinking water demand. The chosen adaptation strategies for a growing drinking water demand must also be resilient and reliable under a decreasing drinking water demand.	Drinking water demand, reliability and resilience of technical infrastructure.



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



Table B.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 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 6.4.2 Level of water stress: freshwater withdrawal as a proportion of available freshwater resources				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) 6.5.2 Proportion of transboundary basin area with an operational arrangement for water cooperation		x						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
6.6 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	
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