

1 **A nexus modeling framework for assessing water scarcity solutions**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Water scarcity has become a critical environmental issue worldwide. It has increased substantially in
14 the last decades in many parts of the world, and it is expected to further exacerbate in the future
15 driven by socio-economic and climatic changes. Several solution options could be implemented to
16 address this growing water scarcity, including supply and demand-side management options that span
17 the water, energy, and agricultural sectors. However, these options involve tradeoffs among various
18 societal objectives, especially when the interactions between these objectives are not properly
19 considered. This paper provides a review of the impending water scarcity challenges and suggests
20 assessing water scarcity solution options using a nexus modeling framework that links well-established
21 sectoral-oriented models.

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24 **Highlights**

- 25 - Water scarcity is expected to increase substantially in the coming decades
- 26 - A nexus thinking approach is required for assessing water scarcity solutions
- 27 - A nexus modeling framework linking well-established models is presented

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34 **1. Introduction**

35 Global water withdrawals have increased significantly throughout the twentieth century and during
36 the first decades of this century. As a result, many basins around the world have experienced pervasive
37 water scarcity conditions and related management challenges [1, 2]. These challenges are expected
38 to become more critical in the coming decades, driven by impending socio-economic developments
39 [3**]. At the same time, the supply of freshwater resources to meet the ensuing increase in water
40 demand is subject to large uncertainties due to the impacts of changing climatic conditions, water
41 quality degradation, and increasing demand for environmental flow protection. As such, policymakers
42 in vulnerable basins need to adapt management practices for securing reliable future water supply
43 that can meet the demands of different sectors. However, the choice of water management options
44 is often associated with tradeoffs across multiple societal objective such as agricultural production,
45 energy supply, and ecosystem health, as well as across space and time [4**].

46 In recent years, the concept of nexus thinking has been gaining ground, providing an opportunity
47 to shift from a sectoral focus on production maximization to improving cross-sector efficiencies [5].
48 The nexus approach is increasingly applied in the context of the linkages among water and food, but
49 also including energy, ecosystems, and economy. This approach gives equal importance to each sector
50 and aims to better understand the tradeoffs and synergies involved in meeting future demands of
51 interconnected resources. Water is a key sector in the nexus system, given that all the other sectors
52 are affected either directly or indirectly by water availability. Under such circumstances, future water
53 modeling tools should be able to concurrently integrate the different sectoral objectives and resource
54 constraints (i.e., a nexus view), rather than looking at the water sector in isolation.

55 This paper provides a review of the water scarcity challenges in the coming decades and suggests
56 a nexus modeling framework that could address the identified challenges in an integrated way across
57 scales and sectors. Moreover, the paper describes the benefits of and challenges facing the
58 development of such a framework. The paper is organized as follows. First, section 2 provides an
59 overview of the future water scarcity challenges. Next, section 3 highlights the need for a nexus
60 modeling approach to assess water scarcity solutions and section 4 describes the proposed modeling
61 framework. Finally, section 5 summarizes the main conclusions.

62 **2. A challenging future for water resources**

63 Water scarcity has become a critical environmental issue worldwide. The reasons are the large
64 increase in global water withdrawals in the last century from 600 to 3900 km³, driven by the intensive
65 growth of population and income, coupled with a questionable performance by regional water
66 governance [6, 7, 8]. This huge abstraction of water resources has resulted in many regions undergoing

67 pervasive water scarcity conditions such as in the western part of the United States, parts of the
68 Middle East, northern Africa, southern Europe, parts of Australia, northern China, as well as many
69 parts of Northwest India and Pakistan [9]. Water resources are being heavily depleted in these regions
70 and their quality degraded, with obvious impacts on river and groundwater systems and valuable
71 aquatic ecosystems [10]. The scarcity problems were induced at first by extractions of surface waters,
72 with the level of over-extraction (i.e., extractions that occurred at the expense of environmental flow
73 requirements) amounting to 270 km³ per year in 2010 [11]. But recently water scarcity is worsening
74 because of the unprecedented depletion of groundwater. Between 1960 and 2010, global
75 groundwater extractions increased substantially from 372 to 952 km³ per year, pushing depletion (i.e.,
76 extractions in excess of natural recharge) from 90 to 304 km³ [12]. The consequence of this overuse
77 of water resources has been a severe biodiversity decline in aquatic ecosystems that exceeds by far
78 that of terrestrial and marine ecosystems [13].

79 Water scarcity is expected to further exacerbate in the coming decades due to the combined
80 effects of growing water withdrawals, the impacts of climate change, increasing demand for
81 environmental flow protection, and water quality degradation (Figure 1) [3**, 14*]. Future projections
82 from the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) indicate that by 2050 the global population will grow
83 to 8.5-10 billion people (Figure 2a) and income will be 2-4 times higher than it was in 2010 (Figure 2b)
84 [15, 16]. This considerable increase will bring a corresponding rise in global water demand [17]. Global
85 water withdrawals of domestic and industrial sectors are projected to reach 1980-2700 km³ per year
86 by 2050, depending on SSP scenarios, which is an increase of 55 to 113% compared to the present
87 water withdrawals (1270 km³ per year in 2010) (Figure 2d) [18]. Moreover, food demand is also
88 expected to increase. For example, worldwide cereal and meat demand is projected to increase
89 between 2005 and 2050 by 50 and 80%, respectively. Agricultural production is thus required to
90 expand and intensify to keep up with food demand, with irrigated agriculture playing a major role. At
91 present, 17% of agricultural lands are irrigated, yet they account for 40% of global food production
92 [19]. Irrigation water withdrawals amount to 2490 km³ per year, representing about 70% of the global
93 water withdrawal [20] and accounting for about 90% of the global water consumption (i.e., water
94 withdrawal minus return flow) [21, 22]. Recent projections of future change in irrigated area from the
95 Global Agro-ecological Zones (GAEZ) model according to SSP scenarios indicate that global irrigated
96 area will expand 12-20% by 2050 compared to 2010 (Figure 2c) [23]. This land expansion will increase
97 irrigation water withdrawals that could reach between 2945 and 3200 km³ per year in 2050, which is
98 an increase of 18-29% compared to 2010.

99 At the same time, the water supply is subject to large uncertainties due to the impacts of changing
100 climatic conditions, water quality degradation, and environmental flow requirements. Climate change

101 is expected to affect water resources availability in all parts of the world [9]. Significant reductions in
102 freshwater supply are projected in Mediterranean area and in the Middle East, but also in Central and
103 South America and parts of Australia. These reductions of water availability will be combined with
104 increases of irrigation water requirements. In some other regions at high northern latitudes, in eastern
105 Africa and the Indian subcontinent, climate change will likely increase water availability, which could
106 in principle support the expansion of the water supply system, although substantial investments in
107 infrastructure would be required [24]. Moreover, climate change is expected to bring more extreme
108 and frequent droughts in many parts of the world [25]. During recent decades, global nutrient
109 pollution from both diffuse (e.g., fertilizers) and point (e.g., sewage systems) sources has been
110 increasing rapidly [26]. Considering future projections of cropland expansion and intensification,
111 population growth, and urbanization, global nutrient pollution is expected to keep increasing, causing
112 further degradation of downstream water quality and eutrophication of water bodies [27]. Emerging
113 demands for environmental protection in the form of secured minimum flows for aquatic ecosystems
114 will put additional pressure on water supply in the future. Jagermeyr et al. [28*] indicate that by
115 satisfying environmental flow requirements, half of the globally irrigated cropland would face
116 production losses of more than 10%, with losses reaching 20–30% of total production in some regions
117 such as Central and South Asia.

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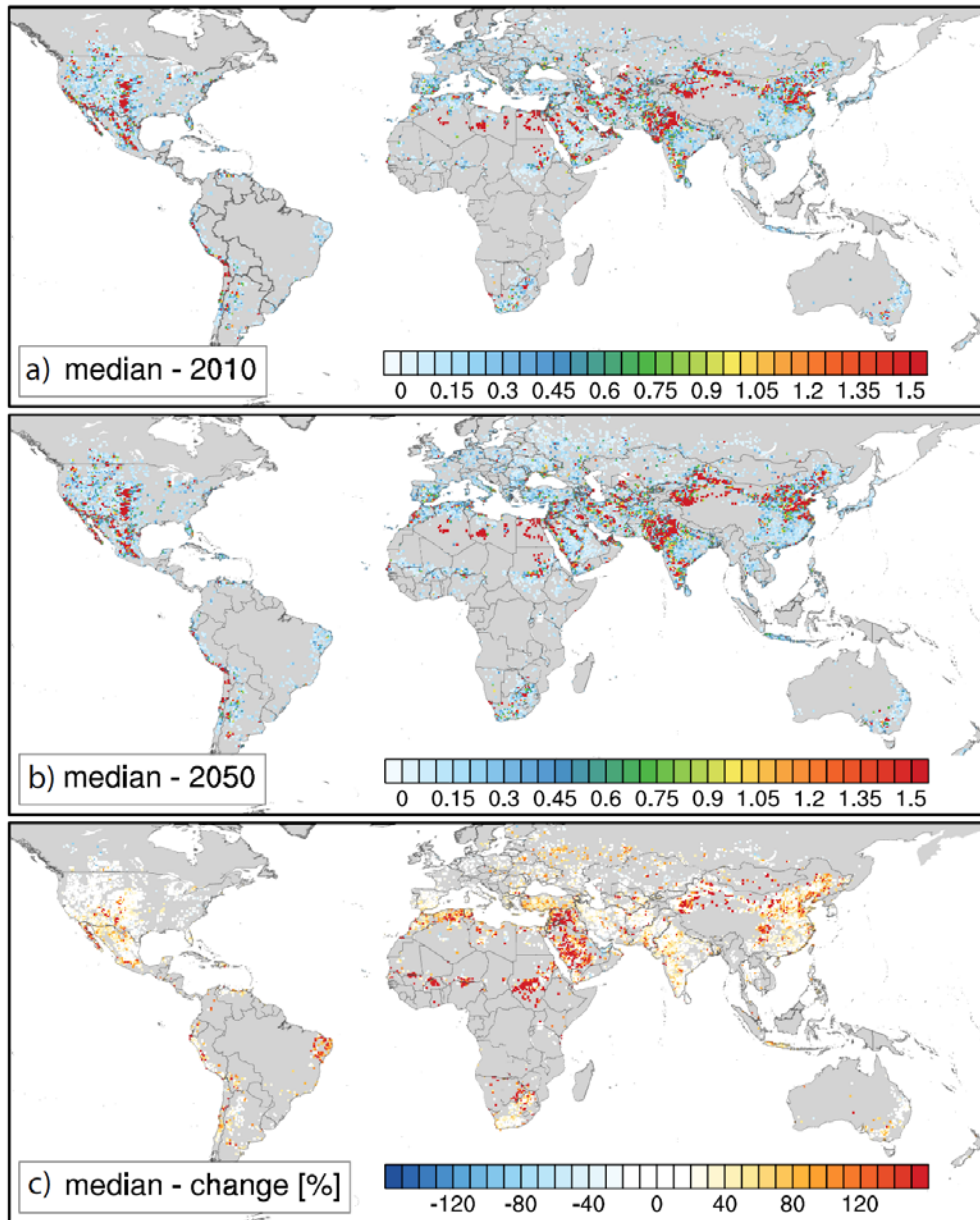


Figure 1. Median of the Water Scarcity Index (WSI) for 2010 (top row) and 2050 (middle row) derived from a multi-model, multi-scenario ensemble of 45 global water scarcity projections. WSI is the ratio of total withdrawals for human use to total available surface water resources. Regions are considered water-scarce if the ratio is between 0.2 and 0.4, and severely water-scarce if the ratio is greater than 0.4. All grid points with the WSI being below 0.1 are considered as non-water scarce and are masked. Grid points with very low average water demand are also masked. Relative changes [%] in the median of the WSI between 2010 and 2050 are displayed in the bottom row. For irrigation water demand projections, historical values (the year 2000) are used for irrigated areas and irrigation efficiency [3**].

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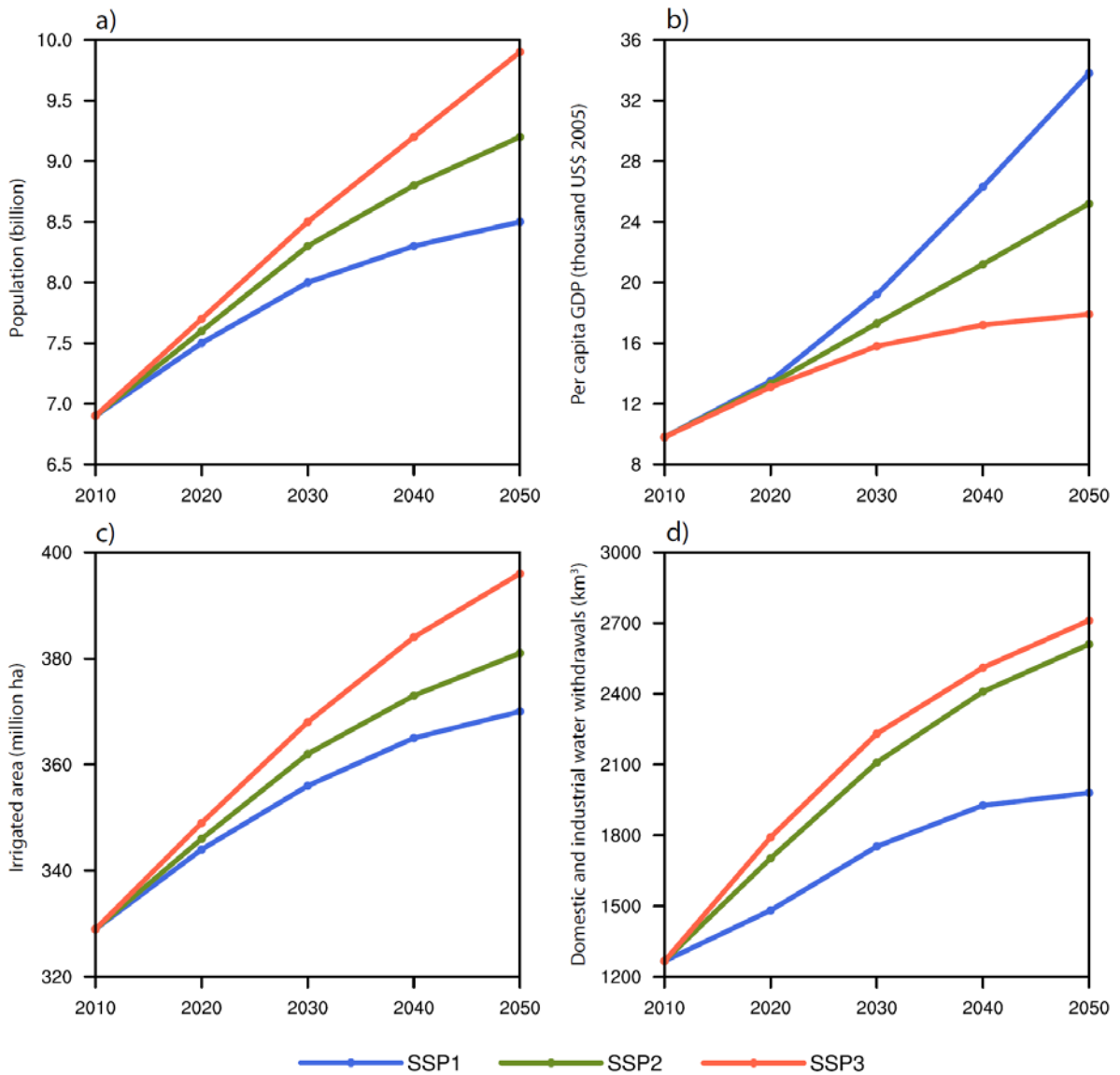


Figure 2. a) Projections of global population between 2010 and 2050 by SSP scenario taken from KC and Lutz [15]. b) Projections of per capita Global Domestic Product (GDP) between 2010 and 2050 by SSP scenario taken from Dellink et al. [16]. c) Projections of global harvested irrigated area between 2010 and 2050 by SSP scenario based on updated calculations using GAEZ model [23]. d) Global domestic and industrial water withdrawals between 2010 and 2050 by SSP scenario taken from Wada et al. [18].

194 **3. A need for a nexus modeling approach to assess water scarcity solutions**

195 A wide range of solution options could be implemented to address the growing water scarcity,
196 including supply- and demand-side management options that span the water, energy, and agricultural
197 sectors. The supply options are investments in water infrastructure and advanced treatment
198 technologies (e.g., storage facilities, water transfer, water recycling and reuse, and desalination). The
199 demand management options are improvements in water-use efficiency (e.g., use of more efficient
200 irrigation systems and domestic devices, reducing leakage in water infrastructure), changes in water
201 allocation mechanisms (e.g., use of market-based allocation), improvements in crop water
202 productivity (e.g., use of new cultivars or higher efficiency of nutrient application), production
203 reallocation and virtual water trade (e.g., reducing the production of water-intensive products and
204 relying on imports from areas with abundant water resources), and reducing water demand through
205 lifestyle changes related to food and energy consumption (e.g., adopting healthy diets, reducing food
206 waste), among many others [4**, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34]. However, these options involve tradeoffs
207 among various societal objectives, especially when the interactions between these objectives are not
208 properly considered. For example, Dalin et al. [35**] showed that international trade aiming to
209 achieve food security triggered large irrigation-based groundwater depletion in many parts of the
210 world threatening water security. Liu et al. [36**] found that pursuing sustainable irrigation may
211 constrain achieving food security and other environmental goals due to higher food prices and
212 cropland expansion. Despite these tradeoffs, synergies among options also exist. For instance,
213 advancements in treatment technologies have increased the energy efficiency of wastewater
214 treatment plants, thereby reducing energy use while increasing water supply for irrigation [37], and
215 development of drought-tolerant crops could at the same time reduce irrigation water use and save
216 energy used by irrigation systems [38].

217 From a modeling perspective, significant efforts have been made to analyze nexus issues from
218 various aspects including calculation of resource flows and their dependencies, assessment of
219 technology and policy applications, and quantification of system performance. Mathematical
220 programming with optimization [39] or simulation models [40] have been used to create tradeoff
221 frontiers between water supply and quality, irrigation production, power generation, economic
222 benefits, and environmental requirements. Embedded resource accounting approaches have also
223 been used, such as life cycle and footprint assessment methods [41, 42], which reveal the hidden
224 linkages between nexus resources, the challenges facing the achievement of some of the Sustainable
225 Development Goals (SDGs), and the tradeoffs and synergies throughout the value chain [43, 44].
226 Another method is Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) modeling to evaluate the impacts of
227 policies on the entire nexus system, rather than focusing only on how economics affects one sector

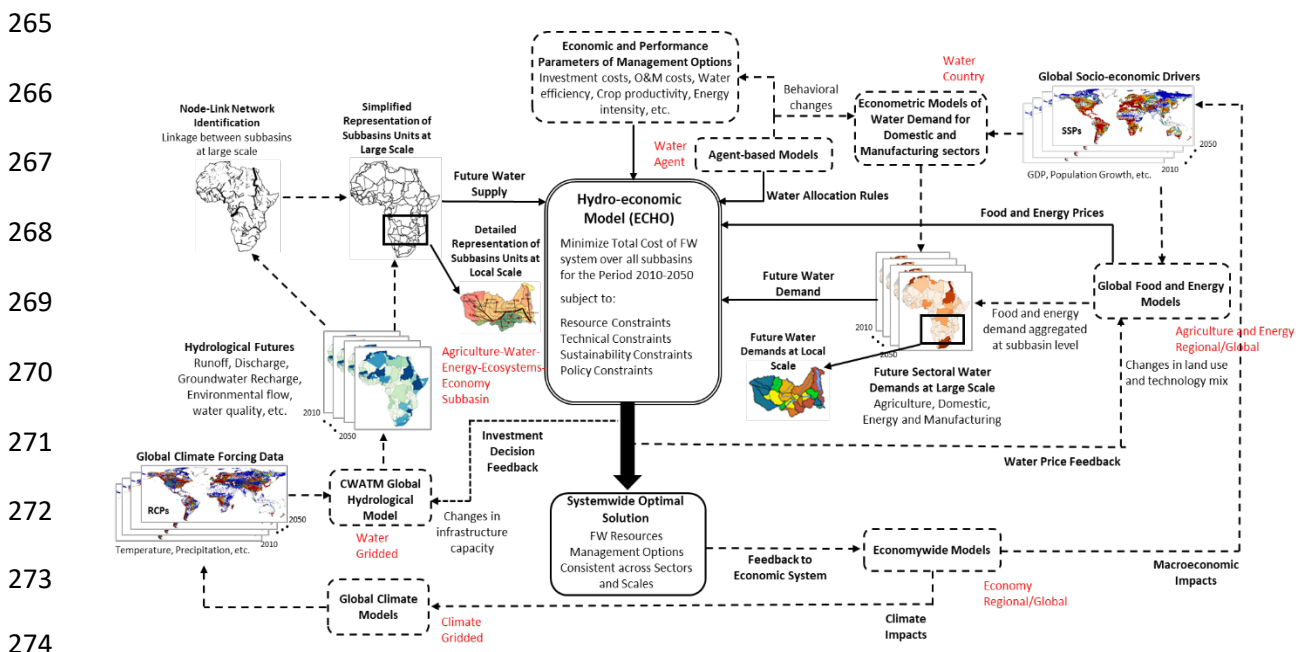
228 [45]. Integrated assessment models have been employed to establish tradeoffs between climate
229 change mitigation, energy system transformation and water supply [46], and between agricultural
230 production and water scarcity [47]. Other nexus methods that have been used in the literature include
231 system dynamics and agent-based modeling, econometric analysis, and ecological network analysis
232 [48].

233 Despite significant advances in nexus modeling, there are still many challenges that face the
234 development of efficient nexus tools capable of concurrently integrating the different sectoral
235 objectives and resource constraints. One important challenge is related to methods of analysis that
236 vary in response to the scale, sectors, and research priorities of a specific nexus system. Specifically, a
237 higher degree of data aggregation is required as the system scale moves up. Conversely, more detail
238 of the processes of nexus system should be represented, as the system scales down. However, the
239 ability to model at multiple spatial scales and across sectors is increasingly necessary given that local
240 conditions constrain nexus supply systems, while some policy interventions such as international trade
241 and transboundary agreements can only be assessed at global and regional scales. Moreover,
242 solutions identified at the large scale need to be validated in the local context given that management,
243 policy, and investment decisions are made at national and sub-national levels. This level of complexity
244 indicates that no single model or tool could cover the entire nexus system challenges [49]. Therefore,
245 there is a pressing need for new tools and methods that connect inputs and outputs between well-
246 established models, followed by analysis of the results in an integrated way. The CLEWS framework
247 (climate, land-use, energy and water strategies) [50] goes some way towards this and is being tested
248 for various locations. It included the use of publicly available tools such as LEAP and WEAP
249 (respectively, Long-range Energy Alternatives Planning System and the Water Evaluation And Planning
250 System). Nevertheless, integrating models across scales to enable decision-makers to distil
251 information and consider the impacts at a range of scales, is still required [51].

252 **4. A nexus modeling framework**

253 This paper proposes the development and use of a nested multi-scale and cross-sector modeling
254 framework integrating various spatial scales (from local to global) and sectoral models (including
255 water and food, but also energy, ecosystems and economy) to provide a broader perspective for the
256 design of water scarcity solutions consistent across sectors and scales (Figure 3). In recent decades,
257 hydro-economic models (HEMs) have emerged as an important tool for informing basin-scale water
258 resources planning because they include an integrated representation of the main features of water
259 resource systems [52]. These features are usually represented using a set of physical and management
260 constraints, with optimization algorithms used to choose a set of feasible decisions from the
261 perspective of specific policy objectives [53]. Cai et al. [54] indicate that HEMs can be naturally

262 extended to modeling nexus systems by adding physical-economic relationships of food and energy
 263 at the large scale and linkages to more sectoral-oriented models. Our proposed framework places
 264 HEMs in the center of the nexus tool, as a linker platform for different models.



275 Figure 3. The proposed nested multi-scale and cross-sector modeling framework for integrating Food-Water
 276 (FW) nexus solutions. ECHO is the Extended Continental-scale Hydro-economic Optimization model. CWATM is
 277 the Community WATER Model. Dashed-lined boxes denote intermediate models used to generate input data,
 278 double-lined box represents the hydro-economic model, and the solid box indicates the results. Dashed arrows
 279 denote input data or feedbacks, and solid arrows indicate main input data needed for the optimization.
 280 Captions in red indicate the sector and spatial resolution covered by each model.

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 282 An example of such extension is the Extended Continental-scale Hydro-economic Optimization
 283 (ECHO) model developed by Kahil et al. [4**]. ECHO covers an extensive number of subbasin units
 284 within a reduced-form transboundary river network and combines various components, including
 285 hydrology, agriculture and energy uses, and economics into a holistic large-scale modeling framework.
 286 ECHO minimizes the total investment and operating costs of a wide variety of management options
 287 that span the water, energy, and agricultural systems, in order to satisfy sectoral demands of these
 288 resources over a long-term planning horizon (e.g., a decade or more) across subbasins at a continental
 289 scale. ECHO is solved in its entirety where information between components, including feedbacks, is
 290 transferred endogenously. A certain number of simplifying assumptions related to the representation
 291 of complex processes and data were used in defining the structure of ECHO. Despite these limitations,
 292 ECHO can identify a broader solution space, achieving overall efficiency of water, food and energy
 293 resources utilization and producing synergistic benefits across large spatial domains.

294 ECHO and similar HEMs could benefit in the future by establishing linkages to different
295 complementary sectoral-oriented models that operate at different spatial resolutions such as the ones
296 shown in the proposed modeling framework in Figure 3. For instance, linkage to global gridded
297 hydrological models (GHMs), such as the Community Water Model (CWatM) that represents
298 hydrological processes at high spatial resolution (e.g., 0.5° or 5') [55], provides a unique opportunity
299 to tackle data limitation for many ungaged river basins (e.g., in Africa). GHMs generate information
300 on hydrologic flows entering and leaving the modeled domain and relevant internal inflows such as
301 runoff and groundwater recharge as well as water quality parameters. GHMs, however, do not
302 account for the economic value of water, with water demands usually represented by fixed water
303 requirements. This represents a static view of water demands which can lead to misguided decisions.
304 HEMs are designed to account for the economic value of water by seeking least-cost options for
305 meeting growing and changing demands for water. These optimized outcomes could be incorporated
306 into GHMs to re-simulate hydrological impacts. For instance, Blanco-Gutiérrez et al. [56] linked an
307 annual farm-level agro-economic model to a monthly basin-level hydrological model using a data
308 exchange interface and showed that this linkage enabled a better representation of water resource
309 constraints in the economic model and a more realistic farmer behavior in the hydrological model.
310 Furthermore, linkages of HEMs to models representing food and energy markets at regional or global
311 scale could also bring price feedbacks to the local scale, leading to changes in food and energy
312 demands that could impact agriculture and energy sector developments and their ensuing water
313 demands. HEMs could provide these global models with information on the cost of water supply as
314 well as the scarcity value of water that would likely influence initial technology choices. An illustration
315 of such a possibility is the study of Vinca et al. [57] that developed an engineering-economic model
316 representing water and energy technological choices and resources availability at the basin-level
317 linked to the MESSAGEix energy model representing global energy markets and climate mitigation
318 targets.

319 Agent-based models (ABMs) represent an emerging bottom-up approach to describe
320 heterogeneous behaviors of numerous agents in one system that interact with and influence each
321 other, learn from their experiences, and adapt their behaviors [58]. Linkage to ABMs could provide a
322 more realistic and effective representation of complex social systems in HEMs (e.g., water sharing
323 mechanisms between agents, water allocation priority among sectors, reservoir operation rules),
324 beyond the optimized behavior. For instance, Khan et al. [59] developed a coupled agent-based and
325 hydrologic-agronomic models to simulate the impacts of water resource management decisions on
326 the food-water-energy-environment nexus at basin scale. The procedure involved delineating the river
327 basin into homogenous water management units (i.e., autonomous agents) making decisions

328 concerning reservoir operation and irrigated area in one time step within the ABM. These decisions
329 are then used as input for the calibrated hydrologic-agronomic model that simulates the hydrology
330 and crop yields for the next time step at the sub-basin level, which are send back to the ABM to update
331 decisions for that time step. The results of this study showed the reciprocal interactions and co-
332 evolution of the natural and human systems providing a holistic understanding of the nexus system.
333 Lastly, while solution options implemented at the sectoral and local (micro) levels could lead to
334 desirable results, micro considerations may also lead to suboptimal outcomes, from a social point of
335 view. This point is demonstrated in various studies on economy-wide considerations, which indicated
336 that, for example, reforms in sectors other than agriculture have major impacts on rural households'
337 income, and water reforms designed for irrigated agriculture without taking into account reforms in
338 non-agricultural sectors, may lower overall productivity of irrigation water and have negative impact
339 on the other sectors competing for water [60]. Yu et al. [61] linked a HEM to a CGE model to investigate
340 solution options to deal with climate change impact on water resources in the Indus basin. This
341 coupled model enabled not only the possibility to address efficiency aspects of options, but also their
342 equity and distributional implications.

343 The development of a complex modeling framework such as the ones shown in the proposed
344 modeling framework in Figure 3 is challenging due to extensive data requirements, different model
345 structures, and spatial and temporal resolutions. Wada et al. [18] indicate that using different GHMs
346 to estimate domestic and industrial water withdrawals led to divergent results, even when input data
347 were harmonized, because of the different modeling approaches. For instance, GHMs and ABMs
348 usually use simulation to represent complex systems with nonlinear physical or institutional processes,
349 while HEMs and global food and energy market models use optimization techniques to identify
350 allocation and operation decisions. Simulation and optimization could perform well together, by using
351 optimization to identify promising solution strategies and simulation models to test and refine these
352 in more detail. One important challenge facing the linkage of models is the different spatial and
353 temporal resolutions. For instance, GHMs run at grid scale on a daily time step, while HEMs are
354 typically developed at basin scale with monthly or yearly time scales. Food and energy market models
355 and economy-wide models are developed at country or regional level with yearly time scale.
356 Accommodating these different spatial and temporal resolutions would require developing
357 intermediate exchange interfaces that could scale input and output data to the modeled domain. As
358 a final remark, linking different complementary models could increase the quality of the nexus tool,
359 but it could also introduce obstacles related to the high model complexity, user-unfriendly interface,
360 and extensive data requirements [62, 63]. Sustainable implementation of any nexus tool will require

361 greater accessibility such that they may be more widely deployed by practitioners, as well as
362 harmonization of modeling approaches and input data.

363 **5. Conclusions**

364 Water scarcity has increased substantially in the last decades in many parts of the world, and it is
365 expected to further exacerbate in the future driven by increasing water withdrawals and shrinking
366 water availability. A wide range of solution options could be implemented to address this growing
367 water scarcity, including supply- and demand-side management options spanning the water, energy,
368 and agricultural sectors. These sectors are intertwined, and tightly linked also to other important
369 societal objectives such as ecosystem health and climate system. Water is a key feature in nexus
370 system, given that all the other features are affected either directly or indirectly, by water availability.
371 Under such circumstances, future water modeling tools should be able to concurrently integrate the
372 different societal objectives and resource constraints to identify a broader solution space for the
373 interconnected resources. This paper suggests addressing this complex problem using a nexus
374 modeling framework that connects inputs and outputs between well-established sectoral-oriented
375 models. The application of this framework to assess water scarcity solutions is currently limited, but
376 promising for future research.

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403 **Conflict of interest**

404 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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443 ** of outstanding interest

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