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# 4 **Uncovering a hidden resource for wildfire resilience:** 5 **groundwater governance solutions to social-ecological challenges** 6 **in a warming world**

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## 12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Wildfires are intensifying worldwide and increasingly threaten cities and communities in the wildland–  
14 urban interface. While attention has focused on forests, fuels, and firefighting capacity, water systems are  
15 also under growing pressure during major fire events. Groundwater, accessed through decentralized wells  
16 across urban, peri-urban, and rural landscapes, remains largely overlooked in wildfire planning despite its  
17 potential to support firefighting, provide emergency drinking water, and buffer disruptions to surface water  
18 systems. We argue that groundwater should be treated not simply as emergency backup, but as a shared  
19 social–ecological resource requiring anticipatory governance. Using a social–ecological systems  
20 perspective, we identify key decision contexts where groundwater may be mobilized before, during, and  
21 after wildfire events. Integrating groundwater governance into wildfire resilience planning could  
22 strengthen water security, reduce inequities, and support communities learning to live with fire in a  
23 warming world.

## 24 **Wildfire resilience challenges and groundwater opportunities**

25 Wildfires are increasing in frequency, intensity, and spatial extent globally across many regions of  
26 the world, driven by climate change, land-use change, and legacies of historical fire suppression and land  
27 use (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016; Bowman et al., 2020). Once understood as episodic disturbances,  
28 wildfires are increasingly recognized as persistent social-ecological conditions to which communities  
29 respond and adapt across uneven social, infrastructural, and environmental contexts (Paveglio et al., 2009;  
30 McWethy et al., 2019). Importantly, wildfire risks and impacts are not evenly distributed. Marginalized  
31 and resource-constrained communities often experience disproportionate exposure, slower recovery, and  
32 reduced access to reliable water supplies, particularly under conditions of hydroclimatic stress including  
33 drought, long-term water scarcity, and seasonal variability, which can magnify dependence on  
34 decentralized sources such as groundwater (Gleeson et al., 2026). This shift has prompted growing interest  
35 in ‘wildfire resilience’, here understood as approaches that emphasize preparedness, mitigation,

36 emergency response, redundancy in critical infrastructure and water supply, coexistence with recurring  
37 fire regimes, and long-term recovery and adaptation rather than complete fire exclusion (Biro, 2009;  
38 Paveglio et al., 2009). Within this framing, firefighting and emergency response remain central, but are  
39 increasingly complemented by longer-term strategies that aim to reduce vulnerability and maintain  
40 essential services during repeated fire exposure. Critically, wildfire resilience is now an urban and peri-  
41 urban water challenge as fires increasingly penetrate the wildland–urban interface and threaten water  
42 supply and pressure in urbanized neighbourhoods and expanding peri-urban settlements. Despite this  
43 conceptual shift, wildfire resilience planning continues to focus primarily on vegetation management,  
44 land-use planning, cultural and prescribed burning, and emergency response capacity, with comparatively  
45 less attention to urban, peri-urban, and wildland–urban interface water systems as integrated components  
46 of wildfire resilience. Yet water plays a critical role across all phases of wildfire: it is important for certain  
47 fuel management strategies such as prescribed and cultural burning (while other fuel reduction methods  
48 such as mechanical thinning or chipping may not require water), central to active fire suppression and  
49 structural protection, and vital for drinking water security and ecological recovery following fire (Bladon  
50 et al., 2014; Martin, 2016). Recent wildfire disasters in major metropolitan regions have amplified  
51 expectations that urban water supply systems should play a stronger role in wildfire resilience, often  
52 beyond what these systems were originally designed to deliver for typical firefighting demands in urban  
53 areas (Pierce et al., 2025; Belongia et al., 2023). In this context, Pierce et al. (2025) call for an ‘all-hands-  
54 on-deck’ approach to strengthen urban water preparedness, while also recognizing infrastructure limits,  
55 cost trade-offs, and equity implications of expanded fire-related water demands. This Perspective responds  
56 to that call by extending the urban water discourse to groundwater, conceptualizing it not merely as  
57 emergency backup but as a governed social–ecological system (SES) embedded in wildland–urban  
58 interface and peri-urban landscapes where wildfire exposure, decentralized wells, and institutional  
59 coordination intersect (Huggins et al., 2023; McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014). As wildfire regimes intensify,  
60 disruptions to water quantity, quality, and infrastructure are becoming more frequent, exposing  
61 vulnerabilities in water governance systems that were not designed for repeated, high-severity fire events  
62 or for the cumulative pressures created by recurring emergency water demands.

63 Existing wildfire–water scholarship has largely focused on surface water impacts, particularly  
64 post-fire contamination, increased sediment and nutrient loading, and damage to water treatment  
65 infrastructure (Bladon et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2011). These studies have been crucial in demonstrating  
66 that wildfires affect not only forests but also downstream water users, aquatic ecosystems, and municipal  
67 water providers. However, this body of work has tended to frame water primarily as a passive recipient of  
68 wildfire impacts or as a logistical input to fire suppression, rather than as a dynamic SES whose  
69 governance is reshaped by fire, including governance challenges that emerge inside urban and peri-urban  
70 service areas when wildfire disrupts water pressure, power, treatment, and distribution. Groundwater, in  
71 particular, remains largely overlooked in wildfire resilience planning despite its potential role in  
72 supporting both emergency firefighting and drinking water security when surface systems fail. In this  
73 context, groundwater governance includes decisions about who can access groundwater during  
74 emergencies, how extraction is prioritized and monitored, what safeguards protect aquifers and  
75 groundwater-dependent ecosystems, and how risks and responsibilities are distributed across users and

76 communities. Yet in many regions, groundwater is widely distributed, embedded in peri-urban  
77 subdivisions and rural–urban fringes, and may provide a decentralized reserve of water for fire  
78 suppression, structural protection, and emergency domestic supply, while also being less exposed than  
79 surface water to certain immediate contamination pathways during wildfire events, even though post-fire  
80 recharge, turbidity pathways, and well vulnerability can still occur (Gleeson et al., 2026). While  
81 groundwater has not been systematically documented or institutionally integrated as a primary water  
82 source for wildfire response in most jurisdictions, its decentralized presence suggests significant untapped  
83 potential for supporting resilience. In some areas, wells could provide the only reliable water source during  
84 late summer fire seasons, especially where surface water flows are intermittent or access to surface water  
85 is constrained (e.g., due to limited conveyance infrastructure, pumping capacity, or site accessibility) and  
86 high groundwater levels increase soil moisture. This may be particularly important in wildland–urban  
87 interface and peri-urban landscapes where centralized infrastructure can be limited, fragmented, or  
88 vulnerable to disruption during fire events. Despite this, groundwater is typically treated as invisible  
89 infrastructure or as an emergency backup to be mobilized during crises, rather than as a system requiring  
90 anticipatory governance and long-term stewardship (Foster et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2013).

91 This emergency framing creates a paradox. In many wildland–urban interface and peri-urban  
92 landscapes, wildfire risk is rising and decentralized wells could be relied upon, yet institutional pathways  
93 for using groundwater safely, equitably, and sustainably during emergencies remain underdeveloped. On  
94 one hand, groundwater aligns well with emerging notions of wildfire resilience: it is decentralized, less  
95 susceptible to single-point failures, and already embedded in many communities. On the other hand,  
96 unmanaged or poorly governed emergency groundwater use could exacerbate long-term risks, including  
97 aquifer depletion, harm to groundwater-dependent ecosystems, and inequitable access during crises  
98 (Aeschbach-Hertig & Gleeson, 2012; Zwartveen & Boelens, 2017). These concerns may be especially  
99 acute in slow-recharge or fossil aquifers, where emergency extraction can create long recovery times and  
100 intensify intergenerational sustainability trade-offs. These risks to specific action situations and  
101 governance responses are explored further below. As wildfire events become more frequent, there is a  
102 growing risk that emergency groundwater extraction becomes normalized, shifting groundwater  
103 governance from planned allocation toward reactive crisis management. Importantly, the absence of  
104 proactive governance does not prevent groundwater from being used during wildfire emergencies rather,  
105 it increases the likelihood that extraction occurs informally, unevenly, and without adequate safeguards,  
106 monitoring, or long-term planning. While documented examples of ad hoc groundwater use for wildfire  
107 response remain limited, anecdotal and emerging evidence from wildfire-prone regions (e.g., western  
108 North America and Australia) suggests localized, informal usage of private wells during emergencies,  
109 highlighting the need for systematic study and governance attention (Concerns-Wells, 2012; Government  
110 of Newfoundland and Labrador, 2024). This shift is not equity-neutral, wildfire-driven groundwater  
111 decisions can redistribute risks and responsibilities across households and communities, often amplifying  
112 pre-existing inequities in access, voice, and capacity (Zwartveen & Boelens, 2017; Hanrahan et al., 2014;  
113 Gleeson et al., 2026). Similar dynamics have been observed during climate-related water crises. During  
114 the 2015–2018 Cape Town 'Day Zero' drought, wealthier households increasingly buffered municipal  
115 shortages through private groundwater access, while more vulnerable populations remained

116 disproportionately exposed to water insecurity (Savelli et al., 2021; Savelli et al., 2023). Without  
117 coordinated planning and monitoring, wildfire-related groundwater use could reproduce similar inequities,  
118 with communities that have fewer water alternatives or lower institutional capacity bearing a  
119 disproportionate share of long-term risks.

120 SES scholarship offers a useful lens for addressing this gap. Groundwater is a classic common  
121 pool resource, characterized by difficulties of exclusion and subtractability, and shaped by interactions  
122 among biophysical processes, social actors, and governance arrangements (Ostrom, 1990; McGinnis &  
123 Ostrom, 2014). The recent ‘groundwater-connected systems’ framing considers groundwater as SES with  
124 feedbacks, nonlinearities, multiple stable states, and path dependency, properties that only become visible  
125 when groundwater is framed as embedded in social, ecological, and Earth systems rather than treated as  
126 isolated physical storage (Huggins et al., 2023). SES frameworks emphasize relational interactions among  
127 ecological conditions, governance arrangements, social actors, and power relations, rather than treating  
128 resource outcomes as determined solely by physical availability. In this context, wildfire can be understood  
129 not simply as an external disturbance to groundwater systems or merely a resource for wildfire  
130 management, but as part of an interconnected governance challenge in which fire regimes, water systems,  
131 emergency response, and social institutions shape one another. Wildfire events can temporarily alter  
132 groundwater governance arrangements by reshaping who can access water, under what conditions, and  
133 for what purposes. Building on this insight, the concept of ‘action situations’ is particularly valuable for  
134 examining groundwater–wildfire interactions. Action situations refer to contexts in which actors interact,  
135 make decisions, and generate outcomes under specific institutional and environmental conditions  
136 (McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014). Wildfires can activate multiple, overlapping groundwater-related action  
137 situations, before, during, and after fire events, each with distinct actors, stakes, and trade-offs. These  
138 include groundwater use for preparedness and risk reduction (e.g., cultural and prescribed burning),  
139 emergency use for active fire suppression and structural protection, emergency drinking water supply  
140 when surface water systems fail, and longer-term recovery and adaptation processes that shape future  
141 vulnerability.

142 Viewing groundwater through the lens of wildfire-activated action situations helps move beyond  
143 narrow questions of whether groundwater can technically support firefighting. Instead, it foregrounds  
144 broader governance questions: Who has the authority to access groundwater during emergencies? How  
145 are risks and benefits distributed across users? What safeguards exist to protect aquifers and groundwater-  
146 dependent ecosystems? And how do repeated wildfire events alter the long-term social and ecological  
147 functions of groundwater systems? Equity and justice are embedded within these governance processes  
148 through decisions about participation, recognition, monitoring, allocation, and burden-sharing. This  
149 includes distributive equity (who bears depletion risk), procedural equity (who participates in decisions),  
150 and recognition justice (whose rights, values, and knowledge systems are acknowledged, including  
151 Indigenous governance) (Zwarteveen & Boelens, 2017; Whyte, 2017). This aligns with the commitment  
152 of *Nature Water* to work that reimagines humanity’s relationship with water while advancing sustainability  
153 and equity, an especially urgent remit where wildfire drives cascading and unequal impacts on urban and  
154 peri-urban water systems (Pierce et al., 2025).

155 We argue that wildfire resilience is increasingly a water governance challenge, and that  
156 groundwater should be explicitly conceptualized and governed as a SES within fire-prone landscapes. We  
157 apply a SES framework and the concept of action situations that illustrate how wildfires reconfigure  
158 groundwater systems, governance arrangements, and outcomes. We use British Columbia as an illustrative  
159 example of broader wildfire–groundwater governance challenges emerging across fire-prone regions (e.g.,  
160 Gleeson et al., 2020; BC Wildfire Service, 2023; Daniels et al., 2024). Specifically, this paper addresses  
161 the following research questions: 1) how could groundwater as SES enhance wildfire resilience? and 2)  
162 which groundwater-related action situations are possible before, during and after wildfire? This paper  
163 contributes to emerging debates on climate adaptation, common pool resource governance, and social-  
164 ecological resilience that builds on the recent argument that short-term groundwater use could reduce  
165 natural hazard susceptibilities and inequities (Gleeson et al. 2026). This paper contributes a governance  
166 perspective that reframes groundwater as an integral component of wildfire resilience and highlights  
167 wildfire-activated groundwater action situations as critical sites of adaptation, coordination, and  
168 stewardship.

## 169 **Conceptualizing groundwater and wildfire as a social–ecological system**

### 170 *Groundwater as a common pool resource in fire-prone landscapes*

171 Groundwater is a quintessential common pool resource, characterized by difficulties of exclusion  
172 and subtractability among users (Ostrom, 1990; Aeschbach-Hertig & Gleeson, 2012). Unlike centralized  
173 surface water infrastructure, groundwater is typically accessed through decentralized wells embedded  
174 within households, farms, and communities (Foster & Garduño, 2013). This decentralization can enhance  
175 resilience by reducing reliance on centralized infrastructure and enabling local self-sufficiency,  
176 particularly in rural and peri-urban contexts (Gleeson et al., 2020). At the same time, it complicates  
177 governance because monitoring, coordination, and enforcement are inherently challenging, particularly  
178 during crises when demand escalates rapidly and institutional rules are tested or temporarily suspended  
179 (Ostrom, 2009; Foster & van der Gun, 2016). However, the resilience potential of groundwater is highly  
180 uneven. Not all aquifers are sufficiently productive, permeable, or accessible to support emergency  
181 extraction, and many wells may be too shallow, too low-yielding, poorly maintained, or physically  
182 inaccessible during wildfire events. In some places, groundwater systems may already be stressed by  
183 overuse, drought, or seasonal decline, limiting their capacity to function as a reliable emergency source  
184 (Wada et al., 2010; Aeschbach-Hertig & Gleeson, 2012).

185 In fire-prone landscapes, groundwater governance tensions associated with subtractability, access  
186 and emergency allocation may become more visible and contested. Wildfires introduce acute, episodic,  
187 and spatially uneven demand for water (Bladon et al., 2014; Martin, 2016). During active fire response,  
188 groundwater may be mobilized for suppression and structural protection when surface water is  
189 unavailable, unsafe, or inaccessible due to contamination, infrastructure failure, or seasonal low flows  
190 (Smith et al., 2011; Burke et al., 2021). During and after fire events, groundwater could become the  
191 primary source of drinking water for communities affected by surface water contamination or treatment  
192 disruptions (Bladon et al., 2014). Yet groundwater governance regimes are rarely designed to manage such

193 short-term, high-intensity extraction events. Most licensing and allocation systems assume relatively  
194 stable patterns of use and incremental change, creating a mismatch between governance design and  
195 wildfire-driven realities (Foster & van der Gun, 2016; OECD, 2015). At the same time, the physical  
196 feasibility of groundwater use during wildfire cannot be assumed such as aquifers with low transmissivity  
197 may not sustain high pumping rates, wells may not generate sufficient flow or pressure for firefighting,  
198 and damaged infrastructure, power outages, or limited site access can render groundwater unusable in  
199 practice.

200 This mismatch creates governance tensions that extend well beyond technical questions of  
201 hydrological capacity. Emergency groundwater use raises fundamental questions about authority, consent,  
202 liability, equity, and long-term stewardship (Zwarteveen & Boelens, 2017). Who has the right to access  
203 private or community wells during emergencies? How are risks to aquifers and groundwater-dependent  
204 ecosystems assessed and mitigated? Who bears responsibility if emergency pumping damages wells,  
205 reduces yields, or depletes local supplies? And how do repeated wildfire events alter social norms,  
206 expectations, and institutional arrangements surrounding groundwater use? These questions highlight that  
207 groundwater governance is shaped not only by biophysical availability, but also by social institutional  
208 arrangements, and political priorities. (Ostrom, 1990; Berkes et al., 2008). They also underscore that  
209 groundwater is not a universally reliable solution. Its contribution to wildfire resilience depends on  
210 hydrogeological conditions, infrastructure functionality, and prior stewardship, as well as governance  
211 (Taylor et al., 2013; Gleeson et al., 2020).

212 In regions such as British Columbia, these governance challenges are particularly salient. Wells  
213 are widespread across fire-prone landscapes, including within peri-urban and wildland–urban interface  
214 zones where wildfire risk is high and surface water availability is often seasonally constrained (BC  
215 Wildfire Service, 2023). A significant proportion of these wells are technically capable of supplying water  
216 for firefighting or emergency domestic use, especially during late summer fire seasons when surface water  
217 sources may be intermittent or inaccessible. However, even where groundwater is present, physical  
218 capacity does not necessarily equate to operational or institutional readiness. Some wells may not provide  
219 sufficient yield or pressure, some aquifers may be too depleted or slow to recover, and some sites may be  
220 inaccessible to firefighting crews during emergencies. The ability to mobilize groundwater during wildfire  
221 depends not only on hydrogeological conditions, but also on governance arrangements that determine  
222 access rights, emergency powers, monitoring requirements, and social acceptance (Megdal et al., 2017).  
223 Provincial policy recognizes the importance of water for wildfire response, including provisions for  
224 emergency water use (Province of British Columbia, 2022), but these are not embedded with any  
225 coordinated, anticipatory wildfire or groundwater governance. Without anticipatory governance, there is  
226 a risk that emergency groundwater extraction becomes normalized, shifting groundwater governance from  
227 planned allocation toward reactive crisis management and reinforcing path-dependent vulnerabilities for  
228 aquifers, ecosystems, infrastructure systems, and communities. Groundwater should therefore be  
229 understood as a context-dependent resilience resource whose usefulness varies across landscapes, rather  
230 than as a universally available substitute for surface water systems.

231 *Applying a social–ecological systems (SES) framework*

232 The SES framework developed by McGinnis and Ostrom (2014) provides a structured way to  
233 analyze complex resource systems shaped by interactions among ecological processes, social actors, and  
234 governance institutions. Rather than treating environmental resources as external to society, the SES  
235 framework conceptualizes them as co-produced through human–environment interactions, with outcomes  
236 emerging from feedbacks across multiple system components (Ostrom, 2009; Berkes et al., 2008). In its  
237 canonical form, the SES framework includes several interacting components: resource systems, resource  
238 units, governance systems, actors, action situations, related ecosystems, and broader social, economic, and  
239 political contexts. Outcomes emerge from interactions within action situations and feed back into other  
240 system components over time. We use Ostrom’s SES framework as a diagnostic governance framework  
241 because groundwater–wildfire interactions are fundamentally coupled human–environment systems  
242 characterized by feedbacks, governance complexity, and disturbance-driven change (Huggins et al., 2023;  
243 McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014; Ostrom, 1990). Recent wildfire scholarship increasingly conceptualizes fire-  
244 prone landscapes as dynamic SES where adaptive and transformative resilience, rather than simple  
245 recovery, are required (McWethy et al., 2019). This framing aligns with emerging water research  
246 highlighting cascading wildfire risks across water quantity, quality, and infrastructure systems (Belongia  
247 et al., 2023). Moreover, SES applications in groundwater governance demonstrate that aquifers,  
248 communities, and ecosystems operate as interdependent subsystems shaped by institutions, rights, and  
249 collective action (Bouchet et al., 2019; Rica et al., 2017). Alternative and complementary SES-oriented  
250 frameworks (e.g., network governance and social cohesion models) may further refine analysis in future  
251 empirical work (Hamilton et al., 2018; Prior & Eriksen, 2013). In addition, wildfire and climate-driven  
252 water crises can also be interpreted through the lens of hyperobjects, which are large-scale, temporally  
253 extended phenomena that exceed conventional spatial, temporal, and governance boundaries (Morton,  
254 2013). From this perspective, wildfire-groundwater interactions are not isolated events, but components  
255 of a distributed social-hydrological disturbance shaped by climate change, land use, and infrastructure  
256 systems. These dynamics becoming visible through recurring groundwater-related action situations  
257 before, during, and after wildfire events.

258 Applying the SES framework to wildfire–groundwater interactions require contextual  
259 reinterpretation across wildfire temporal phases and governance contexts. First, wildfire must be treated  
260 not as an external shock, but as a recurring disturbance regime that repeatedly activates and reshapes  
261 groundwater-related action situations (Bowman et al., 2020; Martin, 2016). Second, groundwater  
262 governance must be understood as operating across multiple temporal phases, from preparedness and  
263 response to recovery and long-term adaptation (Pahl-Wostl, 2009; Foster & van der Gun, 2016). Third,  
264 outcomes must be understood as cumulative and path-dependent, influencing future governance  
265 arrangements, social norms, and resource availability (Pierson, 2004). The framework presented here  
266 centers on a composite action situation: groundwater use for wildfire resilience. Then below we describe  
267 more specific action situations activated before, during, and after wildfire events including groundwater  
268 use for preparedness and risk reduction, active wildfire response, emergency drinking water supply,  
269 recovery and adaptation, and prescribed and cultural burning (Lake et al., 2017; Paveglio et al., 2009).  
270 While these contexts differ in timing, intensity, and actors, they share underlying governance challenges  
271 related to access, authority, accountability, and sustainability.

272 *Core components of a SES framework*

273 **Resource Systems:** In the wildfire–groundwater context, the resource system includes both groundwater  
274 and its interaction with surface water, forests, and climatic conditions. Aquifers are embedded within  
275 broader hydrological and ecological systems that are influenced by wildfire through changes in recharge,  
276 runoff, sedimentation, and contamination pathways (Bladon et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2011). Wildfires can  
277 alter infiltration patterns, increase erosion, and affect the quality and availability of groundwater over time,  
278 particularly through post-fire soil hydrophobicity and landscape disturbance (Martin, 2016). These  
279 biophysical dynamics set the conditions under which groundwater can be mobilized during fire events and  
280 shape longer-term recovery trajectories.

281 **Resource Units:** Resource units refer to the groundwater volumes and flows that are accessible to users,  
282 as well as the spatial units through which wildfire and water interactions are mediated. These include  
283 aquifer storage, well yields, source water protection areas, forest blocks, and wildland–urban interface  
284 zones. Importantly, resource units are not static; their availability and reliability can change as a result of  
285 cumulative extraction, infrastructure damage, climate variability, or ecological impacts (Aeschbach-  
286 Hertig & Gleeson, 2012). In wildfire contexts, resource units become particularly salient as communities  
287 and agencies seek to mobilize groundwater rapidly under conditions of urgency and uncertainty.

288 **Actors:** Actors in the wildfire–groundwater SES include firefighters and wildfire agencies, emergency  
289 responders, private and community well owners, Indigenous, local, regional, provincial/state and national  
290 governments, non-governmental organizations, water utilities, and communities. These actors bring  
291 diverse priorities, knowledge systems, and power relations into groundwater-related decision-making  
292 (Berkes, 2018; Zwartveen & Boelens, 2017). Private well owners, in particular, occupy a critical position  
293 as both rights holders and potential contributors to collective wildfire response potentially negotiating  
294 access informally during emergencies. Indigenous actors bring long-standing knowledge of fire and water  
295 stewardship and play a central role in cultural and prescribed burning, yet their authority and rights are  
296 frequently marginalized or constrained within dominant governance systems (Lake et al., 2017; Whyte,  
297 2017). Equity considerations cut across actor roles and capacities, rural and remote well users may face  
298 higher exposure to depletion risks and lower access to monitoring, financial buffers, or political voice,  
299 while Indigenous Nations may confront recognition gaps where stewardship authority and water rights are  
300 not operationalized in emergency governance. These inequities shape who can contribute groundwater to  
301 collective response and who bears the long-term costs (Hanrahan et al., 2014; Whyte, 2017; Zwartveen  
302 & Boelens, 2017).

303 **Governance Systems:** Governance systems encompass the formal and informal rules that structure  
304 groundwater use during wildfire. These include water allocation and licensing regimes, emergency powers  
305 and wildfire response protocols, land-use and forestry regulations, Indigenous and local governance  
306 systems, monitoring and reporting requirements, and informal norms or ad hoc agreements (Foster & van  
307 der Gun, 2016; OECD, 2015). In wildfire contexts, governance systems are often characterized by rule  
308 switching, as emergency powers temporarily override standard allocation regimes (Ostrom, 2009). How  
309 these temporary measures are implemented, monitored, and institutionalized has profound implications

310 for long-term groundwater sustainability, equity, and legitimacy. An equity-oriented wildfire resilience  
311 approach requires that emergency groundwater rules include procedural safeguards (participation and  
312 transparency), distributive protections (burden-sharing and compensation), and recognition of Indigenous  
313 rights and knowledge systems (Whyte, 2017; Zwarteveen & Boelens, 2017).

314 **Related Ecosystems:** Related ecosystems include forests, groundwater-dependent ecosystems, surface  
315 waters, soils, and post-fire landscapes. These ecosystems both influence and are influenced by  
316 groundwater use and wildfire dynamics (Eamus et al., 2015). For example, groundwater extraction can  
317 affect baseflows, wetlands, and riparian ecosystems, while post-fire changes in vegetation cover and soil  
318 structure can alter recharge patterns and hydrological connectivity (Bladon et al., 2014). Recognizing these  
319 interdependencies is essential for avoiding maladaptive responses that protect one component of the  
320 system, such as emergency water supply, at the expense of ecological integrity and long-term resilience  
321 (Folke et al., 2010).

322 **Related Social, Economic, and Political Contexts:** Groundwater use for wildfire resilience is also  
323 shaped by broader social, economic, and political conditions, including climate change, land-use change,  
324 colonial and legal histories, rural–urban development patterns, infrastructure investment, and Indigenous  
325 rights and governance (McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014; Whyte, 2017). These contextual factors influence  
326 exposure to wildfire risk, access to groundwater infrastructure, institutional capacity, and the distribution  
327 of benefits and burdens associated with emergency groundwater use. They also shape whose knowledge  
328 systems, priorities, and governance approaches are recognized in wildfire resilience planning.  
329 Recognizing these broader contexts is critical because wildfire–groundwater interactions are embedded  
330 within unequal social and political landscapes rather than operating as purely technical or hydrological  
331 systems.

### 332 **Action Situations for groundwater use in wildfire resilience**

333 Central to the SES framework is the concept of action situations, defined as contexts in which  
334 actors interact under specific institutional and environmental conditions to produce outcomes (McGinnis  
335 & Ostrom, 2014). Wildfires activate multiple groundwater-related action situations across temporal  
336 phases, each with distinct actors, stakes, and governance questions. These action situations are not isolated  
337 events but recurring decision contexts that emerge before, during, and after wildfire disturbance (Paveglio  
338 et al., 2009). Table 1 synthesizes five such action situations: preparedness and risk reduction, active  
339 wildfire response, drinking water security during wildfire, recovery and rehabilitation, and cultural and  
340 prescribed burns. Across action situations, equity outcomes are produced through both formal rules  
341 (licensing, emergency authorities) and informal relationships (trust, reciprocity, social pressure), making  
342 distributive, procedural, and recognition justice integral to wildfire resilience governance (Zwarteveen &  
343 Boelens, 2017; Hanrahan et al., 2014). Importantly, these action situations are interconnected rather than  
344 independent. Decisions made during preparedness influence emergency response capacity; crisis-driven  
345 extraction during wildfire response can reshape recovery trajectories; and repeated emergency practices  
346 may become institutionalized over time. These interactions create trade-offs between short-term  
347 emergency needs and long-term groundwater sustainability, equity, and ecosystem protection.

348 During **preparedness and risk reduction**, groundwater may support prescribed and cultural  
349 burning, fuel management, and the development of redundant water infrastructure for resilience planning  
350 (Lake et al., 2017; Paveglio et al., 2009). Governance questions in this phase center on planning authority,  
351 cost sharing, and collective risk reduction, particularly where groundwater is privately owned but wildfire  
352 risk is shared across communities. If these governance arrangements remain underdeveloped,  
353 opportunities for prevention may be missed, increasing wildfire severity and downstream impacts  
354 (Bowman et al., 2020).

355 During **active wildfire response**, groundwater may be mobilized for emergency pumping to  
356 support ground crews and structural protection when surface water sources are unavailable or unsafe  
357 (Bladon et al., 2014; Martin, 2016). Governance challenges include access to private and community  
358 wells, liability for damage or depletion, consent under emergency conditions, and equity in the distribution  
359 of impacts and benefits (Foster & van der Gun, 2016; Megdal et al., 2017). Repeated reliance on  
360 emergency extraction risks aquifer stress and the normalization of crisis-driven governance, particularly  
361 in regions experiencing increasingly frequent fire seasons.

362 During **drinking water security** action situations, groundwater becomes a critical backup when  
363 surface water systems are compromised by contamination, infrastructure failure, or power outages (Smith  
364 et al., 2011; Bladon et al., 2014). Governance questions focus on water quality monitoring, public health  
365 protection, emergency prioritization, and responsibility for ensuring safe supply (OECD, 2015).  
366 Inadequate planning in this phase can disproportionately affect rural, Indigenous, and remote communities  
367 that already face structural inequities in water access and infrastructure (Hanrahan et al., 2014; Zwartveen  
368 & Boelens, 2017).

369 During **recovery and adaptation**, groundwater supports rebuilding, altered land-use practices,  
370 and longer-term resilience to future fire events (Pahl-Wostl, 2009). Key governance challenges include  
371 institutionalizing lessons learned from emergency use, preventing chronic over-extraction, and protecting  
372 groundwater-dependent ecosystems as fire regimes intensify (Eamus et al., 2015; Gleeson et al., 2020).

373 Finally, **cultural and prescribed burns** highlight the role of groundwater in enabling Indigenous  
374 fire stewardship and the implementation of low-intensity fire regimes that reduce catastrophic wildfire  
375 risk (Lake et al., 2017). Governance questions in this action situation center on recognition of Indigenous  
376 water rights, authority over groundwater access, and the integration of cultural values and Indigenous  
377 knowledge into dominant water governance systems (Berkes, 2017; Whyte, 2017). Failure to address these  
378 questions risks marginalizing Indigenous stewardship practices and undermining fire resilience at broader  
379 landscape scales.

380 Wildfire-activated action situations generate outcomes that extend well beyond immediate fire  
381 suppression or water provision. These outcomes include water security and reliability, public health  
382 protection, aquifer stress or sustainability, ecosystem impacts, equity outcomes, and processes of  
383 institutional learning or maladaptation (Folke et al., 2010; Ostrom, 2009). Importantly, outcomes feed  
384 back into governance systems, actor behavior, and resource availability over time, shaping future action  
385 situations and governance trajectories (McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014). Repeated wildfire events can lead to

386 path-dependent governance trajectories, where emergency measures become normalized and integrated  
387 into standard practice without adequate safeguards or monitoring (Pierson, 2004; Foster & van der Gun,  
388 2016). Conversely, wildfire-driven crises can catalyze learning, coordination, and institutional reform that  
389 strengthen anticipatory and adaptive governance (Pahl-Wostl, 2009). Whether groundwater use for  
390 wildfire resilience becomes a source of long-term resilience or vulnerability depends on how these  
391 feedbacks are recognized, governed, and institutionalized. If crisis-driven extraction becomes normalized  
392 without safeguards, inequities can become path-dependent, where communities with fewer alternatives  
393 repeatedly shoulder depletion and reliability risks while others externalize costs (Pierson, 2004; Gleeson  
394 et al., 2026).

395 This SES framework advances understanding of wildfire resilience as a fundamentally  
396 governance-driven challenge, rather than a purely technical or ecological one by adapting the SES  
397 framework to wildfire–groundwater interactions (Paveglio et al., 2009). It demonstrates that groundwater  
398 is not merely emergency infrastructure, but a common pool resource whose sustainability depends on  
399 institutions, power relations, and social norms (Ostrom, 1990; Zwarteveen & Boelens, 2017). Integrating  
400 groundwater into wildfire resilience planning therefore requires anticipatory governance that explicitly  
401 recognizes multiple action situations, respects Indigenous rights and authority, and balances short-term  
402 emergency needs with long-term stewardship. This framework also has broader relevance beyond British  
403 Columbia. As wildfire regimes intensify globally, many regions will confront similar challenges at the  
404 intersection of water governance and fire resilience (Bowman et al., 2020; IPCC, 2022). Applying an SES  
405 lens to groundwater use under wildfire disturbance offers a pathway toward more integrated, equitable,  
406 and sustainable climate adaptation strategies in a warming world.

## 407 **From local to global fire resilience: why this matters?**

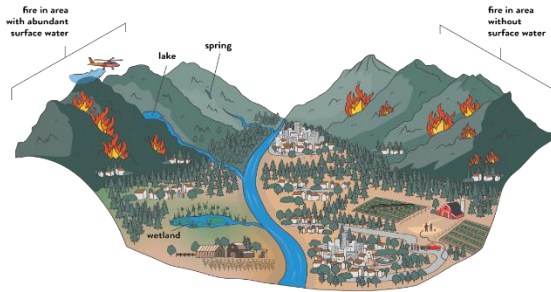
408 Wildfire–groundwater interactions are not unique to British Columbia. Across fire-prone regions  
409 of Australia, the western United States, the Mediterranean, southern Africa, Latin America, and parts of  
410 Asia, groundwater could increasingly function as an invisible backbone of wildfire response and post-fire  
411 recovery (Bladon et al., 2014; Martin, 2016; Gleeson et al., 2026). As surface water systems become more  
412 vulnerable to drought, contamination, and infrastructure failure under climate change, reliance on  
413 groundwater during wildfire events is likely to intensify globally (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016; IPCC,  
414 2022). Climate uncertainty may further complicate these action situations by altering recharge dynamics,  
415 seasonal water availability, and long-term groundwater reliability across fire-prone regions. Yet in many  
416 of these regions, groundwater governance remains fragmented, reactive, and poorly aligned with  
417 emergency management and climate adaptation planning (Foster & van der Gun, 2016; OECD, 2015).  
418 This SES framework offers a transferable way to recognize groundwater as a shared common pool  
419 resource activated by fire disturbance (Ostrom, 1990; McGinnis & Ostrom, 2014). It highlights how  
420 localized emergency decisions, often negotiated informally between responders and private well owners,  
421 accumulate into broader governance outcomes that shape equity, ecosystem health, and long-term water  
422 security. Without anticipatory governance, repeated wildfire events risk normalizing crisis-driven  
423 extraction and exacerbating groundwater depletion, institutional fragility, and social inequities. The call  
424 to action is clear: wildfire resilience strategies should explicitly integrate groundwater governance,

425 emergency protocols, and Indigenous stewardship into climate adaptation planning (Berkes, 2017; Lake  
426 et al., 2017). Treating groundwater as a SES, rather than invisible emergency infrastructure, is essential  
427 for learning to live with fire in a warming world. Several important questions remain unresolved at the  
428 groundwater–wildfire interface. Future research should examine how emergency groundwater governance  
429 can balance short-term fire response with long-term aquifer sustainability; how liability, compensation,  
430 and consent mechanisms should operate during crises; and how Indigenous governance systems and  
431 relational stewardship approaches can be meaningfully integrated into wildfire adaptation planning. More  
432 broadly, wildfire-driven groundwater governance raises unresolved ethical and political questions  
433 regarding whose water is mobilized during emergencies, whose risks are prioritized, and how climate  
434 adaptation burdens are distributed across communities. Addressing these challenges will require stronger  
435 integration between groundwater governance, emergency management, climate adaptation, and justice-  
436 oriented resilience planning.

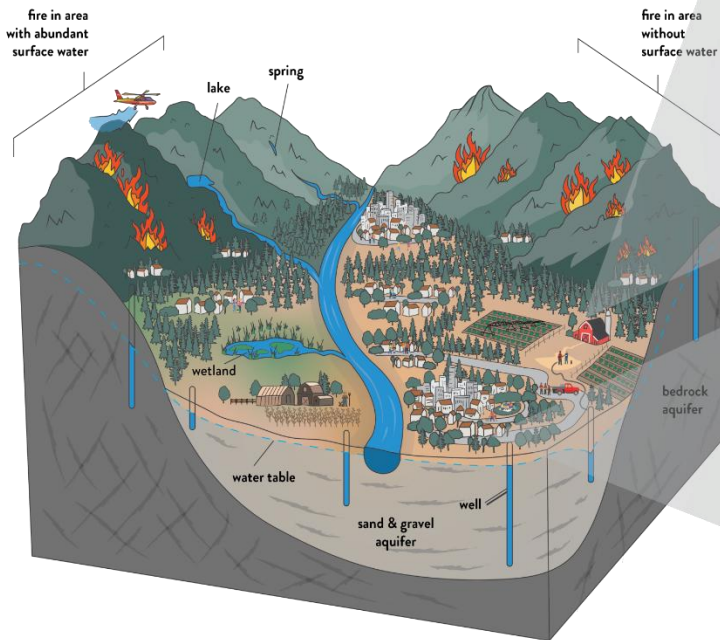
### 437 **Acknowledgements**

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440 of Marsupial Design based on original sketches from TG and NV; farm buildings, people and airplane  
441 generated with Adobe Firefly AI in Illustrator and artist-modified.

a) wildfires without considering groundwater



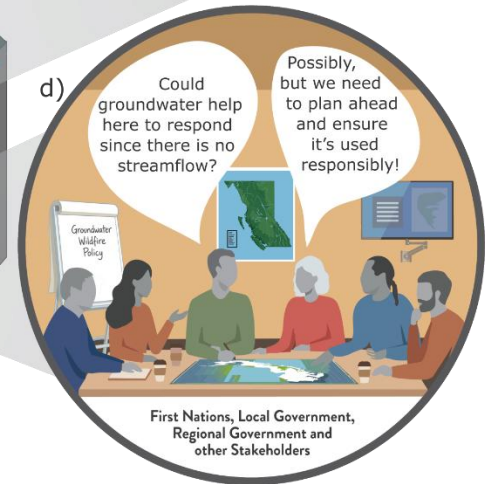
b) wildfire resilience with groundwater



c)

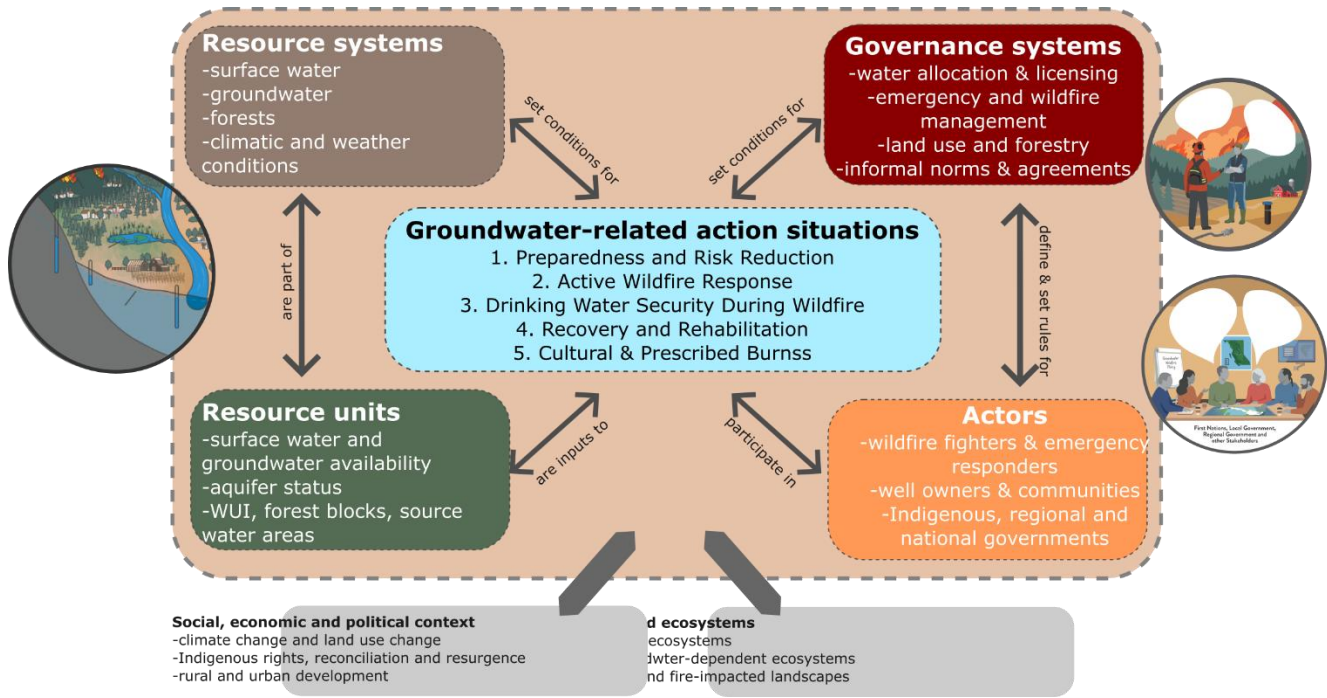


d)



442

443 **Figure 1. Conceptual landscape of wildfire resilience if a) without explicit integration of**  
444 **groundwater governance or b) with coordinated groundwater integration. Two conceptual**  
445 **vignettes illustrate relationship-centered action situations: (c) an emergency negotiation at a**  
446 **private well during wildfire response, and (d) a multi-stakeholder decision meeting shaping**  
447 **governance safeguards, equity, and long-term stewardship.**



450 **Figure 2. Social-ecological systems framework for the composite action situation of groundwater**  
451 **use for wildfire resilience.**

452 **Table 1. Groundwater–Wildfire Action Situations in a Social–Ecological Systems Perspective**

<i>Action Situation</i>	<i>Opportunities of groundwater use</i>	<i>Challenges of groundwater use</i>	<i>Key Actors</i>	<i>Governance Questions</i>
<b>1. Preparedness and Risk Reduction</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Water supply for prescribed and cultural burning</li> <li>• Fuel management support</li> <li>• Redundant water infrastructure for resilience planning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Under-use of groundwater for prevention</li> <li>• Reliance on informal or ad hoc access</li> <li>• Conflict over pre-fire extraction</li> <li>• Missed opportunities for risk reduction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Forestry and wildfire agencies</li> <li>• Indigenous fire stewards</li> <li>• Land managers</li> <li>• Private well owners</li> <li>• Local governments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Who plans for groundwater use in fire preparedness?</li> <li>• Who pays for infrastructure and monitoring?</li> <li>• Whose groundwater is used for collective risk reduction?</li> </ul>
<b>2. Active Wildfire Response</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emergency pumping for ground crews</li> <li>• Structural protection</li> <li>• Supplement or substitute for surface water</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aquifer stress from repeated emergency pumping</li> <li>• Legal ambiguity and liability disputes</li> <li>• Unequal access across communities</li> <li>• Normalization of crisis-driven extraction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Firefighters and wildfire agencies</li> <li>• Emergency managers</li> <li>• Private, irrigation, and community well owners</li> <li>• Utilities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can public agencies access private groundwater?</li> <li>• Who bears liability for damage or depletion?</li> <li>• How is consent obtained under emergency conditions?</li> <li>• Are impacts distributed equitably?</li> </ul>
<b>3. Drinking Water Security During Wildfire</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emergency drinking water supply</li> <li>• Backup when surface water is contaminated or infrastructure fails</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public health risks from inadequate monitoring</li> <li>• Disproportionate impacts on rural, Indigenous, and remote communities</li> <li>• Short-term fixes replacing long-term planning</li> <li>• Procedural inequities in emergency prioritization and communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rural and urban communities</li> <li>• Indigenous Nations</li> <li>• Water utilities</li> <li>• Public health agencies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is groundwater quality adequately monitored?</li> <li>• Who ensures water safety during emergencies?</li> <li>• Which communities receive priority access?</li> </ul>
<b>4. Recovery and Rehabilitation</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sustained water supply during rebuilding</li> <li>• Support for altered land use and livelihoods</li> <li>• Buffer against future fire-related disruptions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chronic groundwater depletion</li> <li>• Ecosystem degradation</li> <li>• Entrenchment of maladaptive practices</li> <li>• Escalating conflict over water allocation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communities and households</li> <li>• Agricultural users</li> <li>• Policymakers and regulators</li> <li>• Researchers and planners</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How are lessons from emergency use institutionalized?</li> <li>• What limits prevent long-term over-extraction?</li> <li>• How are groundwater-dependent ecosystems protected?</li> </ul>
<b>5. Cultural &amp; Prescribed Burns</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reliable water supply for controlled and cultural burning</li> <li>• Enabling Indigenous fire stewardship</li> <li>• Safer implementation of low-intensity fire regimes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Undermining Indigenous fire stewardship</li> <li>• Marginalization of cultural burning practices</li> <li>• Increased wildfire severity due to limited prescribed fire</li> <li>• Recognition gaps for Indigenous authority and water rights in emergency planning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indigenous fire stewards and knowledge holders</li> <li>• Forestry and wildfire agencies</li> <li>• Landowners and land managers</li> <li>• Local and regional governments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How are Indigenous water rights and authority recognized?</li> <li>• Who controls access to groundwater for prescribed fire?</li> <li>• How are cultural values integrated into water governance?</li> </ul>

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