

Chapter 1

Introduction

*‘the significant problems we face cannot be solved at the same level
of thinking we were at when we created them’*

Albert Einstein

1.1 BACKGROUND

A quick run through history will reveal that sanitation management evolved from the Industrial Revolution and mimicked the linear economic model of production and consumption of the era to develop linear conventional sanitation technological solutions. These linear models of sanitation management have achieved a great deal of success over the years, but they seem to be increasingly challenged by indications that deeper changes in the operating systems are necessary (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2012, 2013). The efficiency and effectiveness of these resource-intensive linear sanitation systems (whether sewer or non-sewer) have been questioned and thus created rising concerns about sustainability as well as the ability to actually expand access and improve service. These are huge concerns as the current global statistics for sanitation indicate that a wide margin still exists between desired results and reality (Fam & Mitchell, 2012; Hutton & Varughese, 2016; Lopes *et al.*, 2012). The MDGs aimed to halve the 2.4 billion people without adequate sanitation, but today we still have an estimated 2.3 billion people without improved sanitation facilities and about 892 million practising open defecation (Giné-Garriga *et al.*, 2017; Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP), 2015; O’Reilly *et al.*, 2017; WHO & UNICEF, 2017). In fifteen years of the MDGs, however, all efforts and resources did not even come near halving the 2.4 billion and now the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) aspire for universal access and improved services across the globe for adequate and equitable sanitation (WHO & UNICEF, 2017). But then, these could be just lofty ideals as the SDGs do not actually give particular attention to sanitation, which seems to be considered an afterthought to water and wastewater.

The risk here is that sanitation could again be overlooked by the water targets, as was the case for the MDGs (Andersson & Minoia, 2017). It is expedient that sanitation be addressed on its own core platform and extracted from the clutches of water and hygiene (health) because managing sanitation and providing required services are truly not the same as managing water and hygiene. Doing things the same way will always yield the same results as 15 years of the MDG has revealed, with over 2.3 billion people still without basic sanitation. The risks are far-reaching too with grave impacts on water quality, health and the environment (note: controlling these risks is not the same as providing sanitation solutions, but rather protection for water, health and the environment from sanitation as well as other practices). It is, therefore, essential to push forward in the direction of sanitation solutions that yield increased efficiency and effectiveness, reduced costs and risks, livelihood support and ecological sustainability as well as accelerated drive towards expanded access and improved services by 2030.

Clearly, sanitation needs to head away from the conventional approach of techno-focus that has been predominant over the years and during the MDGs era without much-needed success. It will not be easy to transition from these rigid, locked-in conventional sanitation technologies characterized by incremental progression along existing trajectories rather than radical innovations, but transformation to holistic, integrated and systemic solutions that address the whole spectrum of sanitation is essential (Fam & Mitchell, 2012; Lopes *et al.*, 2012). Technological innovations are not enough to bring the progressive results desired in the sanitation arena, but mutually reinforcing institutional, psycho-social, ecological, cultural and resource-oriented transformations is required (Geels, 2005). There is overwhelming evidence that focusing on technology or infrastructure (small and large) alone will not provide needed solutions as many ‘failed technologies’ in sanitation did not fail due to technical deficiencies only, but also, and even more so, on system misfit in terms of scale, or the social, geographical, cultural or even economic contexts in which they were implemented (van Vliet *et al.*, 2011). Studies have shown how psycho-social-economic, cultural conditions and lock-in effects prevent uptake of new technologies due to their lack of integration into the existing technical and institutional structure. This is because new technology might negatively impact the existing sociotechnical systems if it contradicts other interests and could lead to a dead end (Hiessl *et al.*, 2003; Panebianco & Pahl-Wostl, 2006; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011). Some examples of challenges in the absence of systemic-holistic-integrated perspectives in sanitation programming are illustrated in Boxes 1.1 to 1.4.

BOX 1.1 UGANDA

An Agenda 21 project in Jinja involving community latrines with a digester producing biogas as an energy source for domestic cooking and lighting failed soon after its start in 2001. The households complained about bad odours and were reported to be reluctant to use their own human waste for cooking, and so eventually someone removed the pipes. The project failure can hardly be attributed to the hardware itself; rather the way it was implemented as well as prevailing social and cultural conditions (UN-Habitat, 2002; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011).

BOX 1.2 SOUTH AFRICA

Conventional gravity sewerage installed in Cape Town's informal settlements proved difficult due to various social, built and natural environment challenges (Sonnenberg, 2013; Taing *et al.*, 2013). In order to resolve this problem, the Officials of the City of Cape Town (CoCT) decided to explore vacuum sewer technology as an alternative solution. However, the vacuum sewer failed immediately after its commissioning in early 2009 and so residents demanded its removal and that its flush toilets be replaced with previously phased-out bucket toilets (Taing, 2017). The Vacuum Sewer System (VSS) was hampered from inception by users' and service providers' (CoCT's) poor management and governance (DWAF, 2008a, b; Taing *et al.*, 2013).

BOX 1.3 THE NETHERLANDS

The city of Wageningen in 2002 suffered the same fate as Cape Town, South Africa. It became apparent to both the municipality and project proponents, even before allocation of the accommodation to residents, that all was not well with the vacuum sewerage and anaerobic treatment system in a new residential site. At the start of the project, many aspects of the experiment with vacuum toilets and anaerobic treatment systems were still unresolved, from seemingly trivial issues like the shape and colour of toilets to more crucial aspects of management and transfer of technology. Both the municipality and project developers decided in 2003 to withdraw, causing the project to fail even before the technology could be installed (van Vliet, 2006; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011).

BOX 1.4 SWEDEN

The Urine Diversion (UD) toilet systems in Sweden revealed the significance of human-centred issues relating to psychosociocultural acceptance and governance support as sine qua non for the process of sanitation access expansion and service improvement. The Swedish experience, which installed about 135,000 UD units over the last two decades (Kvarnström *et al.*, 2006), was the primary source of influence and inspiration for UD projects globally. The engagement of end users as critical stakeholders was a key determinant in the successful adoption of the UD systems, as the most enduring UD systems in Sweden are those that were collaboratively organized and/or managed by end users (e.g. cooperative housing estates, eco-villages and private summer houses) as well as the strong endorsement of the coastal municipality of Tanum, the first to mandate UD systems for all new housing development (Fam & Mitchell, 2012). However, while the concept of UD is gaining global momentum, the advancement of UD within Sweden (the birthplace of the modern UD toilet) is slowing down since its peak in the mid-1990s with a number of high-profile pilot projects dismantled and two manufacturers of UD systems ceasing production. This decline is due to dwindling support from Tanum Municipality due to planning and development of large scale wastewater treatment plants connecting households to centralized sewers, which reduced the appeal for small-scale systems such as UD for nutrient recovery (Fam & Mitchell, 2012).

Current sanitation infrastructural designs are at odds with today's environmental, economic and social sustainability paradigms (Apul, 2010) as well as meeting the aspiration of the goals and targets of SDG no. 6. Developed countries are just as affected as the conventional centralized linear systems that were substantially revamped after World War Two are close to or past their useful design lifespan (usually considered to be 50–60 years) and need to undergo major rehabilitation/refurbishment (Capodaglio, 2017; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011). Thus, developed countries, due to resource constraint, are confronted with the twin challenges of retrofitting and upgrading ageing and decaying sanitation infrastructures (Ashley *et al.*, 2011; Bracken *et al.*, 2006; Brands, 2014; Butler & Parkinson, 1997; Delleur, 2003; Drangert, 1998; Wilsenach *et al.*, 2003; WWAP, 2017). To address the contemporary sanitation dilemma, systemic-holistic-integrated strategies must be considered across the sanitation spectrum and interlinkages to agriculture, carbon cycles, environment and health, resource reuse and recovery, psycho-social, economic and cultural factors, ecological sustainability, institutions and governance, and the myriad roles of stakeholders in the process of sanitation (Brands, 2014; Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011).

In the face of all these, a new approach to sanitation management and solutions design named Regenerative Sanitation (ReGenSan) is proposed. ReGenSan aims to provide the foundation for a new way of thinking by adapting the principles of regeneration and functional-living-system theory to the specific context of sanitation. To this effect, *sanitation is regenerative when it integrates the psycho-socio-ecological elements (place, scale, culture/religion, status, economy and governance), resource recovery (reuse, recycling), ecosystem (geographical and ecological) and technological elements (storage, collection, transport, treatment, reuse) perspectives into one systemic whole for the rejuvenation and revitalization of human excreta/urine management in a manner that mimics and contributes to nature's system.* Therefore, ReGenSan could provide the opportunity to systematically address complex sanitation challenges from multi- and transdisciplinary perspectives, as it approaches solution provision from a holistic-integrated perspective with an ecological systemic worldview. ReGenSan is designed to be place-/scale-based where comprehensive sanitation solutions and management are provided within what is termed 'sani-sheds' and with the intent to mimic nature and be psycho-socially acceptable and affordable, livelihood-supportive and technically appropriate as well as enabled by specific governance mechanisms. It aims to offer strategies that support the development of novel and place-peculiar sanitation facilities, restoration and upgrade of old, dysfunctional and unimproved sanitation infrastructure, ensuring continuous maintenance of existing improved sanitation facilities as well as recovery and reuse of valuable resources from excreta, urine and wastewater management in order to expand access and improve services. This is in consonance with the idea of the circular economy, which is redefining products and services to eliminate waste, while minimizing negative environmental impacts (Capodaglio, 2017; EMF, 2012, 2013; IWA, 2016; TBC, 2016) and contributing in a greater measure to resource conservation (Lia Buarque, 2012). Thus, technology will no longer just be about storage, collection, transport, treatment and reuse; focus will be on the most reliable, sensible, acceptable, appropriate and resourceful ways to implement technology.

ReGenSan aspires to ensure that sanitation systems do not transfer ecological and public health burdens and do not mix human waste with other wastes, but align sanitation facilities with ecological processes to ensure 'zero' or 'near minimal' discharge, and ensure that sanitation systems provide net benefits to the people and environment. It is common knowledge that current sanitation practices have large negative effects on ecosystem services, especially in the urban centres of developing and developed countries. But sanitation systems can be designed to benefit particular ecosystems in order to mitigate or reduce such negative impacts (Graham, 2003; Rees, 1999; Zari, 2012). Moreover, ReGenSan could contribute positively to ecosystem services by ensuring benefit-sharing and focused reduction on environmental and

public health impacts. In addition, regenerative goals demand that processed-waste volumes do not exceed the capacity of the environment, thus ensuring that there is no-transfer-of-burden (NToB) (Lyle, 1994).

1.2 PERSPECTIVES OF THE REGENERATIVE PHENOMENA

The design of ReGenSan was drawn from interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary analysis of literature on regenerative science, biology, medicine, development, designs, built environment and architecture, industrial, ecology, agriculture, economics and sustainability. The regenerative concept has been used extensively in the fields of biological and medical sciences, urban development, agriculture, economics, architectural design and the built environment, but not yet in sanitation management. ReGenSan particularly draws insights from the following.

1.2.1 Regenerative science and medicine

Medical, biological and ecological sciences have been exploring the regenerative capacities of living systems like plants, animals and humans, resulting in major advances in medical treatment such as cancer, ecological preservation and restoration and endangered species protection. Regenerative science investigates the interaction of living tissues with other materials and the ability of animal tissues to rebuild and recover internally and without external effort (Aida & Carrel, 2014; Illingworth, 1974; Kragl *et al.*, 2009; Sampogna *et al.*, 2015) and supports the idea that life is always in a constant state of renewal, restoration, replacement or repair (Graham, 2003; Guterstam & Todd, 1990; Kibert *et al.*, 2002; Lenhoff & Lenhoff, 1991; Maienschein, 2011; McHarg, 1969; Mitsch, 1993; Mitsch & Jørgensen, 1989, 2003; Porcellini, 2009; Sunderland, 2008, 2010, Van der Ryn & Cowan, 2007; Whitman *et al.*, 1997). Findings from such investigations contributed to the use of the ecosystem approach in waste treatment as encapsulated in the principles of ecological engineering and biomimicry, which stand as core principles of ReGenSan (Todd & Josephson, 1996; Todd & Todd, 1980, 1984, 1994). Relatively, ecological and nature-based sanitation technologies have attributes that separate them from conventional technologies and are unique in their application to a wide range of sewage treatment technologies (Lyle, 1994; Mitsch, 1993; Todd & Josephson, 1996) in that the restorative capacity of the ecological system is reinforced (du Plessis & Brandon, 2015) to improve system integrity and performance for the purpose of impeding the rate of depletion and degradation (Mang & Reed, 2012a).

Therefore, ReGenSan utilizes the 'listen and learn' principle of regenerative science and medicine to learn from nature and align sanitation solutions with nature's potential to create new (nouveau) solutions, restore and retrofit previously damaged sanitation systems and recover valuable resources from human waste. In essence, restorative, renewal and replace strategies could be valuable tools for innovative repair and rehabilitation of sites and locations damaged by previous and current sanitation practices (SER, 2004).

1.2.2 Regenerative development and design

Regenerative development and design aims to create systems that are capable of restoring health to both human communities and ecosystems, especially in the fields of architecture and urban development (Zari, 2012). The application of regenerative design in the built environment engages the natural world as the medium and generator of human settlement. It focuses on conservation and performance through reduction in environmental impacts of buildings as well as treatment of the environment as an equal shareholder in the built environment (Littman, 2009; Reed, 2007). Figure 1.1 depicts regenerative design in the built environment and shows the movement from the reductionist-mechanistic design thinking on

the lower left to natural systems design thinking on the upper right, which is all part of the journey to a regenerative system (Fullerton, 2015; Mang & Reed, 2012b).

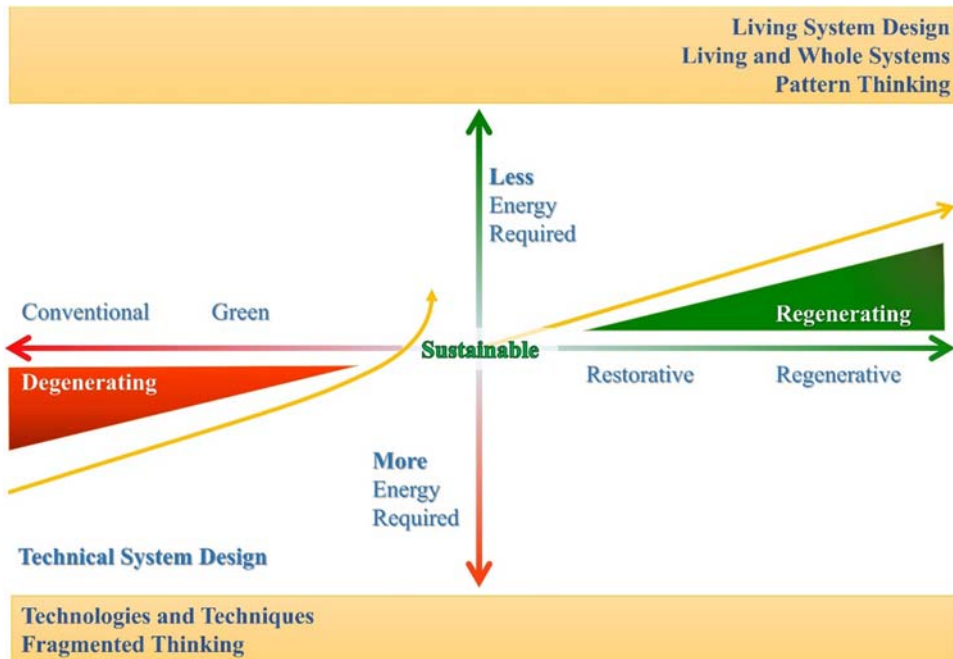


Figure 1.1 Contrast of technical system design and living system design (Source: Mang & Reed, 2012b).

Regenerative design and development pushes beyond sustainable development principles by seeking to redevelop systems with absolute effectiveness while allowing for the co-evolution of human species with other species (Lyle, 1994) with a net positive approach to sustainability that departs from the dominant sustainability narratives (Cole *et al.*, 2012; Robinson & Cole, 2015). It seeks to create systems that integrate the needs of society with the integrity of nature through processes that restore, renew and revitalize their own sources of energy and materials. Regenerative design acknowledges that humans are more entangled with the complex systems of environment and the biosphere than the conventional mode of linear cause and effect thinking, which argues that the best design guides for regenerating our environments are ecological principles i.e. the fundamental laws inherent to the natural world (Vester, 2004). Furthermore, regenerative design is a system of technologies and strategies based on an understanding of the inner workings of ecosystems to generate designs that regenerate rather than deplete underlying life support systems and resources within socioecological wholes, while regenerative development refers to technologies and strategies for generating a patterned whole-system understanding of the self-evolving and self-organizing capacities of a 'place' (Mang & Reed, 2012a, b; Reed, 2007).

Thus, regenerative design and development investigates how humans can participate in ecosystems through development to create optimum health for both human communities (physically, psychologically, socially, culturally and economically) and other living organisms and systems (Jenkin & Pedersen, 2009). It can be aptly said that regeneration is more about a process of engagement than a set of outcomes and this process of engagement has significant environmental, economic, social and cultural benefits (Jenkin & Pedersen, 2009). By ensuring that human and natural systems are adequately coordinated to produce

positive impacts (Akturk, 2016), it emphasizes the importance of the unique and diverse human and non-human elements of each ‘place’ (socioecological systems) (Cole *et al.*, 2006). The idea of ‘place’ is a way for people to envision the unity of humans and natural systems (Mang *et al.*, 2016; Zari & Jenkin, 2010). In each ‘place’ on earth, natural and cultural systems express themselves uniquely and differently and this implies that sanitation systems should be tailored to the unique characteristics of the ‘place’ by exploring the opportunities and solutions that are indigenous to the specific ‘place’. Regenerative design and development asserts that development can and should contribute to the capacity of all natural, cultural and economic systems that affect a ‘place’ (to grow and evolve their health and ongoing viability), as shown in Figure 1.2.

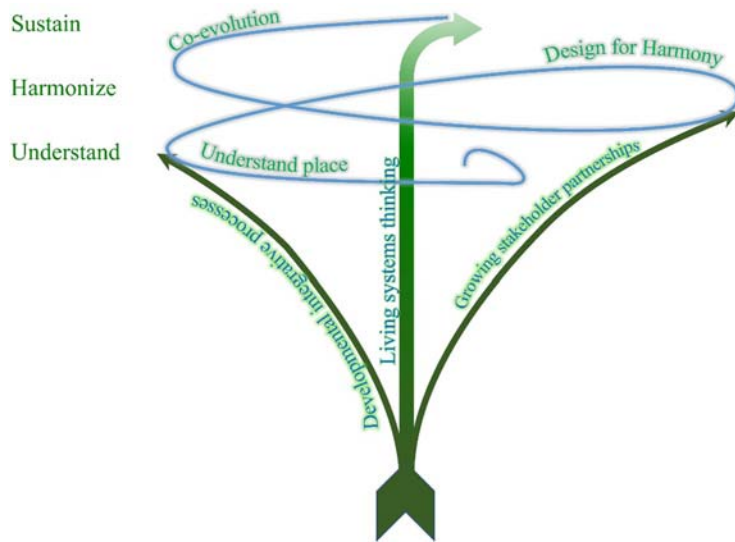


Figure 1.2 Overall framework of regenerative development and design (Source: Mang & Reed, 2012a).

Figure 1.2 depicts the three regenerative design and development phases – understanding/conceptualizing right relationship to ‘place’, design for harmony and co-evolution and three development processes of growing stakeholder partnerships, living systems thinking and integrative developmental processes – that are key to creating and sustaining the holism required to actualize the concept (Mang & Reed, 2012a, b). According to Lyle (1994), the regenerative concept replaces the present linear system with cyclical flows and provides for continuous replacement through self-functional processes of the energy and materials used in its operations. In the functional order of natural ecosystems, materials are always reused through the process of conversion, distribution, assimilation, filtration, storage and production to continue their roles in nature’s cycle. There are strong links between the concept of regenerative design, development and sustainability with current calls for systemic, holistic and integrative sanitation solutions and management.

A shift from the reductionist-mechanistic worldview (Renger *et al.*, 2015) of previous and current approaches to sanitation to an ecological-systemic worldview that embraces the complex and dynamic nature of sanitation is suggested, whereby interacting units are integrated and inter-synergistically linked for improved performance. This will shift the focus of users and service providers from toilets and treatment systems to a true integration of human dimension that will provide more adaptive and

comprehensive, improved sanitation solutions. It is interesting to note that sanitation systems are complex processes and interactions between physical, social, economic, technological and ecological components, which interlink and influence each other (Mele *et al.*, 2010; Seadon, 2006, 2010; Tilley *et al.*, 2014a, b). In addition, it is not the sanitation infrastructure itself that is regenerated in the literal sense of self-healing and self-organizing attributes, but the acts of providing sanitation solutions such as technology, psycho-social-cultural contexts, economic and institutional issues as well as resource recovery that are regenerative and provide the needed catalyst for positive change (Robinson & Cole, 2015).

1.2.3 Regenerative agriculture

Regenerative agriculture is a holistic systems approach to agriculture that aims to improve the resources it uses and avoid resource depletion and destruction. It is designed to improve soil health and restore degraded soil biodiversity through organic practices such as, among others, residual mulching and composting (Rodale Institute, 2017). It is assumed that regenerative agriculture, also called regenerative organic agriculture practices, could positively impact carbon and water cycles, integrate crop farming with animal farming and increase biodiversity and ecosystem health and resilience as well as improve soil fertility and total health (Rodale Institute, 2017). Core principles of regenerative agriculture resonate with the call for change in sanitation perspectives, especially in working with wholes and not parts, context-specific designs and holistic decisions; and focus on the specificity of the ‘place’ and integrating crop and animal farming to mutual benefits. Regenerative agriculture is a relatively new paradigm in the field of agriculture that borrows largely from the general living system theory, agro-ecology, organic agriculture, permaculture and holistic management (Rodale Institute, 2017).

1.2.4 Regenerative economy and capitalism

Proponents of regenerative economy are focused on designing an economic and investment model that serves humanity while also preserving the ecosystem. It is a shift towards an ecological systemic, holistic and integrative worldview and paradigm with principles that focus on the peculiarities of place, cooperation between man and the earth’s system, empowered participation and wholeness (Brown & Garver, 2008; Lietaer *et al.*, 2012). According to Fullerton (2015) regenerative economy should promote and sustain human prosperity and well-being in an economy of permanence because economic sustainability cannot simply depend on measuring designed outputs; economy and financial systems should be based on principles that ensure enduring system health. In addition, reliable inputs and healthy outputs are to be maintained by preserving and protecting all key parts of the broader societal and environmental systems of the economy as well as strengthening human networks to preserve vitality and resilience. One argument that connects with the new thinking on sanitation is that regenerative economy does not argue for or against capitalism or socialism, just as there are no arguments for decentralized or centralized sanitation or even existing frameworks. The aim is to achieve an effective integration of the best of both paradigms with an infusion of an understanding of how natural living systems’ principles can be adopted to produce shared vitality and prosperity. In a regenerative economy, the network of human interactions with each other and the natural world is the ‘system’.

Therefore, economic and financial growth goes beyond gross domestic product (GDP) or gross national product (GNP) to the presumption that economic vigour is rather dependent on human and societal vitality, rooted in ecological health and the inclusive development of human capabilities and potentials (Fullerton, 2015). It thrives on willingness to learn, adapt to change and continually evolve as a whole system. Regenerative capitalism is the product of a regenerative economy that works with the symbiotically related principles of regenerative economy to determine how to disburse and pursue capital investment.

Five out of these eight principles as enumerated by Fullerton (2015) relate closely to the regenerative concept adapted in architectural design, urban development and agriculture, which were adopted for this work. They include:

- (I) Recognizing that humanity is also a part of an interconnected whole inclusive of the ecosystem and all global localities,
- (II) Wealth is viewed holistically as it concerns all parts of the whole with all forms of capital,
- (III) Innovation, adaptiveness and responsiveness are crucial,
- (IV) All parts of the whole are empowered to participate in systems' growth and how they benefit from it, and
- (V) Honours community and place by respecting specific peculiarities in ecology, geography, society, culture, history etc.

1.3 REGENERATIVE SANITATION WORLDVIEW

The above regenerative perspectives are derived from a shift in worldviews that has led conceptualization in the same direction. New knowledge, new thinking and new technology are built by developing successful ideas based on a set of premises and values (i.e. paradigms drawn from a worldview), which remain true until they are challenged. Sanitation technological solutions and management need a shift in worldview and paradigmatic conceptions (Du Plessis & Brandon, 2015). To improve the overall sanitation system performance and achieve strong sustainability, a worldview shift is essential from the reductionist-mechanistic linear conventional sanitation worldview to more cyclical-integrated-systemic-ecological perspectives (Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; Thibodeau *et al.*, 2014; Tilley *et al.*, 2014a). A worldview can be described as a collection of concepts, theorems and assumptions that provides a coherent way of looking at and thinking about the world (Aerts *et al.*, 2007; Kearney, 1984) as well as interconnected systems of belief (DeWitt, 2010) that act as a filter through which phenomena are perceived and comprehended (Miller & West, 1993). According to Aerts *et al.* (2007), worldview shapes how individuals interpret and interact with the world around them, defining what can be known or done and how and what goals should be, or whether they should even be pursued (Mang & Reed, 2012a; Koltko-Rivera, 2004).

The reductionist-mechanistic worldview is essentially the Newtonian-Cartesian modern civilization philosophy, operating on the assumption that the properties of the whole can be reduced to and deduced from the sum of the properties of the parts (as is possible with mechanical and other complicated cybernetic systems) and it places a high emphasis on prediction and centralized control to ensure system performance (Du Plessis & Cole, 2011; Heylighen, 2006; Robertson & Choi, 2010). At the core of this worldview is the assumption that the universe as a whole and all of its material components, including living organisms, function like mechanical systems that are governed by universal laws (Benne & Mang, 2015).

The ecological-systemic worldview, on the other hand, draws on an understanding of nature and its processes and relationships (Capra, 1997). It is a much broader concept than that encapsulated in classical ecology or even ecological economics. 'Ecological' implies an understanding that we are dealing with living systems and all that comes with such systems, including connections, flows, relationships, interdependence, evolution and consciousness (Du Plessis & Brandon, 2015). The ecological-systemic worldview emphasizes interconnectedness and its orientation is more holistic in nature, recognizing that a thorough understanding of any system requires knowledge of the nature of the interactions among its parts as well as the nature of its interdependencies with other parts of the larger system being embedded in the whole (Checkland, 1997; Robertson & Choi, 2010). It recognizes the

self-organizing capacity inherent in all natural systems (Jantsch, 1980), which are self-managing and self-regulating in that their distinct and diverse parts engage in patterns of interaction that maintain a dynamic equilibrium (Kauffman, 1995) of the whole while emphasizing the co-evolutionary and mutually reinforcing dynamics with their environments (Capra, 2002). The ecological-systemic worldview, which incorporates the general living system theory (von Bertalanffy, 1968), considers systems as integrated wholes and focuses on interactions among the parts and the larger environment in which they are embedded (Robertson & Choi, 2010; Unsal, 2016).

Sanitation systems designed from the reductionist-mechanistic worldview normally optimize the efficiency of the individual constituent elements by identifying discrete performance requirements, setting specific measurable goals and targets and following designated formulas, rules and criteria. The sustainable performance of the whole is optimized by aggregating the solutions for the different parts and generic technocentric design, and top-down solutions and approaches are prescribed to similar circumstances with accommodations for regional distinctions and cultural differences. Humans are often seen as outsiders from nature and are responsible for being good stewards of natural resources and protecting them from harmful human activities through conservation activities. These approaches do not recognize or leverage the interconnectivity and dynamic nature of socio-ecological systems, and thus have limited impacts on the sustainability, vitality and resilience of the systems (Benne & Mang, 2015). Meanwhile, designing sanitation solutions from the ecological-systemic worldview is based on concepts, designs and processes that draw on an understanding of the unique dynamics and potential of how life works in a 'place' and of the distinctive role and value-contributing potential of the sanitation systems (Benne & Mang, 2015). Thus, the ecological-systemic worldview seeks to provide better understanding of the knowledge of interconnections among the sanitation subsystems, dimensions and components as well as holistically integrating methodologies that address the interlinkages of the sociocultural, environmental, economic and technical spheres (Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013). It adopts an integrated perspective that addresses improved sanitation planning, takes advantage of economic opportunities, incorporates specialized and appropriate technology and follows up with behavioural change, which could ensure access and sustainable use as well as operations and maintenance of sanitation intervention (Tilley *et al.*, 2014a).

However, the ecological-systemic worldview does not necessarily negate the reductionist-mechanistic worldview, but adds to the knowledge base by providing a different perspective that reveals different types and kinds of knowledge to improve sanitation services. Both worldviews could provide valuable insights when applied within the appropriate context of analysis and its realm of validity (Du Plessis & Brandon, 2015; Wilber, 2000). The knowledge and laws of sanitation systems revealed by the reductionist-mechanistic worldview are still immensely useful when it comes to engineering and technology, while the ecological-systemic worldview works towards ensuring systemic and holistic integration of all sanitation components without separating technology from the economic and psycho-social contexts (Altaf, 2011; Du Plessis & Brandon, 2015; Nilsson & Olsson, 2014). This book proposes the ecological-systemic worldview as an overall worldview that incorporates the necessary principles from the reductionist-mechanistic worldview so as to come up with regenerative sanitation technology and management solutions.

1.4 PARADIGMS OF SANITATION

Consequently, a shift in worldview will also cause a shift in paradigm and recent years have seen an increase in discussion and debates about a paradigm shift in sanitation management. From the conventional traditional linear sanitation technological approaches of 'flush and discharge' or 'drop and store'

(Andersson *et al.*, 2016a, b; Esrey, 2001) to more systemic-integrated approaches between physical, psychosocial, economic, ecological and technological aspects (IWA 24:2016; Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; Schübeler, 1996; Seadon, 2006; Spaargaren *et al.*, 2007, van Vliet *et al.*, 2011). A paradigm is a subset of a worldview that provides accepted models or patterns of ideas or basic assumptions (within the context of that worldview) about how something should be perceived, thought about, valued, done or made (Benne & Mang, 2015; Harman, 1970). It is also an agreed way of thinking about the world or an agreed set of valid approaches to investigating a scientific and technological phenomenon (Pahl-Wostl *et al.*, 2011). It provides insights into what is to be observed and scrutinized, kinds of research questions to ask and answer, how questions are to be structured and how results of scientific investigations are to be interpreted (Halbe *et al.*, 2013; Kuhn, 1962). Paradigms also provide an intellectual and operational environment for scientific and technological research to take place and shape the nature of the problems to be addressed (Leclerc, 2005; Pahl-Wostl, 2011).

In this case, sanitation paradigms (SaPs) are the different accepted forms and approaches of conceptualizing and handling sanitation management and technology over the years. A SaP trails processes and systems development for research, technology and management design and implementation of sanitation solutions and services. Most existing SaPs are technocentric, resource-oriented, service-oriented, hygiene-focused, water-quality-focused, participatory-focused and behavioural-change focused. There have, however, been calls for a paradigm shift, especially with the dismal results of the sanitation targets in the MDGs. The rationales for this call for a paradigm shift include:

- (I) Sanitation systems are increasingly recognized as complex and integrated in processes between physical, social, economic, ecological and technological aspects (IWA 24:2016; Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; Schübeler, 1996; Seadon, 2006; Spaargaren *et al.*, 2007; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011);
- (II) Contextual factors such as culture, economy, institutional control and climate are considered as critical elements that can affect public acceptance of technical and infrastructural feasibility for innovation (Domènech & Saurí, 2010; Larsen *et al.*, 2010; McConville *et al.*, 2014; Whittington *et al.*, 1993);
- (III) Technological development processes and approaches are now highly contextual and dependent on a number of sociocultural-economic and ecological factors (Balkema *et al.*, 2002; Hegger *et al.*, 2007; McConville *et al.*, 2014; Raven, 2007);
- (IV) Nature-based solutions such as ecological engineering and eco-technologies are known to represent plausible sustainable approaches for solving global sanitation problems, especially in the use of constructed wetlands and other ecosystem solutions (Barros *et al.*, 2008; Elzein *et al.*, 2016; European Commission, 2015; Guterstam & Todd, 1990; Lens *et al.*, 2001; Mahmood *et al.*, 2013; Nesshöver *et al.*, 2017; Polprasert & Koottatep, 2017; Vymazal, 2005; Wu *et al.*, 2016);
- (V) Governance is considered a critical success and supporting mechanism that provides the enabling environment for effective and efficient service delivery, and financing sustainability (Hallerod *et al.*, 2013; Joshi *et al.*, 2015; Rodic, 2015; Schertenleib, 2005; Speer, 2012);
- (VI) Resource recovery and reuse are acknowledged as key components of comprehensive integrated sanitation solutions with the potential for natural resource conservation, and have the capacity to leverage the long-term efficacy of treatment schemes and livelihood support (Benetto *et al.*, 2009; Cofie *et al.*, 2016; Hu *et al.*, 2016; Keraita *et al.*, 2014; Murray & Buckley, 2009; Nikiema *et al.*, 2014; Otoo *et al.*, 2016; Rao *et al.*, 2016; USEPA, 2012; Werner *et al.*, 2009; WWAP, 2017);

- (VII) Technology-based indicators for determining ‘improved’ and ‘unimproved’ sanitation instead of functional-service-based indicators constrain innovation (Banerjee & Morella, 2011; Domènech & Saurí, 2010; Kuznyetsov, 2007; Kvarnström *et al.*, 2011; Larsen *et al.*, 2010; McConville *et al.*, 2014; Potter *et al.*, 2011; Sutton, 2008; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011; WSP, 2008); and
- (VIII) Inadequate and dysfunctional sanitation infrastructures are due to structural failures, material degradation, poor construction and workmanship as well as ageing facilities and lack of appropriate operations and maintenance (Brikke, 2000; Brepolsa *et al.*, 2008; Coockey *et al.*, 2016). These dysfunctions and inadequacies are costly for society and its economic impacts are estimated to cost 18 African countries a colossal sum of USD 5.5 billion per year (Bartram & Cairncross, 2010; Bos & Gijzen, 2005; Cheng *et al.*, 2012; Ekane *et al.*, 2014; Fewtrell *et al.*, 2005; Pruss *et al.*, 2002; Prüss-Üstün *et al.*, 2008; UNDP, 2006; WSP, 2014; Yardley, 2010). Strategic and innovative plans and programmes to retrofit these systems could accelerate the targets of SDG no. 6 on sanitation.

The major paradigms that have influenced sanitation research, science, technology, management, policy and practice have graduated from one level to another and produced several kinds of technological solution (Cooper, 2001; O’Reilly *et al.*, 2017; Persson, 2017; Zeldovich, 2017). These sanitation paradigms include: conventional sanitation paradigm (sanitation 1.0); ecological sanitation paradigm (sanitation 2.0); and sustainable sanitation paradigm (sanitation 3.0).

1.4.1 Conventional sanitation paradigm (sanitation 1.0)

The conventional paradigm approach to sanitation falls under the category of either waterborne ‘flush and discharge’ or dry ‘drop and store’ (Werner *et al.*, 2009) systems technology based on the linear flow premise that excreta is waste suitable only for disposal, which makes recycling impossible (Andersson *et al.*, 2016a, b; Esrey, 2001) (Figure 1.3).

Although there are innovative approaches within this system incorporating resource recovery and reuse as incremental improvement strategies, paradigm shifts are being advocated for overcoming these challenges, especially through the adoption of integrated sanitation solutions that go above and beyond the focus of technology (Geels, 2006; Larsen, 2011; Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; Otterpohl, 2002; Thibodeau *et al.*, 2014; Tilley *et al.*, 2014a; Zeeman, 2009).

1.4.2 Ecological sanitation paradigm (sanitation 2.0)

The ecological paradigm approach to sanitation is based on an overall view of material flows of the ‘closed-loop system’ designed for incremental progression over the conventional systems (Mang & Reed, 2012a; Werner *et al.*, 2009) (Figure 1.4). It can also be described as a resource-oriented, ecological and source separation-based sanitation approach. It is a reconceptualization of conventional sanitation from ‘flush and discharge’ to ‘drop and reuse’ models (Haq & Cambridge, 2012; Hu *et al.*, 2016; Langergraber & Muelleggera, 2005) and is designed to close the nutrient loop between sanitation and agriculture even though the technologies are not ecological per se (Esrey, 2001; Langergraber & Muelleggera, 2005; Werner *et al.*, 2004, 2009). The major drawback is basically the cost and cultural constraints on the usage of treated excreta and sewage (Hu *et al.*, 2016). In any case, it is still based on the reductionist-mechanistic worldview of the conventional sanitation paradigm and so focuses on technology and the back end of the loop.

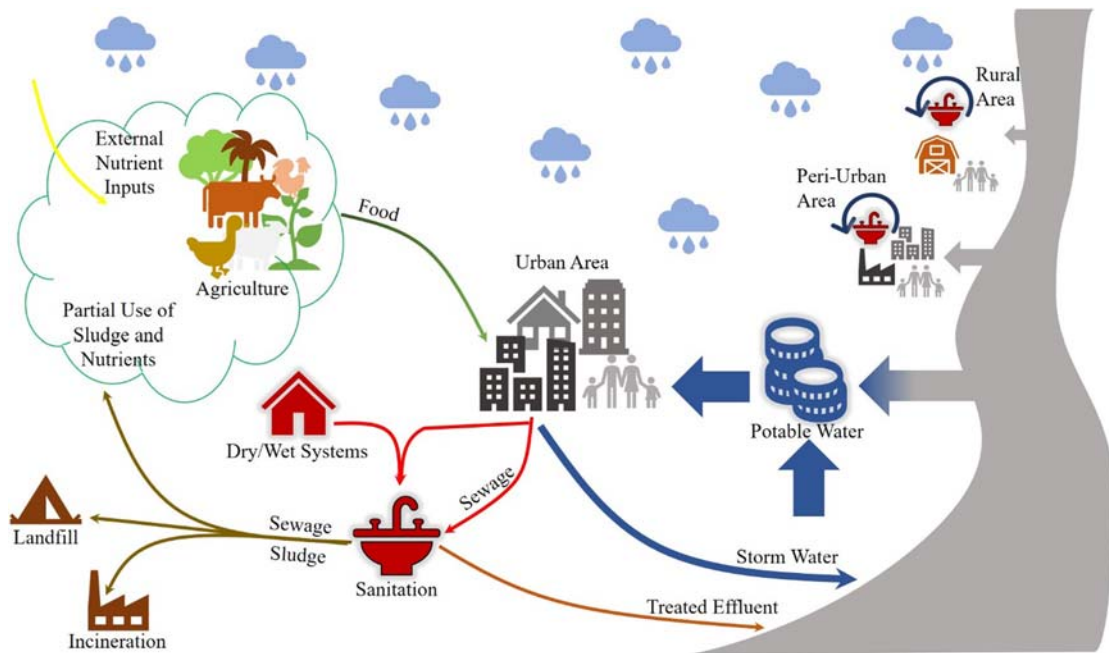


Figure 1.3 Conceptual diagram of conventional sanitation. Arrows are non-quantitative representations of resource (water, nutrients, organic matter) flows associated with conventional sanitation and connected processes (Source: GTZ, 2002).

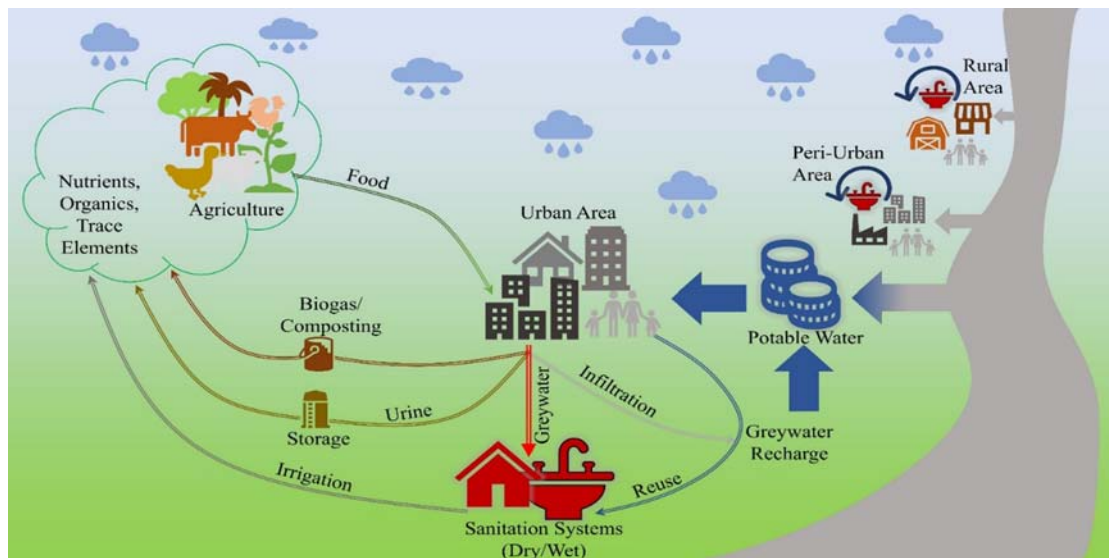


Figure 1.4 Conceptual diagram of ecological sanitation/source separation and decentralization. Arrows are non-quantitative representations of resource (water, nutrients, organic matter) flows associated with sanitation and connected processes (Source: GTZ, 2002).

1.4.3 Sustainable sanitation paradigm (sanitation 3.0)

The sustainable sanitation paradigm recognizes not only technology, but also social, environmental and economic aspects of sanitation (SUSANA, 2008). It includes means of recycling human excrement that have no negative impact – or even a positive impact – on local and global resources (Brands, 2014). Its core principles include: human health protection, affordability, environmental sustainability and institutional appropriateness (Chinyama *et al.*, 2012; Mara *et al.*, 2007). Sustainable sanitation aims to address the challenges of conventional and ecological sanitation by adopting the generic principles of sustainable development (SD), but it is constrained by oversimplification of complex dynamic problems such as sanitation technology and management (Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013). Sanitation sustainability cannot be achieved in the absence of the whole-system thinking and fit-for-purpose solutions that can only be found by addressing challenges at a system level to reveal mutually inter-synergistic advantageous interactions as well as undesirable ones (Anarow *et al.*, 2003; Rocky Mountain Institute, 2006) (Figure 1.5).



Figure 1.5 Key sustainability dimensions in sustainable sanitation management. (Adopted from Andersson *et al.*, 2016a, b).

1.4.4 The paradigm shift

Several scholars and practitioners have suggested the need for a paradigm shift towards holistic, integrated, multidimensional-transdisciplinary perspectives (Galli *et al.*, 2014; Marshall & Farahbakhsh, 2013; Seadon, 2010; van Vliet *et al.*, 2011; Zeeman, 2009). Some proposed nomenclatures for this new paradigm, but did not really come up with a clear framework to guide this transition. For instance, Agudelo-Vera *et al.* (2012), Swart and Palsma (2013) and Wielemaker *et al.* (2016) called it ‘new sanitation’ (or in Dutch ‘nieuwe sanitatie’); Fan *et al.* (2017) proposed ‘sanitation 2.0’; Heggarr *et al.* (2007) and van Vliet *et al.* (2010, 2011) named it ‘hybrid or modernized mixture’; Verstraete *et al.* (2009) and Nansubuga *et al.* (2016) suggested ‘cluster decentralized systems’ and Marshall and Farahbakhsh (2013) and Tilley *et al.* (2014a)

proposed ‘integrated approach’; while Galli *et al.* (2014) suggested ‘whole-system approach’. Evidently, the need for a paradigm shift in the field of sanitation technology and management is long overdue. To this effect, a paradigm shift towards regenerative sanitation is proposed to capture the essence of the change advocated beyond technology. The word ‘regenerative’ here implies complete revitalization and rejuvenation of the entire sanitation system to improve service and expand access as well as a deliberate partnership with nature (Figure 1.6).

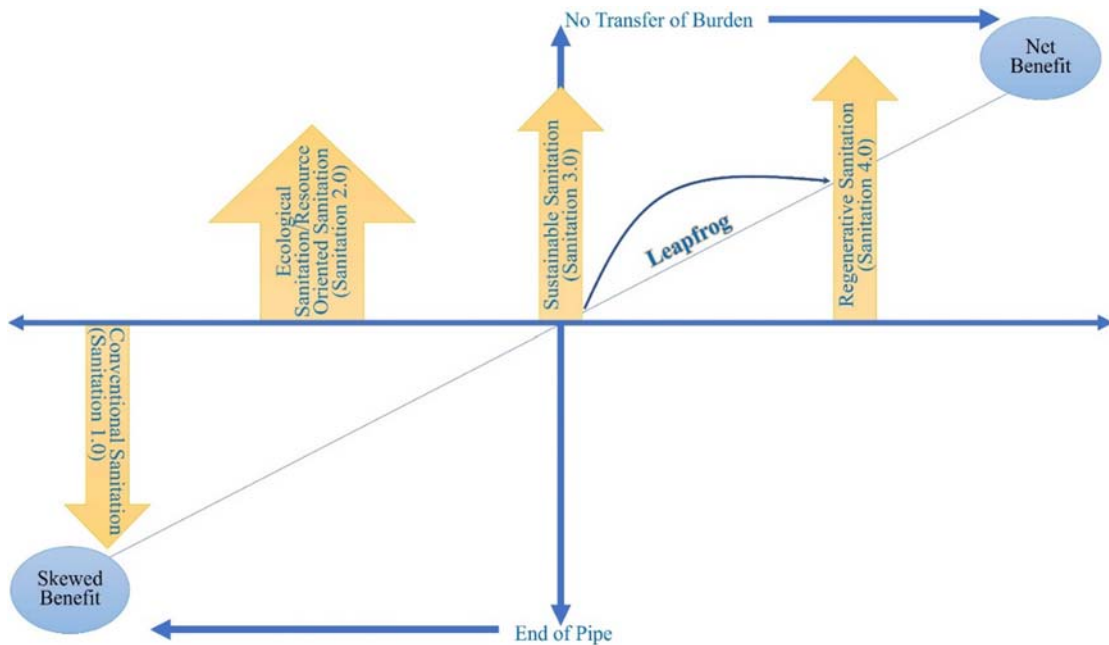


Figure 1.6 Trajectory of sanitation paradigms.

Figure 1.6 shows the progression of paradigms that influenced design and infrastructure solutions for sanitation management over the years and presents a new paradigmatic influence for the future of sanitation. The paradigms are grouped into four levels (Sanitation 1.0–4.0) and fall between two divides i.e. ‘end-of-pipe to skewed-benefits’ and ‘no-transfer-of-burden to net benefits’. On the lower left, the conventional sanitation paradigm (Sanitation 1.0), which was mainly based on the reductionist-mechanistic worldview, focused on end-of-pipe technologies that produced benefits skewed towards environmental and public health only. Subsequently, incremental progress led to the concepts built from the ecological sanitation paradigm (Sanitation 2.0), which found it difficult to move beyond pilot-scale levels due to psycho-social challenges, and then the sustainable sanitation paradigm (Sanitation 3.0) based on the concept of maintaining the status quo (i.e. no harm-no gain) whereby focus is on ensuring that sanitation practice does not cause harm without seeking any gains from it. However, in spite of the ecological and sustainable paradigms, the reductionist-mechanistic worldview persisted and focus remained on end-of-pipe technologies with skewed benefits. Consequently, the regenerative sanitation paradigm (Sanitation 4.0) is proposed as a holistic, integrated and systemic management of all sanitation components (and not just technology) to ensure no-transfer-of-burden on environmental and public health and deliver net benefits to areas including agriculture, aquaculture, economies and livelihoods.

1.4.5 Regenerative sanitation paradigm (sanitation 4.0)

The paradigm of ReGenSan, called sanitation 4.0, does not aim to present an undebatable truth (Meadows, 1999), but addresses the need for a change in the way sanitation is viewed considering the growing and seemingly giant-like challenges of 2030 and beyond. It is about learning new ways, seeking fresh answers from old ways, adapting to change with resilience and flexibility, thinking before acting and working to integrate and synergize the whole process of sanitation management into a whole system (and not just working from individual parts). The ReGenSan paradigm (sanitation 4.0), therefore, is conceptualized based on the principles of systemic internal processes for restoration and sustainability and addresses sanitation as a comprehensive and holistic integrated system incorporating all the unique characteristics of sanitation management from the starting point of a specific and peculiar ‘place’ (location). It sees sanitation as resource/service management rather than problem management. At its core is a process trail that works from within the system and the peculiarities of the ‘place’ to ensure resilience and adaptability. ReGenSan is at the same time a paradigm, framework and perspective for sanitation solutions. The overall aim of ReGenSan is to refocus the perspectives of researchers, professionals, practitioners, advocacy agents, policymakers and solution-providers from attacking a problem (of health, hygiene and water quality) to providing services and solutions; and ultimately, expand access as well as improve service towards achieving SDG no. 6 by 2030. The corresponding conceptual framework presented in this book is designed to reflect the process for the kind of sanitation practice that would fulfil this ambitious goal. It is hoped that this conceptualization will contribute to the success of sanitation management globally.

1.5 SANITATION CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

Concepts towards providing solutions or understanding phenomena are derived from existing paradigms. A conceptual framework is a domain-specific language tailored to a specific knowledge area or study discipline (Abelson & Sussman, 1987; Bentley, 1986; Hinkel *et al.*, 2014; Hudak, 1998). The elements of a framework are concepts, which are terms associated with a meaning and the conceptual relationship between them (Hinkel *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, a conceptual framework facilitates the exchange of arguments about a knowledge domain through having clear and unambiguous accounts of the concepts at stake and their relationships (Hinkel, 2008; Ionescu *et al.*, 2009; Wolf *et al.*, 2013). Sanitation conceptual frameworks (SCF) provide the premises and the parameters for research, investigations, interpretation, programme development and implementation of action plans for improving service and expanding access to meet SDG no. 6 by 2030.

A SCF will lay out key factors, constructs or variables, and presume the relationships among them (Campbell *et al.*, 2015; Miles & Huberman, 1994), as well as provide a template used for acknowledging and organizing the elements of related systems of interest to support further investigations. They will also illustrate the connected parts and potential interdependencies between broad system variables (Binder *et al.*, 2013; Repella, 2014) and support the formulations and comparisons of hypothesis, models and theories as well as provide general sets of concepts assumed to be applicable to the whole (Ostrom, 2005). The goal of such framework development is to stay as neutral as possible to allow the representation of different theories within the framework (Hinkel *et al.*, 2014). It is, therefore, expedient to investigate and understand some existing conceptual frameworks in the field of sanitation, such as:

- (I) Sanitation ladder – the most popular and one of the oldest, which has been used in many forms and cases ranging from toilets/latrines provision, full service chain delivery, hygiene behaviour, human right issues, financing sanitation, latrine ownership and MDG/SDG Joint Monitoring

- Programmes as well as in the community-led total sanitation for the eradication of open defecation (Exley *et al.*, 2014; Gine *et al.*, 2011; JMP, 2010; Kar & Chambers, 2008; Kvarnström *et al.*, 2011; Obeng *et al.*, 2015; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2017; Potter *et al.*, 2011; Verhagen & Carrasco, 2013; WHO/UNICEF, 2017);
- (II) Sanitation service chain – used in the analysis of physical flow of faecal waste through sewered and non-sewered systems, development of faecal waste flow matrix and diagrams to summarize city- or community-level outcomes and highlight bottleneck in faecal waste management. It is also used for business analysis of faecal sludge management and in the development of the global sanitation service technology filter tool (Blackett *et al.*, 2014; Chowdhry & Kone, 2012; Rao *et al.*, 2016; Strande *et al.*, 2014; Trémolet & Rama, 2012; USAID, 2016; WSP, 2014).
 - (III) Decision support – used in designs, testing, selections, sustainability and performance modelling of technologies from centralized to decentralized sanitation systems (Kalbermatten *et al.*, 1980, 1982; Katukiza *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Libralato *et al.*, 2012; Loetscher & Keller, 2002; Magid *et al.*, 2006; Maurer *et al.*, 2012; Massoud *et al.*, 2009; McConville *et al.*, 2014; Ramoa *et al.*, 2015; Roefs *et al.*, 2017; Simha *et al.*, 2017; Stenström *et al.*, 2011; Tilley *et al.*, 2014b; Tobias *et al.*, 2017; Zurbrügg & Tilley, 2007, 2009);
 - (IV) Designing for service – focused on resource utilization options for sanitation systems. These include concepts that deal with resource-oriented sanitation, recovery and reuse, integrated resource management, cradle-to-cradle, ecological sanitation and circular flow as well as recirculation of nutrients and organic matter (McDonough & Braungart, 2001a, b; Brands, 2014; Hodges, 2006; Langergräbera & Muelleggera, 2005; Larsen *et al.*, 2009, 2011; Murray & Buckley, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2006; Werner *et al.*, 2009; Wilsenach *et al.*, 2003; Wielemaker *et al.*, 2016);
 - (V) Spatial planning diagnostics – provides approaches and methodologies for detailed assessment of sanitation situations of regions, cities, urban, formal and informal settlement as well as rural areas to determine appropriate levels of intervention activities for programme implementation (ASHWAS, 2011; Bright-Davies *et al.*, 2016; GHK Research & Training, 2000; ISF-UTS & SNV, 2016; IWA, 2014; Kerstens *et al.*, 2016; Lüthi *et al.*, 2011a, b; Parkinson *et al.*, 2014; Schmitt *et al.*, 2017);
 - (VI) Equity and inclusion – designed to improve access to sanitation services for the society's vulnerable groups and people with disabilities (Desai *et al.*, 2016; Gosling, 2010; Patkar & Gosling, 2011);
 - (VII) Behavioural change – this software tool is used in various sanitation, hygiene and handwashing programmes, community-led total sanitation (CLTS) as well as sanitation solutions adoption and uptake (Dreibelbis *et al.*, 2013; Dwipayanti *et al.*, 2017; Kar & Chambers, 2008; Kvarnström *et al.*, 2004; O'Reilly & Louis, 2014; Peal *et al.*, 2010; Whittington *et al.*, 1993); and
 - (VIII) Capacity development assessment – designed to assess effectiveness and efficiency of sanitation capacity development programmes (Barat *et al.*, 2014; Crocker *et al.*, 2016; Gunawardana *et al.*, 2013; Mvulirwenande *et al.*, 2013; Ngai *et al.*, 2014; Pascual Sanz *et al.*, 2013).

These conceptual frameworks, however, are primarily technocentric and basically designed for implementation of conventional sanitation and to some extent ecological sanitation paradigms. Furthermore, there are no specific frameworks for governance and participation in sanitation management. Therefore, a holistic, integrated and systemic sanitation conceptual framework that embraces the complexities inherent in providing sanitation solutions rather than simplistic recipes is

demanded to enhance access expansion and improved service delivery (Meinzen-Dick, 2007; Pahl-Wostl, 2007; Pahl-Wostl *et al.*, 2010). Hence, the main contribution of this book is to provide such a framework (or model) known as the regenerative sanitation framework, which is not technocentric and toilet-latrines-focused but where all key critical aspects of sanitation subsystems, dimensions and components are interlinked for total rejuvenation and revitalization of the whole spectrum of sanitation management systems as well as for the development and implementation of innovative solutions. Providing comprehensive sanitation solutions for the current global challenges depends not only on availability of technology, but also on many other factors like management of sanitation delivery, quality of institutions that manage them, prevailing psycho-socio-cultural, economic and ecological conditions that influence sanitation planning, technology design and development, management processes and practice, as well as financial and governance mechanisms (Starkl *et al.*, 2015; Tilley *et al.*, 2014a; Zurbrugg & Tilley, 2009).

Sanitation in this book is used to mean the systemic integration of measures for managing human waste in a safe and resourceful pattern adapted to fit specific and peculiar contexts (Box 1.5). It is a systemic integration in that it flows from the 'place' of human interactions (pyschosocio-cultural-economic) with the ecosystem (ecological, bio-geo-physical) to interconnect with the governance (institutional, policy and regulatory mechanisms), resource recovery (recovery and reuse of excreta/urine-flushed water i.e. black and greywater) and technology (infrastructure-utilities) to improve service delivery and access expansion.

BOX 1.5 IN SUMMARY

Sanitation is the treatment and management of by-products of human digestion.

The issue at present is not whether such an approach is desirable, but rather how can this be achieved in the real world? The central idea is the need for broader integration with all the system components of sanitation, minimized transport, local orientation, hybridization of centralized and decentralized systems, source separation and resource recovery, management and governance (Agudelo-Vera *et al.*, 2012; Larsen & Maurer, 2011; Lens *et al.*, 2001; Kujawa-Roeleveld & Zeeman, 2006; Larsen *et al.*, 2009; Maurer *et al.*, 2012; Nansubuga *et al.*, 2016; Tchobanoglous & Leverenz, 2013; van Vliet *et al.*, 2010, 2011; Zeeman, 2012).

1.6 CHANGE IS IMPERATIVE

For the SDG to do better than the MDG in sanitation, new strategies and concepts must be developed. ReGenSan offers a new perspective in debates at various levels on sanitation and its management towards the need for a paradigm shift. Nevertheless it is not quite new per se, as shall be seen in subsequent chapters, but builds on the strengths of historical successes in combination with an understanding of current trends to offer a new kind of prerogative outlook. It attempts to avoid the argument of what is wrong or right, but weaves around existing concepts and ideas to create an integrative system to guide thoughts towards greater and enduring successes.

In addition, instead of seeing sanitation as a problem or rather a storehouse of resource, it views sanitation as an entity in itself that is resourceful, with psycho-social, economic, cultural and ecological angles that could support livelihood and societal interactions. In fact, a sanitation economy could be envisaged in that there will be producers, consumers, service providers, policymakers and regulators. ReGenSan

works as a complex and dynamic phenomenon that is influenced by society, livelihood, status, economy, culture, tradition, geography and ecology, all of which can change gradually or suddenly. This implies the need for continuous and constant change to match the changes in society, geography and ecology, especially with climate change and livelihoods concerns.

1.7 EXERCISES

- (I) What is the regenerative sanitation paradigm and how does it differ from the other pre-existing paradigms?
- (II) What is the relationship between the ecological-systemic worldview and the regenerative paradigm and how does it support the regenerative sanitation concept?
- (III) How does regenerative sanitation relate to:
 - (a) Regenerative science and medicine
 - (b) Regenerative development and design
 - (c) Regenerative agriculture
 - (d) Regenerative economy and capitalism
- (IV) What are the common features in the five fields above and how are they uniquely applied?
- (V) Why do you think the conventional sanitation paradigm has been predominant through the years?
- (VI) Why do you think sanitation solutions have been more technology-focused and less systemic-holistic-integrative in all pre-existing paradigms?
- (VII) What worldview and paradigms are the highlighted conceptual frameworks (and any others you can identify) based on, in your opinion, and why?
- (VIII) In your opinion, why do we need a paradigm shift in sanitation? How will this affect the provision of sanitation services and infrastructure? What are the possibilities of such a shift and its impact on the way sanitation is perceived and addressed? And how will this affect sanitation technologies?
- (IX) Where do you see technology design and development in a concept like regenerative sanitation? What do you think is involved in the design process of sanitation technologies in a regenerative future?
- (X) Do you agree that change in the way of sanitation is handled is imperative if we are to meet SDG no. 6 goals and targets for sanitation by 2030?
- (XI) How do you think regenerative sanitation can impact the sanitation targets of SDG no. 6?
- (XII) What determines the dynamics of a transition from the reductionist-mechanistic conventional sanitation paradigm to a more systemic, holistic and integrative technological and management solution? What are the barriers and the drivers needed for this transition?

1.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are a number of knowledge gaps around the application of the concept of regenerative design and development in sanitation research; therefore further research is needed for better understanding of the ReGenSan concept:

- (I) Investigate the ways worldviews and existing paradigms affect sanitation management and technology design.
- (II) Empirical investigation of existing sanitation conceptual frameworks to determine their efficacy, effectiveness, efficiency and fitness for purpose as well as optimization.

- (III) Explore the possibilities of the interlinkages between the existing frameworks for synergistic results.
- (IV) Explore further research on pre-existing paradigms as well as research to deepen understanding and create a mix for conceptualization.
- (V) Critical review to determine the meaning of sanitation, what it entails, how it works and its impacts on humanity and ecosystem.

REFERENCES

- Abelson H. and Sussman G. J. (1987). Lisp: a language for stratified design. *Byte*, **13**(2), 207–218.
- Aerts D., Apostel L., De Moor B., Hellemans S., Maex E., van Belle H. and van der Veken J. (2007). World Views. From Fragmentation to Integration, Internet edn. VUB Press, Brussels. <http://www.vub.ac.be/CLEA/pub/books/worldviews.pdf> (accessed 2 February 2008).
- Agudelo-Vera C. M., Mels A., Keesman K. and Rijnaarts H. (2012). The urban harvest approach as an aid for sustainable urban resource planning. *Journal of Industrial Ecology*, **16**, 839–850.
- Aida L. and Carrel A. (2014). Visionary vascular surgeon and pioneer in organ transplantation. *Journal of Medical Biography*, (3), 172–175.
- Akturk A. (2016). Regenerative Design and Development for a Sustainable Future: Definitions and Tool Evaluation. M. S. thesis, University of Minnesota, USA. Retrieved from the University of Minnesota Digital Conservancy. <http://hdl.handle.net/11299/182113>
- Altaf S. W. (2011). So Much Aid, So Little Development: Stories from Pakistan. Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, USA.
- Anarow B., Greener C., Gupta V., Kinsley M., Henderson J., Page C. and Parrot K. (2003). Whole-Systems framework for sustainable consumption and production. *Denmark: Danish Ministry of the Environment*, **807**, 1–51.
- Andersson K., Dickin S. and Rosemarin A. (2016a). Towards ‘sustainable’ sanitation: challenges and opportunities in urban areas. *Sustainability*, **8**, 1289.
- Andersson K., Rosemarin A., Lamizana B., Kvarnström E., McConville J., Seidu R., Dickin S. and Trimmer C. (2016b). Sanitation, Wastewater Management and Sustainability: From Waste Disposal to Resource Recovery. United Nations Environment Programme and Stockholm Environment Institute, Nairobi and Stockholm. <https://www.sei-international.org/mediamanager/documents/Publications/SEI-UNEP-2016-SanWWM&Sustainability.pdf> (accessed 9 November 2017).
- Andersson M. and Minoia P. (2017). Ecological sanitation: a sustainable goal with local choices. A case study from Taita Hills, Kenya. *African Geographical Review*, **36**(2), 183–199, doi: 10.1080/19376812.2015.1134336
- Apul D. (2010). Ecological design principles and their implications on water infrastructure engineering. *Journal of Green Building*, **5**(3), 147e164, doi: 10.3992/jgb.5.3.147
- Ashley K., Cordell D. and Mavinic D. (2011). A brief history of phosphorus: from the philosopher’s stone to nutrient recovery and reuse. *Chemosphere*, **84**(6), 737–746, doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.03.001. PMID: 21481914
- ASHWAS (2011). ASHWAS Process Handbook: Planning and Execution Guide for Participatory Surveys on Household Water and Sanitation. Arghyam, Bengaluru 560 008, Karnataka, India.
- Balkema A. J., Preisig H. A., Otterpohl R. and Lambert F. J. D. (2002). Indicators for the sustainability assessment of wastewater treatment systems. *Urban Water*, **4**, 153–161.
- Banerjee S. G. and Morella E. (2011). Africa’s Water and Sanitation Infrastructure: Access, Affordability, and Alternatives. Directions in Development; Infrastructure. World Bank, Washington D.C., USA. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/712211468202191672/Africas-water-and-sanitation-infrastructure-access-affordability-and-alternatives> (accessed 27 May 2017).
- Barat M. A., Bhandari B. and Wali S. (2014). Capacity building and training services in the WASH sector in Afghanistan. 37th WEDC International Conference, Hanoi, Vietnam, pp. 1–5.
- Barros P., Ruiz I. and Soto M. (2008). Performance of an anaerobic digester-constructed wetland system for a small community. *Ecological Engineering*, **33**(2), 142–149.

- Bartram J. and Cairncross S. (2010). Hygiene, Sanitation, and Water: forgotten Foundations of Health. *PLoS Medicine*, **7**(11), 1–9, doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000367
- Benetto E., Nguyen D., Lohmann T., Schmitt B. and Schosseler P. (2009). Life cycle assessment of ecological sanitation system for small-scale wastewater treatment. *Science of the Total Environment*, 1506–1516, doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2008.11.016
- Benne B. and Mang P. (2015). Working regeneratively across scales-insights from nature applied to the built environment. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **109**, 42–52. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.02.037>
- Bentley J. (1986). Programming pearls: little languages. *Communications of the ACM*, **29**(8), 711–721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/6424.315691>
- Binder C. R., Hinkel J., Bots P. W. G. and Pahl-Wostl C. (2013). Comparison of frameworks for analyzing social-ecological systems. *Ecology and Society*, **18**(4), 26, 1–19.
- Blackett I., Hawkins P. and Heymans C. (2014). Targeting the Urban Poor and Improving Services in Small Towns. The Missing Link in Sanitation Service Delivery: A Review of Fecal Sludge Management in 12 Cities. Water and Sanitation Program (WSP) Research Brief. April 2014. WSP, World Bank, Washington DC, USA.
- Bos A. and Gijzen H. (October 2005). Health benefits versus costs of water supply and sanitation. *Water*, **21**(7.5), 1–72.
- Bracken P., Wachtier A., Panesar A. R. and Lange J. (2006). The road not taken: how traditional excreta and greywater management may point the way to a sustainable future. *Water Science & Technology: Water Supply*, **7**(1), 219–227, doi: 10.2166/ws.2007.025
- Brands E. (2014). Prospects and challenges for sustainable sanitation in developed nations: a critical review. *Environmental Reviews*, **22**, 1–18, doi: 10.1139/er-2013-0082
- Brepolsa C. H., Dorgeloh E., Frechen F. B., Fuchs W., Haider S., Joss A., de Korte K., Ruiken C. H., Schier W., van der Roest H., Wett M. and Wozniak T. H. (2008). Upgrading and retrofitting of municipal wastewater treatment plants by means of membrane bioreactor (MBR) technology. *Desalination*, **231**, 20–26.
- Bright-Davies L., Schmidt A., Duma L. and Mbuduka F. (2016). 5 step planning guide: which solutions go where? Case Study: Dar es Salaam, Tanzania Solutions for residential & commercial areas. Produced by BORDA.
- Brikke F. (2000). Operation and Maintenance of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Systems: A Training Package for Managers and Planners. World Health Organization Geneva, Switzerland. http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/66716/1/WHO_SDE_WSH_00.2_p1-124.pdf (accessed 30 April 2017).
- Brown P. and Garver G. (2008). In Right Relationship, Building a Whole Earth Economy. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, San Francisco, USA.
- Butler D. and Parkinson J. (1997). Towards sustainable urban drainage. *Water Science and Technology*, **35**(9), 53–63, doi: 10.1016/S0273-1223(97)00184-4
- Campbell O. M. R., Benova L., Gon G., Afsana K. and Cumming O. (2015). Getting the basic rights – the role of water, sanitation and hygiene in maternal and reproductive health: a conceptual framework. *Tropical Medicine and International Health*, **20**(3), 252–267, doi: 10.1111/tmi.12439
- Capodaglio A. G. (2017). Integrated, decentralized wastewater management for resource recovery in rural and peri-urban areas. *Resources*, **6**, 22, 1–20, doi: 10.3390/resources6020022
- Capra F. (1997). The Web of Life. Doubleday-Anchor Books, New York, USA.
- Capra F. (2002). The Hidden Connections: Integrating the Biological, Cognitive, and Social Dimensions of Life into a Science of Sustainability. Doubleday, New York, USA.
- Checkland P. (1997). Systems Thinking, Systems Practice. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, Chichester, UK.
- Cheng J. J., Schuster-Wallace C. J., Watt S., Newbold B. K. and Mente A. (2012). An ecological quantification of the relationships between water, sanitation and infant, child, and maternal mortality. *Archives of Environmental Health*, **11**(1), 1–8, doi: 10.1186/1476-069X-11-4
- Chinyama A., Chipato P. T. and Mangore E. (2012). Sustainable sanitation systems for low income urban areas – a case of the city of Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. *Physics and Chemistry of the Earth*, **50–52**, 233–238, doi: 10.1016/j.pce.2012.08.010
- Chowdhry S. and Kone D. (2012). Business Analysis of Fecal Sludge Management: Emptying and Transportation Services in Africa and Asia. Draft Final Report. Sponsored by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. http://www.susana.org/_resources/documents/default/2-1662-chowdhury-2012-business.pdf (accessed 27 May 2017).

- Cofie O., Nikiema J., Impraim R., Adamtey N., Paul J. and Kone D. (2016). Co-Composting of Solid Waste and Fecal Sludge for Nutrient and Organic Matter Recovery. International Water Management Institute (IWMI), Colombo, Sri Lanka, CGIAR Research Program on Water, Land and Ecosystems (WLE). 47p. (Resource Recovery and Reuse Series 3). <http://dx.doi.org/10.5337/2016.204>
- Cole R. J., Charest S. and Schroeder S. (2006). Beyond Green: Drawing on Nature (For the Royal Architectural Institute of Canada's 'Beyond Green: Adaptive, Restorative and Regenerative Design' course – SDCB 305). The University of British Columbia.
- Cole R. J., Busby P., Guenther R., Briney L., Blaviesciunaite A. and Alencar T. (2012). A regenerative design framework: setting new aspirations and initiating new discussions. *Building Research & Information*, **40**(1), 95–111, doi: 10.1080/09613218.2011.616098
- Cookey P. E., Koottatep T., van der Steen P. and Lens P. N. L. (2016). Public health risk assessment tool: strategy to improve public policy framework for onsite wastewater treatment systems (OWTS). *Journal of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for Development*, **06.1**, 74–88, doi: 10.2166/washdev.2016.081
- Cooper P. F. (2001). Historical aspects of wastewater treatment: Chapter 2. In: Decentralised Sanitation and Reuse – Concepts, Systems and Implementation, P. Lens, G. Zeeman and G. Lettinga (eds), IWA Publishing, the Hague, Netherlands.
- Crocker J., Shields K. F., Venkataramanan V., Saywell D. and Bartram J. (2016). Building capacity for water, sanitation, and hygiene programming: training evaluation theory applied to CLTS management training in Kenya. *Social Science & Medicine*, **166**, 66–76.
- Delleur J. W. (2003). The evolution of urban hydrology: past, present, and future. *Journal of Hydraulic Engineering*, **129**(8), 563–573, doi: 10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9429(2003)129:8(563)
- Desai G., Willbur J., Ram P., Jensen J. N., Lenker J. and Smith K. (2016). Sanitation for all: a framework for research and practice to improve equity for people with disabilities. 39th WEDC International Conference, Kumasi, Ghana.
- DeWitt R. (2010). *Worldviews: An Introduction to the History and Philosophy of Science*. Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford, UK.
- Domènech L. and Saurí D. (2010). Socio-technical transitions in water scarcity contexts: public acceptance of greywater reuse technologies in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona. *Resources Conservation and Recycling*, **55**, 53–62.
- Drangert J. O. (1998). Fighting the urine blindness to provide more sanitation options. *Water SA*, **24**(2), 157–164. http://www.wrc.org.za/Knowledge%20Hub%20Documents/Water%20SA%20Journals/Manuscripts/1998/02/WaterSA_1998_02_apr98_p157.pdf (accessed 6 November 2013).
- Dreibelbis R., Winch P. J., Leontsini E., Hulland K. R. S., Ram P. K., Unicomb L. and Luby S. P. (2013). The Integrated Behavioural Model for Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene: a systematic review of behavioural models and a framework for designing and evaluating behavioural change interventions in infrastructure-restricted settings. *BMC Public Health*, **13**, 10–15. <http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2458/13/1015> (accessed 29 May 2017).
- Du Plessis C. and Brandon P. (2015). An ecological worldview as basis for a regenerative sustainability paradigm for the built environment. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **109**, 53–61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.09.098>
- Du Plessis C. and Cole R. J. (2011). Motivating change: shifting the paradigm. *Building Research & Information*, **39**(5), 436–449.
- DWAF (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry) (2008a). the National Sanitation Bucket Replacement Programme – Lessons Learnt. http://www.ewisa.co.za/misc/WIN_SA_Facts/WIN%20SA/TheNSRPLessonLearnt.pdf (accessed 12 July 2017).
- DWAF (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry) (2008b). Free Basic Sanitation Implementation Strategy. Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, Pretoria. https://www.dwaf.gov.za/dir_ws/wspd/policyinfo.aspx?file=556 (accessed 1 February 2010).
- Dwipayanti N. M. U., Phung T. D., Shannon R. and Chu C. (2017). Towards sustained sanitation services: a review of existing frameworks and an alternative framework combining ecological and sanitation life stage approaches. *Journal of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for Development*, (1), 25–42, doi: 10.2166/washdev.2017.086
- Ekane N., Nykvist B., Kjellén M., Noel S. and Weitz N. (2014). Multi-level sanitation governance: understanding and overcoming the challenges in the sanitation sector in Sub-Saharan Africa. Working paper no. 2014–4. Stockholm

- Environment Institute. <https://www.sei-international.org/mediamanager/documents/Publications/Water-sanitation/sei-workingpaper-ekane-multi-level-sanitation.pdf> (accessed 8 May 2017).
- Elzein Z., Abdou A. and Abd Elgawad I. (2016). Constructed wetlands as a sustainable wastewater treatment method in communities. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, **34**, 605–617.
- EMF (2012). Towards the Circular Economy: Opportunities for the consumer goods sector, vol. 1. <https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/assets/downloads/publications/Ellen-MacArthur-Foundation-Towards-the-Circular-Economy-vol.1.pdf> (accessed 7 September 2017).
- EMF (2013). Towards the Circular Economy: Opportunities for the consumer goods sector, vol. 2. https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/assets/downloads/publications/TCE_Report-2013.pdf (accessed 7 September 2017).
- Esrey S. A. (2001). Towards a recycling society ecological sanitation – closing the loop to food security. *Water Science & Technology*, **43**(4), 177–187.
- European Commission (2015). In: Innovation, D.-G.F.R.A. (ed.), Towards an EU Research and Innovation Policy Agenda for Nature-based Solutions & Re-naturing Cities – Final Report of the Horizon 2020 Expert Group. European Commission, Directorate General for Research and Innovation, Brussels, Belgium, p. 74.
- Exley J. L. R., Liseka B., Cumming O. and Ensink J. H. J. (2014). The sanitation ladder, what constitutes an improved form of sanitation? *Advances in Environmental Science and Technology*, **49**, 1086–1094, doi: 10.1021/es503945x
- Fam D. M. and Mitchell C. A. (2012). Sustainable innovation in wastewater management: lessons for nutrient recovery and reuse. *Local Environment: The International Journal of Justice and Sustainability*, **18**(7), 769–780, doi: 10.1080/13549839.2012.716408
- Fan B., Hu M., Wang H., Xu M., Qu B. and Zhu S. (2017). Get in sanitation 2.0 by opportunity of rural China: scheme, simulating application and life cycle assessment. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **147**, 86–95.
- Fewtrell L., Kaufmann R. B., Kay D., Enanoria W., Haller L. and Colford J. M. (2005). Water, sanitation, and hygiene interventions to reduce diarrhoea in less developed countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases*, **5**(1), 42–52, doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(04)01253-8
- Fullerton J. (2015). Regenerative Capitalism – How Universal Principles and Patterns Will Shape Our New Economy. The Regenerative Framework & White Paper. <http://capitalinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/2015-Regenerative-Capitalism-4-20-15-final.pdf> (accessed 6 October 2017).
- Galli G., Nothomb C. and Baetings E. (2014). Towards Systemic Change in Urban Sanitation. IRC Working Paper. The Hague, Netherlands.
- Geels F. (2005). Co-evolution of technology and society: the transition in water supply and personal hygiene in the Netherlands (1850–1930) – a case study in multilevel perspective. *Technology in Society*, **27**, 363–397.
- Geels F. W. (2006). The hygienic transition from cesspools to sewer systems (1840–1930): the dynamics of regime transformation. *Research Policy*, **35**(7), 1069–1082.
- GHK Research and Training (2000). Strategic Planning for Municipal Sanitation: A Guide. Published in association with Water, Engineering and Development Centre (WEDC) and Water and Sanitation Program for South Asia (WSP-SA), London. <https://www.ircwash.org/sites/default/files/302.5-00ST-16187.pdf> (accessed 13 May 2017).
- Gine R., Jimenez A. and Perez-Foguet A. (2011). The Future of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: Innovation, Adaptation and Engagement in a Changing World – A Closer Look at the Sanitation Ladder: Issues of Monitoring the Sector. Water, Engineering and Development Centre International Conference. 35th WEDC International Conference: The Future of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene in Low-Income Countries: Innovation, Adaptation and Engagement in a Changing World, Loughborough, UK. <http://hdl.handle.net/2117/14199>
- Giné-Garriga R., Flores-Baquero O., de Palencia A. J. and Pérez-Foguet A. (2017). Monitoring sanitation and hygiene in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: a review through the lens of human rights. *Science of the Total Environment*, **580**, 1108–1119.
- Gosling L. (2010). Equity and inclusion: a rights-based approach. A WaterAid report, London, UK. file:///C:/Users/NATS/Downloads/equity%20and%20inclusion%20framework.pdf (accessed 20 June 2017).

- Graham P. M. (2003). *Building Ecology. First Principles for a Sustainable Built Environment*. Blackwell Science Ltd, Oxford, UK.
- GTZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit) (2002). *Ecosan – recycling beats disposal*. Eschborn (Germany) 7 GTZ. <http://www.waterfund.go.ke/watersource/Downloads/002.%20ecosan-projectinfo-2002.pdf> (accessed 9 September 2018).
- Gunawardana I., Leendertse K. and Handoko W. (2013). Monitoring outcomes and impacts of capacity development in the water sector: a Cap-Net UNDP experience. *Water Policy*, **15**, 226–241. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2166/wp.2013.121>
- Guterstam B. and Todd J. (1990). Ecological engineering for wastewater treatment and its application in New England and Sweden. *Ambio*, **19**, 173–175.
- Halbe J., Pahl-Wostl C., Sendzimir J. and Adamowski J. (2013). Towards adaptive and integrated management paradigms to meet the challenges of water governance. *Water Science & Technology*, **67**(11), 2651–2660, doi: 10.2166/wst.2013.146
- Hallerod B., Rothstein B., Daoud A. and Nandy S. (2013). Bad governance and poor children: a comparative analysis of government efficiency and severe child deprivation in 68 low- and middle-income countries. *World Development*, **48**(1), 19–31.
- Haq G. and Cambridge H. (2012). Exploiting the co-benefits of ecological sanitation. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, **4**(4), 431–435.
- Harman W. (1970). *An Incomplete Guide to the Future*. W.W. Norton, San Francisco, USA.
- Hegger D. L. T., van Vliet J. and van Vliet B. J. M. (2007). Niche management and its contribution to regime change: the case of innovation in sanitation. *Technology Analysis and Strategic Management*, **19**, 729–746.
- Heylighen F. (2006). The Newtonian World View. *Principia Cybernetica Web*. Online. <http://pespmc1.vub.ac.be/NEWTONWV.html> (accessed 15 May 2014).
- Hiessl H., Toussaint D., Becker M., Dyrbusch A., Geisler S., Herbst H. and Prager J. U. (2003). *Alternativen der kommunalen Wasserversorgung und Abwasserentsorgung (Alternatives of Municipal Water Supply and Sanitation)*, AKWA 2100. Physica-Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany.
- Hinkel J. (2008). *Transdisciplinary Knowledge Integration: Cases from Integrated Assessment and Vulnerability Assessment*. PhD thesis, Wageningen University, Wageningen, Netherlands. http://ciret-transdisciplinarity.org/biblio/biblio_pdf/Hinkel.pdf
- Hinkel J., Bots P. W. G. and Schluter M. (2014). Enhancing the Ostrom social–ecological system framework through formalization. *Ecology and Society*, **19**(3), 51, 1–19, doi: 10.5751/ES-06475-190351.
- Hodges N. (2006). *Regenerative Design Theory and Practice: A Demonstration of the Integrated Framework in a Resort Development at Mountain Lake, VA*. Master’s thesis, Virginia Polytechnic and State University. <https://theses.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-05082006-101306/>
- Hu M., Fan B., Wang H., Qu B. and Zhu S. (2016). Constructing the ecological sanitation: a review on technology and methods. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **125**, 1–21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.03.012>
- Hudak P. (1998). Modular domain specific languages and tools. *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Software Reuse, IEEE, Bangalore, India*, pp. 134–142. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/ICSR.1998.685738>
- Hutton G. and Varughese M. (2016). The Costs of Meeting the 2030 Sustainable Development Goal Targets on Drinking Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene. *Water and Sanitation Program (WSP): Technical Paper 103171*. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/415441467988938343/pdf/103171-PUB-Box394556B-PUBLIC-EPI-K8543-ADD-SERIES.pdf> (accessed 5 October 2017).
- Illingworth C. M. (1974). Trapped fingers and amputated finger tips in children. *European Journal of Pediatric Surgery*, **9**(6), 853–858.
- Ionescu C., Klein R. J. T., Hinkel J., Kumar K. S. K. and Klein R. (2009). Towards a formal framework of vulnerability to climate change. *Environmental Modelling and Assessment*, **14**(1), 1–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10666-008-9179-x>
- ISF-UTS & SNV (2016). ‘Are we doing the right thing? Critical questioning for city sanitation planning’. Institute for Sustainable Futures, University of Technology Sydney and SNV Netherlands Development Organization. <https://>

- www.uts.edu.au/sites/default/files/Arewedoingtherightthing-criticalquestioningforcitysanitationplanning.pdf (accessed 2 May 2017).
- IWA (2014). Sanitation 21 – a planning framework for improving city-wide sanitation services. Publication supported by Sandec-EAWAG and Switzerland, GIZ, Germany.
- IWA (2016a). Water Utility Pathways in a Circular Economy. http://www.iwa-network.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/IWA_Circular_Economy_screen-1.pdf (accessed 7 September 2016).
- IWA (24:2016b). Non-sewered sanitation systems – General safety and performance requirements for design and testing. <https://www.iso.org/standard/70604.html> (accessed 9 May 2017).
- Jantsch E. (1980). *The Self-Organizing Universe: Scientific and Human Applications of the Emerging Paradigm of Evolution*. Pergamon, New York, USA.
- Jenkin S. and Pedersen Z. M. (2009). *Rethinking Our Built Environments: Towards a Sustainable Future*. A Research Document. Ministry for the Environment, Manatu Mo Te Taiao, Wellington, New Zealand. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/261476724_Rethinking_our_built_environments_Towards_a_sustainable_future (accessed 10 February 2018).
- Joint Monitoring Programme (2015). *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment*. Report of the Joint Monitoring Programme of the World Health Organization, Geneva and UNICEF, New York, USA. https://data.unicef.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Progress-on-Sanitation-and-Drinking-Water_234.pdf (accessed 10 February 2018).
- Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) (2010). *The drinking-water and sanitation ladders*. Report of the Joint Monitoring Programme of the World Health Organization, Geneva and UNICEF, New York, USA. www.wssinfo.org/definitions-methods/watsan-ladder/ (accessed 13 March 2012).
- Joshi D. K., Hughes B. B. and Sisk T. D. (2015). Improving governance for the post-2015 sustainable development goals: scenario forecasting the next 50 years. *World Development*, **70**, 286–302, 2015 0305–750X. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2015.01.013>
- Kalbermatten J. M., Julius D. S., Mara D. D. and Gunnerson C. G. (1980). *Appropriate Technology for Water Supply and Sanitation A Planner's Guide*. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/the World Bank. <https://www.irwash.org/sites/default/files/201-80AP-19010.pdf> (accessed 27 May 2017).
- Kalbermatten J. M., Julius D. S. and Cunnerson C. G. (1982). *Appropriate sanitation alternatives: a technical and economic appraisal*. World Bank Studies in Water Supply and Sanitation no. 1. The World Bank. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/637021468740368977/Appropriate-sanitation-alternatives-a-technical-and-economic-appraisal> (accessed 27 May 2017).
- Kar K. and Chambers R. (2008). *Handbook on Community-Led Total Sanitation*, Plan International (UK). London, UK.
- Katukiza A. Y., Ronteltap M., Oleja A., Niwagaba C. B., Kansiime F. and Lens P. N. L. (2010). Selection of sustainable sanitation technologies for urban slums – a case of Bwaise III in Kampala, Uganda. *Science of the Total Environment*, **409**, 52–62.
- Katukiza A. Y., Ronteltap M., Niwagaba C. B., Foppen J. W. A., Kansiime F. and Lens P. N. L. (2012). Sustainable sanitation technology options for urban slums. *Biotechnology Advances*, **30**, 964–978.
- Kauffman S. (1995). *At Home in the Universe: The Search for Laws of Self-Organization and Complexity*. Oxford University Press, New York, USA.
- Kearney M. (1984). *Worldviews*. Chandler & Sharp, Novato, USA.
- Keraita B., Drechsel P., Klutse A. and Cofie O. (2014). On-farm treatment options for wastewater, greywater and fecal sludge with special reference to West Africa. CGIAR Research Program on Water, Land and Ecosystems (WLE). 32p. (Resource Recovery and Reuse Series 1). Colombo, Sri Lanka: International Water Management Institute (IWMI).
- Kerstens S. M., Spiller M., Leusbrock I. and Zeeman G. (2016). A new approach to nationwide sanitation planning for developing countries: case study of Indonesia. *Science of the Total Environment*, **550**, 676–689.
- Kibert C. J., Sendzimir J. and Guy G. B. (2002). *Construction Ecology: Nature as the Basis for Green Buildings*. Spon Press, London, UK and New York, USA.
- Koltko-Rivera M. E. (2004). The psychology of worldviews. *Review of General Psychology*, **8**, 3–58.

- Kragl M., Knapp D., Nacu E., Khattak S., Maden M. and Epperlein H. H. (2009). Cells keep a memory of their tissue origin during axolotl limb regeneration. *Bionature*, **460**, 60–65.
- Kuhn T. S. (1962). *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, USA.
- Kujawa-Roeleveld K. and Zeeman G. (2006). Anaerobic treatment in decentralized and source-separation-based sanitation concepts. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Bio/Technology*, **5**, 115–139.
- Kuznyetsov V. (2007). Millennium Development Goals – Problems of Turning Commitment into Reality. Stockholm International Water Institute: Abstract Volume World Water Week, Stockholm, August 12–18, 2007.
- Kvarnström E., Bracken P., Karman E., Finnson A. and Saywell D. (2004). People-Centred Approaches to Water and Environmental Sanitation. Proceedings of the 30th WEDC International Conference, Vientiane, Lao, PDR: WEDC.
- Kvarnström E., Emilsson K., Stintzing A. R., Johansson M., Jönsson H., af Petersens E., Schönning C., Christensen J., Hellström D., Qvarnström L., Ridderstolpe P. and Drangert J. (2006). Urine Diversion: One Step Towards Sustainable Sanitation. Stockholm Environmental Institute, Stockholm, Sweden.
- Kvarnström E., McConville J., Bracken P., Johansson M. and Fogde M. (2011). The sanitation ladder – a need for a revamp? *Journal of Water Sanitation and Hygiene for Development*, **1**(1), 3–12.
- Langergraber G. and Muellegger E. (2005). Ecological Sanitation – a way to solve global sanitation problems? *Environment International*, **31**(2005), 433–444.
- Larsen T. A. (2011). Redesigning wastewater infrastructure to improve resource efficiency. *Water Science and Technology*, **63**(11), 2535–2541.
- Larsen T. A. and Maurer M. (2011). Source separation and decentralization. In: *Treatise on Water Science*, P. Wilderer (ed.), Elsevier, Oxford, UK, pp. 203–229.
- Larsen T. A., Alder A. C., Eggen R. I., Maurer A. and Lienert J. (2009). Source separation: will we see a paradigm shift in wastewater handling. *Environmental Science & Technology*, **43**, 6121–6125.
- Larsen T. A., Maurer M., Eggen R. I. L., Pronk W. and Lienert J. (2010). Decision support in urban water management based on generic scenarios: the example of NoMix technology. *Journal of Environmental Management*, **91**, 2676–2687.
- Leclerc M. (2005). The ecohydraulics paradigm shift: IAHR enters a New Era. *Journal of Hydraulic Research*, **43**(4 suppl.), 63–64.
- Lenhoff H. M. and Lenhoff S. G. (1991). Abraham Trembley and the origins of research on regeneration in animals. In: *A History of Regeneration Research. Milestones in the Evolution of a Science*, C. E. Dinsmore (ed.), Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, pp. 47–66.
- Lens P., Zeeman G. and Lettinga G. (2001). *Decentralized Sanitation and Reuse: Concepts, Systems and Implementation*. IWA Publishing, London, UK.
- Lia Buarque D. M. G. (2012). Sociotechnical design for a sustainable world. *Theoretical Issues in Ergonomics Science*, **13**(2), 240–269, doi: 10.1080/1463922X.2011.641230
- Libralato G., Ghirardini A. V. and Avezzu F. (2012). To centralize or to decentralize: an overview of the most recent trends in wastewater treatment management. *Journal of Environmental Management*, **94**(1), 61–68.
- Lietaer B., Arnspurger C., Goerner S. and Brunnhuber S. (2012). *Money and Sustainability, The Missing Link*. Triarchy Press, Charmouth, UK.
- Littman J. A. (2009). *Regenerative Architecture: A Pathway Beyond Sustainability*. Master's thesis, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, USA. <http://scholarworks.umass.edu/theses/303> (accessed 5 April, 2017).
- Loetscher T. and Keller J. (2002). A decision support system for selecting sanitation systems in developing countries. *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences*, **36**, 267–290.
- Lopes A. M., Fam D. and Williams J. (2012). Designing sustainable sanitation: involving design in innovative, transdisciplinary research. *Design Studies*, **33**, 298–317, doi: 10.1016/j.destud.2011.08.005
- Lüthi C., Morel A., Tilley E. and Ulrich L. (2011a). *Community-Led Urban Environmental Sanitation Planning (CLUES)*; Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology (EAWAG) Dübendorf, Switzerland. http://www.susana.org/_resources/documents/default/2-1300-cluesguid.pdf (accessed 14 May 2017).

- Lüthi C., Panesar A., Schütze T., Norström A., McConville J., Parkinson J., Saywell D. and Ingle R. (2011b). Sustainable Sanitation in Cities: A Framework for Action. Papiroz Publishing House, Rijswijk, Netherlands.
- Lyle J. T. (1994). Regenerative Design for Sustainable Development. John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken.
- Magid J., Eilersen A. M., Wrisberg S. and Henze M. (2006). Possibilities and barriers for recirculation of nutrients and organic matter from urban to rural areas: A technical theoretical framework applied to the medium-sized town Hillerød, Denmark. *Ecological Engineering*, **28**, 44–54.
- Mahmood Q., Pervez A., Zeb B. S., Zaffar H., Yaqoob H., Waseem M., Zahidullah and Afsheen S. (2013). Natural treatment systems as sustainable ecotechnologies for the developing countries. *BioMed Research International*, **79**, 63–73. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2013/796373>
- Maienschein J. (2011). Regenerative medicine's historical roots in regeneration, transplantation, and translation. *Journal of Developmental Biology*, **358**, 278–284, doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2010.06.014
- Mang P. and Reed B. (2012a). Designing from place: a regenerative framework and methodology. *Building Research & Information*, **40**(1), 23–38.
- Mang P. and Reed B. (2012b). Regenerative Development and Design. Regenesys Group and Story of Place, Encyclo. Sustainability Science & Technology.
- Mang P., Haggard B. and Regenesys (2016). Regenerative Development and Design: A Framework for Evolving Sustainability. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, USA.
- Mara D., Drangert J., Viet Anhc N., Tonderski A., Gulyas H. and Tonderski K. (2007). Selection of sustainable sanitation arrangements. *Water Policy*, **9**, 305–318.
- Marshall R. E. and Farahbakhsh K. (2013). Systems approaches to integrated solid waste management in developing countries. *Waste Management*, **33**, 988–1003. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2012.12.023>
- Massoud M. A., Tarhini A. and Nasr J. A. (2009). Decentralized approaches to wastewater treatment and management: Applicability in developing countries. *Journal of Environmental Management*, **90**, 652–659, doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2008.07.001
- Maurer M., Bufardi A., Tilley E., Zurbrügg C. and Truffer B. (2012). A compatibility-based procedure designed to generate potential sanitation system alternatives. *Journal of Environmental Management*, **104**, 51–61.
- McConville J., Kunzle R., Messmer U., Udert K. M. and Larsen T. A. (2014). Decision support for redesigning wastewater treatment technologies. *Environmental Science & Technology*, **48**(20), 12238–12246.
- McDonough W. and Braungart B. (2001a). The Next Industrial Revolution, William McDonough, Michael Braungart and the Birth of the Sustainable Economy. Eartheome Productions, Stevenson, USA.
- McDonough W. and Braungart B. (2001b). Cradle to Cradle: Remaking the Way We Make Things. Northpoint Press, New York, USA.
- McHarg I. L. (1969). Design with Nature. Doubleday, New York, USA.
- Meadows D. H. (1999). Leverage Points: Places to intervene in a system. The Sustainability Institute, Hartland VT, USA. <https://www.sustainabilityinstitute.org/pubs/Leverage-Points.pdf> (accessed 27 February 2017).
- Meinzen-Dick R. (2007). Beyond panaceas in water institutions. *PNAS* **104**(39), 15200–15205. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.070229>
- Mele C., Pels J. and Polese F. (2010). A brief review of systems theories and their managerial applications. *Service Science*, **2**(1–2), 126–135. http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/serv.2.1_2.126
- Miles M. B. and Huberman A. M. (1994). Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Source Book. Sage, Newbury Park, USA, Cited in Jabareen Y. (2009) Building a conceptual framework: philosophy, definitions and procedures. International Journal for Qualitative Methods, 2008.
- Miller M. E. and West A. N. (1993). Influences of world view on personality, epistemology, and choice of profession. In: Development in the Work-Place, J. Demick and P. M. Miller (eds), Erlbaum, Hillsdale, USA, pp. 3–19.
- Mitsch W. J. (1993). Ecological engineering a cooperative role with the planetary life-support system. *Advances in Environmental Science and Technology*, **27**(3), 438–445.
- Mitsch W. J. and Jørgensen S. E. (1989). Ecological Engineering: An Introduction to Ecotechnology. Wiley, New York, USA.

- Mitsch W. J. and Jørgensen S. E. (2003). Ecological engineering: a field whose time has come. *Ecological Engineering*, **20**, 363–377.
- Murray A. and Buckley C. (2009). Designing reuse-oriented sanitation infrastructure: the design for service planning approach. In: *Wastewater Irrigation and Health Assessing and Mitigating Risk in Low-income Countries*, P. Drechsel, C. A. Scott, L. Raschid-Sally, M. Redwood and A. Bahri (eds), Earthscan, London, UK.
- Mvulirwenande S., Alaerts G. and de Montalvo U. W. (2013). From knowledge and capacity development to performance improvement in water supply: the importance of competence integration and use. *Water Policy*, **15**, 267–281. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2166/wp.2013.023>
- Nansubuga I., Banadda N., Verstraete W. and Rabaey K. (2016). A review of sustainable sanitation systems in Africa. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Bio/Technology*, **15**, 465–478, doi: 10.1007/s11157-016-9400-3
- Nesshöver C., Assmuth T., Irvine K. N., Rusch G. M., Waylen K. A., Delbaere B., Haase D., Jones-Walters L., Keune H., Kovacs E., Krauze K., Külvik M., Rey F., van Dijk J., Vistad O. I., Wilkinson M. E. and Wittmer H. (2017). The science, policy and practice of nature-based solutions: an interdisciplinary perspective. *Science of the Total Environment*, **579**, 1215–1227.
- Ngai T. K. K., Coff B. E., Manzano E., Seel K. and Elson P. (2014). Evaluation of Education and Training in Water and Sanitation Technology: Case Studies in Nepal and Peru. 37th WEDC International Conference, Hanoi, Vietnam, pp. 1–7.
- Nikiema J., Cofie O. and Impraim R. (2014). Technological options for safe resource recovery from fecal sludge. Resource Recovery and Reuse Series 2. International Water Management Institute (IWMI), Sri Lanka. ISSN 2478-0510; e-ISSN 2478-0529; ISBN 978-92-9090-804-3.
- Nilsson M. and Olsson L. (2014). Sanitation in an Informal Settlement – A User-Oriented Study on Sanitation Solutions and Factors Influencing Decisions for Implementation in Cochabamba, Bolivia. MS thesis, Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg, Sweden. <http://publications.lib.chalmers.se/records/fulltext/207030/207030.pdf> (accessed 16 February 2017).
- O'Reilly K. and Louis E. (2014). The toilet tripod: understanding successful sanitation in rural India. *Health & Place*, **29**, 43–51.
- O'Reilly K., Dhanju R. and Goel A. (2017). Exploring 'The Remote' and 'The Rural': open defecation and latrine use in Uttarakhand, India. *World Development*, **93**, 193–205, 2017 0305-750X. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2016.12.022>
- Obeng P. A., Keraita B., Oduro-Kwarteng S., Bregnhøj H., Abaidoo R. C. and Konradsen F. (2015). 'The latrine ownership ladder: a conceptual framework for enhancing sanitation uptake in low-income peri-urban settings'. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, **26**(5), 752–763. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MEQ-05-2014-0079>
- Ostrom E. (2005). *Understanding Institutional Diversity*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, USA.
- Otoo M., Drechsel P., Danso G., Gebregabher S., Rao K. and Madurangi G. (2016) Testing the Implementation Potential of Resource Recovery and Reuse Business Models: From Baseline Surveys to Feasibility Studies and Business Plans. International Water Management Institute (IWMI). CGIAR Research Program on Water, Land and Ecosystems (WLE), Colombo, Sri Lanka. 59p. (Resource Recovery and Reuse Series 10), doi: 10.5337/2016.206, <https://cgspace.cgiar.org/handle/10568/78431> (accessed 27 May 2017).
- Otterpohl R. (2002). Options for alternative types of sewerage and treatment systems directed to improvement of the overall performance. *Water Science and Technology*, **45**(3), 149–158.
- Pahl-Wostl C. (2007). Transitions towards adaptive management of water facing climate and global change. *Water Resources Management*, **21**, 49–62, doi: 10.1007/s11269-006-9040-4
- Pahl-Wostl C., Holtz G., Kastens B. and Knieper C. (2010). Analyzing complex water governance regimes: the management and transition framework. *Environmental Science & Policy*, **13**, 571–581.
- Pahl-Wostl C., Jeffrey P., Isendahl N. and Brugnach M. (2011). Maturing the new water management paradigm: progressing from aspiration to practice. *Water Resources Management*, **25**, 837–856, doi: 10.1007/s11269-010-9729-2
- Panbianco S. and Pahl-Wostl C. (2006). Modelling socio-technical transformations in wastewater treatment – a methodological proposal. *Technovation*, **26**, 1090–1100, doi: 10.1016/j.technovation.2005.09.017

- Parkinson J., Lüthi C. and Walther D. (GIZ) (2014). Sanitation 21 – A Planning Framework for Improving City-wide Sanitation Services. IWA, EAWAG-Sandec, GIZ. http://www.iwa-network.org/filemanager/uploads/IWA-Sanitation-21_22_09_14-LR.pdf (accessed 2 May 2017).
- Pascual Sanz M., Veenstra S., de Montalvo U. W., van Tulder R. and Alaerts G. (2013). What counts as ‘results’ in capacity development partnerships between water operators? A multi-path approach toward accountability, adaptation and learning. *Water Policy*, **15**, 242–266. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2166/wp.2013.022>
- Patkar A. and Gosling L. (2011). Equity and Inclusion in Sanitation and Hygiene in Africa A Regional Synthesis Paper. Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council and WaterAid. https://www.sanitationmonitoringtoolkit.com/images/SMTdocuments/52_equity_and_inclusion_synthesis_africa_working_paper_for_african_final.pdf (accessed 20 June 2017).
- Peal A., Evans B. and van der Voorden C. (2010). Hygiene and Sanitation Software: An Overview of Approaches. Water Supply & Sanitation Collaborative Council, Geneva, Switzerland. <http://wsscc.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Hygiene-and-Sanitation-Software-An-overview-of-approaches-WSSCC.pdf> (accessed 1 June 2017).
- Persson C. P. (2017). 1,000-year-old Viking toilet uncovered in Denmark. *Science Nordic*. <http://sciencenordic.com/1000-year-old-viking-toilet-uncovered-denmark> (accessed 3 July 2017).
- Polprasert C. and Koottatep T. (2017). Organic Waste Recycling – Technology, Management and Sustainability, 4th edn. IWA Publishing, the Hague, Netherlands.
- Porcellini A. (2009). Regenerative medicine: a review. *Revista Brasileira de Hematologia e Hemoterapia*, **31**(supl.2), São Paulo, Brazil. Online version. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1516-84842009000800017>
- Potter A., Klutse A., Snehalatha M., Batchelor C., Uandela A., Naafs A., Fonseca C. and Moriarty P. (2011). Assessing sanitation service levels. IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre, Working paper 3, 2nd edn. <https://www.ircwash.org/sites/default/files/Potter-2011-Assessing.pdf> (accessed 18 May 2017).
- Pruss A., Kay D., Fewtrell L. and Bartram J. (2002). Estimating the burden of disease from water, sanitation, and hygiene at a global level. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **110**(5), 537–542.
- Prüss-Üstün A., Bos R., Gore F. and Bartram J. (2008). Safer Water, Better Health: Costs, Benefits and Sustainability of Interventions to Protect and Promote Health. Geneva, Switzerland. http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/publications/safer_water/en/ (accessed 16 February 2017).
- Ramoia A., Matos J. and Luthi C. (2015). System-Based Decision Trees for the Selection of Sanitation Technologies. 38th WEDC International Conference, Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK. <http://wedc.lboro.ac.uk/resources/conference/38/Ramoia-2250.pdf> (accessed 26 June 2017).
- Rao K. C., Kvarnström E., Di Mario L. and Drechsel P. (2016). Business models for fecal sludge management. CGIAR Research Program on Water, Land and Ecosystems (WLE). (Resource Recovery and Reuse Series 6). International Water Management Institute (IWMI), Colombo, Sri Lanka, doi: 10.5337/2016.21
- Raven R. P. J. M. (2007). Co-evolution of waste and electricity regimes: multi-regime dynamics in the Netherlands (1969–2003). *Energy Policy*, **35**(4), 2197–2208. doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2006.07.005
- Reed B. (2007). Shifting from ‘sustainability’ to regeneration. *Building Research & Information*, **35**(6), 674–680, doi: 10.1080/09613210701475753
- Rees W. (1999). The built environment and the ecosphere: a global perspective. *Building Research & Information*, **27** (4–5), 206–220.
- Renger B. C., Birkeland J. L. and Midmore D. J. (2015). Net-positive building carbon sequestration. *Building Research & Information*, **43**(1), 11–24.
- Repella A. (2014). Framework Perspectives for Water: a small sample of the range of frameworks for addressing questions about water. Water Diplomacy Network Blog. <http://blog.waterdiplomacy.org/2014/01/framework-perspectives-for-water/> (accessed 6 June 2017).
- Robertson P. J. and Choi T. (2010). Ecological governance: organizing principles for an emerging era. *Public Administration Review*, **70**(1), 89–99, doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6210.2010.02250.x
- Robinson J. and Cole R. J. (2015). Theoretical underpinnings of regenerative sustainability. *Building Research & Information*, **43**(2), 133–143, doi: 10.1080/09613218.2014.979082
- Rocky Mountain Institute (2006). Hypercar design and technology. <https://old.rmi.org/sitepages/pid390.php> (accessed on 7 February 2018).

- Rodale Institute (2017). Regenerative Organic Agriculture and Climate Change: A Down-to-Earth Solution to Global Warming. <https://rodaleinstitute.org/assets/WhitePaper.pdf> (accessed 6 October 2017).
- Rodic L. (2015). Waste governance. In: Global Waste Outlook, D. C. Wilson (ed.), ISWA/UNEP, Nairobi, Kenya. <http://www.unep.org/ietc/Portals/136/Publications/Waste%20Management/GWMO%20report/GWMO%20full%20report.pdf> (accessed 12 September 2016).
- Roefs I., Meulman B., Vreeburg J. H. G. and Spiller M. (2017). Centralised, decentralised or hybrid sanitation systems? Economic evaluation under urban development uncertainty and phased expansion. *Australian Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research*, **109**, 274–286.
- Sampogna G., Guraya S. Y. and Forgione A. (2015). Regenerative medicine: historical roots and potential strategies in modern medicine. *Journal of Microscopy and Ultrastructure*, **3**, 101–107.
- Schertenleib R. (2005). From conventional to advanced environmental sanitation. *Water Science and Technology*, **51**(10), 7–14.
- Schmitt R. J. P., Morgenroth E. and Larsen T. A. (2017). Robust planning of sanitation services in urban informal settlements: an analytical framework. *Australian Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research*, **110**, 297–312.
- Schübeler P. (1996). Conceptual framework for municipal solid waste management in low-income countries. In: UNDP/UNCHS/World Bank/SDC Collaborative Programme on Municipal Solid Waste Management in Low-Income Countries, K. Wehrle and J. Christen (eds), St. Gallen, Switzerland.
- Seadon J. K. (2006). Integrated waste management – looking beyond the solid waste horizon. *Waste Management*, **26** (12), 1327–1336.
- Seadon J. K. (2010). Sustainable waste management systems. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **18**(16–17), 1639–1651.
- SER (Society for Ecological Restoration, Science and Policy Working Group) (2004). The SER Primer on Ecological Restoration. <http://www.ser.org/> (accessed 15 May 2017).
- Simha P., Lalander C., Vinnerås B. and Ganesapillai M. (2017). Farmer attitudes and perceptions to the re-use of fertiliser products from resource-oriented sanitation systems – the case of Vellore, South India. *Science of the Total Environment*, **581–582**, 885–896.
- Sonnenberg E. (2013). Toilet provision. *Cape Times*, 1 Oct 2013.
- Spaargaren G., Mommaas H., Van Den Burg S., Maas L., Drissen E., Dagevos H., Bargeman B., Putman L., Nijhuis J., Verbeek D. and Sargant E. (2007). More sustainable lifestyles and consumption patterns: a theoretical perspective for the analysis of transition processes within consumption domains. Contrast Research Report, TMP project. Wageningen: Environmental Policy Group, Wageningen University; Telos: Tilburg University; RIVM; LEL, Netherlands.
- Speer J. (2012). Participatory governance reform: a good strategy for increasing government responsiveness and improving public services? *World Development*, **40**(12), 2379–2398.
- Starkl M., Brunner N., Feil M. and Hauser A. (2015). Ensuring sustainability of non-networked sanitation technologies: an approach to standardization. *Advances in Environmental Science and Technology*, **49**, 6411–6418, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b00887
- Stenström T. A., Seidu R., Ekane N. and Zurbrugg C. (2011). Microbial Exposure and Health Assessments in Sanitation Technologies and Systems. SEI report, EcoSanRes Series 2011-1.
- L. Strande, M. Ronteltap and D. Brdjanovic (2014). Faecal Sludge Management: Systems Approach for Implementation and Operation. IWA Publishing, London, UK.
- Sunderland M. (2008). Studying Development: The Value of Diversity, Theory, and Synthesis. PhD thesis, Arizona State University, USA.
- Sunderland M. (2010). Regeneration: Thomas Hunt Morgan’s window into development. *Journal of the History of Biology*, **43**, 325–361.
- Sutton S. (2008). The risks of a technology-based MDG indicator for rural water supply. Access to Sanitation and Safe Water: Global Partnerships and Local Actions. Conference Proceedings of the 33rd WEDC International Conference Accra, Ghana, pp. 500–505.
- SuSanA (ed.) (2008). Towards More Sustainable Sanitation Solutions (Version 1). Sustainable Sanitation Alliance (SuSanA), Eschborn. https://www.susana.org/_resources/documents/default/3-267-7-1452594644.pdf (accessed 21 June 2017).

- Swart D. B. and Palsma A. J. B. (2013). The Netherlands: 'Nieuwe Sanitatie'. In: Source Separation and Decentralization for Wastewater Management, T. A. Larsen, K. M. Udert and J. Lienert (eds), IWA Publishing, London, UK, pp. 431–438.
- Taing L. (2017). How sociopolitical factors affected the implementation of Cape Town's vacuum sewer. *Environmental Science: Water Research & Technology*, **3**, 513, doi: 10.1039/c6ew00089d
- Taing L., Armitage N., Ashipala N. and Spiegel A. (2013). TIPS for sewerage informal settlements: Technology, Institutions, People and Services, WRC Report No. TT 557/13, Water Research Commission, Pretoria, South Africa.
- TBC (Toilet Board Coalition) (2016). Sanitation in the Circular Economy: Transformation to a commercially valuable, self-sustaining, biological system. http://www.toiletboard.org/media/17-Sanitation_in_the_Circular_Economy.pdf (accessed 7 September 2017).
- Tchobanoglous G. and Leverenz H. (2013). The rationale for decentralization of wastewater infrastructure. In: Source Separation and Decentralization for Wastewater Management, T. A. Larsen, K. M. Udert and J. Lienert (eds), IWA Publishing, London, UK, pp. 101–115.
- Thibodeau C., Monette F., Bulle C. and Glaus M. (2014). Comparison of blackwater source-separation and conventional sanitation systems using life cycle assessment. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, **67**, 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2013.12.012>
- Tilley E., Strande L., Luthi C., Mosler H., Udert K. M., Gebauer H. and Hering J. G. (2014a). Looking beyond technology: an integrated approach to water, sanitation and hygiene in low income countries. *Advances in Environmental Science and Technology*, **48**(17), 9965–9970, doi: 10.1021/es501645d
- Tilley E., Ulrich L., Luthi C., Reymond P. H. and Zurbrugg C. (2014b). Compendium of Sanitation Systems and Technologies, 2nd rev. edn. Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology (EAWAG), Dübendorf, Switzerland.
- Tobias R., O'Keefe M., Künzle R., Gebauer H., Gründl H., Morgenroth E., Pronk W. and Larsen T. A. (2017). Early testing of new sanitation technology for urban slums: the case of the Blue Diversion Toilet. *Science of the Total Environment*, **576**, 264–272.
- Todd J. and Josephson B. (1996). The design of living technologies for waste treatment. *Ecological Engineering*, **6**, 109–136. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0925-8574\(95\)00054-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0925-8574(95)00054-2)
- Todd J. and Todd N. J. (1980). Tomorrow is Our Permanent Address: The Search for an Ecological Science of Design. Harper and Row, New York, USA.
- Todd N. J. and Todd J. (1984). Bioshelters, Ocean Arks, City Farming: Ecology as the Basis of Design. Sierra Club Books, San Francisco, USA.
- Todd N. J. and Todd J. (1994). From Eco-Cities to Living Machines: Principles of Ecological Design. North Atlantic Books, Berkeley, USA.
- Trémolet S. and Rama M. (2012). Tracking National Financial Flows into Sanitation, Hygiene and Drinking Water. World Health Organization. <http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/75225> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- UNDP (2006). Human Development Report 2006: Beyond Scarcity: Power, Poverty and the Global Water Crisis. Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York. <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/corporate/HDR/2006%20Global%20HDR/HDR-2006-Beyond%20scarcity-Power-poverty-and-the-global-water-crisis.pdf> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- UN-Habitat (2002). Innovations in Local Governance and Decentralization in East Africa: An inventory. UN Habitat, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Unsal F. (2016). Sustainability, Systems Thinking and Ecological Worldview. 2016 International Conference on Power, Energy Engineering and Management (PEEM 2016). <http://dpi-proceedings.com/index.php/dteees/article/view/5050/4676> (accessed 31 August 2017).
- USAID (2016). Global Sanitation Service Chain Technology Manual: An analysis of sanitation technology innovations. http://www.path.org/publications/files/PATH_dt_ssd_tech_manual.pdf (accessed 20 June 2017).
- USEPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency) (2012). Guidelines for Water Reuse. EPA/600/R-12/618. Produced by CDM Smith Inc., under a Cooperative Research and Development Agreement (CRADA) with the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA).

- van der Ryn S. and Cowan S. (2007). *Ecological Design*, 10th anniversary edn. Island Press, Washington D.C., USA. <https://islandpress.org/books/ecological-design-tenth-anniversary-edition> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- van Vliet B. (2006). The sustainable transformation of sanitation. In: *Reflexive Governance for Sustainable Development*, J. P. Voss, D. Bauknecht and R. Kemp (eds), Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 337–354.
- van Vliet B. J. M., Spaargaren G. and Oosterveer P. (2011). Sanitation under challenge: contributions from the social sciences. *Water Policy*, **13**, 797–809.
- Verhagen J. and Carrasco M. (2013). Full-Chain Sanitation Services that Last: Non-sewered Sanitation Services. July 2013, IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre, the Hague, Netherlands. https://www.ircwash.org/sites/default/files/201306_sanitation_framework_final.pdf (accessed 17 June 2017).
- Verstraete W., Van de Caveye P. and Diamantis V. (2009). Maximum use of resources present in domestic ‘used water’. *Bioresource Technology*, **100**, 5537–5545.
- Vester F. (2004). A Report to the Club of Rome. Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag, Munich, Germany.
- von Bertalanffy L. (1956). General system theory. In: *General System Theory*, F. E. Emery (ed.). https://monoskop.org/images/7/77/Von_Bertalanffy_Ludwig_General_System_Theory_1968.pdf (accessed 10 February 2018).
- von Bertalanffy L. (1968). *General System theory: Foundations, Development, Applications*. George Braziller, New York, USA.
- Vymazal J. (2005). Constructed wetlands for wastewater treatment. *Ecological Engineering*, **25**(5), 475–477.
- Wang L., Peng J., Wang B. and Yang L. (2006). Design and operation of an eco-system for municipal wastewater treatment and utilization. *Water Science and Technology*, **54**(11–12), 429–436, doi: 10.2166/wst.2006.923. PMID: 17302348
- Werner C., Avendanõ V., Demsat S., Eicher I., Hernandez L., Jung C., Kraus S., Lacayo I., Neupane K., Rabiega A. and Wafler M. (ed.) (2004). *Ecosan – Closing the Loop*. Proceedings of the 2nd International Symposium on Ecological Sanitation, 7–11 April 2003, Lübeck, Germany. Eschborn (Germany) GTZ; 19893-00-012791-7 p. 1004. <http://www.gtz.de/ecosan/english/symposium2-proceedings-eng.htm> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- Werner C., Panesar A., Rud S. B. and Olt C. U. (2009). Ecological sanitation: principles, technologies and project for examples sustainable wastewater and excreta management. *Desalination*, **248**, 392–401.
- Whitman D. H., Berry R. L. and Green D. M. (1997). Platelet gel: an autologous alternative to fibrin glue with applications in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*, **55**(11), 1294–1299.
- Whittington D., Lauria D. and Choe K. (1993). Household sanitation in Kumasi, Ghana: a description of current practices, attitudes, and perceptions. *World Development*, **21**(5), 733–748. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0305-750X\(93\)90030-D](https://doi.org/10.1016/0305-750X(93)90030-D)
- WHO and UNICEF (2017). Progress on Drinking Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: Update and SDG Baselines. World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), Geneva. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2017/launch-version-report-jmp-water-sanitation-hygiene.pdf?ua=1> (accessed 5 October 2017).
- WHO/UNICEF (2017). Progress on Drinking Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: 2017 Update and SDG Baselines. Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF). Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO.
- Wielemaker R. C., Weijma J. and Zeeman G. (2016). Harvest to harvest: recovering nutrients with New Sanitation systems for reuse in Urban Agriculture. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, **128**, 438–450. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2016.09.015>
- Wilber K. (2000). *Sex, Ecology, Spirituality*, 2nd edn. Shambala, Boston.
- Wilsenach J. A., Maurer M., Larsen T. A. and van Loosdrecht M. C. M. (2003). From waste treatment to integrated resource management. *Water Science and Technology*, **48**(1), 1–9. © IWA Publishing.
- Wolf S., Hinkel J., Hallier M., Bisaro A., Linke D., Ionescu C. and Klein R. J. T. (2013). Clarifying vulnerability definitions and assessments using formalisation. *International Journal of Climate Change Strategies and Management*, **5**(1), 54–70. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17568691311299363>
- WSP (2014). The Missing Link in Sanitation Service Delivery: A Review of Fecal Sludge Management in 12 Cities. Water and Sanitation Program: Research Brief. <https://www.wsp.org/sites/wsp.org/files/publications/WSP-Fecal-Sludge-12-City-Review-Research-Brief.pdf> (accessed 20 June 2017).
- Wu S., Carvalho P. N., Müller J. A., Manoj V. R. and Dong R. (2016). Sanitation in constructed wetlands: a review on the removal of human pathogens and fecal indicators. *Science of the Total Environment*, **541**, 8–22.

- WWAP (United Nations World Water Assessment Programme) (2017). The United Nations World Water Development Report 2017. Wastewater: The Untapped Resource. UNESCO, Paris.
- Yardley S. (2010). Joining the Dots: Why Better Water, Sanitation and Hygiene are Necessary for Progress on Maternal, Newborn and Child Health. Publication of Tearfund, Teddington, UK. <http://tilz.tearfund.org/~media/files/tilz/research/j20066%20wash%20report%20web.pdf> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- Zari M. P. and Jenkins S. (2010). Rethinking cutting edge sustainable design: from eco-efficiency to regenerative development. Paper presented at the Sustainable Building Conference 2010 (SB10, Wellington, New Zealand. https://www.branz.co.nz/cms_show_download.php?id=2ab15295f01d3078189c96855a6fa055226d58b4 (accessed 05 April 2017).
- Zari M. P. (2012). Ecosystem services analysis for the design of regenerative built environments. *Building Research & Information*, **40**(1), 54–64, doi: 10.1080/09613218.2011.628547
- Zeeman G. (2009). Centralised or decentralised sanitation chains? In: Nieuwe Uitdagingen; 61e Vakantiecursus in Drinkwatervoorziening, 28e Vakantiecursus in Riolering en Afvalwaterbehandeling. (New challenges; 61st Holiday Course in Drinking Water Supply, 28th Holiday Course in Sewerage and Wastewater Treatment), J. C. Dijk, J. Q. J. C. Verberk and A. A. van Woerden (eds), Water Management Academic Press, Delft, Netherlands, pp. 101–109.
- Zeeman G. (2012). New Sanitation: Bridging Cities and Agriculture. Wageningen University, Wageningen, Netherlands. <http://edepot.wur.nl/246120> (accessed 10 February 2018).
- Zeldovich L. (2017). Reinventing the toilet. Mosaic Science Online. <https://mosaicscience.com/story/poo-toilet-waste-energy-madagascar-loowatt-future> (accessed 3 July 2017).
- Zurbrügg C. and Tilley E. (2007). Evaluation of Existing Low Cost Conventional as Well as Innovative Sanitation System and Technologies – NETSSAF Deliverable D22&23. Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology (EAWAG), Dübendorf, Switzerland.
- Zurbrugg C. and Tilley E. (2009). A system perspective in sanitation – Human waste from cradle to grave and reincarnation. *Desalination*, **248**, 410–417.