



1                    **NORMS AND VALUES IN SOCIO-HYDROLOGICAL MODELS**

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16                    **ABSTRACT**

17                    Sustainable water resources management relies on understanding how societies and water systems  
18                    co-evolve. Many place-based socio-hydrology (SH) studies use proxies, such as environmental  
19                    degradation, to capture key elements of the social component of system dynamics. Parameters of  
20                    assumed relationships between environmental degradation and the human response to it are usually  
21                    obtained through calibration. Since these relationships are not yet underpinned by social science  
22                    theories, confidence in the predictive power of such place-based socio-hydrologic models remains  
23                    low. The generalisability of SH models therefore requires major advances in incorporating more  
24                    realistic relationships, underpinned by appropriate hydrological and social science data, and theories.  
25                    The latter is a critical input, since human culture – especially values and norms arising from it -  
26                    influences behaviour and the consequences of behaviours. This paper reviews a key social science  
27                    theory that links cultural factors to environmental decision-making, assesses how to better  
28                    incorporate social science insights to enhance SH models, and raises important questions to be  
29                    addressed in moving forward. This is done in the context of recent progress in socio-hydrological



30 studies and the gaps that remain to be filled. The paper concludes with a discussion of challenges  
31 and opportunities in terms of generalisation of SH models and the use of available data to allow  
32 future prediction and model transfer to ungauged basins.

33

34 **KEYWORDS:** Socio-hydrology; culture; values and norms; modeling; content analysis.

35

## 36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 The concept of sustainable development has received much attention among researchers, policy  
38 makers and stakeholders. Water is at the core of many of the sustainability challenges that human  
39 societies face (Bai et al., 2016; Falkenmark and Rockström, 2004; Rijsberman, 2006). Sustainable  
40 water resource management is key to production of food and energy to satisfy human needs,  
41 including poverty alleviation and healthy humans. As indiscriminate development threatens critical  
42 ecosystem services and biodiversity, the need to account for the environment has emerged as an  
43 important consideration in sustainable water management (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment,  
44 2005). Enabling society to address sustainability challenges, and develop appropriate solutions,  
45 requires an ability to provide reliable predictions of changes to freshwater resources, their  
46 distribution, circulation, and quality under natural and human-induced changes from local to global  
47 scales, including changes that are part of water management (Srinivasan et al., 2017).

48

49 We cannot understand, let alone make future predictions of, water resource system dynamics,  
50 without understanding how the issues of economic gain, environmental degradation, and social  
51 inequities play out in society, and how social perceptions of these issues impact management  
52 decisions relating to water consumption, allocation and pricing, human settlements, infrastructure  
53 development, and environmental protection (Blair and Buytaert, 2016; Srinivasan et al., 2016). Such  
54 understanding will remain incomplete until we fully grapple with issues arising from human culture,  
55 including how components of culture – values, beliefs, and norms relate to water uses, livelihood,  
56 and the environment (Sivapalan and Blöschl, 2015). It is increasingly recognized that cultural factors  
57 are likely to influence changes in water management decisions and outcomes (Caldas et al., 2015),  
58 raising questions about what have become ‘conventional’ assumptions about humans as rational,  
59 utility maximisers who make decisions based upon complete information. Although economic  
60 models of altruism and impure altruism (i.e., “warm glow” effect: caring about others or the next



61 generation not just out of altruism but because they get pleasure out of it themselves) have been  
62 successful in predicting the effect of prevailing values and norms on human behaviour and actions  
63 (Andreoni, 1989; Banerjee and Newman, 1993), they remain limited in accounting for the  
64 consequences of the human actions on societal values and norms in return.

65

66 The inter-disciplinary field of socio-hydrology was launched with the aim of studying the dynamic,  
67 two-way feedbacks between water and people in coupled human-water systems. In particular, socio-  
68 hydrology (SH) seeks to understand and interpret patterns and phenomena that emerge from two-  
69 way feedbacks in coupled human-water systems as a consequence of water management decisions  
70 and actions. Indeed, the subject matter of socio-hydrology are the many diverse phenomena that  
71 emerge from these two-way feedbacks and manifest as puzzles and paradoxes, exhibiting differences  
72 but also similarities between places, and reflecting distinct hydro-climatic, eco-environmental, and  
73 socioeconomic backgrounds (Sivapalan et al., 2014). Examples include the agrarian crisis in  
74 booming emerging economies such as India (Pande and Savenije, 2016), increasing levee heights in  
75 urban environments in spite of increased flood risk (Di Baldassarre et al., 2013) and the peaking in  
76 water resource availability in agricultural basins as they undergo development (Kandasamy et al.,  
77 2014; Liu et al., 2014).

78

79 Several place-based socio-hydrology studies in basins dominated by agricultural development  
80 (Tarim: Liu et al. 2014; Murrumbidgee: Elshafei et al. 2014, van Emmerik et al. 2014; Lake Toolbin:  
81 Elshafei et al. 2015) have highlighted a shift in water use behavior from an initial focus on  
82 agricultural production to an increasing emphasis on environmental conservation, a shift that has  
83 been called the pendulum swing (Kandasamy et al., 2014). Socio-hydrology models developed to  
84 reproduce these observed dynamics attributed the shift to changing human values and norms, which  
85 were tracked indirectly through proxies (e.g., environmental degradation). For example, van  
86 Emmerik et al. (2014) modeled the human decision to allocate more or less water to agriculture or  
87 to the environment on the strength of a dynamic ‘social’ state variable called environmental  
88 awareness, which reflected societal perceptions of the environmental degradation within the  
89 prevailing value systems or culture (see also Di Baldassarre et al. 2013 for awareness of floods in  
90 the context of coupled human-flood systems). In the socio-hydrological model of van Emmerik et  
91 al. the human response to changing environmental awareness is captured through an appropriate



92 constitutive relationship, chosen in a somewhat intuitive way. Hence, the parameters governing the  
93 constitutive relationship could only be obtained through calibration of the overall model and would  
94 always be challenged unless they are verified to be right for the right reasons. Prediction-wise, both  
95 in time and space, confidence in such place-based models will be low so long as the constitutive  
96 relationship cannot be independently validated or theoretically justified.

97

98 Going forward, there is a need to generalize SH models both for predicting future socio-hydrological  
99 outcomes in one location and/or to apply them at other locations. Case studies have demonstrated an  
100 inherently dynamic quality to changing values and norms in relation to water use or environmental  
101 behaviour, but how to measure or “value” values and norms directly and independently of models  
102 remains as yet unresolved. Even if they can be measured in specific places, we need a broad  
103 theoretical framework that encapsulates the many physical and social controls that govern changing  
104 values and norms in order to synthesize data or measurements from many places across the globe  
105 and develop broad generalizations. These remain major challenges to the progress of socio-  
106 hydrology as the science underpinning sustainable water management (Pande and Sivapalan, 2016)  
107 and thus provide the motivation for this paper. Our aim is to position the progress made by SH  
108 models to date towards incorporating changing values and norms in the context of extant social  
109 science theories, and in doing so, to articulate possible ways forward to make major advances in the  
110 future.

111

112 This paper begins with a review of recent place-based, socio-hydrological modelling studies (van  
113 Emmerik et al., 2014; Elshafei et al., 2014, 2015; Roobavannan et al., 2017) that have incorporated  
114 changing values and norms by connecting them to measures of the states of basin economy and/or  
115 environmental health via assumed functional relationships. Next, we draw connections between  
116 extant social theory and recent SH studies that indicate how values and norms influence social  
117 behaviour towards the environment. The paper then outlines challenges and opportunities for  
118 generalising SH models, especially in respect of changing values and norms, so that more reliable  
119 predictions can be made across time and space. This includes a re-calibration exercise to demonstrate  
120 the value of new kinds of social data. This also includes exciting new avenues such as virtual social  
121 experiments or data mined from novel sources such as social surveys and media. It concludes with  
122 the possibility of generalising relationships between changing values and norms and human behavior



123 in respect of the environment, benefiting from more place based studies. In this way, it underscores  
124 the need for more comparative analyses across many such case studies so that generalised  
125 relationships can be synthesised that are transferrable to ungauged locations.

## 126 **2. VALUES AND NORMS IN SOCIO-HYDROLOGY MODELS**

127 Following Wescoat (2013), the socio-hydrology literature has tended to define values and norms as  
128 the over-arching goals of individuals and of whole societies in respect of water use, conservation,  
129 and sustainability. Prior research in SH has allowed values and norms to undergo dynamic changes.  
130 Sivapalan et al. (2014) proposed a socio-hydrology framework which uses values and norms as  
131 drivers of the decision making that shapes society's goals and actions, and are in turn shaped by the  
132 outcomes for human wellbeing that result from past human decisions (Figure 1). In this way, values  
133 and norms are seen as endogenous to coupled human-water systems, co-evolving with the changing  
134 dynamics of water resource systems (Norton et al., 1998; Sivapalan and Blöschl, 2015). So far in  
135 SH research, values and norms have been lumped together and represented by proxy variables. Next,  
136 we illustrate this through several examples.

137

### 138 **2.1 Environmental awareness**

139 van Emmerik et al. (2014) developed a SH model of the Murrumbidgee river basin (MRB)  
140 in eastern Australia to explain an observed “pendulum swing”, i.e., a shift in water management  
141 focus away from economic development and towards ecosystem health. This shift was hypothesized  
142 to be the outcome of changes in values and norms in the community in respect of economic well  
143 being and ecosystem health. In the model, the dynamics of changing values and norms were  
144 represented by environmental awareness, a proxy state variable that reflected adverse changes to  
145 ecosystem health. It was assumed that environmental degradation occurred when too much water  
146 was extracted for agricultural activities aimed at advancing economic wellbeing of the community.  
147 As a result, less water reached downstream wetlands. When wetland storage became lower than a  
148 specified threshold, ecosystem health suffered noticeably to be felt in the community, which was  
149 then reflected in the environmental awareness. Enhanced environmental awareness then triggered  
150 human action, in the form of reductions in water allocation to agriculture, leading to reductions in  
151 irrigated area, and increased water allocation to the environment. The situation would reverse itself  
152 upon a return of increased downstream environmental flows, restoration of wetland storage and



153 improvement to ecosystem health.

154

155 The representation of environmental awareness in van Emmerik et al. (2014), although simple,  
156 represents a first attempt on the intuitive relationship between values and norms about perceived  
157 threats to ecosystem health and changes to water management actions. Note that other effects or  
158 characteristics of environmental degradation, such as changing water tables, or salinization of the  
159 soil, were not taken into account. Furthermore, regional or national policy is not taken into account  
160 in the formulation of environmental awareness. Finally, the functional form of the equation was  
161 calibrated using data on population, total irrigated area, agriculture water utilisation.

162

## 163 **2.2 Community sensitivity**

164 Elshafei et al. (2014) expanded further on the intuitive causality between changes to  
165 community values and norms in respect of ecosystem health and consequent water management  
166 actions by humans. They elaborated on how agri-centric values conflicted with environmental  
167 values and influenced water use behavior and proposed a framework that modeled the competition  
168 between economic development and environmental awareness using ‘community sensitivity’, a  
169 new social state variable. They presented a feedback formulation where water use behavior is  
170 influenced by changing values and norms relating to the environment and economic well-being, as  
171 reflected in the community sensitivity. For the first time the authors brought in broader (e.g.,  
172 regional) climatic, political and socio-economic contextual variables that may influence local  
173 values and norms in respect of water use, e.g., rapidly diversifying economic growth. Elshafei et al.  
174 (2015) explicitly demonstrated that environmental degradation impacted community sensitivity  
175 and consequently water use behaviours. The foundation of their proposed framework was driven  
176 by the hypothesis that the coupled system dynamics are driven by the competition between a  
177 positive feedback loop (Economic-Population Loop) and a negative feedback loop (Community  
178 Sensitivity Loop).

## 179 **2.3 Economic diversification and institutions:**

180 Roobavannan et al. (2017) presented a rigorous validation of the community sensitivity  
181 concept of Elshafei et al. (2014) and further extended it to account for the relative dependence of the  
182 basin economy on agriculture. Roobavannan et al. (2017) assumed that the tradeoff between  
183 economic wellbeing and environmental health at the community level depends also on contextual



184 factors such as economic diversification. In this way the resulting SH model was able to explain the  
185 importance of economic diversification and sectoral transformation on the community sensitivity  
186 that then impacted human water management actions.

187

188 Roobavannan et al. (2017) also introduced a fish species richness (FSR) index (Yoshikawa *et al.*,  
189 2014) as a separate proxy for ecosystem health. They also used time series of economic development  
190 (measured by total irrigated area and irrigation water utilisation) and diverse proxies for technology  
191 (i.e., patents) and water use behavior (e.g., environmental behavior based on fish species richness  
192 index) in validating the dynamic changes to community sensitivity.

### 193 **3. VALUES, BELIEFS AND NORMS AS DYNAMIC VARIABLES**

194 So far in SH modelling research, aspects of human culture that drive human behaviour in respect  
195 of water management – i.e., values and norms – have been treated in a lumped way, represented by  
196 proxies, in a black-box manner. Moving SH forward requires opening the ‘black box’ of culture by  
197 questioning the assumptions behind and more clearly measuring and modelling cultural factors. For  
198 example, if values are conceptualized as over-arching goals of society (Wescoat, 2013), are they  
199 individual goals or collective goals associated with the emergent structure of a coupled human-water  
200 system, or both? Similarly, how malleable are values and norms as aspects of a coupled human-  
201 water system? Moreover, under what conditions should values and norms be expected to change, or  
202 remain stable? For that matter, what are the mechanisms through which values and norms might  
203 change, and the human behaviours and actions that result from them?

204

205 The ingredients for understanding the role of changing values and norms in coupled human-water  
206 systems can be summarized as (a) forward loop: theories of how individual values influence  
207 individual norms and behavior regarding water use, (b) backward loop: theories of why and how  
208 collective behavior can engender change in individual norms regarding the use of water for  
209 agriculture or the environment, (c) role of institutions in enabling changes in water policy that reflect  
210 collective behavior towards the water environment, (d) data that can provide information on proxy  
211 variables including environment related behavior and patterns and (e) models that use proxy data to  
212 conceptualize processes (a)-(c) in interpreting related patterns. Future work in SH will necessarily





213 grapple with these types of questions that further elucidate the role of values and norms in coupled  
214 human-water systems.

215

### 216 **3.1 Values, Beliefs, and Norms: VBN theory**

217 One line of conceptualization seems particularly promising for moving forward socio-  
218 hydrological research. The Values-Beliefs-Norms (VBN) theoretical framework (Stern et al., 1999;  
219 Ives and Kendal, 2014) is grounded firmly in social-psychological theory and has been empirically  
220 tested as a framework for understanding how cultural factors (i.e., values, beliefs and norms) shape  
221 environmental decision-making, and water use behaviour in particular, in a wide array of contexts.  
222 Figure 2 presents a stylized version of a VBN model linking values, beliefs, norms, and behaviours.  
223 In this framework, behaviours are motivated by proximate norms, or obligations to act. Norms  
224 themselves are shaped, or activated by beliefs, including a person's awareness of the consequences  
225 of their actions, how a person ascribes responsibility for their actions etc. More generally, norms  
226 are shaped by a person's ecological worldview, or how a person views humans vis-à-vis the natural  
227 environment (i.e., are humans *a part of* the natural environment, or *apart from* the natural  
228 environment). Ultimately, the VBN framework posits values-deeply-held, guiding principles about  
229 right and wrong – as the basis of water use behaviour in the context of socio-hydrology. Values are  
230 often assumed to be unchanging, relatively stable, and generally unquestioned principles that  
231 motivate water use behaviour and water policy actions indirectly through beliefs and norms.

232

233 The VBN framework is capable of being incorporated into SH models for the purposes of modelling  
234 dynamic feedbacks within the human component of the system or between the human and  
235 environmental components of the system (Caldas et al. 2015). Incorporating VBN into SH models  
236 requires addressing the questions raised above in greater detail, among others, but especially the  
237 question of where the feedbacks between values, beliefs, norms and behavior occur in the process  
238 of management and the competitive use of water resources.

239

240 To illustrate how values, beliefs and norms influence behavior, consider a simplified example of a  
241 farmer of English descent in the MRB who migrated into the basin in the early 1900s and farmed  
242 rice. The behaviour of this farmer towards wetlands is influenced by how the farmer and the farming  
243 community *believe* their water use affects what they hold dear or value. Implicitly, this means that





244 their behaviour towards the environment depends on how they value water, or what they believe the  
245 water should be used for. These are questions of *values*, and values help navigate decisions that must  
246 be made about trade-offs between different valued end goals, or uses. Here, one key trade-off is  
247 between water for agricultural production (i.e., to support the viability of the farm operation and  
248 farmer's livelihood) and water for the environment (i.e., to support environmental flows,  
249 biodiversity, and ecosystem services). Humans can hold multiple values, and place different  
250 'weights' or emphases on each of the values that affect a particular decision with regards to water  
251 use. The farmer may, for example, make a water use decision by drawing on a combination of self-  
252 interest/egoistic values (e.g., using water to support the economic well-being of their family,  
253 household, and farm), humanist-altruistic values (e.g., conserving water to preserve the long-term  
254 viability of the rural community), and biospheric-altruistic values (e.g., conserving water to preserve  
255 wildlife habitat and ecosystem services). A first step toward modelling this type of VBN process  
256 could be to assign weights for each value, allowing behaviours to change in correspondence to the  
257 weights that each value type exercises over time. Scaling up from the individual-level, value types  
258 can be identified from prevailing complexes of VBN processes in a basin so that SH dynamics in a  
259 basin are outcomes of generalised behaviours emerging from a distribution of basin residents laden  
260 with different value types and complexes. From this perspective, VBN elements at an aggregate  
261 level in a basin can become dynamic. For example, degrading ecosystem functioning, such as the  
262 drying of wetlands, can bring more uncertainty and risk over time to the things the farmer values  
263 (i.e., income, family, farming, community, the environment, etc.) and/or altering the farmer's beliefs  
264 (i.e., worldview, awareness of adverse consequences, or perceived ability to reduce threats to things  
265 of value), shifting their behaviour away from a more egoistic, or agri-centric, orientation and towards  
266 wetland conservation and restoration. This is a very simplified example of a complex set of processes  
267 operating at multiple scales, but it illustrates how values, beliefs, norms, and behaviour might be  
268 seen to co-evolve and change through feedbacks in a coupled SH system.

269

270 There remain important gaps in how to identify the requisite components of VBN processes through  
271 measurement, how to scale up these processes from the individual level, and how to model  
272 feedbacks. However, as mentioned before, there has already been progress in this direction in the  
273 SH literature. Place-based SH models (van Emmerik et al., 2014; Roobavannan et al., 2017; and  
274 Elshafei et al., 2014, 2015) have mimicked various regimes that result from a different balance



275 between economic or agricultural development and environmental health due to changing values,  
276 beliefs and norms. van Emmerik et al. (2014) was able to model the four eras described by  
277 Kandasamy et al. (2014), from an exclusive focus on agriculture, to environmental restoration. A  
278 crucial aspect has been the inclusion of a sub-model to quantify environmental health. The  
279 community sensitivity framework of Elshafei et al. (2014) was applied to two Australian catchments,  
280 and in both cases, different regimes could also be distinguished. Interestingly, the inclusion of human  
281 feedback that integrates a variety of influences as a response to changes in ecosystem health was  
282 done in a completely different fashion. In van Emmerik et al. (2014) a simple memory function  
283 governed by wetland storage sufficed, whereas in Elshafei et al. (2014) more complex community  
284 sensitivity equations were introduced, both linking water use related beliefs and behavior through  
285 bi-directional feedbacks. Roobavannan et al. (2017), advanced this a step further by representing  
286 community level belief about the environment, i.e., environment sensitivity, as a consequence of the  
287 distribution of weights that individuals attach to enviro-centric versus anthro-centric values. Such  
288 a distribution was made contextual, i.e., it depended on economic diversification. The endogenous  
289 treatment of values and norms by these studies (van Emmerik et al., 2014; Elshafei et al., 2015;  
290 Roobavannan et al., 2017) have implicitly followed the general logic of elements of the VBN theory  
291 presented above, even if this was originally unintended (see Figure 2) , and have therefore responded  
292 to the challenges of incorporating feedbacks from water use behavior to beliefs and water  
293 management norms, consistent with the notion of endogenous and dynamic culture of Caldas et al.  
294 (2015).

### 295 **3.2 Validation of Modeled Changing Values and Norms**

296 Place-based SH models have relied on proxy measures such as environmental degradation to capture  
297 changing values, beliefs, norms and behaviors and their parameters were obtained by calibration.  
298 Despite the advantages of this approach, confidence in these models remains low, as the models  
299 struggle to be independently validated. To address the validation challenges faced to date in model-  
300 based socio-hydrology case studies, Elshafei et al. (2015) proposed that socio-centric approaches  
301 (such as newspaper content analysis) be employed to assess evolving community sentiment over  
302 long time periods.

303

304 Along these lines, Wei et al. (2017) recently analyzed the content of newspaper articles to measure



305 and quantify the evolution of societal values and preferences in relation to water management issues  
306 in Australia over a 169 year period. The results of Wei et al. (2017) are especially informative to the  
307 growing body of socio-hydrology literature focused on Australian study sites, in particular the  
308 Murray Darling Basin (MDB). Their findings support the hypotheses put forward in Kandasamy et  
309 al. (2014) and Elshafei et al. (2014), both of which postulate a shift in societal values from an  
310 anthropo-centric to an enviro-centric focus over time.

311

312 The work of Wei et al. (2017) thus signals an important step forward for the socio-hydrology  
313 research community as its results demonstrate how an autonomous socio-centric analysis method  
314 may be employed to provide independent validation for conceptual theories and coupled modelling  
315 approaches carried out within the same broad geographical region. This more complete analysis of  
316 societal values now enables us to go back and compare the results of this independent study against  
317 the predictions made by previous SH models. More specifically, Wei et al.'s (2017) results  
318 corroborate Kandasamy et al.'s (2014) proposed pendulum swing in societal sentiment in the  
319 Murrumbidgee Basin over a century timescale. As can be seen in Figure 3, observed (Figure 3a,  
320 Kandasamy et al., 2014) and modeled (Figure 3b, van Emmerik et al., 2014) time series of economic  
321 development (proxied by total irrigated area and irrigation water utilisation) correspond with the  
322 evolution of societal sentiment shown in the bottom panel of Wei et al.'s (2017) results (Figure 3c).  
323 Moreover, the narrative for each of the three phases described in Wei et al. (2017) repeats the timing  
324 and spirit of the phases depicted in Kandasamy et al. (2014), van Emmerik et al. (2014) and Elshafei  
325 et al. (2014, 2015) (Figure 3).

326

327 Another important implication of Wei et al.'s (2017) results in relation to Elshafei et al.'s (2014)  
328 proposed conceptual SH model is that they provide strong support for theories underpinning the use  
329 of the composite 'community sensitivity' variable put forward therein. Figure 4a,b illustrates that  
330 when societal values are initially focused on economic development the change in the community  
331 sensitivity variable ( $dV/dt$ ) trends negative (i.e., society is predisposed towards anthropo-centric  
332 behaviours), whereas as societal values evolve towards environmental sustainability the change in  
333 community sensitivity variable trends positive (indicating a behavioural tendency towards  
334 conservation). Wei et al.'s (2017) findings thus provide strong validation for the non-linear dynamics  
335 observed in previously published coupled SH models that adopted alternate proxies for modelling



336 the change in societal values and norms in relation to water resource management over time (i.e.,  
337 Elshafei et al.'s (2014, 2015) composite community sensitivity variable and van Emmerik et al.'s  
338 (2014) environmental awareness variable).

339

340 It is worth noting that Wei et al.'s (2017) results are not particular to a specific basin, but rather are  
341 intended to reflect a broader national or regional view. Validated SH models that endogenized water  
342 related beliefs and norms are distinct from regression based models that are not causal (e.g., Wei et  
343 al., 2017). The in-built non-linear dynamics allow possible 'extrapolation' of the coupled human-  
344 water dynamics across a gradient of hydro-climates, societies and economies, although this requires  
345 more work and testing. Similar to regionalisation techniques in hydrological modeling, socio-  
346 hydrological regionalisation will mean how the parameters of the coupled SH model, such as  
347 curvature parameter of the distribution function that trades off enviro-centric values with anthropo-  
348 centric values (Roobavannan et al., 2017), vary across different societies. Regression based models  
349 cannot be extrapolated to another place or time as there are no causal linkages provided to explain  
350 the transitional shifts in societal values observed therein. In other words, regression models that do  
351 not internalize coupled human water system dynamics can at best be used for 'interpolation' (i.e.,  
352 can only explain the dynamics within the domain of the data) or data analysis. Nonetheless,  
353 verification of coupled models with data such as those presented in Wei et al. (2017) is important as  
354 it enables the discovery of fundamental principles of human behaviour through the validation of  
355 internal dynamics within the coupled models, and ultimately aids in the generalisation of socio-  
356 hydrologic system dynamics. The following shows how newspaper content analysis effectively plays  
357 the same informative role as Fish Species Richness, i.e., FSR (i.e., proxy for condition of ecology),  
358 in modelling water related endogenous behaviour.

359

360 In order to illustrate how newspaper content analysis serves as a complementary source of  
361 information that can be used in socio-hydrological modelling, the Wei et al. (2017) data was used to  
362 re-calibrate the 'environment awareness' state variable of van Emmerik et al. (2014). Instead of  
363 wetland storage which was used in van Emmerik et al. (2014), the Fish Species Richness ( $r$ ) is now  
364 used as a proxy of environment health. The temporal dynamics of environment awareness ( $E$ ) is  
365 assumed to be given by the following differential equation (van Emmerik et al., 2014):



366 
$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \varepsilon(r)$$

367 where  $\varepsilon(r)$  is the rate of accumulation/depletion of environmental awareness, which is a function of  
368  $r$ . The functional form of  $\varepsilon(r)$  is assumed to be given by:

369 
$$\varepsilon(r) = \begin{cases} \alpha [\exp(\beta r) - 1], & r < r_c \\ -\lambda, & r > r_c \end{cases}$$

370 where  $r_c$  is the critical Fish Species Richness below which environment awareness is expected to  
371 increase exponentially governed by parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  and  $\lambda$  is dissipation rate of environmental  
372 awareness when the ecosystem is healthy, i.e.,  $r > r_c$ . The Fish Species Index,  $r$ , (Yoshikawa *et al.*,  
373 2014) is estimated by the following power law function:

374 
$$r = \beta_0 Q_B^{\beta_1}$$

375 where  $Q_B$  is the flow in the downstream streamflow (i.e., environmental flow) and  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are  
376 parameters of the FSR index (Yoshikawa *et al.*, 2014).

377

378 Values of the parameters  $\alpha, \beta, \lambda, r_c$  need to be calibrated. In the absence of social data to calibrate  
379 the model, van Emmerik *et al.* (2014) used other basin-wide hydrological data to calibrate the model.  
380 Here we use the Wei *et al.* (2017) data to calibrate the model parameters, through application of the  
381 GLUE method. Initial estimates for the parameters are obtained manually making sure essential  
382 dynamics are captured. After that, 100,000 random samples of parameters (uniform sampling) that  
383 lie within the range of 50% to 150% of the initial values are obtained.

384

385 Figure 5a shows the modeled environmental awareness by van Emmerik *et al.* (2014) and a  
386 comparison with that calibrated to the Wei *et al.* (2017) data (Figure 5b). The environmental  
387 awareness ( $E$ , Figure 5a) bears a remarkable similarity to that obtained by Wei *et al.* (2017) through  
388 newspaper content analysis. Even though van Emmerik *et al.* (2014) at that time was not privy to the  
389 Wei *et al.* (2017) data, the model already succeeded in capturing the change in community's values  
390 and norms regarding water resources. While naturally attracting criticism for the lack of direct  
391 calibration, in hindsight the validity of the approach may now be appreciated and that new social  
392 data such as Wei *et al.*'s (2017) can be used to validate predictions of changing values and norms.  
393 Figure 5b shows how with foresight and with availability of complementary societal values data of  
394 Wei *et al.* (2017) (see dashed line), the FSR can robustly simulate  $E$ . In doing so it provides



395 independent validation of the model results of van Emmerik et.al. (2014) and the approach that was  
396 adopted at the time.

#### 397 **4. FROM PLACE-BASED TO GENERALIZED MODELS: CHALLENGES AND** 398 **OPPORTUNITIES**

399 The pathway to generalisation of SH models is an important goal that allows future prediction  
400 (extrapolation in time) and translation of SH models at other geographical locations (extrapolation  
401 in space). It provides an important means for the adoption of socio-hydrology in the practice of long-  
402 term or strategic water resource management. Generalisation needs to address both the proxies used  
403 in SH modelling and the data used to calibrate them, as recent SH modelling studies have  
404 highlighted.

405

406 Models provide languages or templates in terms of which the following three aspects can be  
407 interpreted: 1) how beliefs and norms depend on values, 2) how values and norms influence  
408 individual behavior towards the environment, e.g., the wetland health or releasing environment water  
409 for bio-diversity, and 3) how pro-environmental behaviour of some in the community (e.g., rallies  
410 by the Green Movement) can influence the beliefs of others in the basin and bring about a change in  
411 water management (i.e., the feedback). Such templates also enlighten us with variables that need to  
412 be measured, so that multiple concepts via the models can be tested and can improve our system  
413 understanding.

414

415 For example, the policy change in the 1990s in MRB led to increased environmental flow. To  
416 interpret this in terms of change in water management norms of the MRB, models need to link beliefs  
417 and norms to water use behaviour within the basin. This needs information on a range of relevant  
418 values such as altruistic values (i.e., healthy MRB for present and future generations, enough money  
419 for the next generation) and egoistic values (i.e., making money), along with information on beliefs,  
420 norms, and behaviours, such as how water is being used.

##### 421 **4.1 Measurement of changing norms and values**

422 Direct measurement of social value is often very difficult, resulting in the use of indirect methods  
423 (or proxies). Studies have attempted to understand social values on pro-environmentalism (Bengston



424 1994; Ives and Kendal 2013) and could be differentiated based on the method of measurement.  
425 Assigned values can be expressed in either monetary or non-monetary terms, and are relevant to  
426 economic and psychology approaches. In a social science context, assigned values have been  
427 quantitatively measured using a variety of techniques, including survey and interview approaches  
428 with the help of psychometric scales used in psychology (Bengston, 1994), social experiments in  
429 behavioral economics (Janssen et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2016) and content analysis (Seymour et al.,  
430 2010; Bark et al. 2016a; Xu and Bengston 1997; Wei et al., 2017). Economic valuation offers another  
431 set of useful approaches to inform natural resource management (Farber et al., 2002; Pande et al.,  
432 2011; Loomis et al., 2000; Norton and Noonan, 2007; Wilson et al., 1999; Bark et al., 2016b). Non-  
433 market valuation (Smith, 1993), contingent valuation (Bateman et al., 2006 ) and other related  
434 techniques have been extensively used over the decades and enabled the exploration of how people  
435 ‘trade-off’ their environmental values in decision-making (Freeman 1993). This enables (i) values  
436 to be measured for large and diverse groups of people, (ii) changes in values to be tracked across  
437 groups of people or across time, and (iii) models to be developed to predict values based on other  
438 factors (e.g., demographics, cultural background).

439

440 It is less challenging to observe contemporary water-related behaviour. However, as the time scale  
441 of analysis expands, the task of measuring behaviour becomes equally challenging. Paleoclimate  
442 proxies such as  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  or tree rings,, have been extensively used to interpret water availability as well  
443 as social organization in the past (Pande and Ertsen, 2014; Staubwasser et al., 2003). These  
444 observations can be supplemented by other forms of indirect measurement of water related  
445 behaviour such as newspaper content analysis, records of memberships in activist organisations, and  
446 can strengthen proxy observations of pro-environmental behaviour in the near past.

#### 447 **4.2 Utilisation of new types of data**

448 A challenge related to model transferability is generic data needs. If community sensitivity functions  
449 of van Emmerik et al. (2014), Elshafei et al. (2015) and Roobavannan et al. (2017) are able to assess  
450 some trade-off between enviro-centric and anthro-centric values types, global socio-economic  
451 data sets such as the World Value Surveys (WVS, 2017) and UN demographic datasets (UN, 2017)  
452 might offer the possibility of quantifying values, so that models can be transferred to unmonitored  
453 locations. Whether such data sources can be used to quantify such values remains a very important





454 open question.

455

456 In the past, the use of soft data in hydrological modelling has been demonstrated to provide  
457 additional insights into the functioning of ungauged basins, and has in some cases been used to  
458 successfully assess the realism of a model (see e.g., van Emmerik et al., 2015). Similarly, socio-  
459 hydrological systems face similar problems of extrapolation to other places, as numerical data series  
460 do not always exist to calibrate or validate SH models. Wei et al.'s (2017) use of newspaper content  
461 data to compute a numerical expression of environmental sustainability and economic development  
462 demonstrates the benefits of further exploration of this type of new data sources since it can allow  
463 the calibration of SH models, as shown in Figure 5. Future efforts should therefore not only be  
464 limited to developing new SH modeling frameworks, but also entail finding new ways to access  
465 information and translate it into numerical expressions, e.g., indices such as FSR, that can be used  
466 for model validation, and model realism assessment.

467

468 A new era of data-driven science (Peters-Lidard et al., 2017) is dawning, with increased  
469 computational power, new proxies and alternative data sources. Smart distillation of information  
470 from alternative sources (e.g., web databases, social data, other types of Big Data) may provide the  
471 valuable auxiliary data required to take the next step in SH model development and provide an  
472 innovative way to find and quantify the social proxies which are currently difficult to justify. This  
473 will need to be combined with online data monitoring such as smart sensing and citizen science  
474 monitoring as well as field campaigns to validate model results as well as to obtain socio-  
475 hydrological data relating to e.g. environmental sentiment, local societal values, and fertility  
476 conditions. In the future, socio-hydrologists could exploit or mine data/information from such varied  
477 sources, leading to the inclusion of Big Data science in socio-hydrology. This new paradigm  
478 represents a clear set of opportunities for data-mining and data-driven modelling methods in socio-  
479 hydrology. These apply machine learning and 'computationally intelligent' algorithms to elicit,  
480 characterise, quantify and model the myriad, implicit structures and relationships embedded within  
481 complex, multivariate datasets. In so doing, they offer a pathway for formulating new understandings  
482 of the saliency and power of socio-hydrologic variables, and the inter-relationships and behaviours  
483 that exist between them (Mount et al., 2016).

484



#### 485        **4.3 Comparative socio-hydrology studies**

486        Parameters are used to calibrate the proxies to fit local basin data. Comparative studies from several  
487        basins will enable better interpretation of what model parameters mean and their character. For  
488        example, Roobavannan et al. (2017)'s model of endogenous behaviour could be made more socio-  
489        hydrologically meaningful. Its attractiveness parameter relates migration to the difference in  
490        unemployment within and outside the basin. A more meaningful representation of this variable, for  
491        example in terms of the cost of migration, such as moving costs and the cost of obtaining new skills  
492        away from water based employment, will enable regionalisation of associated parameter values and  
493        the transfer of models from data intensive basins such as the MRB to data scarce basins such as the  
494        Aral Sea.

495

496        Comparative studies can also provide the data to develop regional relationships for SH model  
497        parameters. Similar to regionalisation techniques in hydrological modeling (Asong et al., 2015;  
498        Buytaert and Beven, 2009; Götzing and Bárdossy, 2007; Merz and Blöschl, 2004; Yadav et al.,  
499        2007; Blöschl et al., 2013), socio-hydrological regionalisation will define how the parameters of the  
500        coupled SH model vary with different societies and basins. Once defined, regional curves may be  
501        used to interpolate parameters and hence models to ungauged locations. Initial efforts have already  
502        been attempted in Elshafei et al., (2016) but these need to be improved and validated through more  
503        independent comparative studies. Yet another possibility can be of investigating a Budyko type  
504        curve for coupled human-water systems with endogenous values and norms that will enable  
505        extrapolation of emergent behaviours in space and time. Comparative assessment will also put to  
506        test theories, such as those that propose values and norms as emergent properties of a coupled  
507        human-water system, such that all its biological constituents including humans and vegetation obey  
508        certain metabolic scaling laws (Fischer-Kowalski, 1998; Silva et al., 2006).

509

510        In this regard, a new working group on comparative socio-hydrology within Panta Rhei has been  
511        launched to serve this purpose (Fuqiang Tian, personal communication). It plans to obtain socio-  
512        hydrological data from diverse river basins such as Tarim, Murrumbidgee and Kissimmee, including  
513        historical documentation of the evolution of coupled human-water system to develop a generalized  
514        understanding of coupled human-water behavior. This is being done through comparative analysis  
515        to identify and interpret diverse emergent behavior such as farmer suicides in less developed and



516 developed countries such as India and Australia respectively, “pendulum swing” in basins in China,  
517 USA and Australia and the levee effect versus memory effect in flood plains across the globe. Such  
518 comparative analyses can prove to be very constructive in identifying general principles that govern  
519 dynamic changes in values and norms.

## 520 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

521 Recent socio-hydrological studies (van Emmerik et al, 2014; Elshafiei et al., 2015; Roobavannan et  
522 al., 2017) in Australia have moved closer toward integration with key social science theories of  
523 perception and behavior, and have taken a key step toward endogenizing values and norms. These  
524 models are internally consistent with patterns observed with proxy data of environmental awareness  
525 and water policy change, such as the newspaper articles based proxies of Wei et al. (2017). However,  
526 such theoretically and empirically consistent models are only the beginning of the way forward to  
527 generalizing models and its predictions for sustainable water management.

528

529 Human culture – comprised of values, beliefs, and norms – is key to understanding stability and  
530 change in coupled human-water systems. Often, such variables and related closure relationships  
531 within socio-hydrological models are latent and hard to observe. This poses challenges in testing  
532 and confirming the realism of assumed relationships. However, with the advent of the information  
533 intense era, diverse proxy data sources such as citizen science observatories, and social media can  
534 be harnessed and novel big data algorithms can be used to process them in a form that can be of use  
535 to socio-hydrological models.

536

537 Yet such opportunities can only build confidence in our place based understanding of a socio-  
538 hydrological phenomenon such as the pendulum swing observed in the Murrumbidgee River Basin.  
539 What we need are generalized relationships or principles underlying emergent phenomena if we are  
540 to stand up to the challenge of making predictions in ungauged locations in space and time. This  
541 clearly calls for more place based studies, both past and present and across spatio-temporal scales,  
542 that are backed up by novel socio-hydrological observations such as historical accounts and socio-  
543 centric data, and a comparative analysis of such studies where similar emergent phenomenon has  
544 been observed to help synthesize the underlying socio-hydrological principles.

545

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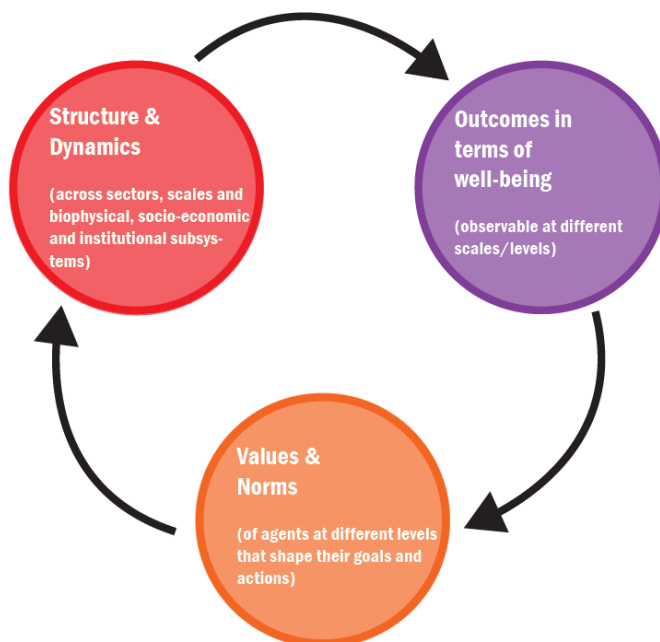


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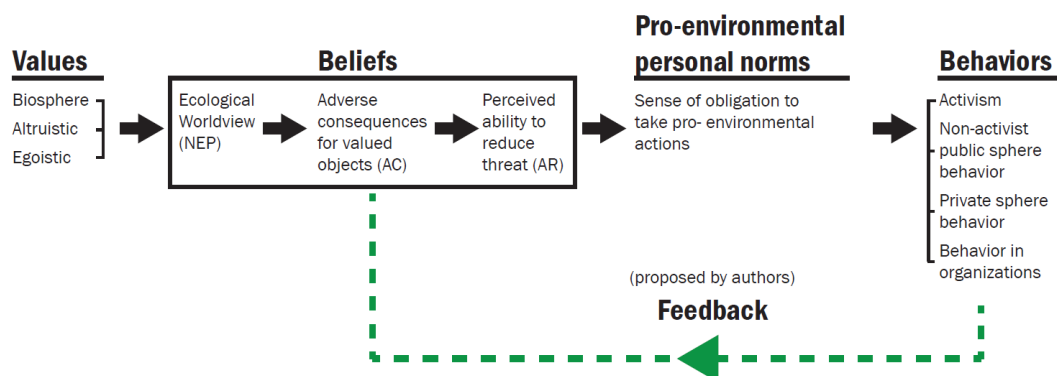




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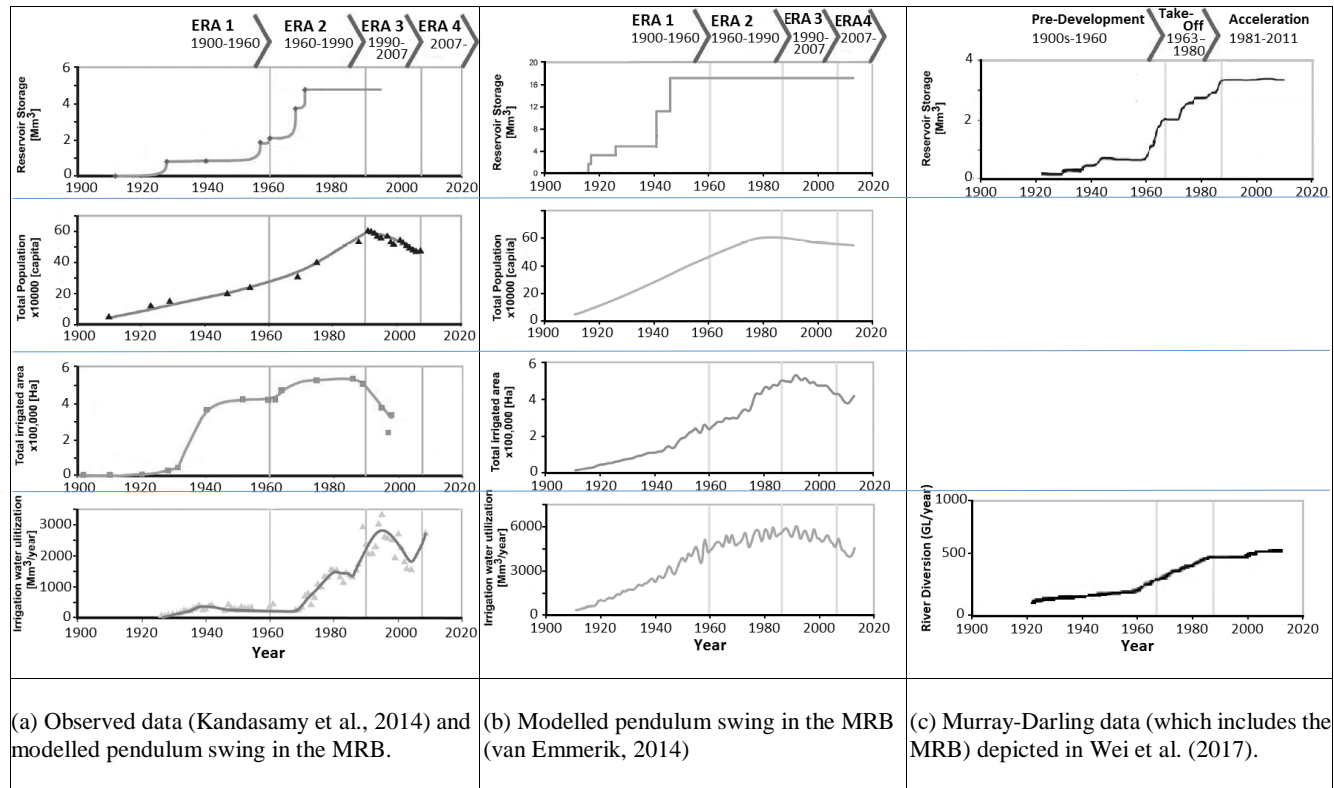
Figure 1: Framework proposed by Sivapalan et al., (2014). Socio-hydrology models use proxies for environment degradation and for economic well being





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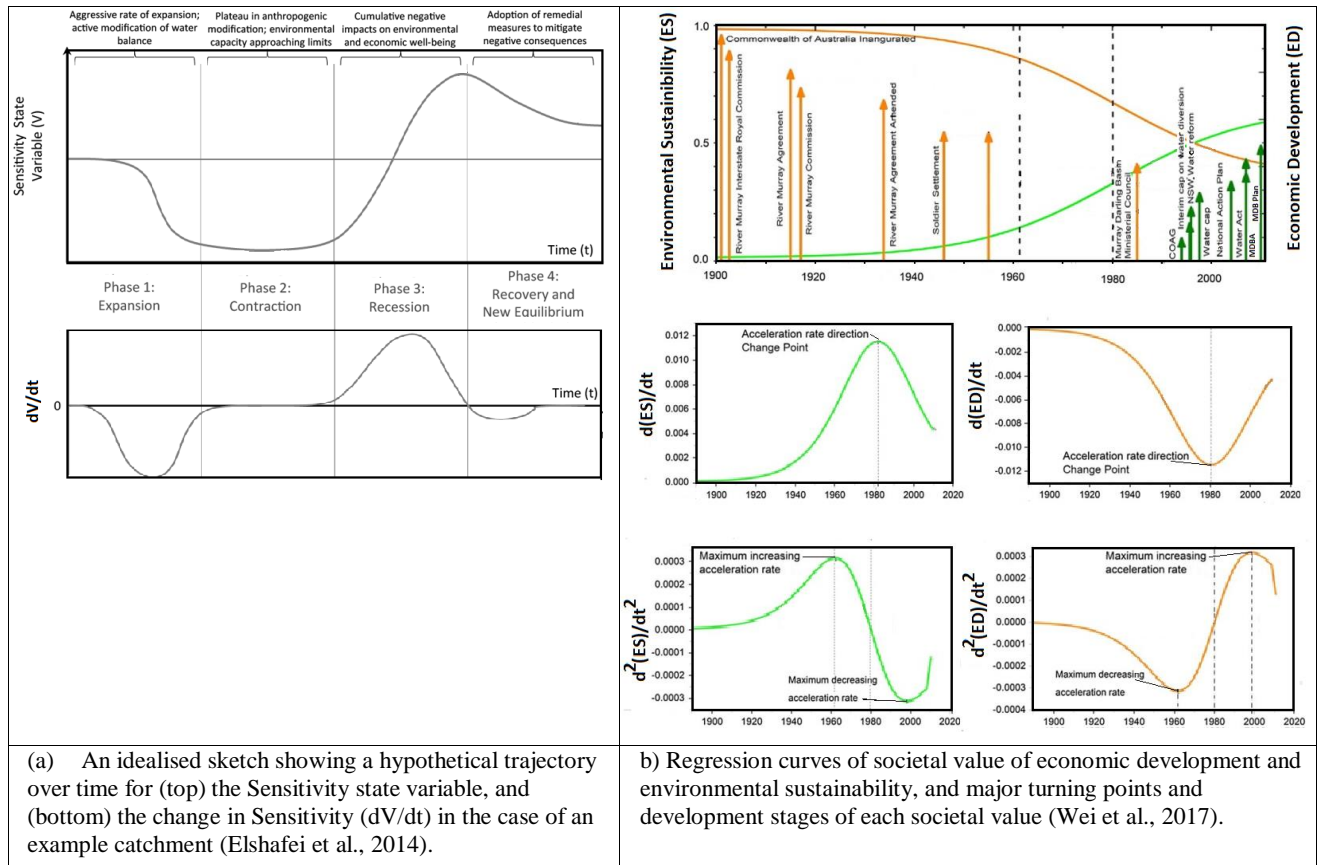
699 Figure 2: Value Belief Norm (VBN) theory. Adapted from (Ives and Kendal, 2014; Stern, 2000).  
 700 The feedback (green arrow) from communal behavior to individual beliefs is introduced here by the  
 701 authors to recognize that it has indeed been included in recent SH studies in preliminary ways and  
 702 (van Emmerik et al, 2014; Elshafei et al, 2014; Roobavaanan et al, 2017) needs to be formalized in  
 703 future studies.



704 **Figure 3.** Observed and modelled pendulum swing in the MRB during the period 1910–2013. Era 1 (1900–1980) Expansion of  
 705 agriculture and associated infrastructure, Era 2 (1960–1990) Onset of environmental degradation, Era 3 (1990–2007) Establishment of  
 706 widespread environmental degradation, Era 4 (207–2014) Remediation and emergence of environmental customer. The eras correspond  
 707 to phases in Elshafei et al (2015): Expansion (1911–1960), aggressive rate of expansion and active modification of water balance;  
 708 Contraction (1960s), plateau in anthropogenic modification; Recession (1970–2002), cumulative negative impacts on economic and



709 environmental well-being; Recovery and new equilibrium (2002-present), Adoption of remedial measures; and in Wei et al. (2017):  
710 Pre-development (1900s-1960s) Societal values dominated by economic development; Take-off (1963-1980) Societal values reflected  
711 increasing environmental awareness due to outbreak of pollution events; Acceleration (1981-2011) Growing shift in societal values  
712 towards environmental sustainability.  
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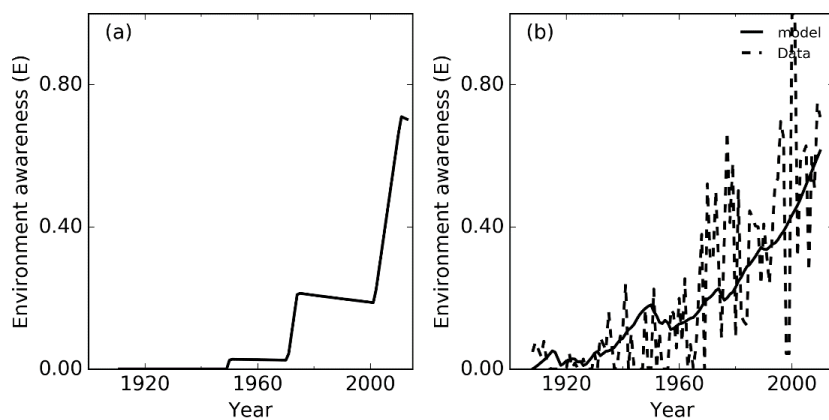


718 **Figure 4.** Defining shifts and turning points of stages of societal values

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723 **Figure 5.** (a) Variation of modelled environment awareness by van Emmerik et.al, (2014) using  
724 calibrated model with hydrological and population data (b) variation of modelled environment  
725 awareness using calibrated model (solid line) with societal value data (data from Wei et al. (2017),  
726 dashed line) of water resources for environment stability.

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