Making Waves: How a water-resources crisis highlights social-ecological disconnects.

[Manuscript for Water Research – Making Waves Paper]

5

3

4

Author names, affiliations & contact details

Joshua R. Gittins*1

orcid.org/ 0000-0002-6098-8917

j.gittins1@lancaster.ac.uk

Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, United Kingdom.

Jack R. Hemingway

orcid.org/0000-0001-5547-2791

j.hemingway@lancaster.ac.uk

Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, United

Kingdom

Jan-Claas Dajka

https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0797-9229

jan-claas.dajka@hifmb.de

Helmholtz Institute for Functional Marine Biodiversity, Oldenburg, Germany

*Corresponding author

¹Present address: Natural Resources Wales, Ty Cambria, Cardiff, United Kingdom.

6

- 7
- 8

- 10
- 11

12 Abstract:

The sustainable management of water resources is required to avoid water scarcity 13 14 becoming widespread. This article explores the potential application of a social-15 ecological framework, used predominantly in the fields of ecology and conservation, as a tool to improve the sustainability and resilience of water resources. The "red-loop 16 green-loop" (RL-GL) model has previously been used to map both sustainable and 17 18 unsustainable social-ecological feedbacks between ecosystems and their communities in countries such as Sweden and Jamaica. In this article, we demonstrate 19 20 the novel application of the RL-GL framework to water resources management using the 2017/18 Cape Town water crisis as an example. We used the framework to 21 22 analyse the social-ecological dynamics of pre-crisis and planned contingency scenarios. 23

We found that the water resources management system was almost solely reliant on 24 a single, non-ecosystem form of infrastructure, the provincial dam system. As a 25 26 prolonged drought impacted this key water resource, resilience to resource collapse 27 was shown to be low and a missing feedback between the water resource and the Cape Town community was highlighted. The collapse of water resources ("Day Zero") 28 was averted through a combination of government and community group led 29 30 measures, incorporating both local ecosystem (green-loop) and non-local ecosystem (red-loop) forms of water resource management, and increased rainfall returning to 31 the area. Additional disaster management plans proposed by the municipality included 32 the tighter integration of red and green-loop water management approaches, which 33 34 acted to foster a stronger connection between the Cape Town community and their 35 water resources.

We advocate the wider development and application of the RL-GL model, theoretically and empirically, to investigate missing feedbacks between water resources and their communities.

39

Keywords: Water resources management, social-ecological, red-loop green-loop
model, water crisis, feedbacks.

42

43 1. A social-ecological framework for water resources management

44 The sustainable management of water resources, globally, is required to avoid water scarcity becoming widespread. There are a number of human pressures (e.g. 45 urbanisation, intensive agriculture, over-abstraction, inefficient distribution and 46 47 exceptional demand) underpinning climate change, pollution and biodiversity loss that contributes to water scarcity (Eslamain and Eslamain, 2017). The idea that 48 anthropogenic water systems can be resilient to the pressures of scarcity only through 49 50 economic decision-making (e.g. cost-benefit analysis), engineering and technology is beginning to be undermined. Damming predictions (Boretti and Rosa, 2019) and real-51 world crises on many of the world's continents seem to be increasing. We propose 52 that civic water resource management could benefit from the application of a recently 53 developed social-ecological framework, which highlights the importance of feedbacks 54 55 between humans and ecosystems (Cumming et al., 2014; Hamann et al., 2015; Blythe et al., 2017, Dajka et al., 2020). This framework has not previously been applied within 56 the realm of water resources management and may prove a useful tool in planning for 57 58 better management and, ultimately, future resilience.

Social-ecological models have long been used in ecology and conservation research
with the aim of improving habitat management (Scheffer *et al.*, 2001). Cumming *et al.*

61 (2014) proposed the red-loop green-loop (RL-GL) model which classifies socialecological dynamics into red and green loops. These loops are based upon human 62 dependence on, and interactions with, the local ecosystem, in addition to the 63 64 sustainability of that ecosystem. Green-loop systems are defined by a sustainable relationship between a human population (often lower density) and their local 65 ecosystem, such as a rural society practicing subsistence agriculture. Green-loop 66 67 systems are reliant on ecosystem goods and services derived from their local ecosystem. Red-loop systems are characterised by the sustainable relationship 68 69 between a human population (often higher density) and the local/regional 70 socioeconomic system (often more metropolitan) they utilise to supply non-ecosystem goods and services. However, both green and red-loop systems can drift into 71 72 unsustainable traps. Green traps are initiated by overconsumption and inadequate 73 productivity, which if left unchecked can lead to rural poverty and ecological 74 degradation which amplify each other, resulting in a green trap. At the other end of the 75 spectrum, red traps can occur through overconsumption and the failure to manage ecological decline. Such ecological decline can progress unnoticed if the signal-76 77 response chain between the ecosystem and society is masked (e.g. missing feedback fostered by lack of ecological knowledge; Dajka et al., 2020). Both traps can lead to 78 79 ecosystem and resource degradation if the traps are not addressed (Cumming et al., 80 2014).

The RL-GL concept has been applied to a handful of national-level systems, including Sweden (Cumming et al. 2014) and Jamaica (Dajka et al. 2020). Sweden experienced a transition from green loop to red loop. For over 1000 years, the country had a low human population based on majorly agrarian lifestyles and was classified as a green loop system (Cumming et al. 2014). Accelerating population growth beginning in the

86 mid-18th century, triggered a transition towards a red loop system at the latter end of the 19th century. Economic development, driven mostly by the industrial sector and 87 growing export markets, fuelled the transition from the 1870s. Then, from 1950, the 88 89 industrial and service sectors expanded whilst the agricultural sector remained largely stagnant. Swedish agricultural employment subsequently declined from close to a 90 million in 1880 to less than 50,000 people in 2000. In a red loop system, disconnects 91 92 between people and local ecosystems (missing feedbacks) and resulting environmental degradation are expected (Cumming et al. 2014). Great losses were 93 94 beginning to be recorded in Swedish grassland biodiversity and old-growth forests in the 1950s. Further, overfishing in the Baltic Sea was recorded throughout the 1990s 95 and still is today. Swedish imports and exports increased sevenfold between 1975 and 96 97 2000, with unknown impacts on external ecological systems. Many of the country's increased requirements were met by upscaling, with Sweden employing technological 98 advances and modern farming methods that aided in reducing local environmental 99 100 degradation whilst stabilising increased food production. Using this strategy, Sweden managed to retain a sustainable red loop system and not drift into an unsustainable 101 red trap. 102

Jamaica on the other hand has moved through all RL-GL states (green loop, green trap, red loop, red trap) since the first human settlement around the year 600 until 2017 (Dajka et al. 2020). Here too, missing feedbacks between people and the local ecosystem were most detrimental to the Jamaican nearshore ecosystem. In contrast, it appears that the previously upscaled exports of locally caught reef fish are largely responsible for keeping Jamaica in a red trap scenario in recent years rather than a red loop as was the case for Sweden. More commitment to ecological monitoring and

110 conservation appears to be the main difference between Jamaica's red trap state111 (Dajka et al. 2020) and Sweden's red loop state (Cumming et al. 2014).

112 The RL-GL model has not been used, however, to map the state of a nation's water 113 resources, or to reveal any 'missing feedbacks' that may be driving management practices that are detrimental to a local ecosystem's ecological sustainability. Social-114 ecological approaches have only recently been seen as useful for water resources 115 116 planning and forecasting (e.g. Jaeger et al., 2017), with the aim of improving the sustainable management of these systems. In this article we look to demonstrate 117 application of the RL-GL model to analyse a water resources management system. 118 119 We use the RL-GL model to identify functioning and missing social-ecological feedbacks across some specific management scenarios (real and hypothetical) of a 120 121 single water resources system. As an example, we capture the water resources 122 management of South Africa's Western Cape capital - Cape Town - and the water crisis of 2017/18. Using the RL-GL model enables us to provide an analysis of the 123 124 human-environment relationships which defined the course of the Cape Town water crisis and highlight some of the dynamics which helped foster greater sustainability 125 (Laurent, 2015). 126

127

128 **2.** An application of the red-loop green-loop model

The RL-GL framework provides a unique social-ecological lens through which to view the management of Cape Town's water resources management, preceding the implementation of emergency measures by the City of Cape Town (CCT) local municipal authority. However, first it is necessary to first provide some wider context of water resources management across South Africa and the Western Cape. The postapartheid government of South Africa have introduced a number of policies designed

to improve access to, and availability of, potable water, such as the Water Services
Act (1997), and the Free Basic Water policy (2001). However, access to clean water,
although greatly improved, remains a persistent problem (Muller, 2008). South Africa
is a water scarce country (Cole *et al.*, 2017), and a series of droughts in recent years
have put pressure on the limited water resources. As a result, water scarcity became
the focus of a major crisis, particularly for the Western Cape Water Supply System
(WCWSS) which fed the province's major city, Cape Town.

In May 2017, water storage capacity at the WCWSS dams had reduced to around 142 143 20% (Climate Systems Analysis Group, 2019). This shortage resulted in the CCT triggering a disaster management plan that imposed a per capita limit of 50 litres (L) 144 of water per day (Engvist and Ziervogel, 2019; GreenCape, 2018), and warned that 145 should storage drop below 13.5%, these limits would be reduced to 25 L (Enqvist and 146 Ziervogel, 2019; GreenCape, 2018). This final action would be implemented by 147 148 switching off municipal water supplies and installing communal distribution points to 149 enable water rationing; an event that colloquially became known as "Day Zero" (CCT, 2017). 150

Several reasons have been identified for the water shortages that led to the crisis 151 (Muller, 2017), notably: (i) a prolonged period of reduced rainfall; (ii) increased demand 152 153 associated with population growth; (iii) the poor management of, and investment in, water management infrastructure; (iv) overallocation of water resources to the 154 agricultural sector; (v) the overreliance on surface water; and, (vi) the spread of water 155 156 intensive invasive vegetation (Parks et al., 2019; Taing et al., 2019). Similarly, there 157 were a number of events and interventions that helped to mitigate the severity of the crisis: (i) a return of normal rainfall rates; (ii) supply augmentation via diversifying 158

water-sources (e.g. increasing groundwater supply capacity); and, (iii) improvements
in water recycling and distribution efficiency (Parks *et al.*, 2019). These factors should
be understood when considering the RL-GL concept application in South Africa.

Pre-crisis, the CCT municipality operated the distribution of clean water for public use 162 163 (Fig. 1), sourced mainly from the WCWSS and as a quota allocated to the municipality 164 by the nationwide Department of Water and Sanitation (Enqvist and Ziervogel, 2018). This consisted of typical piped infrastructure, engineered to distribute the water 165 between the different consumer types (e.g. domestic or agricultural users) (Muller, 166 167 2019). Water levels in the WCWSS were monitored at the provincial level, though there was limited transparency between the national/provincial level and the municipal 168 level, as well as the public. We argue that this lack of transparency produced a missing 169 feedback (Fig. 1a). Within the predominantly red-loop relationship between water 170 171 resources and the Cape Town community, a lack of transparency on the state of 172 resources, and therefore, a lack of consumer behavioural change, further reinforced 173 the disconnect and intensified resource depletion. Alongside this, the one-way, topdown governance of water supply management (e.g. the limited scope for negotiation 174 175 between the CCT and the Department of Water and Sanitation for water allocation quotas) further reinforced the missing feedback between provincial catchment supply 176 management and municipal authority quotas (Fig. 1a). Furthermore, reliance on a 177 single supply water supply (*i.e.* the WCWSS) limits the options for water resource 178 179 management to address drought resilience (Muller, 2018).

180

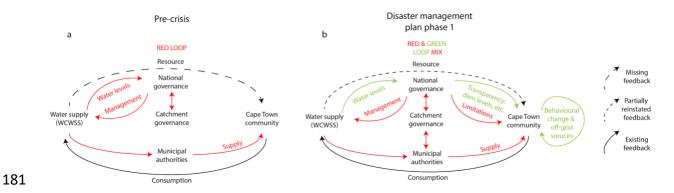


Figure 1. Outline of the management of the City of Cape Town's water resources, (a) prior to 2017 (*i.e.* pre-crisis), and (b) during phase 1 of the disaster management plan response to 2017-2018 crisis; WCWSS = Western Cape Water Supply System.

In late 2017, Phase I of the CCT's disaster management plan was implemented (Fig. 186 1b). This involved imposing water consumption restrictions to 87 L per capita per day 187 (Taing et al. 2019) as well as the following additional actions: (i) improving the 188 189 efficiency of the piped water distribution system; (ii) increasing the stepped pricing structure of additional water beyond the basic household allowance of 6000 L per 190 month; and, (iii) organising and coordinating an Information, Education and 191 192 Communication (IEC) campaign to improve the reporting and transparency of wateruse and supply-based data to the municipal authorities and the public. These 193 measures aimed to reduce water use by: (i) reducing leakage; (ii) changing 194 consumption behaviour by making 'luxury' water costly, and; (iii) informing the public 195 196 about the state of water resources. The IEC campaign specifically fostered a partial 197 feedback between the consumer and the state of the water resources (Fig. 1b), bringing the interaction closer to a green-loop dynamic. Using data transparency such 198 as 'The Big Six Monitor' (Climate System Analysis Group, 2019) and educational 199 campaigns like "If it's yellow, let it mellow..." (Booysen et al., 2019). There was a 200 resulting improvement in water use from these actions, with Booysen et al. (2019) 201

202 reporting a per day household decrease of 48% throughout the duration of the crisis (2015-2018). Alongside this campaign to reduce water consumption and waste, the 203 204 CCT also pursued supply augmentation policies (notably the large-scale abstraction 205 of groundwater from three regional aquifers, and the expansion of both desalination and wastewater treatment capacity), further improving diversification and resilience 206 (Taing et al., 2019). This suite of measures adopted by the CCT demonstrates a 207 208 successfully implemented combined red-loop green-loop approach to resource 209 management.

210 The added transparency, and the consequent partially reinstated feedback, led many 211 of the Cape Town community to change their behaviour. Some of these changes were positive, e.g. the steep reduction in personal water usage, and the supply 212 213 augmentation policies adopted by CCT (notably the large-scale abstraction of 214 groundwater from three regional aguifers, and the expansion of both desalination and wastewater treatment capacity) (Taing et al., 2019). Other behavioural changes were 215 216 also observed, notably a reported increase of people utilising new 'off-grid' sources of 217 water, such as personal boreholes and small springs and streams to supplement or 218 replace their local supply. Although these changes are not necessarily socially or environmentally positive (e.g. individuals having to travel to collect potentially unsafe 219 220 water, or the use of unregulated boreholes), what they represent is a shift from what 221 Simpson et al. (2020) describe as "dam mentality". That is, people reassessing their 222 perceptions of water security, and sought to look beyond the state supplied resource 223 and its highly engineered network. It is argued that a transition away from a dam 224 mentality coincided with behavioural change, partially reinstating the missing feedback between consumers (*i.e.* the Western Cape community) and the WCWSS (Fig. 1b). 225 226 This behavioural change may also have initiated a new green-loop through the use of

227 external (to the WCWSS) water sources. Unfortunately, however, this scenario likely resulted in further water inequality (Cole et al., 2017; Engvist and Ziervogel, 2018). 228 Ultimately, Day Zero was avoided; normal rainfall in mid-2018 restored the water levels 229 230 in the dams to a manageable level, but the in-crisis responses of the CCT and the Cape Town community also played a significant role in preventing a much more 231 serious situation (Taing et al., 2019). The course of the progressing crisis and 232 233 implementation of phase 1 of the CCT's disaster management plan illustrate how green-loops were increasingly integrated into the overall red-loop system as the crisis 234 235 progressed. Next, we will discuss further (yet hypothetical) green-loop integration, as 236 demonstrated by phases 2 and 3 of the disaster management plan which was proposed by the CCT to alleviate the crisis should the drought have continued. 237

238

3. Balancing social-ecological feedbacks to improve sustainability

The additional emergency strategy of phases 2 and 3 of the disaster management plan were agreed in advance to account for a continued period of little or no rainfall (Taing *et al.*, 2019). We interpret this additional emergency strategy using the RL-GL framework, to demonstrate how a mix of red and green-loops are employed to improve the sustainability of Cape Town's water resources, and ultimately, the state of the ecosystem providing these water resources (Fig. 2).

246

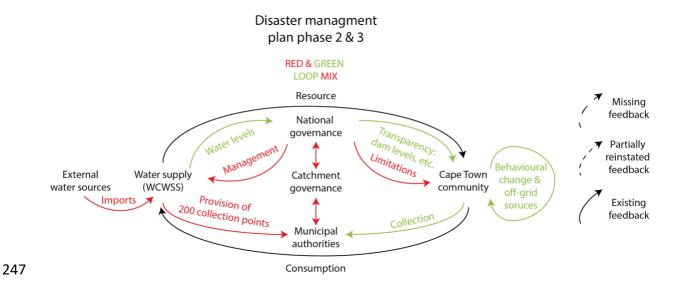


Figure 2. Outline of the management of the City of Cape Town's water resources phases 2 & 3 of the disaster management plan, contingency phases that were not employed in the 2018 water crisis.

251

The RL-GL framework highlights, that during phases 2 and 3 of the disaster 252 253 management plan, knowledge of the state of water resources and the source ecosystem was transparent at a national level, for provincial Water Boards, the CCT 254 municipality and the Cape Town community; this is demonstrated by a fully reinstated 255 feedback between society and the water resource ecosystem (WCWSS). In phase 1 256 of the disaster management plan, this feedback began to be partially reinstated via an 257 increasingly transparent flow of information about the state of the water supply (e.g. 258 WCWSS dam levels), fostered through an IEC campaign and more general media 259 coverage (Fig. 1b). In phases 2 and 3, the CCT municipality planned to organise 200 260 water collection points across the city which would integrate a new green-loop 261 between the water resource and the Cape Town community (Fig. 2), that would be 262 required to go to collection points and receive an allocated daily water provision of 25 263 L per capita (Taing et al., 2019). The introduction of this new green-loop would likely 264 have had implications for how Cape Town's community view their water resources, 265

266 highlighting the severity of the scarcity and enforcing water collections. Although not a popular strategy, this may have fully reinstated the feedback (Fig. 2). Fortunately, 267 this scenario was avoided as the IEC of this phase of the disaster management plan 268 269 may have triggered environmentally conscious behavioural changes (Geng et al., 2019), such as water-saving. Again, the Cape Town community seeking to avoid this 270 271 scenario might also demonstrate a transition away from the typical dam mentality. The 272 community adjusted their behaviour in accordance with a mixture of strategies aimed at increasing personal and public responsibility for water-use. Some attention has 273 recently been given to explaining how a disconnect (in terms of human-nature 274 275 interactions) between consumers and source ecosystems can result in unsustainable attitudes and behaviours towards the environment (Soga and Gaston, 2016; Dajka et 276 277 al., 2020); a dam mentality may be an example of this, at a personal or societal level. 278 Others argue that a strong connection with natural ecosystems (and their resources) is beneficial for human health and wellbeing (lves et al., 2017). Moreover, there is 279 280 potential for re-connecting communities with nature in order to promote sustainable behavioural changes (lves et al., 2018; Dajka et al., 2020) and the improved 281 management of water resources. Though, not at the risk of socially detrimental 282 practices, as approaches to change behaviour for the benefit of sustainability *must* be 283 balanced with improvements in technological efficiencies to not decrease standards 284 285 of living.

286

Altogether, using the RL-GL framework to analyse the 2017/18 Cape Town crisis revealed that progressively integrating a typically red-loop system with more greenloops, helped to avert a deepening of the crisis (Fig. 1b). This balanced mix of loop types has the potential to improve the resilience of water resources and their

291 management systems to crisis, and potentially facilitate adaptation over time to suit a changing climate. However, there is a need for more empirical research to 292 complement the theoretical development of the RL-GL framework. This includes 293 294 interdisciplinary experimental and statistical work to link specific feedbacks and ecological indicators to state policy or social interventions (e.g. Baudoin and Gittins, 295 2020), specifically related to the management of water resources. For instance, 296 297 Cumming and von Cramon-Taubadel (2018) used a statistical modelling approach to connect the United Nations' Human Development Index (HDI) to the RL-GL 298 299 framework. This research attempted to link the notion of red and green-loops to national development across a number of countries. The authors found 42 red-loop 300 countries to be mostly HDI category 1 (very high development) and 32 green loop 301 302 countries as mostly HDI category 4 (low development), with HDI 2 (high development) 303 and 3 (medium development) being transitory phases of development in between predominantly red (HD 1) and green-loop (HDI 4) nations. In the most recent HDI 304 305 assessment by the United Nations in 2018, South Africa was categorised as a HDI 2 306 country with a score of 0.705 (UN Human Development Report, 2019). Suggesting that indeed South Africa might be shifting from utilising both red and green-loop 307 dynamics within its social-ecological system, towards a predominantly red-loop social-308 309 ecological system (e.g. HDI 1).

Although the HDI does not explicitly include the state of water resources in its assessment of a nation's development, it is fair to assume that good quality and well distributed water resources might be a feature underpinning some of the dimensions of the HDI (e.g. life expectancy, per capita income, education; UNDP 2019). Therefore, despite indicating a transition up the HDI, South Africa's score of 0.705 potentially indicates more intensive red-loop management of water resources nationwide.

316 Viewing the Cape Town crisis through the RL-GL lens demonstrated how a solely redloop managed system can lack resilience to external pressures (i.e. climate change). 317 318 Other nations have, however, demonstrated that red-loop social-ecological systems 319 can be sustainable; Sweden for example, as published by Cumming et al., 2014. Although, this is yet to be demonstrated for the management of water resources 320 specifically. In the Cape Town example, the re-integration of green-loops into the 321 322 system helped alleviate the crisis, and could potentially increase resource resilience by reinstating missing social-ecological feedbacks. It would be interesting to see if 323 these findings are supported by other case studies, perhaps for the management of 324 325 water resources in HDI category 1 and 4 countries. Additionally, analysing different water users (i.e. agriculture, industry) in the Cape Town scenario (or elsewhere) using 326 327 the RL-GL model would be beneficial to gain a broader picture of the complex 328 relationships between water supply and its consumers. To conclude, we strongly advocate the use of the RL-GL framework when analysing social-ecological dynamics. 329 330 We have shown that it can be an effective tool to illustrate water resources challenges and can facilitate the implementation of policies or management practices to improve 331 sustainability and resilience. In addition, we provide a novel application of the RL-GL 332 framework to the management of water resources and demonstrate its utility in a 333 context outside of the fields of ecology and conservation. 334

335

336 **4. Conclusions**

Our analysis demonstrates how the novel application a social-ecological
 framework (RL-GL) to water resources issues can potentially improve the
 sustainability and resilience;

- This pilot study on a water resources system also contributes another example
 application of how the RL-GL framework can be used to visualise and identify
 detrimental, missing feedbacks in social-ecological systems;
- The South African example presents how the re-introduction of feedbacks can
 change behaviour to promote more sustainable water use and management
 practices; and
- Our article provides a conceptual, interdisciplinary approach to water resources
 management which should be applied more broadly and validated through
 empirical work.

350 References

Baudoin, L. & Gittins, J. R. 2020. The ecological outcomes of participation across
large river basins: Who is in the room and does it matter? *Journal of*

353 Environmental Management, **281**: 111836.

Blythe, J., Nash, K., Yates, J. & Cumming, G. 2017. Feedbacks as a bridging

355 concept for advancing transdisciplinary sustainability research. *Current*

356 *Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, **26-27**: pp.114-119.

- Booysen, M. J., Visser, M. & Burger, R. 2019. Temporal case study of household
 behavioural response to Cape Town's "Day Zero" using smart meter data. *Water Research*, 149: pp.414-420.
- 360 Boretti, A. & Rosa, L. 2019. Reassessing the projection of the World Water
- 361 Development Report. *Nature: npj Clean Water*, **2**: p.15.
- 362 City of Cape Town (CCT). 2017. Critical Water Shortages Disaster Plan Public

363 *Summary.* CCT: Cape Town, South Africa

- Climate Systems Analysis Group. 2019. *Big Six Monitor Big six WCWSS dams* [Online]. Available: <u>http://cip.csag.uct.ac.za/monitoring/bigsix.html</u>. [Accessed
 15/06/2019].
- Cole, M., Bailey, R. M., Cullis, J. D. S., New, M. G. 2017. Spatial inequality in water
 access and water use in South Africa. *Water Policy*, **20**: pp.37-52.
- 369 Cumming, G. S., Buerkert, A., Hoffmann, E. M., Schlecht, E., Von Cramon-Taubadel,
- 370 S. & Tscharntke, T. 2014. Implications of agricultural transitions and
- urbanization for ecosystem services. *Nature*, **515**: pp.50.
- 372 Cumming, G. S. & Von Cramon-Taubadel, S. 2018. Linking economic growth
- 373 pathways and environmental sustainability by understanding development as
- 374 alternate social–ecological regimes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
- 375 *Sciences*, **115**: pp.9533.
- 376 Dajka, J-C, Woodhead, AJ, Norström, AV, Graham, NAJ, Riechers, M, Nyström, M.
- 377 2020. Red and green loops help uncover missing feedbacks in a coral reef
 378 social–ecological system. *People and Nature*, **2**: pp. 608-618.
- Enqvist, J. P. & Ziervogel, G. 2019. Water governance and justice in Cape Town: An
 overview. *WIREs Water*, 6: pp.e1354.
- 381 Eslamain, S. & Eslamain, F. A. 2017. Handbook of Drought and Water Scarcity:
- 382 Environmental Impacts and Analysis of Drought and Water Scarcity. 1st Ed.
 383 CRC Press: Boca Raton, United States.
- Geng, L., Xu, J., Ye, L., Zhou, W., Zhou, K. 2015 Connections with nature and
 environmental behaviors. *PLOS One*, **10**: pp.e0127247.
- 386 GreenCape. 2018. *Water 2018 Market Intelligence Report.* Greencape: Cape
- 387 Town, South Africa.

388	Hamann, M., Biggs, R. & Reyers, B. 2015. Mapping social-ecological systems:
389	Identifying 'green-loop' and 'red-loop' dynamics based on characteristic
390	bundles of ecosystem service use. Global Environmental Change, 34: pp.218-
391	226.
392	Ives, C. D., Guisti, M., Fischer, J., Abson, D. J., Klaniecki, K., Dorninger, C., Laudan,
393	J., Barthel, S., Abernethy, P., Martín-López, B., Raymony, M. C., Kendal, D.,
394	von Wehrden, H. 2017. Human-nature connection: a multidisciplinary review.
395	Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability, 26-27: pp.106-113.
396	Ives, C. D., Abson, D. J., Von Wehrden, H., Dorninger, C., Klaniecki, K. & Fischer, J.
397	2018. Reconnecting with nature for sustainability. Sustainability Science, 13:
398	pp.1389-1397.
399	Jaeger, W. K., Amos, A., Bigelow, D. P., Chang, H., Conklin, D. R., Haggerty, R.,
400	Langpap, C., Moore, K., Mote, P. W., Nolin, A. W., Plantinga, A. J., Schwartz,
401	C. L., Tullos, D., & Turner, D. P. (2017). Finding water scarcity amid
402	abundance using human-natural system models. Proceedings of the National
403	Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 114(45), pp.11884–
404	11889.
405 406 407 408	Laurent, E. 2015. Social-ecology: Exploring the missing link in sustainable development. Working Paper 2015-07, Observatoire Francais des Conjonctures Economiques (OFCE).
409	Muller, M. 2008. Free basic water — a sustainable instrument for a sustainable
410	future in South Africa. Environment and Urbanization, 20: pp.67-87.
411	Muller, M. 2017. Understanding the Origins of Cape Town's Water Crisis. Civil
412	<i>Engineering,</i> 15 : pp.11-16.

- Muller, M. 2018. Cape Town's drought: don't blame climate change. *Nature*, **559**:
 pp.174-176.
- 415 Muller, M. 2019. Some systems perspectives on demand management during Cape
- 416 Town's 2015-2018 water crisis. *International Journal of Water Resources*417 *Development*, **36**(6): pp.1054-1072.
- 418 Parks, R., Mclaren, M., Toumi, R. & Rivett, U. 2019. *Experiences and lessons in*
- 419 *manageing water from Cape Town.* Grantham Institute Briefing Paper No 29.
 420 Imperial College London.
- Scheffer, M., Carpenter, S., Foley, J. A., Folke, C., & Walker, B. 2001. Catastrophic
 shifts in ecosystems; Nature, 413: pp.591-596.
- 423
- 424 Simpson, N. P., Shearing, C. D. & Dupont, B. 2020. Gated Adaptation during the
- 425 Cape Town Drought: Mentalities, Transitions and Pathways to Partial Nodes
 426 of Water Security. *Society & Natural Resources*: pp.1-9.
- Soga, M. & Gaston, K. J. 2016. Extinction of experience: the loss of human–nature
 interactions. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, **14**: pp.94-101.
- 429 Taing, L., Chang, C. C., Pan, S. & Armitage, N. P. 2019. Towards a water secure
- 430 future: reflections on Cape Town's Day Zero crisis. *Urban Water Journal*, 16:
 431 pp.530-536.
- 432 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2019. *Human Development*
- 433 Report 2019 Beyond income, beyond averages, beyond today: Inequalities
- 434 *in human development in the 21st century*. UNDP: New York, US.