

1 **Water and Wastewater Systems and Utilities: Challenges and Opportunities during the**
2 **COVID-19 Pandemic**

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45 **INTRODUCTION**

46 The COVID-19 pandemic has changed the daily habits of communities across the world due to
47 actions that are needed to reduce transmission of the SARS-CoV-2 virus. Guidance is provided
48 around behaviors that include washing hands frequently, disinfecting shared surfaces, wearing
49 masks, and social distancing, which includes maintaining distance between individuals and
50 avoiding gatherings of large groups of people (WHO 2020). To ensure social distancing, many
51 individuals began working from home and reducing or eliminating travel. Governments across
52 the world enacted lockdowns and shelter-in-place orders, which led to the temporary closure of
53 businesses that are not considered essential and a prolonged reduction in the on-site working
54 capacity for a majority of nonessential businesses (Committee for the Coordination of Statistical
55 Activities 2020). New behaviors that support social distancing and the economic impacts of
56 lockdowns have been felt across almost every business, industry, and governmental service,
57 including water utilities, water resources, and water infrastructure. Changes in behaviors that
58 alter where and when water and wastewater demands are exerted have affected the performance
59 of drinking water and wastewater infrastructure, global water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH)
60 services and have led to changes in the quality of natural water bodies. Economic losses due to

61 lockdowns have created financial vulnerability for water utilities, and the need of the workforce
62 to work remotely has affected how utilities can operate.

63 The goal of this forum is to explore and discuss the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic
64 for water utilities and water systems. Recent literature has documented some of these impacts,
65 and findings are synthesized to support the discussion presented here. Experiential evidence is
66 used to demonstrate potential impacts, and this forum reports on a survey of water utilities that
67 was conducted to explore the approaches that utilities and managers have taken to adapt to new
68 conditions introduced by the pandemic. This discussion explores the mechanisms by which water
69 systems are affected and the aspects of water resources management that require a fresh
70 perspective towards emergency response and recovery planning. The pandemic has revealed
71 serious vulnerabilities in WASH services, due to the need for water supply to wash hands and
72 surfaces, the effects of social distancing on household abilities to collect water, and the effects of
73 significant economic slowdowns on household capacity. The pandemic provides a new
74 opportunity to rethink water resources management and water infrastructure. Water utilities can
75 improve emergency response planning and develop resilient water infrastructure policies.
76 Analysis of ongoing dynamics present new opportunities to adopt automated and smart water
77 infrastructure, enhance engineering education to encompass socioeconomic perspectives and
78 emergency management, and develop an understanding of the interconnections among critical
79 infrastructures, supply chains, and society to support planning and management activities.

80 **WATER SYSTEMS**

81 The effects of communities working remotely, traveling less, touring less, and engaging in less
82 recreation can have profound effects across water systems. The following sections explore how
83 the pandemic has affected drinking water demands and water distribution infrastructure;
84 wastewater infrastructure; and the water quality of natural water bodies.

85 **Drinking Water Demands and Water Distribution Systems**

86 Demands for drinking water have changed across water use sectors, and these demand
87 changes can affect how water distribution infrastructure and water supply systems operate.
88 Changes in demands are the result of changes in the location of people during the day as they adopt
89 social distancing habits, work remotely, and visit restaurants and businesses less frequently. One
90 result of these changes in behaviors, such as taking showers later, is that weekend diurnal patterns
91 have emerged on weekdays (Melbourne Water 2020). Balacco et al. (2020) analyzed water demand

92 changes for five cities in Italy during the first and second stage of the Italian lockdown during
93 March and April of 2020. Analysis shows that the diurnal pattern of demands shifted, with a
94 notable delay in the morning peak demand for all cities, by up to 2.5 hours later for some cities.
95 The peak associated with lunchtime disappeared for one city; the volume of water consumed
96 during weekends significantly increased for a small town; and the peak around dinnertime was less
97 pronounced for all cities, compared to patterns in March and April of 2019. It is expected for large
98 cities that demands, which are typically exerted at businesses, have shifted to residential supply
99 zones. This was seen for water consumption in Joinville, Southern Brazil, where industrial,
100 commercial, and public demands decreased, while residential demands showed a slight increase
101 due to social distancing measures (Kalbusch et al. 2020). The need of water for disinfection and
102 washing hands frequently while living with COVID-19 may drive significant increases in water
103 demands and water prices in the future (Sivakumar 2020).

104 Other changes in population behavior drive broader changes in the total consumption
105 across a region due to unexpected patterns of emigration as, for example, students leave
106 university towns when schools are closed (as shown for Bari, Italy by Balacco et al. (2020)),
107 people avoid dense urban areas during lockdowns, and others move out of cities to holiday
108 homes for extended lockdown periods. Balacco et al. (2020) reported that the total daily volume
109 of demands was not affected by a lockdown for small towns, while there was some reduction in
110 consumption at larger cities due to the lack of incoming commuters. It is expected that as people
111 take to outdoor and cultural heritage touring instead of touring at indoor and dense urban
112 locations, demands may shift to rural supply sources. There is a potential for increased demands
113 during summer months, as families use at-home pools and sprinklers instead of neighborhood or
114 city pools.

115 Shifting demands can have multiple effects on infrastructure systems and water supply.
116 The increased use of water for hygiene and disinfection may increase water consumption and
117 exacerbate water shortages, especially in water-scarce areas where there is a heightened tension
118 between water conservation efforts and increased water demand for hygiene and disinfecting
119 surfaces. For example, the City of Auckland in New Zealand is experiencing a severe drought
120 (Newton 2020), which further complicated the City's handling of COVID-19. Public information
121 campaigns about conserving water were implemented carefully to avoid discouraging hand-
122 washing and disinfecting, which would increase the risk of COVID-19 transmission. Despite low

123 dam levels, mandatory restrictions were briefly delayed to avoid increasing public stress during
124 the severe first lockdown (Radio New Zealand 2020). When water restrictions were later
125 implemented, reports of violations, such as use of water for outdoor purposes, increased
126 substantially due to more time spent at home by residents, who increased their use of water at
127 home or were more likely to notice violations in their neighborhood.

128 Changes in water demands can also affect the water quality of drinking water in
129 distribution systems. A lack of flow in indoor pipes increases the water age in premise plumbing
130 systems, which might lead to low disinfectant residuals, formation of disinfection byproducts,
131 intensification of corrosion, nitrification, re-growth of microorganisms, and biofilm formation
132 (Asadi-Ghalhari and Aali 2020). Guidance for recommissioning buildings through flushing to
133 protect building inhabitants should be developed based on decontamination practices for premise
134 plumbing systems (Proctor et al. 2020). Research is needed in this area to guide emergency
135 preparedness planning. At a system-level scale, the closing of multiple industries or businesses in
136 a neighborhood can affect circulation in a network and lead to high water age and degraded
137 water quality. Shifting demands can also lead to changes in energy consumption and nodal
138 pressure values. Potential changes in the level of service associated with shifting demands should
139 be explored to develop resilience planning for water infrastructure management.

140 The impact of COVID can serve as a wake-up call for a more “resilient” water
141 infrastructure that can recover from external shocks caused by a future pandemic or other types
142 of natural and manmade disasters. Water demand fluctuation is especially evident for centralized
143 water supply systems. This can be at least partly attributed to the use of treated water for all
144 domestic purposes (e.g., drinking, hygiene, toilet flushing, and irrigation). Data from systems
145 with “decentralized” water supply infrastructure (e.g., “Net-zero” water buildings or
146 communities) may show less water demand fluctuation as some portion of the water demand is
147 satisfied onsite through rainwater harvesting or other techniques (Guo and Englehardt 2015).
148 Assuming economic feasibility, the combination of centralized (e.g., from a water treatment
149 plant for drinking and hygiene purpose) and decentralized (e.g., from rainwater harvesting for
150 toilet flush and yard irrigation purpose) water supply sources could increase the resilience of the
151 water system and better prepare for the community in the uncertain future.

152 **Wastewater Systems**

153 Wastewater demands and wastewater infrastructure may also be impacted by the
154 COVID-19 pandemic. Increased use of water to wash hands and clean surfaces with soap and
155 disinfectants may increase the quantity and affect the quality of wastewater coming from homes,
156 hospitals, workplaces, and public spaces (Sivakumar 2020). Sewer and treatment capacities may
157 not handle increasing demands for under-designed or aging infrastructure, with negative impacts
158 on receiving water bodies. The fate of the SARS-CoV-2 virus outside of the human host should
159 be explored to safely manage the treatment and application of sludge. New challenges for
160 circular economy issues arise around the reuse of treated sewage, as the effects of aerosolization
161 in the context of COVID-19 and the persistence in reclaimed water need to be deeply understood
162 to advocate for the sustainable use of resources while protecting public health (Yang et al. 2020).
163 Premise plumbing for wastewater can act as a transmission route for the virus within or among
164 buildings. New research in the mechanisms of transmission, system design, and monitoring of
165 wastewater plumbing systems is needed to minimize the risk of transmission in hospitals, health
166 care facilities, and dense urban housing (Gormley et al. 2020).

167 Wastewater infrastructure is an important component of early warning systems to detect
168 disease. Significant research is being conducted to develop new monitoring systems and digital
169 tools can be developed in an opportunity to detect the virus and guarantee the early warning of
170 authorities. SARS-CoV-2, the virus causing COVID-19, is excreted in the feces of infected
171 individuals. Recent studies have shown that tracking the RNA of SARS-CoV-2 in wastewater, a
172 practice known as wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE), provides a rapid and cost-effective
173 means to monitor COVID-19 infections in cities (Ahmed et al. 2020a). By sampling the
174 wastewater generated by millions of people, WBE can provide early warning of emerging
175 COVID-19 outbreaks compared to traditional testing, because SARS-CoV-2 RNA is excreted by
176 pre- and asymptomatic individuals. In addition to sampling at wastewater treatment plants
177 (WWTPs) to track the disease prevalence in an entire community, emerging outbreaks can also
178 be traced back to local source locations with high infection rates by collecting samples directly
179 from the sewer network upstream of WWTPs (e.g., at manholes). The spatiotemporal distribution
180 of COVID-19 within cities can also be further revealed by coupling in-network WBE sampling
181 with hydraulic and transport modeling of sewer networks. The latter can track the fate and
182 transport of SARS-CoV-2 RNA by determining water flow paths, travel times, and other
183 hydraulic and environmental factors that affect the decay of the RNA signal as it is carried

184 through the network (Hart and Halden 2020). Specifically, hydraulic modeling can account for
185 the dynamic changes in wastewater and stormwater inputs (in case of combined sewer systems),
186 while water quality and transport simulations can track the changes in the parameters that affect
187 the decay rate of the SARS-CoV-2 RNA in the network, including pH and water temperature
188 (Ahmed et al. 2020b). Such models can serve as the basis for inverse modeling methods that can
189 be used to reveal infection hotspots of COVID-19 within communities. Decision support tools
190 can enable local public health departments to track new outbreaks, evaluate reemergence of the
191 disease following relaxation of control measures, assess vaccine uptake, and rapidly deploy
192 mobile resources for COVID-19 testing and control in affected communities. These tools can
193 serve to map and analyze the spread of the virus to guide plans to screen vulnerable urban
194 populations and proactively test communities and neighborhoods. Herein, a foremost challenge
195 is to develop a COVID19 wastewater detection system based on surrogate measures for
196 COVID19 presence instead of tracking the RNA of SARS-CoV-2 directly (Barcelo 2020).

197 **Water Quality of Natural Water Bodies**

198 Natural water bodies that provide important functions, including water supply, flood protection,
199 recreation, transportation, and ecological services have been impacted by the COVID-19
200 pandemic. Both improvement and degradation in the water quality of water bodies have been
201 documented at locations across the globe. In some locations, the reduced travel associated with
202 lockdowns, social distancing, and shelter-in-place directives has led to improvement in the water
203 quality of water bodies. For example, reduced traffic in water transport associated with the
204 COVID-19 lockdown led to improved water transparency in the lagoons around Venice, as fewer
205 boats traversed the canals (Braga et al. 2020). Lockdowns have also led to reduced urban traffic
206 on roadways, and as a result, there have been significant reductions in air pollution, including
207 nitrogen dioxide, over major cities across the globe. Consequentially, waterways are expected to
208 experience reduced deposition from point sources (e.g., industrial sites) and nonpoint sources (e.g.,
209 traffic) of pollution (Hallema et al. 2020). Effects from reductions in nonpoint sources cannot be
210 measured immediately, however, and effects will emerge after some time. Improvement in
211 groundwater quality has also been linked to reduced anthropogenic activities associated with
212 lockdowns, leading to a reduction in the wastewater generated by fisheries and industry (Selvam
213 et al. 2020). In a similar vein, an improvement in suspended particulate matter in a lake in India
214 was observed due to reduction in pollution from industries and tourism, though residential

215 wastewater loads remained at pre-pandemic levels (Yunus et al. 2020). Although changes in water
216 quality are expected to be ephemeral and to dissipate as economic activities recover, the reduction
217 in human activities provides a unique opportunity to test the impact of different pollution sources
218 on environmental systems and guide policy development.

219 Unfortunately, detrimental environmental effects, including water quality changes, have
220 also been observed related to the COVID-19 pandemic. In many parts of the world, fleets of trucks,
221 drones, and mini-tankers have been deployed to spray disinfectants in public areas, such as streets,
222 gardens, and beaches (Nabi et al. 2020; Silva et al. 2021). The discharge of large volumes of
223 disinfectants threaten water bodies and aquatic ecosystems (Zhang et al. 2020; Silva et al. 2021),
224 as some chemicals persist in the environment for years (Horn et al. 2020). Research around the
225 toxic effects of disinfectants on aquatic organisms, the development of non-toxic and effective
226 disinfectants, and decision support tools for guiding the use of disinfectants in urban areas and
227 near waterways is needed (Nabi et al. 2020). An increase in the use of single-food packaging and
228 plastic bags and an increase in the use of disposable personal protective equipment, including
229 masks and wipes, has led to more litter reaching the environment and waterways (Chavel et al.
230 2020; Silva et al. 2021). P that are not effectively removed by wastewater treatment plants and
231 plastics pollute receiving water bodies and harm shorelines and aquatic ecosystems. Impacts to the
232 quality of open water systems may be especially severe in dense urban areas with inadequate
233 sanitation (Horn et al. 2020). Further research is needed to explore the fate and transport of
234 disinfectants and pharmaceuticals in the environment and develop strategies for mitigating
235 pollution in waterways.

236 **Global Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH) and Underserved Communities**

237 Access to water is a key determinant for infectious disease control and prevention. Yet, millions
238 of people across the globe live in water stressed environments and do not have access to WASH
239 services. Many households cannot follow advice to frequently wash hands under running water,
240 and social distancing may be impossible due to lines that form in accessing or purchasing water
241 (Anim and Ofori-Asenso 2020). Due to the lack of resilience policies around water and
242 sanitation, African countries are susceptible to high levels of transmission of SARS-CoV-2
243 (Sunkari et al. 2021). Water is the most important resource needed to mitigate the COVID-19
244 pandemic through maintaining hospital, domestic, and work hygiene (Vammen and Guillen
245 2020). Beyond the need of water for washing hands, COVID-19 will impact water scarcity

246 through complex mechanisms of economy and poverty. Containment strategies that rely on
247 lockdowns and reduce the financial means of households will tragically impact the water and
248 food security of households in developing and water scarce localities (Boretti 2020). For
249 example, small Pacific islands are isolated from virus transmission, but have been affected by
250 supply issues due to shutdowns that have closed economic opportunities, leading to further loss
251 of income and water insecurity for households (Daniell 2020). Refugee camps have historically
252 been plagued by a lack of clean water and sufficient treatment of wastewater, and these
253 conditions foster severe disease outbreaks in refugee populations (Kassem and Jaafar 2020; Rafa
254 et al. 2020). There is a need for research to explore water resources management to enable
255 hygiene, while accounting for fragility in household economics and water security.
256 Computational modeling and water resources simulation have had limited application for finding
257 solutions for global WASH challenges. The convergence of the COVID-19 pandemic and water
258 insecurity in developing areas are bringing to light the need to prioritize water supply, climate
259 resilience, and mitigation of the COVID-19 pandemic (Armitage and Nellums 2020) and to
260 develop the computational tools and decision support systems to inform policy development.

261 In the U.S., the coronavirus has disproportionately affected minority and underserved
262 communities, due to in part to a combination of lower access to quality healthcare, less opportunity
263 to work from home and higher housing density which impede social distancing guidelines, as well
264 as communication gaps due to health literacy issues and socioeconomic disadvantages (Bambino
265 et al. 2020). While financial impacts of the pandemic have been widespread, utility shut offs and
266 financial burdens are also disproportionately affecting these groups (Duster 2020; Fitch 2020a).
267 The New Georgia Project Black + Green Agenda has called the disparate utility shutoffs in their
268 state a new form of systemic environmental injustice (Duster 2020). State responses to COVID-
269 19 and the consequent financial challenges placed on homeowners have varied greatly. While
270 some have issued orders to suspend utility service disconnections, the vast majority of the
271 population has not benefited from this as state issued orders do not necessarily have to be enforced
272 at the municipal level. In 13 states, there has been no legal protection offered to homeowners
273 concerning disconnection for any utility during the pandemic (Matthew and Levine 2020; U.S.
274 Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works 2020). For example, the Natural Resources
275 Defense Council reported that at least 1,838 homes were disconnected for non-payment in North
276 Carolina by the end of March (Matthew and Levine 2020). Even after the governor issued a

277 statewide moratorium on March 31st, only 8% of these homes had been reconnected by April 25th.
278 Some states are working to assist homeowners struggling to pay their bills. In Illinois, a COVID-
279 19 Bill Pay Assistance Program to support those with outstanding utility charges (Ruppenthal
280 2020). The bill has offered \$500 to cover late payments for families who qualify for the Low
281 Income Home Energy Assistance Program and prohibits utility companies from reporting
282 delinquencies to credit bureaus until six months after the state shutoff moratorium has lifted.
283 However, not all states have such programs in place. It is imperative that local governments keep
284 in mind that even with the partial and total reopenings that have allowed individuals to return to
285 work, utility debt will continue to be a burden on families if it is not addressed (Fitch 2020b).
286 Finally, the economic crisis COVID-19 has invoked will outlast shutoff and late fee moratoriums
287 in the water sector, and utilities may be forced to take more liberal approaches to debt forgiveness
288 in order to ensure the safety and health of vulnerable families (Bambino et al. 2020; Fitch 2020b).

289 **WATER UTILITIES**

290 The COVID-19 pandemic has shocked a number of industries, including airlines, food
291 service industry, and public utilities. Water utilities are not an exception. They have experienced
292 unprecedented impacts, including a need to operate systems remotely and securely, protect on-site
293 workers, unpredictable supply chains, loss of revenue, and personnel issues associated with
294 replacing quarantined or sheltering staff. At the same time, utilities must comply with regulations
295 and provide uninterrupted services while dealing with unpredictable shifts in the timing and
296 composition of water demands and wastewater flows (Sowby 2020). The following sections
297 describe economic challenges and changes in the workforce that require adaptation by water
298 utilities.

299 **Economic Challenges**

300 The major drivers of negative impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on water utilities
301 include: (1) moratoriums on shut-offs; (2) increased delinquency in paying water bills; (3)
302 reduction in commercial revenue; (4) delay in maintenance actions; (5) increase in personnel
303 expenses; (6) reduction in system development charges; and (7) lower customer growth. The
304 estimated combined loss due to these areas, which does not include increased residential water
305 demand revenue, is approximately \$16.5 billion, with loss in commercial revenues and increased
306 delinquencies making up 45% and 30% of this amount respectively (American Water Works
307 Association, 2020b).

308 Amid varying promises of rent freezes and eviction moratoriums countrywide, water
309 utilities have put forth measures to prevent individuals from going without clean running water
310 during the pandemic. Survey data collected by the American Water Works Association and the
311 Association of Metropolitan Water Agencies found that although actions taken varied by utility, a
312 number of American utilities choosing to eliminate shut offs due to nonpayment saw both
313 increased delinquencies and non-residential water demand reductions offset by residential water
314 demand increases (American Water Works Association, 2020a). In North Carolina, 770,000
315 households were reported to be behind on their water bills by the end of April 2020 (Matthew and
316 Levine 2020). At the same time, Oklahoma City had 11,000 accounts late on payments for either
317 water, sewer, or trash payments compared to only 300 before the pandemic. With the average
318 amount of money due for each household sitting at \$315, this equates to \$3.2 million of missing
319 revenue in the city’s utility department (U.S. Senate Committee on Environment and Public Works
320 2020). Many utilities have found themselves providing water even to those unable to pay their bills
321 on time and forgiving consequential late fees. In addition, water utilities have not been able to
322 make planned raises during the pandemic and will not be able to raise water rates in the near future.

323 Non-essential tasks, such as monthly water meter readings were not completed during high-
324 level lockdown periods, and estimates of consumption were used instead. Consumption patterns
325 could, thus, only be tracked via zonal water meters, implying that water balances could not be done
326 to the same level of reliability, resulting in an increased uncertainty about the actual water
327 consumption, and in turn, resulting in an increased uncertainty about utility income.

328 Another important factor affecting municipal and industrial water use, and in turn
329 commercial revenues of utilities, has been “stay-at-home orders”. Many employees began
330 teleworking or working from home in early 2020. By July 2020, about 25% of employed people
331 in the U.S. still worked from home due to the COVID-19 pandemic (U.S. Bureau of Labor
332 Statistics, 2020). Many utility companies experienced increases in residential demand, such as a
333 0.05 hundred cubic feet (CCF) increase in residential consumption seen in Charlotte, North
334 Carolina. Toho Water, a Florida water utility, reported an anticipated decrease in commercial water
335 use by 52%, whereas a large utility in Colorado reported to have experienced a 35% decrease in
336 all non-residential water usage, which was met with only a 10% increase in residential demands
337 (American Water Works Association, 2020b).

338 System development and user charges from new growth are likely to be stunted due to the
339 general slowing of economic growth amid the pandemic. This problem is also tied to the additional
340 revenue loss attributed to lower customer growth, constituting about 2.5% of total losses
341 (American Water Works Association, 2020b). It is expected that companies across the country will
342 see increased spending on personal computers, servers, software, and personal protective
343 equipment ranging from respirators and disinfectants to thermometers and additional sanitation
344 services.

345 Finally, utility companies hope to remain financially independent for the duration of the
346 crisis, though local communities are likely to see a decrease in economic activity and fewer job
347 opportunities as a result. About 9.6 million people of the 16.9 million people unemployed in July
348 have lost their job or have been unable to work because their employer closed or lost business due
349 to COVID-19 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). As the pandemic continues, revenue and
350 choices from both consumers and providers are bound to take on new shapes. This will continue
351 to lead to uncertainties about commercial and industrial water demand and utility's financial
352 stability, creating difficulties in planning. It is clear that a more agile and adaptive planning
353 processes is needed for water utilities.

354 **Workforce Changes**

355 Social distancing policies have altered how water utilities' workforce operates to ensure
356 both the safety of employees and the continuity of services (American Water Works Association,
357 2020a). These changes (e.g., working remotely, shift changes) spanned multiple divisions of the
358 workforce (e.g., operators, field staff, management). Based on 30 semi-structured interviews that
359 spanned 28 US water utilities including over 50 utility employees, we discuss water utilities'
360 response to the pandemic. This study was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the
361 University of Texas at Austin and the University of Washington. Grey literature and media are
362 used to support the findings from interviews. Complementing these data is experiential evidence
363 provided by co-authors from Auckland, New Zealand, confirming much of what was seen in the
364 US. In accordance with the Centers for Disease and Control and Prevention (CDC) guidelines for
365 essential workers, 98% of 472 water utilities surveyed by the American Water Works Association
366 (AWWA) incorporated social distancing in the workplace (American Water Works Association,
367 2020a). Interviews show that water utilities used various methods to adhere to social distancing
368 policies and address COVID-related challenges. Overall, utilities experienced challenges ranging

369 from a shortage of skilled staff resulting in a loss of institutional knowledge to increased
370 managerial workloads. In Auckland, New Zealand, regulations guiding field staff to undertake
371 repairs or install new network connections while working alone, travelling to site in separate
372 vehicles, and maintaining social distancing inevitably resulted in lower efficiency and delays.

373 In response to social distancing policies, several utilities staggered the shifts of critical staff
374 (e.g., operators) to ensure availability of staff if there was a COVID-19 case related to the critical
375 staff, while other utilities restricted access to certain areas to only essential personnel. Notably,
376 many of these changes were focused around ensuring the safety of operators because, often,
377 utilities had few operators, and thus, the lack of trained operators before the pandemic led to
378 operations and management challenges during the response to the pandemic. In fact, one utility
379 sequestered 40% of their operators to prevent the virus from spreading; this was possible due to
380 decreased system demand.

381 Critical field work, such as that necessary to meet regulatory sampling requirements,
382 continued uninterrupted. In these cases, employees were encouraged to use personal vehicles to
383 minimize the need to ride with other employees, wear masks, and maintain social distancing
384 (Weikel et al., 2020). For personnel continuing to work on-site or in the field, utilities introduced
385 new cleaning protocols. For example, in addition to having a cleaning crew for the office, one
386 utility said they have “an internal disinfectant crew and a [disinfectant] fogger crew.” Another
387 utility utilized its lab capacity to produce its own hand sanitizer. Some utilities that were
388 interviewed scaled back non-critical work (e.g., postponed capital projects, system-level flushing)
389 to reduce the number of employees working in the field. For instance, one utility said that “there
390 was some effort to separate work groups...and also keep some people at home in reserve, so we
391 would have backup staff should anyone get sick and maybe contaminate the rest of the work
392 group.” Overall, utilities had to prioritize critical work to ensure they had staff on standby in case
393 employees got sick. At most utilities, those in office-based roles continued their work via
394 telecommunication, as many office spaces and call centers were temporarily closed (Lopez et al.
395 2020). Other utilities were able to transition call centers to remote operations or creatively altered
396 the office space to allow for on-site centers. For instance, one utility utilized a drive-through
397 customer service center. Depending on the size of the utility and the office configuration, some
398 utilities allowed office staff to work in the office for parts of the week.

399 The COVID-19 pandemic and changes to operations caused challenges with personnel
400 management. For example, one manager said she had “another job packed on top of [her] job”
401 and another said they “quickly realized labor management was an administrative nightmare”.
402 While continuing to operate the water utility, managers had to quickly adapt their workforce to
403 the changing policies. Additionally, the morale of utility workers was a challenge. For instance,
404 one utility manager stated: “staff morale is just rough. Because we paid some people to stay
405 home, and some people still had to show up and work. That [didn’t] feel very [equitable]” while
406 another discussed that they had little support or tools to help with managing the pandemic. The
407 challenge to keep employee’s morale up was coupled with a loss of face-to-face contact, which
408 hindered communication and information transfer between managers and other personnel.
409 Measures are needed to ensure well-being of employees and their families, based on the risk of
410 contracting the virus for employees performing field work. Some utilities did try to solve
411 communication challenges through the use of internal social media applications to encourage a
412 collaborative environment while working remotely. The City of Auckland utility prioritized its
413 staff wellbeing by maintaining connections with colleagues through online meetings, regular
414 communications and online learning modules and ensured that employees remained busy.

415 The communication environment between utilities’ administration and workers’
416 representatives plays an important role when facing challenges brought by the new tasks to be
417 developed. Meetings with unions in situations of this type contribute to smooth out some
418 reluctance to accept some critical tasks during the pandemic. A survey of workers in the water
419 sector in the UK found that communication and signposting of additional support were very
420 important to employees to combat feelings of isolation (Cotterill et al. 2020).

421 Many utilities were challenged by a lack of staff. Some employees decided to retire early,
422 leading to a sudden loss of institutional knowledge. For instance, one utility said sudden
423 retirements led to a “transition of duties all at once from one person to another person”, meaning
424 they had to capture as much institutional knowledge as possible in a short time. Other employees
425 lost childcare services and were unable to work, leaning on support from the Family and Medical
426 Leave Act which provides expanded leave for parents whose childcare providers closed (US
427 Department of Labor, 2020). One utility had “three fairly important employees that had childcare
428 needs who [were not planning to come back]”. Another utility slowed down hiring, which may
429 cause future issues as 50% of the staff is set to retire in the next five to ten years. In Auckland,

430 New Zealand, staff are often recruited from other countries, and closure of New Zealand’s borders
431 left some staff stranded in other countries and led to a smaller pool of candidates. Managing these
432 changes proved to be especially challenging for utilities with a smaller workforce and customer
433 base (Lopez et al. 2020). In fact, almost half of rural and tribal water systems rely on one full- or
434 part-time operator, contract, or volunteer staff to operate their systems (Rural Community
435 Assistance Partnership 2020).

436 **LESSONS LEARNED, PIVOTING, AND LOOKING FORWARD**

437 **Accelerating the use of smart technologies**

438 The pandemic has brought a surge of changes to the way that water utility employees
439 work, at least for the time being, creating a new environment in which connected devices
440 enabled through Information and Communication Technology (ICT) are necessary. Kala
441 Variavamoorthy from The Source Magazine, an International Water Association publication,
442 provides a succinct description of these sea changes (2020): “Before the pandemic struck, cities
443 were broadly aware of advanced metering infrastructure, remote sensing, real-time controls,
444 modelling and optimisation. Each was known to bring a greater degree of automation, safety and
445 security to utility operations – but the tools were too often seen as curiosities, or luxuries, and so
446 were deferred to the future. That future arrived at the dawn of 2020.”

447 Automated infrastructure is needed to address changes in the way the water utility works
448 and in the expectation of employees around working remotely. Data analytics can be applied in a
449 wide range of applications to support automation of infrastructure. Data analytics can continue to
450 be applied to metering infrastructure to establish demand characterization, forecasting short and
451 long-term future service levels over various scales, as well as enterprise-level management
452 strategies (e.g., water rights, allocations, and transfers). Data analytics can also be used to
453 identify non-revenue water issues through integration with asset management applications
454 (Güngör-Demirci et al., 2018a). Data analytics can continue to be used to improve the
455 understanding of strategic processes related to the water industry’s asset management efforts
456 (Martínez García, 2018, 2019 a, b, 2020). This includes performance-driven screening and
457 assessment, showcasing failure modes and effects, risk identification and characterization, and
458 capital investment allocation and prioritization (Güngör-Demirci et al., 2017). These aspects will
459 continue to lead to better life cycle planning, analysis, design, and operational decision-making

460 due to improved business intelligence even while working remotely (Güngör-Demirci et al.,
461 2018b).

462 Integrating simulation modeling with data analytics can also support hydraulic, energy,
463 and water quality simulation efforts, which link to a robust enterprise-level data structure built
464 upon pressure and water quality surveys, surface and groundwater reservoir profiling, pump
465 tests, and energy audits, subzone (DMA) monitoring, Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition
466 (SCADA), and Advanced Metering Infrastructure (AMI). Cloud-based SCADA and real-time
467 modeling will provide a continuous baseline to facilitate operational optimization decisions and
468 support a sustained way systems model calibration and validation which can be performed while
469 working remotely (Keck and Lee, 2015).

470 Data analytics can be applied to formulate and solve systems-level multi-objective
471 problem definitions that balance the cost of investment against the net benefits gained to
472 establish effective prioritization models (Güngör-Demirci et al., 2018b). In this effort, it is
473 crucial to define clearly the level of service goals, assumptions, and key performance indicators,
474 all of which necessitates careful consideration of reliability, resilience, customer satisfaction and
475 other strategic variables (Keck and Lee, 2015). Over time, this will allow water distribution
476 systems to operate at greater levels of efficiency and with higher levels of confidence and
477 transparency. New research is needed to develop digital tools for easing the mobility of workers
478 of water utilities, interactions with customers, and new ways of working remotely.

479 **Engineering Education**

480 The COVID-19 pandemic has disrupted schools and universities in an unprecedented
481 way. Because of the high risk of transmission on campuses, most classes have migrated online,
482 which has forced teachers, instructors and professors to rethink how content is delivered to
483 students. These new educational experiences might impact students adversely, but might offer
484 opportunities for enhancing the quality of several courses, including the ones in which the
485 subject matter involves water infrastructure. In the beginning of the pandemic, concepts that
486 relates to systems (e.g. health), models (exponential transmission models), projections,
487 uncertainty, and others, were widely discussed in the mainstream media. One could argue that
488 the application and dissemination of epidemiological models of the COVID 19 pandemic have
489 contributed to a better understanding of students and the public about the field of systems
490 analysis. The COVID19 pandemic offers the opportunity for universities to rethink some

491 programs, courses and content that might benefit significantly the field of water infrastructure.
492 For instance, engineering courses should focus on developing content related to the field of water
493 infrastructure resilience or new event detection methods in wastewater. Students and future
494 professionals that will work in the field need to be well educated in related concepts such as
495 modeling of water and wastewater systems, optimization for water and wastewater operation,
496 management and planning, disruptions caused by natural and manmade disasters, among others.

497 **Enhancing management of water infrastructure and water resources**

498 The COVID-19 pandemic has altered the way water is consumed, and therefore, how water and
499 wastewater networks are operated. This change is an opportunity for enhancing our
500 understanding about water infrastructure. For instance, hydraulic models are typically calibrated
501 and validated utilizing water consumption patterns (e.g. diurnal curves) which are not valid
502 during the period of the pandemic. The change in the systems can provide new data which could
503 be used for better validating models of water and wastewater networks. Managing water
504 resources effectively for variable and changing systems is an old problem for planning. Many
505 water systems have been designed using flawed logic, and the emerging insight can be applied to
506 redesign infrastructure and inform future infrastructure policy (Daniell 2020).

507 Events associated with the pandemic demonstrate the degree of interconnection among
508 water systems, the populations that they serve, and other infrastructure systems (Daniell 2020;
509 Neal 2020). Public health is not separate from water resources management questions, especially
510 in water-stressed areas, and needs to be considered in strategic risk analysis for planning and
511 decision making on investments for water infrastructures and their operation. The
512 interrelationship between local water resources and food supply chain issues has grown more
513 salient, as some communities respond to shutdowns and lockdowns by increasing local sourcing
514 of food. However, this can deplete water resources in water stressed areas, and groundwater
515 sources that are not replenished may fall short for future generations. Water-scarce countries
516 need access to the world food market and food-importing economies to mitigate their local water
517 shortages (Keulertz et al. 2020). New dynamics may emerge in the water-energy nexus, as well,
518 as working from home has led to changes in the demand for energy. For example, changes in
519 electricity demands during lockdown-like measures led to significant reductions in the water
520 footprint of thermal power plants across Europe (Roidt et al. 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic
521 has also brought to light the ways that water is tied to society and human rights. One of the

522 challenges of extreme disasters is that their impacts are typically greater for socio-economically
523 disadvantaged, who lack the means to protect themselves. They are vulnerable across education,
524 health, housing and basic necessities and lack the capacity to adapt to disasters (Daniell 2020).
525 COVID-19 is deepening the inequalities experienced by the marginalized, including the poor,
526 persons with disabilities, and women and girls, as these groups are likely to be most affected in
527 crises, lose opportunities in education and livelihood, and experience threats to personal safety
528 (Neal 2020). Mental health issues are expected to persist for some time after the pandemic
529 (Daniell 2020; Wang et al. 2020). These societal challenges present an opportunity to focus
530 attention on underlying environmental and social stressors and to invest in wellbeing. Through
531 the unfolding events, new insights can be gained about water resources as an interconnected
532 socio-technical infrastructure system and the resilience and vulnerability of natural resources and
533 communities.

534 COVID-19 brought new challenges due to unknown future conditions for designing and
535 operating water infrastructures, as well as for the management of water utilities. Scenario
536 generation for future “states of the world” should be envisaged to improve emergency response
537 plans. Such scenarios should be embedded into optimization & simulation models so that
538 adaptation strategies can be defined. Scenarios should consider the interconnected nature of
539 water, power, telecommunications, and transportation systems, to explore cascading and
540 simultaneous failures (Sowby 2020). Tabletop exercises are important tools in demonstrating and
541 improving how water infrastructure and management would perform in emergencies (Sowby
542 2020); however, more research is needed in developing and applying these tools as little
543 attention has been paid to advance the insight and tools for enhancing preparedness activities
544 (Berglund et al. 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic can also help researchers and operators to
545 better prepare for future disruptions, caused, for instance, by natural and manmade disasters.
546 Other crises and natural disasters (e.g. hurricanes, wildfires, and flooding) can also cause
547 changes in water consumption through mass migration of people to new cities, and water
548 infrastructure can be designed and managed to ensure resilience during and after these hazards.
549 The insight we can gain through the way our water systems and water governance structures are
550 functioning during the pandemic can be used to rethink the design of contingency plans for the
551 years to come. Redefinition of governance models can drive institutional organization toward a
552 higher operational, financial, and social efficiency.

553 **CONCLUSIONS**

554 The COVID-19 pandemic and water are interconnected in many ways. The pandemic has
555 affected water systems, including water demands, drinking water infrastructure, sustainable reuse
556 of wastewater, and natural water bodies, and the crisis has clearly demonstrated the effects of
557 unequal access to WASH services. The COVID-19 pandemic and associated social distancing
558 policies led to significant management challenges and changes at water utilities. Water utilities
559 have experienced significant financial challenges and changes in the workforce. Despite these
560 challenges, utilities throughout the US were able to adjust accordingly and ensure continuity of
561 services to customers. However, it is worthy of note that the scale of impact was such that many
562 systems would likely have experienced failures without such proactive management, which
563 could imply ongoing and underreported problems at many smaller, low resource utilities. New
564 innovations are under development to use wastewater sewer networks as early warning systems
565 of coronavirus hotspots, and new advances in smart technologies can support remote work
566 through secure automation of infrastructure components. Engineering education can build on
567 this opportunity to rethink content related to the field of water infrastructure resilience or new
568 event detection methods in wastewater.

569 The pandemic provides new opportunities to re-evaluate and re-vision water resources
570 planning and emergency preparedness of water infrastructure. Lessons learned from the
571 performance of water infrastructure and water utilities can be used to envisage actions to keep the
572 sense of commonality acquired during the pandemic and benefit knowledge integration,
573 information sharing, and data transfer between utilities. New water resources management policies
574 and methodologies based on insight gained through the COVID-19 pandemic should be developed
575 to create more inclusive societies, implement reforms, and promote innovation.

576 **Data Availability:**

577 Utility interviews were conducted as part of this research. The dataset of responses generated
578 during through these interviews are confidential in nature and may only be provided with
579 restrictions. No other data were generated through the development of this manuscript.

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