

# Feasibility assessment of recycled water use for washing machines in Australia through SWOT analysis.

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## Abstract

Sustainable urban water consumption has become a critical issue in Australia due to increasing urbanization, the country's dry climate and its increasingly variable rainfall. Water recycling is considered vital to alleviate the demand on limited water supplies. The demands on water utilities to develop water recycling capacity and supplies are therefore expected to intensify in Australia. Dual reticulation systems have already been introduced in many cities in Australia and this is likely to expand to many other cities in the future. Developed and proposed dual reticulation schemes in Australia demand the substantial replacement of tap water with recycled water to ensure system optimisation and the sustainability of water supplies. This study successfully applies Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) analysis as a research tool to assess the feasibility of use of recycled water in washing machine applications. Through the identification of the reuse schemes' strengths (elements to leverage and build on) and weaknesses (areas to seek assistance and support) in addition to community opportunities (areas to leverage for program advantages) and threats (elements that could hinder the scheme), the positive aspects for the use of recycled water in

25 washing machines is observed. Further study to address the specific concerns of the general  
26 public and the development of guidelines for this new end use is however essential to guide  
27 the implementation of recycled water schemes.

28 **Author keywords:** Water recycling; Washing machine; End use; SWOT analysis.

## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 Australia is in the midst of a water crisis and at present almost all Australian capital cities,  
31 with the exception of Darwin and Hobart, are experiencing water supply problems. The  
32 International Water Management Institute has declared that Australia is one of the high water  
33 stress regions of the world (IWMI, 2006). Pressure on the availability of Australian  
34 freshwater resources is significantly increasing due to emerging climate change and  
35 population growth factors (Dismitriadis, 2005). Most of the eastern part of the Australian  
36 continent has experienced almost five years of continued lower-than-average rainfall. As the  
37 consequence, many cities and towns continue to face drought conditions with some water  
38 supply reservoirs at their lowest recorded levels (Willis et al., 2010). The Australian National  
39 Climate Centre showed the decreasing trend of annual rainfall by up to 50 mm per year over  
40 the southern half of the continent (CSIRO, 2007). With the limited water supplies in the  
41 urban cities coupled with increasing urban population, providing safe, reliable and  
42 sustainable water services for Australian cities is a major challenge for the 21st century.  
43 Sustainable urban water consumption has thus become a critical issue for Australia.

44 From a worldwide perspective, urban water management has many challenges and water  
45 recycling is considered vital to alleviate the demand on existing but limited water supplies  
46 and is gaining impetus throughout the world. Demands on water utilities to develop water  
47 recycling capacity and supplies are therefore in the future expected to intensify in many  
48 countries of the world. The impetus on use of recycling water in Australia is increasing with

49 the time however; suitable clients of the recycled water product are difficult to come by.  
50 Household water use is the second largest user of water in Australia. A study by Birrell et al.  
51 (2005) on the impact of demographic change and urban consolidation on domestic water use  
52 in Australian cities revealed that, during 2001–2031, water demand in major cities of  
53 Australia will increase by an average of 37%. Householders in highly urbanized cities like  
54 Sydney (Sydney Water, 2010) and cities of Western Australia (Water Corporation, 2006) use  
55 70% of the total supplied drinking quality water. Almost 66% of the total supplied water to  
56 the Gold Coast was for residential water consumption monitored in the year 2007-2008  
57 (Willis et al., 2010). It is therefore of great importance to reduce the potable water  
58 consumption of the residential sector.

59 Water sensitive urban development (WSUD) which aims to optimise the substitution of non-  
60 potable water for potable water has been already introduced in Australia. Dual water supply  
61 systems are a major component of WSUD and have been activated in many cities of  
62 developed world. In Sydney, recycled water is currently provided for residential use in  
63 several suburbs including Rouse Hill, Sydney Olympic Park and Newington, and will be used  
64 in the future in Hoxton Park and Rope Crossing. In addition, as part of the Metropolitan  
65 Water Plan, the NSW Government will provide recycled water to 160,000 homes that are  
66 expected to be built in new suburbs in Sydney's North West and South West (Metropolitan  
67 water plan, 2006). In the period 2004-05 compared with 2001-02, Australian households  
68 experienced a ten-fold increase in the use of reused water (ABS, 2004/05). In the future, there  
69 is a high probability that the supply of recycled water in many Australian communities with  
70 dual water supply systems will be increased because of the increasing water shortage and  
71 rapidly spreading urbanization. Housing developments at Newhaven and Mawson Lakes in  
72 Adelaide, South Australia also featured dual pipe systems. The Aurora Estate in Melbourne  
73 and Pimpama Coomera in the Gold Coast have also commenced construction of dual water

74 systems (Radcliffe, 2004; Tjandraatmadja et al., 2009). Developed and proposed dual  
75 reticulation schemes in Australia demand more replacement of tap water with recycled water  
76 in Australian households for system optimisation and sustainability in water supply.  
77 However, the existing end uses of such schemes are very limited.

78 Currently, garden irrigation, toilet/urinal flushing and car washing are the most popular end  
79 uses of the recycled water from dual reticulation systems. The United Nations Economic and  
80 Social Council released a policy in 1958 stating that, “No higher quality water, unless there is  
81 a surplus of it, should be used for a purpose that can tolerate a lower grade”. However, in  
82 many countries including Australia, potable quality water is typically used for laundry  
83 activities. The laundry use of recycled water has not been sufficiently investigated and  
84 researched in the past. Water efficiency in terms of washing machines has been the focus of  
85 many regulations and some significant improvements have been already achieved, including  
86 water rating of machines and subsidizing the cost of the more water efficient machines that  
87 are available to the general public (Water Corporation, 2006). The impetus for replacing the  
88 top loading style of washing machine by front loading options (as they are more water  
89 efficient) is one strategy implemented to fulfil this aim. In addition, the current persisting and  
90 increasing water stress impels us to learn from overseas experiences and to improve this  
91 efficiency even further. Recycled water for washing machines is believed to be more  
92 sustainable option and this study attempts to make use of SWOT analysis to assess the  
93 feasibility of this new end use of recycled water

## 94 **2. Methods**

95 This study applies a SWOT analysis, which is a research tool that is widely used in business  
96 management applications. There have been several examples of the successful application of  
97 SWOT analyses in the fields of regional energy planning (Terrados et al., 2007) and  
98 municipal solid waste management (Srivastava et al., 2005).

99 This analysis tool was used to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the new end use (use  
100 of recycled water for laundry) followed by the associated external opportunities and threats.  
101 With the aid of this tool, the strengths of any project or scheme are identified so as to  
102 improve efficiency and also identify weaknesses so that they can be minimised.

103 Every programme, project, development and management plan has its strengths and  
104 weaknesses, opportunities and threats. SWOT analysis identifies the project's strengths  
105 (elements to leverage and build on) and weaknesses (areas to seek assistance and support)  
106 plus community opportunities (areas to leverage for program advantages) and threats  
107 (elements that could hinder the program). Hence SWOT analysis can provide an insight to the  
108 ways and means of converting the threats into opportunities, and off-setting the weaknesses  
109 against the strengths. This analysis could be undertaken for any idea, organization, person,  
110 product, programme or project (Johnson et al., 1989). The technique is credited to Albert  
111 Humphrey from Stanford University (Arslan and Er, 2008). SWOT analysis is designed to be  
112 used in the preliminary stages of decision-making on one hand, and as a precursor to strategic  
113 management planning on the other (Arslan and Er, 2008).

114 When used properly, SWOT can provide a good basis for strategy formulation (Hill and  
115 Westbrook, 1997; Yüksel and Dagdeviren, 2007). However, SWOT analysis does not provide  
116 an analytical means to determine the relative importance of the factors, or the ability to assess  
117 the appropriateness of decision alternatives based on these factors (Kajanus et al., 2004). But  
118 it does pinpoint the factors in the analysis and allows analysts to categorize factors as being  
119 internal (Strengths, Weaknesses) or external (Opportunities, Threats) in relation to a given  
120 decision, and thus enables them to compare opportunities and threats with strengths and  
121 weaknesses (Shrestha et al., 2004).

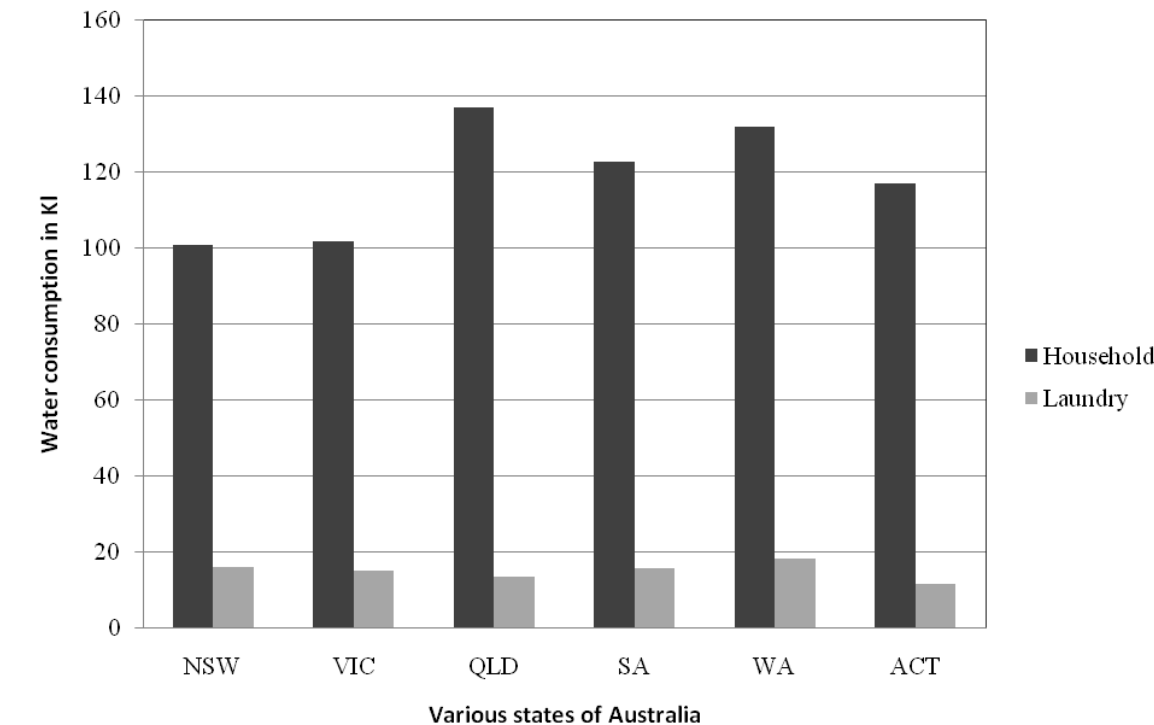
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### 3. Results

#### 3.1. *Strengths and Opportunities analysis*

Recycled water has proven to be effective and successful as a new and reliable water supply. Non-potable reuse is a widely accepted practice and its use is likely to continue to grow in the future. Households are the second largest water consumer of water in Australia (ABS, 2004/05). Almost all households (97%) have washing machines (ABS, 2008) and water is the single most important resource in laundering operations. Large amounts of water are routinely used in laundering facilities that involve washing and rinsing cycles. Prolonged drought conditions in most of Australia's major cities during the past decade have led to many calls from the community for less consumption of potable water (Hurlimann and McKay, 2006). The uses of recycled water are likely to be increased in the future to meet the needs of the environment and to satisfy escalating water demands. Even if Australia were to cut its per capita water use by 7% and if one-quarter of new suburbs were to use recycled water for outdoor activities and toilet flushing, Australia would still face a shortfall in supply of 800 GL by 2030 (Howe, 2005). Current recycled water initiatives in Australia include the use of reclaimed wastewater and stormwater for urban, residential, industrial and agricultural purposes, but not for washing clothes. According to statistics in the NSW State of the Environment Report on typical water usage in Sydney metropolitan households, laundry use consumes up to 20% of total water demand (Ngo et al., 2009). A significant reduction in household drinking water demand could therefore be achieved if the drinking quality water for clothes washing was replaced with recycled water. Dual reticulation schemes, for example, the Rouse Hill Development Area (RHDA) and Sydney Olympic Park Authority (SOPA) traditionally provide recycled water for outdoor garden use and toilet flushing at a total saving of approximately 35% of potable water use. It is estimated that the addition of recycled water in washing machines would increase this saving of potable water to 45% (Ngo

et al., 2009). The introduction of this new end use of recycled water would therefore increase the saving of potable water use by 10%. Pakula and Stamminger (2010), advocate that the volume of water used for laundry washing significantly influences the total water consumption of households in most of other countries in the world. The influence of laundry water consumption is significant on household water consumption of different states of Australia as shown in Fig. 1 (ABS, 2004).

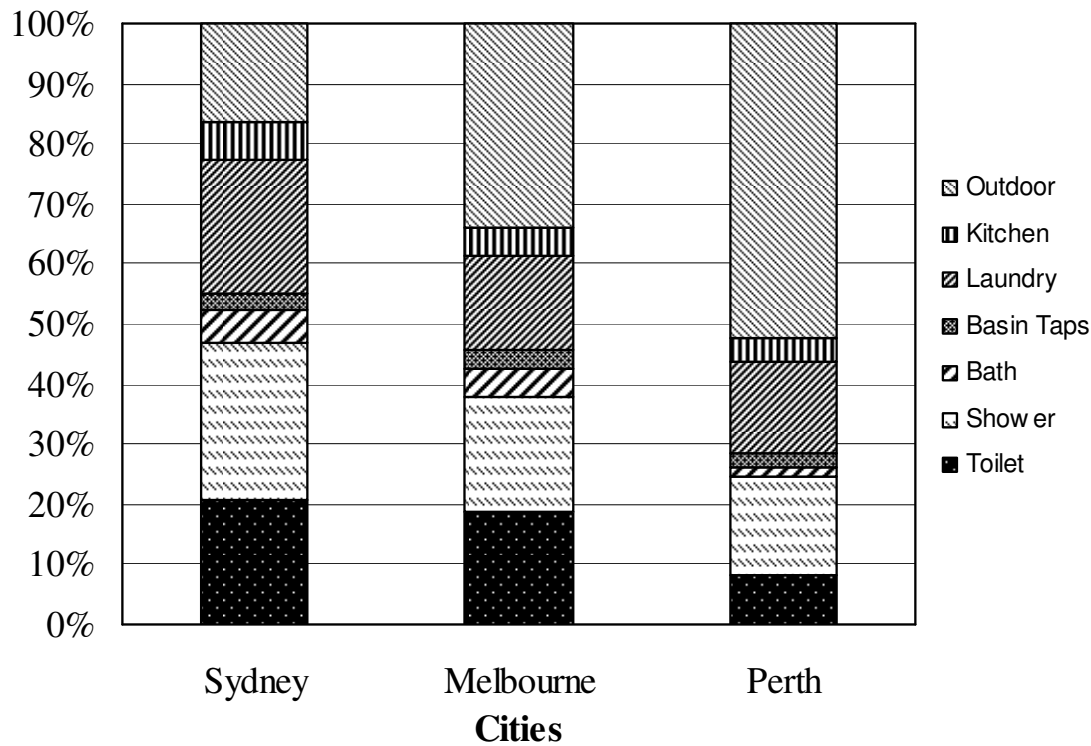


**Fig. 1.** Annual per capita water consumption by location of use in 2001 (KI)

*Note: NSW: New South Wale; VIC: Victoria; QLD: Queensland; SA: South Australia; WA: Western Australia and ACT: Australia Capital Territory*

*KI: kiloliter*

The significant laundry water consumption in households can be observed in major cities such as Sydney, Melbourne and Perth, as shown in Fig. 2, reproduced from Wilkenfeld et al. (2004).



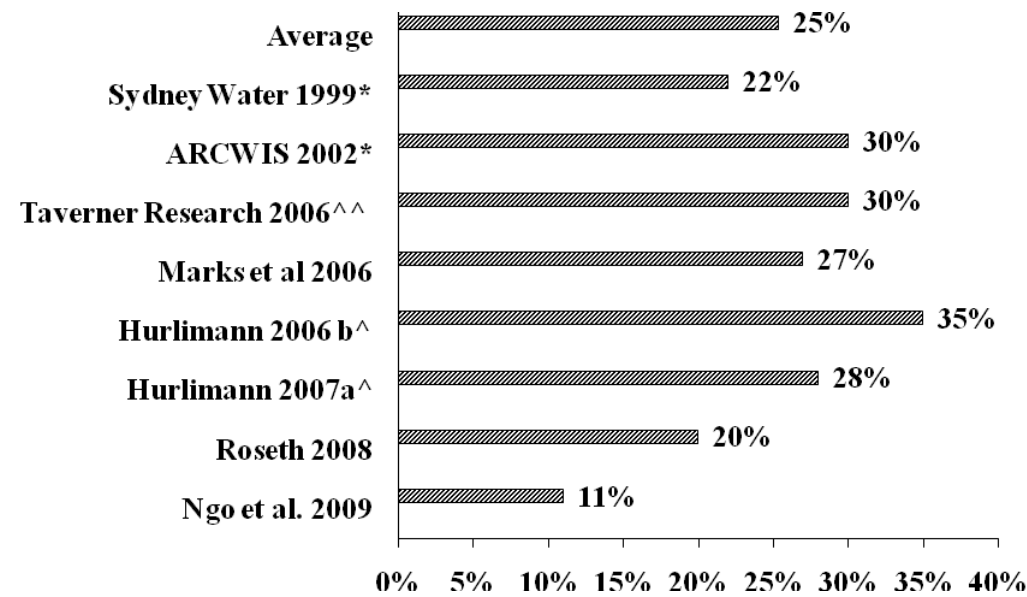
**Fig. 2.** Estimated use of water by households in Sydney, Melbourne and Perth

In Australian dual reticulation schemes, there is higher demand for recycled water during hotter (and generally drier) summer months due to increased outdoor watering than in cooler months. In line to this, washing machine (washing clothes is a year round activity) as a new end use will have almost constant demand throughout the year and hence would provide a means to even out the demand. In addition to that, residential use of recycled water for laundry use involves no extra cost for the dual reticulation system but increase the saving of potable water in the same costing. Therefore this would bring down the cost of residential dual water reticulation systems. Anderson (2006) also believes that amendment of the NSW



guidelines for urban and residential use of recycled water to allow laundry use would bring down the cost of residential water recycling systems.

For the successful implementation of any recycled water schemes, detailed consideration of community concerns are vital. From a review of eight studies (Fig. 3) undertaken in different parts of Australia regarding the attitudes of community towards the use of recycled water in washing machines, the authors reveal that the average percentage of respondents (irrespective of the number of the participants and the locations) opposed to the use of recycled water in washing machine is 25%, as shown in Fig. 3 i.e. 75 % of respondents support the use of recycled water in washing machines.

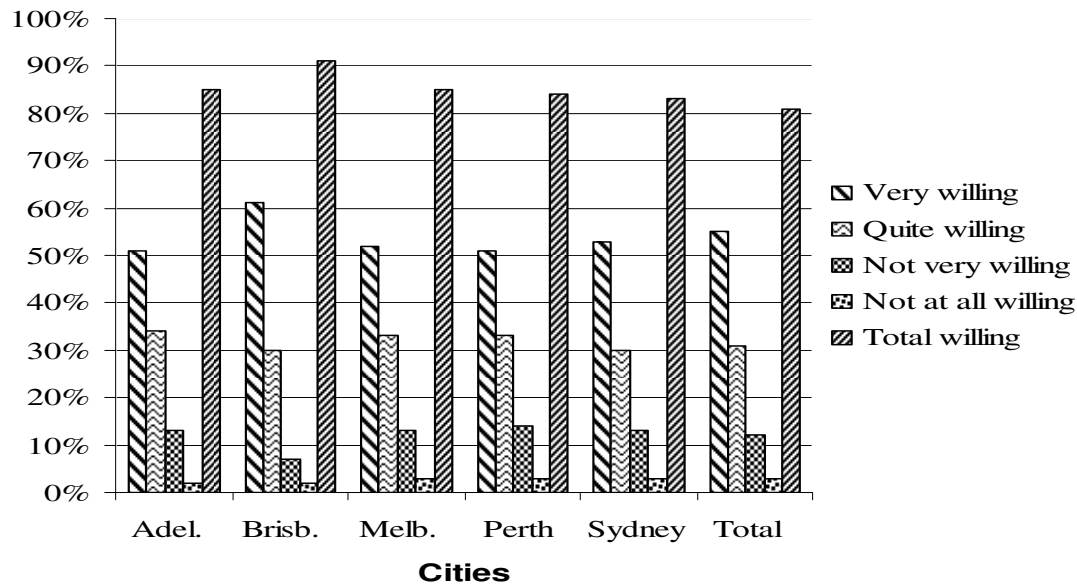


**Fig. 3.** Respondents (%) opposed to use of recycled water in washing machines in Australia.

*Note: \* Cited in Radcliffe (2004), ^^ Cited in Storey (2009) ^ Cited in Hurlimann (2008),*  
*ARCWIS= Australian Research Centre for Water in Society*

Dolnicar and Saunders (2006) from their study suggest that the average support for using recycled water for laundry purposes is 80%. Roseth (2008) carried out a survey in Australia to investigate the willingness of the people to adopt certain forms of usage of recycled water.

On average more than 80% of respondents from different cities of Australia are willing to use recycled water for washing clothes as shown in Fig. 4.



**Fig. 4.** Willingness to use recycled water for washing clothes

*Note: Adel. - Adelaide, Brisb. - Brisbane, Melb. – Melbourne.*

The Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Medicine at Monash University suggested that class A recycled water, as used in the Rouse Hill scheme, for washing machine use will not lead to the transmission of micro-organisms at concentrations likely to cause enteric diseases (Storey, 2009). O’Toole et al. (2008) investigated the microbiological safety of using recycled water in washing machines and concluded that highly treated recycled water used for machine washing will not lead to the transmission and consequent exposure of users to micro-organisms likely to cause enteric diseases. Storey (2009) concludes from his study that recycled water is not considered to have a negative effect on washing efficacy or staining.

The proposed laundry as a new end use of recycled water has a high potential. The ownership rate of washing machines, in Australia is 97% whereas in most of the developed countries it

is approximately 90%. In a survey of 780 million households in 38 countries of the world that involved approximately 2.3 billion people (one third of the world population), 590 million houses are using washing machines (Pakula and Stamminger, 2010). Therefore, there is a significant opportunity of using this new end use of recycled water to most countries of the world whether they be developed or developing where laundry use is vital. The use of cold water in washing machines has been steadily increasing in Australian households, rising from 61% in 1994, to 74% in 2008 (ABS, 2008) and this is a good trend for using recycled water for washing machines as the recycled water supply in the existing and proposed dual reticulation systems are in cold supply form.

### ***Weaknesses and Threats analysis***

The use of recycled water for washing clothes, in the physical sense, is closely related to their close physical contact and interaction with the recycled water. The results from various surveys (Bruvold, 1984; Denlay and Dowsett, 1994; Jeffrey and Jefferson, 2003) have confirmed this sentiment through the unfavourable responses from users towards the perceived detrimental impacts of human contact with the reclaimed water and a sense of residual germ transfer. Prior to introducing any new use of recycled water, it is very important to ensure that community's expectations and desires of the delivered product for the particular use are acceptable and understood. Customer research commissioned by Sydney Water, involving a residents strategy survey in Australia and other related studies show general support for the concept of using recycled water in washing machines. However, significant concerns were raised by participants that include the effects of recycled water on; public health; aesthetics and discolouration of laundry and washing efficacy; as well as; machine durability (Storey, 2006; Ngo et al., 2009). From aesthetic reasons and public health concerns, higher quality water is required to be used in washing machines (Ngo et al., 2009; Pham et al., 2011). The study of Hurlimann and McKay (2006) concerning the importance of

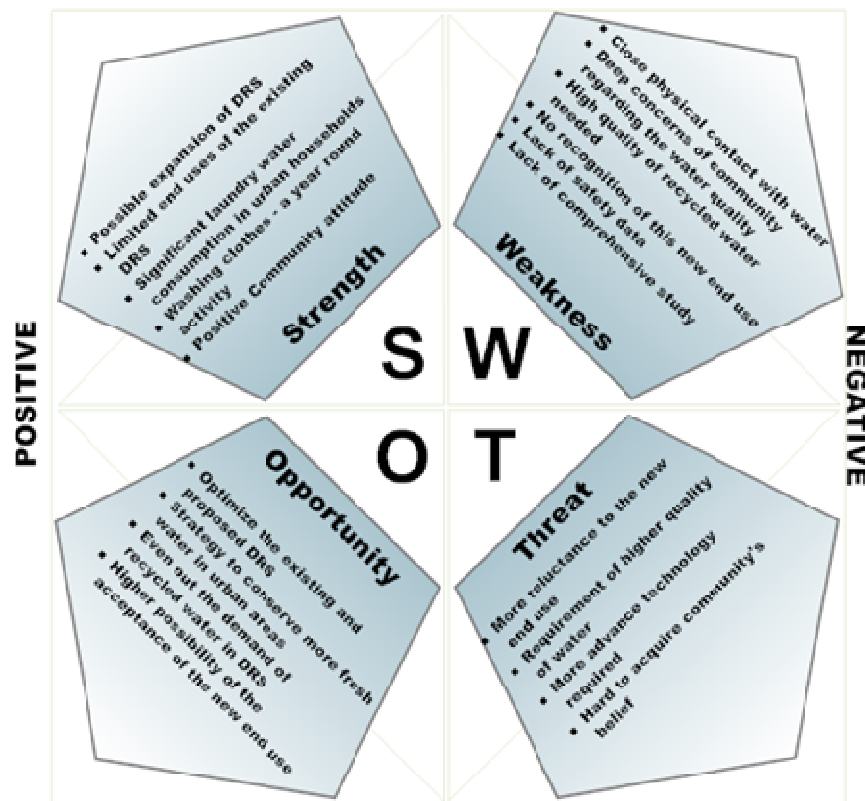
249 various attributes of recycled water also concludes that the general public demands for higher  
250 quality water for washing clothes in comparison with garden watering and toilet flushing  
251 applications. Higher quality recycled water, requires a higher level of treatment which is  
252 more expensive and more energy intensive.

253 Through the survey phase, people demonstrated their willingness to accept the use of  
254 recycling water in washing machines, but the scenario is less supported when the practical  
255 implementation is more fully considered. There has been no recognition of this new end use  
256 of recycled water in the Australian guidelines for the use of recycled water (Hurlimann and  
257 McKay, 2006) and even if recognized as in draft guidelines for the use of recycled water in  
258 Western Australia (Department of Health, Government of Western Australia, 2009) has been  
259 considered as high risk end use. There is a noticeable lack of social research in understanding  
260 the general public perceptions of this application. Only a few studies (Hurlimann and McKay,  
261 2006; Roseth, 2008; Ngo et al., 2009) have been undertaken. Detailed research to address all  
262 the major concerns of the general public is urgently needed. Most state health authorities in  
263 Australia currently do not endorse the use of recycled water for laundry and machine washing  
264 because of a lack of safety data (Roseth, 2008). There is a noticeable lack of research in  
265 defining or establishing the appropriate criteria and parameters of recycled water fit for the  
266 intended new end use. Very few researchers (O'Toole et al., 2008; Storey, 2009) claim that  
267 highly treated recycled water used for machine washing will not lead to the transmission and  
268 consequent exposure of users to numbers of micro-organisms likely to cause enteric diseases.  
269 However, it is a common belief that laundry after wash should be free from bacteria. The  
270 bacteria removal efficiency of tap water is high in wash cycle of high temperature. The  
271 bacteria removal efficiency of the recycled water which will be in the form of cold supply has  
272 not yet been given due consideration. Hence, the weakness and threat analysis indicates that

the community and scientific perception has a significant impact on decision making and understanding associated with this new end use.

### 3.2. SWOT profile of the new end use

The strengths and weaknesses of the new end use (recycled water for washing clothes) followed by the associated external opportunities and threats correspondingly are identified and the SWOT profile of the new end use is summarized in Fig. 5.



**Fig. 5.** SWOT profile of the new end use

*Note: DRS- Dual reticulation systems.*

## 4. Conclusions

From this study, the SWOT analysis has been successfully applied as a tool to identify the feasibility of using recycled water in washing machines. The positive trend for using the

recycled water in washing machines is observed. The necessity for a further comprehensive study on the feasibility of use of recycled water in washing machine is confirmed. The focus should be on field trials investigating customer acceptance, their specific concerns towards this new end use and implementation issues as well as washing machine durability and longevity. The required recycled water quality for washing machine use without compromising the health of the people and the aesthetics of clothes as well as assuring the machine durability can be experimentally verified. The formulation of an appropriate criteria and parameters for recycled water use in washing machines together with the identification of the community perceptions and all specific concerns can be studied. An assessment model for the new recycled water application can be developed. An overall risk assessment can be undertaken to determine the value of this new end use.

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403   **Figures Listed**

404   **Fig. 1.** Annual per capita water consumption by location of use in 2001 (Kl)

405   **Fig. 2.** Estimated use of water by households in Sydney, Melbourne and Perth

406   **Fig. 3.** Respondents (%) opposed to use of recycled water in washing machines in Australia.

407   **Fig. 4.** Willingness to use recycled water for washing clothes

408   **Fig. 5.** SWOT profile of the new end use