



Peer-Reviewed, International,
Academic Research Journal

ISSN : 3048-6297



Citation

Loseva, N. (2022). Navigating the Waters: Exploring the Challenges and Strategies of Water Governance and Water Resource Management. *Social Science Chronicle*, Vol. 2, Issue - 1, pp. 1-18.

Digital Object Identifier (DOI)

<https://doi.org/10.56106/ssc.2022.004>

Received - January 09, 2022

Accepted - May 20, 2022

Published - May 27, 2022

Web-Link

All the contents of this peer reviewed article as well as author details are available at <http://socialsciencechronicle.com/article-ssc-2022-004>

Copyright

The copyright of this article is reserved with the author/s.
© 2022, Natalia Loseva.

This publication is distributed under the terms of Creative Commons Attribution, Non-Commercial, Share Alike 4.0 International License. It permits unrestricted copying and redistribution of this publication in any medium or format.



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Navigating the Waters: Exploring the Challenges and Strategies of Water Governance and Water Resource Management

Natalia Loseva^{1*}

¹ South Ural State University, Chelyabinsk, Russia.

* Corresponding Author

Abstract

Securing sustainable water supplies is a global imperative, and effective water quality management plays a pivotal role in achieving this goal. This comprehensive study evaluates the strategies and policies employed by six nations—Australia, Brazil, China, India, South Africa, and Sweden—in regulating water quality. It underscores the critical importance of water quality management for both ecosystems and human populations, emphasizing the urgent need for ongoing attention and efficient techniques. The study begins by highlighting the pressing challenges associated with water quality, including pollution, drought, and the impacts of climate change. It outlines the approaches taken by each of the six nations to address these issues. Australia has invested in infrastructure projects like the Snowy Mountains Scheme and the Murray-Darling Basin Plan to enhance water storage and transportation, bolstering water management across the country. Similarly, Brazil has pursued strategies like the Sobradinho Dam and the São Francisco River Integration Project, aimed at providing hydroelectric power and irrigation water for agriculture. China, on the other hand, has adopted a multifaceted approach to combat water pollution. This includes the implementation of a “river chief” system to oversee water resources, monitor water quality, and ensure its protection. India’s efforts to address water quality challenges include the construction of the Sardar Sarovar Dam and the ambitious Interlinking of Rivers Project, which aims to transfer water from water-rich to water-scarce regions while also generating hydroelectric power and supporting agriculture. The study concludes by acknowledging its limitations, particularly the scarcity of research on water quality management methods and regulations in many nations. It advocates for further investigation and cross-national comparisons to enhance our understanding of the effectiveness of water quality management systems. Additionally, the study recommends a comprehensive approach to water quality management that considers the intricate relationships between various industries and the environment.

Keywords

Climate Change, Environmental Protection, Geography, Infrastructure, International Cooperation, Pollution, Public Health, Sustainability.

1. Introduction

Without water, human societies would be unable to perform their economic, social, and environmental needs. Yet, access to clean and safe water is becoming more and more difficult worldwide due to pollution, population expansion, and climate change (Ingram, 2011; Mycoo, 2018). According to UN estimates, two-thirds of the world’s population may experience water stress by 2025 and have insufficient access to sanitary facilities and clean drinking water.

Numerous nations have constructed water storage and transportation infrastructure projects to manage their water resources and handle water shortages (Akamani, 2016; Hill, 2013). Dams, canals, pipelines, and other water storage and transportation projects are constructed for uses like irrigation, domestic use, and the production of hydroelectric power. The establishment of point source contamination restrictions and the development of water quality standards are additional tools that governments have used to monitor and control water quality. This study article attempts to investigate the water management practises of several nations, including the United States, China, Australia, India, Sweden, and South Africa. The monitoring and management programmes for water quality in these countries, as well as the infrastructure projects for water storage and transportation, will be examined in this paper. This article seeks to identify best practises and possible areas for development in water resource management via a comparison and contrast of the water management methods of various nations.

Water resource management is the process of planning, developing, and managing the use of water resources in order to assure sustainable usage and availability for current and future generations (Dore, 2014; Liu, Souter, Wang, & Vollmer, 2019). This involves understanding the hydrological cycle and how water is stored, transported, and used in various sectors such as agriculture, industry, and domestic use. Hydrology is the science that investigates the characteristics, distribution, and movement of water on the earth's surface, in the soil, and in the atmosphere (Dondyaz, Carmona Moreno, & Céspedes Lorente, 2012; Herrfahrtdt-Pähle, 2014). Precipitation, evaporation, infiltration, runoff, and groundwater recharge are all components of the hydrological cycle that are researched. Hydrology and water resource management are closely related because of the interdependence between hydrological processes and human endeavours like changing land use, removing water, and altering the climate.

The allocation of water resources, the design of water storage infrastructure, and the management of flood and drought risks are just a few examples of how hydrological data and models are put to use in water resource management (Oberlack & Eisenack, 2018; Schneider et al., 2015). Overall, the purpose of both hydrology and water resource management is to safeguard the environment and supply society with the water it needs. Each of these facets of water resource management relies heavily on hydrology. Hydrological data, such as precipitation, streamflow, and groundwater levels, are used to analyse water resources and guide water distribution choices (Judeh, Haddad, & Özerol, 2017; Klümper, Herzfeld, & Theesfeld, 2017). Hydrological models may be used to predict the ramifications of alternate water management strategies and infrastructure development plans. Hydrological information may also be utilised to track out the origins of water pollution. Efficient water resource management involves an awareness of how human activities might alter the hydrological cycle.

For instance, alterations in land use, such as urbanisation or deforestation, may have an impact on the flow of water through an ecosystem, leading to possible changes in streamflow patterns, increased runoff, and reduced groundwater recharge. The hydrological cycle may be affected by climate change, which can alter precipitation patterns and the frequen-

cy and severity of floods and droughts (R. G. Varady, Meehan, & McGovern, 2009; Zikos & Bithas, 2006). Overall, the management of water resources and the study of hydrology are closely related, with the former providing vital information to the latter in order to make management decisions and ensure the sustainable use of water resources. For the sake of future generations, it is crucial that we give careful consideration to water resource management and hydrology. We will examine five real examples of hydrology and water resource management from around the world in this response. China is a country that faces significant water scarcity issues due to its large population and uneven distribution of water resources. To address these challenges, China has implemented a range of water resource management and hydrology practises, including the construction of the Three Gorges Dam on the Yangtze River, which is the largest hydroelectric power station in the world. Three canals have also been built in China as part of the South-to-North Water Diversion Project, which aims to divert water from the country's prosperous southern regions to its arid northern ones.

Large-scale initiatives may have a significant impact on society and the environment, including the extinction of species and the relocating of local populations (Hill, 2012; Jia & Zhu, 2021). The United States has taken various initiatives to protect the cleanliness of its water sources, including the establishment of historic laws like the Clean Water Act and the Safe Drinking Water Act. The United States Army Corps of Engineers is also in charge of the nation's water supply management and a network of dams and reservoirs that are used to control flooding. However, these practises have been criticised for their negative impacts on ecosystems and indigenous communities, as well as for their reliance on non-renewable water resources. Australia's arid climate makes it especially susceptible to drought and water scarcity.

Two examples of the water resource management and hydrology practises Australia has adopted to address these challenges are large-scale desalination plants to produce drinking water from seawater and the implementation of water trading systems to allocate water resources more effectively. However, these practises have raised concerns about their high costs and potential impacts on ecosystems and local communities (Daniell, 2012; White et al., 2019). With regard to water scarcity and pollution, India is a nation that is currently experiencing serious difficulties. To address these challenges, India has implemented a range of water resource management and hydrology practises, including the construction of large-scale dams and reservoirs for water storage and irrigation, as well as the implementation of the National River Conservation Plan to address water pollution.

Yet, these practises have been challenged for their harmful consequences on ecosystems and relocation of populations. Denmark is a country that is known for its sustainable water resource management practises, including the use of water-saving technologies, such as low-flow toilets and showerheads, and the implementation of a water pricing system that encourages conservation. Denmark has also implemented green infrastructure initiatives to reduce runoff and improve the quality of the water supply, such as rain gardens and permeable pavement. These practices, however, call for a sizable investment and might not be practical in other areas with different climatic

and socioeconomic conditions (Dell'Angelo, McCord, Gower, Carpenter, Caylor, & Evans, 2016; Knieper & Pahl-Wostl, 2016). The individual circumstances and constraints encountered by each nation have a significant impact on water resource management and hydrological methods. Although many nations have introduced creative and successful approaches, there is still considerable work to be done to guarantee the sustainable use of water resources and the preservation of ecosystems and people. The best and most sustainable approaches for each area must be found through ongoing research and collaboration.

2. Objectives of Study

In order to better understand the similarities and differences between various countries' water management systems, including those in Australia, Brazil, China, India, South Africa, Sweden, and the United States, this paper will survey those in those nations as well as Australia, Brazil, China, and South Africa. The purpose of this paper is to examine the water management strategies of these countries in order to draw attention to the similarities, differences, and efficacy of these approaches to solving water-related problems. The paper will also examine the role of government agencies, regulatory frameworks, and technological innovations in water management. A wide range of industries, including agriculture, energy, and the environment, will be evaluated as part of the study's evaluation of water management strategies. Finally, this paper seeks to identify water management best practises and recommend them to policymakers, water managers, and other stakeholders. These recommendations will seek to improve water quality, ensure water security, and encourage sustainable water management practises in light of issues such as climate change, population growth, and other concerns.

3. Water Management in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective

To ensure the availability and quality of these two vital resources, surface water and groundwater must be carefully managed. In this answer, we will look at five actual instances of surface water and groundwater management techniques from various nations, along with an assessment of their quality and availability (Huffman, 2009; Larson, Wiek, & Keeler, 2013). Groundwater is a major source of drinking water and agricultural irrigation in the United States. The United States Geological Survey undertakes frequent groundwater monitoring and assessment programmes to evaluate groundwater quality and availability. These programmes collect data on groundwater quantity, quality, and sustainability. Additionally, the Clean Water Act, which sets standards for water quality and mandates monitoring and reporting of pollutants, is another tool used by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to regulate the quality of surface water resources.

Australia's biggest issues are water scarcity and the management of both surface water and groundwater resources. Australia has taken several measures to manage its groundwater in response to these issues. They include constructing water allocation plans with sustainable extraction limitations and implementing monitoring programmes to check groundwater quality and availability (Jain, Agarwal, Singh, Jain, Agarwal, &

Singh, 2007; Rodina, 2019). Australia has employed a variety of surface water management strategies, such as the building of large-scale reservoirs and the establishment of water trading networks to distribute water resources more effectively. China has a lot of difficulties keeping its surface and subsurface water sources clean and properly maintained. In order to track and record data on water quality, the Chinese government established the National Groundwater Monitoring Network and the National Surface Water Quality Monitoring Network in response to these problems. The Water Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan and the Three Red Lines policy are only two examples of China's efforts to improve water resource management and cut down on pollution at the water's surface. A number of innovative approaches to surface water and groundwater management have been pioneered in Germany, including cutting-edge water treatment technologies and pricing structures designed to promote water conservation (Dore & Lebel, 2010; Mohammed, Bolten, Souter, Shaad, & Vollmer, 2022). In order to determine the quality and quantity of groundwater, assessment and monitoring programmes are among the groundwater protection measures that are in place in Germany.

Surface and underground water management present serious difficulties for the African nation of South Africa. To address these issues, South Africa has implemented a number of water management practices, including catchment management organisations to oversee the management of surface water resources and groundwater monitoring and assessment programmes to assess the quality and availability of groundwater resources. Additionally, South Africa has implemented a range of water conservation measures, such as the implementation of water restrictions and the development of water demand management strategies (Rogers & Hall, 2003; Singh, Saha, & Tyagi, 2019). In conclusion, the assessment of surface water and groundwater quality and availability is an important part of water resource management. To manage these resources, various practises have been adopted by nations all over the world, including the creation of monitoring and assessment programs, the implementation of conservation measures, and the creation of cutting-edge water treatment technologies. Identifying and implementing the most effective and sustainable practises for each location will need continual study and cooperation. One of the most important aspects of water resource management is predicting the future water needs of different industries.

4. From Crisis to Opportunity: Addressing Water Quality Challenges Around the World

In order to ensure the sustainable use of water resources in the face of rising populations and shifting climates, it is crucial to develop strategies to meet these demands. In this answer, we will study 5 genuine instances of water demand estimates and plan formulation from various nations. India has significant issues with resource management and a lack of water (Garrick, Bark, Connor, & Banerjee, 2012; Pahl-Wostl et al., 2013). India has taken many actions to address these problems, such as implementing water conservation techniques like rainwater harvesting, wastewater treatment, and reuse, and creating water allocation plans for domestic, industrial, and agricultural use. Australia is a country that is known for its advanced water management practices, including the development of sophisticated water allocation plans that consider current and future

water demands of various sectors. Water trading networks and the use of reclaimed water for irrigation are only two examples of the many water-saving initiatives Australia has undertaken (Groenfeldt & Schmidt, 2013; Rivera-Torres & Gerlak, 2021). China is a nation that encounters significant problems with pollution and a lack of water. To address these challenges, China has implemented a range of water demand estimation and strategy development practises, including the development of water allocation plans that prioritise water use for agriculture, industry, and domestic use. Moreover, China has developed a variety of water conservation initiatives, such as the use of reclaimed water in industrial and municipal applications and the installation of water-saving technology in agriculture. For its domestic, industrial, and agricultural needs, the United States is a country that heavily relies on its water resources. To meet the issues of water scarcity, the United States has developed a variety of water demand estimates and strategy formulation approaches, including the creation of water conservation measures such as water pricing schemes and the use of recycled water for irrigation (Lalika, Meire, & Ngaga, 2015; Schneider & Homewood, 2013).

A significant problem with water scarcity and water resource management is faced by South Africa. To address these difficulties, South Africa has established a variety of water demand assessment and strategy creation approaches, including the establishment of water allocation plans for agriculture, industry, and home usage. South Africa has also implemented a number of water conservation measures, including the implementation of water restrictions and the use of recycled water for industrial and municipal purposes. Water demand estimation and strategy development are critical aspects of water resource management (Dore, Lebel, & Molle, 2012; Malmer, Ardö, Scott, Vignola, & Xu, 2010). Several strategies have been used by countries throughout the globe to anticipate the existing and future water needs of different sectors. Plans for allocating water, strategies for water conservation, and the application of recycled water are a few examples. Each area will require ongoing research and collaboration to identify the most effective, long-lasting approaches to use. Allocating available water supplies to various users is an important part of water resource management. At times of shortage, it becomes even more necessary to prioritise some uses above others to guarantee that basic demands are addressed (Giordano & Shah, 2014; Pahl-Wostl, Lebel, Knieper, & Nikitina, 2012). Five actual cases of water resource distribution in various nations will be discussed in this reply. South Africa is a country with serious problems in water supply and resource management. To address these difficulties, South Africa has established a number of water allocation strategies, including the construction of water allocation plans that prioritise water usage for basic purposes such as drinking water and sanitation above other uses like irrigation and industrial uses.

5. The Role of Government in Managing Water Resources: A Cross-Country Analysis

Australia is a nation with highly developed water allocation plans that take into account the demands of various users and give some uses priority over others. When water resources are limited, for instance, human consumption, sanitation, and agriculture take precedence over other sectors like industrial (Biswas & Tortajada, 2010; Grafton et al., 2013). The United

States has developed a number of water allocation strategies, such as water rights systems that give some users more priority than others. But in some places, agricultural needs come before basic necessities like access to clean water and sanitary facilities. A variety of water allocation strategies have been put into place in China, such as the creation of water allocation plans that give higher priority to the use of water for necessities like drinking water and sanitation than to uses like industrial and agricultural ones. A variety of water allocation practises have been put into place in India, including the creation of water allocation plans that give higher priority to the use of water for necessities like drinking water and crop irrigation than to uses like industrial production. Water resource management relies heavily on the equitable distribution of water supplies to various end-users (Cooley et al., 2013, 2014; Gawel & Bernsen, 2011). There are many methods that countries use to fairly distribute their water supply, such as water allocation plans, water rights systems, and the prioritisation of some water uses over others during drought.

To find and use the most efficient and long-lasting approaches for each area, ongoing research and collaboration will be essential. An integral part of managing water resources is designing and building the infrastructure necessary to transport and store water where and when it is needed. In this reply, we'll look at five actual pieces of water storage and transportation infrastructure from around the world. The United States is a country that has implemented a range of water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects, including the Hoover Dam on the Colorado River, which provides water for irrigation, municipal use, and hydroelectric power generation. Other examples include the California State Water Project, which uses a system of canals and pipelines to transport water from Northern California to Southern California, and the Central Arizona Project, which brings water from the Colorado River to the Central Valley of Arizona. China is a country that has created a number of water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects, notably the Three Gorges Dam on the Yangtze River, which creates hydroelectric power and helps to avert floods.

Two other projects are the Yellow River Diversion Project, which redirects Yellow River water to replenish groundwater in the North China Plain, and the South-to-North Water Transfer Project, which uses a network of canals and pipelines to transport Yangtze River water to the dry northern regions of China (Hammond, 2013; Pahl-Wostl, Gupta, & Petry, 2008; Ricart, Rico, Kirk, Bülow, Ribas-Palom, & Pavón, 2019). Australia is a country that has implemented a range of water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects, including the Snowy Mountains Scheme, which diverts water from the Snowy River to generate hydroelectric power and provide irrigation water for agriculture. Additional examples include the Murray-Darling Basin Plan, which intends to enhance water management in the Murray-Darling Basin via a number of measures, including water storage and transportation facilities. Brazil is a country that has implemented a range of water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects, including the So Bradinho Dam on the São Francisco River, which provides hydroelectric power and irrigation water for agriculture. The So Francisco River Integration Project is another example; this initiative involves the construction of a system of canals and pipelines to transport water from the So Francisco River to the dry regions of the Northeast.

6. Innovative Solutions for Sustainable Water Management: A Review of Best Practices

The Sardar Sarovar Dam on the Narmada River, which generates hydroelectric power and irrigation water for agriculture, is one of the water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects that India has developed. Additional examples include the Interlinking of Rivers Project, which intends to connect the rivers of India via a system of canals and pipes in order to move water from water-rich areas to water-scarce parts. Countries around the world have implemented a range of water storage and conveyance infrastructure projects, including dams, canals, and pipelines to manage water resources and provide water for essential needs, such as irrigation, municipal use, and hydroelectric power generation (De Araújo, Mamede, & De Lima, 2018; R. Varady, Gerlak, & Haverland, 2009; Wiegleb & Bruns, 2018). However, it is essential to make sure that these initiatives are carried out sustainably and do not have negative impacts on the environment or people. Continuous study and cooperation will be necessary to identify and develop the most effective and sustainable water storage and transportation infrastructure projects for each area. To ensure that water is safe for the health of people and the environment, monitoring and controlling water quality is a crucial component of managing water resources.

The five case studies of successful water quality monitoring and management techniques from around the world will be examined in this response. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) is in charge of overseeing the nation's water supply. In addition to regulating point source pollution from businesses and wastewater treatment facilities, the EPA also establishes standards for water quality. The Safe Drinking Water Act also regulates how well-maintained public water supplies must be. China is a nation that has encountered serious water pollution concerns. To lessen water pollution, the Chinese government has implemented a number of programs, including monitoring and management. The Ministry of Ecology and Environment is tasked with controlling water quality, while the National Environmental Monitoring Center (NEMC) is in charge of conducting regular checks on the quality of the water. The government has also developed a "river chief" system, which allocates local leaders to oversee and safeguard water resources in their districts (Beniston, Stoffel, & Hill, 2011; Bradford, Ovsenek, & Bharadwaj, 2017; Pedregal, Cabello, Hernandez-Mora, Limones, & Del Moral, 2015).

Australia is a nation that has experienced problems with water quality as a result of drought and climate change. The government has implemented various measures to address water quality, including monitoring and managing water quality in the Murray-Darling Basin. The Murray-Darling Basin Authority, which is in charge of water management in the basin, has instituted numerous measures, such as water quality monitoring, to guarantee that all water in the basin is fit for human and environmental consumption. Sweden is a country that has done a lot of initiatives to assure water quality. Water quality assessments and management choices are made by the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency. In addition, Sweden has introduced a "polluter pays" approach, which implies that companies and other polluters are accountable for the expenses of controlling their pollution. This has incentivized companies to reduce their pollution levels and has helped to improve water quality (Hassenforder & Barone, 2018; Serrano, 2011). Due

to pollution and drought, South Africa has had serious problems with its water supply. The government has adopted numerous initiatives to address water quality, including monitoring and controlling water quality. The Department of Water and Sanitation is responsible for managing water quality, and the National Water Act sets water quality standards.

7. The Economics of Water: Exploring the Costs and Benefits of Water Infrastructure Investment

The government has also implemented a "Blue Drop" programme, which assesses the quality of drinking water supplies and provides incentives for municipalities to improve the quality of their water. Continuous water quality monitoring and management are essential to the preservation of healthy ecosystems and human populations (Claassen, 2013; Herrfahrtd-Pähle, 2013; Hooper, 2003). Water quality standards have been established, point-source pollution has been regulated, the polluter-pays principle has been implemented, and water quality has been monitored in many countries around the world. Finding and implementing the best methods for managing water quality in each region will require continuous research and cooperation. China is one of the most populous countries in the world, and its water resources are unevenly distributed, with the majority of the water resources located in the southern regions of the country.

This has led to significant water scarcity issues in many parts of China has employed a number of water resource management and hydrological measures, including the building of the Three Gorges Dam on the Yangtze River, to solve these issues. The Yangtze River, the longest river in Asia and the third-longest river in the world, is where the Three Gorges Dam, the biggest hydroelectric power plant in the world, is situated (Katusiime & Schütt, 2020; Lubell & Edelenbos, 2013; Mersha, 2021). The dam has a capacity of 22,500 MW, which is comparable to nearly 18 nuclear power reactors, and is about 2.3 miles long and 594 feet tall. In order to build the dam, which took from 1994 to 2012, more than 1.3 million people had to relocate. The Three Gorges Dam was built, among other things, to meet China's expanding energy needs. The greatest energy user in the world, China is expected to see a 60% growth in energy use by 2035. It is anticipated that the Three Gorges Dam would produce 100 TWh of power year, which is equal to Spain's annual electricity usage. This has assisted in reducing China's dependence on coal-fired power plants, which are a significant source of the nation's air pollution. The Three Gorges Dam offers electricity advantages as well as flood control capabilities.

The Yangtze River often floods, and in the past, these floods significantly damaged the nearby settlements. The reservoir of the dam has a maximum storage capacity of 22.15 billion cubic metres, which may lessen the effects of floods along the river. The Three Gorges Dam's social and environmental effects, however, have also caused some worry. The Yangtze River's natural flow has been changed as a result of the dam, which has effects on aquatic life and water quality. Moreover, the reservoir created by the dam resulted in the destruction of cultural heritage sites and the eviction of approximately 1.3 million people (Lautze, 2014; O'Donnell, 2018; Van Buuren, 2013). The dam has furthermore come under fire for its expensive construction and potential for corruption throughout its

execution. Overall, the management of China's water resources and hydrological techniques have been significantly impacted by the building of the Three Gorges Dam. Although it has helped with energy generation and flood management, it has also sparked worries about its effects on the environment and society. China will need to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of massive water management projects like the Three Gorges Dam as it continues to handle its water shortage challenges. To safeguard the availability and quality of its water resources, the United States has established a number of hydrological and water resource management strategies.

8. Ensuring Access to Clean Water for All: A Global Call to Action

The Clean Water Act (CWA) was passed in 1972 in order to control the flow of pollutants into the country's surface waterways, which include wetlands, rivers, lakes, and streams. The CWA has played a significant role in raising the standard of water throughout the nation (Kharanagh, Banihabib, & Javadi, 2020; Ogada, Krhoda, Van Der Veen, Marani, & van Oel, 2017; Poelina, Taylor, & Perdrisat, 2019). For instance, since the act was passed, there are now 70% more U.S. waterways that are suitable for swimming and fishing. Pollutants including phosphorus, nitrogen, and sediment dumped into American waterways have decreased as a result of the CWA. The Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) was passed in 1974 in order to regulate the standard of public drinking water and safeguard public health. The SDWA governs the nation's public water systems, establishing maximum contamination levels (MCLs) for different pollutants and conducting contaminant monitoring. The SDWA has been effective in raising the quality of the public water supply. For instance, 92.9% of public water systems in the US complied with all SDWA health-based regulations in 2017.

The US Army Corps of Engineers for the purpose of administering the nation's network of dams and reservoirs for flood control and water supply management, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) is in charge. Almost 700 dams that have a storage capacity of more than 300 million acre-feet are operated and maintained by the USACE. These dams are essential for controlling flooding as well as for supplying water for agriculture, hydropower, municipal and industrial usage, and other applications. The management of the Missouri River system by the USACE has saved flood damage costing billions of dollars while still providing water for leisure, navigation, and agriculture (Hirsch, Jensen, Boer, Carrard, FitzGerald, & Lyster, 2006; Moss & Newig, 2010). To safeguard the availability and quality of its water resources, the United States has established a number of hydrological and water resource management strategies. The Safe Drinking Water Act and the Clean Water Act have been effective in raising the standard of the water and defending public health. It is essential for delivering water for varied applications and avoiding flood damage that the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers oversees a network of dams and reservoirs for flood control and water supply management. Australia has severe water shortage problems as a result of its dry environment and irregular rainfall patterns.

The nation has put a variety of water resource management and hydrological techniques into place to solve these issues. The development of massive desalination facilities to generate

drinking water from saltwater is one of Australia's most prominent operations. The Perth Seawater Desalination Plant, one of the biggest desalination facilities in the world, can produce 100 million litres of drinking water per day. Australia is home to many more sizable desalination facilities. In response to a decade-long drought in Western Australia that reduced the area's water supplies, the facility was built. Another example is the Adelaide Desalination Plant, which can produce up to 100 gegaliters of potable water annually. It was built in response to the Millennium drought, which had a serious effect on South Australia's water resources.

Water trading schemes are another method Australia has used to better effectively distribute its water resources. Similar to other commodities like oil or gold, water is seen as a good that can be purchased and sold on the market in Australia (Fischer & Ingold, 2020; Norman, Cook, & Cohen, 2015; te Wierik, Gupta, Cammeraat, & Artzy-Randrup, 2020). Water trading systems provide farmers and other water users the freedom to purchase and sell water allocations, allowing them to modify their water consumption in response to market supply and demand. With a surface area of 1 million square kilometres and a population of over 2 million, the Murray-Darling Basin is Australia's biggest and most intricate water trading system. Australia has also introduced a variety of water efficiency and conservation methods to lower water use in addition to these activities. For instance, the Australian government has funded the installation of water-saving toilets, taps, and showerheads in private residences and public buildings.

9. From Awareness to Action: Mobilizing Communities to Protect Water Resources

In order to minimise total water use during droughts, the government has also enacted water restrictions. Notwithstanding these initiatives, Australia's water shortage is still a major problem. The nation is presently going through its worst drought in decades, and many areas are having a very hard time getting enough water. In response, the Australian government has made investments in projects that would improve the nation's water infrastructure, such the Snowy 2.0 Pumped Hydro Project, which intends to expand the nation's water storage capacity and produce renewable energy. As a result of its water shortage problems, Australia has deployed a variety of cutting-edge hydrological and water resource management techniques. Large-scale desalination plant development, water trading networks, and water conservation initiatives are a few of them. The nation's attempts to manage its water resources, however, continue to be hampered by persistent drought conditions and rising water demand (Daniell, Coombes, & White, 2014; Neto et al., 2018; Rouillard, Heal, Ball, & Reeves, 2013).

Due to unequal distribution and excessive usage of its water resources, China, the nation with the largest population, has serious water shortage challenges. China has used a number of techniques for developing strategies and estimating water demand in order to solve these issues. China has put in place water allocation schemes that provide priority to the use of water in many industries, including agriculture, manufacturing, and residential consumption. These plans, which are developed at the provincial and local levels, seek to more effectively distribute water resources based on the unique requirements of each sector. For instance, the government in the Hebei Prov-

ince has put in place a water allocation plan that divides water resources among various sectors according to a tiered structure. The tiered structure places vital industries like drinking water supply first, then environmental protection, business, and finally agricultural. Drip irrigation, mulching, and rainwater collecting are just a few of the water-saving technology that China has employed in its agricultural practises. By increasing crop yields, these technologies have greatly decreased the amount of water used in agriculture (Haeffner et al., 2021; O'Donnell, Jackson, Langton, & Godden, 2022; Zwarteveen, 2015). For instance, the government in the province of Ningxia has advocated the use of drip irrigation in agriculture, which has up to 60% less water use than conventional irrigation techniques. Recycled water is now being used in China for both municipal and industrial reasons. Water that has been processed so that it may be reused for non-potable uses including irrigation, industrial operations, and toilet flushing is known as recycled water. Using recycled water lessens the need for freshwater resources and aids in resolving the problem of water shortage. For instance, the government of Beijing has put in place a water recycling system that purifies wastewater to tertiary levels and re-purposes it for industrial activities, watering of landscaping, and toilet flushing.

This has lessened the city's need for freshwater supplies and assisted with the problem of water shortage. In conclusion, China has used a variety of methods for estimating water demand and formulating strategies to deal with its serious water shortage problems. These procedures include the creation of water allocation plans that give various sectors priority when it comes to water consumption, the use of water-saving techniques in agriculture, and the use of recycled water in industrial and municipal settings. These methods have assisted in easing China's water shortage problems and lowering demand for freshwater resources. Due to its unequal distribution of water resources, expanding population, and rising water needs from diverse sectors like agriculture, industry, and residential usage, India, a nation with a population of over 1.3 billion, is confronting enormous water management difficulties.

10. The Intersection of Water and Climate Change: Challenges and Opportunities

India has responded by putting into practise a variety of hydrological and water resource management techniques to guarantee the fair and sustainable use of water resources. The building of big dams and reservoirs for water storage and irrigation is one of India's most prominent water management techniques. With a combined storage capacity of over 320 billion cubic metres, India has over 5,000 major dams. One such example is the Bhakra Dam in the northern state of Punjab. It is one of India's biggest dams, having been finished in 1963, and provides water to millions of people for household consumption, electricity, and agriculture. Another example of a sizable dam in India is the Hirakud Dam in the eastern state of Odisha. Constructed in the 1950s, it produces more than 300 MW of hydropower and supplies irrigation water to more than 400,000 hectares of agriculture.

In order to combat river water pollution, India has also put into effect the National River Conservation Plan (NRCP), which was established in 1985. The strategy calls for a number of actions, including the building of sewage treatment facilities,

the development of riverside areas, and awareness-raising efforts to support sustainable lifestyles. The Ganga River is a major focus of the NRCP, and the government has committed nearly \$3 billion to its sanitization. Some rivers in India now have better water quality thanks to the strategy, but problems still exist because of inadequate sewage treatment facilities and lax enforcement of pollution control legislation. Implementing the National Water Policy, which provides rules for the management and distribution of water resources, is another significant water management strategy in India. The policy places a strong emphasis on the need for integrated water resource management, effective water usage, and community participation in participatory techniques (Budds & Hinojosa, 2012; Gerlak, 2015; Green, Cosens, & Garmestani, 2013). The Central Water Commission and the Central Ground Water Board, which regulate water resource management at the federal and state levels, are only two of the organisations that have been created as a result of the policy.

India has also implemented numerous water conservation measures in addition to these practises. For instance, in order to increase the effectiveness of water use in agriculture, the government introduced the Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana (PMKSY) in 2015. This programme encourages farmers to employ sprinklers and other contemporary irrigation methods like drip irrigation to save water. The use of rainwater harvesting, which involves collecting and storing rainwater for domestic and agricultural use, is another illustration. Rainwater collection is now required for all structures in Tamil Nadu, and this move has improved groundwater recharge and reduced regional water shortages. In conclusion, India has used a variety of hydrological and water resource management techniques to meet its water management issues.

One of the main methods the government employs to ensure sustainable and equitable use of water resources is the construction of sizable dams and reservoirs (Armitage et al., 2015; Fernandez-Prieto & Palazzo, 2007; Mirumachi & Allan, 2007). Other important methods include the implementation of the National River Conservation Plan, the National Water Policy, and various water conservation measures. While some places now have better water supply and quality because to these techniques, there are still problems because of poor implementation, a lack of financing, and the effects of climate change. In order to guarantee the sustainable use of its water resources, Denmark has established a number of cutting-edge water resource management techniques. World attention has been drawn to Denmark's water management practises as a leading example of sustainable water management, particularly in metropolitan areas.

11. Water Security in a Changing World: A Comprehensive Analysis of the Way Forward

Water-saving technology are one of the important habits that Denmark has adopted. Low-flow toilets, showerheads, and faucets are just a few of the water-saving innovations that Denmark has pioneered and introduced, and it has made it mandatory to install them in all new construction. In cities, where water use is greatest, these technologies have helped to save a lot of water (Colloff, Grafton, & Williams, 2021; Droogers & Bouma, 2014; Huo, Dang, Song, Chen, & Mao, 2016). In spite of an increasing population, Denmark has de-

creased its urban water use by 40% since 1980. Using a water price structure that promotes conservation is another way Denmark has used to manage its water resources responsibly. The pricing scheme is based on volumetric pricing, wherein the cost of water is determined by the amount that is used. Excessive water usage carries higher costs, which motivates individuals and businesses to consume less water. Denmark is one of the countries in Europe with the lowest per-capita water use rates as a consequence. Denmark has also built a number of green infrastructure initiatives to reduce runoff and enhance water quality in addition to these efforts. The usage of rain gardens, which are intended to catch and treat stormwater runoff, is one illustration of this. The rain gardens are specifically created, manicured spaces intended to catch runoff from parking lots, roadways, and other impervious surfaces. The number of contaminants that enter rivers is decreased by filtering and cleaning the water that has been gathered.

The use of permeable pavement, which enables water to permeate through the pavement surface and seep into the ground, is another example of green infrastructure in Denmark (Berry & Mollard, 2009; Herrfahrtd-Pähle, 2015). This aids in replenishing groundwater supplies and reducing the quantity of runoff that reaches streams. A number of initiatives have also been put into place in Denmark to enhance water quality. For instance, Denmark's "Green Growth Plan" outlines a number of initiatives to cut down on fertiliser and pesticide usage as well as enhance wastewater treatment. Measures to safeguard wetlands and other significant ecosystems that promote water quality are also included in the plan. Overall, Denmark's methods for managing water resources show how crucial it is to put various safeguards in place to guarantee the sustainable use of water resources. Denmark has established itself as a leader in sustainable water management because to the use of water-saving technology, a price structure that rewards conservation, and green infrastructure that lowers runoff and improves water quality (Hilbig & Rudolph, 2019; Kibaroglu, 2019).

For drinking water, agriculture, and industrial uses, groundwater is a vital resource. The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) runs frequent groundwater monitoring and assessment programmes to gauge the quality and availability of groundwater. Important data on the amount, quality, and sustainability of groundwater resources in the US are provided through these projects. A crucial source of water for irrigation in California, one of the biggest agricultural producers in the country, is groundwater. In California, the USGS regularly monitors the groundwater to assess its quality and availability. The USGS said that the growing need for irrigation water over the last several decades has resulted in a dramatic fall in groundwater levels in California's Central Valley, one of the world's most productive agricultural areas. For determining the condition of these aquifers and guaranteeing their sustainable usage, groundwater monitoring is crucial. Groundwater quality monitoring in Minnesota is overseen by the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency (MPCA) to safeguard the water supplies for drinking throughout the state.

12. From Pollution to Progress: Managing Water Quality in Different Nations

In order to make sure that drinking water supplies adhere to national and state standards for contaminants, the MPCA

also performs routine monitoring. Rivers, lakes, and other surface water resources are essential for recreation and drinking water. The Ohio Environmental Protection Agency (OEPA) is in charge of keeping an eye on and defending the condition of Ohio's surface waters. The OEPA regularly evaluates the state's rivers, lakes, and streams' water quality in order to pinpoint pollution sources and create measures to enhance water quality. The OEPA also collaborates with municipal authorities, business, and residents to put pollution control measures in place to lessen the effects of stormwater runoff. To ensure sustainable management of this resource, the Texas Water Development Board (TWDB) regularly assesses the availability of groundwater.

The TWDB employs a range of techniques, including modelling, to calculate the state's groundwater resources' quantity and quality (Halbe, Pahl-Wostl, Sendzimir, & Adamowski, 2013; Meissner & Jacobs, 2016; Van Rijswick, Edelenbos, Hellegers, Kok, & Kuks, 2014). The TWDB also collaborates with local authorities, business, and residents to create and carry out groundwater management plans that safeguard this essential resource. To successfully manage water resources in Colorado, the Colorado Division of Water Resources (CDWR) is in charge of surface water quantity monitoring. The CDWR keeps track of water availability and makes sure that water is distributed properly by maintaining a network of stream gauges and reservoir level monitoring stations. Moreover, the CDWR collaborates with local authorities, business, and individuals to design and put into action water-saving strategies including increased irrigation effectiveness and drought response plans. In conclusion, maintaining water quality and availability is an essential part of managing water resources sustainably. Water resource managers can find and control possible sources of pollution via routine monitoring and evaluation procedures, ensuring the sustainable use of water resources.

When it comes to solving water shortages and preserving the long-term sustainability of our water resources, real-time information and data-driven decision-making are essential. Due to its dry environment and irregular rainfall patterns, Australia confronts serious problems with water management. Australia has employed a variety of groundwater and surface water management techniques to solve these issues (Jager et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2021; Wang, Ng, Lenzer Jr, Dang, Liu, & Yao, 2017). The creation of water allocation plans is a crucial aspect of groundwater management in Australia. These plans prioritise the use of water for various purposes, including household, industrial, and agricultural purposes, and they set sustainable groundwater extraction limitations. The strategies are intended to guarantee that groundwater resources are managed sustainably and that they will be accessible to future generations. The Great Artesian Basin Sustainability Project is an example of an effective groundwater management strategy used in Australia. One of the biggest and deepest artesian groundwater basins in the world, the Great Artesian Basin supplies water to a number of towns and businesses in Queensland, New South Wales, South Australia, and the Northern Territory. The project intends to increase groundwater use's sustainability by lowering water loss from uncontrolled bores and enhancing water quality. The effort raised the water pressure in the basin while lowering the volume of water withdrawn. Australia has also put a number of surface water management techniques into effect. Building substantial reservoirs for the storage and delivery of water is one example.

13. Water Quality Management: A Global Perspective

The Wivenhoe Dam in Queensland is one of Australia's biggest reservoirs. The 1.1 million megaliter dam, which was constructed to provide water to Brisbane and the surrounding areas. The dam provides advantages for flood control as well as securing water supply during dry spells. Implementing water trading networks is another essential method for managing surface water in Australia. Users may purchase and sell water allocations via water trading, allowing for flexibility in water usage and the distribution of water to its most lucrative uses. Australia's greatest river system, the Murray-Darling Basin, also sustains a significant quantity of agricultural. Since the 1980s, the basin has used water trading to better allocate water to its most beneficial uses and increase water usage efficiency. Australia also uses monitoring systems to assess the availability and quality of groundwater and surface water (Hanjra, Blackwell, Carr, Zhang, & Jackson, 2012; Lynch, 2012; Schulz, Martin-Ortega, Glenk, & Ioris, 2017).

Information on the quality and availability of groundwater resources throughout Australia is available via the National Groundwater Information System, a vast collection of groundwater monitoring data. Australia's surface water resources are monitored and managed using a framework provided by the National Water Quality Management Strategy. The policy intends to safeguard surface water resources, enhance their quality, and guarantee their accessibility for a variety of advantageous applications. As a result of its water management issues, Australia has employed a variety of surface and groundwater management techniques. These procedures involve creating water allocation plans, building sizable reservoirs, putting water trading systems into place, and running monitoring programmes to gauge water supply and quality. These procedures have aided in making sure that water supplies are sustainably maintained and accessible for a variety of advantageous purposes. One of the biggest users of freshwater resources worldwide, China has serious issues with water contamination and shortages. China has created a number of water quality monitoring and evaluation initiatives to solve these issues. The National Groundwater Monitoring Network, which was formed in 2006 to monitor and assess the quality and quantity of groundwater resources across the nation, is one of China's most important initiatives.

More than 2,100 monitoring wells are part of the network, which offers data on aquifer conditions, water quality, and groundwater levels. The network's data collection is utilised to assist sustainable water usage practises and build groundwater management laws and regulations (Aral & Wang, 2013; Daniell & Barreteau, 2014; Doorn, 2013). The National Surface Water Quality Monitoring Network, which was founded in 1982 and is in charge of keeping track of the quality of China's rivers, lakes, and other surface water bodies, is another significant initiative in the country. More than 2,000 monitoring stations make up the network, which gathers information on many aspects of water quality, such as nutrients, heavy metals, and organic contaminants. The information gathered by the network is used to assess the efficacy of pollution prevention measures and to create plans for improving water quality. To reduce water pollution and enhance water resource management, China has also deployed a variety of surface water management techniques (Barreira, 2006; Yang, Brown, Yu, Wescoat Jr, & Ringle, 2014). The Chinese government introduced the

Water Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan in 2015, which set goals for enhancing water resource management and decreasing water pollution over a five-year period. The plan calls for a number of actions, including better wastewater treatment, tighter pollution controls in major businesses, and encouragement of cleaner manufacturing methods.

14. Keeping the World's Water Clean: A Comparative Study of Water Quality Measures

China has adopted the Three Red Lines policy, which was launched in 2021 and sets aims for lowering water use, enhancing water use efficiency, and safeguarding water resources. This is in addition to the Water Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan. The policy strives to guarantee that water consumption stays within sustainable bounds by setting quantifiable objectives for water usage in important sectors including agriculture, industry, and home use. The cleaning of the Huai River, one of China's most polluted rivers because of industrial and agricultural pollutants, is one illustration of China's attempts to address water pollution and shortages. The Chinese government started a significant cleaning initiative in 2007, which included moving polluted enterprises, installing wastewater treatment facilities, and promoting cleaner industrial techniques. These initiatives have resulted in a major improvement in the Huai River's water quality, making it an essential supply of water for the area.

The Three Red Lines strategy, which goes into effect in 2021, also establishes precise goals for water use, water efficiency, and water quality. China wants to accomplish three major objectives under this programme by the year 2030: limit yearly water usage at 700 billion cubic metres; maintain a water use efficiency rate of at least 60%; and guarantee that more than 70% of water sources in important areas fulfil national water quality criteria (Bakker & Cook, 2011; Benson, Gain, & Rouillard, 2015; Sithirith, 2017). The "sponge city" effort, which entails the development of green infrastructure to trap and absorb rainfall to minimise runoff and enhance water quality, is one example of how China is combating water pollution. This programme has been put into practise in more than 30 Chinese cities, including Wuhan, where the government has allocated more than \$20 billion for the development of infrastructure for sponge cities. The South-to-North Water Diversion Project, which involves steps to enhance the water quality of the Yangtze River, one of the sources of the water moved by the project, is another example. China has developed a number of pollution control measures to reach this goal, including lowering the discharge of industrial and agricultural wastewater and boosting the use of reclaimed water. The Yangtze River Economic Belt Development Plan, which seeks to advance sustainable growth along the Yangtze River and enhance the region's water quality, serves as a third illustration.

The strategy includes actions to reduce water pollution, encourage ecological restoration, and enhance management of water resources. For instance, the government is attempting to build a monitoring and early warning system for water contamination and modernise wastewater treatment facilities. The National Groundwater Monitoring Network, the National Surface Water Quality Monitoring Network, the Water Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, and the Three Red Lines policy are just a few of the water quality monitoring and

management techniques that China has put into place. Moreover, the nation is putting plans like the sponge city programme, the South-to-North Water Diversion Project, and the Yangtze River Economic Belt Development Plan into action to combat water pollution. Although there are still issues to be resolved, these procedures and programmes are crucial steps towards guaranteeing that China's expanding population has access to safe and clean water.

15. The Power of Policies: Examining Water Quality Management Strategies Across the Globe

Germany is renowned for its steadfast dedication to safeguarding its groundwater supplies. Germany has put in place a number of groundwater protection measures to accomplish this aim, including the creation of groundwater protection zones and the installation of monitoring and evaluation programmes to check groundwater quality and availability. Groundwater protection zones are one important safeguard that Germany has put in place. These sites are chosen based on the aquifers' sensitivity and the groundwater's susceptibility to pollution (Ahmed & Araral, 2019; Akhmouch, 2012; Valdés-Pineda et al., 2014). Within these zones, some activities that can endanger the groundwater are limited or outright forbidden. For instance, the city of Karlsruhe has a groundwater conservation zone that spans 1,700 hectares and has limits on the use of fertilisers, pesticides, and other chemicals in agriculture. Monitoring and evaluation programmes are another tool that Germany has put in place to examine the quality and availability of groundwater. The nation-wide monitoring of groundwater quality and quantity is carried out by the German Environment Agency (UBA).

The UBA manages a system of groundwater monitoring wells that track both the amount and quality of groundwater resources around the country. This information is used to assess the efficiency of groundwater protection measures as well as changes in groundwater quantity and quality. Promoting responsible groundwater usage is the third policy Germany has enacted. Germany has put in place a number of measures to cut down on groundwater usage and encourage sustainable use. For instance, Hamburg's municipal administration has put into effect a groundwater management plan that calls for reducing home and industrial groundwater usage. Measures to encourage the use of alternate water sources, such as rainwater collecting, are also included in the plan. The construction of groundwater protection zones, the implementation of monitoring and evaluation programmes, and the promotion of sustainable groundwater use are just a few of the groundwater protection measures that Germany has put into place (Castro, 2007; Devkota & Neupane, 2018; Herrfahrdt, Kipping, Pickardt, Polak, Rohrer, & Wolff, 2006).

Germany's groundwater resources are now safeguarded and being utilised sustainably thanks to these initiatives. Due to its semi-arid environment, recurrent droughts, and high water consumption, South Africa has had serious water issues. South Africa has put in place a variety of water management and conservation techniques to solve these issues. To supervise the management of surface water resources in each of the nation's water management zones, South Africa created nine catchment management agencies (CMAs). The creation of water resource management plans, issuance of water usage permits, surveil-

lance of water quality, and coordination of water management operations are all tasks that fall within the purview of CMAs.

The creation of CMAs has aided in advancing sustainable water use behaviours and improving the integrated management of South Africa's surface water resources. To assess the quality and availability of groundwater resources, South Africa has created a variety of monitoring and evaluation programmes. In order to monitor and evaluate the quality and availability of groundwater, the National Groundwater Monitoring Programme (NGMP) was formed by the Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS), which is in charge of managing groundwater resources in South Africa. With the purpose of assisting water resource planners and decision-makers in managing groundwater resources, the NGMP gathers data on groundwater levels, quality, and utilisation. To encourage sustainable water use behaviours and lower water demand, South Africa has put in place a number of water conservation measures. These actions include implementing water restrictions during droughts, creating methods for managing water demand, and promoting water-saving techniques and technology (Batchelor, 2007; Grafton, Garrick, Manero, & Do, 2019). For instance, during the 2017–2018 drought, the City of Cape Town imposed stringent water restrictions that reduced water use and helped the city escape a "Day Zero" situation in which it would have ran out of water.

16. The Blue Revolution: Innovations in Water Quality Management

A National Water Conservation and Water Demand Management Plan, which includes steps to encourage water conservation and lower demand throughout the nation, has also been established by the DWS. To resolve the country's water issues, South Africa has deployed a variety of water management and conservation techniques. It has aided in promoting sustainable water use behaviours and improving the management of South Africa's water resources to form watershed management organisations, groundwater monitoring and evaluation programmes, and water conservation measures. The formulation of water allocation plans, the implementation of water conservation measures, and the promotion of sustainable water usage are just a few of the water resource management techniques that India has put into practise. The creation of water allocation plans that provide priority to water usage for household, industrial, and agricultural purposes is a crucial practise in India's management of its water resources (Quinn, 2012; Woodhouse & Muller, 2017).

In order to balance the demands of household, industrial, and agricultural usage while guaranteeing the long-term viability of water supplies, the state of Maharashtra, for instance, has created a water allocation plan. The strategy calls for actions including building additional water storage facilities, promoting water-saving agricultural practises, and creating systems for water price to promote conservation. India has also put in place a number of water conservation measures, including the collection of rainfall and the treatment and recycling of wastewater. For instance, the city of Chennai has put in place a programme to collect rainwater and store it for use later. The programme has assisted in lessening the city's reliance on surface and groundwater resources and has also assisted in recharging nearby aquifers. Similar to this, Delhi's wastewater

treatment and reuse scheme has been put into place to lessen the city's reliance on freshwater resources. Wastewater is treated and used for irrigation. The promotion of sustainable water usage is a crucial component in India's management of its water resources. For instance, the state of Rajasthan has put in place a scheme to encourage agricultural water conservation. The initiative calls for actions like encouraging drip irrigation and creating crops that use less water. By preserving or improving crop yields, these approaches have assisted in reducing the amount of water used in agriculture. In conclusion, India has adopted a variety of methods for estimating water demand and developing strategies, such as creating plans for water distribution, carrying out water-saving initiatives, and promoting sustainable water usage. These procedures have promoted effective water usage and helped to guarantee the country's water resources' sustainability (De Boer, Vinke-de Kruijf, Özerol, & Bressers, 2013; Kashyap, 2004; Tropp, 2007).

Australia often experiences droughts and water shortages, which has prompted the adoption of a number of water conservation methods. Australia has put in place a water trading system that enables the open market exchange of water rights. By letting water flow to its highest-value application, this technology is intended to distribute water resources more effectively. The largest example of water trade in Australia is the Murray-Darling Basin, which includes five states and more than a million square kilometres. Almost one-third of Australia's food supply is produced in the Murray-Darling Basin, where water resource management and allocation are managed by the Murray-Darling Basin Authority. The Australian Bureau of Statistics reports that from 1,358 gigaliters in 2007-2008 to 2,356 gigaliters in 2019-20, the amount of water transferred in the Murray-Darling Basin. This trade has resulted in a more effective use of water resources, supporting other sectors such as agriculture. Usage of Recycled Water for Irrigation: In order to lessen the demand on freshwater resources, Australia has introduced the use of recycled water for irrigation.

17. Clean Water, Clear Future: A Comparative Study of International Water Quality Management Practices

Wastewater that has been processed and utilised for non-potable applications including irrigation, industry, and environmental flows is referred to as recycled water (Jain, 2019; Pandey, Mishra, Kansal, Singh, & Singh, 2021). In recent years, the use of recycled water for irrigation has substantially risen, especially in metropolitan areas where there is a strong demand for water. For instance, the city of Perth has a significant recycled water programme that has been running since 2006. The programme generates up to 28 billion litres of recycled water every year, which is used to irrigate golf courses, gardens, and parks. A new recycled water programme that would provide up to 6.5 billion litres of recycled water to industrial and agricultural customers in the state's southwest has also received funding from the Western Australian government totaling AUD 24.5 million. The Australian government has put in place a number of water efficiency schemes to encourage people to save water in their homes and places of business. Showerheads, washing machines, and toilets, for instance, must meet minimum water efficiency criteria under the Water Efficiency Labelling and Standardization (WELS) programme.

By encouraging the adoption of water-efficient goods, the programme strives to decrease water use. The City of Sydney has also put in place a water efficiency programme that consists of a variety of initiatives including free water-saving equipment, educational initiatives, and rewards for companies who use water-saving procedures. The City of Sydney claims that since the program's inception in 2006, it has saved more than 3.2 billion litres of water. To combat water shortages and lower demand for freshwater resources, Australia has established a number of water conservation initiatives. Australia's initiatives to encourage sustainable water management include the use of water trading networks, reclaimed water for irrigation, and water efficiency programmes, to name a few. The world's most populous nation, China, is seeing a significant rise in water consumption as a result of urbanisation, industry, and population increase. China has used a variety of methods for estimating water demand and formulating strategies to deal with this problem. The creation of water allocation plans that give priority to water usage for household, industrial, and agricultural purposes is one illustration of China's methods for estimating water demand.

For instance, the South-North Water Transfer Project is a significant water diversion initiative created to move water from the Yangtze River in southern China to the drier northern areas. This project will assist the northern areas meet their increasing water demand by supplying water to their cities, industry, and irrigated agriculture. China has put in place a number of water-saving measures, including the use of water-saving technology in agriculture. To minimise the amount of water used in agriculture, for instance, precision irrigation technologies like drip irrigation and micro-sprinklers are increasingly being employed. These methods immediately provide water to plant roots, decreasing water loss via runoff and evaporation. This has enhanced agricultural production and saved a large amount of water. Drip irrigation has been used in China to reduce water usage in agriculture by 20%, according to a report by the International Water Management Institute. The utilisation of recycled water for industrial and municipal applications is another illustration of China's water conservation efforts. One of the biggest wastewater treatment facilities in China, for instance, is the Beijing Water Reclamation Plant, which processes more than 600,000 cubic metres of wastewater daily. For non-potable uses like industrial cooling, landscape watering, and toilet flushing, the treated water is recycled. As a result, the region's freshwater consumption has decreased and water quality has increased.

18. Water Quality Challenges and Solutions: A Global Overview

Wastewater China's techniques for estimating water demand and developing strategy, as well as its efforts to save water, are crucial for guaranteeing sustainable water management in the nation. In the United States, there is an increasing worry over water shortage, especially in areas where there are drought conditions and population development (Grafton & Hussey, 2011; Wiek & Larson, 2012). The nation has put a variety of techniques for strategy creation and water demand prediction into place to solve these issues. Water companies have put in place water pricing schemes in various parts of the United States that reward conservation by imposing higher fees on users who use a lot of water. For instance, the Californian

city of San Diego established a tiered pricing structure in 2015, charging consumers more for each extra unit of water used. According to some estimates, this technique may save water consumption by up to 20%.

The United States has also put in place a number of water-saving techniques, such as using recycled water for irrigation. A groundwater replenishment system that filters wastewater to provide high-quality recycled water for use in irrigation and other non-potable purposes has been put in place by the Orange County Water Agency in California, for instance. The system has been running since 2008 and can presently provide 850,000 people with all their water requirements. To guarantee that water resources are allocated effectively and sustainably, the United States has developed water allocation planning in addition to conservation measures (Newton, 2014; Perreault, 2014). For instance, the states of the Colorado River Basin have created an interim shortage plan that stipulates water distribution reductions if Lake Mead's water level drops below a certain threshold. In the context of issues related to water shortage, this approach aids in ensuring that water is allocated equitably and effectively. In conclusion, the United States has adopted a variety of methods for estimating water demand and formulating strategies to deal with the problems caused by water shortage. Implementing water price systems, water-saving techniques including using recycled water for irrigation, and managing water allocation are a few examples. These methods have made it possible to utilise water resources wisely and effectively, especially in areas where there is population expansion and drought.

A variety of water management techniques have been put in place in South Africa to solve the problems associated with water shortage. The establishment of a plan for estimating water demand is one of the primary procedures that South Africa has adopted. To guarantee that water resources are managed effectively and sustainably, water allocation plans must be created for a variety of sectors, including agriculture, industry, and home consumption. For instance, the Department of Water and Sanitation created a National Water and Sanitation Master Plan in response to the severe drought that the nation experienced in 2015–2016, which contains water distribution plans for each of the 19 water management zones in the nation. To guarantee that water resources are properly and efficiently managed, the plans outline the water requirements of various industries and set sustainable extraction limitations. To lower demand and encourage the sustainable use of water resources, South Africa has established a number of water conservation initiatives in addition to water allocation schemes. For instance, the nation has imposed water restrictions during dry spells to cut down on water usage, and has promoted the adoption of water-saving devices and methods like dual-flush toilets and low-flow showerheads.

19. Protecting Our Most Precious Resource: International Approaches to Water Quality Management

South Africa has looked at the use of recycled water as a way to preserve water supplies. The nation has put in place a variety of initiatives to recycle wastewater for use in industry and municipal applications, such as the eThekweni Water Reuse Project in Durban, which filters wastewater from a wastewater treatment plant and provides the recycled water for industrial

use. Overall, South Africa has been able to manage its limited water resources more sustainably and effectively because to the combination of water demand estimates and plan creation, water conservation measures, and the use of recycled water. To guarantee that water resources are managed efficiently and sustainably in the next years, further efforts will be required since the nation currently confronts several issues relating to water shortage. Water is scarce and unevenly distributed in South Africa, which has a high degree of water shortage. The nation has established a variety of water allocation strategies to solve this issue, including the creation of water allocation plans that give priority to the use of water for necessities like drinking water and sanitation above other uses like irrigation and industrial purposes (Neal, Lukasiewicz, & Syme, 2014; Roncoli, Dowd-Uribe, Orlove, West, & Sanon, 2016).

The National Water Act, which establishes the legislative framework for the management of the nation's water resources, is one illustration of South Africa's policies for allocating water. In order to guarantee the sustainable use of water resources, the Act prioritises the use of water for necessities like drinking water and sanitation and calls for the creation of water allocation plans. The creation of the Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM) plan, which aims to guarantee the fair and sustainable management of water resources in the nation, is another such. The policy advocates the adoption of creative water allocation methods, such as water trading and water banking, to enhance water resource management while giving priority to allocating water for necessities. The creation of catchment management organisations, which are in charge of managing water resources locally, is a third instance. These organisations are responsible for creating and carrying out water allocation strategies that prioritise the use of water for necessities while also encouraging water conservation and sustainable usage techniques. South Africa's water allocation policies prioritise basic requirements like clean drinking water and sanitary facilities while guaranteeing the fair and sustainable use of the country's limited water resources (Gatt, 2018; Perreault, 2014).

South Africa is moving towards a more secure and sustainable water future via the creation of local water management agencies, the formulation of water allocation plans, and the encouragement of water conservation techniques. One of the driest inhabited continents on Earth, Australia has limited water supplies in many areas. Australia has put in place a variety of complex water allocation plans that take into account the requirements of various users and give priority to certain uses over others in order to maintain the sustainable management of water resources. The Murray-Darling Basin, which spans an area of more than one million square kilometres, is Australia's biggest river system. It is a vital supply of water for the area's household, industrial, and agricultural needs. With an emphasis on striking a balance between the demands of the ecological, social, and economic issues, the Murray-Darling Basin Plan was created to guarantee the sustainable use of water resources in the basin. The plan provides a system for allocating water that gives priority to purposes like irrigation and industrial uses above necessities for people like drinking water and sanitation. According to variables like drought and water availability, this distribution is based on a fraction of the available water.

20. Limitations of this Research

This study work has made several important discoveries and contributions, however there are a few limitations that should be mentioned. First off, the study's investigation of water management methods and policies in a certain group of nations is its exclusive focus. As a result, it's possible that other areas or situations won't be able to use the data and conclusions offered here. Second, the study makes extensive use of secondary sources, including news stories, academic journals, and government publications. Despite the fact that these sources are typically trustworthy, they might include biases or flaws that are not immediately obvious. In addition, crucial information could not be exposed to the public or accessible. Furthermore, the intricacy of water management concerns places a constraint on the study. The success of policies and practises may be influenced by a wide range of elements since water management is a multidimensional and dynamic area. This research paper gives a general review of water management laws and procedures in a number of nations, but it does not take into consideration all the subtleties and complexity of the subject. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, this study offers insightful analysis into the approaches to water management used in many nations, and it may be used as a springboard for more research in the field.

21. Future Studies and Way Forward

While this research has shed light on the varied methods used to manage water quality in various nations, there are still a number of areas where more study might be undertaken to expand on this work. The efficiency of various ways to controlling water quality, including the legal frameworks and infrastructure projects put in place in various nations, might be one field for future study. This might include comparing how various techniques affect the results of the water quality outcomes, as well as the possibilities and obstacles related to their implementation. Future studies may also look at how technology might help with better water quality management. Technology advancements like remote sensing and data analytics have the potential to completely change how water quality is maintained and monitored. It may be investigated how these technologies

can be successfully included into systems for managing water quality as well as the difficulties involved in doing so. Research on the effects of climate change on the management of water quality would also be helpful. There is a need to investigate how current water quality management frameworks might be modified to handle these difficulties since it is anticipated that climate change will have a considerable influence on water supply and quality. In conclusion, our study has emphasised the significance of efficient water quality management in preserving communities' and ecosystems' health and wellbeing. To continue to develop and improve methods for controlling water quality and meet the difficulties provided by climate change and other new problems, more research is required.

22. Conclusion

In conclusion, it is critical for both human and environmental health and wellbeing that water quality be managed and monitored. This essay has looked at the various approaches used by various nations to tackle problems with water quality. We have seen the implementation of measures such as water quality monitoring, management, and regulation, as well as the encouragement of industry to lower pollution levels, in nations including the United States, China, Australia, India, Sweden, and South Africa. Even if these actions have improved the quality of the water in these nations, more has to be done to guarantee the water resources are safeguarded for future generations. It is increasingly more important to maintain and monitor water quality given the difficulties posed by climate change, population increase, and rising water demand. Governments must keep funding water management and infrastructure projects, and businesses must be accountable for their pollution output. A culture of water conservation and sustainable water usage may also be promoted via public awareness and education programmes. On the efficacy of various water quality management strategies and their effects on the environment and public health, further study may be done. To combat transboundary water contamination and guarantee the sustainable management of shared water resources, international cooperation may also be investigated. Together, we can make sure that our water supplies are healthy and sustainable for the long term.

Funding Information:

This research did not receive any specific funding from any public, commercial, or non-profit agency.

Disclosure Statement:

No material or relevant stake relating to this research was disclosed by the author(s).

Competing Interest:

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

Data Availability Statement:

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data was created or analysed in this study.

References

- Ahmed, M., & Araral, E. (2019). Water governance in India: Evidence on water law, policy, and administration from eight Indian states. *Water*, 11(10), 2071.
- Akamani, K. (2016). Adaptive water governance: Integrating the human dimensions into water resource governance. *Journal of Contemporary Water Research & Education*, 158(1), 2-18.
- Akhmouch, A. (2012). Water governance in Latin America and the Caribbean: A multi-level approach.
- Araral, E., & Wang, Y. (2013). Water governance 2.0: a review and second generation research agenda. *Water Resources Management*, 27, 3945-3957.
- Armitage, D., De Loë, R. C., Morris, M., Edwards, T. W., Gerlak, A. K., Hall, R. I., . . . MacDonald, G. (2015). Science–policy processes for transboundary water governance. *Ambio*, 44, 353-366.
- Bakker, K., & Cook, C. (2011). Water governance in Canada: Innovation and fragmentation. *Water Resources Development*, 27(02), 275-289.
- Barreira, A. (2006). Water governance at the European Union. *Journal of Contemporary Water Research & Education*, 135(1), 80-85.
- Batchelor, C. (2007). Water governance literature assessment. *International Institute for Environment and Development*, 2523.
- Beniston, M., Stoffel, M., & Hill, M. (2011). Impacts of climatic change on water and natural hazards in the Alps: can current water governance cope with future challenges? Examples from the European “ACQWA” project. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 14(7), 734-743.
- Benson, D., Gain, A. K., & Rouillard, J. J. (2015). Water governance in a comparative perspective: from IWRM to 'nexus' approach? *Water alternatives*, 8(1), 756-773.
- Berry, K. A., & Mollard, E. (2009). *Social participation in water governance and management: critical and global perspectives*: Taylor & Francis.
- Biswas, A. K., & Tortajada, C. (2010). Future water governance: problems and perspectives. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 26(2), 129-139.
- Bradford, L. E., Ovsenek, N., & Bharadwaj, L. A. (2017). Indigenizing water governance in Canada. *Water policy and governance in Canada*, 269-298.
- Budds, J., & Hinojosa, L. (2012). Restructuring and rescaling water governance in mining contexts: The co-production of water-scapes in Peru. *Water alternatives*, 5(1), 119.
- Castro, J. E. (2007). Water governance in the twentieth-first century. *Ambiente & sociedade*, 10, 97-118.
- Claassen, M. (2013). Integrated water resource management in South Africa. *International Journal of Water Governance*, 1(3-4), 323-338.
- Colloff, M. J., Grafton, R. Q., & Williams, J. (2021). Scientific integrity, public policy and water governance in the Murray-Darling Basin, Australia. *Australasian Journal of Water Resources*, 25(2), 121-140.
- Cooley, H., Ajami, N., Ha, M.-L., Srinivasan, V., Morrison, J., Donnelly, K., & Christian-Smith, J. (2013). Global water governance in the 21st century. *Pacific Institute, Oakland, CA*, 34.
- Cooley, H., Ajami, N., Ha, M.-L., Srinivasan, V., Morrison, J., Donnelly, K., & Christian-Smith, J. (2014). Global water governance in the twenty-first century. *The World's Water: The Biennial Report on Freshwater Resources*, 1-18.
- Daniell, K. A. (2012). Co-engineering and participatory water management: organisational challenges for water governance.
- Daniell, K. A., & Barretheau, O. (2014). Water governance across competing scales: Coupling land and water management. In (Vol. 519, pp. 2367-2380): Elsevier.
- Daniell, K. A., Coombes, P. J., & White, I. (2014). Politics of innovation in multi-level water governance systems. *Journal of Hydrology*, 519, 2415-2435.
- De Araújo, J. C., Mamede, G. L., & De Lima, B. P. (2018). Hydrological guidelines for reservoir operation to enhance water governance: application to the Brazilian Semiarid Region. *Water*, 10(11), 1628.
- De Boer, C., Vinke-de Kruijf, J., Özerol, G., & Bressers, H. T. A. (2013). *Water governance, policy and knowledge transfer: International studies on contextual water management*: Routledge.
- Dell'Angelo, J., McCord, P. F., Gower, D., Carpenter, S., Caylor, K. K., & Evans, T. P. (2016). Community water governance on Mount Kenya: an assessment based on Ostrom's design principles of natural resource management. *Mountain Research and Development*, 36(1), 102-115.
- Devkota, K., & Neupane, K. R. (2018). Water governance in rapidly urbanising small town: a case of Dhulikhel in Nepal. *Journal of Water Security*, 4.
- Dondeynaz, C., Carmona Moreno, C., & Céspedes Lorente, J. (2012). Analysing inter-relationships among water, governance, human development variables in developing countries. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 16(10), 3791-3816.
- Doorn, N. (2013). Water and Justice: Towards an Ethics of Water Governance. *Public Reason*, 5(1).
- Dore, J. (2014). An agenda for deliberative water governance arenas in the Mekong. *Water Policy*, 16(S2), 194-214.
- Dore, J., & Lebel, L. (2010). Deliberation and scale in Mekong region water governance. *Environmental Management*, 46(1), 60-80.
- Dore, J., Lebel, L., & Molle, F. (2012). A framework for analysing transboundary water governance complexes, illustrated in the Mekong Region. *Journal of Hydrology*, 466, 23-36.

- Droogers, P., & Bouma, J. (2014). Simulation modelling for water governance in basins. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 30(3), 475-494.
- Fernandez-Prieto, D., & Palazzo, F. (2007). The role of Earth observation in improving water governance in Africa: ESA's TIGER initiative. *Hydrogeology Journal*, 15(1), 101-104.
- Fischer, M., & Ingold, K. (2020). *Networks in Water Governance*: Springer.
- Garrick, D., Bark, R., Connor, J., & Banerjee, O. (2012). Environmental water governance in federal rivers: opportunities and limits for subsidiarity in Australia's Murray–Darling River. *Water Policy*, 14(6), 915-936.
- Gatt, K. (2018). Youths' Economic and Regulatory Traits in Water Resources Management as a Precursor for Good Water Governance. In *Hydrology and Water Resource Management: Breakthroughs in Research and Practice* (pp. 396-412): IGI Global.
- Gawel, E., & Bernsen, K. (2011). Globalization of water: the case for global water governance? *Nature and Culture*, 6(3), 205-217.
- Gerlak, A. K. (2015). Resistance and Reform: Transboundary Water Governance in the Colorado River Delta. *Review of Policy Research*, 32(1), 100-123.
- Giordano, M., & Shah, T. (2014). From IWRM back to integrated water resources management. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 30(3), 364-376.
- Grafton, R. Q., Garrick, D., Manero, A., & Do, T. N. (2019). The water governance reform framework: Overview and applications to Australia, Mexico, Tanzania, USA and Vietnam. *Water*, 11(1), 137.
- Grafton, R. Q., & Hussey, K. (2011). *Water resources planning and management*: Cambridge University Press.
- Grafton, R. Q., Pittock, J., Davis, R., Williams, J., Fu, G., Warburton, M., . . . Che, N. (2013). Global insights into water resources, climate change and governance. *Nature Climate Change*, 3(4), 315-321.
- Green, O. O., Cosens, B. A., & Garmestani, A. S. (2013). Resilience in transboundary water governance: the Okavango River Basin. *Ecology and Society*, 18(2).
- Groenfeldt, D., & Schmidt, J. J. (2013). Ethics and water governance. *Ecology and Society*, 18(1).
- Haeflner, M., Hellman, D., Cantor, A., Ajibade, I., Oyanedel-Craver, V., Kelly, M., . . . Weasel, L. (2021). Representation justice as a research agenda for socio-hydrology and water governance. *Hydrological Sciences Journal*, 66(11), 1611-1624.
- Halbe, J., Pahl-Wostl, C., Sendzimir, J., & Adamowski, J. (2013). Towards adaptive and integrated management paradigms to meet the challenges of water governance. *Water Science and Technology*, 67(11), 2651-2660.
- Hammond, M. (2013). *The Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam and the Blue Nile: implications for transboundary water governance*. Paper presented at the Global Water Forum.
- Hanjra, M. A., Blackwell, J., Carr, G., Zhang, F., & Jackson, T. M. (2012). Wastewater irrigation and environmental health: Implications for water governance and public policy. *International journal of hygiene and environmental health*, 215(3), 255-269.
- Hassenforder, E., & Barone, S. (2018). Institutional arrangements for water governance. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*.
- Herrfahrdt-Pähle, E. (2013). Integrated and adaptive governance of water resources: the case of South Africa. *Regional Environmental Change*, 13(3), 551-561.
- Herrfahrdt-Pähle, E. (2014). Applying the concept of fit to water governance reforms in South Africa. *Ecology and Society*, 19(1).
- Herrfahrdt-Pähle, E. (2015). South African water governance between administrative and hydrological boundaries. In *Adaptation to Climate Change in Southern Africa* (pp. 111-127): Routledge.
- Herrfahrdt, E., Kipping, M., Pickardt, T., Polak, M., Rohrer, C., & Wolff, C. F. (2006). *Water governance in the Kyrgyz agricultural sector: on its way to integrated water resource management?* (Vol. 14): DEU.
- Hilbig, J., & Rudolph, K.-U. (2019). Sustainable water financing and lean cost approaches as essentials for integrated water resources management and water governance: lessons learnt from the Southern African context. *Water Supply*, 19(2), 536-544.
- Hill, M. (2012). *Climate change and water governance: Adaptive capacity in Chile and Switzerland* (Vol. 54): Springer Science & Business Media.
- Hill, M. (2013). Adaptive capacity of water governance: cases from the Alps and the Andes. *Mountain Research and Development*, 33(3), 248-259.
- Hirsch, P., Jensen, K. M., Boer, B., Carrard, N., FitzGerald, S., & Lyster, R. (2006). *National interests and transboundary water governance in the Mekong*: Australian Mekong Resource Centre, in collaboration with Danish . . .
- Hooper, B. P. (2003). Integrated water resources management and river basin governance. *Journal of Contemporary Water Research and Education*, 126(1), 3.
- Huffman, J. L. (2009). Comprehensive river basin management: The limits of collaborative, stakeholder-based, water governance. *Nat. Resources J.*, 49, 117.
- Huo, A.-D., Dang, J., Song, J.-X., Chen, X. H., & Mao, H.-R. (2016). Simulation modeling for water governance in basins based on surface water and groundwater. *Agricultural Water Management*, 174, 22-29.
- Ingram, H. (2011). 12 Beyond universal remedies for good water governance. *Water for food in a changing world*, 241.
- Jager, N. W., Challies, E., Kochskämper, E., Newig, J., Benson, D., Blackstock, K., . . . Feichtinger, J. (2016). Transforming European water governance? Participation and river basin management under the EU Water Framework Directive in 13 member states. *Water*, 8(4), 156.
- Jain, S. K. (2019). Water resources management in India—challenges and the way forward. *Current Science*, 117(4), 569-576.

- Jain, S. K., Agarwal, P. K., Singh, V. P., Jain, S. K., Agarwal, P. K., & Singh, V. P. (2007). Concepts of water governance for India. *Hydrology and Water Resources of India*, 1155-1189.
- Jia, S., & Zhu, W. (2021). China's achievements of water governance over the past seven decades. In *Global Water Resources* (pp. 70-88): Routledge.
- Judeh, T., Haddad, M., & Özerol, G. (2017). Assessment of water governance in the West Bank, Palestine. *International journal of global environmental issues*, 16(1-3), 119-134.
- Kashyap, A. (2004). Water governance: learning by developing adaptive capacity to incorporate climate variability and change. *Water Science and Technology*, 49(7), 141-146.
- Katusime, J., & Schütt, B. (2020). Integrated water resources management approaches to improve water resources governance. *Water*, 12(12), 3424.
- Kharanagh, S. G., Banihabib, M. E., & Javadi, S. (2020). An MCDM-based social network analysis of water governance to determine actors' power in water-food-energy nexus. *Journal of Hydrology*, 581, 124382.
- Kibaroglu, A. (2019). State-of-the-art review of transboundary water governance in the Euphrates–Tigris river basin. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 35(1), 4-29.
- Klümper, F., Herzfeld, T., & Theesfeld, I. (2017). Can water abundance compensate for weak water governance? Determining and comparing dimensions of irrigation water security in Tajikistan. *Water*, 9(4), 286.
- Knieper, C., & Pahl-Wostl, C. (2016). A comparative analysis of water governance, water management, and environmental performance in river basins. *Water Resources Management*, 30, 2161-2177.
- Lalika, M. C., Meire, P., & Ngaga, Y. M. (2015). Exploring watershed conservation and water governance along Pangani River Basin, Tanzania. *Land use policy*, 48, 351-361.
- Larson, K. L., Wiek, A., & Keeler, L. W. (2013). A comprehensive sustainability appraisal of water governance in Phoenix, AZ. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 116, 58-71.
- Lautze, J. (2014). Key concepts in water resource management: a review and critical evaluation.
- Liu, X., Souter, N. J., Wang, R. Y., & Vollmer, D. (2019). Aligning the freshwater health index indicator system against the transboundary water governance framework of Southeast Asia's Sesan, Srepok, and Sekong River Basin. *Water*, 11(11), 2307.
- Lubell, M., & Edelenbos, J. (2013). Integrated water resources management: A comparative laboratory for water governance. *International Journal of Water Governance*, 1(3-4), 177-196.
- Lynch, B. D. (2012). Vulnerabilities, competition and rights in a context of climate change toward equitable water governance in Peru's Rio Santa Valley. *Global Environmental Change*, 22(2), 364-373.
- Malmer, A., Ardö, J., Scott, D., Vignola, R., & Xu, J. (2010). *Forest cover and global water governance* (Vol. 25): IUFRO (International Union of Forestry Research Organizations) Secretariat.
- Meissner, R., & Jacobs, I. (2016). Theorising complex water governance in Africa: the case of the proposed Epupa Dam on the Kunene River. *International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics*, 16, 21-48.
- Mersha, A. N. (2021). *Integrated water resources management: A systems perspective of water governance and hydrological conditions*: Wageningen University and Research.
- Mirumachi, N., & Allan, J. A. (2007). *Revisiting transboundary water governance: Power, conflict cooperation and the political economy*. Paper presented at the Proceedings from CAIWA international conference on adaptive and integrated water management: Coping with scarcity. Basel, Switzerland.
- Mohammed, I. N., Boltan, J. D., Souter, N. J., Shaad, K., & Vollmer, D. (2022). Diagnosing challenges and setting priorities for sustainable water resource management under climate change. *Scientific Reports*, 12(1), 796.
- Moss, T., & Newig, J. (2010). Multilevel water governance and problems of scale: Setting the stage for a broader debate. In (Vol. 46, pp. 1-6): Springer.
- Mycoo, M. A. (2018). *Achieving SDG 6: water resources sustainability in Caribbean Small Island Developing States through improved water governance*. Paper presented at the Natural Resources Forum.
- Neal, M. J., Lukasiewicz, A., & Syme, G. J. (2014). Why justice matters in water governance: some ideas for a 'water justice framework'. *Water Policy*, 16(S2), 1-18.
- Neto, S., Camkin, J., Fenemor, A., Tan, P.-L., Baptista, J. M., Ribeiro, M., . . . Elfithri, R. (2018). OECD principles on water governance in practice: an assessment of existing frameworks in Europe, Asia-Pacific, Africa and South America. *Water International*, 43(1), 60-89.
- Newton, J. T. (2014). "*Water, water everywhere, nor any drop to drink*": An exploration of the lack of a formal global water governance regime. Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy (Tufts University),
- Nguyen, M. N., Nguyen, P. T., Van, T. P., Phan, V. H., Nguyen, B. T., Pham, V. T., & Nguyen, T. H. (2021). An understanding of water governance systems in responding to extreme droughts in the Vietnamese Mekong Delta. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 37(2), 256-277.
- Norman, E. S., Cook, C., & Cohen, A. (2015). *Negotiating water governance: Why the politics of scale matter*. Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.
- O'Donnell, E. (2018). *Legal rights for rivers: Competition, collaboration and water governance*. Routledge.

- O'Donnell, E., Jackson, S., Langton, M., & Godden, L. (2022). Racialized water governance: the 'hydrological frontier' in the Northern Territory, Australia. *Australasian Journal of Water Resources*, 26(1), 59-71.
- Oberlack, C., & Eisenack, K. (2018). Archetypical barriers to adapting water governance in river basins to climate change. *Journal of Institutional Economics*, 14(3), 527-555.
- Ogada, J. O., Krhoda, G. O., Van Der Veen, A., Marani, M., & van Oel, P. R. (2017). Managing resources through stakeholder networks: collaborative water governance for Lake Naivasha basin, Kenya. *Water International*, 42(3), 271-290.
- Pahl-Wostl, C., Arthington, A., Bogardi, J., Bunn, S. E., Hoff, H., Lebel, L., . . . Richards, K. (2013). Environmental flows and water governance: managing sustainable water uses. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 5(3-4), 341-351.
- Pahl-Wostl, C., Gupta, J., & Petry, D. (2008). Governance and the global water system: a theoretical exploration. *Global governance*, 14, 419.
- Pahl-Wostl, C., Lebel, L., Knieper, C., & Nikitina, E. (2012). From applying panaceas to mastering complexity: toward adaptive water governance in river basins. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 23, 24-34.
- Pandey, A., Mishra, S., Kansal, M., Singh, R., & Singh, V. P. (2021). *Water Management and Water Governance: Hydrological Modeling*: Springer.
- Pedregal, B., Cabello, V., Hernandez-Mora, N., Limones, N., & Del Moral, L. (2015). Information and knowledge for water governance in the networked society. *Water alternatives*, 8(2).
- Perreault, T. (2014). What kind of governance for what kind of equity? Towards a theorization of justice in water governance. *Water International*, 39(2), 233-245.
- Poelina, A., Taylor, K. S., & Perdrisat, I. (2019). Martuwarra Fitzroy River Council: an Indigenous cultural approach to collaborative water governance. *Australasian Journal of Environmental Management*, 26(3), 236-254.
- Quinn, N. (2012). Water governance, ecosystems and sustainability: a review of progress in South Africa. *Water International*, 37(7), 760-772.
- Ricart, S., Rico, A., Kirk, N., Bülow, F., Ribas-Palom, A., & Pavón, D. (2019). How to improve water governance in multifunctional irrigation systems? Balancing stakeholder engagement in hydrosocial territories. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 35(3), 491-524.
- Rivera-Torres, M., & Gerlak, A. K. (2021). Evolving together: Transboundary water governance in the Colorado River Basin. *International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics*, 21(4), 553-574.
- Rodina, L. (2019). Defining "water resilience": Debates, concepts, approaches, and gaps. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Water*, 6(2), e1334.
- Rogers, P., & Hall, A. W. (2003). *Effective water governance* (Vol. 7): Global water partnership Stockholm.
- Roncoli, C., Dowd-Uribe, B., Orlove, B., West, C. T., & Sanon, M. (2016). *Who counts, what counts: representation and accountability in water governance in the Upper C. omoé sub-basin, Burkina Faso*. Paper presented at the Natural Resources Forum.
- Rouillard, J., Heal, K., Ball, T., & Reeves, A. (2013). Policy integration for adaptive water governance: Learning from Scotland's experience. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 33, 378-387.
- Schneider, F., Bonriposi, M., Graefe, O., Herweg, K., Homewood, C., Huss, M., . . . Reynard, E. (2015). Assessing the sustainability of water governance systems: The sustainability wheel. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 58(9), 1577-1600.
- Schneider, F., & Homewood, C. (2013). Exploring water governance arrangements in the Swiss Alps from the perspective of adaptive capacity. *Mountain Research and Development*, 33(3), 225-233.
- Schulz, C., Martin-Ortega, J., Glenk, K., & Ioris, A. A. (2017). The value base of water governance: A multi-disciplinary perspective. *Ecological Economics*, 131, 241-249.
- Serrano, J. D. (2011). Institutional barriers for effective water governance in Mexico: Study of the central gulf hydrological administrative region X. In *Water Resources in Mexico: scarcity, degradation, stress, conflicts, management, and policy* (pp. 457-472): Springer.
- Singh, A., Saha, D., & Tyagi, A. C. (2019). Emerging issues in water resources management: challenges and prospects. *Water governance: challenges and prospects*, 1-23.
- Sithirith, M. (2017). Water governance in Cambodia: From centralized water governance to farmer water user community. *Resources*, 6(3), 44.
- te Wierik, S. A., Gupta, J., Cammeraat, E. L., & Artzy-Randrup, Y. A. (2020). The need for green and atmospheric water governance. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Water*, 7(2), e1406.
- Tropp, H. (2007). Water governance: trends and needs for new capacity development. *Water Policy*, 9(S2), 19-30.
- Valdés-Pineda, R., Pizarro, R., García-Chevesich, P., Valdés, J. B., Olivares, C., Vera, M., . . . Fuentes, R. (2014). Water governance in Chile: Availability, management and climate change. *Journal of Hydrology*, 519, 2538-2567.
- Van Buuren, A. (2013). Knowledge for water governance: Trends, limits, and challenges. *International Journal of Water Governance*, 1(1-2), 157-175.
- Van Rijswijk, M., Edelenbos, J., Hellegers, P., Kok, M., & Kuks, S. (2014). Ten building blocks for sustainable water governance: An integrated method to assess the governance of water. *Water International*, 39(5), 725-742.
- Varady, R., Gerlak, A., & Haverland, A. (2009). Hydrosolidarity and international water governance. *International Negotiation*, 14(2), 311-328.

- Varady, R. G., Meehan, K., & McGovern, E. (2009). Charting the emergence of ‘global water initiatives’ in world water governance. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, Parts A/B/C*, 34(3), 150-155.
- Wang, R. Y., Ng, C. N., Lenzer Jr, J. H., Dang, H., Liu, T., & Yao, S. (2017). Unpacking water conflicts: a reinterpretation of coordination problems in China’s water-governance system. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 33(4), 553-569.
- White, D. D., Lawless, K. L., Vivoni, E. R., Mascaro, G., Pahle, R., Kumar, I., . . . Asfora, M. (2019). Co-producing interdisciplinary knowledge and action for sustainable water governance: Lessons from the development of a water resources decision support system in Pernambuco, Brazil. *Global Challenges*, 3(4), 1800012.
- Wiegleb, V., & Bruns, A. (2018). Hydro-social arrangements and paradigmatic change in water governance: an analysis of the sustainable development goals (SDGs). *Sustainability Science*, 13, 1155-1166.
- Wiek, A., & Larson, K. L. (2012). Water, people, and sustainability—a systems framework for analyzing and assessing water governance regimes. *Water Resources Management*, 26, 3153-3171.
- Woodhouse, P., & Muller, M. (2017). Water governance—An historical perspective on current debates. *World development*, 92, 225-241.
- Yang, Y.-C. E., Brown, C., Yu, W., Wescoat Jr, J., & Ringler, C. (2014). Water governance and adaptation to climate change in the Indus River Basin. *Journal of Hydrology*, 519, 2527-2537.
- Zikos, D., & Bithas, K. (2006). *The case of a “weak water” governance model: Athens-Greece*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 2006 IASME/WSEAS Int. Conf. on Water Resources, Hydraulics & Hydrology, Chalkida, Greece.
- Zwarteveen, M. (2015). Regulating water, ordering society: practices and politics of water governance. *Inaugural Lecture, University of Amsterdam*.

© 2022, Author(s).

This open access publication is distributed under Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY-NC-SA 4.0) License.

You are free to:

Share — copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format.
Adapt — remix, transform, and build upon the material.

However,

Attribution — You must give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made.
Non-Commercial — You may not use the material for commercial purposes.
Share Alike — If you remix, transform, or build upon the material, you must distribute your contributions under the same license.

You shall not apply legal terms or technological measures that legally restrict others from doing anything the license permits.
There are no additional restrictions.

