

1 The Impact of Development Wetlands and Specific Tree Plantations 2 on Hydrometeorological Adaptation and Stabilization.

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11

12 Abstract

13 The current research investigates at how designed wetlands, and green infrastructure can help regulate
14 hydrometeorological variability in the semi-arid Bnaslawa sub-district of Erbil. Semi-arid regions are
15 increasingly confronted with difficulties such as rainfall unpredictability, surface runoff, and greenhouse
16 gas (GHG) emissions, emphasizing the need for integrated water-management solutions. GIS-based
17 BMP siting analysis identified approximately 455.68 acres in the semi-arid Bnaslawa sub-district of Erbil
18 as suitable locations for constructed wetlands based on hydrological, soil, topographic, and land-use
19 parameters. The proposed willow (*Salix* spp.) and poplar (*Populus* spp.) plantation system, consisting of
20 approximately 1.06 million trees, demonstrated significant environmental benefits with an estimated
21 carbon sequestration potential ranging from 2,158 to 4,316 tons of CO₂ annually. SWMM hydraulic
22 simulations showed that runoff volume and peak discharge increased with higher return periods, while
23 constructed wetlands reduced runoff and improved stormwater management performance under extreme
24 rainfall conditions. The vegetation also has significant biomass potential. Overall, combining wetlands
25 with climate-adaptive planting practices is a successful, long-term strategy for reducing flood risk and
26 increasing environmental resilience in semi-arid environments.

27 **Keywords:** Constructed wetland; Hydrometeorological; Semi-arid region; Ecological co-benefits;
28 Stormwater management

29 1. Introduction

30 The world of hydrometeorology is evolving radically, and in the semi-arid regions, the changes are
31 increasing. Warm temperatures, changing rain distribution, and increasing evapotranspiration are
32 increasing the spread of drought-prone landscapes. Based on a recent study, 6.44% of the traditional
33 humid areas of the planet are already drought-prone, a reality that demonstrates the danger of water
34 scarcity at a global level [1]. Such changes increase the risk of soil erosion, decrease the amount of water,
35 and jeopardize the ecology, particularly in semi-arid areas where water resources are already scarce [1].

36 Recent studies have shown that extreme climate events can significantly affect corporate financial
37 performance and operational stability. An analysis of 1,517 Chinese A-share listed companies from 2013
38 to 2023 found that climate-related risks negatively influence business resilience and profitability. The
39 study also demonstrated that investments in green innovation, environmental governance, and social
40 responsibility can reduce the adverse impacts of climate disturbances. In addition, localized supply
41 chains and improved ESG transparency were identified as important factors that enhance organizational
42 resilience during climate-related disruptions [27].

43 Iraq is gradually facing problems in the hydrological system that are caused by the climate. This is
44 evidenced by research in the Lessing Zab River Basin, a typical semi-arid catchment under normal to
45 high emission conditions, as by the middle of the century (2041-2060) and by 2080 (2061-2080) the
46 minimum and maximum temperatures will be increasing by +8-45% (under normal conditions), with
47 decreases in rainfall, and an increase in evapotranspiration will also cause streamflow to reduce by as

48 much as 31%. These estimates depict the urgency of the need to put in place the adaptation plans in a bid
49 to cushion the Iraq water resources [2].

50

51 The Erbil in the Kurdistan region of Iraq has been made to be considered as an observatory to analyse
52 urban and regional hydrometeorological processes in semi-arid regions. The analysis of the
53 meteorological records of the period 1980-2021 reveals a clear warming tendency, a decline in the
54 relative rainfall and humidity, and an increase in evaporation, which demonstrates the increased aridity
55 of the region [3]. Based on further evidence on the urban landscape of Erbil, an increase in the land use
56 directly impacts the surface temperatures. Even buildings, green areas, and areas with trees can be
57 modified to make significant changes to thermal environments, and dense, diverse vegetation is the best
58 at reducing the surface heat [4]. Groundwater assessments further prove the necessity of sustainable
59 groundwater management because they show that the changes in the patterns of precipitation and rising
60 temperature are leading to the decline of water tables and changing the water quality. Combined with
61 these findings, these findings provide an insight into the mounting hydrometeorological strains in the
62 semi-arid setting in Erbil [5].

63 Synthetic wetland systems have been widely adopted globally as an alternative method of decreasing
64 water pollution caused by wastewater and enhancing the quality of water. These engineered ecosystems
65 catch and treat agricultural and other pollutant loads in addition to their multipurpose provision of
66 nutrient removal, biodiversity enhancement, and interaction with habitat. Although the study of artificial
67 wetlands has been extensively researched, integrating these wetlands with specific tree species that are
68 well-adapted to the region's semi-arid climate is a novel area of investigation. The planting of trees in
69 artificial wetlands could also help enhance the biodiversity and structure stability, enhance shading and
70 control of microclimate, and enhance evapotranspiration [6].

71 that environmental regulations may not always achieve the intended improvements in environmental
72 performance. A study on China's cleaner production mandate found that mandatory environmental
73 regulations reduced carbon efficiency among regulated manufacturing firms due to increased compliance
74 costs and reduced investment in innovation. The study further showed that the negative impacts were
75 more pronounced in non-pollution-intensive and state-owned firms, where regulatory burdens exceeded
76 institutional and financial capacities. These findings emphasize the importance of designing flexible
77 environmental policies that consider firm characteristics and implementation capacity to achieve
78 sustainable environmental outcomes [28].

79 It is through the combination of the artificial wetlands and the specific tree species that should have been
80 used in the semi-arid Iraq climate that has not been given the appropriate attention she deserves, in that
81 of the Erbil region. The current study will fill that gap by examining the innovative combination of well-
82 selected trees in artificial wetland systems to mitigate urban runoff, suburban climate control, and the
83 sustainability of water supply. Alongside the issue of water quality enhancement, this unified design is
84 used to solve the problem of ecological improvement and hydrological resilience, as well as urban heat
85 stress. Additionally, it encourages the utilization of Nature-based Solutions for ecological restoration and
86 water security in Erbil, in line with the regional sustainable development strategies.

87 **2. Materials and Methods**

88 **2.1 Study area**

89 The research had been carried out in Bnaslawa, a swiftly urbanizing subdistrict southeast of Erbil, the
90 capital of Iraq's Kurdistan Region (Latitude 36.117°N, Longitude 44.050°E) as it shown in Figure (1).
91 throughout the last twenty years, Bnaslawa has seen significant land use change and population growth,
92 moving from peri-urban and agricultural landscapes to a mix of commercial, institutional, and residential
93 developments. Flooding, a drop in local water quality, and an increase in stormwater runoff have all
94 resulted from the growth of impervious surfaces like buildings and roads [7].

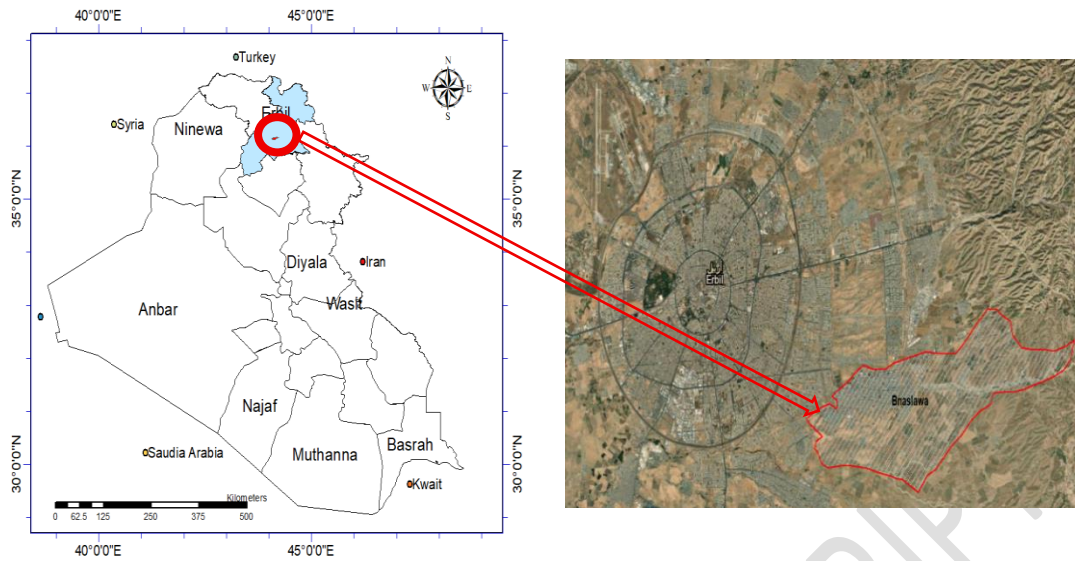


Figure 1. The study area is the actual location of Bnaslawa in Erbil, Iraq.

95

96 Bnaslawa is located in a semi-arid climate zone; it is hot and dry in summer and mild in winter. Average
 97 rainfall in the Investigation area is 250-650 mm per annum, mostly received during the months of
 98 November to March. This pattern of rainfall and poor drainage infrastructure and wastewater means that
 99 the rest of the year is dominated by protracted dry spells [8]. This dry climate has caused the region to
 100 be more vulnerable to water pollution and urban flash flooding. Bnaslawa lies between 448 and 733
 101 meters above sea level, on a flat shallow plain. The topography and soil formation, mostly silty clay
 102 loam, found in low areas in the vicinity of open channels and undeveloped lands, provide the best
 103 conditions for implementing the surface flow or hybrid-type constructed wetlands. The subdistrict is
 104 drained by ephemeral watercourses and irrigation canals that often discharge untreated agricultural and
 105 domestic effluents into open areas or adjacent agricultural areas [9]. The spatial suitability analysis was
 106 used to select the pilot site in Bnaslawa based on the slope, land use, distance to drainage channels, and
 107 soil permeability. Since the Erbil Master Plan and the Kurdistan Regional Government Vision 2030, as
 108 discussed in this paper, have a strong emphasis on climate resilience, sustainable urban development,
 109 and water resource conservation, the site is also relevant to test the applicability of nature-based solutions
 110 in the local urban context and align them with the goals of regional planning.[10].

111 **2.2 The Hydraulic System and Hydrology Assessment for Wetland Position**

112 The objective is to determine how the hydrological and hydraulic conditions support wetland
 113 functionality, including storing water, accumulation time, infiltration, and discharge control, in order to
 114 identify appropriate land for wetland construction using hydraulic equations.

115 A detailed hydraulic and hydrologic method, specifically for stormwater wetlands or constructed
 116 wetlands, is given below:

- 117 A. Calculate the volume of runoff, The U.S. Soil Conservation Service (now NRCS) created the popular
 118 hydrological method known as the SCS Curve Number (CN) method to calculate the volume of
 119 direct runoff from rainfall events [11]. It uses empirical relationships to link rainfall, land use, soil
 120 type, and antecedent moisture conditions.

121

122
$$Q = \frac{(P-0.2S)^2}{P+0.8S}, \quad 1$$

123 $If P > 0.2S$

124 Were

125 Q: Runoff (mm),

126 P: precipitation (mm),

127 S: maximum possible retention (mm),

128
$$S = \frac{25400}{CN} - 254, \quad 2$$

129 CN in Bnaslawa, according to USDA TR-55 manual provides CN lookup tables. (AMC II, normal
130 conditions). If comparable Hydrologic soil group (C) and Open space, good condition CN equal to 79.

131 B. Calculation of the maximum discharge, In order determining peak discharge from inadequate
132 catchments, especially in urban and semi-urban areas, the Rational Method is a straightforward and
133 popular technique [12]. Peak flow is expressed as,

134

135
$$Q_{pec} = 0.278 CIA, \quad 3$$

136 Were

137 A: is the area that drains (m²)

138 C: is the runoff measurement coefficient (Unitless).

139 I: is the intensity of the rainfall for a storm lasting the time of concentration(mm).

140 The approach helps with wetland design by ensuring that inlet and outlet structures can manage
141 anticipated peak runoff by quickly estimating design flows based on land cover, rainfall characteristics,
142 and watershed size.

143 C. To find storage volume in wetland [13], the volume of rainwater that an artificial wetland has to
144 collect and treat in order to meet pollutant removal focusses on is referred to as the Water Quality
145 Volume (WQv); this volume is typically around 90% of the average annual runoff.

146
$$Vr = 0.05 + 0.009 * I, \quad 4$$

147 Next

148
$$WQv = P_{85} * Vr * A, \quad 5$$

149 were

150 Vr : empirical volumetric runoff coefficient (m³)

151 I: impervious fraction (Unitless)

152 WQv: Water quality volume (m³) or Litre

153 A: Watershed area (m²)

154 P 85: is the 85th percentile of the yearly precipitation depth (typically a depth of 1.5 inches in many
155 areas).

156 In order for the wastewater treatment quantity to be drawn downward, usually within 24 hours, the
157 wetland must have storage equal to WQv, taking into consideration permanent pools and extended
158 detention zones. When combining wet and detention zones, this guarantees efficient capture of
159 stormwater pollutant loads with a small footprint [14].

160 D. Hydraulic Retention Time (HRT) , is a crucial design factor that determines how long water stays in
161 a wetland system, which has a direct impact on the effectiveness of sedimentation and pollutant
162 removal. It is computed as the ratio of the wetland's average inflow rate (Q) to its effective storage
163 volume (V):

$$164 \qquad \qquad \qquad HRT = \frac{V}{Q}, \qquad \qquad \qquad 6$$

165 when

166 HRT: Hydraulic retention time (Units of time Days, Hours, minute,)

167 V: Storage Volume (m³)

168 Q: Discharge (m³/day).

169 While too long retention periods may result in unwanted conditions including anaerobic zones, extended
170 retention periods deliver suspended solids more time to settle and increase contact time for biological
171 treatment processes. A typical HRT for rainfall treatment in wetland design is between two and five days,
172 which balances hydraulic performance and treatment efficiency [15]

173 E. In order to ensure that the system maintains proper water levels without experiencing excessive rain
174 fall or seasonal drying, the water balance equation is utilized in wetland design to assess the relationship
175 between inflows and outflows. It can be defined as follows:

$$176 \qquad \qquad \qquad \Delta S = P + Q_{in} + GR_{in} - Et - Q_{out} - GR_{out}, \qquad \qquad \qquad 7$$

177 were

178 P: is rainfall (mm)

179 Q_{in} and Q_{out} : are the ground inflows and outflows (m³/day)

180 GR_{in} and GR_{out} : are groundwater transfers (m³)

181 ET: is evapotranspiration (mm/day)

182 ΔS : is the change in wetland storage (m³).

183 Developers can forecast seasonal variations in water levels, maintain adequate depth for ecological
184 processes, and stop water loss or overflow by quantifying each element. For both natural and artificial
185 wetlands to maintain long-term hydrological sustainability, this strategy is crucial [16].

186 F. When determining the location's hydraulic suitability for wetland development, evaluating the
187 ground slope is a crucial first step. In order to encourage slow water movement, enhance
188 sedimentation, and provide sufficient contact time for the removal of pollutants, wetlands need flat
189 or gently sloping terrain. One way to compute the slope (Sl) is to:

$$190 \qquad \qquad \qquad Sl = \left(\frac{\Delta H}{L} \right) * 100, \qquad \qquad \qquad 8$$

191 were

192 L: is the length of the flow path (m)

193 ΔH is the elevation change (m).

194 For the majority of the affected wetlands, slopes between 0.5% and 5% are ideal because higher gradients
195 can result in erosion and rapid flow, while too flat areas can cause stagnant water and lower oxygenation.
196 Hydraulic efficiency, stability, and successful wetland performance are guaranteed by accurate slope
197 assessment [16].

198 **2.3 Climate data:**

199 The historical daily rainfall data were obtained by the Bnaslawa meteorological station, which is situated
200 at 36.1538° latitude and 44.14° longitude. According to the Koppen-Geiger classification of climate
201 between the years 1991 and 2000, the study site falls under the hot and summer Mediterranean climate
202 zone (Csa). The characteristics of this type of climatic event are hot and dry summers, with an average
203 monthly temperature of over 22°C during the hottest month, and mild and cool winters, with a majority
204 of the precipitation received from November to March.

205
206 The precipitation is relatively seasonal, even though the average annual precipitation is between 400 and
207 700 mm, whereby the rainfall during the summer months is less than 10 percent of the overall. The
208 summer period of high-pressure systems of subtropical origin causes long dry periods and high rates of
209 evapotranspiration because subtropical high-pressure systems suppress convective activity and reduce
210 rainfall [17, 23]. Midlatitude cyclones are also associated with winter precipitation, leading to sporadic
211 but often heavy rainfall events. This strong climatic seasonality causes significant effects on
212 hydrometeorological processes, such as the production of runoff, fluctuations in soil moisture, and
213 groundwater recharge [17, 23]. The collection of data that includes 25 rainy years of 2000-2025 provides
214 a long-term time series that is suitable for hydrometeorological investigation. Table 1 is made up of the
215 annual record and the highest day of the year in terms of rainfall.

216 Table 1. Historical precipitation records for the period 2000–2025

Yearly	Max. daily/ year (mm)	Yearly	Max. daily/ year (mm)	Yearly	Max. daily/ year (mm)
2000-2001	98	2009-2010	45.2	2017-2018	38.9
2001-2002	25	2010-2011	48.9	2018-2019	56.7
2002-2003	60	2011-2012	16.3	2019-2020	33.5
2003-2004	38	2012-2013	35.8	2020-2021	17.4
2004-2005	33	2013-2014	44.3	2021-2022	19.5
2005-2006	63	2014-2015	29.5	2022-2023	34
2006-2007	41	2015-2016	34.1	2023-2024	40
2007-2008	27	2016-2017	32.6	2024-2025	21
2008-2009	24				

217

218 Five intervals of return have been investigated in this study: two, five, ten, Fifteen and twenty-five,
219 years. The Weibull plotting position formula 9 has been used to identify the pertinent rainfall amount,
220 which is:

221
$$R = \frac{n+1}{m} \quad 9$$

222 were

223 R: is the return period (years),

224 n: is the total number of years in the record,

225 m: is the rank of the annual maximum rainfall value.

226 when the values are put in order from highest to lowest. This method uses the historical frequency of
227 extreme events to estimate the amount of rain that falls during different return periods lacking with any
228 parameters, as Shawn in Table 2.

229

230

231

Table 2. Return Period for maximum precipitation

RP (Year)	Max. P. (24) Hr.
2	34.1
5	48.9
10	60
15	63
25	98

232

233 2.4 BMP Siting tools

234 The BMP Siting Tool was implemented within the GIS based decision support system to find the right
 235 location of Constructed Wetlands (CWs). Some of the input data ready at the beginning of the process
 236 included a digital elevation model (DEM), land use/land cover (LULC) maps, soil texture and infiltration
 237 capacity, hydrological networks, and precipitation records. To determine the surface runoff areas that
 238 would be viewed as low-lying and which would amalgamate collected surface runoff as indicated in the
 239 figure (2), slope and flow accumulation were obtained using the DEM. Although soil data were applied
 240 to eliminate those areas with exceptionally low permeability or rocky materials that could not support
 241 the formation of wetlands, LULC data were reformulated to identify regions with impervious and
 242 agricultural lands that contribute more runoff [18].

243 Suitability criteria were developed using the BMP Siting Tool limits, that is, slope (<5%), proximity to
 244 drainage channels (<200 m), and minimum contributing area requirements. A raster overlay analysis was
 245 then done to combine the criteria after standardizing and weighting each one according to its hydrological
 246 importance. Constraint layers in the form of roads, protective areas, and developed areas were employed
 247 to dispose of unsuitable sites. The results of the suitability map were used to identify potential areas to
 248 locate CW, which were further narrowed down by using hydrological connectivity analysis to ensure the
 249 capture of stormwater is efficient. This is a systematic procedure that provides a scalable method to CW
 250 siting, which takes into account the urban planning, economic, and environmental considerations [14].

251 The relative importance of the appropriateness criteria was obtained by the Analytic Hierarchy Process
 252 (AHP). Pairwise comparisons were done using Saaty's basic 1–9 scale, where 1 represents equal
 253 relevance and 9 represents excessive importance of one criterion over another, as it shown in Table 3.
 254 The evaluations were based on the relative impact of each criterion on the performance of the created
 255 wetlands and the efficacy of the stormwater management. The consistency of the pairwise comparison
 256 matrix was checked using Consistency Ratio (CR) and values less than 0.10 were accepted [29]. Table
 257

3. AHP Pairwise comparison matrix

Criteria	Slope	LULC	Impervious Ratio	Soil Type	Distance to Drainage	Contributing Area
Slope	1	3	2	4	1/3	1/4
LULC	1/3	1	1/2	2	1/5	1/6
Impervious Ratio	1/2	2	1	3	1/4	1/5
Soil Type	1/4	1/2	1/3	1	1/6	1/7
Distance to Drainage	3	5	4	6	1	1/2
Contributing Area	4	6	5	7	2	1

258

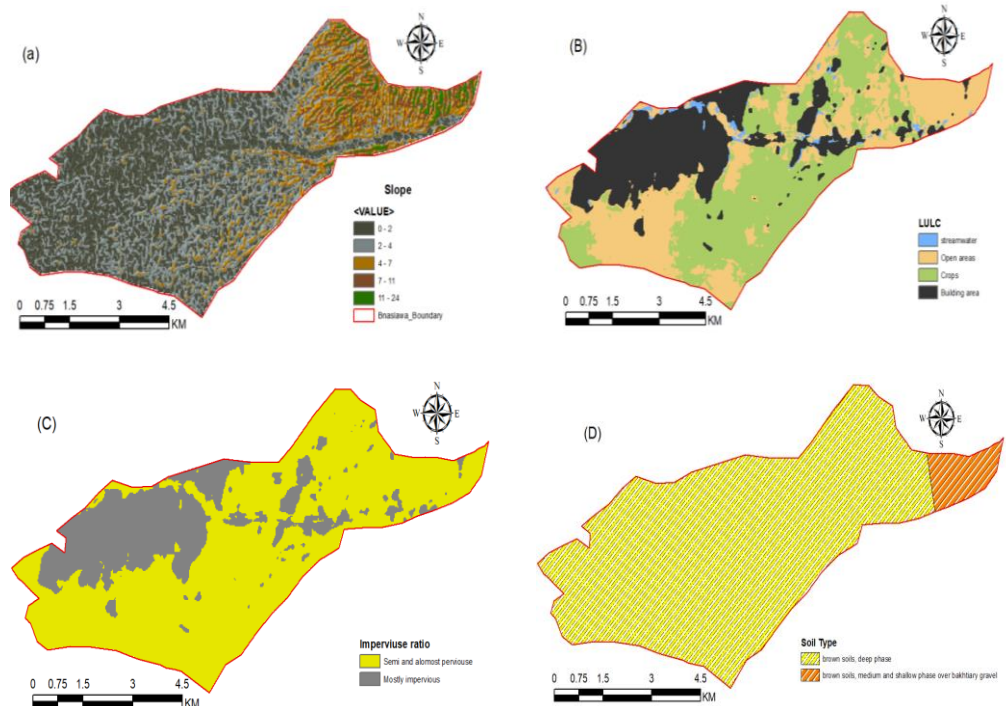


Figure 2 represents the spatial distribution of the main parameters applied to the suitability evaluation for hydrological and green infrastructure: (a) slope ratio; (b) land use/land cover; (c) imperviousness ratio; and (d) soil type.

259

260 2.5 Classification of wetlands

261 The two basic categories into which constructed wetlands (CWs) can be broadly classified are surface
 262 flow systems and subsurface flow systems. A simple and popular classification divides subsurface flow
 263 (SF) treatment wetlands and free water surface (FWS) wetlands when in reality there are numerous other
 264 systems of classification that have been proposed in the extant literature. Subsurface flow wetlands are
 265 also divided into vertical flow (VF) and horizontal flow (HF) wetlands depending on the direction of the
 266 water movement [15].

267 In FWS wetlands (also referred to as surface flow wetlands), water passes through thick vegetation and
 268 over the media bed. Subsurface flow wetlands, conversely, retain water under the surface of a porous
 269 substance, such as soil, rock, sand, biochar, or other filter material. Post-treatment is often carried out in
 270 SF wetlands, particularly HF and VF. Also, the VF wetlands are introduced and have been effectively
 271 applied in the treatment of the screened raw wastewater. Conversely, FWS wetlands are normally used
 272 in the tertiary level of treatment [16].

273 The combination of different CW systems has been developed to provide greater treatment efficiency
 274 through the construction of flexible wetland systems. Such systems are usually configured with two or
 275 more stages and they are often configured in parallel. Other innovations that have been introduced to
 276 improve the performance of CWs in the recent past include aerated CWs, baffled flow CWs, step-feeding
 277 CWs, and circular flow corridor CWs. In Figure 3, a schema illustration has been used to depict the
 278 various types of artificial wetlands [16].

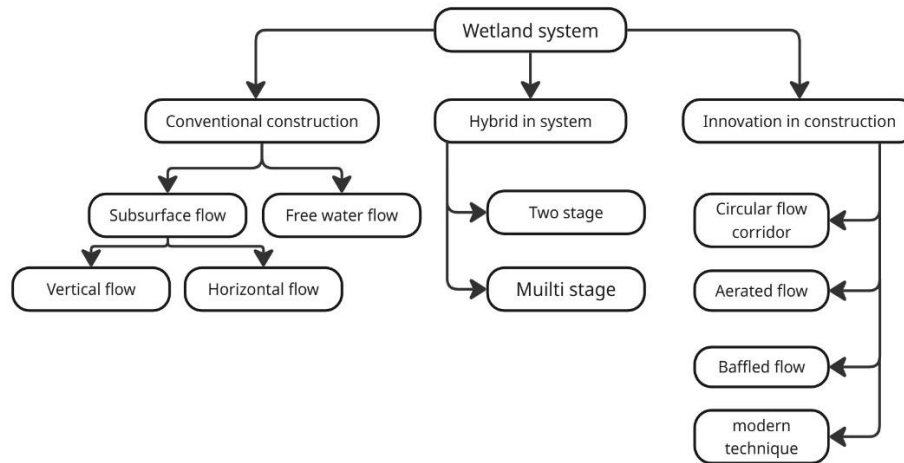


Figure 3: Diagram illustrating the hypothetical wetland classification system utilized in this research.

279

280 **2.6 Relation between GHG, wetland and hydrometeorological changes:**

281 One of the biggest causes of the existing climate change is a buildup in the amount of greenhouse gases
 282 (GHGs) and, in particular, carbon dioxide (CO₂) that has a critical impact on hydrometeorological
 283 systems. The greenhouse effect induced by high CO₂ concentration increases the atmospheric
 284 temperature, and this disrupts the hydrological cycle. Warming increases and destabilizes the water cycle
 285 since it leads to a higher rate of evapotranspiration, higher atmospheric capacity to hold moisture, and
 286 high evaporation rates [17]. This hydrological acceleration is manifested by increased and more severe
 287 frequency and intensity of major weather conditions such as floods and droughts, more erratic
 288 precipitation, and altered soil moisture and runoff regimes [18]. These changes decrease the
 289 predictability, reliability, and stability of the distribution of water resources, a phenomenon that can be
 290 cognized as a sort of hydrometeorological degradation of the system behaviours. Indicatively, in
 291 catchments conceptualized under conditions of climate change, large decreases of river discharge and
 292 water yield, up to about 60 percent in certain areas, have been estimated, which are caused by increases
 293 in temperature and decreases in precipitation [19]. Equally, surface areas and water levels of reservoirs
 294 and lake surfaces experience considerable declines in surface area and water levels during warming
 295 conditions, particularly in semi-arid or endorheic areas. The diminished stability and reliability of the
 296 hydrological systems due to the climate change caused by GHG is therefore called hydrometeorological
 297 reduction. The GHG emissions in this case result in increased CO₂ that consequently leads to atmospheric
 298 warming, an increased hydrological cycle, and reduced hydrometeorological stability. Improving
 299 adaptive management of water resources and ensuring water security, particularly in regions already
 300 facing a water shortage or water extremes, require knowledge and measurement of these interactions
 301 [20].

302 **2.7 Plants for wetland**

303 The plants that can be used to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in wetland ecosystems are of
 304 various types, with some of them being especially efficient in carbon sequestration. An example of such
 305 a plant would be the very successful willow (*Salix* spp.) due to its quick growth and massive ability to
 306 store carbon, which is estimated to be 5-10 t CO₂/ha/year. Besides minimization of greenhouse gas
 307 emissions, willow is one of the best plants that can be used in the wetlands because it can withstand the
 308 saturated soil and also manage erosion [21, 24]. In the same spirit, poplar (*Populus* spp.) is an acceptable
 309 choice due to the rapid growth rate and higher carbon sequestration capacity (6 to 12 t CO₂/ha/yr.) it can
 310 withstand in addition to their high adaptability to wetlands, poplars are also useful in the production of
 311 biomass energy and short-rotation forests [23]. When joined together, these species play a major role in
 312 enhancing the addition of carbon and the resilience of wetland ecosystems.

313

314 2.8 Validation of results

315 Validation of the SWMM model was performed by comparing the simulated runoff response with the
316 observed one using three common statistical indicators: coefficient of determination (R^2), Nash–Sutcliffe
317 Efficiency (NSE) and Percent Bias (PBIAS) as it present in Table 4. These metrics were chosen to test
318 the model’s capacity to replicate the magnitude, variability and general trends of the observed
319 hydrological data.

320 The coefficient of determination (R^2) was used to assess the strength of the linear association between
321 observed and simulated values, with R^2 more than 0.80 deemed very strong, R^2 between 0.70 and 0.80
322 considered good, and R^2 above 0.60 considered acceptable. The Nash–Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) was
323 used to assess the prediction accuracy of the model, where values more than 0.75 are considered very
324 excellent, values between 0.65 and 0.75 are considered good, and values between 0.50 and 0.65 are
325 considered acceptable. The Percent Bias (PBIAS) was used to assess the average propensity of the
326 simulated values to over- or underestimate the observed. Model performance was assessed as very
327 excellent for PBIAS within $\pm 10\%$, good within $\pm 15\%$, and acceptable within $\pm 25\%$ [30].

328 **Table 4** Statistical analyses criteria for validity of results

PBIAS	R^2	NSE	Performance
$\pm 10\%$	>0.80	>0.75	Very Good
$\pm 15\%$	>0.70	0.65–0.75	Good
$\pm 25\%$	>0.60	0.50–0.65	Acceptable
		<0.50	Unsatisfactory

329 3. Result and Discussion:

330 3.1 Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

331 The relative importance of each aspect for appropriateness of created wetlands and efficacy of
332 stormwater management was evaluated using pairwise comparison and the Analytic Hierarchy Process
333 (AHP) to get the criterion weights. Contributing drainage area and closeness to drainage channels were
334 given more priority since they impact runoff collection and hydraulic connection as present in Table 5.

335 **Table 5** Derived criterion weights obtained from the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) for constructed
336 wetland suitability assessment.

Criterion	Weight (%)
Contributing Area	34
Distance to Drainage	26.7
Slope	16.3
Impervious Ratio	10.5
LULC	7.4
Soil Type	5.1

337 Consistency of the matrix of pair wise comparisons was verified using Consistency Ratio (CR) as it
338 shown in Table 5. The result of the consistency ratio was 0.066 which is less than the allowable value of
339 0.10. The obtained criteria weights were used in the weighted overlay analysis to develop the final
340 suitability map for the location of built wetlands.

341

342

343

344

345 **Table 6.** Consistency assessment of the AHP pairwise comparison matrix, including the maximum
346 eigenvalue (λ_{max}), Consistency Index (CI), Random Index (RI), and Consistency Ratio (CR).

Parameter	Value
Number of Criteria (n)	6
λ_{max}	6.41
Consistency Index (CI)	0.082
Random Index (RI)	1.24
Consistency Ratio (CR)	0.066

347 **3.2 Identifying the location**

348

349 Hydrologic Soil Group C (brown soil, deep phase) was found in the southwest, whereas Group D soils
350 (brown soil, deep, medium, and shallow phases over Bakhtiari gravel) were found in the northeastern
351 sector. Groundwater depths varied from 150 to 450 m. A 30 m stream buffer was used to protect biological
352 integrity and confine development to publicly accessible land.

353 The suitability analysis revealed that the southeast section of the study area was the most suitable site for
354 built wetland development, comprising about 455.68 acres (Figure 4). It was ranked as the most suitable
355 place since it fulfilled many hydrological and environmental conditions simultaneously. The site is
356 characterized by moderate slopes that Favor water retention and limit building limitations, while its
357 closeness to the drainage network Favours hydraulic connection and Favours effective runoff collecting.
358 The availability of undeveloped land permits wetland creation and reduces potential problems with
359 existing infrastructure. Furthermore, the soil characteristics are conducive to moderate infiltration
360 capacity and enough runoff production to support both water storage and treatment activities. The site
361 also gets runoff from upstream built and impermeable regions, which may increase its potential efficacy
362 for stormwater management. Additionally, the site meets ecological buffer criteria and is located in a
363 hydrologically linked region capable of capturing and holding runoff prior to downstream disposal.
364 Together these reasons explain the better performance of the southeastern sector compared with other
365 regions of the watershed.

366

367 The findings show that the relationship between topography, soil properties, hydrological connectivity,
368 land use patterns and environmental restrictions greatly affects the appropriateness of created wetlands.
369 The use of GIS based spatial analysis with the BMP Siting Tool offers a systematic and evidence-based
370 approach for the identification of sustainable sites for the deployment of green infrastructure.

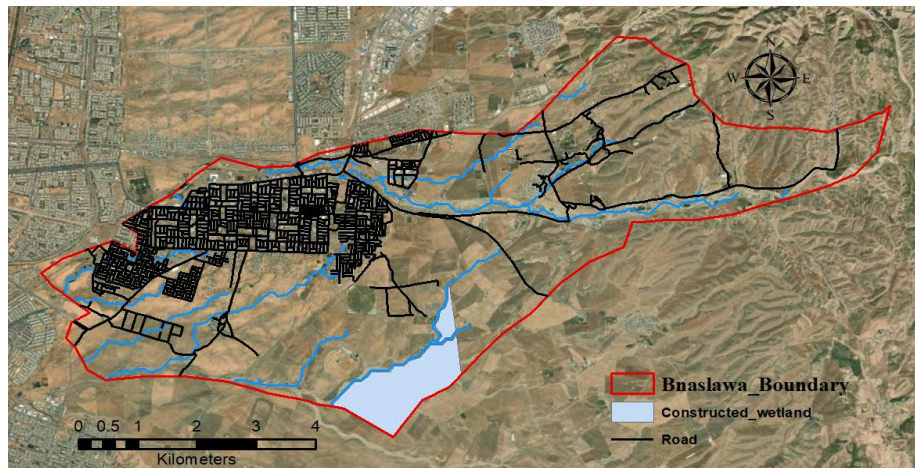


Figure 4 ; shows the geographic distribution of land suitability for constructed wetlands within the investigation area based on GIS-based BMP Siting outcome data.

371

372 3.2 GHG Prevention and Tree Planting Demands

373 The suitability evaluation suggested that a mixed plantation of willow (*Salix* spp.) and poplar (*Populus* spp.) would be suitable for improving carbon sequestration at the same time supporting wetland restoration within the proposed site. Based on the available planting space of 455.68 acres, around 374 922,213 trees were projected utilizing spacing arrangements of 2×2 m for willow and 3×3 m for poplar. 375 The planting pattern designated 80% of the land (364.54 acres) to willow and 20% (91.14 acres) to poplar. 376 377 A 15% over-planting allowance was included to compensate for establishment losses and early-stage mortality, resulting in a total demand of roughly 1.06 million trees, comprising 954,500 willow and 378 106,045 poplar individuals. 379 380

381 Both willow and poplar species have been well known for their fast growth and capability of carbon sequestration. The reported sequestration rates are $5-10 \text{ t CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for willow [24] and $6-12 \text{ t CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for poplar [25]. Extrapolating these rates to the projected plantation area the potential carbon 382 383 removal is of around 2,158-4,316 t CO₂ per year. In addition to carbon storage, these plants may also 384 385 provide soil stability, erosion control, habitat restoration and wetland ecological function improvements.

386 However, large-scale plantation growth in semi-arid areas needs careful ecological attention. Willow and 387 poplar species often have a rather high demand for water, and if planting density is not carefully 388 controlled, this might affect local water balances. Hence, it is important to promote the selection of 389 varieties appropriate to local requirements and compatible with the current hydrological conditions. And, 390 plantation design should retain habitat variability and prevent replacing natural vegetation groups that 391 sustain local biodiversity. Where possible, tree plantings may be able integrated with manmade wetland 392 systems and remnant natural vegetation to improve ecosystem resilience while minimizing potential 393 effects on water supplies and ecological integrity. Appropriate strategies for management of willow as 394 well as poplar plantings may provide climate mitigation and ecosystem restoration advantages in semi- 395 arid areas.

396 3.3 Hydraulic Evaluation of Storms in the Recurring Time Period

397 The results of hydraulic simulations using SWMM for computations of the highest 24-hour precipitation 398 under five different return periods are shown in Table 7. There is a clear trend in the study in which 399 maximum runoff and total runoff continue to increase with increasing intensification of precipitation. 400 Extreme rainfall events, which are linked to high return periods, make the runoff much greater and faster 401 than when the period is low and thus produce a moderately large amount. It aligns with the theoretical 402 forecast that more intense storms will exceed the ability of the soil to absorb the precipitation at a faster 403 rate, resulting in greater percentages of direct surface runoff.

404 Increase in peak runoff due to hydraulic perspective has a direct influence on the development of
 405 downstream water management infrastructure, specially constructed wetlands. An increase in peak flows
 406 enhances the likelihood of hydraulic overloading that can compromise the structural integrity of the
 407 wetland system in addition to interfering with its treatment efficacy. These results show that to
 408 successfully reduce the height of floods and the time of residence needed in enhancing the quality of
 409 water in extreme storm conditions, a larger storage space is needed. To be more precise, it has been
 410 calculated that, given long periods of returns, the storage capacity should be expanded correspondingly
 411 to the expected increase in the runoff amounts. This observation signifies the importance of
 412 comprehensive hydrological study in the pre-sizing of wetlands as the best management practices
 413 (BMPs).

414 They also emphasize the significance of incorporating the precipitation based on the return period in
 415 wetland design. Hydraulic loading can be underestimated as a result of traditional design approaches
 416 based on average or short-period rainfall measurements and the probability of the system failure during
 417 a high event. Consideration of the highest amount of precipitation per day in varying periods can enhance
 418 the strength and flexibility of a conceptual framework. This also assures that, although the climatic and
 419 hydrometeorological conditions change, the wetlands would still be able to fulfil their long-term
 420 ecological and hydrological functions besides the reduction of peak discharges

421 **Table 7** The results of hydraulic simulations using SWMM based on return periods and various
 422 precipitation situations. The table illustrates the growing hydraulic load connected to occurrences with
 423 longer return periods by showing changes in runoff volume, peak discharge, and system response.

Return period R.P. (Year)	P. (24) Hr.	Runoff (mm)	Peak Flow (m ³ /s)	Runoff (mm) after CW	Peak Flow after CW(m ³ /s)	Storage Volume (10 ³) m ³
2	34.1	7.03	53.3	4.5 (-35%)	39.4 (-25%)	53.3
5	48.9	11.39	89.42	7.74 (-32%)	62.5 (-30%)	89.42
10	60	14.84	118.11	10.4 (-30%)	83.8 (-29%)	118.11
15	63	15.87	127.5	10.33(35%)	89.2 (-30%)	127.5
25	98	27.99	230.879	16.8 (-40%)	166 (-28%)	230.879

424 3.4 Validation of result

425 However, due to the lack of hydrological data in the research region, the SWMM model could not be
 426 directly calibrated and validated. Thus, model parameters were allocated based on published values from
 427 watersheds with comparable climate, soil, and land-use characteristics. The dependability of the model
 428 was tested using sensitivity analysis, comparison with the SCS-CN approach, and evaluation against
 429 performance ranges from earlier research.

430 The sensitivity study consisted of adjusting important hydrological factors such as Curve Number (CN),
 431 impervious surface ratio, Manning's roughness coefficient, depression storage, and hydraulic
 432 conductivity to identify their effect on runoff volume and peak discharge. The findings showed that Curve
 433 Number and imperviousness were the most sensitive characteristics influencing model outputs whereas
 434 Manning's roughness coefficient and depression storage were somewhat sensitive.

435 To evaluate the performance of the model, conventional assessment metrics for hydrological models like
 436 Nash–Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE), the coefficient of determination (R²), Percent Bias (PBIAS) and Root
 437 Mean Square Error (RMSE) were used. NSE > 0.50, R² > 0.60, PBIAS ± 25% and RMSE reduced were
 438 regarded satisfactory performances.

439 The simulated efficacy of the planned built wetland was further evaluated by comparison with the values
 440 provided in the literature. The estimated runoff volume reductions by SWMM were 32% to 40%, which
 441 are equivalent to the range of 25% to 50% reported for created wetlands with similar hydrological [22,26]
 442 circumstances. The good agreement of simulated results with reported performance ranges supports the
 443 trustworthiness of model predictions and usefulness of the proposed wetland system for stormwater
 444 management and runoff reduction.

445 **4. Conclusion:**

446 This research, which focused on the Bnaslawa sub-district of Erbil, showed that there is also an organized
447 method of developing and evaluating artificial wetlands within a semi-arid setting, the preliminary phase
448 was identifying the suitable location, and this was done through the ecological, geological, and soil
449 properties to ensure that the location where wetlands are installed fulfils the requirements of the drainage,
450 slope, and soil group to achieve a well-functioning wetland. The GIS based suitability evaluation was
451 successfully used to identify the optimum areas for installation of the created wetlands within the research
452 area. High potential locations for stormwater management were delineated by an integration of slope,
453 land use/land cover, impervious surface ratio, soil properties, proximity to drainage channels, and
454 contributing drainage area using an AHP-weighted overlay analysis. The chosen location has suitable
455 topography, hydrology and land use characteristics, conducive to the efficient collection, conveyance and
456 storage of run-off. The AHP's consistency weighing procedure assured the dependability of the suitability
457 evaluation, while the inclusion of exclusion factors increased the practicality of site selection. and then
458 that, the hydraulic simulations made some understanding of the runoff dynamics possible under different
459 return periods, which showed that the layout was also improved by the selection of vegetation to enhance
460 the ecological efficiency of the layout. Willow (*Salix* spp.) and poplar (*Populus* spp.) were selected as
461 appropriate types because they can withstand semi-arid conditions and have been illustrated to be
462 efficient in wetland systems in enhancing the quality of water, biomass productivity, and carbon uptake.
463 The plantation method is sustainable, as it makes the ecosystem stable over time and more resistant to
464 seasonal differences by mixing both species.

465 In addition, the results focus on how wetlands mitigate greenhouse gas emission besides acting as
466 hydrological controls. Through sequestration of carbon and the possibility of reducing the methane
467 emissions when compared to the conventional unmanaged wetlands, they offer two benefits: they
468 safeguard communities due to hydrometeorological variability, and they have a direct role in global
469 warming adaptation and mitigation.

470 Everything said and done, it suggests that well-designed artificial wetlands can be used as a versatile
471 natural solution to semi-arid regions. It offers a viable template of sustainable management of water and
472 land in Iraq and in other similar settings across the globe by synergizing site selection criteria, hydraulic
473 performance, ecological potential, and climate co-benefits.

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489 **Abbreviations**

490 The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

GHG	Green House Gas
SWMM	Storm Water Management Model
BMP	Best management practice

491

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