

3 Applying a science-forward approach to 4 groundwater regulatory design

5
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18

19 Abstract

20 Groundwater sustainability is challenged by the difference between legal and scientific
21 understanding of groundwater as well as the lack of focused attention to regulatory design in the
22 literature on groundwater institutions, governance and management. The purpose of this paper is
23 to use groundwater science to direct the necessary elements of regulatory design for the unique
24 characteristics of groundwater. Using plain and interdisciplinary language that could be applied
25 in any jurisdiction or region, the article describes seven groundwater characteristics as processes,
26 functions, qualities, physical sustainability, scale, information and data, and physical state. Using
27 the characteristics of groundwater embeds the scientific understanding of groundwater into
28 regulatory design and enables the expression of new values, such as Indigenous rights to water.
29 Applying these characteristics to a case study of new groundwater regulation in a sub-national
30 jurisdiction in the global north - British Columbia, Canada - highlights the failure of regulatory
31 design even in a well-resourced jurisdiction where environmental regulation is the norm.
32 Groundwater in British Columbia is extremely heterogeneous in quality and function with low
33 observation density and undefined sustainability goals where regulations are applied on
34 uniformly. Looking forward, three recommendations can be drawn using the characteristics of
35 groundwater to improve regulatory design in British Columbia: defining sustainability goals and
36 ecological thresholds; regionalizing and prioritizing; and long-term planning. This science-
37 forward and interdisciplinary approach has implications for legally pluralistic states with
38 customary water entitlements. It also provides practitioners with an interdisciplinary language
39 that can be useful for assessing current and future regulatory design.

1. Introduction: regulatory design as a missing ingredient in groundwater sustainability

Oversimplification of our design options is dangerous since it hides more of the working parts needed to design effective, sustainable institutions than it reveals. And, it reduces our awareness of the need to monitor outcomes and improve them over time through better processes of learning and adaptation (Ostrom, 2005, 256).

Since the 2000's the conversation about the sustainability of groundwater has increasingly turned to issues of governance. Noting the disproportionate research focus on groundwater science and technology that ignores the people involved (Mukherji & Shaw 2005, 329), water scholars and experts ascribe the crisis in water to a failure in governance (Global Water Partnership, 2000). More generally, environmental governance, which includes regulatory design (defined in Box 1) for groundwater, is not simply a technical endeavour but involves complex socio-ecological processes both within and beyond the state (Harris 2017; Taylor 2015). Groundwater management and regulation is equally about social change where hydrosocial processes also shape waterscapes (Robertson 2015; Nygren 2021). Therefore, scholars are calling for a shift in the focus of groundwater management as a purely technical science or legal endeavour to a governance that accounts for multiple scales, actors and approaches needed (Mukherji & Shaw 2005).

Placing more emphasis on governance and the social aspects of groundwater through water resources policy, administration and law necessitates an interdisciplinary approach (Caponera & Nanni 2019, 4). Groundwater regulation is a key tool for policy implementation and structuring governance arrangements (Mechlem 2016; DeStefano and Lopez-Gunn 2012), as well as for adapting uses and protecting water from the impacts from climate change (Nanni 2012; Cullet 2017). While regulatory design is challenged by uncertainty (Jones 2007; Muchamore 2016), it is important to take an integrated approach that values groundwater science, social relations and institutional structures (Mukherji & Shaw 2005, 343).

This evolving context for the complexity of groundwater governance reveals at least two challenges for advancing groundwater sustainability. The first is that legal views about groundwater often differ fundamentally from scientific understanding of the scope and qualities of groundwater such that legal distinctions "bear no resemblance to geological reality" (Nelson & Quevauviller 2016, 175). Groundwater regulatory design as part of water resources regulation continues to be preoccupied with allocating use entitlements and property rights in water (Dellapena and Gupta 2021; De Stefano & Lopez-Gunn 2012, 150). The second challenge is that the significant literature on groundwater institutions, governance and management lack focused attention to regulatory design. Articles dealing with regulatory design in general do not define the term (Muchamore 2021; Jones 2007), and scholars tend to focus on the features of policy and regulatory design such as flexibility, predictability and incentives (Pettersson and Söderholm 2014) and their failure (Koski 2007). Authors have examined how dependent structures, such as

81 institutions, should have an impact on regulatory design (Araral 2014). In the case of water,
82 regulatory design is not just about creating a permit system for water users but includes how the
83 law enables the features of the entire regime for water protection and management from planning
84 to who makes decisions through diverse institutions.

85
86 Groundwater regulation literature includes technical, case study, and interdisciplinary synthesis
87 approaches. Technical research includes examining the relationship between well drilling,
88 abstraction and regulation (November 2021; Naber and Molle 2017), as well as modeling or
89 testing how different regulations will affect a stated issue (Liao et al 2016; Guo et al 2015;
90 Missimer et al 2014; Rinaudo et al 2014). Case studies of special status or place-specific
91 groundwater regulation abound (Knorr et al 2021; Turco & Petrov 2015; Cullet 2014; Apaydin
92 2011) and include optimal regulation to achieve a specific outcome (Aamoudse et al 2017; Ling
93 et al 2020; Li 2018), and compliance (Holley et al 2020). Interdisciplinary syntheses have
94 evaluated the social, political and economic factors that influence the success or failure of
95 groundwater regimes and noted trends, challenges, or established practice (Mukherji & Shaw
96 2005; Theesfeld 2010; FAO 2016; Mechlem 2016; Nelson & Quevauviller 2016; Molle & Closas
97 2020a). Noting that most quantitative groundwater regulation regimes fail, Molle and Closas
98 (2020b) identified strengths and weaknesses in political will, the extent of quantification of the
99 resource, institutional capacity, and social norms, including how the attributes of aquifers affect
100 policy implementation through institutions. While few examples exist of regulation that achieves
101 quantitative groundwater sustainability, authors note that the relative successes demonstrate
102 aquifer-specificity (rather than national or regional approaches), wells that are easily defined
103 (either small in number or managed by a defined user group), users that can be identified by their
104 physical plant (such as farms), social homogeneity among the primary users (i.e. farmers) or
105 equality of access to licensing, and the state can effectively exercise authority to identify wells,
106 control drilling and take enforcement action (Molle & Closas 2020a). Most recently groundwater
107 governance scholars are calling for a return to Ostrom's principles of institutional design for
108 common pool resources (2005), to examine its ongoing utility for informing groundwater
109 governance (Seward & Xu, 2019).

110
111 Returning to the challenge of legal intention failing to reflect hydrological processes, there is a
112 contemporary research gap in considering how the characteristics of the thing being regulated –
113 in this case groundwater - impact regulatory design. Scholars have noted the importance of
114 building from the characteristics of groundwater and aquifers (Theesfeld 2010; Caponera &
115 Nanni 2019, 170), however, studies do not examine whether a regulatory regime meets this
116 precondition that regulatory design must reflect the unique qualities of groundwater. Posing this
117 fundamental question continues the important inquiry into the connection between regulatory
118 design and groundwater sustainability, and also begins to formulate a new interdisciplinary
119 language through which natural and social scientists can explore the complexity of groundwater
120 governance. In addition, this approach permits new or unrecognized socio-ecological elements –
121 such as the rights of Indigenous peoples in legally pluralistic jurisdictions that may also hold

122 legal entitlements under state law or Indigenous or customary legal orders and have their own
123 knowledge traditions – to gain expression within the research (Curran 2019).

124
125 The purpose of this paper is to use groundwater science to direct the necessary elements of
126 regulatory design for the unique characteristics of groundwater behaviour, use, and users. It is
127 important to note that evaluating how groundwater should inform regulatory design does not
128 address many of the weaknesses of groundwater management and governance, namely equal
129 access, justice, community stability and economic sustainability. However, an underlying
130 condition for the success of regulatory design such that other policy, funding and management
131 levers can address those values is regulation that is grounded in the characteristics of
132 groundwater. In orienting the regulatory analysis around the nature of groundwater itself, this
133 inquiry is opportune for two reasons. First, the sustainability of groundwater relies equally on
134 natural and social sciences. Though interdisciplinary groundwater science is increasingly being
135 conducted (Barthel and Seidl 2017), disciplines and their different approaches to knowledge do
136 not yet have a common language through which to examine whether groundwater governance is
137 appropriately designed or succeeding. Using the characteristics of groundwater embeds the
138 scientific understanding of groundwater into the regulatory design structure. Second,
139 international norms such as the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples
140 (UNDRIP 1993) and national and sub-national legal orders are directing meaningful attention to
141 Indigenous peoples as an unaccounted user (or governing bodies) in state water regimes
142 (Province of BC 2020). While many state water law regimes, including in BC, do not
143 acknowledge Indigenous rights to water, expression of those rights by Indigenous governments
144 reinforces the characteristics of groundwater and the need to sharply correct state regulatory
145 design for groundwater.

146
147 Using these characteristics of groundwater, the paper is an examination of whether new
148 groundwater regulatory design in British Columbia (BC), Canada reflects these characteristics,
149 and thus orients the regulatory infrastructure to long-term groundwater sustainability. The case
150 study of BC offers a contemporary example of entirely new groundwater regulatory design in a
151 relatively homogenous state legal context: no groundwater licences, institutions or governance
152 fora existed, the common law of groundwater applied to existing uses, and there were no formal
153 legal conflicts between users.[1] The state government had consolidated ownership and control
154 over water in 1909, as is typical of modern state groundwater regimes (Nelson & Quevauviller,
155 2016), however had not explicitly included groundwater in that statement in law until the 1995
156 (Water Protection Act 1995). Underlying that assertion of ownership and thus regulatory
157 authority over groundwater are state-recognized aboriginal rights and title (Constitution Act
158 1982, section 35), with many pre-existing Indigenous legal orders establishing responsibility for
159 land and water relations through Indigenous territories throughout the province (Napoleon 2009).
160 Legislated drilling parameters for wells have been in place since 2004 but registration of new
161 wells was not mandatory. Finally, like many state jurisdictions, the hydrogeology of BC and
162 groundwater’s interaction with surface water and the broader environment is complex, and some

163 of the motivation for licensing groundwater uses stems from concern about maintaining adequate
164 flows for aquatic species, especially fish (Province of BC 2010cite policy docs in WAM process).
165 While not in extreme groundwater crisis, a conservative estimate places 20 percent of aquifers in
166 BC under stress from water extraction (Forstner et al 2018). The new licensing process for
167 groundwater, commenced in 2016, is displaying many of the weaknesses or failures of other
168 groundwater regimes across the globe but in a context where the main structural determinants of
169 good environmental regulation - green advocacy and governance capacity - are strong (Blohmke
170 et al 2016). Rather than examining BC's groundwater regulation as a regulatory design exercise
171 that is embedded within a history of natural resource rights allocation (Scott 2008) - being the
172 legal approach that continues to fail groundwater regulation – the paper focuses on what
173 characteristics of groundwater itself require specific types of regulatory responses.

174
175 Using both natural and social sciences perspectives, Part 2 of the paper explores common
176 characteristics of groundwater and its regulation to identify some common language for
177 groundwater governance. The discussion in Part 3 applies this interdisciplinary categorization to
178 the new experience of groundwater regulation in BC to assess whether it meets the precondition
179 of responding to the attributes of groundwater. Concluding that this new regulatory design does
180 not respond to the qualities of groundwater, Part 4 reflects on the synergies between
181 hydrogeological processes, best practices in groundwater governance, and how these
182 characteristics begin to formulate an interdisciplinary language for groundwater scholars,
183 particularly when new interests and information, such as the rights of Indigenous peoples, are
184 introduced into the socio-hydrological system.

185 186 **Box 1: Key terminology**

First Nations are the political organisations of Indigenous communities that interact with the state in Canada. Note also the Métis and Inuit political Indigenous communities in Canada.

Governance is how decisions are made (who makes decisions, how, and at what scale). In policy science, governance has moved beyond the state into many institutions and processes that include civil society, markets, transnational bodies and local organisations as well as state governments (Chandhoke 2003, 2957)

Groundwater sustainability is maintaining dynamically stable groundwater levels, flows, and quality using equitable, effective, and long-term governance and management to sustain water, food, and energy security, environmental flows, and groundwater-dependent ecosystems, infrastructure, social well-being, and local economies for current and future generations (Gleeson et al. 2020). The focus is on how the physical components of sustainability (maintaining levels, flows and quality) relate to regulatory design (Figure 2).

Indigenous communities are self-identified groups of Indigenous peoples.

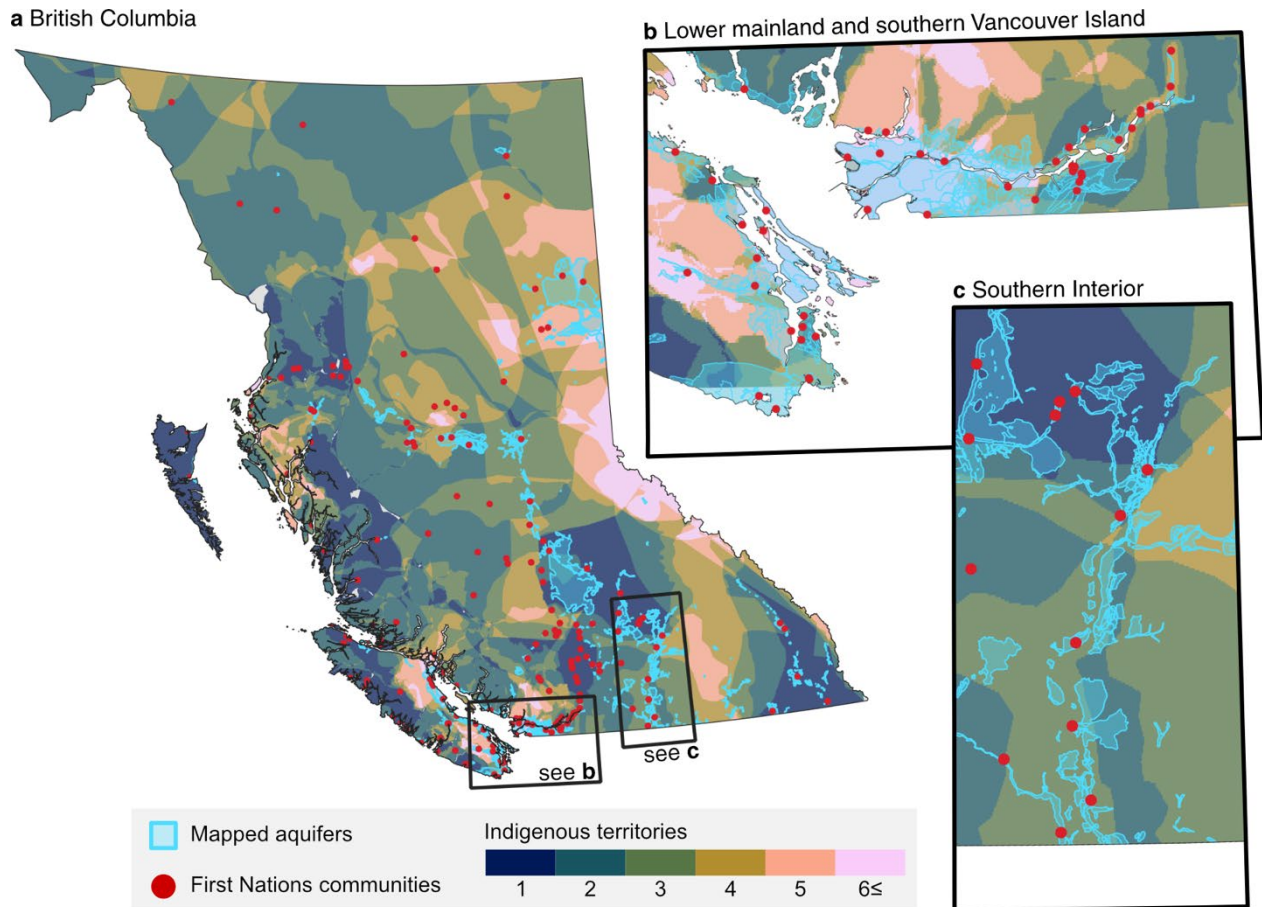
Integrated water resources management (IWRM) is a process that promotes the co-ordinated development and management of water, land and related resources to maximise the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of

vital ecosystems (Hassing et al. 2009)

Regulatory design is the sum total of choices of legal approaches and strategies that result in a regulatory infrastructure intended to meet specific policy outcomes.

Scale is an encompassing term that represents the basic spatial, temporal, and power dimensions of a system, or of an analysis of a system (Vervoort et al 2012).

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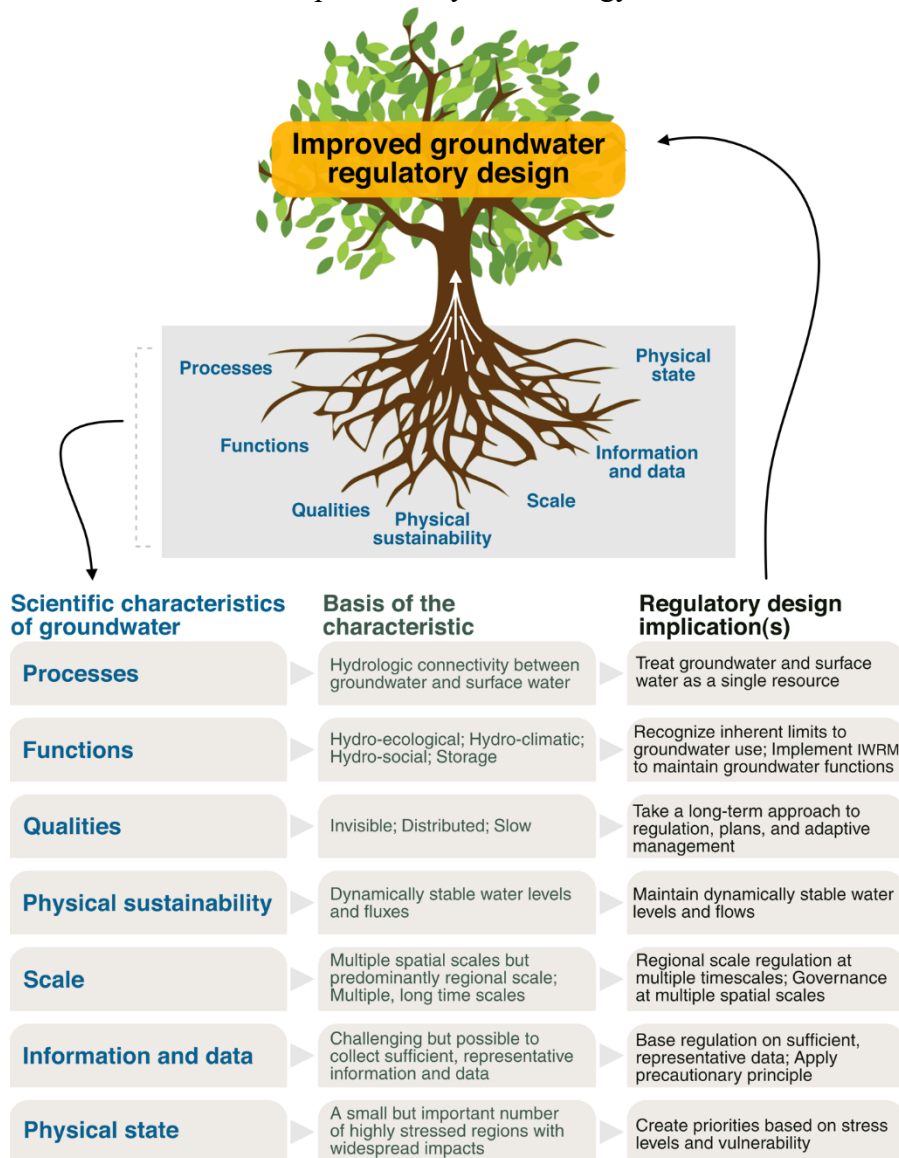


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Figure 1. Mapped aquifers and First Nations communities, and Indigenous territories in British Columbia, Canada. The number of Indigenous territories denotes the claimed territory of different nations, highlighting that much of BC is shared territory between multiple First Nations. Figure 1 data sources: Mapped aquifers: BC gov, First Nations communities: ISC, traditional Indigenous territories: <https://native-land.ca/>

2. Groundwater Science and Regulation: Finding a Common Language

As a collaboration of natural and social scientists, finding a common language is important but challenging - a frequent observation in interdisciplinary research (Bracken & Oughton 2006; Freeth & Caniglia 2020) accentuated across multiple knowledge systems. For the author's experience, the interdisciplinary conversations were fruitful and led to a shared understanding that will be useful to other interdisciplinary collaborations. Some of this language or description of concepts may be simple or obvious to people within a discipline (such as hydrogeology), but the authors have found it important to be as clear as possible in order for interdisciplinary conversations to leverage new ways of thinking and move towards solutions. The authors argue that the scientific characteristics of groundwater have regulatory design implications and thus are essential to improved groundwater regulatory design (Figure 2). Therefore, first these scientific characteristics are set out and then their regulatory implications using this shared interdisciplinary language of 'characteristics' and also provide key terminology in Box 1.



214 **Figure 2. Visualization of an improved approach to regulatory design. The roots are the**
215 **hydrogeologic characteristics of groundwater which each have regulatory design**
216 **implications.**

217

218 **2.1 Key scientific characteristics of groundwater as a resource**

219

220 Groundwater is a dynamic component of the hydrological cycle whose **processes and functions**
221 play important roles in supporting ecosystems, ecosystem services, Earth system dynamics, and
222 society. The **processes** are the fundamental physical hydrology of the connections between
223 groundwater and other parts of the water cycle. For instance, groundwater and surface water
224 systems are often hydraulically connected (Winter et al. 1998), though the distribution of
225 groundwater and the configuration of its flow systems are invariably a product of local and regional
226 geology, topography, climate, and increasingly human activity (Margat and van der Gun 2013,
227 Abbott et al. 2019). **Functions** of groundwater can be summarized using the broad categories of:
228 hydro-ecological regulation, hydro-climatic regulation, hydro-social services and storage (Gleeson
229 et al. 2020). Hydro-ecologically, groundwater discharge to surface watercourses provides critical
230 baseflow which sustains wetlands and streamflow during low-flow months, necessary for the health
231 of aquatic and riparian ecosystems (Barlow and Leake 2012). Groundwater also supports
232 groundwater-dependent ecosystems, which depend on groundwater variously through
233 groundwater-surface water interactions, ecologically accessible groundwater, or as ecosystems
234 which exist within groundwater bodies themselves. Hydro-climatically, water table depth serves
235 as an important control on the land-atmosphere energy balance and dictates whether groundwater-
236 climate interactions are unidirectional or bidirectional (Kollet and Maxwell 2008; Cuthbert et al.
237 2019). Hydro-socially, groundwater provides freshwater for a wide array of human activities from
238 drinking to agricultural irrigation to supporting recreational activities and is in many regions a
239 resource of cultural significance (Griebler and Avramov 2015, Gleeson et al. 2020a, Gleeson et al.
240 2020b, Kreamer et al. 2015, Moggridge 2020). Lastly, groundwater represents the largest store of
241 liquid freshwater (Shiklomanov 2000, Gleeson et al. 2016, Ferguson et al. 2021). Fluctuations and
242 trends in this storage have important implications on sea-level rise, riparian forest loss, land
243 subsidence, flooding, and soil salinization.

244

245 Groundwater has been characterized as a unique natural resource due to its set of distributed, slow,
246 and invisible **qualities** (Villholth and Conti 2017). Ubiquitously distributed, the water table is
247 located anywhere from intersecting with to hundreds of meters below the ground surface depending
248 on the regional setting (Fan et al. 2020). The combined distributed and slow nature of groundwater
249 necessitates that many spatial (well to global) and temporal (seasons to centuries) **scales** are
250 relevant when developing sustainability strategies (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson 2012, Gleeson
251 et al. 2020a). The most common scales of consideration are regional watersheds or aquifers and
252 multiannual (i.e. 1-20 year) timescales (Gleeson et al. 2010). The invisible quality of groundwater
253 may be its most difficult characteristic in part since its subsurface existence challenges
254 **information and data** collection. Data sparsity in groundwater research has been identified as an

255 example of ‘science lagging behind policy’ (Elshall et al. 2020). Although recent decades have
256 witnessed the emergence of remote sensing applications in tracking regional scale groundwater
257 storage trends, and improvements in the ability to model groundwater across continental to global
258 scales (e.g. Reinecke et al. 2019, de Graaf et al. 2017), coarse-scale global data are often
259 insufficient for the needs of watershed management (Taylor et al. 2013; Gleeson et al. 2020a) in
260 the absence of aquifer-scale numerical models or dedicated monitoring well networks which are
261 underdeveloped or underutilized in most regions of the world (IGRAC 2020).

262
263 While many have asserted the **state** of groundwater resources constitutes a global crisis (Famiglietti
264 2014), there is significant regional variation in groundwater dependence and rates of depletion
265 (Wada et al. 2010). Yet, over half of the major aquifer systems of the world are being depleted
266 (Richey et al. 2015). Groundwater sustainability is dependent on **physical sustainability** (Box 1).
267 Groundwater dependence and depletion rates are greatest in agricultural regions and arid to sub-
268 humid climates, though pressures on groundwater resources are increasing globally as hydrological
269 extremes intensify and surface water availability becomes more variable and less reliable under
270 climate change (Taylor et al. 2013). Existing groundwater use has led to environmental flow
271 thresholds being already transgressed in ~20% of basins where groundwater pumping exists, which
272 could grow to >50% by 2050 (de Graaf et al. 2019). This serves as one example to suggest that not
273 only are groundwater resources in stressed states around the world, but that this state is already
274 leading to a cascade of impacts through social, ecological, economic, and Earth systems.

275

276 **2.2 Implications for groundwater regulatory design**

277

278 Mapping the trends and best practices of groundwater regulation onto the scientific
279 (hydrogeological) characteristics of groundwater demonstrates how the unique qualities of
280 groundwater create regulatory preconditions for its sustainability. Here, the authors translate each
281 of the seven groundwater characteristics discussed in Section 2.1 into their implications for
282 regulatory design. The authors then use this list of implications as a criteria by which they
283 evaluate the current groundwater regulatory environment in BC in Section 3 - a process which
284 can be repeated for other jurisdictions around the world.

285

286 The hydrological **processes** that underpin hydrological connectivity between groundwater and
287 surface water resources require that regulation treats ground and surface water as one resource
288 (Villholth 2021, Theesfeld 2010, 135). These hydrological processes are also central to the
289 hydro-ecological, hydro-climatic, hydro-social, and storage **functions** of groundwater. These
290 functions are characterized by non-linear behaviour with inherent (natural), system-specific
291 thresholds such as environmental flow requirements, maximum water table depths at which root
292 water uptake can occur, or the preserving of functions of cultural significance (Anderson et al.
293 2019). These thresholds should be reflected in the regulatory environment such as through
294 environmental flow regulations or restrictions on yield that prioritize sensitive, critical, or
295 inherently valued areas (Davies, Wilson & Ridges 2021). Treating groundwater and surface water

296 as one resource and managing groundwater to protect its core functions calls on regulatory
297 implementation of the integrated water resources management (IWRM) paradigm (Hassing et al.
298 2009). Implementing IWRM links groundwater and surface water regulatory design
299 considerations with other activities affecting the water cycle such as sanitation, land use,
300 agriculture, energy, and other subsurface uses (Van der Gun, Aureli & Merla 2016) .
301 Groundwater’s distributed and slow **qualities** impart a number of considerations for regulatory
302 design. Its distributed nature is accompanied by significant physical and functional heterogeneity
303 which necessitates place-specific solutions (Mukherji & Shah 2005, 336) such as special
304 management zones where groundwater abstraction is restricted or prohibited (Caponera & Nanni,
305 201; Mechlem 2016, 6). Attention to what uses of groundwater are valued and permitted also
306 would be more specific, for example an “industrial” use would be categorized in multiple sub-
307 categories according to impact (Molle & Closas 2020a, 1966). Groundwater’s slow behaviour
308 also must be reflected in regulatory design. This can be achieved through implementing long-
309 term management plans which also require adaptive management elements. Adaptive
310 management enables regulatory approaches to be changed over time depending on evolving
311 aquifer conditions (Caponera & Nanni 2019, 204), which is increasingly necessary as
312 groundwater systems are under increasing pressures from human use and climate change.
313 **Sustainability** and the precautionary principle are the foundational goals and policies,
314 respectively, informing groundwater regulation (Mechlem 2016, 7). To achieve physical
315 sustainability in groundwater systems, allocation decisions must take into account recharge rates
316 and discharge to surface water (i.e. groundwater-surface water fluxes) (Mechlem 2016, 8) such
317 that groundwater levels, fluxes, and quality remain dynamically stable. These outcomes,
318 however, are not possible by constraining management approaches to allocation decisions alone
319 and must be incorporated into larger integrated management plans.

320
321 Temporal and physical **scales** for regulation and governance crucial to consider. Aquifer- or
322 basin-scale data, planning and agencies support state government planning and protection
323 mandates (Council of Canadian Academies, 2009 193). As success (i.e. 80%) in achieving
324 licensing can take 20 years (Molle & Closas 2020a 1970), groundwater regulation must have
325 appropriately phased and sequential implementation commitments that target resources to basins
326 in order of priority to optimize the use of human resources for user registration and planning
327 (Mukherji & Shaw 2005, 337). Linking a diversity of water resources institutions at different
328 scales through IWRM enables integrated planning and the ability to respond locally to new
329 problems and emergencies (Caponera & Nanni 2019, 11; Mechlem , 9; Theesfeld 2010, 139;
330 Mukherji & Shah 2004; 339). The scale of governance through time must also align the physical,
331 jurisdictional and social boundaries: “This involves an appreciation of three effective levels of
332 *integration*, integration within the hydrological cycle (the physical processes), integration across
333 river basins and aquifers (spatial integration) and integration across the overall social and
334 economic fabric at national and regional levels” (Burke, Sauveplane & Moench 1999, 308). Such
335 a conjunctive use approach is best embedded within an overall planning framework at the aquifer,
336 watershed or basin scale (Mechlem 2016, 9; Theesfeld 2010, 135) that is separate from special

337 protected areas that respond to an identified need (Caponera & Nanni , 172, 202).

338
339 There is wide consensus that reliable groundwater **information and data** are precursors to
340 effective groundwater governance. This prerequisite applies both to understanding the state of the
341 resource itself (Mukherji & Shah 2005, 339; Van der Gun 2007) and to creating a common
342 understanding about groundwater processes so that the public, groundwater users, Indigenous
343 communities and state governments can act based on collaborative learning and groundwater
344 protection (Theesfeld 2010, 139). High quality data, which is challenging to obtain, requires state
345 support for groundwater and Indigenous organizations to develop, coordinate, and integrate
346 community-based and participatory efforts with state run and public research initiatives that
347 employ a diversity of methods to collect and analyze hydro-geological and related data. This
348 data collection should include the monitoring of groundwater use and groundwater system states
349 (Mechlem 2016, 9) but could also include the monitoring of indicators of the role of groundwater
350 in supporting its core hydro-climatic, hydro-ecological, and hydro-social functions.

351
352 Therefore, the **state** of groundwater requires regulation that is place-specific, adaptive and
353 imposes limits on abstraction to maintain the functions of groundwater. Typically expressed first
354 in management plans, different terms denote restrictions on groundwater use and include
355 “sustainable diversion limits” (Australia), “good groundwater status” (European Union) and “safe
356 yield” (western United States) (Nelson & Quevauviller 2016, 178). Such limits must not just
357 apply to individual licences (volumetric) but must consider aquifer-wide, cumulative impacts
358 (Molle & Closas 2020a, 1967; Mechlem 2016; Nelson & Quevauviller 2016, 181). While state
359 governments often set these overall governance policies, a network of groundwater-dependent
360 actors, including aquifer management organizations, have a role in creating policies and plans, as
361 well as ongoing implementation and data collection leading to “more effective and legitimate
362 forms of groundwater governance” (Theesfeld 2010, 139; Lopez-Gunn 2009, 157; Caponera &
363 Nanni 2019, 208; Mechlem 2016, 11). This includes recognizing the unique status of customary
364 or Indigenous water rights in the hydro-social regime (Caponera & Nanni 2019 181). Given that
365 groundwater systems exist across a range of states of stress and vulnerability, the implementation
366 of regulations should be sequenced based on a prioritization scheme that reflects the intra-
367 jurisdictional gradient to experience impacts from existing and projected stress.

368 369 **3. New Opportunities in Groundwater Regulation: The Case of British Columbia,** 370 **Canada**

371
372 The Province of BC set out its modern policy framework for water in 2009 (Province of BC
373 2009). The *Living Water Smart* document included a commitment to protect the connection
374 between ground and surface water by regulating “groundwater use in priority areas and large
375 groundwater water withdrawals” by 2012, which followed on the heels of the Groundwater
376 Protection Regulation aimed at protecting groundwater quality and quantity by creating well
377 drilling and construction standards (49). The Province of BC then put into motion a *Water Act*

378 modernization process that included a Discussion Paper (2010a), Policy Proposal (2010b) and
379 Legislative Proposal (2013). All these documents signaled groundwater sustainability as a key
380 concern and motivating policy objective. For example, the Discussion Paper identified BC’s
381 water law as having a “key role in ensuring the sustainability of BC’s water resources” (1) and
382 the Policy Proposal noted aquifer sustainability as one of the motivations for the policy directive
383 to regulate groundwater use (10). These specific policy outcomes are important to evaluating the
384 regulatory design for groundwater in BC (Section 4), as is done below after setting the stage with
385 the state of scientific knowledge about groundwater (Section 3.1) and describing the *Water*
386 *Sustainability Act* and groundwater regulation (Section 3.2).

387

388 *3.1 State of knowledge about groundwater in British Columbia*

389

390 British Columbia’s highly variable environment, climate, and geology yields a complex set of
391 hydrogeological systems across the province, with regional variation in aquifer types,
392 groundwater functions, and system states. Figure 3, maps core groundwater and groundwater-
393 related variables across the province based on the seven characteristics of the resource listed in
394 Figure 2 and Section 2.1. Where feasible, the authors also compare the distribution of these
395 variables within BC to other sub-national jurisdictions around the world or across North America
396 to situate BC in a broader context.

397

398 A key groundwater **process** is the well recognized connection between groundwater and surface
399 water (Winter et al 1998). These connections are highly variable as shown through a
400 quantification of the groundwater contribution to environmental flow across the province (Figure
401 3a). Major contributions are visible on Vancouver Island, the Haida Gwaii archipelago, and in the
402 Coastal Mountains yet are low throughout much of the province’s interior. These environmental
403 flow contributions also highlight the hydro-ecological **function** of groundwater.

404 There is also significant spatial variability in the hydroclimatic functions of groundwater. British
405 Columbia has a significant regional variability in climate (Figure 3b) with eight Köppen Climate
406 Zones within the province. This makes BC one of the most climatically diverse sub-national
407 jurisdictions in the world, and contributes to the four major hydro-climatic regimes within the
408 province: pluvial, nival, hybrid, and glacierized (Allen et al., 2014; Eaton and Moore, 2010). BC
409 is not only hydro-climatically diverse but this variation can occur over short distances: hot semi-
410 arid climates in the province’s southern interior are located just ~400km from coastal temperate
411 climates.

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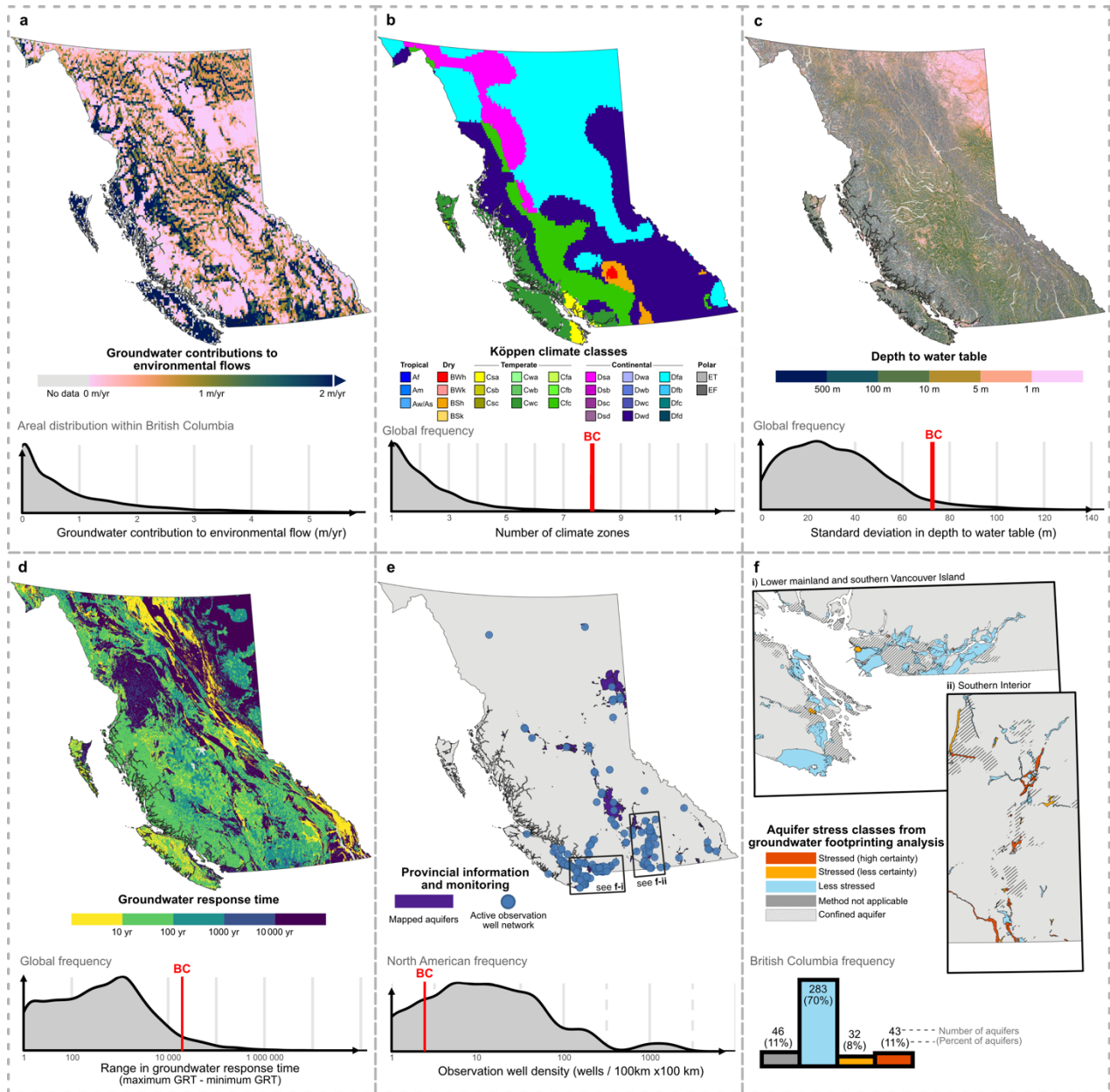
413 Significant geological heterogeneity, diverse landforms, and climate variability all contribute to
414 highly variable groundwater **qualities**. For example, water table depths vary across the province
415 from anywhere between <1 m to >500 m below the ground surface (Figure 3c). Similar to its
416 climate, this variability in depth to the water table is an outlier among other sub-national
417 jurisdictions globally. This variation in water table depth has important implications for
418 groundwater-climate and groundwater-surface water interactions. Another example of BC’s

419 groundwater heterogeneity is the range of groundwater response times (Figure 3d). Groundwater
420 response times, or the time required for the groundwater system to re-equilibrate to a change in
421 boundary conditions, ranges from less than 10 years to over 10,000 years within the province.
422 This range of >10,000 years (max-min) in groundwater response times is also among the largest
423 within a single sub-national jurisdiction globally. This slow quality of groundwater, coupled with
424 its extreme variability, highlights the challenges of managing groundwater in BC as groundwater
425 systems function in fundamentally different ways and over radically different time scales
426 depending on the location within the province.

427
428 The physical **sustainability** of groundwater can be examined using water level data although this
429 is a major challenge based on the information available as described below. In 2019, the
430 province conducted a trend analysis of water levels in 121 observation wells that have been
431 monitored for over ten years. Of these wells, 85% were found to have stable or increasing water
432 levels while 15% are experiencing moderate to large rates of decline (Province of BC 2019a).
433 These changes in water levels reflect changes in groundwater storage in BC's aquifers, and this
434 subsurface storage of freshwater is one of groundwater's core functions (Gleeson et al. 2020).
435 The **information and data** on groundwater within BC is summarised in Figure 3e. Over 1,100
436 aquifers have been mapped in the province, with a surface area coverage of over 30,000 km²
437 (Province of BC no date-c). Groundwater provides water for a variety of user groups including
438 private domestic (~30% of British Columbians rely on groundwater for their drinking water),
439 industrial, irrigated agriculture, and finfish aquaculture (Forstner and Gleeson, 2019; Government
440 of British Columbia, 2020). Public hydrogeologic data is based on a groundwater observation
441 well network of just 220 wells (Province of BC no date-b). Unlike its physiographic variability,
442 where BC is a global outlier, the province has among the least dense observation well networks
443 when compared to other sub-national jurisdictions within North America (i.e. the 48 contiguous
444 United States and the other nine Canadian provinces).

445
446 The physical **state** of groundwater is characterized by a number of 'hot spots' within the province
447 where aquifers are stressed and groundwater levels are dropping. Seventy five (~20%) of the
448 mapped aquifers of the province have been identified as in stressed conditions (Figure 3f). These
449 estimates are based on available data, and the existing limitations on hydrogeological data within
450 BC constrain the ability to measure groundwater use and quantify aquifer stress with greater
451 specificity (Forstner et al 2018). The stressed aquifers of the province concentrate throughout the
452 dry interior, but are also found in the more populated regions of lower Mainland, within the limits
453 of Metro Vancouver, and on Vancouver Island's east coast.

454
455 In sum, groundwater in BC can be understood as extremely heterogeneous in its characteristics
456 and functions, poorly monitored due to a low observation well density, and in conditions of stress
457 in a number of 'hot spots' which are predominantly located in populated and arid regions.
458 Together, this reality emphasises the importance and challenge of robust groundwater
459 management in the province.



Panels a, b, and d compare groundwater characteristics in British Columbia to all other sub-national jurisdictions around the world



Panel e compares groundwater characteristics in British Columbia to other sub-national jurisdictions in North America (i.e. the 48 contiguous USA states and other 9 Canadian provinces)



Panels c and f summarize groundwater characteristics within British Columbia without reference to other jurisdictions

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Figure 3. Characteristics of groundwater within British Columbia, and in comparison to other state, provincial, or equivalent (sub-national) jurisdictions. a) Groundwater’s contribution to environmental flows, and the distribution of this contribution across British Columbia. b) Köppen climate zones within BC, and the distribution of the number of climate zones across sub-national jurisdictions globally. c) Depth below the ground surface to the water table, and the distribution of standard deviation of depth to the water table in all sub-national jurisdictions globally. d) Groundwater response time, and the range

468 **(maximum - minimum) in response times within all sub-national jurisdictions globally. e)**
469 **Mapped aquifers and observation wells, and the density of observation wells in all sub-**
470 **national jurisdictions in the contiguous United States and Canadian provinces. f) Aquifer**
471 **stress classification, and the distribution of stress classes across applicable unconfined**
472 **aquifers in British Columbia. Figure 3 data sources: a) Mohan et al. *in prep*, b) Peel et al.**
473 **2007, c) Fan et al. 2013, d) Cuthbert et al. 2019, e) Aquifers: Province of British Columbia**
474 **n.d., Observation wells: Province of British Columbia n.d., f) Forstner et al. 2018**

475 3.2 *Water Sustainability Act* and groundwater regulation 2016-2020

476
477
478 Into its hydrologic and hydrogeologic diversity, the Province of BC significantly modernized the
479 century-old water law in 2016. It is an understatement to say that BC followed the “laissez faire
480 mode” of groundwater management (Kemper 2007): a key feature of the new law was to regulate
481 groundwater for the first time. The *Water Sustainability Act* mandated groundwater licences for
482 all non-domestic users across the entire jurisdiction (sections 6 and 140, *Water Sustainability*
483 *Regulation* section 55), some 20,000 anticipated licences (Province of BC no date-a), with the
484 possibility of including domestic users in all or parts of the province in the future (section 136).
485 The government gave existing groundwater users three years to apply for a licence and included
486 two incentives: That applications would be at no cost and the Province of BC would recognize
487 valid applications during this period within the ‘first in time, first in right’ priority system
488 (Province of BC 2016a and no date-a). This means that groundwater licences for existing uses
489 would receive priority of use within the current surface water licence regime as of the proven
490 date of first use of groundwater. Attempting to integrate surface and groundwater regulation, any
491 existing groundwater users who did not apply within the three-year period would be required to
492 pay an application fee and would lose their priority of use and be treated as applications for new
493 groundwater abstraction. Groundwater licensees would also pay the same water rental rates of
494 surface water users, the rate for which the Province of BC doubled to \$2.25/1000m³ for
495 commercial and industrial uses as part of the new law (Province of BC 2016b; *Water*
496 *Sustainability Fees, Rentals and Charges Tariff Regulation* 2016)

497
498 Other features of the *Water Sustainability Act* provide additional context to this new regulatory
499 design for groundwater. Also for the first time, any decisions about new entitlements such as
500 licences must consider environmental flows in streams, including in relation to “an aquifer the
501 decision maker considers is reasonably likely to be hydraulically connected to that stream”
502 (section 15). However, applications for existing non-domestic groundwater uses are exempt from
503 an environmental flow needs analysis (*Water Sustainability Regulation* section 55), and the
504 province-wide environmental flow needs policy does not elaborate methodologies for assisting
505 decision makers to evaluate aquifer impacts (Province of BC 2016c). The new law requires
506 decision makers to consider applications for licensing existing groundwater uses even where
507 regulations designate an aquifer as having insufficient water (section 135).

508 The new law expanded on a water planning mechanism to permit regional or watershed-specific

509 water sustainability plans, the implementation of which can address conflicts about water use
510 (section 65), bind identified statutory decision makers in other sectors such as forestry (section
511 76) and change existing use entitlements (section 79). Plan implementation can also restrict or
512 prohibit the use of land and resources (section 78), well construction and groundwater use
513 (section 83). There are ongoing discussions with several First Nations about water sustainability
514 planning processes (Curran 2019; Province of BC 2020), and the Province of BC has just
515 committed to one in partnership with Cowichan Tribes for the Koksilah watershed (Province of
516 BC 2022).

517
518 Finally, the new groundwater regulations do not consider the impact of aboriginal and treaty
519 rights on existing and new licenses, as well as the entire water balance in a watershed. While the
520 Provincial government has a duty to consult First Nations on licensing decisions (Curran 2017)
521 the new groundwater regime’s automatic insertion of existing groundwater uses into the priority
522 system alongside surface water uses absent sufficient data ignores cumulative impacts to
523 Indigenous interests and prevents meaningful assessment of aquifer sustainability (Curran 2019;
524 *Yahey v BC* 2021).

525
526 This regulatory design - a three-year window for applications for non-domestic uses for
527 groundwater across the entire province – resulted in less than 10 percent of non-domestic
528 groundwater users had applied for a licence by the three-year application deadline in February
529 2019 (Parfitt 2021). The Province of BC’s response was to extend the period of eligibility for
530 applications for another three years to 2022 (Province of BC 2019b; Water Sustainability
531 Regulation 2016 section 55). However, despite a last-minute rush in applications, about 60 per
532 cent of existing users missed the March 1, 2022 deadline and risk losing their access to water
533 (MacLeod 2022). Now the majority of non-domestic groundwater are out of compliance and
534 achieving meaningful groundwater regulation is challenging. The Province of BC’s choice to
535 “enforce” the new law by extending the deadline for applications replicates the experience of
536 other jurisdictions, such as Spain (Fornes, 2005) decades ago, which underscores the need for
537 regulatory design that mandates basin- or aquifer-specific approaches that include local
538 governance mechanisms such as water or aquifer management councils (Wester et al, 2011).

539

540 **4. Implications for Future Regulatory Design and Recommendations**

541

542 **4.1 Assessing the current regulatory design in British Columbia**

543

544 The authors begin by applying the characteristics of groundwater regulatory design to the case
545 study of BC to assess whether the new groundwater regulations were designed according to the
546 lessons learned internationally, and consistent with the characteristics of groundwater itself
547 (Table 1). The *Water Sustainability Act* regulates both streams and aquifers so current regulations
548 are consistent with groundwater **processes**. The current regulatory design is partially consistent
549 with the groundwater **functions** in that an environmental flow policy suggests risk-based

550 processes to assess hydroecological functions but importantly, the current policy does not
551 explicitly consider groundwater or apply to existing users. While the new *Water Sustainability*
552 *Act* requires decision makers to consider environmental flows where aquifers are hydrologically
553 connected, the law exempts licence applications for existing groundwater uses from that analysis.
554 In practice the new regime locks in existing unregulated use of groundwater without any
555 overarching ecosystem standards or adaptive management mechanisms.

556
557 Similarly, groundwater **qualities** are partially consistent; licensing without end dates are certainly
558 long-term but this same permanence makes adaptive management challenging. The new
559 regulatory design applied to all non-domestic users and their use entitlement status automatically
560 fit into the existing surface water regime for priority of use. No basin or aquifer analysis
561 assessing recharge or sustainable withdrawal informed this priority scheme, and regulators did
562 not undertake a cumulative effects assessment to determine whether any specific aquifer could
563 sustain current use. Regulators fell prey to what Molle and Closas (2020, 1970) term the
564 “licensing policy dilemma” where licensing without justification and licensing once over
565 abstraction has occurred will result in regulatory failure.

566
567 Although ‘sustainability’ is in the name of and an inherent motivation for the *Water*
568 *Sustainability Act*, **sustainability** is not clearly defined and no sustainable goals or targets have
569 been explicitly developed. For example, there are no current regulations or plans based on
570 maintaining groundwater levels, flows or quantity. The Province of BC operationalized
571 groundwater licensing for non-domestic uses at the **scale** of the whole province irrespective of
572 intensity of use or vulnerability of the aquifer. The temporal and institutional scales were
573 similarly monochrome. The Province of BC extended the unrealistically short three-year
574 timeframe for applications for existing users to six years when it became evident that a very small
575 number of users subject to the new regulation would apply. Institutionally, all regulation and
576 governance remained at the broad sub-national provincial scale. This acontextual blanketing of
577 provincial jurisdiction occurred without the direction of basin, watershed or aquifer plans that
578 reflect the challenges of and objectives for a hydrological region. There is no obvious or stated
579 connection between available **information and data** and regulations. For example, regulations
580 are the same regardless of where monitoring data, which is sparse and may not be representative
581 of all aquifers, is available. While there is sufficient information to justify groundwater regulation
582 for several threatened aquifers or where they are hydrologically connected to vulnerable fish-
583 bearing watercourses (Halstead 2018), this information has not been publicly integrated into the
584 regulatory design. Finally, the state of **regulations** were applied over the whole province without
585 considering highly stressed regions

586
587 Two additional priorities of the Province of BC that operate alongside the new groundwater
588 regulatory regime underscore the need to rescale to local governance for ground and surface
589 water. First, in 2019 the Province of BC enacted the *Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous*
590 *Peoples Act* (2019c), through which that government commits to ensuring consistency between

591 provincial law and UNDRIP. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to assess what UNDRIP
592 will mean for groundwater regulation, the principle of free, prior and informed consent is of
593 central importance to First Nations (White 2019). Consent requires more than consultation
594 (Moore, von der Porten, Castleden 2017) and watershed- or territory-based water governance is
595 expected. Second, the Province of BC has entered into several memoranda of understanding with
596 Indigenous governments to pursue Water Sustainability Plans. Acknowledging longstanding low
597 flow issues, the state government is showing willingness to develop watershed-specific plans and
598 governance structure to address conflicts in water use (Province of BC 2020; Curran 2019).
599 While regulatory design for groundwater formally remains at a provincial scale, more fine
600 grained planning and governance processes are proceeding by agreement.

601
602 Overall, the evidence from applying the characteristics of groundwater indicate that the Province
603 of BC largely failed to design its new groundwater regime according to the lessons learned
604 internationally, and pursuant to regulatory design that attends to the characteristics of
605 groundwater itself (Table 1). In the context of BC where the state demonstrated its ability and
606 willingness to implement groundwater regulation by creating a new regime from the aquifer up,
607 the regulatory design approach of province-wide application to broad user categories was a
608 mismatch to groundwater's requirement for more nuanced watershed-specific attention that
609 meaningfully links surface and groundwater regulation. The short time and broad geographic
610 scales means that the financial resourcing for this project was spread thinly across the entire
611 province instead of concentrated first in the areas of greatest groundwater stress. Finally, by
612 inserting existing groundwater users into the existing 'first in time, first in right' priority system
613 in BC, the provincial government missed an opportunity to assess the sustainability of both
614 surface and groundwater use in each watershed and establish local watershed governance
615 mechanisms that could be a venue for also addressing outstanding aboriginal rights and title.

616

617 **4.2 Implications for regulatory design in British Columbia**

618 These critiques and considerations point to how the characteristics of groundwater could
619 potentially be used to improve regulatory design (Table 1), which then lead to recommendations
620 below. In the future even more social-ecological **processes** could be included for example by
621 considering that water could have value beyond extraction as a resource. For example, the Syilx
622 Okanagan Nation water declaration positions water as a relation towards which Syilx people have
623 responsibilities (2014). Given the hydrogeologic and hydroclimatic variability across the
624 province (Figure 3), the **functions** of groundwater could be more robustly included in regulations
625 at a regional scale to maintain hydro-ecologic, hydro-climatic and storage functions, as well as
626 limits to use based on responsibility to land/water in Territory, potentially through Water
627 Sustainability Plans (which could operationalize Integrated Water Resource Management). The
628 **qualities** of groundwater suggest the importance of long-term, ecosystem-based Water
629 Sustainability Plans with built in adaptive cycles, collaborative governance with Indigenous
630 communities, and licensing that is adaptive to changing conditions (Curran and Brandes 2019).
631 **Physical sustainability** could be enhanced through regional Water Sustainability Plans that

632 implement regulations that mandate water levels, flows and quality. These could be strengthened
 633 by triggers for protection and emergency orders located with both Indigenous governing bodies
 634 and state governments as well as assessments of cumulative effects across territory and with
 635 watersheds. The importance of **scale** to future groundwater licensing points to place-based
 636 widespread licencing in targeted regions (phased implementation) ideally using ecological and/or
 637 Indigenous territory as the relevant scales. Regulatory processes need to be more directly
 638 connected to **information and data** such as representative monitoring data and collaborative data
 639 generation with Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities accounting for ownership, control,
 640 access and possession of data (OCAP or data sovereignty - First Nations Information Data
 641 Centre, no date) is crucial. Finally, it is important to emphasise the importance of prioritizing
 642 highly stressed regions where the **physical state** of groundwater is most at risk.

643
 644 **Table 1. Evaluating current and potential use of regulatory design implications in British**
 645 **Columbia**

Regulatory design implication	Current use in BC regulations	Potential use in BC regulations
Processes: Water as a single resource	Yes; streams and aquifers both regulated under <i>Water Sustainability Act</i>	Water has value beyond extraction as a resource (for example, Syilx Okanagan Nation declaration 2014); Apply environmental flow policy consistently
Functions: Inherent limits to groundwater use; and Integrated Water Resource Management to maintain functions	Partially; environmental flow policy suggests risk-based process to assess hydroecological functions; current policy does not explicitly consider groundwater or apply to existing users	Regulations at a regional scale to maintain hydro-ecologic, hydro-climatic and storage functions and include groundwater; Limits to use based on responsibility to land/water in Territory; Mandatory environmental flows based on Indigenous knowledge and western science; Integrated Water Resource through Water Sustainability Plan mechanism
Qualities: Importance of long-term regulatory approach, plans and adaptive management	Partially; licenses are long term but permanent licensing makes adaptive management challenging	Long-term, ecosystem-based Water Sustainability Plans with built in adaptive cycles; Collaborative governance with Indigenous communities; Licensing that is adaptive to changing

		conditions
Physical Sustainability: Regulation based on maintaining water levels, flows and quality	No; no current regulations based on maintaining levels, flows or quantity	Regional Water Sustainability Plans and implementing regulations mandating water levels, flows and quality; Triggers for protection and emergency orders located with both Indigenous governing bodies and state governments; Cumulative effects across territory and within watersheds monitored and drive adaptation.
Scale: Regulation and governance at multiple spatial (watershed/region) and temporal scales	No; regulations applied over whole province with short licensing application period	Place-based widespread planning, data generation and licencing in targeted regions (phased implementation); Ecological and Indigenous boundary scales
Information and data: Regulatory design based on sufficient, representative and accessible data; Application of precautionary principle when dealing with sparse or limited data	No; unclear connection between regulations and monitoring data which is sparse and not representative of all aquifers	Directly connect regulatory processes and more representative monitoring data; Collaborative data generation with Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities accounting for OCAP.
State: Regional prioritization schemes based on stress levels	No; regulations applied over whole province without considering highly stressed regions	Prioritize highly stressed regions or regions with unique hydrological cultural values

646

647 **4.3 Recommendations for regulatory design**

648

649 Groundwater regulations are still relatively new to BC and there is still time to course correct.

650 The authors identify three overarching yet integrated and concrete recommendations based on the

651 common themes described above of how the characteristics of groundwater could be used to

652 improve regulatory design: 1) Defining sustainability goals and ecological thresholds; 2)

653 Regionalizing and prioritising; 3) Planning for the long term and adaptively. Defining

654 sustainability and ecological thresholds depends on scaling up groundwater data collection and
655 use of that data in priority watersheds with the involvement and knowledge of local authority
656 holders (Indigenous communities) and stakeholders. Water Sustainability Plans can explain the
657 adaptive mechanisms for those goals and thresholds, as well as distributed governance and
658 priorities for water management and use, that rely on ongoing review mechanisms, such as every
659 five years. Regulations under the *Water Sustainability Act* can implement the mandatory aspects
660 of the watershed agreement expressed through Water Sustainability Plans.

661
662 Across these three recommendations the emphasis is on the importance of a distributed,
663 collaborative and Indigenous-led approach. Practically, these three recommendations can all be
664 implemented by quickly identifying a small number (<5) priority watersheds, aquifers or regions
665 in which to concentrate groundwater licensing, and redeploy regulatory efforts in those areas.
666 These may be in locations where there are existing agreements between Indigenous governing
667 organisations and the provincial government. In these locations it is paramount to define
668 sustainability goals and ecological thresholds and accurately assess surface and groundwater
669 sustainability to establish an adequate – even if shifting – picture of hydrology, hydrogeology and
670 water use. Meanwhile, initiate (or augment if already underway) a water sustainability planning
671 process in each location to create a watershed-specific mechanism for continuing to implement
672 groundwater management, adapt water use, and evaluate the long-term sustainability of
673 groundwater. By concentrating efforts in a few locations that can be expanded as earlier planning
674 processes conclude, provincial staff can marshal the resources to not only implement
675 groundwater regulation but establish watershed-specific governance processes to integrate
676 surface and groundwater use over time using an adaptive approach. Such a longer-term,
677 integrated and resource-specific approach addresses the invisible, slow and distributed qualities
678 of groundwater that necessitate a more careful regulatory design.

679
680 This approach has implications for regulatory design in common law states with legal pluralism
681 as well as states with customary water entitlements, and finally regardless of legal system for
682 practitioners seeking useful interdisciplinary language. The context in Canada of state-
683 acknowledged aboriginal and treaty rights, alongside the provincial government's commitment to
684 implementing UNDRIP, reinforces the need for regulatory design that attends to the scalar and
685 other qualities of groundwater. Each First Nation continues to govern within a specific territory
686 that has a unique combination of hydrogeological, social and economic conditions and
687 relationships with water. These Indigenous territories also express specific legal and political
688 scales that necessitate a territorial- or watershed-based approach to groundwater regulation. The
689 design of those regimes will be defined or supported by plans and policies, such as for
690 environmental flows (Jackson et al 2015), that are informed by the local Indigenous legal order.

691
692 In a country such as Canada where multiple legal orders are entangled, successful groundwater
693 regulatory design cannot remain solely a centralized state endeavour. The qualities of
694 groundwater itself and the multiple legal orders have specific behaviours within a territory that

695 will establish parameters for sustainable groundwater governance.

696
697 Finally, as alluded to in Section 2, the authors have found it useful to develop and use a common
698 language between the social and natural sciences for exploring groundwater sustainability. This
699 enhanced the clarity and robustness of the analysis while staying grounded in a science-forward
700 approach to regulatory design.

701
702 While there is broad agreement that “the analysis comes back to questioning the state’s *ability* to
703 deploy regulatory authority on the ground and its *willingness* to do so” (emphasis in the original,
704 Molle and Closas 2020a, 1972), the endeavour in this paper is to highlight that in a jurisdiction
705 where the state’s ability and willingness are evident, its regulatory design must match the scale
706 and distinctive physical parameters of groundwater for ultimate success in meeting its
707 sustainability goals.

708 709 **Funding information and conflicts of interest**

710
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