



GREENBOOK

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Postmasburg/Tsantsabane PSHDA Climate Risk Profile Report

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

°C	Degree Celsius
AFF	Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries
AR5	Fifth Assessment Report
CABLE	CSIRO Atmosphere Biosphere Land Exchange model
CCAM	Conformal-cubic atmospheric model
CDRF	Climate and Disaster Resilience Fund
CMIP5	Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 5
CRVA	Climate Risk and Vulnerability Assessment
CSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
DHS	Department of Human Settlements
DM	District Municipality
DRR	Disaster risk reduction
DWS	Department of Water and Sanitation
EcVI	Economic Vulnerability Index
EnVI	Environmental Vulnerability Index
GCM	General circulation model
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GRiMMS	Groundwater Drought Risk Mapping and Management System
GVA	Gross Value Added
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
km	Kilometre
l/p/d	Litres Per Person Per Day
LM	Local Municipality
LRT	Let's Respond Toolkit
mm	Millimetre
NDMC	National Disaster Management Centre
PHSHDA	Priority Human Settlement and Housing Development Area
PHS	Priority Human Settlement
PHDA	Priority Housing Development Area

PVI	Physical Vulnerability Index
RCP	Representative Concentration Pathways (mitigation scenarios)
SCIMAP	Sensitive Catchment Integrated Modelling and Prediction
SEVI	Socio-Economic Vulnerability Index
SPI	Standardised Precipitation Index
SPLUMA	Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 2013 (Act No.16 of 2013)
THI	Temperature Humidity Index
WMAs	Water Management Areas
WMO	World Meteorological Organisation
WRYM	Water Resources Yield Model
WUI	Wildland-Urban Interface

Glossary of Terms

Adaptation actions	A range of planning and design actions that can be taken by local government to adapt to the impacts of climate change, reduce exposure to hazards, and exploit opportunities for sustainable development (CSIR, 2023).
Adaptation planning	The process of using the basis of spatial planning to shape built-up and natural areas to be resilient to the impacts of climate change, to realise co-benefits for long-term sustainable development, and to address the root causes of vulnerability and exposure to risk. Adaptation planning assumes climate change as an important factor while addressing developmental concerns, such as the complexity of rapidly growing urban areas, and considers the uncertainty associated with the impacts of climate change in such areas – thereby contributing to the transformational adaptation of urban spaces. Adaptation planning also provides opportunities to climate proof urban infrastructure, reduce vulnerability and exploit opportunities for sustainable development (National Treasury, 2018; Pieterse, 2020).
Adaptive capacity	“The ability of systems, institutions, humans and other organisms to adjust to potential damage, to take advantage of opportunities, or to respond to consequences” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2899).
Climate change adaptation	“In human systems, the process of adjustment to actual or expected climate and its effects, in order to moderate harm or exploit beneficial opportunities. In natural systems, the process of adjustment to actual climate and its effects; human intervention may facilitate adjustment to expected climate and its effects” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2898).
Climate change mitigation	“A human intervention to reduce emissions, or enhance the sinks, of greenhouse gases (GHGs)” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2915). The goal of climate change mitigation is to achieve a reduction of emissions that will limit global warming to between 1.5°C and 2°C above preindustrial levels (Behsudi, A, 2021).

Climate hazards	Climate hazards are a sub-set of natural hazards and a grouping of hydrological, climatological, and meteorological hazards. This includes the spatial extent and frequency of, among others, floods, fires, and extreme weather events such as extreme rainfall and extreme heat. Sometimes referred to as hydrometeorological hazards. The potential occurrence of a climate hazard may cause loss of life, injury, as well as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, ecosystems, and environmental resources (IPCC, 2022). Climate hazards can increase in intensity and frequency with climate change (Pieterse et al., 2023).
Climate risk	Risk implies the potential for adverse consequences resulting from the interaction of vulnerability, exposure, and a hazard. Relevant adverse consequences include those on “lives and livelihoods, health and well-being, economic and sociocultural assets, infrastructure and ecosystems” (IPCC, 2022, p. 144). In the IPCC’s 6th Assessment Report, it is confirmed that risks may result from “dynamic interactions between climate-related hazards with the exposure and vulnerability of the affected human or ecological system” (IPCC, 2022, p. 132).
Coping capacity	“The ability of people, institutions, organizations and systems, using available skills, values, beliefs, resources and opportunities, to address, manage, and overcome adverse conditions in the short to medium term” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2904).
Disaster risk reduction	“Denotes both a policy goal or objective, as well as the strategic and instrumental measures employed for anticipating future disaster risk; reducing existing exposure, hazard or vulnerability; and improving resilience” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2906).
Exposure	Exposure implies the physical exposure of elements to a climate hazard. It is defined as the “presence of people; livelihoods; species or ecosystems; environmental functions, services, and resources; infrastructure; or economic, social, or cultural assets in places and settings that could be adversely affected [by climate hazards]” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2908).
Mainstreaming	The process of integrating climate change adaptation strategies and measures into existing planning instruments and processes as opposed to developing dedicated adaptation policies and plans (Pieterse et al., 2021).

Resilience	<p>“The capacity of interconnected social, economic and ecological systems to cope with a hazardous event, trend or disturbance, responding or reorganising in ways that maintain their essential function, identity and structure. Resilience is a positive attribute when it maintains capacity for adaptation, learning and/or transformation” (IPCC, 2022, pp. 2920–2921).</p>
Sensitivity	<p>“The degree to which a system or species is affected, either adversely or beneficially, by climate variability or change. The effect may be direct (e.g., a change in crop yield in response to a change in the mean, range, or variability of temperature) or indirect (e.g., damages caused by an increase in the frequency of coastal flooding due to sea level rise)” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2922).</p>
Vulnerability	<p>Vulnerability is defined as the “propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts and elements including, sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of capacity to cope and adapt” (IPCC, 2022, p. 2927). Vulnerability refers to the characteristics or attributes of exposed elements, i.e., elements that are exposed to potential climate-related hazards. Vulnerability is a function of sensitivity and (coping or adaptive) capacity (Pieterse et al., 2023).</p>

1. Introduction

This Climate Risk Profile report, as well as the accompanying Adaptation Actions Plan, were developed specifically for Tsantsabane Local Municipality (LM), to support its strategic climate change response agenda. Both documents are primarily informed by the GreenBook, which is an open-access online planning support system that provides quantitative scientific evidence in support of local government's pursuit in the planning and design of climate-resilient, hazard-resistant settlements. The GreenBook is an information-dense resource and planning support system offered to South African local governments to better understand their risks and vulnerabilities in relation to population growth, climate change, exposure to hazards, and vulnerability of critical resources. In addition to this, the GreenBook also provides appropriate adaptation measures that can be implemented in cities and towns, so that South African settlements are able to minimise the impact of climate hazards on communities and infrastructure, while also contributing to developmental goals (See [GreenBook I Adapting settlements for the future](#)).

The purpose and strategic objectives of the Climate Risk Profile and the Adaptation Actions Plan are to:

- Build and further the climate change response agenda,
- Inform strategy and planning in the PSHDA,
- Identify and prioritise risks and vulnerabilities,
- Identify and prioritise interventions and responses, as well as
- Guide and enable the mainstreaming of climate change response, particularly 97adaptation.

The report first outlines the approach used to determine the risk information outlined in this report, as well as the existing policy framework for climate change response in South Africa. Thereafter, the Tsantsabane Local Municipality's context is discussed in terms of locality, geography, demographics and economy, as well as the environment. This is followed by an overview of current and future risk in the Tsantsabane Municipal Area, where components of vulnerability and population change projections are unpacked at local municipal and settlement level; current and future climate is discussed in terms of temperature and rainfall; and current and future exposure to drought, heat, wildfire, and flooding is set out. The impact of climate change on the City's water supply and key sectors, including the agriculture, are also discussed. To conclude the report, adaptation goals are recommended in response to the risks and vulnerabilities facing the local municipality. The greatest risks faced across the Tsantsabane Local Municipality are increasing temperatures, with the risk of heat extremes becoming greater towards 2050. Moreover, several settlements in the Tsantsabane LM also face extreme population growth into a climate changed future.

1.1. Approach followed

The approach used in the GreenBook, and the Climate Risk Profile report is centred around understanding climate-related risk. Climate-related risk implies the potential for adverse consequences resulting from the interaction of vulnerability, exposure, and the occurrence of a climate hazard (see Figure 1). “Relevant adverse consequences include those on lives, livelihoods, health and wellbeing, economic, social and cultural assets [as well as] investments, infrastructure, and services (including ecosystem services, ecosystems and species)” (Chen, et al., 2021, p. 64). The components of risk are dynamic. Climate hazards are driven by natural climate variability and anthropogenic climate change. Human activity contributes to Greenhouse Gas emissions that increase temperatures, which in turn affects changes in the occurrence of climate hazards such as drought, flooding, coastal flooding, and heat extremes. Planned as well as unplanned development and growth of our settlements drive the exposure of people, as well as the built- and natural environment to climate hazards. Vulnerability includes the inherent characteristics that make systems sensitive to the effects and impacts of climate hazards. Municipal risk is driven by vulnerability and exposure to certain climate-related hazards.

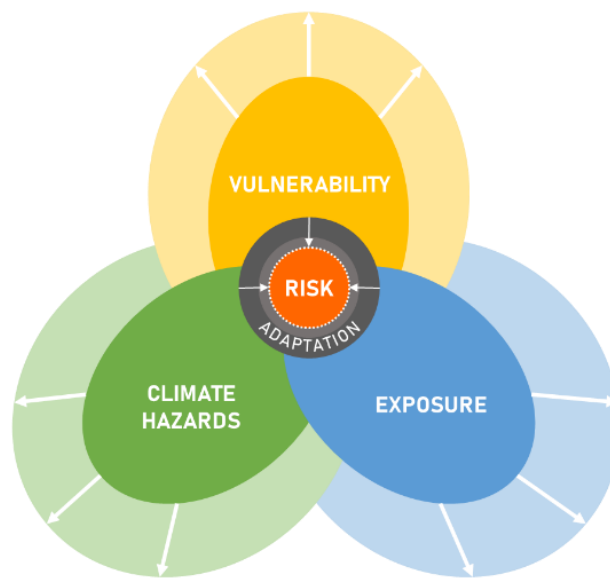


Figure 1: The interaction between the various components of risk, indicating the opportunity to reduce risk through adaptation (based on IPCC, 2014 and IPCC, 2021)

To understand climate risk, the exposure of a settlement to certain climate hazards, and its vulnerability to climate change are unpacked. In this Climate Risk Profile report, multiple vulnerability indices are provided, as well as variables for the current and future projected climate. Climate-related hazards such as drought, heat extremes, wildfire, flooding, and the impact of climate on key resources are also set out for the LM in which the PSHDA falls.

All information contained in this report is based on the GreenBook, unless otherwise specified. The information in the GreenBook is provided at local municipal level and settlement level. In

this case, where the PSHDA falls within a settlement, the local municipal and settlement level risk profile will be utilised.

1.2. Policy framework

There are various regulatory and legislative requirements for climate change response [planning] in South Africa, at local government level. For instance, the Disaster Management Amendment Act of 2015, which aims to provide measures to reduce disaster risks through climate change adaptation and the development of early warning systems, requires each organ of state, provincial government, and municipality to identify measures for, as well as indicate plans to invest in disaster risk reduction (DRR) and climate change adaptation. The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, No. 16 of 2013 (SPLUMA) outlines five principles intended to guide spatial planning, land development and land use management at all levels of planning, including local government level. Amongst them are the principles of (1) spatial resilience, which encourages “flexibility in spatial plans, policies and land use management systems, to ensure sustainable livelihoods in communities most likely to suffer the impacts of economic and environmental shocks” (Republic of South Africa, 2013, p. 20) – some of which may be induced by the impacts of climate change, and (2) spatial sustainability, which sets out requirements for municipal planning functions such as spatial planning and land use management to be carried out in ways that consider protecting vital ecosystem features such as agricultural land, i.e., from both anthropogenic and natural threats, including the impacts of climate change, as well as in ways that consider current and future costs of providing infrastructure and social services in certain areas (e.g., uninformed municipal investments may lead to an increase in the exposure of people and valuable assets to extreme climate hazards).

Furthermore, the National Climate Change Response White Paper – which outlines the country’s comprehensive plan to transition to a climate resilient, globally competitive, equitable and low-carbon economy and society through climate change adaptation and mitigation, while simultaneously addressing the country’s key priorities, including job creation, poverty reduction, social equality and sustainable development, amongst others – identifies local governments as critical role players that can contribute towards effective climate change adaptation through their various functions, including “[the] planning [of] human settlements and urban development; the provision of municipal infrastructure and services; water and energy demand management; and local disaster response, amongst others.” (Republic of South Africa, 2011, p. 38). The Climate Change Bill takes it further by setting out reporting requirements on climate change response needs and interventions for every municipality in the country.

The National Climate Change Adaptation Strategy outlines several actions that are applicable at municipal level, including the development and implementation of adaptation strategies and vulnerability reduction programmes targeting communities and individuals that are most at risk to the impacts of climate change; the development of municipal early warning systems; as well as the integration of climate change adaptation into municipal development plans and relevant

sector plans, i.e., mainstreaming. The National Climate Risk and Vulnerability Assessment Framework – which is aimed at all actors, including local governments – guides the development and review of climate risk and vulnerability assessments (CRVAs) to enable alignment, aggregation and comparison across all CRVAs, in an effort to inform an integrated and effective climate change adaptation response across all scales and sectors.

In response to the national call to advance spatial transformation and consolidation in human settlement development, the National Department of Human Settlements (DHS) has identified a total of 136 Priority Human Settlements and Housing Development Areas (PHSHDAs). The PHSHDAs were declared to ensure that housing delivery is used to restructure and revitalise towns and cities, strengthen the livelihood prospects of households, and overcome apartheid spatial patterns by fostering integrated urban forms (DHS, 2020). PHSHDAs were designated using national criteria which includes an area or settlement's potential to support sustainable environmental management (which plays a critical role in mitigating the negative impacts of climate change), as well as its potential to accommodate the integration of land uses and amenities, i.e., in addition to other criteria.

The DHS has identified two key objectives for PHSHDAs, including (1) targeting and prioritising areas for integrated housing and human settlements development to ensure the delivery of housing for a diverse range of income groups within an integrated mixed-use development, as well as (2) transforming spatial patterns which have historically exacerbated social inequality and economic inefficiency (DHS, 2020). As part of the second objective, this initiative aims to develop post-apartheid cities and city patterns that ensure urban access, as well as achieve a balance between spatial equity, economic competitiveness and environment sustainability (DHS, 2020). As the impacts of climate change become more severe, the latter outcome (i.e., ensuring and maintaining environmental sustainability) will become increasingly important.

Furthermore, as part of the implementation approach for housing and human settlement development in PHSHDAs, the DHS has identified the provision and maintenance of ecological infrastructure to support development in priority areas as a key avenue for integrating climate considerations and mainstreaming climate responses (DHS, 2022).

1.3. Local Municipal context

Tsantsabane was the original name given to the town by the Batswana because of the presence of many shiny stones (e.g., the hematite). Tsantsabane Local Municipality is a Category B Municipality situated in the ZFM District Municipality and covers geographic area of 5 887km² (IDP20/21). The Municipality is bordered by Siyancuma LM, //Khara Hais LM, Kheis LM, Gamagara LM and Kgatelopele LM.

The municipal area accommodates the main towns of Postmasburg and Beeshoek (Figure 2). Economically, Tsantsabane is known for being rich in minerals, and for its mining, agriculture, manufacturing, and farming sectors.

The municipal area falls in the Gamagara Corridor. The NCPSTDF (2012: 68) defines the Gamagara Corridor as “comprises the mining belt of the John Taolo Gaetsewe and Siyanda (ZF Mgcawu) districts and runs from Lime Acres and Danielskuil to Hotazel in the north. The corridor focuses on the mining of iron and manganese”. The socio-economic profile of Postmasburg is largely dependent on the economy of iron-ore commodity markets as most people within the town are employed by the adjacent Beeshoek mining complex and surrounding mines.

The municipality has more males than females and the reason could be derived from the male dominated employment industry as there are a lot of mines in the area. Out of the whole population 54% are black male followed by 36% coloured males then 8% white and lastly 1% Indians. For females there are 51% black Africans followed by 40% coloured females then lastly 9% of whites in the municipal area. The age pyramid indicates that the population of Tsantsabane is predominantly young. There is a small percentage of people older than 60 years. The age pyramid further indicates that approximately 31% of the population is under 14 years and approximately 33% is between 15 and 34 years.

The town is linked with the R325 as well as the R385 which includes the Transnet freight line running through the town. There appears to be a mushrooming of large informal housing within Postmasburg with most formal housing located in Postmasburg and some formal mining housing within Beeshoek in the mining complex. The town has a small established CBD which primarily serves the needs of its population. The town also has access to a landing strip to the south. The residential cluster in Beeshoek seem to mainly cater towards existing staff at the mine.

The mine occupies a large area within the PHSFDA and should be viewed as the primary economic driver. The lifespan of the mine is an important factor for areas like these since the developments are based on the functioning of the mine.

2. Baseline and future climate risk

This section starts with an overview of vulnerability and population change projections, unpacking the components of vulnerability on both the municipal and settlement level as well future population pressures. Thereafter the current and future climate is discussed in terms of temperature and rainfall. Current as well as future exposure to drought, heat, wildfire and flooding are also set out. Together, this information provides an overview of current and future climate risk for the Tsantsabane Municipal Area to inform responsive planning and adaptation.

2.1. Vulnerability and population change

There are many factors that influence the vulnerability of our municipalities and settlements, some of which are unpacked in the following section. The current vulnerabilities for Tsantsabane LM and its settlements are profiled using a framework which sets out indicators that can be used to profile the multi-dimensional and context-specific inherent vulnerability of settlements and municipalities in South Africa. The framework describes and quantifies, where possible, the inherent vulnerability of people, infrastructure, services, economic activities, and natural resources by setting out context and location-specific indicators that were specifically designed to support vulnerability risk assessments of South African municipalities. Population changes drives vulnerability into the future, and therefore population growth and decline of settlements across the local municipality are projected to 2050. Spatial population projections are integral in determining the potential exposure and vulnerability of a population to hazards.

2.1.1. Municipal vulnerability

Municipal vulnerability is unpacked in terms of four vulnerability indices, each of which are described below, and in Table 1 the vulnerability scores are provided for Tsantsabane LM.

The Socio-Economic Vulnerability Index (SEVI) shows the vulnerability of households living in the municipality with regards to household composition, income composition, education, mobility, health, access to basic services, access to social government services, political instability, and safety and security of households. A high vulnerability score indicates that the municipality houses a high number of vulnerable households with regards to their ability to withstand adverse shocks from the external environment.

The Economic Vulnerability Index (EcVI) speaks toward the economic resilience of the municipality, and considers economic sector diversification, the size of economy, labour force, the GDP growth/decline pressure experienced in the municipality, and the inequality present in the municipality. The higher the economic vulnerability the more susceptible the municipality is to being adversely affected by external shocks.

The Physical Vulnerability Index (PVI) relates to the built environment and the connectedness of the settlements in the local municipality. It is a composite indicator that considers road

infrastructure, housing types, the maintenance of the infrastructure, densities, and general accessibility. A high physical vulnerability score highlights areas of remoteness and/or areas with structural vulnerabilities.

The Environmental Vulnerability Index (EnVI) highlights municipalities where there is a high conflict between preserving the natural environment and accommodating the growth pressures associated with population growth, urbanisation, and economic development. The index considers the human influence on the environment, the amount of ecological infrastructure present that needs protection, the presence of critical water resources, environmental health, and environmental governance. A high vulnerability score highlights municipalities that experience increasing pressure relating to protecting the environment and allowing land use change due to growth pressures.

Tsantsabane LM is provided with a score out of 10 for each of the vulnerability indices. A score higher than 5 indicates an above national average, and a score lower than 5 indicates a below national average for vulnerability. Scores are provided for both 1996 and 2011, where a lower score in 2011 compared to 1996 indicates an improvement and a higher score indicates worsening vulnerability. Trend data is only available for Socio-Economic Vulnerability and Economic Vulnerability.

Table 1: Vulnerability indicators across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

MUNICIPALITY	SEVI 1996	SEVI 2011	Trend	EcVI 1996	EcVI 2011	Trend	PVI	Trend	EnVI	Trend
Tsantsabane	4.3	3.1	↓	5.6	6.2	↑	6.9	N/A	2.0	N/A

As outlined in Table 1, Tsantsabane LM's socio-economic vulnerability has decreased (improved) between 1996 and 2011 – thus indicating that the number of vulnerable households has decreased, particularly in terms of their lack of access to basic and social services, and essential resources that influence their ability to withstand adverse shocks from the external environment, including those induced by climate change. However, the LM's economic vulnerability has increased (worsened) within the same period, therefore indicating the municipality's high susceptibility to being adversely affected by external shocks. The Tsantsabane LM has a moderate physical vulnerability score and is ranked 18th out of 26 provinces; this alludes to moderate structural vulnerabilities in the LM, particularly when considering the municipality's buildings and infrastructure.

2.1.2. Settlement vulnerability

The unique set of indicators outlined below highlight the multi-dimensional vulnerabilities of the settlement in which the PSHDA is to be found within the Tsantsabane Municipal Area, with regards to six composite indicators. This enables the investigation of the relative vulnerabilities of the settlement (PSHDA) within the LM compared to other settlements.

A high vulnerability score (closer to 10) indicates a scenario where an undesirable state is present e.g., low access to services, high socio-economic vulnerabilities, poor regional connectivity, environmental pressure or high economic pressures. An indicator of growth pressure, providing a temporal dimension (15-year trend), was added to show which settlements are experiencing growth pressures on top of the other dimensional vulnerabilities.

The Socio-economic Vulnerability Index comprises of three indicators (and eight variables) that show the vulnerability of households occupying a specific settlement with regards to their (1) household composition (household size, age dependency, female/child headed household), (2) income composition (poverty level, unemployment status, and grant dependency of the households), as well as (3) their education (literacy and level of education).

The Economic Vulnerability Index comprises of five variables grouped into three indicators that highlight the economic vulnerability of each settlement with regards to (1) its size (GDP per capita and GDP production rates), (2) the active labour force (taking note of unemployed and discouraged work seekers), and (3) the GDP growth rate for the past 15 years.

The Environmental Vulnerability Index considers the footprint composition of the settlement taking the ration of built-up versus open spaces into account.

The Growth-Pressure Vulnerability Index shows the relative (1996-2011 growth rates) and anticipated pressure on settlements.

The Regional Economic Connectivity Vulnerability Index looks at the regional infrastructure of each settlement (measured through a remoteness/accessibility index), as well as the role of the town in terms of its regional economy.

The Service Access Vulnerability Index comprises of 10 variables grouped into four indicators, that show the level of services offered and rendered within a settlement and includes the settlement's (1) access to basic services (electricity, water, sanitation, and refuse removal), (2) settlement's access to social and government services (health access, emergency service access, access to schools, and early childhood development), (3) access to higher order education facilities, and (4) access to adequate housing.

A brief description of the settlement vulnerability in Tsantsabane LM follows below.

The major settlements in the Tsantsabane LM are Postmasburg, Postdene, Beeshoek Mine, Groenwater, Goedgedacht and Glosam. The settlement of Groenwater faces the highest growth pressure, this is accompanied by very high economic and socio-economic vulnerability and high environmental vulnerability. Postmasburg, followed closely by Postdene have the highest service access vulnerability in the Tsantsabane LM which indicates some challenges in accessing basic services such as electricity, water and sanitation as well as access to

healthcare and education. Goedgedacht has the highest environmental vulnerability in the municipality, with the second highest regional connectivity score, and high socio-economic vulnerability. Beeshoek Mine constitutes the LM's most remote settlements, as it has a very high regional connectivity vulnerability score.

2.1.3. Population growth pressure

The core modelling components of the settlement growth model are the demographic model and the population potential gravity model. The demographic model produces the long-term projected population values at the national, provincial and municipal scale using the Spectrum and Cohort-Component models. The spatially coarse demographic projections were fed into the population potential gravity model, a gravity model that uses a population potential surface to downscale the national population projections, resulting in 1x1 km resolution projected population grids for 2030 and 2050. The availability of a gridded population dataset for past, current, and future populations enable the assessment of expected changes in the spatial concentration, distribution, and movement of people.

Using the innovative settlement footprint data layer created by the CSIR, which delineates built-up areas, settlement-scale population projections were aggregated up from the 1 x 1 km grids of South African projected population for a 2030 and 2050 medium and high growth scenario. These two population growth scenarios (medium and high) are differentiated based on their in- and out-migration assumptions. The medium growth scenario (see Table 2) assumes that the peak of population influx from more distant and neighbouring African countries into South Africa has already taken place. The high growth scenario assumes that the peak of migrant influx is yet to happen.

Table 2: Population growth pressure across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Municipal Population Growth	2011	Medium Growth Scenario	
		2030	2050
Tsantsabane Local Municipality	35 080	53 394	74 367

Tsantsabane LM's population is projected to increase by 111.99% between 2011 and 2050, under a medium growth scenario. Most of the growth will occur between 2030 and 2050. Figure 4 depicts the growth pressures that the settlements across the Tsantsabane LM will likely experience. The map is accompanied by a table that provides, in addition to the expected growth pressure (under a medium population growth scenario), the baseline (2011) and projected (2030 and 2050) population figures for each settlement.

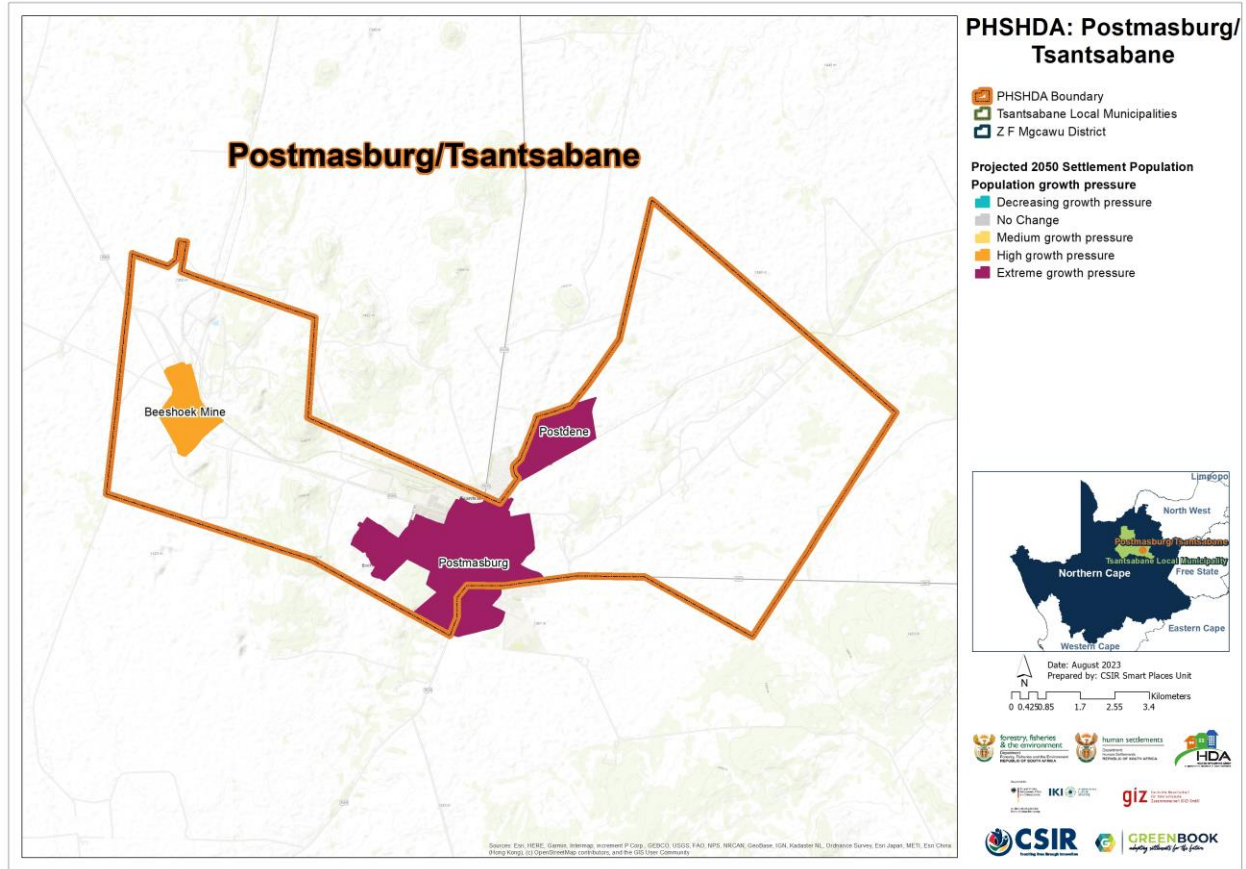


Figure 3: Settlement-level population growth pressure

Tsantsabane Local Municipality				
Town	Pressure	2011	2030	2050
Postmasburg	Extreme	22,186	36,679	53,275
Postdene	Extreme	6,931	10,231	14,012
Beeshoek Mine	High	688	1,002	1,362
Groenwater	Medium	740	904	1,091
Goedgedacht	No Change	747	747	747
Glosam	No Change	120	162	210

Table 3: Settlement-level population growth pressure across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

As displayed in Figure 3 and outlined in Table 3, the settlements of Postmasburg and Postdene are projected to experience extreme growth pressure. It is anticipated that the population will almost triple in size from 2011 to 2050. These two settlements are the growth centres where more economic activity is based. Beeshoek Mine is expected to experience high growth pressure with the population almost doubling in size by 2050. Medium growth pressure is expected in the

Groenwater settlement with a 47% increase in population projected for 2050. No change in population numbers is expected for the settlements of Goedgedacht and Glosam.

2.2. Climate

An ensemble of very high-resolution climate model simulations of present-day climate and projections of future climate change over South Africa has been performed as part of the GreenBook. The regional climate model used is the Conformal-Cubic Atmospheric Model (CCAM), a variable-resolution Global Climate Model (GCM) developed by the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO). CCAM runs coupled to a dynamic land-surface model CABLE (CSIRO Atmosphere Biosphere Land Exchange model). GCM simulations of the Coupled Model Inter-Comparison Project 5 (CMIP5) and the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), obtained for the emission scenarios described by Representative Concentration Pathways 4.5 and 8.5 (RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5) were first downscaled to 50 km resolution globally. The simulations span the period 1960–2100. RCP 4.5 is a high mitigation scenario (assuming a reduction in CO₂ emissions into the future), whilst RCP 8.5 is a low mitigation scenario (assuming “business as usual” emissions).

After completion of the 50 km resolution simulations described above, CCAM was integrated in stretched-grid mode over South Africa, at a resolution of 8 x 8 km (approximately 0.08° degrees in latitude and longitude). The model integrations performed at a resolution of 8 km over South Africa offer several advantages over the 50 km resolution simulations:

- a) Convective rainfall is partially resolved in the 8 km simulations, implying that the model is less dependent on statistics to simulate this intricate aspect of the atmospheric dynamics and physics.
- b) Important topographic features such the southern and eastern escarpments are much better resolved in the 8 km resolution simulations, implying that the topographic forcing of temperatures, wind patterns and convective rainfall can be simulated more realistically.

For more information on the climate simulations, see the GreenBook [Climate Change Story Map](#) and the [full technical report](#).

For each of the climate variables discussed below:

- a) The simulated baseline (also termed “current” climatological) state over South Africa calculated for the period 1961–1990 is shown (note that the median of the six downscaled GCMs are shown in this case).
- b) The projected changes in the variable are subsequently shown, for the time-slab 2021–2050 relative to the baseline period 1961–1990.
- c) An RCP 8.5 scenario (low mitigation) is shown.

2.2.1. Temperature

The model was used to simulate annual average temperatures (°C) for the baseline (current) period of 1961–1990, and the projected change for period 2021–2050 under a RCP8.5 mitigation scenario.

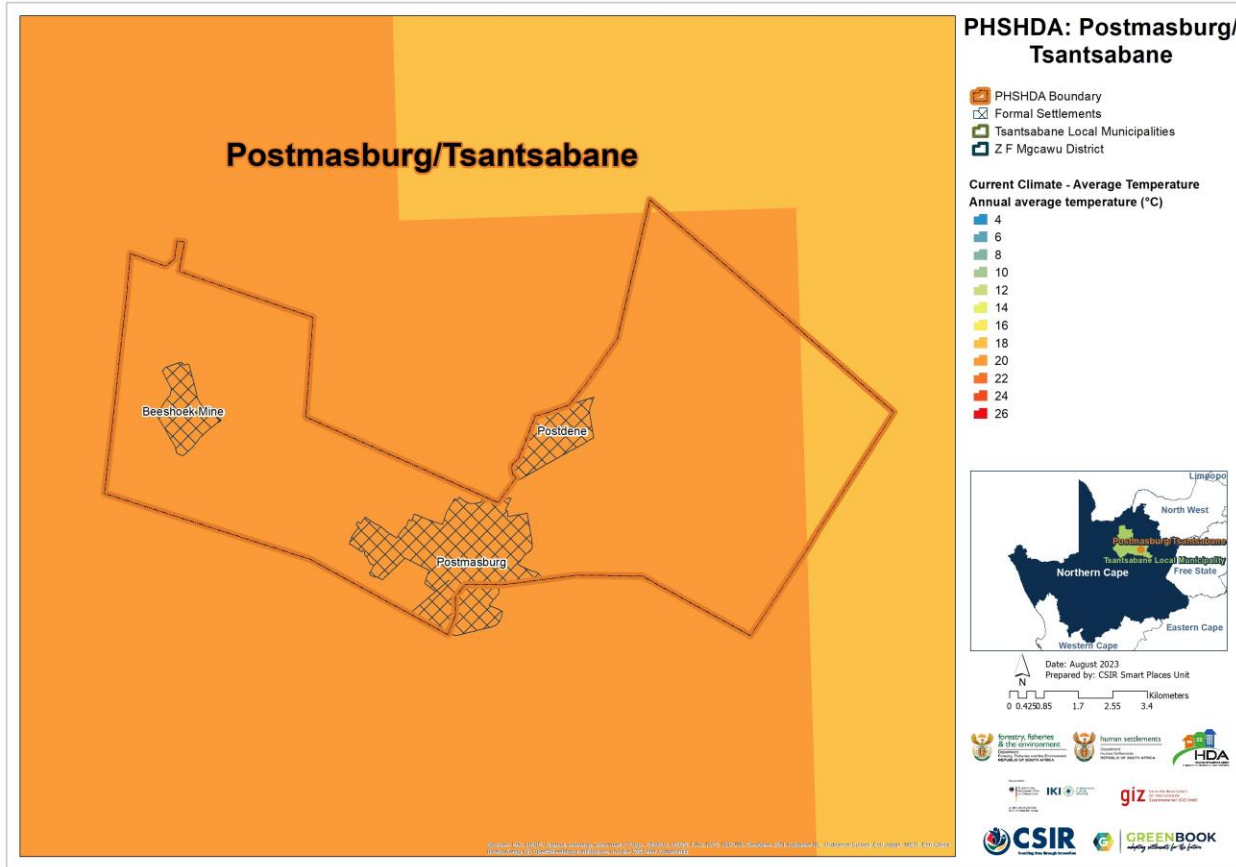


Figure 4: Average annual temperature (°C) for the baseline period 1961 – 1990 for Tsantsabane Local Municipality

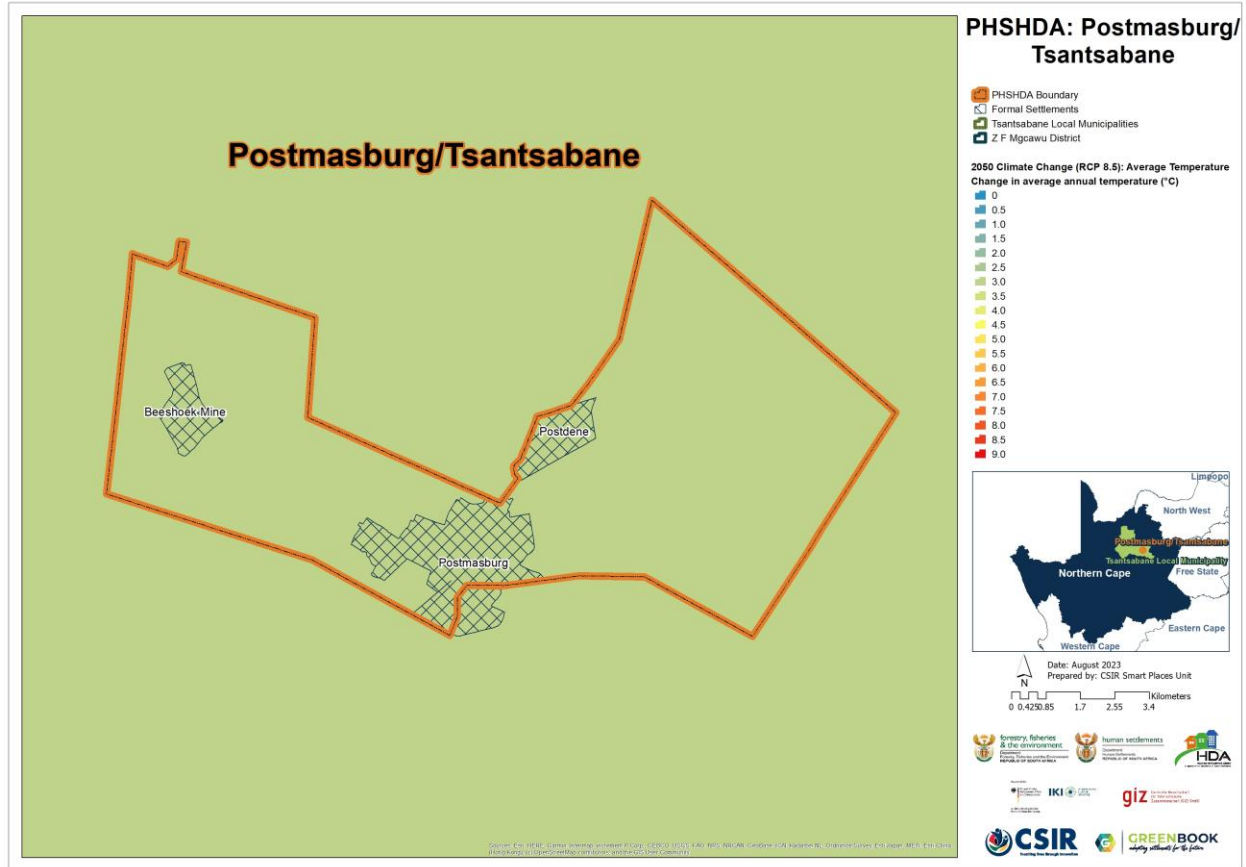


Figure 5: Projected change in average annual temperature (°C) from the baseline period to the period 2021 – 2050 for Tsantsabane Local Municipality, assuming an (RCP 8.5) emissions pathway

As displayed in Figure 4 the current average temperature for the Postmasburg PSHDA is 19.36°C. Future projections show a clear signal of a warming municipality with temperature increases ranging between 3.09°C to 3.60°C (Figure 5). Very little to no geographical variation is shown in temperature across the PSHDA.

2.2.2. Rainfall

The multiple GCMs were used to simulate average annual rainfall (depicted in mm) for the baseline (current) period of 1961–1990, and the projected change from the baseline to the period 2021–2050 under an RCP8.5 emissions scenario.

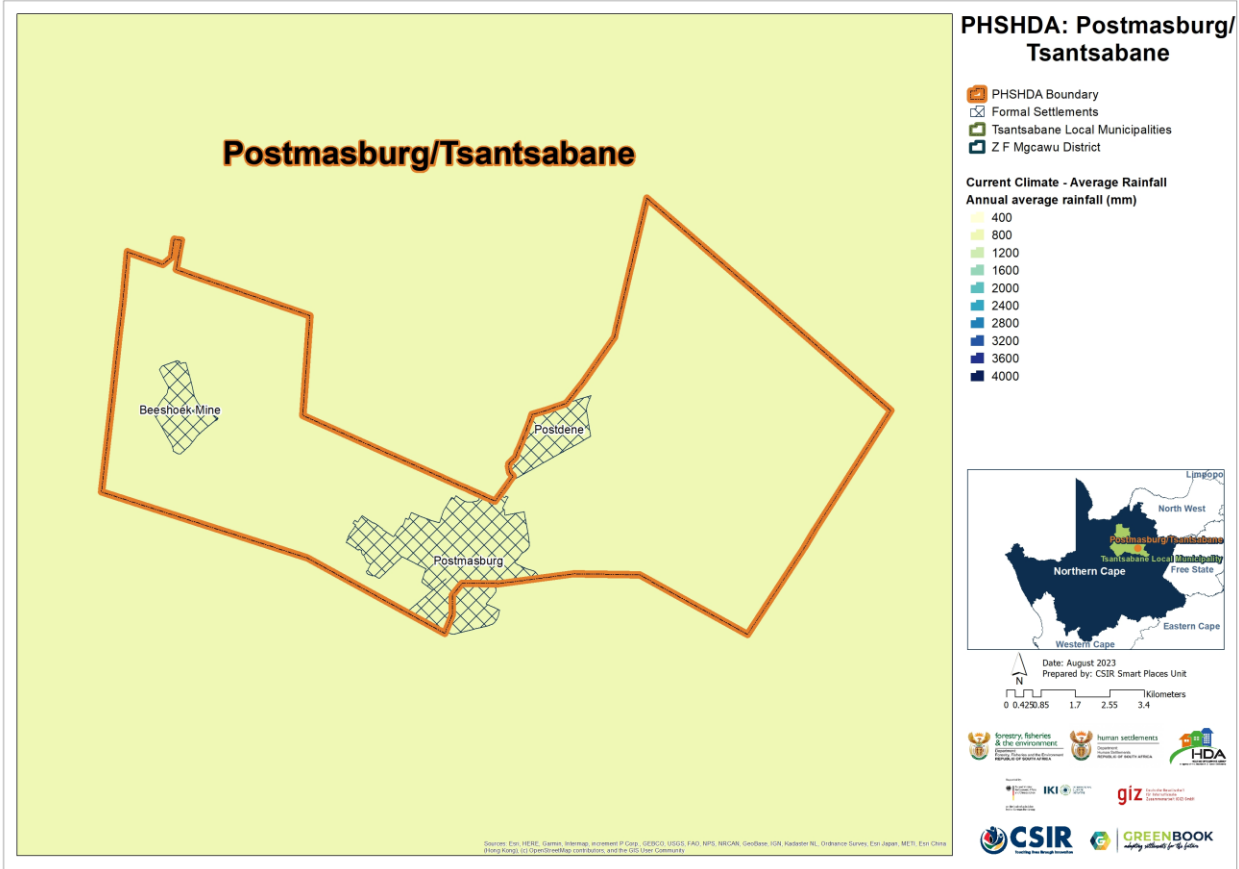


Figure 6: Average annual rainfall (mm) for the baseline period 1961 – 1990 for Tsantsabane Local Municipality

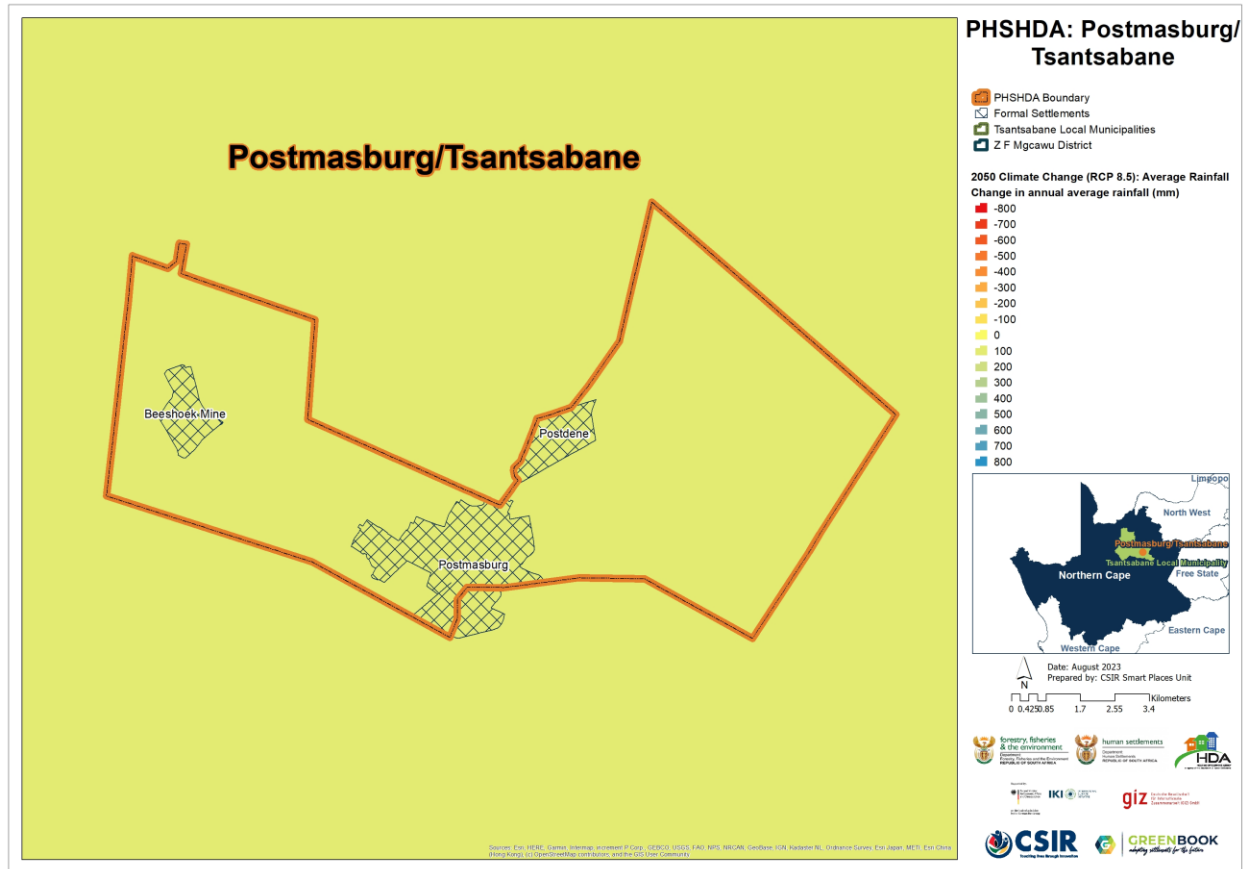


Figure 7: Projected change in average annual rainfall (mm) from the baseline period to the period 2021 – 2050 for Tsantsabane Local Municipality, assuming an (RCP 8.5) emissions pathway

As displayed in Figure 6 the current average annual rainfall for the Postmasburg PSHDA is 400mm. The projected future change in average annual rainfall is expected to range between 6.81mm to 81.26mm. Future rainfall for the settlements is expected to increase between 0-100mm There is little to no geographical variation in rainfall across the PSHDA.

2.3. Climate Hazards

This section showcases information with regards to Tsantsabane Local Municipality's exposure to climate-related hazards.

2.3.1.Drought

The southern African region (particularly many parts of South Africa) is projected to become generally drier under enhanced anthropogenic forcing, with an associated increase in dry spells and droughts. To characterise the extent, severity, duration, and time evolution of drought over South Africa, the GreenBook uses primarily the Standardised Precipitation Index (SPI), which is recommended by the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) and is also acknowledged as a universal meteorological drought index by the Lincoln Declaration on Drought. The SPI, with a two-parameter gamma distribution fit with maximum likelihood estimates of the shape and

scale parameters, was applied on monthly rainfall accumulations for a 3-, 6-, 12-, 24- and 36-months base period. The SPI severity index is interpreted in the context of negative values indicating droughts and positive values indicating floods. These values range from exceptionally drier (<-2.0) or wetter (>2.0) to near-normal (region bounded within -0.5 and 0.5).

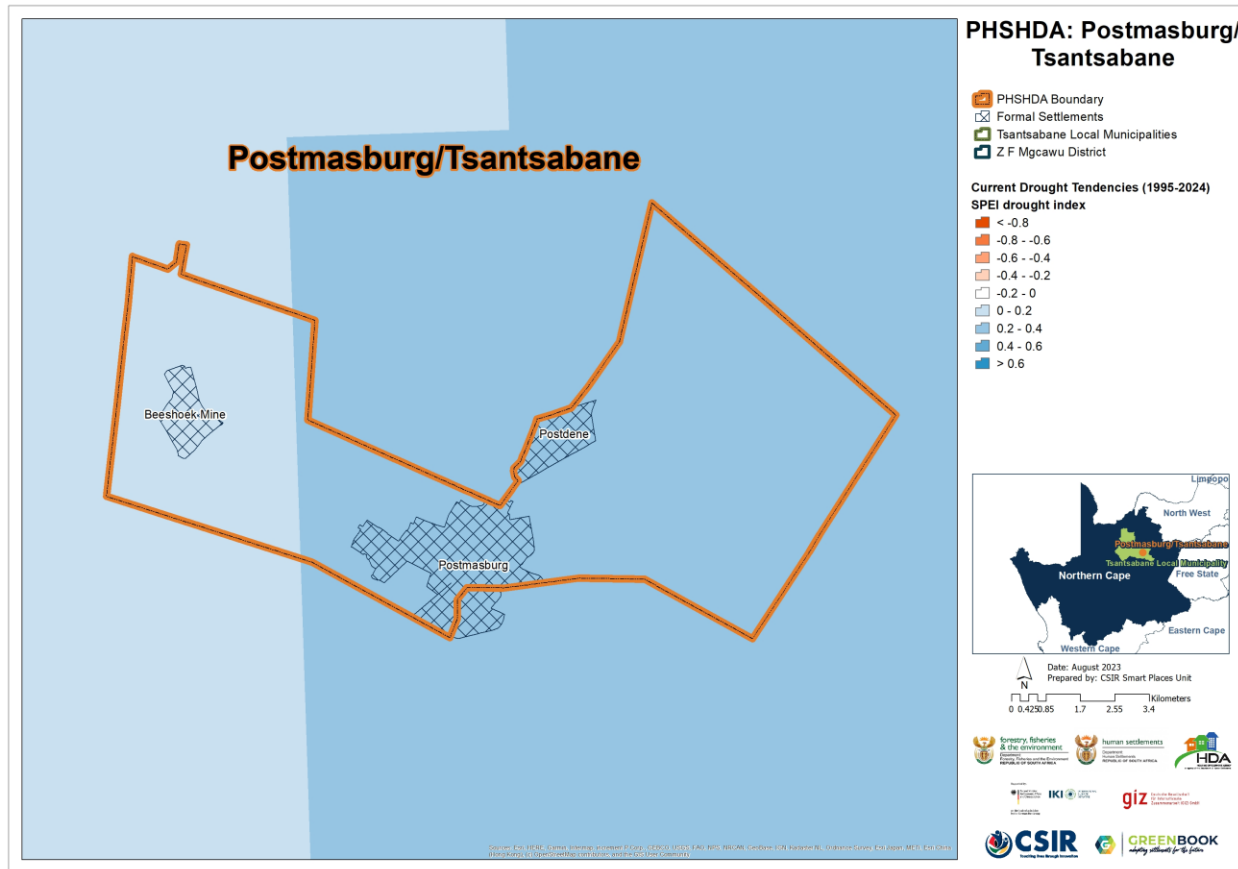


Figure 8: Projected changes in drought tendencies from the baseline period (1986 - 2005) to the current period (1995 - 2024) across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Figure 8 depicts the projected change in drought tendencies (i.e., the number of cases exceeding near normal per decade) for the period 1995-2024, relative to the 1986-2005 baseline period, under an RCP 8.5 “business as usual” emissions scenario. A negative value is indicative of an increase in drought tendencies per 10 years (more frequent than the observed baseline), with a positive value indicative of a decrease in drought tendencies.

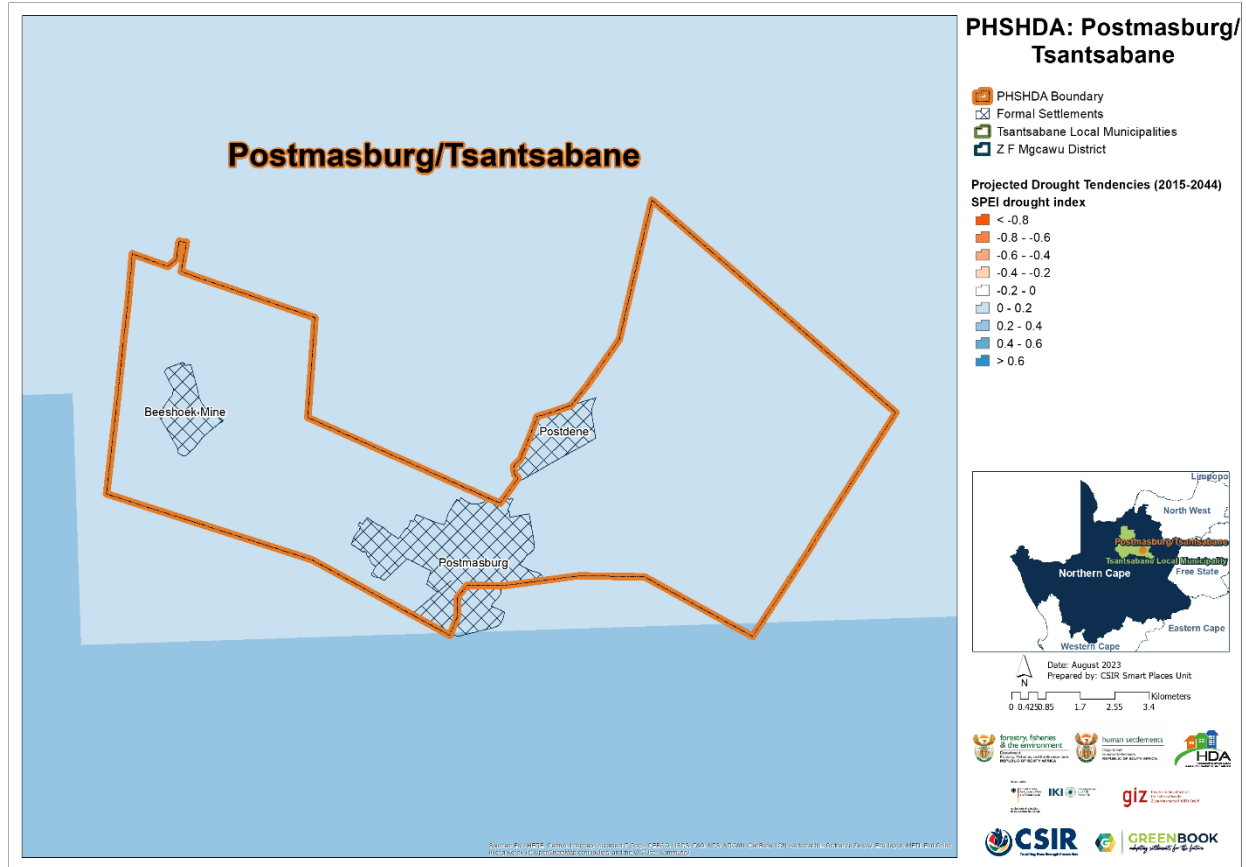


Figure 9: Projected changes in drought tendencies from the baseline period (1986 - 2005) to the future period (2015 - 2044) for Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Figure 9 depicts the projected change in drought tendencies (i.e., the number of cases exceeding near-normal per decade) for the period 2015–2044, relative to the 1986–2005 baseline period, under the low mitigation “business as usual” emissions scenario (RCP 8.5). A negative value is indicative of an increase in drought tendencies per 10 years (more frequent than baseline) into the future period and a positive value indicative of a decrease.

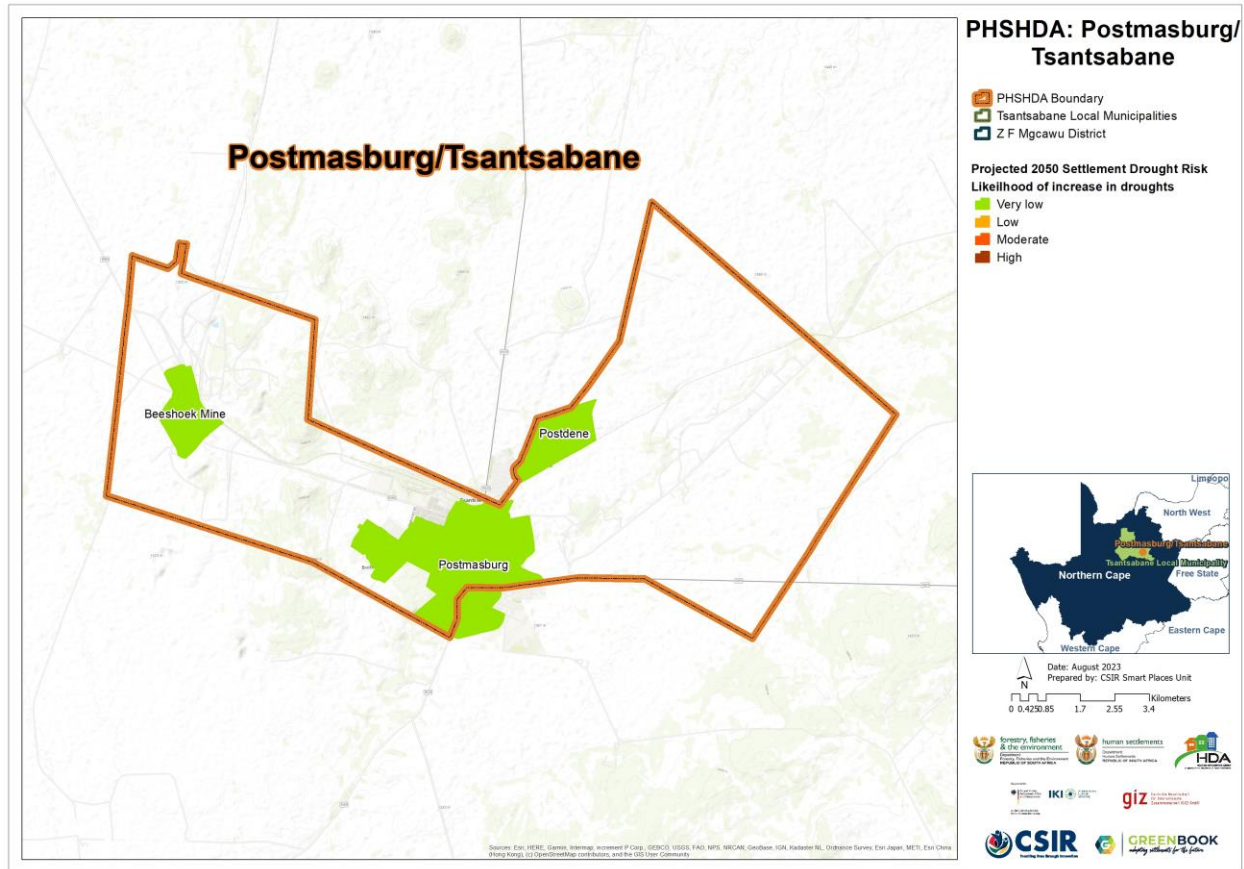


Figure 10: Settlement-level drought risk for Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Figure 10 depicts the settlements that are at risk of increases in drought tendencies.

As displayed in Figure 8 the projected changes in drought tendencies for the Tsantsabane PSHDA for the current period indicates near normal conditions with most of the municipality including the areas of Postmasburg and Postdene having a SPI score of 0.2 to 0.4, the area covering Beeshoek mine has a slightly lower SPI score of between 0 to 0.2 but still falls within near normal conditions. Future prediction of drought tendencies (Figure 9) indicates near normal conditions, with the settlement-level drought risk for the PSHDA projected to be very low (Figure 10).

2.3.2. Heat

The GCMs were used to simulate bias-corrected, annual average number of very hot days, defined as days when the maximum temperature exceeds 35°C per GCM grid point for the baseline (current) period of 1961–1990 (Figure 11), and for the projected change for period 2021–2050 (Figure 12), assuming a “business as usual” (RCP 8.5) emissions pathway.

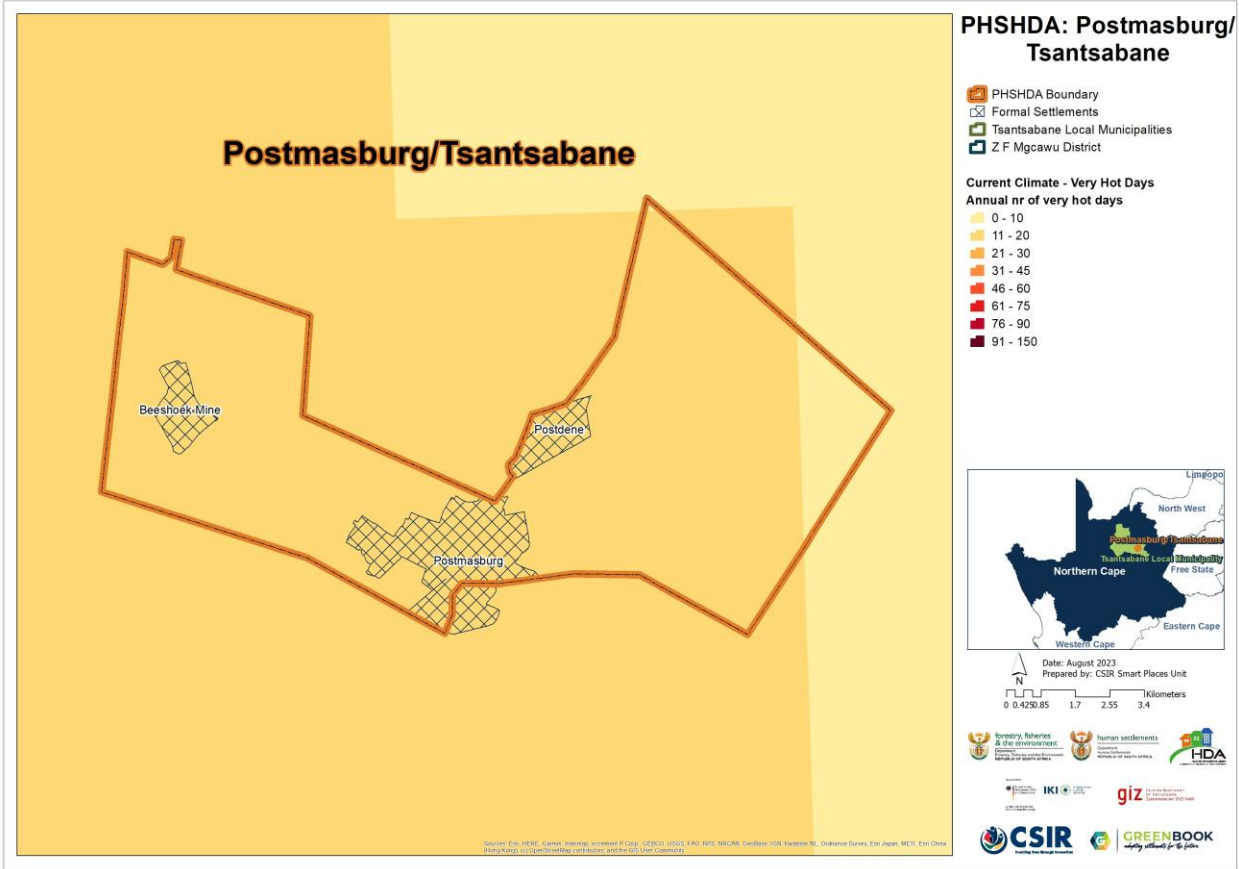


Figure 11: Annual number of very hot days under baseline climatic conditions across Tsantsabane Local Municipality with daily temperature maxima exceeding 35 °C

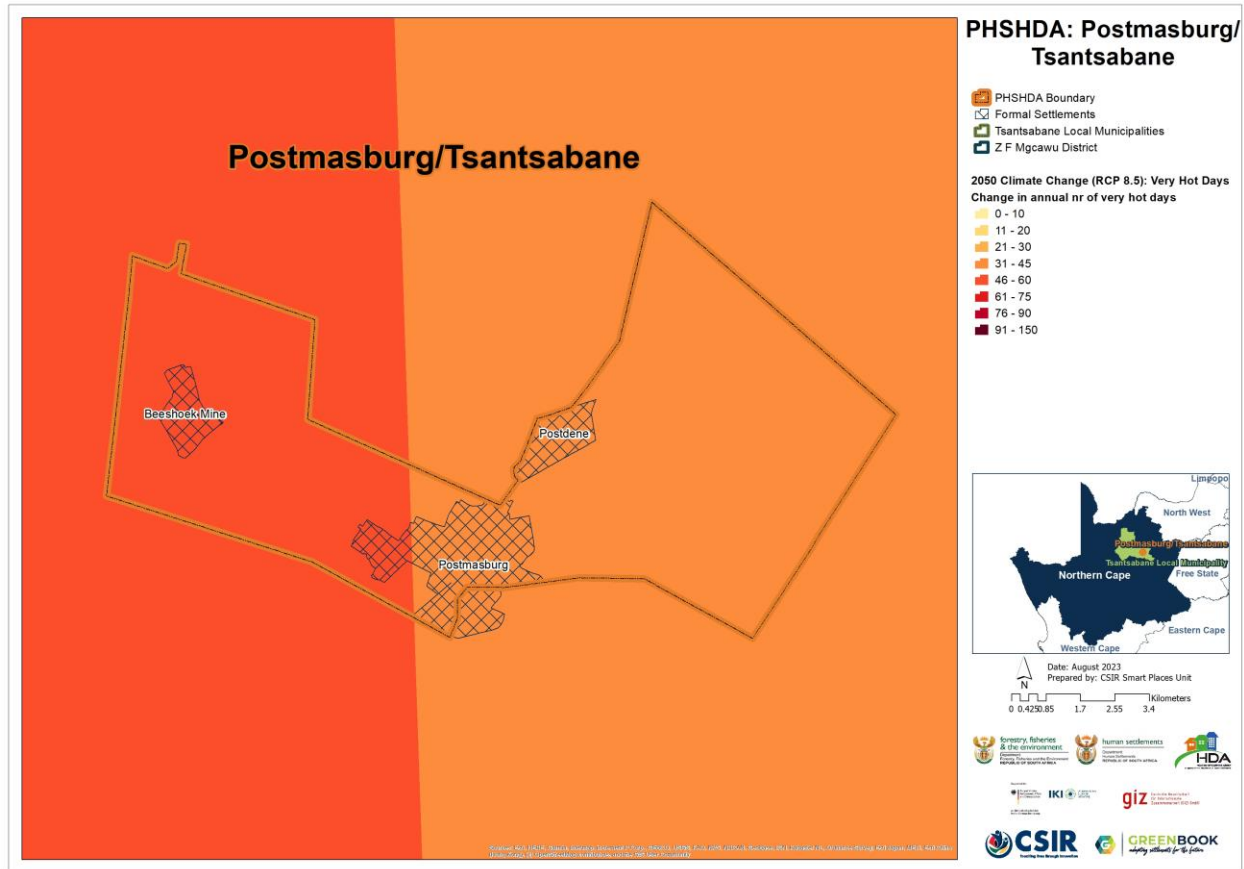


Figure 12: Projected change in annual number of very hot days across Tsantsabane Local Municipality with daily temperature maxima exceeding 35 °C, assuming an (RCP 8.5) emissions pathway

As displayed in Figure 11 the number of very hot days under current conditions are 11-20 days. Future predictions show an increase in the number of very hot days of as much as 31-45 days for the settlements of Postmasburg and Postdene, while the area covering Beeshoek Mine is expected to have 46-60 very hot days per annum by 2050 (Figure 12).

The annual heatwave days map under baseline conditions (Figure 13) depicts the number of days (per 8x8 km grid point) where the maximum temperature exceeds the average maximum temperature of the warmest month of the year at that location by at least 5°C, i.e., for a period of at least three consecutive days. The projected change in the number of days belonging to a heatwave for the period 2021-2050 (Figure 14), assuming a “business as usual” (RCP 8.5) emissions pathway is also shown. Annual number of heatwave days under baseline conditions is 5 days for Tsantsabane LM. Future predictions show an increase in heatwave days of 25-28 days per year (Figure 14).

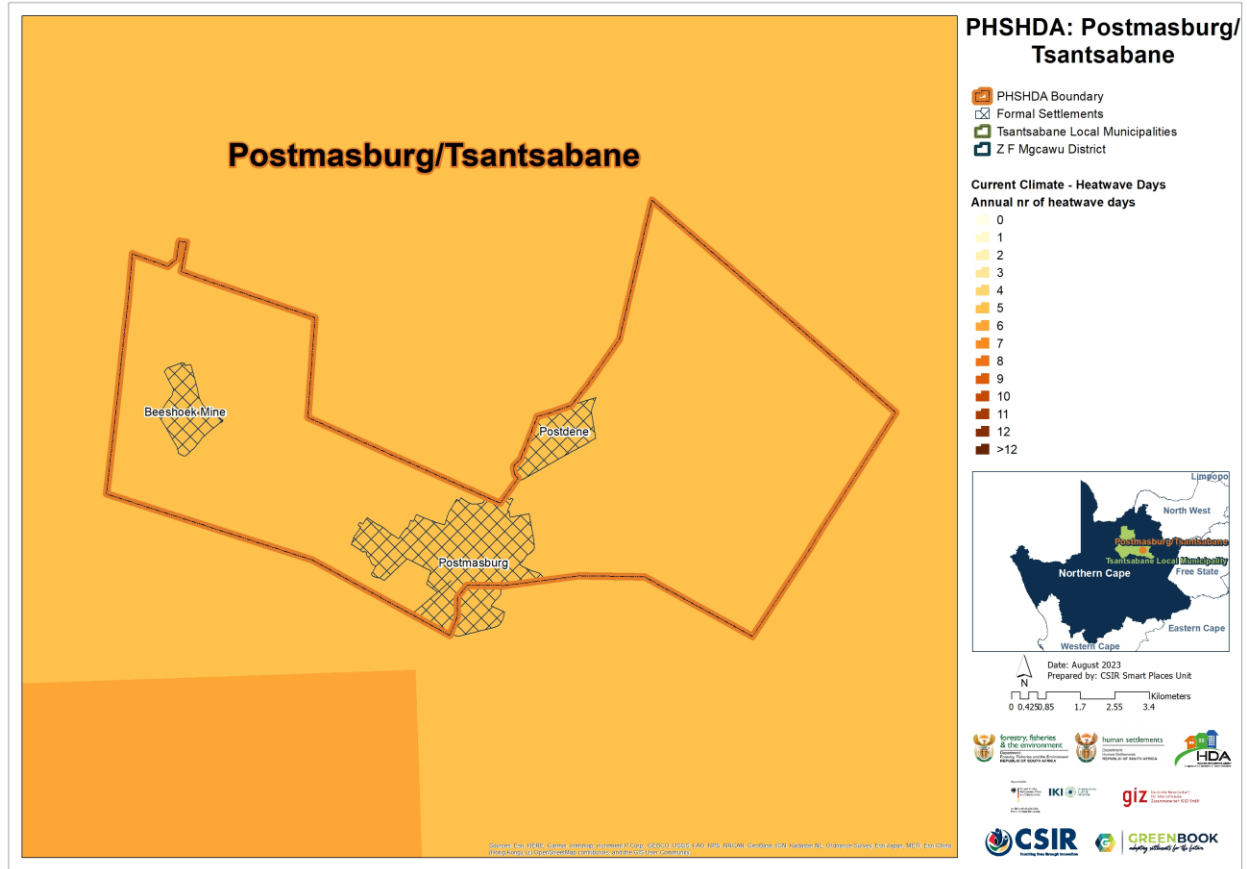


Figure 13: Annual number of heatwave days under baseline climatic conditions across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

and growing human exposure, results in significant wildfire risk across the country, especially in the southern and eastern parts.

Fire risk is determined by combining the typical fire hazard for a fire-ecotype (i.e., likelihood, fire severity) and the social and economic consequences (i.e., the potential for economic and social losses). The typical fire hazard was used to develop a plausible fire scenario for each fire-ecotype, i.e., what a typical wildfire would be like. The fire scenarios were then combined with the vulnerability to estimate the economic and social consequences. We used a scale where the likelihood was rated from 'rare' to 'almost certain' and the consequences were rated from 'insignificant' to 'catastrophic' to determine a level of fire risk which ranged from 'low' to 'high'. The risks were then summarised for all the settlements within a local authority. Changes in the fire risk in future were accommodated by adjusting either the fire scenarios or the likelihood, or both. Figure 16 depicts the likelihood and the risk of wildfires occurring in the wildland-urban interface (the boundary or interface between developed land and fire-prone vegetation) of the settlement.

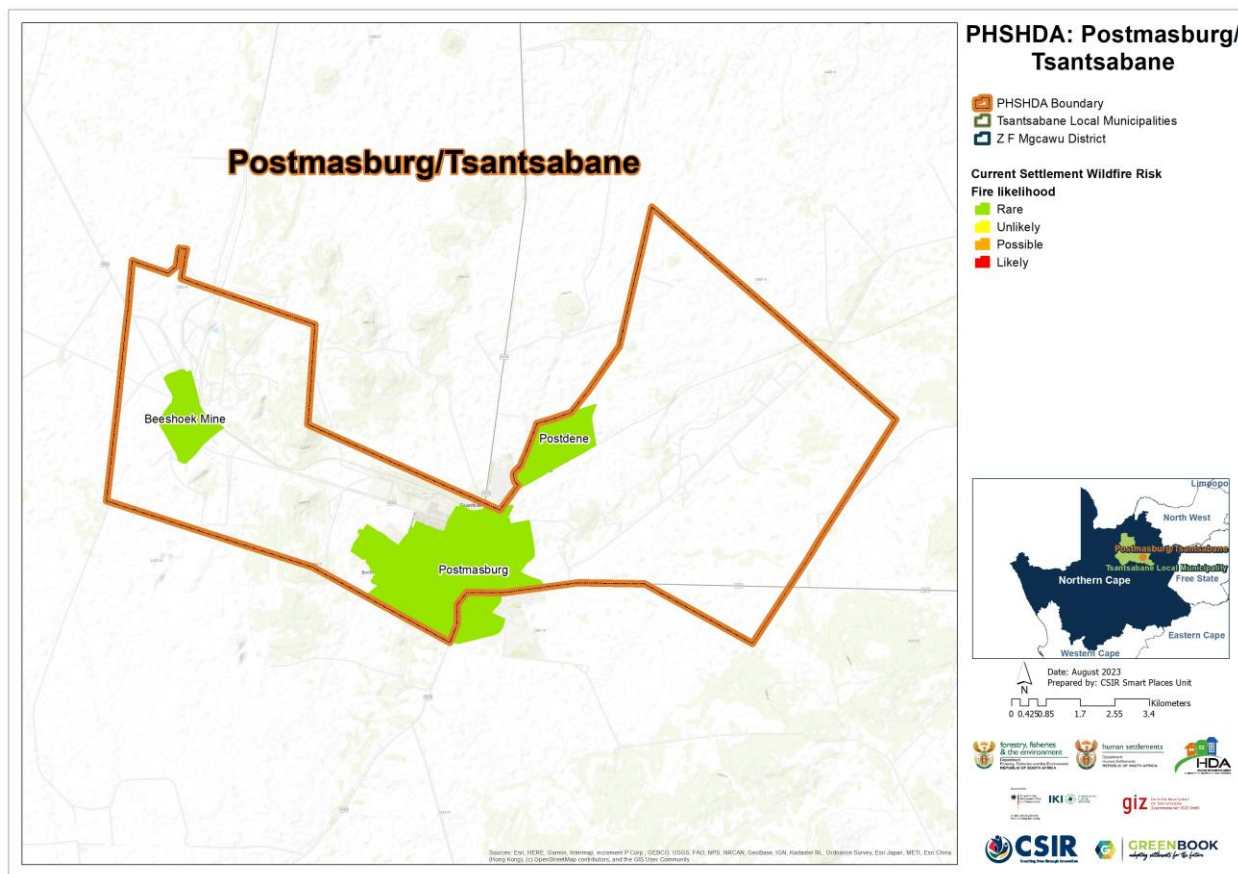


Figure 16: The likelihood of wildfires under current climatic conditions across settlements in Tsantsabane Local Municipality

The projected number of fire danger days for an 8 x 8 km grid-point under an RCP 8.5 “business as usual” emissions scenario was calculated. A fire danger day is described as a day when the McArthur fire-danger index exceeds a value of 24. The index relates to the chances of a fire starting, its rate of spread, its intensity, and its difficulty of suppression, according to various combinations of air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and both the long and short-term drought effects. Future settlement risk of wildfires is informed by the projected change in the number of fire danger days. Figure 17 depicts the settlements that could be at risk of increases in wildfires by the year 2050.

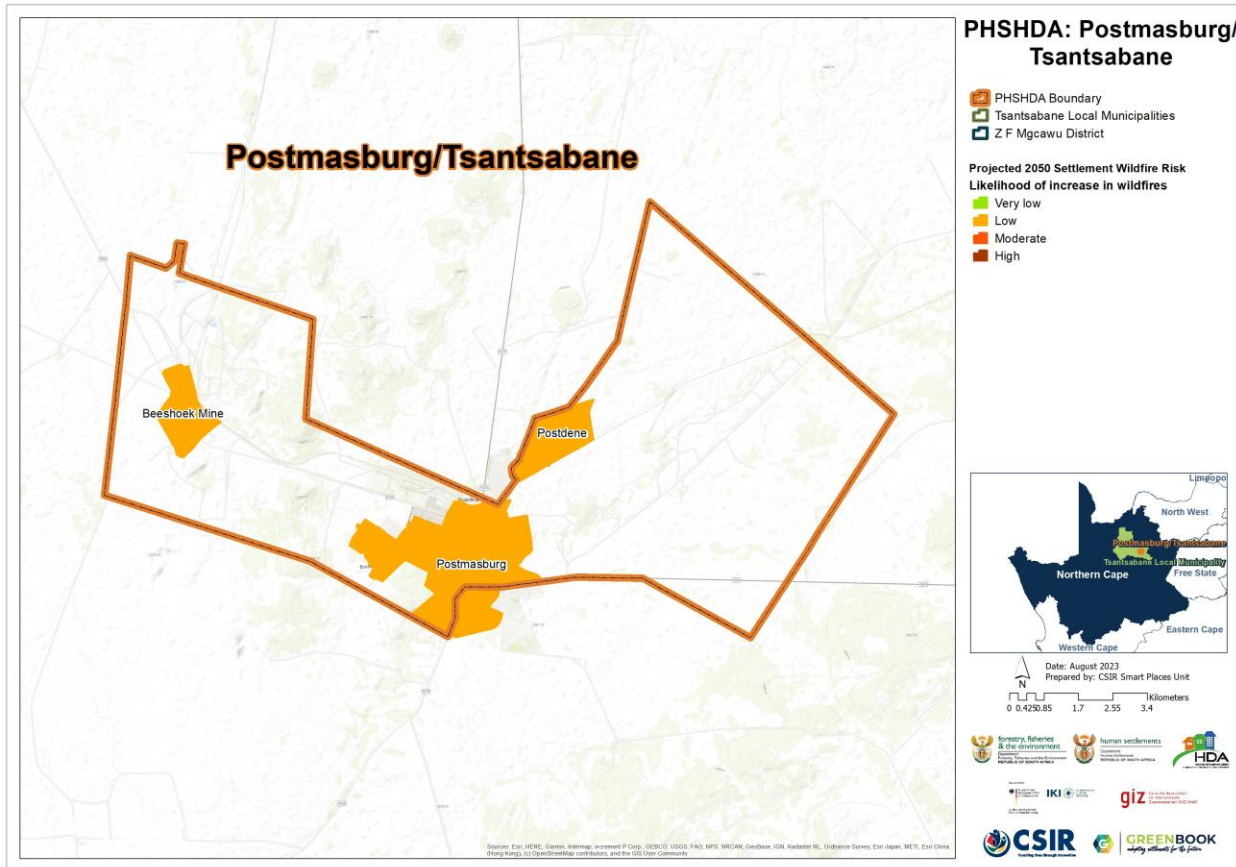


Figure 17: The likelihood of wildfires under projected climatic conditions across settlements in Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Figure 16 depicts the likelihood and the risk of wildfires occurring in the wildland-urban interface (the boundary or interface between developed land and fire-prone vegetation) of the settlement, while Figure 17 depicts the settlements that could be at risk of increases in wildfires by the year 2050. The likelihood of wildfires under current climatic conditions for the Tsantsabane LM are rare (Figure 16). The projected 2040 settlement wildfire risk for the PSHDA is low.

2.3.4. Flooding

The flood hazard assessment combines information on the climate, observed floods, and the characteristics of water catchments that make them more or less likely to produce a flood. The climate statistics were sourced from the South African Atlas of Climatology and Agrohydrology, and a study of river flows during floods in South Africa (Schulze et al. 2008). The catchment characteristics that are important are those that regulate the volume and rate of the water flowing down and out of the catchment. The SCIMAP model was used to analyse the hydrological responsiveness and connectivity of the catchments and to calculate a Flood Hazard Index. Changes in land cover, such as urbanisation, vegetation and land degradation, or poorly managed cultivation, reduce the catchment's capacity to store or retain water. More dynamic changes in land cover could not be considered in this analysis, such as for example, recent informal settlements that may increase exposure and risk. Additional local and contextual information should be considered to further enrich the information provided here.

Since the magnitude and intensity of rainfall are the main drivers of floods and rainfall intensity is likely to increase into the future, estimates of extreme daily rainfall into the future were obtained from high-resolution regional projections of future climate change over South Africa. The settlements that are at risk of an increase in floods were calculated using a risk matrix, that considered the flood hazard index and the change in extreme rainfall days from the baseline period of 1961-1990, to the 2050s.

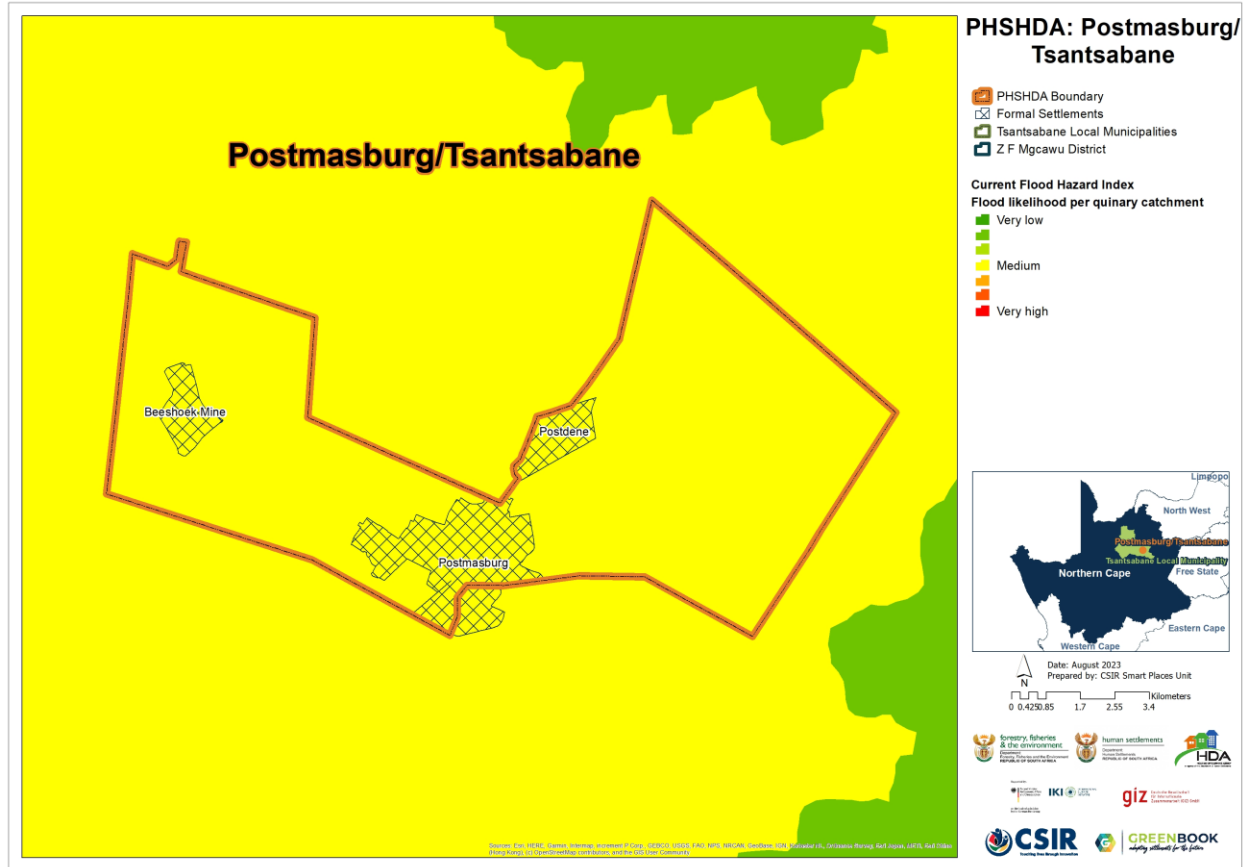


Figure 18: The flood hazard index across Tsantsabane Local Municipality under current (baseline) climatic conditions

Figure 18 depicts the flood hazard index of the individual quinary catchments present or intersecting with the local municipality. The flood hazard index is based on the catchment characteristics and design rainfall, averaged at the quinary catchment level. Green indicates a low flooding hazard, while red indicates a high flood hazard. According to the flood hazard index the flood likelihood across the PSHDA is medium.

Figure 19 depicts the projected change for the year 2050 in extreme rainfall days for an 8 x 8 km grid. This was calculated by assessing the degree of change when future rainfall extremes (e.g., 95th percentile of daily rainfall) are compared with those under the current rainfall. A value of more than one indicates an increase in extreme daily rainfalls. The projected change in extreme rainfall days is 1 which shows that an increase in extreme rainfall days is unlikely for the PSHDA.

Model projections of precipitation manifest uncertain due to several factors, including model sensitivity to spatial resolution at which processes are resolved. At 8 X 8km horizontal resolution, for example, some processes (such as convective systems) that contribute to rainfall are not adequately resolved by the climate models. The precipitation projections therefore could reflect uncertainty in some locations since fine-scale processes that contribute to precipitation

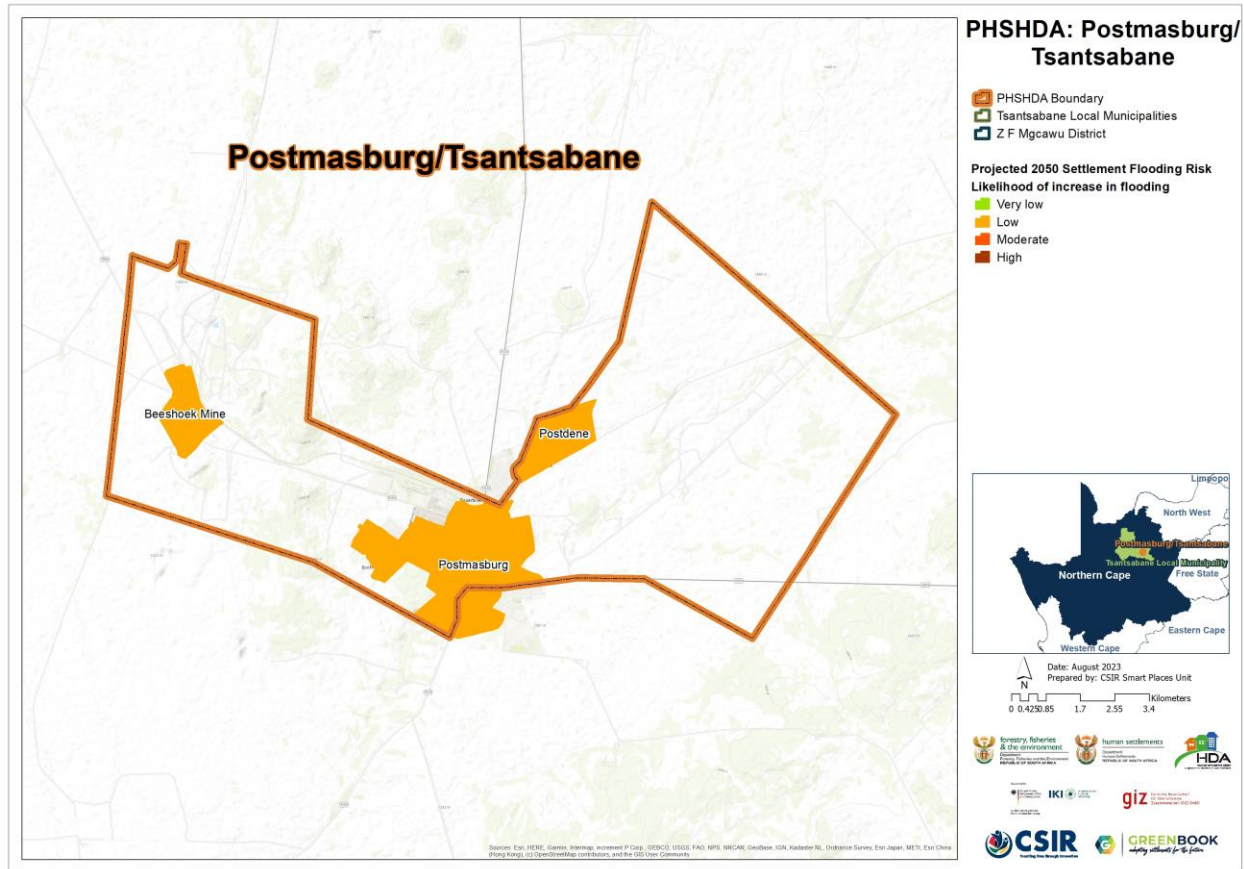


Figure 20: Flood risk into a climate change future at settlement level across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

2.4. Climate impacts on key resources and sectors

To understand the impact that climate change might have on major resources, this section explores the impact that climate change is likely to have on the resources and economic sectors of PSHDA: Postmasburg/Tsantsabane.

2.4.1. Water resources and supply vulnerability

South Africa is a water-scarce country with an average rainfall of approximately 450 mm per year, with significant annual and seasonal variability. Rainfall also varies from over 1900 mm in the east of the country and in the mountainous areas, to almost zero in the west and northwest of the country. Conversion of rainfall to runoff is also low with an average mean annual runoff (MAR) of only 40 mm, one seventh of the global average of 260 mm per year. Runoff is even more highly variable than precipitation, both in space and time. Furthermore, demand for water is not evenly distributed, with most of the major water demand centres located far from the available water resources. This has resulted in a need to store water and transfer water around the country to meet current and future demands.

Water availability is directly impacted by the climate and climate change. It is not just changes in precipitation that need to be considered, but also increasing temperatures that will lead to increased evaporation which could further reduce runoff and increase water losses from dams. Increasing temperatures will also impact on water demand, particularly for irrigation, but also from urban and industrial users. This could also contribute to reduced water security if existing systems are not able to meet these increasing demands. Increasing air temperatures will also increase water temperatures and hence increase pollution and water quality risks.

To obtain a high-level first order assessment of the relative climate change risks for water supply to different towns and cities across South Africa, a general risk equation was developed to determine the current and future surface water supply vulnerability that combines both climate change and development risks (i.e., due to an increase in population and demand). The current vulnerability of individual towns was calculated based on the estimated current demand and supply as recorded across the country by the Department of Water and Sanitation's (DWS) All Towns study of 2011. The future vulnerability was calculated by adjusting the water demand for each town proportional to the increase in population growth for both a high and medium growth scenario. The level of exposure was determined as a factor of the potential for increasing evaporation to result in increasing demands, and for changes in precipitation to impact directly on the sustainable yield from groundwater, and the potential for impacts on surface water supply. These were then multiplied by the proportion of supply from surface and groundwater for each town. Exposure to climate change risk for surface water supply was calculated in two ways. The first was by assuming surface water supply was directly related to changes in streamflow in the catchment in which the local municipality was located (E1) and alternatively (E2) taking into account the potential benefits offered by being connected to a regional water supply system by using the result from a national study of climate change impacts on regional water supply derived from a high level national configuration of the Water Resources Yield Model (WRYM) that calculated the overall impacts on urban, industrial and agriculture water supply to each of the original 19 (now 9) Water Management Areas (WMAs) in South Africa.

In South Africa, groundwater plays a key strategic role in supporting economic development and sustaining water security in several rural and urban settlements that are either entirely or partially dependent on groundwater supply. Groundwater is, however, a natural resource the availability and distribution of which are highly influenced by climate variability and change. An analysis of the impact of climate change on potential groundwater recharge was conducted for the period 2031 to 2050. The Villholth GRiMMS (Groundwater Drought Risk Mapping and Management System) formulation (Vilholth et al. 2013), which implemented a composite mapping analysis technique to produce an explicit groundwater recharge drought risk map, was adapted to formulate a series of potential groundwater recharge maps for the far-future across South Africa. Finally, the future period 2031 to 2050 was compared with the historical period 1961 to 1990.

Figure 23 indicates the catchment(s) in which the Local Municipality or PSHDA is located.

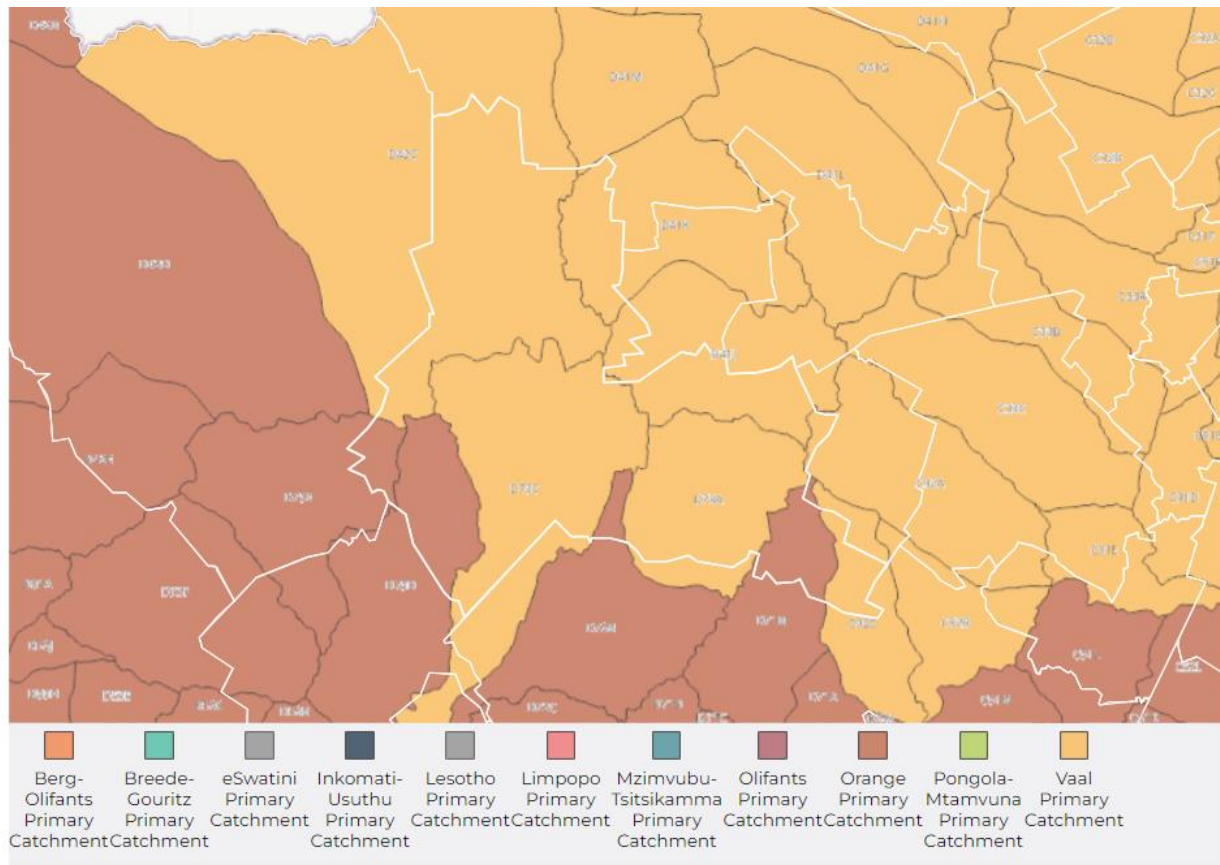


Figure 21: Quaternary catchments found in Tsantsabane Local Municipality

The quaternary catchments serving Tsantsabane Local Municipality include the Vaal and Orange Primary Catchments.

Figure 24 indicates where settlements get their main water supply from, be it groundwater, surface water or a combination of both sources. Settlements that rely on groundwater, either entirely or partially, are deemed groundwater dependent. In the Postmasburg PSHDA, there is a mix of surface and groundwater dependent towns, with most of the settlements relying on a combination of the two.

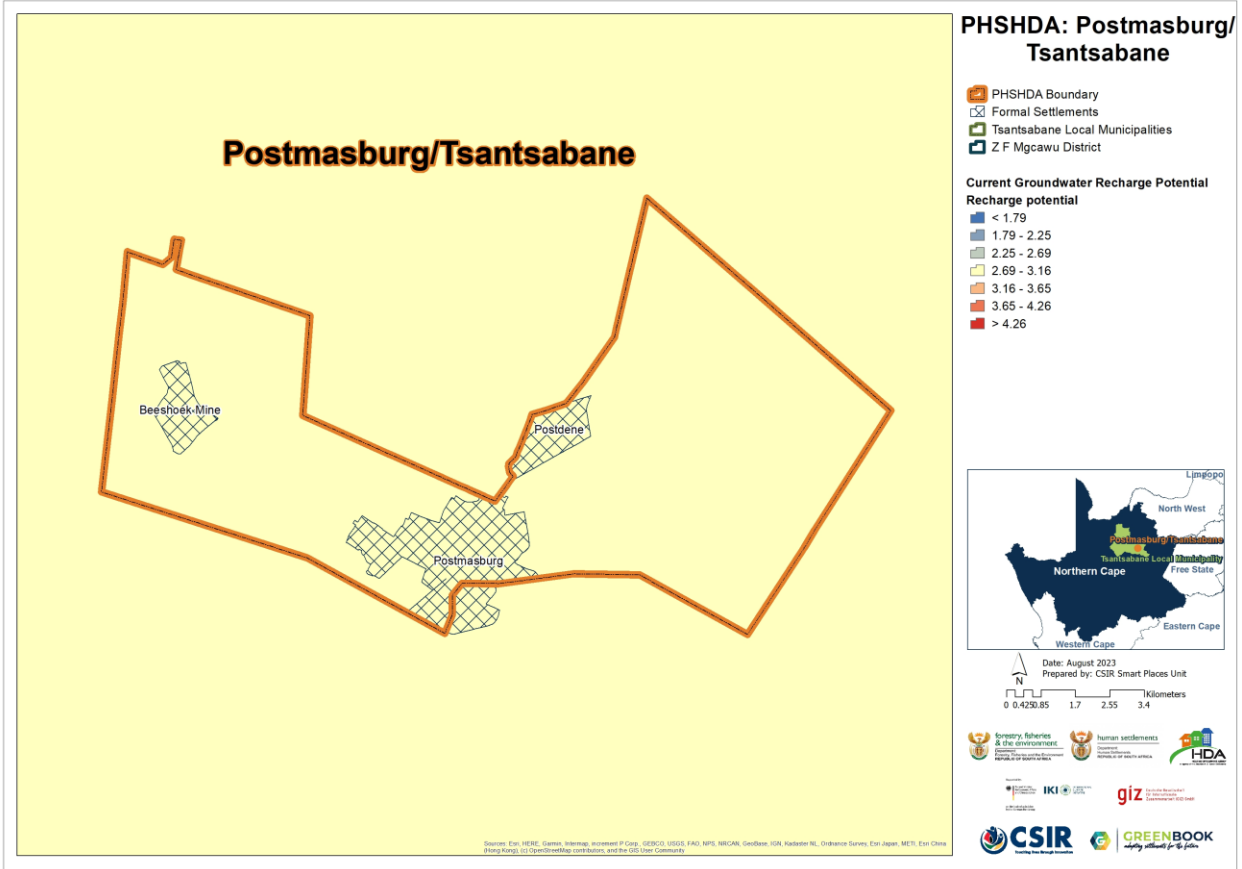


Figure 23: Groundwater recharge potential across Tsantsabane Local Municipality under current (baseline) climatic conditions

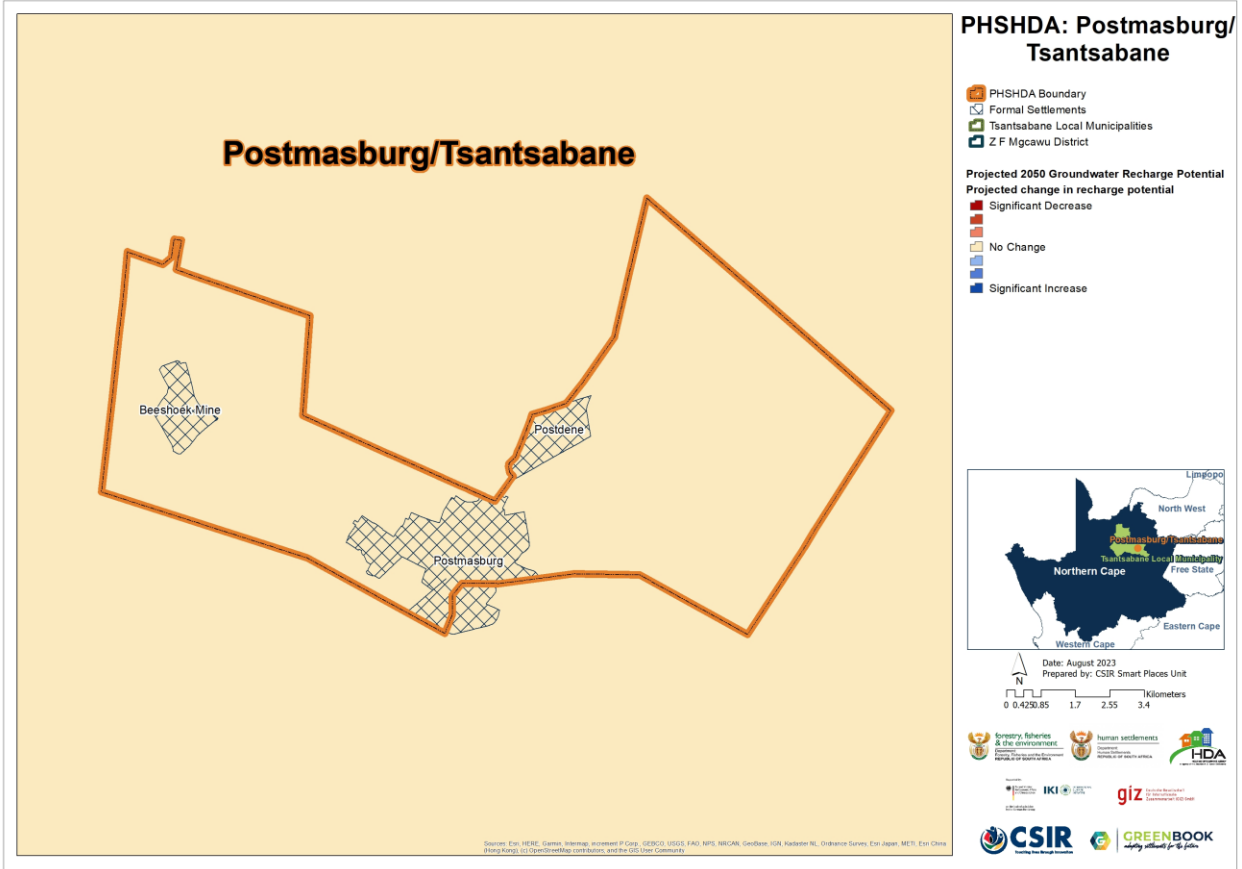


Figure 24: Projected changes in groundwater recharge potential from baseline climatic conditions to the future across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

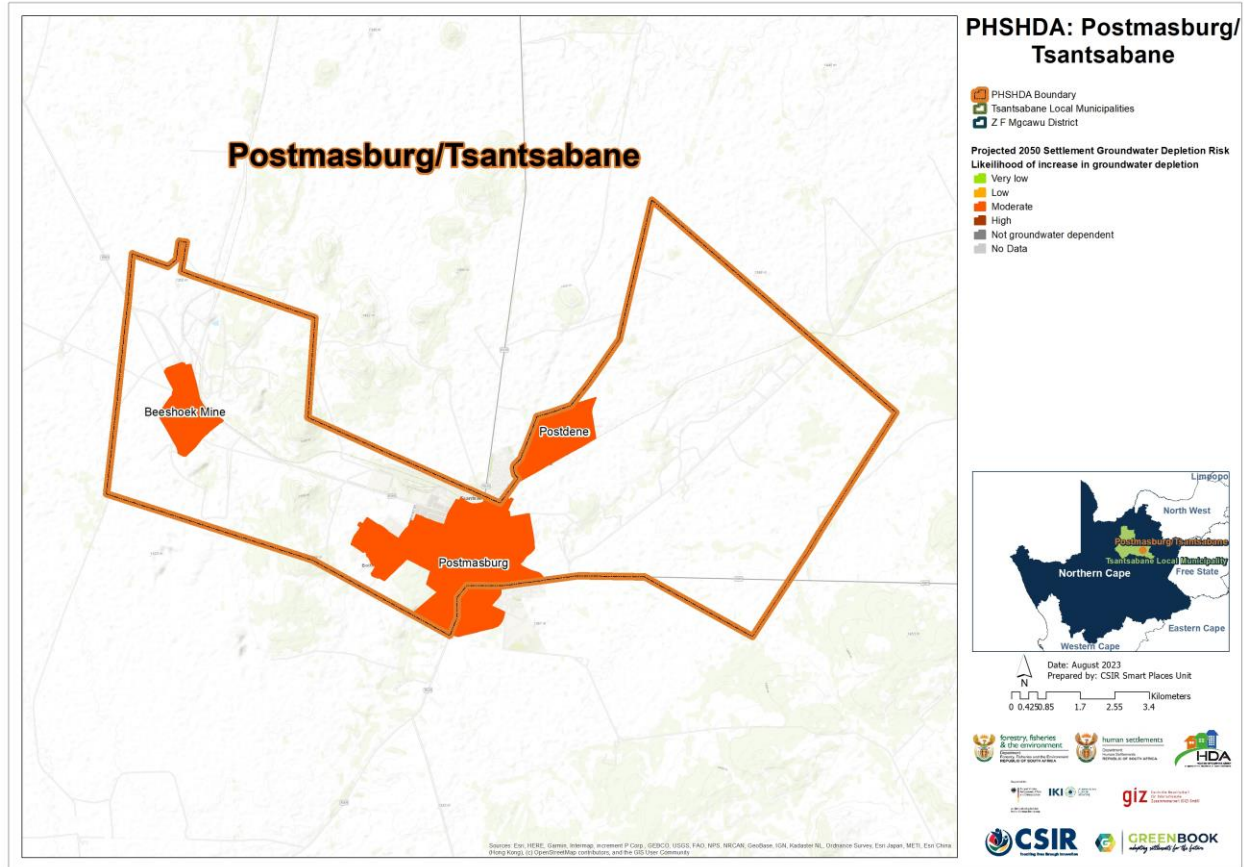


Figure 25: Settlement-level groundwater depletion across Tsantsabane Local Municipality

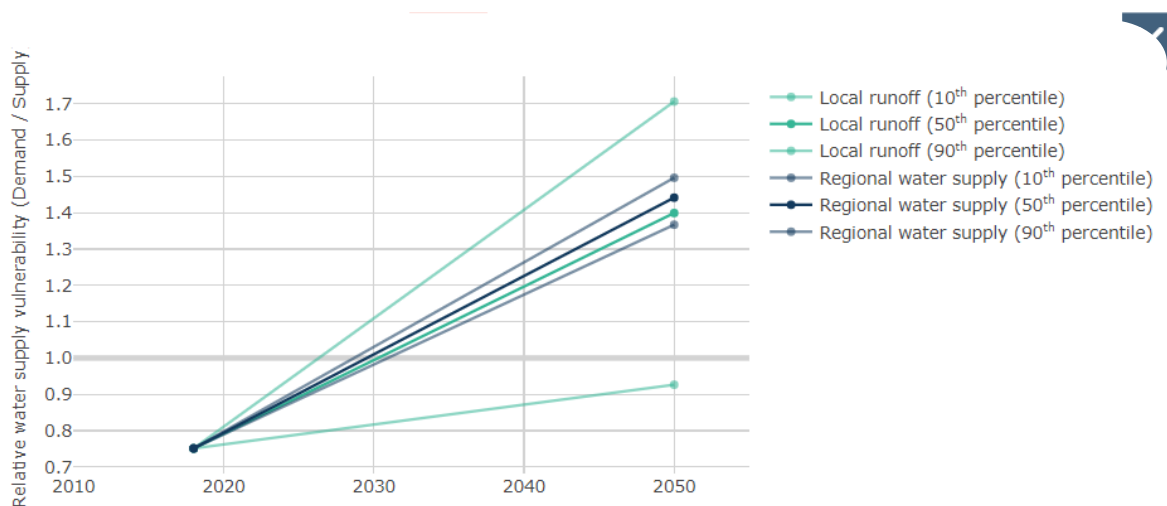
Table 3 provides an overview of current water supply vulnerability (i.e., demand versus supply) in the Tsantsabane Local Municipality based on the data compiled for the Department of Water and Sanitation's (DWS) All Town's Study (Cole, 2017). A water supply vulnerability score above 1 indicates that demand is more than supply, while a score below 1 indicates that supply is meeting demand.

Table 4: Current water supply and vulnerability across Tsantsabane District Municipality

Local Municipality	Water Demand per Capita (l/p/d)	Water Supply per Capita (l/p/d)	Current Water Supply Vulnerability
Tsantsabane	111.45	148.39	0.75

Current and future water supply vulnerability estimations are based on 1) a local water supply perspective incorporating changes to population growth coupled with exposure to climate risk and 2) a regional water supply perspective, based on impacts of regional water supply assuming supply is part of the integrated regional and national bulk water supply network. The water supply vulnerability estimations do not consider current state of water supply and reticulation infrastructure. The current context and conditions within each of the local municipalities need to be considered when interpreting the information provided in this report. The water supply

vulnerability of Tsantsabane Local Municipality is discussed below. Figure 28 shows the local municipality's estimated current and future water supply vulnerability, under the two estimation scenarios.



VULNERABILITY CONTRIBUTION FACTORS		PERCENTAGE CHANGE	
	Mean annual precipitation	↓	-3.77%
	Mean annual evaporation	↑	11.31%
	Mean annual runoff	↑	18.39%
	Regional urban water supply	↑	11%
	Population growth	↑	76.66%

Figure 26: Future water supply vulnerability in Tsantsabane Local Municipality

Tsantsabane LM's water demand is currently lower than supply (Table 4). However, the LM's water supply vulnerability is projected to increase to between 0.83 to 1.71 (Figure 28) due to the projected decrease in mean annual precipitation, as well as projected increases in mean annual evaporation, and high population growth.

2.4.2. Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries

Agriculture and food production is arguably the sector most vulnerable to climate impacts in South Africa. Many settlements in South Africa owe their existence to the primary sector of the country. Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries (AFF) form the bulk of the primary sector and act as catalysts for the economic development of secondary and tertiary sectors. Where these sectors are the primary economic activity in an area, they contribute to the local economy, employment, food security, and livelihoods. They also indirectly benefit from services such as health care,

education, and basic infrastructure. In such regions, social and economic stability are linked with the profitability of the agricultural sector.

Climate change, through increased temperature and changing rainfall patterns, can have fundamental impacts on agriculture if the climatic thresholds of the commodities being farmed are breached. However, the nature and extent of these impacts depends on the type of commodity being farmed and the relative geographic location of the farmer in relation to the industries served, and on the resources available to the farmer. The same climate impact can have different impacts on different commodities and farms. Overall, climate change could make it more difficult to grow crops, raise animals, and catch fish in the same ways and same places as we have done in the past.

The methodological approach to understanding the impact of climate and climate change on AFF consisted of four components. Firstly, the most important areas in terms of Gross Value Added (GVA) and employment for the AFF sector relative to the other sectors of the South African economy were determined. Secondly, an analysis of climate change scenarios was done using historical climate variables, as well as multi-model projections of future climates to help identify specific climate-related risk factors for agriculture within specific regions. Thirdly, crop suitability modelling was done to indicate how the area suitable for crop production under the present climate conditions might shift or expand under the scenarios of future climate change, in addition to using the Temperature Humidity Index (THI) to assess heat stress in livestock. Finally, the climate change analysis was used in conjunction with the crop modelling outputs to assess the potential impacts of climate change over a specific area, or for a specific crop, to give more detail on how predicted climate changes translate into location/crop specific impacts. This was developed at a local municipal level and guided by the outcome of the agricultural industry sector screening and climate scenario analysis.

In Tsantsabane Local Municipality the AFF sector contributes 3.02% to the local GVA, which is a contribution of 0.16 to the national GVA for the AFF sector. Of the total employment, 13.39% is within the AFF sector. The main commodities are beef cattle and deciduous fruit. Climate projections show a generally hotter and wetter climate, for the LM, with drier conditions projected into the future. For cattle farming hot and moist conditions can cause increased spread of disease and parasites. Increased heat stress can also lead to reduced growth and reproduction performance of cattle. For deciduous fruit farming the change in climate can lead to reduction in available winter chill and increased summer heat stress. The change in climate can also lead to increased production costs due to increased evapotranspiration and irrigation requirements. Production will however remain viable as long as heat stress is managed and water is available.

2.4.3. Conclusion

ZF Mgcawu District Municipality is currently experiencing issues of water scarcity and quality due to lack of sufficient water storage. Climate change is expected to exacerbate this problem.

Drought, reduced runoff, increased evaporation, and an increase in flood events will impact on both water quality and quantity.

Climate change is predicted to negatively impact on the agricultural sector in ZF Mgcawu District Municipality. Increased temperatures, drought, and the increase in frequency and severity of storm events will impact on the crops that can be grown and potentially result in a loss of livestock, which may impact on food security (ZF Mgcawu District Municipality, IDP 2023).

Climate change has a major impacts on traditional livestock farming e.g., cattle farming. The practice of cattle farming is also vulnerable during drought events, though sheep is somewhat more resilient to drought.

Changes in climate are predicted to result in the shifting of bioregions in South Africa. In the ZF Mgcawu District Municipality, it is projected that with the warmer temperatures there will be a replacement of Nama Karoo biome with Savanna and Desert biomes, resulting in a loss of Nama Karoo and Nama Karoo related species. Terrestrial and river ecosystems and their associated species will also be negatively impacted.

There are several different ways that climate change will impact human health in the ZF Mgcawu District Municipality. Projected increases in storm events may result in increased risk of drowning, injuries, and population displacement impacts. Projected increases in temperatures due to climate change will affect the productivity and health of the population. People working outdoors will be particularly vulnerable to increases in temperature. Furthermore, ZF Mgcawu District Municipality already experiences significant levels of air pollution from mines and other industrial sources, as well as significant indoor air pollution, which is expected to exacerbate with the change in climate.

Increases in the severity of storm events and increase in flooding will damage infrastructure which may result in a loss of industrial productivity and service delivery disruptions. The impacts of storm events will particularly affect communities located in informal settlements, on flood plains and where there is poor drainage infrastructure. In addition, communities in rural areas that depend on subsistence farming may be unable to grow crops that they have grown in the past due to the changing climate. It is predicted that there will therefore be an increase in rural-urban migration. Rural communities may also become more physically isolated due to extreme events impacting on key infrastructure.

3. Recommendations

For Postmasburg PSHDA the biggest risks are increases in temperature with the risk of heat extremes increasing by as much as 28 days by 2050. Severe and persistent heat can place significant stress on the ecology and livestock and have implications for both human comfort and health. Heat-stress is also a significant pressure point for human health, ecology and

livestock reproduction. It will furthermore have a negative impact on labour productivity and could potentially be fatal should adequate measures not be taken in housing and building design. The settlement areas of Postmasburg and Postdene are expected to experience extreme growth pressure in future while Beeshoek and Groenwater are expected to have high and medium growth pressure respectively, which means an increase in the exposure of people to heat stress. High population growth pressure will also lead to increased competition for resources – which affects the adaptive capacity of the PSHDA and its inhabitants, thus making it more difficult for people to adapt to, respond to and recover from climate hazards and impacts.

The Postmasburg PSHDA's water supply vulnerability is expected to increase into the future due to reduced rainfall and runoff generation, as well as population growth. The PSHDA's populous areas rely on a combination of surface water and groundwater. For the settlements that are dependent on groundwater, either entirely or partially, the combination of decreasing groundwater recharge potential and increasing population growth pressure will affect settlement water supply as water supplies decrease and demand increases. This therefore indicates the need to diversify potable water supply (i.e., water sources), improve groundwater recharge and conserve available water.

Therefore, in response to these climate risk and impacts, the following adaptation goals are recommended:

1. To prioritise the health and safety of communities in the face of a changing climate: Climate change hazards such as heat extremes pose serious risks to public health and safety. Exposure to high temperatures can cause increased threat of health risks including heat strokes, cardiovascular, kidney, and respiratory disorders. Higher temperatures can also cause an increase in fire danger days, with wildfire smoke significantly reducing air quality. Smoke exposure can also increase respiratory and cardiovascular hospitalizations; emergency department visits; medication dispensations for asthma, bronchitis, chest pain, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and respiratory infections; and medical visits for lung illnesses. It is therefore necessary to ensure that adequate systems are in place to mitigate (or respond to) the adverse consequences of such impacts. Implementing early warning systems for extreme weather events, ensuring access to climate-sensitive health services (such as heat illness prevention or disease surveillance), and improving emergency response capacity, are some of the measures that the PSHDA could investigate. Furthermore, public education about the risks of climate change to health and safety is also crucial.
2. To ensure water security in the face of climate change: Given the water scarcity challenges in the country, as well as the effects that the projected increase in population growth and drought tendencies will have on the PSHDA's future water supply – developing comprehensive strategies for water resource management is crucial. As part of these strategies, the Postmasburg/Tsantsabane PSHDA should prioritise water

infrastructure maintenance; invest in efficient water supply infrastructure to meet future demand; promote water conservation practices by implementing strategies such as public awareness campaigns, leak detection and repairs, water metering and billing; as well as explore measures to secure alternative water sources such as rainwater (harvesting), groundwater (recharge and extraction) and wastewater (reuse).

3. To reduce the exposure and vulnerability of human and natural systems to climate change and extreme weather events: To minimise the damage and loss stemming from the unavoidable impacts of climate change, it is essential to reduce the exposure and vulnerability of elements found in both human and natural systems present in the PSHDA, to climate-related hazards and extreme events. Reducing exposure and vulnerability will therefore involve a combination of infrastructural, behavioural, and institutional changes. For human systems, this might involve building climate-resilient infrastructure, developing or improving existing disaster risk reduction strategies, and enhancing social safety nets for the most vulnerable. For natural systems, this can involve protecting and restoring ecosystems and ecological assets that provide natural buffers against climate impacts, such as wetlands that absorb flood waters and natural fire breaks (e.g., creeks, bluffs).
4. To support resilient commercial, small-scale and subsistence farming systems: Considering that these farming systems contribute to food security and employment in the area it will be to the benefit of those who rely on this sector for employment, sustenance, and economic development (wealth generation), to increase its resilience to the impacts of climate change. This can be done by providing farmers with (i) access to resilient crop varieties and efficient irrigation systems; (ii) training in sustainable farming techniques; (iii) financial risk management tools; and (iv) market opportunities, i.e., to help the agricultural sector withstand shocks and stresses such as climate change impacts, market fluctuations, and pest outbreaks.
5. To develop climate-resilient, low-carbon, diverse and inclusive rural economies that are socially responsible, environmentally sustainable and that provide job opportunities for unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled local residences: A climate-resilient rural economy would be one that can absorb and recover from climate shocks; that also contributes minimally to climate change. This might involve promoting sustainable agricultural practices that are adaptive to changing climate conditions, investing in renewable energy sources, and encouraging diversification of the rural economy into sectors that are less climate sensitive. Furthermore, efforts to create more inclusive economies, that also provide job opportunities. at all skill levels, may involve training programs for residents, policies to support small and medium enterprises, as well as the implementation of measures designed to ensure that the benefits of economic activities are equitably distributed.

These goals are not exhaustive and could be complemented by other strategies tailored to the specific context and needs of the Tsantsabane Local Municipality and the PSHDA in particular. The potential for success lies in integrating the goals (or the principles behind them) into all aspects of municipal decision-making and operations, as well as in engaging communities in these efforts.

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Annexure A: Sector-specific impacts

Ecosystem services

Urban areas are dependent on natural ecosystems in and around towns to provide communities with services such as safe and plentiful drinking water, increased food security, better health, decreased exposure to natural disasters and extreme weather, and increased recreational opportunities. For these ecosystems to continue to provide these services they need to be in a healthy condition. Unfortunately, many ecosystems have been degraded because of misuse and overuse of soil, water, plant, and animal species. At the same time global climate change is aggravating the vulnerabilities of these ecosystems and therefore diminishing the benefits that ecological infrastructure can provide. It is therefore critical to rehabilitate and maintain ecological infrastructure in the urban environment to help residents adapt to risks posed by future climate change.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Drought and decreased rainfall	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risks of water shortages increasing demand for irrigation of gardens and agriculture. • Increased evapotranspiration rates with rising temperatures, reducing the water available in reservoirs and water available for reliant ecosystems. • Increase in temperature leading to water loss via evapotranspiration resulting in decreased water quality and loss of wetlands. • Loss or degradation of indigenous species, including threatened species or ecosystems. • Increased threat from invasive species as competition for water increases. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased amounts of rainfall reaching ecosystems as settlements use rainwater harvesting techniques for increased household use. • Increased reliance on irrigation and greater demand for water to maintain public open space and gardens. • Reduced planting and pollination leading to greater risk of erosion and soil loss. • Increasing temperatures together with increased intensity of drought will potentially increase the occurrence of algal blooms in reservoirs and dams which are damaging to ecosystem functioning and water services. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rainfall in shorter and more violent spells making recharging groundwater difficult. • Increase in intensity of rainfall and flooding leading to increased surface runoff, resulting in increased soil erosion, soil loss and degradation. • Increasingly saturated soils leading to more standing water (ponding) which can result in more insect (pest) activity and their potential to carry diseases. • Increased wave energy and run-up (sea level rise and more storms) causing degradation of natural coastal defence structures.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dieback or death of susceptible plants (e.g. street trees) and animals (e.g. fish). • Increased water temperature leading to increased growth of aquatic weeds which increases breeding of disease vectors and reduces water oxygen levels. • Milder winters and reduced frost increase the duration of the growing season, increasing the survival rate of insects and diseases. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drought and decreased rainfall causing wetland habitat loss. • Reduced soil moisture availability increasing moisture stress leading to dieback and death of plants and the loss or degradation of indigenous communities, including threatened species or ecosystems. • Drying up of aquatic systems, perennial systems will become seasonal and seasonal systems will die off and be replaced by terrestrial plants. • Increased spread of drought-adapted alien invasive plant species. 	
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Stormwater

A stormwater drainage system collects, conveys and discharges stormwater with the aim to reduce the risk of flooding in settlements and control water quality (traditional pollutants that are commonly associated with municipal and industrial discharges, e.g., nutrients, sediment, and metals). Conventionally rainwater falling onto a hard surface will be collected and drained through surface channels to a collection point or culvert where it will enter a storm water pipe. The pipe will use gravity to discharge the water into a watercourse or a dam. Where a gravity-fed system cannot be used the water will be collected into a storage dam and pumped to the discharge location. Sustainable Urban Drainage Systems (SUDS) seeks to minimize the volume of storm water entering the drainage system. It does this in three ways: first, collect and store as much rainwater at source as possible; second, filtrate as much surface water into the ground as possible as close to the source as possible; third, collect storm water at grade in various storage systems (weirs, wetlands, attenuation ponds, etc.).

Increased temperatures, heat extremes, and drought	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Potential risk of undermining the temperature regime of temperature-sensitive stormwater ponds and receiving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risk of flooding due to pressure on stormwater systems.

<p>waters, resulting in a decrease in water quality.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased corrosion in stormwater drains due to a combination of higher temperatures, increased strengths, longer retention times, and stranding of solids. • Increased shrinking soils increasing the potential for cracking, increased infiltration and exfiltration of water mains and sewers, which in turn exacerbates treatment and groundwater or storm water contamination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risk of litter entering the stormwater systems. • Increased risk of damage and failure of stormwater systems due to overloading • during floods and intense rainfall events. • Failure of stormwater treatment devices during high flow events leading to by-pass • and / or flushing of contaminated water. • High wet-weather hydraulic loads and bottle-necks in stormwater and networks due • to inflow and sewer infiltration, leading to local inundation and overflows of • untreated wastewater. • Increased rainfall causes soil erosion thus damaging underground stormwater • systems. • Increased surface and stream erosion causing deposition of sediments in receiving • environments. • Stream morphology for undeveloped, developing and fully developed urban areas, • may change, hence affecting existing outfall structures and potential stormwater • pond locations.
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Solid waste

Human settlements generate massive amounts of solid waste that needs to be managed effectively so as not to cause air, water, and soil pollution.

As cities grow and need more land, suitable collection and disposal sites can be difficult to acquire and develop. Most households in South Africa (64% in 2015) receive a waste removal service at least once a week, but there are still households that rely on their own or communal rubbish dump sites. Illegal dumping and littering are problems in most municipalities resulting

in solid waste often accumulating in waterways and areas otherwise intended for water run-off and flood control. These conditions make municipalities vulnerable to flooding, contamination of water resources, adverse health effects and rehabilitation costs that may overwhelm the resilience of cities.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risk of combustion at open waste disposal sites and illegal dumps, and increase in explosion risk associated with methane gas. • Increased rate of decay of putrescible waste resulting in increased odour, breeding of flies, and attracting of vermin. • Increased health and safety concern regarding heat stroke to staff collecting waste. • Increased risk of landfill site instability and failure due to changes in consumption patterns with increased waste creation (i.e., glass, plastic and paper cups). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risk of flooding due to pressure on stormwater and leachate management systems at landfills. • Increased demand for capacity to cope with large volumes of waste generated by flood events. • Increase in soil saturation causing decreased stability of slopes and landfills linings (if clay or soil based) at waste management facilities. • Inundation of waste releasing contaminants to waterways, pathways an low elevation zones. • Potential loss of value and degradation of paper and cardboard for recycling due to increased moisture content. • Increased flooding causing the risk of localised disruption of waste collection rounds. • Flooding in areas with untreated, dumped waste causing the risk of groundwater contamination. • Increased flooding causing the risk of litter entering the storm water systems.

Sanitation

Sanitation and wastewater management poses several operational challenges to governments and settlements. Managing water resources involves contributions from various stakeholders at different points in the value chain. The sanitation value chain comprises eight broadly defined stages, as follows: collection/containment; storage; transport; treatment; distribution; wastewater treatment; and discharge. Re-use of wastewater is becoming more acceptable and feasible because of increasing water shortages, improved purification technology and decreasing treatment costs. A water reuse strategy that is forward thinking over ten to twenty years needs to take these possible changes into account. The direct re-use of treated wastewater can pose a risk to public health and safety and thus must be managed carefully and

be subject to water quality management and control. Advanced treatment technologies, sufficient operating capacity and proper monitoring of all processes, and quality of potable water produced is essential.

<p>Increased temperatures and heat extremes Drought and decreased rainfall</p>	<p>Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased heat waves, accompanied by dry weather, can exacerbate already stressed water supply systems leading to competition between sectors for water services; affecting sanitation. • Decrease in water supply for sanitation through decrease in available water to flush sewage systems adequately. • Declining annual rainfall threatening the viability of water-borne sanitation systems, and the capacity of surface water to dilute, attenuate and remove pollution. • Sewers are structurally vulnerable to drying, hence shrinking soils increase the potential for cracking, increased infiltration and exfiltration, which in turn exacerbates treatment and groundwater or storm water contamination. <p>Increased corrosion in sewers due to a combination of higher temperatures, increased strengths, longer retention times, and stranding of solids.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased wet-weather hydraulic loads and bottlenecks in stormwater and sanitary sewer networks due to inflow and sewer infiltration, causing local inundation and overflows of untreated wastewater. • Increased rainfall and heavy rainfall events increasing the washing of faecal matter into water sources due to flooding of wastewater treatment works. • Increased risk of flooding resulting in both infrastructure damage and contamination of surface and groundwater supplies. • Increased groundwater levels due to flooding or sea-level rise, putting at risk sewage treatment plants (which are often positioned on low-lying ground as sewerage systems rely on gravity). • Increased vulnerability of sewerage pipe systems due to their size and complexity, and their exposure to multiple flood damage threats from source, through treatment, to delivery. • Increased vulnerability of pit toilets (widely used in rural areas) due to flooding, causing serious environmental contamination. • Increase in groundwater recharge and groundwater levels causing flooding of subsurface infrastructure such as pit toilets or septic tanks. • Sea level rise posing a threat to coastal zones in terms of saline intrusion, and damage to/contamination of water systems and wastewater treatment

	works from inundation during coastal storms.
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Energy

South Africa’s energy mix is primarily dominated by the use of fossil fuels to derive grid supplied electricity and imported crude oil and petroleum products. Regarding access to energy within our human settlements, grid-supplied electricity is transmitted from power stations to sub-stations to settlements typically through overhead powerlines. Electricity supply is not equally distributed within the country with many people within informal settlements still not connected to the electricity grid. Many thus rely on the combustion of fuels within or near their homes to meet their cooking, heating, and lighting needs. Electricity infrastructure is exposed to weather and climate and is vulnerable to the effects of climate change. Variations in temperature (hotter and colder days) will increase the demand for energy for both cooling and heating within homes and buildings, as will urban growth. Thus, both the electricity supply and demand of a settlement are likely to be impacted by climate change.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased heat causing expansion of overhead cables, and cable sag. Sagging below a certain amount result in a reduction in the amount of electricity transmitted. • Increased heat stress on electricity transmission networks (overhead cables). • Increase in heat island effect increasing energy demand for cooling, leading to grid stress. • Increased threat of wildfires causing widespread damage to infrastructure and causing disruptions to service provision. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in flooding causing damage to electricity transmission and distribution infrastructure, poles, lines and sub-stations • Increase in frequency and cost of maintenance of concrete structures due to frequent and intense rainfall, flooding, or sea level rise. • Increased repair events increasing stress put on service crews and resulting in delays to power restoration.

Information and communication technology

Information and communications technology (ICT), or telecommunications, plays a critical role in society and is central to the operations of every industry and sector, and society relies on it for social and leisure purposes as well as work. Climate change impacts on ICT infrastructure in settlements include the impacts of increased warming and precipitation, extreme weather events, strong winds, and sea-level rise and storm surges. The ICT industry experiences weather-related impacts which are expected to worsen due to ongoing climate variability and climate change. Compared to ‘heavy’ infrastructure sectors like energy, water or transportation, the ICT sector has smaller infrastructure and shorter lifetimes, reliance on a combined network

instead of individual structures, redundancy of service and infrastructure and service providers, and fast-paced technological change and innovation. While technologies in the ICT sector in the future may converge towards wireless technologies and reduce dependence on current infrastructure, this will not negate the need for infrastructure altogether, for example, there will still be a requirement for equipment such as mobile or fixed wireless towers to operate this technology.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased weathering and deterioration of infrastructure resulting in increased maintenance and repair costs. • Heat stress causing structural damage to infrastructure. • Increased energy demands during heatwaves resulting in power outages which can impact on delivery of telecommunications services. • Increases in temperature and higher frequency, duration, and intensity of heat waves increasing the risk of overheating in data centres, exchanges, and base stations, which can result in increased failure rates of equipment. • Increased mean temperature increasing operating temperature of network equipment which may cause malfunctions if it surpasses design limits. • Decreased precipitation leading to land subsidence and heave, reducing the stability of telecommunications infrastructure above and below ground (foundations and tower structures). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased risk of flooding of low-lying infrastructure, access holes and underground facilities. • Increases in storm frequency or intensity increasing the risk of damage to aboveground transmission infrastructure and impacting on telecommunications service delivery. • Increases in storm frequency leading to more lightning strikes, consequently damaging transmitters and overhead cables, causing power outages. • Increased cost of insurance for infrastructure in areas with repeated incidents of flooding, as well as withdrawal of risk coverage in vulnerable areas by private insurers. • Road closures due to flooding thus inhibiting service and/or restoration efforts. • Rising sea levels and corresponding increases in storm surges, increasing the risk of saline corrosion of coastal telecommunications infrastructure, and leading to erosion or inundation of coastal and underground infrastructure.

Transport and mobility

Within settlements, transport networks comprise of nodes (e.g., buildings and public transport stops and stations) and various connector links (e.g., walkways, roads, bridges, railways, tunnels, and waterways). Apart from being a large asset base in themselves, these networks are indispensable conduits for the movement of people and goods for social, economic, political, health and recreational purposes. Within the context of climate change, therefore, climate

resilient transport networks are necessary to ensure unimpeded functioning of society. Vulnerability of transport networks to climate change depends on infrastructure age, its materials, construction practices, design features, and maintenance history. Societal level of risk to infrastructure failure is dependent on individual functions of different parts of the transport network. Therefore, spatial differentiation should be an integral component of adaptation strategies. Disruption to transport networks due to climatic extreme events may lead to social exclusion, trade interruption, and consequently social disorder. It is imperative, therefore, that the design and in-situ upgrading of transport networks and their operations be responsive to threats posed by climate change, especially in high-risk areas. It is equally important to ensure transport networks do not add to landscape vulnerability – for example increasing erosion of steep slopes, landslides or increasing vulnerability of natural habitats to fragmentation and overharvesting.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased rate of infrastructure deterioration leading to pavement failure including cracking, rutting, potholes, flushing, and stripping. • Increased stress on bridges, particularly expansion joints, through thermal expansion and increased movement. • Corrosion of steel reinforcing in concrete structures due to increase in surface salt levels in some locations. • Increased infrastructure maintenance cost for road repair and reconstruction work, causing traffic delays and emergency service response delays. • Increased frequency and intensity of wildfires leading to more road closures. • Increased vehicle accidents, due to low pavement adhesion, leading to higher rates of transport-related fatalities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased rate of infrastructure deterioration, especially in areas with poor infrastructure maintenance history. • Temporary and permanent flooding of road, rail, port and airport infrastructure. • Structural integrity of roads, bridges and tunnels could be compromised by higher soil moisture levels. • Potential destruction of bridges and culverts. • Erosion of embankments and road bases leading to undermining of roads or railways. • Increased risk of landslides, slope failures, road washouts and closures. • Undermining of bridge structures (scouring). • Closure of roadways and tunnels leading to traffic delays. • Transportation system disruptions, impacts to traffic signalling and low water crossings. • Increased weather-related accidents.

Human health

Settlements are faced with a variety of challenges, which may include rapid unplanned urbanization, climate-related pressures such as floods and heat waves, as well as unequal

economic growth between different communities. This affects the health and development status within settlements. Climate-health linkages are complex and multi-faceted, and it can confidently be stated that climate change will amplify some of the existing health threats that are already faced by communities. Certain people and communities are especially vulnerable, including children, the elderly, the sick and the poor. Natural disasters (e.g., floods, drought, fires) can have immediate and long-term impacts on health. Poor emergency service delivery immediately after disaster can impact health, as well as damage to services such as water reticulation can have longer-lasting impacts on public health. Natural disasters can also create a conducive environment for the occurrence of mental health problems.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Drought and decreased rainfall	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More exposure to high temperatures causing increased health risks including heat strokes. • Heat waves increase threat of cardiovascular, kidney, and respiratory disorders. • Increase in fire danger days causing increased loss of life and damage to health infrastructure. • Wildfire smoke significantly reducing air quality, both locally and in areas downwind of fires. Smoke exposure increases respiratory and cardiovascular hospitalizations; emergency department visits; medication dispensations for asthma, bronchitis, chest pain, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and respiratory infections; and medical visits for lung illnesses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased soil moisture potentially creating more wind-blown dust which has negative impacts on air quality. • Increase in water-washed diseases and diarrhoeal diseases due to inadequate water availability. • Decreased precipitation causing changes in salinity of water, resulting in an increase in algal blooms which can likely lead to increases in food- and waterborne exposures. • Increase in stagnant air, decreasing air quality. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wetter climate combined with increased temperatures may have negative health impacts as many diarrheal diseases vary seasonally, typically peaking during the rainy season. • Extreme rainfall and higher temperatures increasing the prevalence of fungi and mould indoors, with increased associated health concerns. • Increased flooding increasing the risk of drinking and wastewater treatment facilities being flooded, meaning that diarrhoeal diseases can be transmitted as wastewater systems overflow or drinking water treatment systems are breached. • Increase in natural disasters (e.g. floods) creating a conducive environment for the

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased emissions in biogenic volatile organic compounds from vegetation causing increases in air pollution. • Increase in evaporative emissions from cars contributing to exposure to, and health impacts from, air pollution. • Increase in distribution of vector-borne diseases in warmer areas. • Increased water temperatures leading to an increase in algal blooms which can likely lead to increases in food- and waterborne exposures. • Increased temperatures combined with fewer clouds (e.g., from increased subsidence that is projected for parts of South Africa) causing increased exposure to UVR which will have negative impacts on health. • Increased temperatures increasing the reaction between certain pollutants and sunlight and heat, resulting in more severe hazardous smog events. 		<p>occurrence of mental health problems.</p>
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Culture and heritage

Culture refers to the dynamic totality of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual, emotional and aesthetic features that characterise a society or social group, including its arts, but also intangible aspects such as values, worldviews, ideas and beliefs, and the expression of these in

individual and social behaviour, relationships, organisational and societal forms, and in economic, political, educational and judicial systems. The variance between these groups, known as cultural diversity, is illustrated by the many ways in which the cultures of groups and societies find expression. Within an urban context, culture may manifest itself spatially through heritage sites and resources. These areas are vulnerable to the effects of climate change and require particular management and sensitivity within planning. This heritage may include wildlife and scenic parks, sites of scientific or historic importance, national monuments, historic buildings, works of art, literature and music, oral traditions and museum collections together with their documentation. Due to the sensitive nature of culture and heritage, the physical and cultural value associated with these sites and resources is vulnerable to any aesthetic and functional changes caused by climate change. Potential physical impacts may have indirect social consequences.

Increased temperatures and heat extremes	Drought and decreased rainfall	Increase in rainfall, inland flooding, and coastal flooding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased temperature having significant impacts on the comfort levels of built heritage resources, resulting in the building no longer being fit-for-purpose. • Increased demand for additional heating and cooling resulting in the installation of • heating, ventilation and air-conditioning systems with potential negative consequences on the heritage value. • Increased heat stress potentially impacting on the materials and structural integrity of • heritage resources. • Migration of several plant species due to changing climate patterns, posing a threat to the conservation of biodiversity hotspots, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased rainfall impacting negatively on ground moisture levels and thus the geological conditions of sensitive heritage resources. Drying out clays, for example, will shrink and potentially undermine founding conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased rainfall in areas with clay soils resulting in swelling which poses a threat to the structural integrity of heritage resources. • Increased floods and changes in precipitation resulting in increasing vulnerability of archaeological evidences buried underground due to changing stratigraphic integrity of the soils. • Increased threat to properties listed as cultural heritage in coastal lowlands due to increased precipitation, sea level and coastal erosion. • Increased threat to materials and structural integrity of heritage resources exposed to higher humidity/precipitation levels.

<p>and potentially altering heritage places.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Increase in veld and forest fires raising the threat of fire to all heritage resources, natural and built, as well as posing health risks to heritage resource dwellers from exposure to smoke and ash pollution.		
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