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# <sup>1</sup>**Consequences to water suppliers of collecting rainwater on**  <sup>2</sup>**housing estates**

3

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9

#### 10 **Abstract**

11

12 The collection, storage and use of rainwater from roofs reduce the need for potable 13 water. However if water suppliers are to decrease their infrastructure costs as well as their 14 operational costs (due to water savings), the rainwater system has to provide most of the time 15 a significant percentage of the water demand. This paper adopts the view point of the water 16 suppliers and investigates how reliable this source of water is in the case of a housing estate, 17 considering WC flushing as the only water demand. A housing estate was modelled and 18 different realistic input scenarios (water demand for WC flushing, storage capacity, roof area, 19 and rainfall) were defined. Three indicators were exhibited. The variability generated by each 20 input on the indicators was evaluated. The indicators were estimated for 63 homogeneously 21 distributed French cities. Among the indicators exhibited in this paper, the most relevant one 22 is the percentage of water supplied from the tank that is secured during 95% of the days of the 23 simulation. The main conclusion is that the optimum way of determining the storage capacity 24 of the rainwater collection system is not the same from the viewpoint of the users than from 25 the viewpoint of the water suppliers. Indeed, water suppliers tend to require bigger tanks in 26 order to take into account the rainwater collection systems in their management plan.

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28

29 **Key words**: Rainwater collection, Modelling, Simulation, Water conservation, water utility 30 management

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#### 32 **1. Introduction**

33 In the debate on sustainable water management, a growing place is given to rainwater. 34 Rainwater tends to be considered more and more as a potential source to supply water to not 35 only small isolated areas, but also existing towns or new urban projects. In many developing 36 and developed countries such as Brazil (Ghisi, 2005; 2006), West Africa (Cowaken, 2008), 37 Australia (Coombes, 1999) or Germany (Hermann, 1999; Nolde, 2007), rainwater harvesting 38 and use within the building is already a widespread practice.

39 In France, despite a very restrictive regulatory framework limiting the use of rainwater to 40 outdoor activities, this practice also started to grow from 2000 (de Gouvello et al., 2005). In 41 2008, a new specific regulation framework was sketched, authorising the use of rainwater 42 *within* the building for several non potable uses: WC, floor cleaning and - under conditions 43 still to be defined - washing machines. This new framework will foster the development of 44 this practice and may have consequences on the water utilities' supply management. Several 45 tools were developed to quantify these consequences. For instances Aquacycle (Mitchell, 46 2001), which is based on the concept of water balance of the urban water cycle permits to 47 estimate the feasibility of alternative water management options and evaluate the performance 48 of a re-use scheme, at different scales (Unit block, cluster, or catchment). An enhanced 49 version, called Urban Volume and Quantity (Mitchell, 2003), that includes new flow paths

50 and a contaminant balance model, was developed. The Probabilistic Urban Rainwater and 51 wastewater Reuse Simulator (PURRS) by Coombes and Kuczera (2001) operates at 6 minute 52 time steps to simulate and evaluate the efficiency of a reuse scheme.

53 Nevertheless, these models only highlight the overall performance of water management 54 options. This paper suggests adopting the viewpoint of the water supplier and introduces new 55 indicators evaluating the daily reliability of rainwater as a source of water. These indicators 56 are relevant at a regional scale, that is to say a scale that includes the water treatment plant, 57 the distribution network and the consumer. The sensitivity of these new indicators to each 58 input was analysed. They were tested for 63 French cities in order to exhibit disparities. This 59 paper focuses on the specific case of housing estates, as it seems to be a trouble-free area to 60 equip with rainwater collection systems, since there is room to install the tanks and the roof 61 area available per person is much greater than in denser parts of the city.

62

#### 63 **2. Model description and data**

64

65 The aim of this paper is to analyse the behaviour of a housing estate in which all plots 66 are equipped with rainwater collecting systems. In this paper, only the effects of individual 67 systems are considered and collective systems (such as shared rainwater tanks) are not 68 modelled. This housing estate model is more than a plot model multiplied by the number of 69 plots since the features –and consequently the behaviour- of each plot will be different to 70 better represent the real situation. Since this paper studies rainwater collection systems from 71 the point of view of the water suppliers, we analyse the behaviour and define indicators for 72 the whole housing estate and not only the behaviour of each plot.

73

#### 74 **2.1. Behaviour model of the rainwater collection system**

76 In essence, a rainwater collection system works as described in Fig 1. The rainwater 77 harvested by the catchment area (here the roof of the house) goes into a tank where it is stored 78 until it is withdrawn to meet the water demand. If the volume exceeds the storage capacity, 79 the runoff is overflowed elsewhere (sewage system, retention device...) and lost for usage. If 80 the tank does not supply enough water to meet the demand, then the water is withdrawn from 81 the water supply distribution network.

82

83 Jenkins et al. (1978) identified two algorithms to describe the behaviour of the 84 collecting system during a given time interval. The yield after spillage (YAS) algorithm, in 85 which the withdrawal occurs before the rainfall, is

86 
$$
Y_n = \min\begin{Bmatrix} D_n \\ V_{n-1} \end{Bmatrix} (1)
$$

87 
$$
V_n = \min \begin{Bmatrix} V_{n-1} + R_n - Y_n \\ S - Y_n \end{Bmatrix}
$$
 (2)

88 where  $R_n$  is the volume of rainwater captured  $(m^3)$  during time interval n (which is equal to 89 the rainfall (m) during the time interval n multiplied by the roof area  $(m^2)$ , neglecting any 90 potential initial losses),  $V_n$  is the water volume in the tank (m<sup>3</sup>) during time interval n,  $Y_n$  is 91 the yield  $(m^3)$  during time interval n,  $D_n$  is the demand during time interval n, and S is the 92 storage capacity  $(m^3)$ .

93 The yield before spillage (YBS), in which the withdrawal occurs after the rainfall is

$$
Y_n = \min\left\{\frac{D_n}{V_{n-1} + R_n}\right\} (3)
$$

95 
$$
V_n = \min \begin{Bmatrix} V_{n-1} + R_n - Y_n \\ S \end{Bmatrix}
$$
 (4)

96 The YAS algorithm under evaluates the amount of water provided by the rainwater 97 collection system, whereas YBS algorithm over evaluates it since there is less water in the 98 tank to match the demand. In this investigation, each simulation was tested with both 99 algorithms and the values obtained for the indicators were always similar. Therefore in this 100 paper, the given value of an indicator corresponds to the mean of the values obtained from the 101 simulations made with the YAS and the YBS algorithms.

102 Fewkes and Butler (2000) recommend using a daily model for a *storage fraction* (eg. 103 the storage capacity of the tank divided by the rainwater captured in a year) belonging to the 104 range  $0.01$ - $0.125<sup>1</sup>$ . Since the average storage fraction of the simulations carried out in this 105 paper is 0.026, a daily model lasting five years has been used. It has to be mentioned that 106 Coombes (2007a) showed that the use of 6 minute time steps lead to a better efficiency of the 107 collecting systems. This effect is likely to be at least partly compensated by the use of the 108 mean results of the YAS and YBS algorithms.

109 The YAS and YBS algorithms were both coded on Scilab<sup>2</sup> so that simulations could be 110 performed.

111

#### 112 **2.2. Realistic modelling of a housing estate**

113

114 To complete the housing estate model, realistic values for the water demand, the roof 115 area, and the storage capacity were determined for each plot. In order to evaluate the 116 variability created by each input, several scenarios were made.

117

 $\overline{a}$ 

 $<sup>1</sup>$  A smaller storage fraction would imply the use of an hourly time interval, and a bigger one would authorize the</sup> use of a monthly model.

 $2^2$  A free scientific software package developed under the responsibility of a consortium that includes INRIA, the French national institute for computer science.

118 The only water demand considered in this paper is WC flushing. In this simulation, the 119 variability of the demand through the week was taken into account and not just the average 120 demand. The average demand was determined from the C.I.Eau (Water information centre, a 121 French association of the main water suppliers, which collects and publishes data on water). 122 Data, which shows that WC flushing accounts for approximately 20% of the total domestic 123 water demand of 137 litres per person per day. The average demand for WC flushing is 124 therefore 27.4 l/person/day. Using the distribution data implemented by the experiment 125 MARIA lead by the CSTB (de Gouvello et al., 2005), it has been possible to distribute the 126 demand according to the day of the week. The demand considered per person per day is 24 l 127 during the week, 37.7 l on Saturday, and 34.2 1 on Sunday. In the following sections of the 128 paper, various scenarios were made, considering a range of 1 to 6 occupants per plot. A 129 realistic distribution of people according to the plot was required. The INSEE (the French 130 national institute of statistics) data from the 1999 census of the French population was used. 131 The figures are only available for cities, so it was necessary to select cities that have a 132 homogenous pattern (mainly housing estate areas and very few buildings). City patterns were 133 checked using satellite images. Since the distribution of inhabitants of the cities having the 134 correct features did not exhibit (for the thirteen selected cities) clear regional tendency, i.e. the 135 regional differences are comparable to the differences between cities in the suburb of the 136 same larger one, it was decided to select only two cities, of which the inhabitants distributions 137 are displayed in Tab 1. These two cities were chosen because they represent two different 138 kinds of inhabitants' distribution: Vendeville (North of France, in the suburb of Lille) is a city 139 where there are mainly families (more than half of the houses are occupied by three or more 140 people) whereas Génémos (South of France, in the suburb of Marseilles) is a city where there 141 are mainly single persons or couples (more than half of the houses are occupied by one or two 142 people). In this paper we refer to Vendeville as the family option, and Génémos as the couple 143 option.

144

145 Since this paper adopts the viewpoint of the water supplier, that is to say what it 146 definitely expects, the storage capacities are not optimised according to the region as it was 147 done in previous studies (Coombes; 2007b; Aquacycle users guide; 2005). Several realistic 148 scenarios were built for the sizes of the tanks using the following methodology, which is 149 based on the householders' needs. In the experiment of MARIA lead by the CSTB in 150 Champs-sur-Marne (about 25 km from Paris), de Gouvello et al. (2005) showed that a storage 151 capacity that corresponds to approximately 4 weeks of the water demand is almost always 152 enough to ensure the autonomy of the installation. It has been shown that this ratio is only an 153 optimum for customers in the region of Paris. Nevertheless it is adopted for all French cities, 154 knowing that it might not always be optimum for the customer. Yet the results obtained here 155 show that this ratio works all over France. In the following sections of the paper, several 156 scenarios were made knowing that people will not necessarily choose the optimum storage 157 capacity (saving money, change of owner, birth, departure of a child...). Since the number of 158 people per plot ranges from 1 to 6, the storage capacity chosen in this paper ranges from 0.5 159 to 4 m<sup>3,3</sup> As the daily rainfall time series used in the simulations last for a duration of 5 years, 160 it is not necessary to have different starting configurations for the tank. Indeed they will all be 161 notably full after the first major rainfall or notably empty after the first drought period.

162 The only catchment area considered in this paper is the roof. An average projected 163 roof area of 100-120  $m^2$  was estimated by observing Google Earth images of the selected 164 cities used to model the distribution of people according to the plot. The roof area chosen in 165 the scenarios of the following sections ranges from 60 to 160  $m^2$ .

 $\frac{3}{3}$  The considered storage capacity in this paper are 0.5 ; 0.75 ; 1.3 ; 2 ; 3 and 4 m<sup>3</sup>

166 The daily rainfall time series are supplied by Meteo-France for a duration of five years 167 (1994-1998). Series for 63 French cities were used. A time series lasting 30 years (1976- 168 2005) for Paris was also available and tested. The distribution of cities in France is quite 169 homogenous, so it can be considered that they are representative of the climates in France 170 over a period of five years.

171

## 172 **3. Towards the definition of relevant indicators**

173

174 The usual indicator (Fewkes, 2000) used to evaluate the performance of a rainwater 175 collecting system is the water-saving efficiency (E). It is equal to the percentage of the overall 176 demand of the WC flushing supplied by the tank during N time intervals. It is given by the 177 following equation:

178 
$$
E = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} Y_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} D_n} * 100 \quad (5)
$$

179 This indicator is interesting for the consumer since it determines whether the 180 collection system is efficient and beneficial. It also permits to estimate the possible savings in 181 energy (pumping, treatments …) that the water supplier can expect in operational costs 182 (Coombes, 2007). However it does not give any information on the regional impact of a 183 generalised rainwater collection on the infrastructure costs (size of the pipes, the pumps, the 184 water treatment works, …). To be able to decrease the latter costs, water suppliers need to 185 evaluate the reliability of this source of water. If ever the systems do not supply enough water 186 to meet the demand, the supplier will be expected to do so and therefore should not reduce the 187 size of its infrastructure. To estimate this reliability, the authors suggest using a "reliability 188 curve", which is drawn for each simulation. Refer to Fig 2 for an example. To read this curve,

189 a percentage of water volume supplied by the tank is chosen on the vertical axis, and the 190 corresponding value on the horizontal axis gives the proportion of days when this percentage 191 is reached.

192

193 From this curve, three reliability indicators (RI) are estimated:

194 - RI1: the percentage of days the tank supplies 100% of the demand for WC flushing. 195 This indicator was also analysed for 95% and 90%. The value 100% was chosen because it 196 generated the indicator with the highest sensitivity among the French cities, making it the 197 most relevant. This indicator corresponds to the "event reliability" used in Aquacycle (Users 198 guide, 2005). On the curve in Fig 2, RI1 is equal to 58%.

199 - RI2: the percentage of days the tank supplies less than 10% of the water demand. It 200 was also studied with 5% and 0%, but the sensitivity among the French cities was greater for 201 the value of 10%. On the curve in Fig 2, RI2 is equal to 3%.

202 - RI3: the percentage of water supplied by the tank over 95% of the days of the 203 simulation. To estimate this, the daily water-saving efficiency  $(Y_n/D_n)$  is evaluated for all the 204 days of the series. RI3 is the lowest daily water-saving efficiency. This indicator was also 205 analysed for 90% and 100%. The value 95% was chosen because it generated the indicator 206 with the highest sensitivity amongst the French cities, making it the most relevant. On the 207 curve in Fig 2, RI3 is equal to 24%.

208 Even though all the indicators are percentages, it is important to note that the first two 209 are percentages of days, whereas the third is a percentage of water demand supplied. If RI1 is 210 too small or RI2 too great, it implies that the water supplier will not be able to decrease their 211 infrastructure costs because rainwater is not a reliable enough source of water. RI3 gives an 212 idea of the possible reliable demand reduction. For example if RI3 is equal to 20 % then the 213 water supplier can expect a reduction in the water demand of 4% (the WC flushing usage 214 represents 20% of the potable household water usage in France) with very limited risks for its 215 customers.

216

#### 217 **4. Results and discussion**

218

219 In the first part of this section the sensitivity of the indicators for each input is 220 evaluated. This is done by analysing the variability generated on the indicators when the input 221 scenarios change. This allows defining relevant scenarios to estimate the indicators for 63 222 French cities. An analysis of the values of the indicator in France was then performed.

223

## 224 **4.1. Analysing the sensitivity**

- 225
- 226 4.1.1. Methodology of investigation
- 227

228 In order to evaluate the variability generated by each input, seven options were tested 229 for each input on a housing estate consisting of ten plots. Since a scenario is defined from 230 different combinations of the inputs, a total of 2401  $(=7 \times 7 \times 7 \times 7)$  scenarios were tested. The 231 options, based on the values found in the first section, are presented in Fig 3. Since the aim is 232 to estimate the variability, some of the chosen options may not look very realistic. Concerning 233 the chosen rain sites, they are homogeneously distributed over the French territory, which 234 permits to have a set of different French climates. Then the four indicators were estimated via 235 a computer coded simulation for each set of options. The results were put in arrays E, RI1, 236 RI2, and RI3, whose sizes are 7\*7\*7\*7. In the following, the chosen rain option is represented 237 by the index i, the inhabitant option by j, the roof area option by k, and the store capacity 238 option by l.

241 described here for the indicator RI1. It consists in keeping three inputs constant while the 242 fourth changes. For instance, the rain\_standard\_deviation array (whose size is  $7*7*7$ ) was 243 evaluated to analyse the input "rain". The term  $(i,k,l)$  of this array is the standard deviation of 244 the set  $\{RI1(i, j, k, l), i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 7\}\}$ . Then the average variability generated by the rain on the 245 RI1 indicator is the mean of this array. In order to evaluate the reliability of this average 246 variability, the standard deviation of the array was also evaluated. If it is too great compared 247 to the average variability, it means that this average variability is not very reliable. 248 The same procedure was then followed for each input. 249 250 4.1.2. Variability created by each input 251 252 The results for the variability generated by each input are shown in Tab 2. 253 254 First of all, it can be noted that the variability generated by the rain is the most 255 important, which is one of the reasons why a geographical analysis was performed and is 256 explained in the next section. The duration (5 years) of the rainfall time series did not permit 257 to perform a temporal analysis of the evolution of these indicators for a given city. The 258 variability created by the various distributions of inhabitants is quite important. However the 259 chosen options were quite extreme and the actual repartition is more homogenous so in 260 reality, this input will not create much variability. The roof area is the input that generates the 261 less variability. This is due to the fact, that when it rains, it often rains more than necessary to 262 fill the tank, so that even a small roof fills the rainwater collection system. The variability 263 generated by the storage capacity is important, which confirms (Lucas, 2006) that people

240 The same method was used to analyse the variability of each indicator, and is

264 should be very careful when they are choosing the optimum size of their tank. The disparities 265 existing among the different scenarios are highest for RI3. This will be confirmed in the next 266 section as a geographical analysis shows great disparities among the cities, making RI3 a very 267 relevant indicator to distinguish between the sites.

268 These values of average variability must be considered very carefully because their 269 reliability is not very good. This is due to the fact that there are many disparities between the 270 chosen options to perform the investigation. Since the averaged variability is often quite high, 271 a more precise analysis is required to decide whether the water supplier can take the existence 272 of rainwater collection systems into account in their management plan. This is explained in 273 the next section.

- 274
- 275

#### 276 **4.2. Results for 63 French Cities**

277

278 As explained in the previous section it is not possible to give a unique answer to 279 whether water suppliers can take into account a water demand reduction in their management 280 plan if there is a generalised installation of rainwater collection system.

281 In this section a geographical analysis was performed. Several realistic options were 282 defined for each input on a housing estate consisting of 100 plots, so that the estimated figures 283 are reliable. These options are presented in Fig 4. Since the variability generated by the 284 inhabitants is not substantial, only two options were considered for the number of occupants, 285 whereas three were considered for the storage capacity. Only one was considered for the roof 286 area since this input does not generate much variability. As a geographical analysis is 287 performed the only rain option considered is the daily rainfall time series of the considered 288 city. This means that for each city  $6 (=2*1*3*1)$  scenarios were considered. The average RI1, 289 RI2, and RI3 were figured for 63 French cities.

290

291 For each indicator the mean, the standard deviation, the minimum and the maximum 292 are presented in Tab 3. First of all, the average E is 93.5%, with a small standard deviation of 293 5.3%, confirming that the storage capacity determined all over France with the help of an 294 optimum in the region of Paris, is correct. However we can note that it might be slightly 295 undersized for some cities since the minimum is 75.1%. As it can be seen RI1 ranges from 296 45.6% to 86.5%, which means that this indicator is relevant to exhibit disparities and that the 297 water suppliers can consider it will not be smaller than 40%. The map of this indicator is 298 presented in Fig 5. RI2 ranges from 0.1 to 10.2 according to the city. This shows that even if 299 this indicator remains interesting for the water supplier, since it can be considered to always 300 be a low value, there are no big disparities among the French cities, so a map of this indicator 301 was not included in this paper. Concerning RI3, the value ranges from 6.2 to 93.8 which 302 makes this indicator a very relevant way to compare the cities according to the reliability of 303 the water supplied by a collection system. This is why we are going to focus our analysis on 304 this indicator. The map of this indicator in France is presented in Fig 5. Fig 6 presents RI3 for 305 each city, sorted in order according to increasing values of RI3.

306 The 30 year long time series over Paris was split into 6 series of 5 years each. All 307 indicators were assessed for each period, and the main statistics are displayed on table 4. The 308 standard deviation generated by the temporal differences (tab 4) is much smaller than the one 309 generated by the spatial differences of rain (tab 3). This means that figures 5 and 6 remain 310 relevant despite using rainfall time series lasting only 5 years. Nevertheless further 311 investigations would require the use of longer series to achieve more robust results.

312 It is worth noting that the pattern shown in Fig 6 may be representative of the French 313 territory. An analysis with more cities would permit to confirm this. With the help of Fig 6, it 314 is possible to define three clusters of cities: not reliable (RI3 ranges from 0% to 50%), reliable 315 (RI3 ranges from 50% to 70%)), and highly reliable (RI3 ranges from 70% to 100%). These 316 clusters permit to define 5 areas in France (shown in Fig 5), which appear to be stratified 317 according to a direction South-West, North-East:

318 - 1 and 3 : these areas are highly reliable

319 - 2: the disparities among cities that are close together do not permit to exhibit a 320 clear tendency. Rainfall series from more cities would be required to make a 321 deeper analysis.

- 322 4: this area is reliable. It is between a highly reliable area and an unreliable area, 323 which means that the evolution of the indicators whilst moving from South-East to 324 North-West appears to be continuous.
- 325 5: this area corresponding to the Mediterranean coast is absolutely unreliable. It is 326 important to note that this is the only large area clearly not reliable in France.
- 327

328 E is almost always a high value and does not exhibit a lot of disparities in France, 329 whereas RI3 varies in a wide range of figures. This means that the optimum way of 330 determining the storage capacity of the rainwater collection system is not the same if you 331 adopt the viewpoint of the customers or if you adopt the water suppliers'. Indeed the water 332 suppliers tend to require bigger tanks to be able to take into account the rainwater collection 333 systems in their management plans. Therefore water suppliers should advocate the use of 334 indicators such as RI1, RI2 or RI3 and not only E for optimising the tanks' sizes so that they 335 can diminish not only their operational costs but also their infrastructure costs. Nevertheless,

336 listing and quantifying the savings are beyond the scope of this article and would require 337 further investigation.

338

# 339 **5. Conclusion**

340

341 In this paper, the reliability of the water provided by rainwater collection systems is 342 investigated for a housing estate. Indeed, if water suppliers are to take into account collection 343 systems as a source of water in their management plan, it needs to have a certain level of 344 reliability. The point of view of the water suppliers was adopted to define three indicators 345 which have been assessed for 63 homogeneously distributed French cities.

346 The main conclusions are:

347 - The three interesting indicators for the water suppliers are: the percentage of days the 348 tank supplies 100% of the demand for WC flushing, the percentage of days the tank supplies 349 less than 10% of the water demand, and the percentage of water supplied by the tank secured 350 95% of the days of the simulation. The latter is the most relevant since it permits to exhibit 351 the most disparities amongst the chosen cities.

352 - The optimum way of determining the storage capacity of the rainwater collection 353 system is not the same if we adopt the point of view of the customers or if we adopt the water 354 suppliers'. Indeed the water suppliers tend to require bigger tanks.

355 - Even if there are many disparities among the chosen French cities, it is possible to 356 define five areas according to the reliability of the rainwater. It seems that France is stratified 357 according to a direction South-West, North-East.

358

359 The only water demand taken into account in this paper is WC flushing. Studies 360 involving other kinds of demands such as washing-machine demands are required. In this 361 paper, the simulations are performed with daily rainfall time series of duration of five years. 362 Using a longer duration and smaller time step for the series would allow analysing the 363 evolution of the indicators at a given location. On top of this, the consequences of climate 364 change could be investigated. Since water work systems are long term investments, this 365 aspect of the issue should be studied very carefully. Further investigation should be performed 366 to analyse the effect of sizing the tank from the viewpoint of the water suppliers. This would 367 consists in applying standard techniques such as the "percentage rate of change of an 368 indicator" (see Aquacycle users manual), not according to water saving efficiency as it is 369 usually done, but to the reliability indicators.

370 Water suppliers are providing water to many kinds of urban areas. Therefore to fully 371 assess the potential infrastructure costs reduction due to rainwater collection; it would be 372 required to develop comparable models for urban areas other than housing estates. For 373 instance investigation on heavily dense areas with high-rise buildings (here the roof areas are 374 much smaller), or manufacturing district (high level of demand, and large potential roof areas) 375 should be carried out.

376

377

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379

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383

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- 431
- 432

# 433 **Figures**



435 Fig 1: Description of a rainwater collection system

436



438 Fig 2: Example of a reliability curve for a simulation of a housing estate of 100 plots with the 439 population distribution of the couples option, a roof area of 110  $m^2$  for all plots, a storage 440 capacity of 1.3 m<sup>3</sup> for all plots, and a rainfall series from Saint-Nazaire (West of France).



441

442 Fig 3: The chosen options to analyse the variability generated by each input. The modelled 443 housing estate consists of 10 plots. For each input, 7 options were defined, in turn defining 444 7\*7\*7\*7 scenarios. Defining a scenario consists in selecting one option for each input, as it 445 can be seen in the example.



447 Fig 4: Definition of the chosen scenarios to perform the geographical analysis. The modelled 448 housing estate consists of 100 plots. Three options were defined for the storage capacity, one 449 for the roof area, and 2 for the number of people per plot. Therefore 6 scenarios  $(=3*1*2*1)$ 450 were considered for each city. The dash represents a scenario.



453 Fig 5: The RI1 indicator (the percentage of days the tank supplies 100% of the demand for 454 WC flushing) and the RI3 indicator (the percentage of water supplied by the tank being 455 secured for 95% of the days of the simulation) for 63 French cities. Five main areas are also 456 represented.



458 Fig 6: RI3 versus the cities (which have previously been sorted in order according to 459 increasing value of RI3), and the definition of three clusters of cities

#### 461 **Tables:**

462

480

463 Table 1 : Distribution of the occupants according to the plot of the two considered options for 464 the repartition. The mainly families option corresponds to the city of Vendeville (North of 465 France), whereas the mainly couples option corresponds to the city of Ge ´ ne ´mos (South of 466 France). Both cities are looking like a housing estate. (The figures are coming from the 1999 467 INSEE census of the French population) 468 469 Mainly families option Mainly couples option 470 The houses 471 Number of houses 479 479 2233 472 % of individual houses 91.2 87.7 473 The occupants 474 % of house with 1 people 10.7 19.5 475 % of house with 2 people 29.6 34.3 476 % of house with 3 people 21.1 20.8



477 % of house with 4 people 20.8 20.8 17.6

478 % of house with 5 people 12.5 6.1

479 % of house with 6 people or more 5.3 1.4

481 Table 2 : Variability generated by each input on the different indicators

