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University of Babylon  
College of Engineering  
Civil Engineering Department



# **Modelling the Hydrological Impact of Land Use/Land Cover Alteration on the Lower Zab River Basin, Iraq**

A Thesis

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Master Degree in Engineering /Civil Engineering /Water Resources

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**2023 A.D**

**1444 A.H**

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ  
وَلَوْلَا فَضْلُ اللَّهِ عَلَيْكَ وَرَحْمَتُهُ لَهَمَّت طَّائِفَةٌ  
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الْكِتَابَ وَالْحِكْمَةَ وَعَلَّمَكَ مَا لَمْ تَكُن تَعْلَمُ  
وَكَانَ فَضْلُ اللَّهِ عَلَيْكَ عَظِيمًا

صدق الله العظيم

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I certify that this thesis which is entitled (***Modelling the Hydrological Impact of Land Use/Land Cover Alteration on the Lower Zab River Basin, Iraq***) has been prepared by (***Zahraa Ali Mahdi***) under my supervision at College of Engineering, Babylon University, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Water Resources Engineering.

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## *Deduction*

*I would like to dedicate*

*"To My GOD Almighty who is always there when I am in need, and for giving me this apporainity to do my master degree which would not have been possible other wish"*

*"To the messenger of GOD and prophet of mercy, the prophet Mohammed "my GOD's prapers and peace be upon him"*

*"To the spirits of the martyrs of Iraq"*

*"To my beloved parents, who have been source of inspiration and gave me strength when I thought of giving up, and containually provide their moral, spiritual, emotion, and financial support"*

*"To everyone who helped me to move the rocks on my way, to everyone who believed on me."*

*With love and respect*

*Zahraa Ali*

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## **Abstract**

The current study aims to investigate the LU/LC pattern and measure the correlation change in the Lesser Zab river basin. Data Landsat imagery from 1989, 1999, 2010 and 2021 were used. In general, six, classes have been identified, utilizing supervised image classification process maximum likelihood in ARC GIS10.7. Urban lands, increased from 0.46% in 1989, to 5.59% in 2021 of total land area. In comparison with 1989, Agricultural lands have been reduced by 11.1% at 2021. And this study aims to predict the prospect LU/LC alterations by applying the synergy Cellular Automata-Markov. With the categorized (1999–2010) and (2010–2021) LU/LC maps in the hybrid model, the LU/LC maps for 2021 and 2041 were modeled correspondingly. The agreements accuracy between the categorized and the modeled images were  $K_{no} = 0.8635$ ,  $K_{location} = 0.8541$ ,  $K_{standard} = 0.7851$  and  $R^2 = 0.951$ . Prospect likelihoods validate between 2021 classified and 2041 predicted, urban area would rise by 364.4%, water bodies 33%, however, bare lands/light, agricultural lands, bare lands/dark, forest lands would decrease by 3.5%, 11.96%, 42.85 %, and 76.27%, correspondingly. And investigate the impact of LU/LC change on the hydrological process of the study area for 21 years. The Soil Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model used for the simulation of the streamflow. The model results showed that the streamflow characteristics changed due to the LU/LC change such as change of flood frequency and climate change. The SWAT model evaluation revealed the annual surface runoff in the Dukan watershed increased due to the flood wave that occurred in 2019 according to hydrological data obtained from the Ministry of Water Resources / National Center for Water Resources Management. As a result, the Dukan Dam's capacity was depleted and reduce surface runoff in the Dibis watershed due to precipitation decreases. Curve number (CV), an available

water capacity of the soil layer, and soil evaporation composition factor were the most sensitive parameters identified for the streamflow and snow melt effective in Dukan watershed as the years progress, the thickness of the snow decreases and its contribution to the stream flow not effective to Dibis watershed. By utilizing SWAT CUP two LU/LC (2000, 2010) have been developed. Both the calibration and validation results showed a relationship between observed and simulated streamflow. For example ( $R^2$ ) and (NSE) values for the model statistical test are 0.87 and 0.81 for the calibration period 2000-2007, and 0.79 and 0.63 for the validation period 2007-2010, respectively. The output of this study are helpful for effective management of river basin.

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## List of Abbrivations

<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Description</b>
95PPU	95% Prediction Uncertainty
AGRL	Agricultural land
CA	Cellular Automata
CC	Climate Change
CFSR	Climate Forecast System Reanalysis
CN	Curve Number
DEM	Digital Elevation Model
ETM	Enhanced Thematic Mapper
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GIS	Geographic Information System
HEC-HMS	Hydrologic Modeling System
HRU	Hydrological Response Unit
KI	Kappa coefficient
LULC	Land Use Land Cover
LZRB	Lower Zab River Basin
m. a. s. l	Meters Above Sea Level
MoWR	Iraqi Ministry of Water Resources
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NDVI	Normalized Difference vegetation Index
NIR	Near Infra-Red
NSE	Nash–Sutcliffe model efficiency
OA	Overall Accuracy
$R^2$	Coefficient of determination
RMSE	Root Mean Squared Error

SRTM	Shuttle Radar Topography Mission
SUFI-2	Sequential Uncertainty Fitting version
SWAT	Soil and Water Assessment Tool
SWAT-CUP	SWAT Calibration and Uncertainty Programs
TM	Thematic Mapper
WGS84	World Geodetic System Reference 1984
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USGS	United States Geological Survey
UTM	Universal Transverse Mercator
WGS84	World Geodetic System Reference 1984

## **Chapter one**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1 General**

Alterations of land use land cover have been displayed to have a direct effect on both the regional and universal atmosphere, land poverty, and environment that in turn diminishes ecology facilities and purposes (Oliver and Morecroft 2014; Padmaja and Giridhar 2022). Compared with the past, the land use and land cover (LULC) concentration, quickness, as well as the amount of alteration are currently quicker as a result of the public development and the quick growth in inhabitants caused disturbing a big quantity of lands on the Globe (Saleh and Ahmed 2021). Thus, simulating present and prospect alteration in LU/LC would be important to the policy making of ecological managing and future development. As a result of their capability to offer recurrent statistics at changed spatiotemporal coverage, there has been raising concern for applying remote sensing information for observing LU/LC variations. Accordingly, the remote sensing information is considered as vital data to the LU/LC classification and modification exposure simulation. Landsat image is freely available and access to four eras of world recording data and moderately great areal resolution and it has been extensively considered to investigate LU/LC variations (Sakthivel et al. 2021; Padmaja and Giridhar 2022). Markov model and cellular automata (CA) have probable profits in the investigation of land use variations. The CA-Markov simulation is capable to incorporate the data of geographic information system (GIS) and remote sensing well, therefore; is a strong and appropriate technique for simulating spatiotemporal change of LU/LC (Yi et al., 2022). Recently, the CA Markov model have effectively applied to simulate the spatiotemporal change patterns of LU/LC by numerous

studies (Gidado et al., 2019; Hishe et al. 2020; Munthali et al. 2020; Cui et al., 2021; Wang and Zheng 2022; Yi et al., 2022). Accordingly and considering the ability of the model to expand understanding about the difficulty of spatial system components, the current study considered the CA-Markov simulation to examine prospect LU/LC variations within LZRC, north part of Iraq. Nevertheless, numerous studies have used classification methods that founded on remote sensing data to estimate LU/LC at local scale (Degife et al. 2019; Juliev et al. 2019; Yesuph and Dagneu 2019; Kan-In and Khunrattanasiri 2020; Maury and Sharma 2020; Sakthivel et al. 2021; Padmaja and Giridhar 2022). Nearly all the earlier research works in Iraq have concentrated either on present or on historical LU/LC variations, and there have been some research work on prediction of spatial future LU/LC variations in the country (Hadi et al. 2014; Omar et al. 2014).

The SWAT model is a widely used semi distributed, continuous, physically based, and efficient hydrological model that was originally developed to quantify the impact of land use and management practices on water, sediment, and agricultural chemical yields at the watershed level under varying soil, land use, and management conditions (Arnold et al., 2012). The model application (SWAT) is a common technique used to examine LU/LCC consequences on water resources, notably in watershed management. Many investigations (Abraham et al., 2006; Setegn et al., 2008; Getachew and Melesse, 2012) have demonstrated the appropriateness of such as model in LU/LCC water resource impact assessments.

This research contained (1) Explore the LU/LC pattern for the basin, and identify the LU/LC alteration during the past three decades (1989–2021) to detect the spatiotemporal changes in these years by using GIS software (2) Investigate and record NDVI changes during the past three decades (1989–

2021) by remote sensing approaches information (3) Use CA-Markov simulation to address the past, present, and future changes of LU/LC for the LZRC. (4) The SWAT model's applicability to the research field was evaluated in relation to the impact of the LU/LC shift on examining the hydrological response of the Lesser zab basin. This will let policymakers use more realistic techniques to sustain the water resources while also drawing significant attention to the basin ecosystem.

## **1.2 Aim and Objectives**

The main target of the study is estimating the past and future LU/LC alteration in the Lower Zab River Basin hydrology as well as translating the outcomes into a management decision to overcome the negative consequences of such changes on the hydrological balance of the basin. However, this study aimed to achieve the following objectives at a basin scale:

1. Identify LU/LC and NDVI spatiotemporal alteration for the basin during the past three decades (1989–2021).
2. Address the past, present, and future changes of LU/LC for the basin by CA-Markov simulation.
3. Evaluate the effect of LU/LC changes on the hydrological processes from 2000 until 2021 by using ARC SWAT software.

## **1.3 Limitations and Assumptions**

- Assuming that interactions between LU/LC and climate change were overlooked while isolating the effects of two elements is the main likelihood the methodology utilized in this investigation. However, the hydrology of the basin would be significantly influenced by LU/LC and climate change.

**Uncertainty:**

- The hydrological simulation is one of the main sources of uncertainty, along with uncertainties in the hydro-climatic time series and modelling parameters. The calibration process of SWAT's conceptual model results in a high level of parameterization, which introduces uncertainty.

**1.4 The Thesis's Organization:**

The research outline and findings are provided in five chapters, as mentioned below:

The first chapter provides an introduction to the research topic, the aim and objectives to be achieved, and the structure of the research

The second chapter presents a literature review of relevant topics of the research, which dealt with detecting changes in land use land cover over several decades by creating a LU/LC map and classifying them using a GIS program, as well as studying the impact of this change on hydrological behavior using the ARC SWAT program and predicting the future map using Markov Model.

The third chapter present the technique employed in the current study and provides a full description of the tools and source input data that used to prepare land use and land cover maps, classification and evaluation of classification accuracy using the Kappa coefficient, estimate their hydrological influence, and forecasting future maps for the study region.

The fourth chapter presents the results obtained based on the tools and input data that were explained in the third chapter

The fifth chapter summarizes the study's significant results and gives recommendations for further research

**Chapter Two****Concept, Theory and Literature Review****2.1 Land use Land cover**

Land cover refers to the physical and biophysical characteristics or state of the Earth's surface and immediate surroundings as represented by the distribution of vegetation, water, desert, ice, and other physical features of the land, including those created solely by human activities, such as settlements. The intended use or management of a land cover type by humans is referred to as land use. Thus, land use encompasses both the manner in which the biophysical attributes of land are manipulated and the intent behind that manipulation (the purpose for which the land is used, e.g., agriculture, grazing, etc.), which are more subtle changes that affect the character of the land cover without changing its overall classification. This definition of land use creates a direct link between land cover and human actions in their environment (FAO, 1998a).

A comprehensive analysis is necessary for proper land cover management. Knowledge of the land cover's physical properties from direct measurements and the use of physical models extends to disciplines like biology and soil sciences hydrology meteorology (Hagos et al., 2014). Human adjustments to the surface of the earth result in changes to the land cover. These modifications significantly affect how crucial components of the Earth system work (such as energy, water, and soil balance). Additionally, population growth increases the demand for scarce natural resources, changing the land's surface cover (Islam et al., 2018). The effect of land cover on runoff is an essential component in the production of runoff, as the vegetation that splits the water has an impact on how much is intercepted into infiltration and runoff (Winnaar et al., 2007). The impact of land cover on surface runoff generation might be shown by the results

of Water flow patterns are altered by urbanization due to an increase in impervious surfaces. (Barron et al.,2009)

## **2.2 Classification of remote sensing imagery**

Remote sensing image classification is required to identify information about the earth's surface and environment. The classification technique determines the object information corresponding to the image and extracts the necessary information related to that object (Breiman,2001) Remote sensing image classification is roughly divided into two categories: supervised classification and unsupervised classification as shown details in table (2.1).

### **2.2.1 Supervision of classification**

The supervised classification method is a popular method for classifying remote sensing data. To train the algorithm, training data and thus analyst intervention are required. Algorithm training necessitates that the analyst have a thorough understanding of the geographical area under consideration and its land cover (Richards,2013). The delineation of training areas representative of a cover type is most efficient when an image analyst is familiar with the topography of a region. These areas are known as training sites on the picture, which include the predictor variables assessed in each sample unit.

### **2.2.2 Unsupervised classification**

Unsupervised image classification is entirely based on the automatic assignment of image pixels to spectral groupings. It only considers spectral distance measures and requires little user interaction. This method necessitates interpretation after classification. To understand the spectral characteristics of land cover classes, unsupervised classification techniques are commonly used. Unsupervised classification yields a clustered image, which is defined by groups of pixels called clusters that have similar properties (Jensen,1996).

commonly employed K-mean Clustering, ISODATA, Spectral Clustering, and other unsupervised methods are examples

Table (2.1) Techniques for Remote Sensing Classification (Jensen, 2005)

Methods	Examples	Characteristics
Parametric	Unsupervised classification and maximum likelihood classification	Assumptions: Data area normally distributed prior Knowledge of class density functions
Non parametric Non- metric	Support Vector, fuzzy categorization, neural networks, and a system for determining the closest neighbor Decision tree categorization using rules	There are no presumptions made can be used with nominal and real-valued data statistical analysis of scaled data
Supervised	Maximum Likelihood, minimal distance, classification using a parallelepiped, etc.	Each pixel is categorised based on statistical analysis, and the analyst selects training sites to represent them in classes
Unsupervised	ISODATA and K-means etc	The analyst selects training locations to represent in each pixel is categorized into groups according to analytical statistics. utilizing discrete categories to classify. considers the diversity of the actual world
Hard (parametric) Soft (non- Parametric) Object-oriented for pre-pixels	Unsupervised and Supervised Classifications	Each pixel is given a share of the available land. sort of cover shown in the images

Hybrid

Approaches

Logic for Fuzzy Set Classification

Image classification, pixel by pixel. homogenous objects generated from an image. Each object and pixel underwent classification.

---

## **2.3 Watershed**

A watershed is a geographical region that is researched for the hydrological cycle and its components. This area of terrain gathers rain, snowmelt, and springs, which flow into reservoirs, bays, and the ocean via creeks, streams, and rivers. On different scales, the topography most relevant to a watershed's unique location determines the size of a watershed, also known as a drainage basin or catchment. These scales are known as "Hydrologic Unit Codes" (HUC). A watershed might be as little as a single county or as large as a small inland lake size, slope, form, drainage density, land use/land cover, geology and soils, and vegetation are all major elements influencing various aspects of runoff (Viessman, 2003)

## **2.4 Watershed Model Selection**

### **2.4.1 Models of the Hydrologic System**

The components of a watershed hydrology model are mathematically described cycle of the hydrologic system. The goal determines the model's architecture and organization. Which the model is constructed (Singh and Woolhiser, 2002). hydrology watershed models have many various shapes and have been created for many different causes. However, they are typically created to achieve one of the two main goals. One the goal of watershed modeling is to better comprehend the hydrologic cycle a knowledge of the phenomena that occur in a watershed and how changes to the watershed may impact these

phenomena. The creation of synthetic sequences of data is another goal of watershed modeling. Every hydrological model needs two key elements, according to Beven,(2001): one to assess how much of the rainfall contributes to the runoff in the storm hydrograph the other to account for the distribution that runoff in time, to take into form the storm hydrograph's shape (the runoff routing component).

According to Singh and Woolhiser, (2002) Watershed models can be categorized using many standards, including explanation of the procedure, its duration, size, and method of resolution (Singh,1995) divided hydrologic models into many categories: (1) process description; (2) timescale (3) model type (4) space size, (5) methods of solution, (6) usage of the land, and (7) application of models. If a model has at least one component of random character which is not explicit in the model input, but only implicit or hidden it is called stochastic model. If the model components are described by a mix of deterministic and stochastic components, the model is called stochastic-deterministic or hybrid model. Deterministic model - A mathematical model which contains no. random components; consequently, each component and input is determined exactly. Stochastic model - A mathematical model that includes some sort of random forcing. A vast majority of the models are deterministic, and virtually no model is fully stochastic. On the basis of process description, the hydrological models can be classified into three main categories: lumped models, semi-distributed model and imperical as shown in fig(2.1), (Refsgaard, 1996)

The basin is divided into a number of smaller sub-basins in semi-distributed (simplified distributed) models, which partially permits parameters to fluctuate in space. The fundamental benefit of these models is that they have a structure

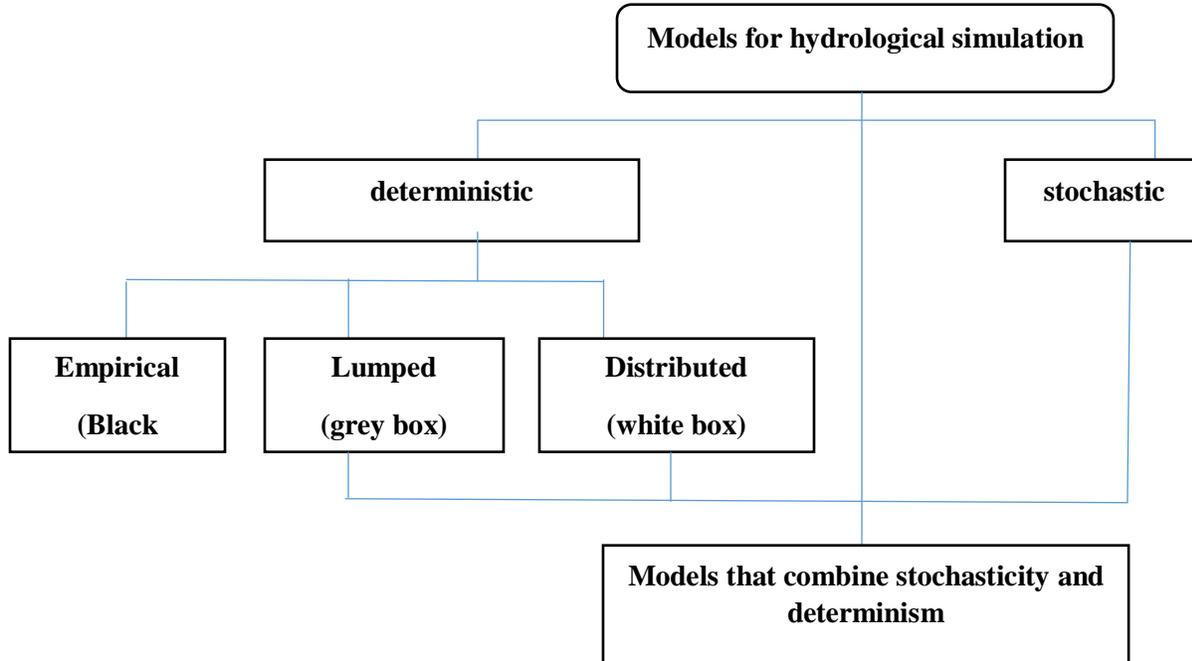


Fig (2.1) Model classification based on procedure (Refsgaard, 1996)

that is more physically based than lumped models and that they require less input data per model than fully distributed models.

## 2.5 The Soil Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) Model

The SWAT model, which was created by USDA-ARS (Arnold et al., 1998) throughout the course of almost 30 years of modeling experience. The prototype is semi- a physically based distributed simulation model that is able to foresee the effects of land use change and land use on hydrological regimes in watersheds with different soil types. largely as a tool for strategic planning over extended periods of time and managerial settings. It combines elements from a number of ARS models and is an immediate development of the SWRRB model. (Arnold and Williams, 1987). The SWAT 2005 effects of topographic, land-use, soil, and other spatial variables on watershed Subdivisions take hydrological aspects into account (Mengistu et al., 2019)

**2.5.1 SCS Curve Number Method**

The SCS curve number (Soil Conservation Service Engineering Division, 1972) is a method for estimating surface runoff quantities from precipitations for a specific area. Despite the fact that the method is intended to calculate surface runoff from a single rainstorm event, it can also be used to calculate annual surface runoff.

The basic requirements for the method equation are the rainfall amounts and the curve number (CN) of the area to which the surface runoff will be calculated. The curve number is determined by land use land cover, hydrological soil group, treatment, and hydrological condition.

The SCS curve number method has the following general equation (USDA, 1972)

$$Q_{surf} = \frac{(P - I_a)^2}{(P - I_a) - S} \quad 2.1$$

Where  $Q_{surf}$  denotes daily surface runoff (mm),  $P$  precipitation (mm),  $S$ : the retention parameter (mm water). It varies spatially due to changes in soils, land use management, slope and temporally due to changes in soil water content,  $I_a$  Initial abstraction ( $I_a$ ) refers to all water losses that occur prior to the start of runoff, such as water retained in surface depressions, water intercepted by vegetation, evaporation, and infiltration (USDA, 1986).  $I_a$  is highly variable, but it is always associated with soil and land cover parameters. Many studies of various watersheds discovered that  $I_a$  is roughly given by the equation:

$$I_a = 0.2 S \quad 2.2$$

By removing  $I_a$  from equation 2.1 and substituting it into equation 2.2,  $S$  and  $P$  are combined to produce a unique runoff equation.

$$Q = \frac{(P - 0.2S)^2}{(P + 0.8S)} \tag{2.3}$$

The CN ranges from 0 to 100

$$S = \frac{25400}{CN} - 254 \tag{2.4}$$

The SCS curve number is determined by soil permeability, LC, and previous soil water conditions. Runoff will occur only when  $R_{day} > I_a$ .  $R_{day}$  is the daily rainfall depth (mm of water), Figure 2.2 depicts a graphical representation of equation 2.1 for various CN values (Neitch et al., 2005)

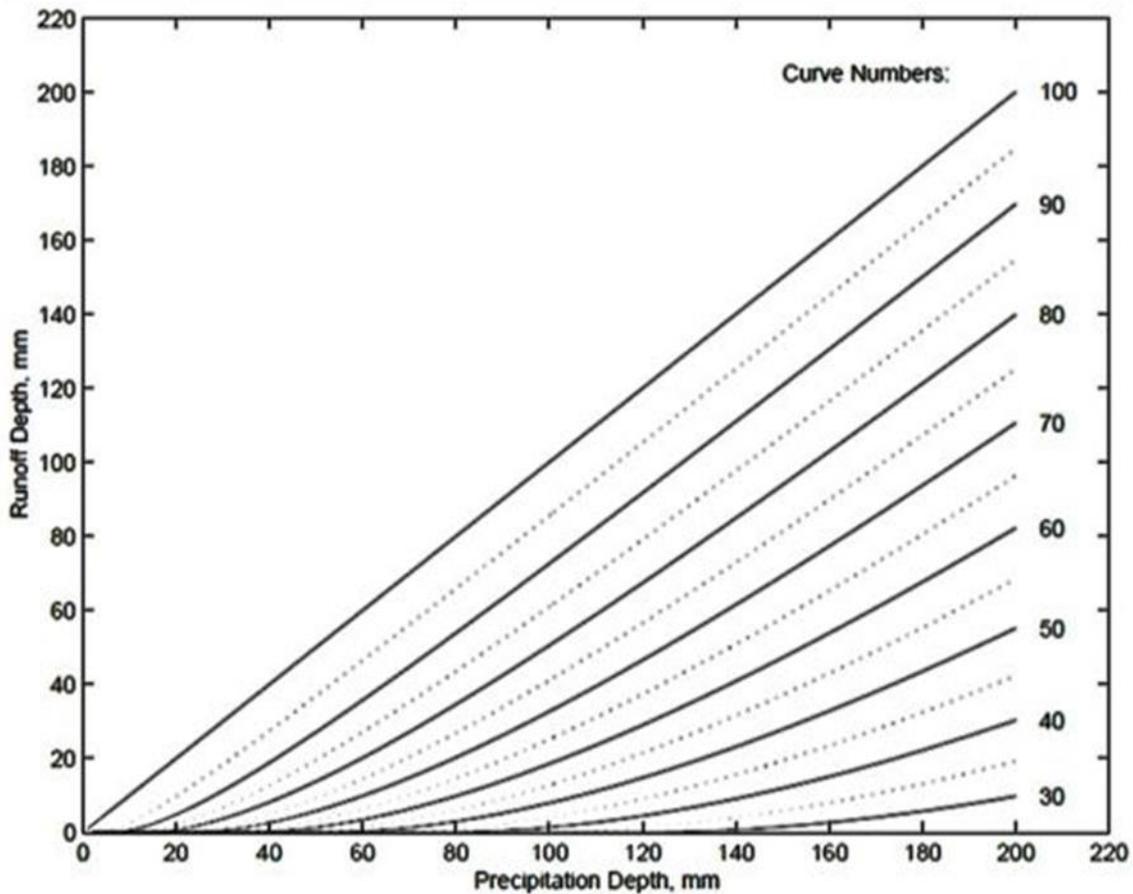


Figure (2.2): SCS CN equation ( Neitch et al., 2005)

**2.5.2 Factors influencing curve number (CN)**

The following factors will be clarified:

1. Groups of Hydrologic Soils.
2. Type Coverage.
3. Land Use/Land Cover Treatment.
4. Hydrologic State.
5. Antecedent Moisture Condition (AMC).

**2.5.3 Hydrologic Soil Groups**

The soil was divided into hydrological soil categories according to data on measuring moisture, runoff, and rainfall (Musgrave, 1955). As stated by the United States' National Resources Conservation Service (NRCS, 2007), a hydrological group is a collection of soils with similar properties. possible runoff under specific cover and storm conditions. NRCS separated the hydrological classes for soils based on characteristics of soil infiltration (Neitch et al., 2005), hence the SWAT Model made advantage of this classification.

a) Group A: Soils have strong infiltration rates, open water flow, and little possibility for runoff even when entirely saturated.

b) Group B :Soils, which have a modest rate of infiltration even when totally wet, and water may freely percolate through the soil.

c) Group C: Soils in this group have moderately high runoff potential when thoroughly wet. Water transmission through the soil is somewhat restricted.

d) Group D: Soils in this group have high runoff potential when thoroughly wet. Water movement through the soil is restricted or very restricted.

**2.6 SWAT-CUP Calibration and Validation Program Overview**

The SWAT Calibration and Uncertainty Program (SWAT-CUP) is an external software program designed specifically for calibration and uncertainty

analysis. (Abbaspour ,2007) developed five calibration programs (SUFI-PSO, GLUE, SUFI-2, ParaSol, and MCMC. SUFI-2 (Sequential Uncertainty Fitting) is an algorithm.steps to determine the majority of the observed data within the 95% confidence band uncertainty in estimation.The overall output uncertainty is measured by the 95% prediction uncertainty (95PPU), which is calculated at the 2.5% and 97.5% locations of the cumulative distribution of the simulated stream flow as an output element extracted from Latin hypercube sampling. The P-factor is the percentage of observed data that the 95PPU matches. It ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 being the ideal value, indicating that all of the observed data is within the model calculations. The R-factor is calculated by dividing the mean width of the band by the standard deviation of the observed variable. It ranges from 0 to  $\infty$ , with 0 indicating perfect match between simulation and observation. Based on the experience, an R-factor of around 1 is generally desirable (Abbaspour et al., 2015). The P-factor and R-factor indicators were used to assess the goodness of fit for calibration.). SUFI-2 supports the use of various optimization objective functions, such as Nash-Sutcliff efficiency (NS) (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) or coefficient of determination  $R^2$ . NS and  $R^2$  values of 0.5 are considered poor, values greater than 0.5 are considered satisfactory, and values greater than 0.75 are considered excellent (Gassman et al., 2007).

## **2.7 Previous Research**

Al Saady et al. (2015) assessed how the Lower Zab region's land use has evolved between 1976 and 2014 using aerial pictures from Landsat, classifying them by using GIS into several categories, determining the overall accuracy and Kappa coefficient 83.43 % ,0.811%, and determining the progression of urban areas.

Buyuksalih (2016) used aerial photographs from Landsat for period (1987-2007) and categorizing them into nine classes using the controlled classification

in arc GIS software method and calculating the 1987 Landsat image overall accuracy of 79 % and a kappa value of 0.76, the 2007 Landsat image overall accuracy of 83.50% and kappa value of 0.81. for Istanbul. As a consequence, a 20-year analysis of Istanbul's development was displayed. The categories have made it feasible to precisely and affordably quantify, map, and evaluate changes in land cover across time.

Azizi et al. (2016) retrieved and examined the land use maps of the Ardabil plain in Iran's northwest over a period of four years (1989, 1998, 2009, and 2013). Then, they predicted future land use changes for 2030 used an integrated CA-Markov model in IDRISI Selva 17.0 By 2030, the built environment and agricultural region accounted for the majority of the changes, which continuously increased.

Zhang et al. (2016) evaluated the separate and combined hydrological impacts of land use change and climate variability in the headwater region of a typical arid inland river basin, known as the Heihe River Basin, northwest China, in the recent past (1995-2014) and future (2015-2024) by combined two land use models (the Markov chain model and Dyna-CLUE) with a hydrological model (SWAT). Future climate change will very certainly have a far higher influence on hydrological regimes than on land use. The influence of altering land use, on the other hand, should not be overlooked, especially if future climates are drier, since this may compound the hydrological consequences.

Omani et al. (2007) used (SWAT2000) model to study the water and sediment yields in the 5793 km<sup>2</sup> Gharasu watershed on Iran's extreme western frontier. The SWAT2000 software's digital elevation model (DEM), land cover, and soil map interfaced with Arc View GIS data layers. The model was calibrated between 1991 and 1996, and it was verified between 1997 and 2000. To estimate the load of suspended silt, the hydrological conditions calibration

model was utilized. The model was used to forecast the impact of various land use and conservation measures on the basin's sediment output. Two different management scenarios for soil conservation were considered in order to evaluate the effects on sediment yielding. First scenario: With due attention to topographic conditions and possibility of "contouring" or "contouring and terracing" the critical sub-basin 16, 17, 19, 37 and 39 are suitable for land management practices. Reduction of erosion in the agricultural HRUs located in lower parts of these critical sub-basins. Second scenario: Because land management practices in hilly and mountainous areas are impracticable, land cover changing of these areas is recommended for soil conservation.

Regmi et al. (2017) compared the CA-Markov model with the GEOMOD model to predict future LULC changes in the Phewa Lake Watershed, Nepal, and found that the integration of the CA and Markov models was effective in projecting future LULC scenarios compared to GEOMOD. Considering the model's vast applications in the field of LULC change analysis and its ability to broaden understandings about complex spatial systems, the best they got, no study in Botswana has employed the CA-Markov model to simulate future LULCs, particularly in the country's important catchments. Therefore, this work was among the first to test the applicability of the CA-Markov model to simulate future LULC patterns for the Gaborone dam catchment, Botswana, and their implications on future water resource management in the catchment.

Boran and Yadav (2017) created LULC maps for the years 1990 to 2000 in Jodhpur in western region of the Rajasthan by using remote sensing satellite data and GIS technologies, and they predicted the year 2020's LULC maps used a CA (Cellular Automata)-Markov process model. as a result they anticipated built-up expansion.

Welde and Gebremariam (2017) estimated the possible consequences of the land. the influence of land cover dynamics on hydrological responsiveness (stream flow and sediment yield). This was accomplished by combining GIS with the SWAT model. Simulation and sensitivity analysis were done for each land use by allocating HRUs based on multiple HRU definitions and subdividing the catchment into 47 sub-catchments. Changes in land cover had a favorable impact on the Tekeze dam Northern Ethiopia. The expected watershed response affected by the transition from grass and shrub land to agricultural land. Growing bare land and agricultural zones resulted in increased volume and seasonal as well as annual stream flow.

Hamad et al. (2018) used Landsat 5 images from years 1993, 1998, 2003, and 2008 as well as Landsat 8 images from the year 2017. they used GIS software to construct land use maps in The National Park's Halgurd-Sakran Core Zone (HSCZ) in Iraq's Kurdistan region. they proposed two scenarios and used A Cellular Automata (CA)-Markov chain model to simulate future land use changes to the year 2023 under two alternative scenarios (Iraq under siege and Iraq after siege). they finded indicate that in the next six years, areas became more stable and homogeneous. as depicted in the second scenario this circumstance had a beneficial effect on the park.

Alam et al. (2019) examined The Kashmir valley's changes in land use and land cover between 1992 and 2015 through this research. A maximum likelihood classifier used to classify Landsat satellite imageries and produce LULC using supervised approach. Three patterns of land use and land cover change were identified in the study area: (1) a consistent increase in the area covered by marshy, built-up, barren, plantation, and shrubs; (2) a continuous

decline in agriculture and water; and (3) a decrease (1992-2001) and increase (2001-2015) in the classes of forest and pasture.

Mengistu et al. (2019) conducted the investigation in South Africa's Soutloop River Catchment. The goal of their work was to construct, calibrate, and assess the SWAT model in catchments with limited data using the regionalization with physical similarity technique. This technique employed two calibration and validation processes, one in the donor catchment and the other on SWAT-CUP. The uncertainty analysis found that the P-factor (0.7) and R-factor (0.8) were at suitable levels. Furthermore, the model performance analysis identified acceptable value ranges, and the study contained recommendations for further inspection approaches to lower the study's model uncertainty.

Messele and Moti (2019) assessed how the hydrological response of the Weib watershed's basin of the upper Genale Dawa River located in the southeastern part of Ethiopia changed in the past and how it could change in the future. To compare the effects of stream land use change on the flow of the research region, the Model for Soil and Water Assessment was employed. The study served as a paradigm for replacing metered discharge with a ready supply of calibrated geographical and temporal data. When it comes to land usage, there has been an increase in habitation area and cultivated land. While amounts of woodland and grassland have decreased

Khwarahm et al. (2021) modelled LULC maps for 2017 and 2050 in Ca Marcov model by using the categorized (1988–2002, and (2002–2017) LULC maps in Erbil governorate in the Kurdistan region of Iraq (KRI). they expected Built-up land, agricultural land, plantation, dense vegetation, and water bodies rised. Sparse vegetation and barren terrain, on the other hand, dropped.

Abdulrahman and Ameen (2020) utilized GIS and remote sensing to categorize LULC classes in Duhok in the Kurdistan region of Iraq (KRI).

district from 1999 to 2018, and calculated the results using an integrated cellular automaton and ca-markov chain model to simulate LULC map in 2033. they concluded outcomes demonstrate that Duhok district has experienced a total of 184.91 km changes during the period and soil and grass constituted the majority of changes among LULC classes and increased continuously

Belihu et al. (2020) saw how land use and land cover changes (LULCC) affected stream flow in Ethiopia's upper Gidabo Watershed between 1985 and 2005. The Arc Swat algorithm was used to complete the synthesis of the swat and SWAT-CUP algorithms. According to LULCC, both agricultural and urban land have expanded. The effects of grassland dynamics on hydrological response. Evapotranspiration and surface runoff increased throughout the rainy season, and the dry season stretched as the flow lengthened. Variation in surface flow.

Hussain et al. (2021) identified the pattern of LULC, NDBI, and NDVI change in Lodhran district, Pakistan, from Landsat pictures collected over a 40-year period, by using supervised classification maximum likelihood in ERDAS software LULC classified into four class: water bodies, constructed space, bare dirt, and vegetation. Building areas grew in 2017 compared to 1977. The Lodhran district's NDVI values were highest in 1977 (up to + 0.86) and lowest in 1997 (up to- 0.33).

Liang et al. (2021) chosed The Minjiang River Basin as a study area. The analysis of land use, land cover, and division of the area using GIS using the Maximum method of Eclihud, dividing the area into six areas, and found that forests increase and constitute 62% of the total area and the majority of the building properties are located along the water body.

Shen et al. (2021) created land use categorization map used RS and GIS technologies by the greatest probability technique for the two phases of Nanjing

in China from 2015 to 2020. There were "two dips (arable land and bare land) and four gains lost in Nanjing overall land use shift" between 2015 and 2020. (urban development land, woodland, grassland, and water area). The quantity of area conversion varies depending on the type of land use as well.

Matlhod et al. (2021) simulated LULC variations in the Gaborone dam Location in Botswana. Country, Botswana. District by using cellular automata and Markov chain (CA-Markov) model combinations. they classified Landsat pictures for 1984, 1995, 2005, and 2015 and the simulation showed that between 2015 and 2035, the categories of cropland, built-up land, and bare land rised and shrubland, tree savanna, and water body, reduced in areal coverage.

Leta et al. (2021) examined the effects of LULC on the hydrological parameters of the Blue Nile River Basin's Nashe watershed East Africa .They fed historical and predicted LULC change scenarios for the Nashe watershed into a calibrated SWAT model . they concluded Between 2035 and 2050, grass will become more plentiful. Land might reduce the undesired proclivity. They expected the land's extent decline in urban and agricultural land will arise from an increased in surface runoff and a decreased in groundwater.

Engida et al. (2021) determined how LU/LC change has affected the Upper Baro Basin's hydrological.they used (SWAT) model to simulate streamflow. Changes in LU/LC between 1987 and 2017 include a change in flood frequency, greater peak flows, base flow, and soil erosion. The curve number, soil layer accessible water capacity, and soil evaporation composition factor were discovered to be the most sensitive streamflow features. Both the calibration and validation results demonstrated that observed and simulated streamflow agreed well for the calibration periods of 1990-2002 and 2003-2009, respectively.processes in the years 1987, 2002, and 2017

Tembo and Volk (2022) looked at the effects of changing land use and land cover on river flow in the Chalimbana river catchment, hongwe District, Zambia. This study analyzed, spatially, the impact of land use changes from the year 1980 to 2020. Remote sensing and GIS related soft wares were used to analyze the Landsat images; riverflow and rainfall data for the period 1980 to 2020 was analyzed using linear regression and trend analysis with the help of Xlstat (in excel) and Minitab soft wares. Forests and vegetables were in low supply, while grass, farmland, and buildings were on the rise. so did the number of people agriculture activities have made a substantial contribution to this a rise in the river's flow

Yeneneh et al. (2022) analyzed spatiotemporal changes in land use and land cover and their effects on land surface temperature in the Suha watershed, in Ethiopia's northwest highlands. They used GIS to classify images from Landsat by using controlled classification and accuracy assessment for period (1989-2019) LST also extracted from these satellite images' thermal bands. They concluded a rise in agriculture and a fall in grazing and shurbing.

Ghalehtimouri et al. (2022) created LULC scenario for 2049 by using CA marcov, and examined LULC variations in Iran's Zarrinérd River Basin (ZRB) and they used numerous pictures and data gathered from satellite data between 1989 and 2019. The grassland and mountain LULC classes have continued to drop at a greater pace than the other classes, according to the ZRB's results. Additionally, the regional and temporal growth of the LULC class depended on the availability of water resources and the amount of precipitation in the past and future.

Attuley et al. (2022) Used the Soil Water Assessment Tool and assessed how the hydrological components of the Vea reservoir catchment, a sub-catchment of the White Volta Basin in West Africa. responded to past, current, and future

land-use change scenarios (1985, 1996, 2006, 2020, 2030, and 2040) using SWAT). The example functioned well, with calibration and validation. The models outcomes showed that Between 1986 and the predicted 2040 increase in CN, ET and base are decreased. Vegetation restoration is essential to decrease eroded sediment production from the watershed to ensure reservoir storage.

The change in land use and land cover and the prediction of their future change and the investigation of the effects of this change on the hydrological processes in the Lesser Zab River Basin as a whole were not included in previous studies Therefore, this research included

## **Chapter Three**

### **Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

#### **3.1 The Study area**

Lesser Zab River Basin is located in the borders of northeastern Iraq and northwest Iran as shown in (Fig 3.1). It covers an area of 20,000 km<sup>2</sup>, contains a wide range of landscapes, and extends between (35° 10.00 - 36° 55.00) latitude and (43° 25.00 - 46° 20.00) longitude. The main tributary of the Tigris River, the Lesser Zab River (LZR), also known as Lower Zab or Little Zab River, has around 76 percent of its basin in Iraq and 24 percent in Iran. A river of eighth order, the LZR travels from northeast to southwest. It flows into the Tigris River after feeding the Dukan Lake Reservoir. The river receives its inflow from precipitation, snowmelt, and many springs, which result in a high spring flow and a low summer discharge. The LZR's average annual discharge is 71700000000 m<sup>3</sup>, although since the Dukan Dam was built, that amount has decreased annually by 50700000000 m<sup>3</sup> (Frenken, 2009).

The climate in the basin varies from semi-arid to arid. In the north and northeast, the climate is humid; in the south and southwest, it is arid. higher altitude regions in with a mean annual precipitation of more than a meter, the north and northeast of the basin receive a lot of rain. as high as 850 meters. Its significantly decreases until the Tigris River's confluence, falling to less than 315 mm/a in the lower elevation region area to the south and southwest of Dukan Lake. The top part of the basin region is covered by the Zagros Suture Zone (3000 m.a.s.l) and the severely folded zone (Jassim and Goff, 2006). The foothills zone, which is characterized by clastic unresisting rocks, is where the higher portion of the basin is located.

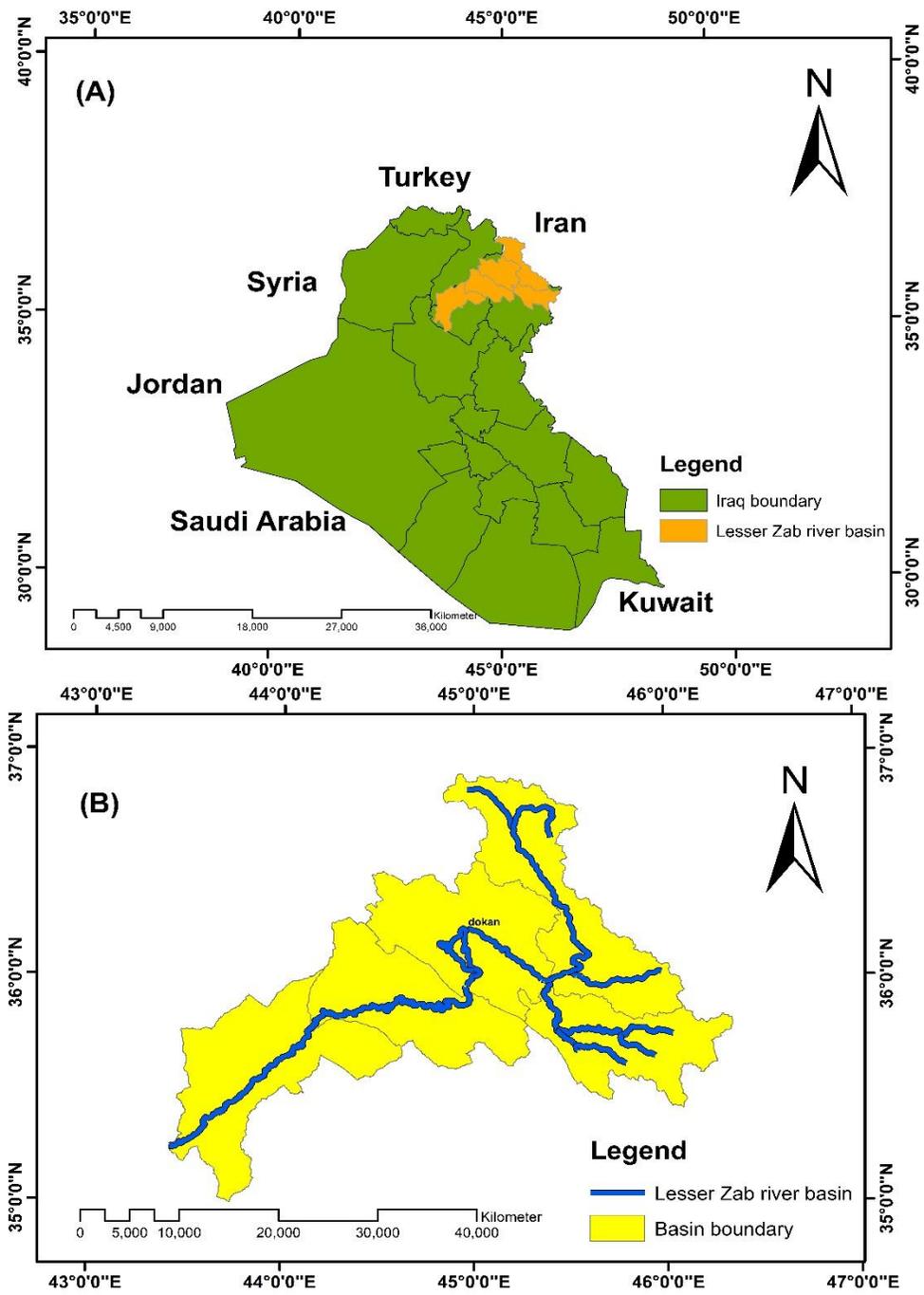


Fig (3.1) Lesser Zab River Basin

## **Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

Two dams are constructed in the Iraqi, the Dukan dam and the Dibis dam in the Lesser Zab River Basin. The first was constructed as an arch dam in 1961 and is located upstream of Dukan City 6970 Million Cubic Meter is the maximum amount of storage. It provides water for hydropower production as well as irrigation and is used to control Tigris flow. It controls the water flow into the Kirkuk Project for agriculture. 130 kilometers upstream of where the Tigris and Lesser Zab meet is where it is situated. The Kirkuk Irrigation System was developed in the late 1960s and uses water from the Lesser Zab and Lake Dukan to irrigate 3000000 hectares.

Iran continues to build the Sardasht in 2011 as part of its strategy to combat water scarcity. 9 kilometers from the Iraqi border, a dam on the Little Zab river. Its use (starting in June 2017) led to in most areas in Sulaymaniyah Province, there is a lack of water for irrigation and drinking in Kurdistan.

### **3.2 Data Analysis**

#### **3.2.1. spatial data**

The data used in this study is made up of four historical consecutive-years (1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021) Landsat satellite imagery with a spatial resolution of 30 m as shown in (Table 3.1), (Table 3.2). The pictures scenes with the least amount of cloud cover (less than 10%) were downloaded from the USGS Earth Explorer website (<https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov>) in December 2021.

Landsat satellite data was chosen for its open accessibility, appropriateness for the purpose of the study, lengthy observation time, and high spectral and spatial resolution for LULC studies. (Mancin et al., 2014)

## **Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

Table (3.1) Earth observation imagery data collected for the Lesser Zab River Basin

Path	Row	Date/time(sensor)			
		1989	1999	2010	2021
168	35	16.07.1989(TM)	20.07.1999(TM)	02.07.2010(TM)	16.07.2021 (OLI)
168	36	21.07.1989(TM)	20.07.1999(TM)	09.07.2010(TM)	16.07.2021 (OLI)
169	36		27.07.1999(TM*)	09.07.2010(TM)	23.07.2021 (OLI)
169	36	15.07.1989(TM)			23.07.2021 (OLI)
170	36				30.07.2021(OLI)**

\* Thematic Mapper; \*\* Operational Land Image; Spatial resolution of 15 m is used for the panchromatic band 8 for Landsat 8

Table (3.2) description of land cover classes

Class	Description
Forest	Very densely vegetated areas, mostly forest and dense shrub lands.
Agricultural land	Presently cropped area with noticeable greenness
Urban area	This class includes paved highways, businesses, industrial zones, residences, and other paved locations
Bare land/light	Lands with no apparent/or negligible plants, specially no evident covers of trees or shrubs, wasteland, rocky mounts and bare open lands
Bare land/dark	Lands with no evident/or negligible plants, particularly no noticeable covers of trees or plants. Rocky mounts, bare rocks, hills, and soil
Water	Open water bodies such as lakes, rivers, and permanent ponds are included in this category

### **3.2.2. Metrological Data**

The SWAT model requires the following data (climatic information, such as rainfall, solar radiation, and temperature ranges (maximum and minimum), relative humidity, and wind speed) on a daily basis for at least three station.

## **Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

Due to the severe scarcity and fluctuation of the data obtained from the General Authority for Meteorology and Seismic Monitoring of the Iraqi Ministry of Transport, The Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) dataset is made up of hourly weather forecasts from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP), CFSR supplies weather criteria for SWAT runoff simulation (Fuka et al., 2013). SWAT has two input modes for weather data: simulated and gauged weather; in this investigation, the gauged mode was employed. The data for the watershed were acquired on May, 2022 for the period 1/1/1979 to 31/7/2014, from (<http://globalweather.tamu.edu/>), as shown in table (3.3).

As input weather data, all models used the CFSR dataset. SWAT recreated the weather data using the weather generator (wgen). Figures (3.2) depict the location of CFSR weather stations.

Table (3.3) The stations for study area

Subbasin	Name	Latitude ( $^{\circ}$ )	Longitude ( $^{\circ}$ )	Elevation (m)
Up stream	1	36.1	45.3	1203
Up stream	2	36.1	45.6	1473
Up stream	3	36.1	45.9	2420
Down stream	4	35.75	44.375	496
Down stream	5	35.75	44.688	833
Down stream	6	34.935	43.498	112

### **3.2.3 Preparing DEM's for the study area**

Using data from LANDSAT Shuttle Radar Topography Mission Version 3.0 of the (SRTM) DEM has a spatial resolution of 1.0 arc. second (30mx30m). The US website provides free downloads of these imagery. Geological Survey (USGS) webpage via the internet from ESRI satellites using Tag Image File Format (<https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov>) tiff with a World Geodetic System reference 1984 geographic projection (WGS84)

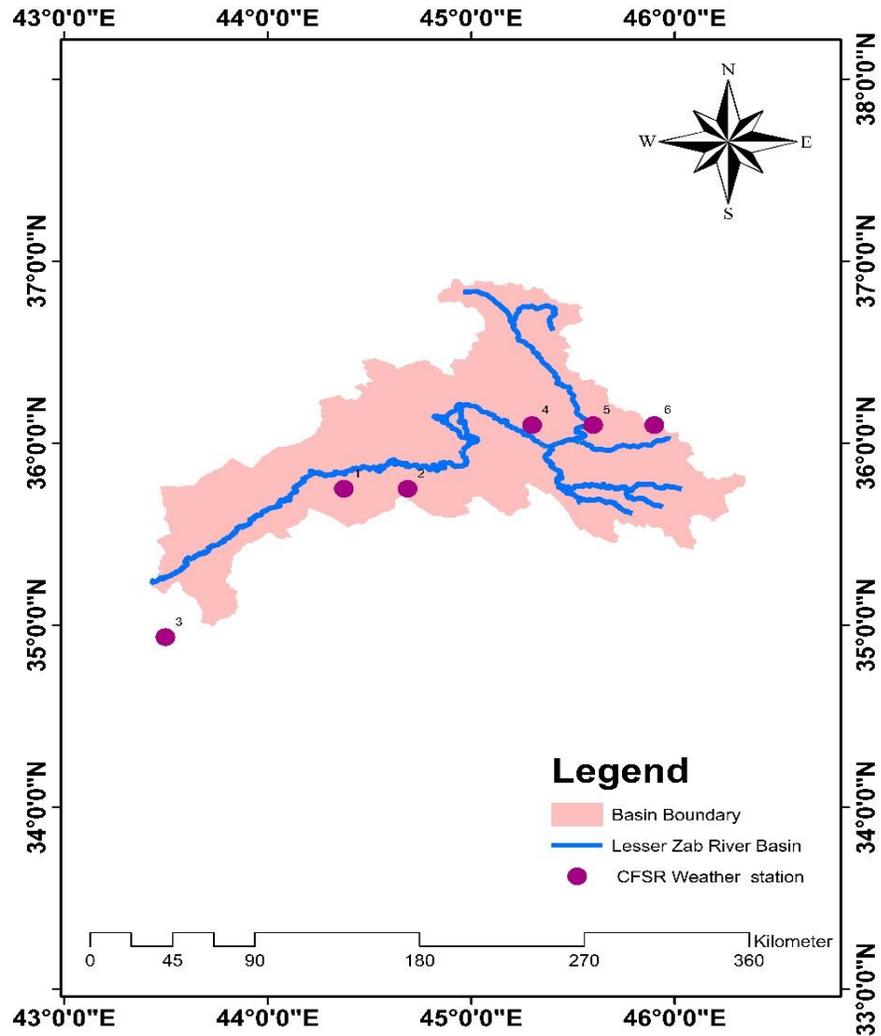


Fig (3.2) Weather Station Distribution over the Lower Zab river basin

Eight raster files from the DEM as shown in table (3.4) were downloaded in January 2022. Composed elements and mosaic and extract on shape file study area (The shape files of the Iraqi borders and UZRB have been obtained from the Global Administrative Areas (GADM 2012) and the Global and Land Cover Facility (GLCF 2015) databases, respectively represented) on a UTM projection 38N as a single set of raster lines as shown in fig (3.3).

## Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications

Table (3.4) The sensor, as well as the date and time of the scene, are captured from USGS for DEM

Path/row	Date/Time
n35_e043	23-9-2014
n35_e044	23-9-2014
n35_e045	23-9-2014
n35_e046	23-9-2014
n36_e043	23-9-2014
n36_e044	23-9-2014
n36_e045	23-9-2014
n36_e046	23-9-2014

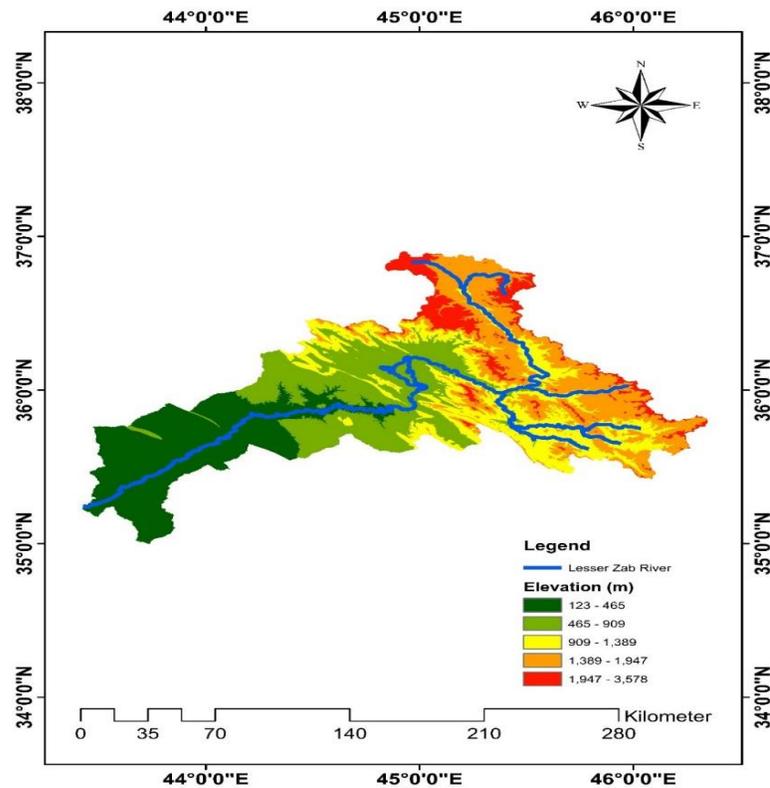


Fig (3.3) Digital Elevation Model for Lesser Zab River Basin with resolution of 30 m (USGS,2022)

## Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications

### 3.2.4 Soil map

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 1995) provided data for 5000 varieties of soil in two levels (0-30 and 30-100 cm), from which soil data were gathered. depth) at a 1:5000000 spatial scale. The FAO soil database contains information on each soil, and this database was included. For soil categorization, a SWAT database and lookup tables were created (Fouad, 2016). The data were retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/nr/land/soils/digital-soil-map-of-the-world/en/> datum and geographic projection WGS84 in June 2022.

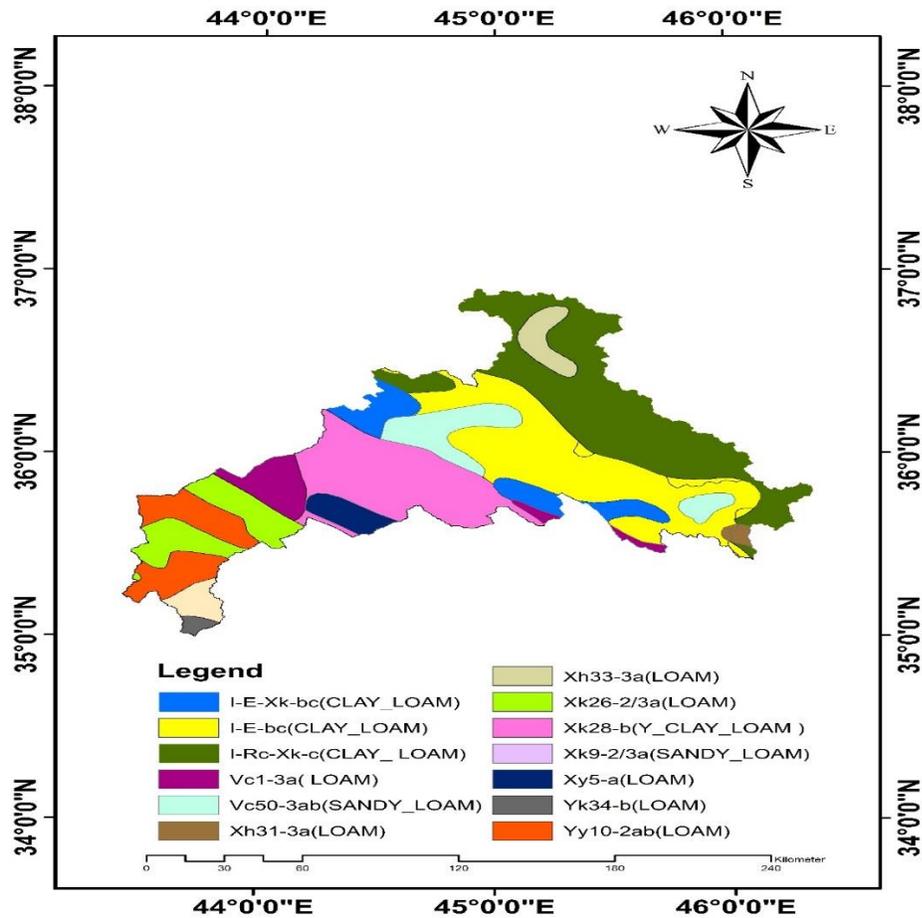


Fig (3.4) Soil map applied in ARC SWAT(FAO,2022) for the study area

## **Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

### **3.2.5 Hydrological Data**

The SWAT CUP program is used to calibrate and validate of the ARC SWAT results. This is accomplished by entering the actual data of the station that was obtained from Iraqi Ministry of Water Resources (MoWR), the National Center for Water Resources Management that includes average monthly inflow and absolute discharge of the Dukan dam for the period 1979 to 2021, The monthly average discharge of the Dibis dam, the average monthly discharge rate for the irrigation of Kirkuk for the period 2002 to 2021, as shown in Appendix B.

The table (3.5) shows the summary of data used in ARC SWAT program

Table (3.5): The data sources entered into the SWAT model

Data Typ	Data Source	Organization	Format	Year
DEM	SRTM	United states geological survey ( <a href="https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/">https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/</a> )	Raster	2014
Land use	Landsat 4,5,8	United states geological survey ( <a href="https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/">https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/</a> )	Raster	2000,2010
Soil	DSMW	FAO/UNESCO <a href="http://www.fao.org/nr/land/soils/digital-soil-map-of-the-world/en/">http://www.fao.org/nr/land/soils/digital-soil-map-of-the-world/en/</a>	Raster	2022
Weather Data	CFSR	CFSR	Vector	979_2014
Weather Data	General Authority for Meteorology and Seismic Monitoring	Iraqi Ministry of Transport	vector	Different, fluctuating years
Hydrological data	National Center for Water Resources Management	Iraqi Ministry of Water Resources (MoWR),	vector	2000-2022

## **Chapter Three Research Data, Methodology, and Applications**

### **3.3 Methodology of producing LU/LC maps**

#### **3.3.1: ARC GIS**

Geographic information system (GIS) is a system that creates, manages, analyzes, and maps all types of data. GIS connects data to a map, integrating location data with all types of descriptive information. In this study used ARC GIS version 10.7 to create LU/LC maps and image classification and accuracy assessment and calculate NDVI .and used version 10.5 to install ARC SWAT because 10.7 or earlier versions doesnot support downloading ARCSWAT as shown in fig (3.5)

#### **3.3.2 SPSS software**

The program SPSS stands for Statistical Package for Social Science. It is statistical software that makes data compilation and analysis easier. It used in this study to verify the reliability of the results obtained from the Markov program by finding the correlation between the map classified in the ArcGIS program and the predictive result from Markov for the same year.

#### **3. 3. 3. IDRISI Selva 17.0**

The software provides a platform for integrated modeling environments as well as utilities for importing and exporting GIS data.it contain many tools, In this study used MARCOV chain analysis to create transition area matrix and probability area matrix and used CA marcov to predict LU/LC Future maps. as shown in fig (3.6)

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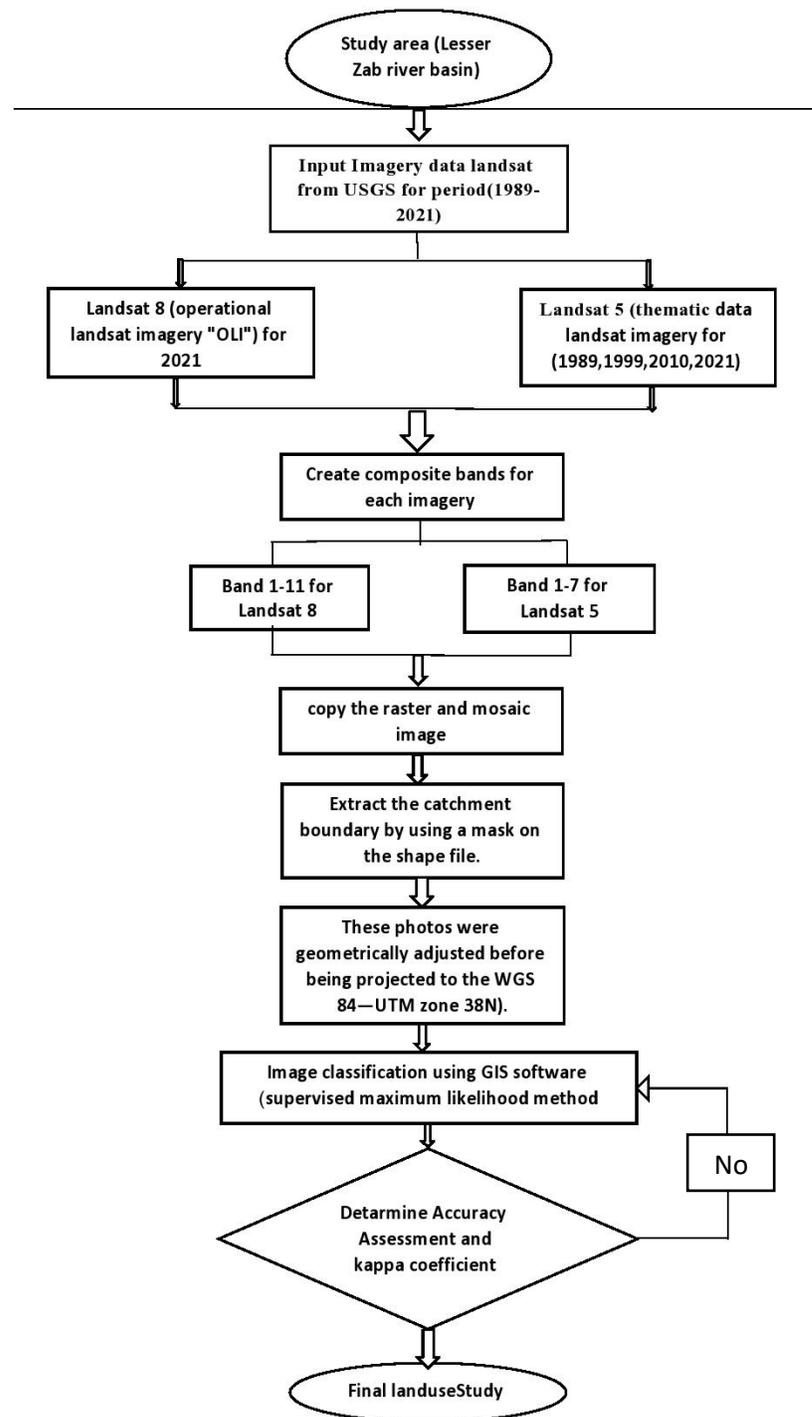


Fig (3.5) The applied methodology for assessing the implication of land use and land cover (LU/LC) alteration on the Lesser Zab River Basin, northeastern Iraq

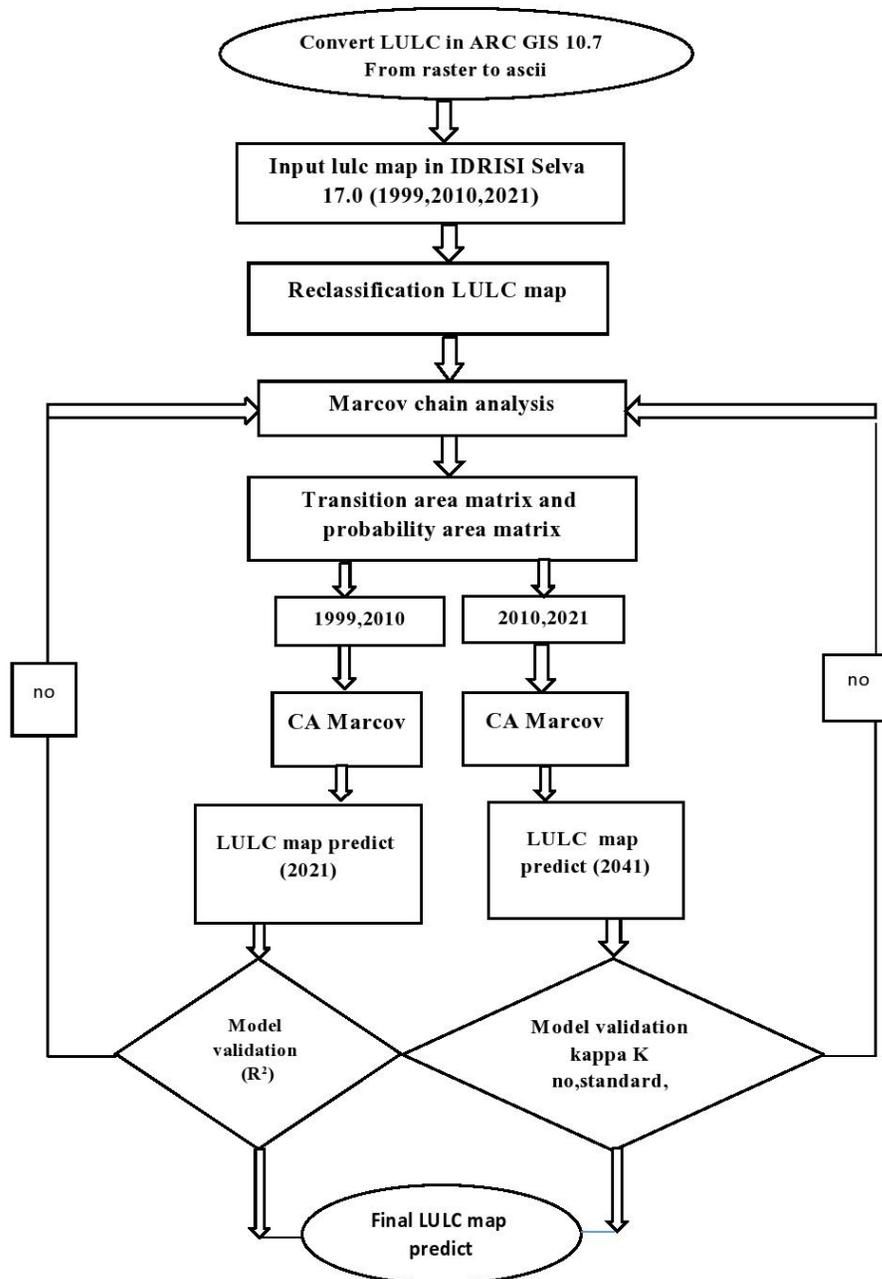


Fig (3.6) A simplified detailed explanation of the Markov model

### 3.3.4. ARC SWAT

This study used Arc SWAT version 2012, an extension of ArcMap 10.5 from the GIS software group, to determine the monthly runoff surface. All spatial data must be in the same projection for Arc SWAT. prior to any processing taking place. The WGS84 spatial datasets project (LANDSAT, DEM, LULC, and the FAO's soil map) was anticipated to WGS1984 UTM Zone38 N. Using ArcGIS 10.5, re-projections were carried out. The hydrological model SWAT includes a large number of parameters, and it has been successfully developed and used for more than 20 years. (Fouad ,2016). As shown in fig (3.7)

### 3.3.5 SWAT CUP

SWAT CUP was used to calibrate and validate the model. SWAT CUP has five calibration techniques, but the sequential uncertainty fitting method is the most accurate was employed, according to (Wu and Chen, 2015) and (Molina et al., 2016), can describe observed data with modest errors. There are more uncertainties and more runs are required to attain a satisfying outcome. The calibration and validation of discharge occurred in two stage during period (2000-2021) respectively. The calibration and validation results are displaye P-BIAS (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) (Gupta and Sorooshian, 1999). The model performs better when the RMSE is low (Moriasi et al., 2007). Equations are used to express these matrixes

$$NSE= 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (Y_{obs,k} - Y_{sim,k})^2}{\sum_{k=1}^n (Y_{obs,k} - \overline{Y_{obs}})^2} \quad 3.1$$

$$R^2 = \left\{ \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (Y_{obs,k} - Y_{sim,k}) ((Y_{sim,k} - \overline{Y_{sim,k}}))}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n (Y_{obs,k} - \overline{Y_{obs}})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n (Y_{obs,k} - \overline{Y_{obs}})^2}} \right\}^2 \quad 3.2$$

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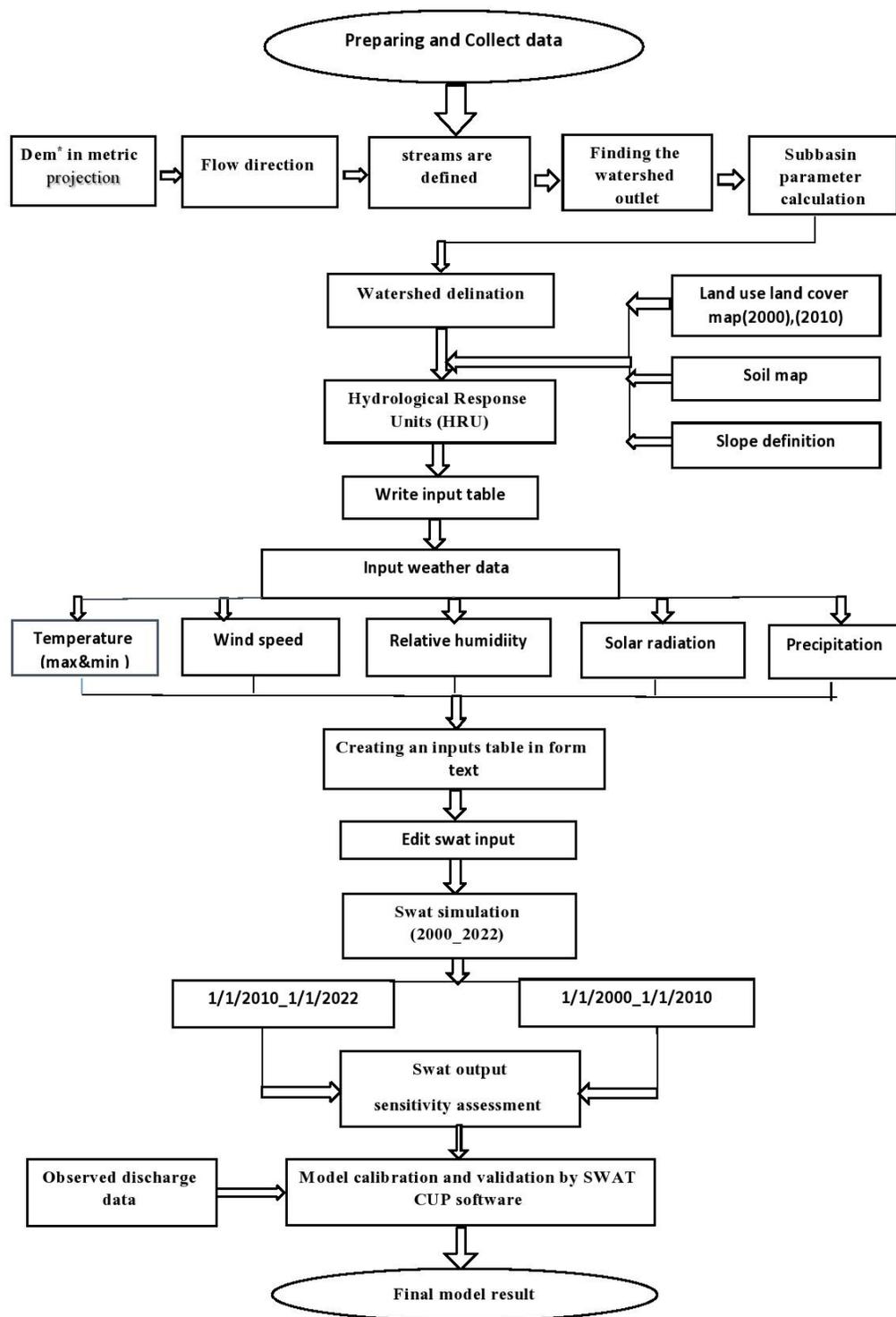


Fig (3.7) Explanation of the ARC SWAT\*\* program's step

\* Digital Elevation Model, \*\*Soil water assessment tool

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$$RSR = \frac{RMSE}{SD} \quad 3.3$$

$$P\text{-BIAS} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (\overline{Y_{obs}} - Y_{sim})}{\sum_{k=1}^n Y_{obs}} \quad 3.4$$

Where: The Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient is NSE, the coefficient of determination is  $R^2$ , and the ratio of the root mean square error to the standard deviation of measured data is RSR, Performance Evaluation as shown in table (3.6).  $n$  is the number of observed data,  $Y_{obs,k}$  is the observed stream flow on month  $k$ ,  $\overline{Y_{obs}}$  is the average observed stream flow,  $Y_{sim,k}$  is the stream flow simulated on month  $k$  and  $\overline{y_{sim}}$  is average simulated flow,  $\overline{y_{obs}}$  the mean of observed stream flow on month  $k$ . Table (3.6) shows the performance evaluation metrics for stream flow simulation

Performance Evaluation	NSE	PBIAS	$R^2$
Unsatisfactory	$NSE \leq 0.5$	$PBIAS \geq \pm 25$	$R^2 < 0.50$
Satisfactory	$0.5 < NSE \leq 0.65$	$\pm 15 \leq PBIAS < \pm 25$	$0.50 < R^2 < 0.70$
Good	$0.65 < NSE \leq 0.75$	$\pm 10 \leq PBIAS < \pm 15$	$0.70 < R^2 < 0.80$
Very good	$0.75 < NSE \leq 1$	$PBIAS < \pm 10$	$0.80 < R^2$

### 3.4. APPLICATIONS

#### 3.4.1 Image classification

Using identified ground truth, supervised classification was applied to categorize each pixel. It is advised to employ at least 20 trials when classifying an image using a map that has fewer than three classes (Mahdi and Muhammed 2022), hence thirty or more reference samples for each class were used in this study. The reference sites for 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021, Google Earth was

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taken into consideration. There are numerous steps in the overall process for classifying images. The initial step is to choose training locations.

Using the processed images as a guide, training locations were sampled using the polygon technique, which allowed for the sketching of polygons for a particular spectral class. Throughout the process, various band arrangements, picture enhancements, and color configurations were used to distinguish between and comprehend the surface structures of the photographs. As each band is a data set file for a specific ratio of the electromagnetic field in identifying the study features. The band groupings were chosen based on their applicability.

The same class signs were combined by selecting all the signs from each class. Additionally, the training data set is used to generate class signatures and the whole picture classification. A compound signature was used in the supervised image classification maximum likelihood to map the LULC.

### **3.4.2 Classification Accuracy Assessment**

The accuracy evaluation process establishes the value of a map produced using remotely sensed data (Congalton and Green,2019). Using Google Earth serves as the standard reference. accuracy evaluation was performed. Ground control for fifty points at least for each LULC type (apart from aquatic bodies, which receive zero owing of its size) were plotted on the secret photographs.They were transformed into Keyhole Markup Language (KML) opened in Google Earth (as reference points) for the appropriate years.

For map, a total of 251 ground control points were sampled using stratified random sampling, where the number of points was stratified according to the different categories of land use and land cover. As a strong predictor of the accuracy estimate for the LULC map, the Kappa coefficient was also employed to evaluate the classification's correctness.

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The defining metric, the Kappa statistic, is a superior measure of inter classifier agreement (Congedo, 2021). The total number of pixels divided by the total number of correctly categorized pixels yields the overall accuracy. The proportion reflects the degree of accuracy of the classification (Fitzgerald and Lees, 1994). The kappa statistic ranges from -1 to 1 as shown in table (3.7). A higher kappa statistic value indicates more accurate categorization results. Scholars discovered that the kappa statistic outperforms the total accuracy score statistically (Fitzgerald & Lees, 1994).

Table (3.7) Statistical measurements to evaluate the intelligent accuracy of a category (Viera and Garrett, 2005)

s. no	kappa statistic	power of agreement
1	< 0	Less than chance agreement
2	0.01–0.20	Slight agreement
3	0.21– 0.40	Fair agreement
4	0.41–0.60	Moderate agreement
5	0.61–0.80	Substantial agreement
6	0.81–1	Almost perfect agreement

An error matrix and Kappa coefficient including user classification and a reference image was used to assess accuracy (Tembo and Volk ,2022). Because it gives a straight forward method of determining the individual accuracies of each class as well as both the errors of inclusion (commission errors) and errors of exclusion (omission errors), an error matrix is a very effective approach to express thematic map correctness. The overall accuracy, User's accuracy, Producer's accuracy, were calculated using the following equations

$$\text{Overall accuracy\%} = \frac{\text{total number of classified pixels ( diagonal)}}{\text{total number of reference pixels}} \times 100 \quad 3.5$$

$$\text{User's accuracy\%} = \frac{\text{number of correct classified pixels for each classes}}{\text{total number of pixels in the classified image}} \times 100 \quad 3.6$$

The producer's accuracy was computed by the following equation:

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Producer's Accuracy% =

$$\frac{\text{total number of correct pixel in the classified map for every LU/ LC class}}{\text{total number of reference pixels(Google earth)}} \times 100 \quad 3.7$$

Then, the Kappa coefficient was estimated by the following formula (Al-Saady et al., 2015; Dibaba et al., 2020)

Kappa coefficient% =

$$\frac{\text{total no.of (diagonal} \times \text{reference pixels)} - (\sum(\text{user pixel} \times \text{procdure pixel}))}{(\text{reference pixel})^2 - (\sum(\text{user pixel} \times \text{procdure pixel}))} \times 100 \quad 3.8$$

Producer and user accuracy; and the whole Kappa index of the agreement were calculated, depending on the error matrix. The transition error matrix of the LU/LC denotes the LU/LC change during three periods, 1999, 2010, and 2021 in this study. The following equation is used to estimate the transition matrix (Daba & You, 2022):

$$A_t = \begin{bmatrix} A_{t_{11}} & A_{t_{12}} & \dots & A_{t_{1j}} \\ A_{t_{21}} & A_{t_{22}} & \dots & A_{t_{2j}} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{t_{i1}} & A_{t_{i2}} & \dots & A_{t_{ij}} \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $A_{ij}$  = the area in transition from land  $i$  to  $j$ , and each element in the transition matrix is categorized assuming  $A_{ij}$  is non-negative and  $\sum_j^n A_{ij} = 1$ .

### **3.4.3 Analysis of Land Use Land Cover Changing**

ARC GIS 10.7 (ESRI, 2011) was applied to make the LU/LC images of 1989, 1999, 2010 and 2021 firstly, the land cover classifications were completed, and the LU/LC categories were estimated, then LU/LC analysis and rates of alterations were calculated. Overall LU/LC between two time periods is computed as:

Total LU/LC alteration = Area of the (last year -first year)

$$\text{Percentage of LU/LC alteration} = \frac{\text{Total LU/LC alteration}}{\text{total basin area ( km2 )}} \quad 3.9$$

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To examine the LU/LC inter-category alterations as well as testing the basin experience in LU/LC alterations, a LU/LC array was established for 1989, 1999, 2009, 2019, and 2021 via ARCGIS environment. The variation in area (expansion/shrinkage), stability, and changing between the LULC classes were computed via this matrix

### **3.4.4 The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index: NDVI**

Landsat Surface Reflectance-derived Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is the most commonly used vegetation index as it is valuable for understanding vegetation density as well as evaluating plant health changes. NDVI can be derived from Landsat 4–5 Thematic Mapper (TM), and Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI)/Thermal Infrared Sensor (TIRS). The index is estimated as a ratio of the red (R) to the near-infrared (NIR) values, as equation 3.10 or 3.12 shows, (Hussain and Karuppannan, 2021)

$$NDVI = \frac{(NIR - R)}{(NIR + R)} \quad 3.10$$

For Landsat (4,5)

$$NDVI = \frac{(Band\ 4 - Band\ 3)}{(Band\ 4 + Band\ 3)} \quad 3.11$$

For Landsat 8

$$NDVI = \frac{(Band\ 5 - Band\ 4)}{(Band\ 5 + Band\ 4)} \quad 3.12$$

In Landsat 4-7, NIR (near-infrared: 0.76–0.90  $\mu$ m) = Band 4; and R (red: 0.63–0.69  $\mu$ m) = Band 3. However, in Landsat 8, NIR = Band 5; and R = Band 4. The NDVI has a popular measurement degree varying between -1 and 1 as shown in Table (3.8).

Table (3.8) Statistical description of NDVI index (Hussain et al., 2021)

No	NDVI index	Description
1	0-1	water bodies

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2	0.4-1	dense plant growth
3	0.2-0.4	Low plant density
4	0.2 - 0	to areas with no vegetation
5	-0.1 to 0.1	barren rocks, sand, or snow

---

### **3.4.5 Cellular automata and Markov chains simulation**

Markov chain is one of the commonly known simulations to measure the degree of alteration during time through functioning the changing likelihood (transition probability) matrix, transition area matrix between  $t_0$  and  $t_1$  use/land cover time period maps (binary). Based on these matrices and their pixel-wise status, some restricted probability class classifications are expected (Khwarahm et al., 2021). Although the Markov model is verified capable of mimicking the LU/LC modification (Cui et al., 2021; Hyandye and Martz, 2017). Still, the model is inadequate in simulation the areal circulation of the class classifications in the LU/LC maps (Omar et al., 2014).

Alternatively, the Cellular Automata (CA) model (Khwarahm et al., 2021) fills the gap of the spatial dimension constraint. Based on pre-defined conversion situations over time, the CA model calculates the LU/LC class classification new status built on the previous LU/LC status and those of its adjacent class classifications (Omar et al., 2014; Li et al., 2018; Kan-In and Khunrattanasiri, 2020). Integrating Markov chain simulation with the CA model delivers a distinctive prospect to calculate and simulate the spatiotemporal alteration of LU/LC regularly. This interaction model is capable for predicting and simulating difficult LU/LC classes (Hyandye and Martz, 2017). In this study, the CA-Markov model in IDRISI software has been applied to predict LU/LC alteration in the LZRC, during 2021, 2041, based on the (1999–2010) and (2010–2021) and the maximum likelihood classification. The prediction of land-use changes as:

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$$S(t+1) \quad S_s(t, t+1) = \text{TPM}_{ij} \times S_s(t) \quad 3.13$$

is the system status at the time of  $t + 1$ ,  $\text{TPM}_{ij}$  is the transition probability matrix, and  $S_s(t)$  is the system status at the time of  $t$

This was achieved by the following main steps. Firstly, the maps of built-up and non-built-up areas were arranged and loaded into the ArcGIS 10.7 software. The maps of land use for the years 1999, 2010, and 2021 were re-classified to suit the objective of predicting urban development in LZRC. The land use maps were converted from vector to raster and then to ASCII files using conversion tools within the ArcGIS environment. Then, the IDRISI\_Selva environment was used to re-classified and convert the ASCII files to a raster format. Accordingly, they can be considered to predict prospect urban development. Markov chain model was applied to identify the transition probability matrix and transition rules for land use and land cover. Accordingly, the future LU/LC alteration was modeled, i.e., the transition probabilities for 1999 to 2010 were applied to predict the variations in 2021 and to calibrate and validate the model. Meanwhile, urban and non-urban maps of 2010 and 2021 were considered to predict future urban development in 2041. Markov simulation was firstly applied to produce transition probability matrices of zones and therefore conditional probability images for (1999–2010) and (2010–2021) LU/LC maps. Model settings allowable just 15% related error for input imageries is suggested (Sakthivel et al., 2021). Secondly, a map of LU/LC for 2021 was modeled by the probability of transition and conditional images as input to the CA-Markov simulation. Then, to calibrate the model, the resulted image was validated with the real

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2021 image. Next, a 2041 LU/LC map was simulated from the present (2010–2021) maps.

### **3.4.6 Model Validation**

It is essential to Validate the results of the model before simulating the LU/LC map for 2041. The validation was achieved by using an internal frame of the categorized data as reference data (categorized 2021 LU/LC image) compared to the modeled LULC map of 2021. IDRISI 17.0 has a fixed validate model that was used to compare the degree of the agreement between the classified and the modeled image. The agreement catalogues are founded on the typical KIA (Kappa Index of Agreement with particular areal relationship differences, which namely include;  $K_{\text{locationStrata}}$  (Kappa for location Strata),  $K_{\text{location}}$  (for location),  $K_{\text{no}}$  (for no data), and  $K_{\text{standard}}$  (standard) (Viera and Garrett, 2005; Khwarahm et al., 2021; Yi et al., 2022). Kappa locationStrata and location specify the aerial extents precision of the extent and positions of the grid-cells of a definite class classification of the LU/LC images. Kappa no, designates the overall agreement between the reference and simulated images parts, irrespective of having data on the amount and position of definite class categories. Kappa standard signifies the ratio of properly relating a class category compared to the ones that are linked properly through accidental. The following equations are used to estimate the typical KIA (Mondal et al., 2020)

$$K_{\text{location}} = \frac{M_{\text{ag}} \times N_{\text{ag}}}{P_{\text{ag}} - N_{\text{ag}}} \quad 3.14$$

$$K_{\text{standard}} = \frac{M_{\text{ag}} \times N_{\text{ni}}}{P_{\text{pg}} - N_{\text{ag}}} \quad 3.15$$

$$K_{\text{no}} = \frac{M_{\text{ag}} \times N_{\text{ni}}}{P_{\text{pg}} - N_{\text{ni}}} \quad 3.16$$

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in which  $M_{ag}$ ,  $N_{ag}$ , and  $P_{ag}$  are average grid-cell level data;  $N_{ni}$  is no data; and  $P_{pg}$  is perfect grid-cell level data across the landscape. However, the Kappa statistics show the degree of agreement between the classification raster and its probability when contrasted with the real classification raster and the LULC prediction raster. The values of Kappa for these differences vary from 0 to 1; the nearer the number to 1, the well is the agreement precision (Khwarahm et al., 2021).

### **3.4.7 Delineation of the basin**

Applying DEM data with a resolution of 30 m to the SWAT model allowed for the definition of the watershed and subbasins for all models. Make the SWAT project setup first. Five steps make up the watershed delineation process. key phases, metric unit DEM construction, and stream definition using DEM-based technique, defining exits and inlets, and identifying the watershed outlets, definitions, and hydrologic parameter calculation.

The outlets close to the end basin of the Lesser Zab River, and these outlets are matched with SWAT-defined streams. The flow directions and flow accumulations are calculated automatically by the model. Following that, topographic factors including altitude, slope, width, and depth of main and tributaries, as well as stream networks, watershed and subbasin boundaries, are also calculated.

By carefully choosing the threshold area (the smallest drainage region necessary to generate the streams' origin), the stream network definition and the size of the subbasins were established. The threshold subbasin area of 20000 km<sup>2</sup> was used on SWAT projections.

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### **3.4.8 Hydrologic Response Unit Definition (HRU)**

The smallest component of the Hydrological Response Unit (HRU) SWAT's hydrological modeling, specifically the subbasin's unique soil, slope, and LC/LU. HRU enables the model to take into account variations in for various land coverings, evapotranspiration and other hydrologic processing also soils. The classification of land use/land cover, soils, and short parts of subbasins known as Hydrologic Response Units (HRUs) have changed. slope (Winchell et al., 2017).

The initial stage in developing the HRUs was to insert the LU/LC map as a grid including classes for land uses in the basin, and these classes were matched with classes in the ArcSWAT database in order to re-classify the land use map using a lookup table containing these classes. It is, nevertheless, critical to evaluate land usage using high-resolution pictures and past study.

The next step was to import the soil map as a shape file. In order to match soil classes in the soil map attribute table with the databases provided, the FAO soil map was utilized in the model, The FAO soil datasets have been included into the standard SWAT databases in order to obtained all type of soils. A lookup table was built to correlate soil map classes with the FAO soil database.

The third step was to populate the model with slope classes based on the DEM elevations. The model provides the user two options: single slope or multiple slopes; for this study, multiple slopes were chosen.

The final step of the HRU Analysis was the overlay of the land use, soil, and slope layers. The land use, soil, and slope threshold areas were all zero percent. At this stage, the simulation took into consideration all land use, soil, and slope classifications.

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### **3.4.9 Basin Simulation**

It is advised that the simulation be divided into two sections. There are two time constraints: one for calibration and another for verification. The first SWAT operation run from January 1, 2000 to December 31, 2009, with the second beginning on January 1, 2010. to January 1, 2022. output data was published in monthly time steps. After all of the input tables have been uploaded to the database, the form is now ready to use. Weather stations were utilized to estimate hydrological processes in waterways, according to all of the information in the original input database and the SWAT simulation.

### **3.4.10 Calibration and Validation**

In this study. for calibration and validation, two sections of the Lower Zab River Basin were chosen: the first includes the Dukan basin, where the water supply is natural (precipitation), and the second includes the Dibis, where the water supply is absolute Dukan and precipitation, both natural and artificial. The calibration period for the Dukan dam and Dibis dam was from 1/1/2000 to 31/12/2006, and the validation period was from 1/1/2007 to 31/12/2009. Second LULC 2010 scenario: calibration for the Dukan and Dibis dams from January 1, 2010 to December 31, 2017, and validation from January 1, 2018 to December 31, 2021.

### **3.4.11 Prepare for SWAT-CUP**

Established as the objective function of optimization processing (Moriassi et al. 2007). The first step in setting up SWAT-CUP is to insert a SWAT output file “TxtInOut” to the program interface, then starting SUFI-2 project for calibration. The second step is to select the most sensitive parameters for SWAT runoff modeling and the number of simulations to be iterated in SWAT-CUP execution processes. Twelve and eight sensitive parameters were selected in

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Dukan and Dibis respectively based on the most common parameters (Arnold et al., 2012) These parameters were chosen because directly affect the surface runoff. The hydrologica response of the dukan was taken into consideration in the selection of the parameters, along with incorrect results for some parameters, which are defined within the SWAT. The other parameters were neglected because they have no effect on the surface runoff. The third step is to place the observed discharges for the outlet into SWAT-CUP input files and the forth step is to run SWAT-CUP to calibrate the observed with the measured discharges to make the best correction for the selected parameters

## **Chapter Four**

### **Results and Discussion.**

#### **4.1 Analysis Land Use Land Cover**

Landsat images from 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021 were used to create LU/LC maps (Fig 4.1). Agricultural lands were the dominant LU/LC classification as shown in fig (4.1) in the LZRB during the most studied periods, accounting for 51.6, 49, 45, and 39.96% in 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021, respectively as shown in table (4.1)

Bare lands decreased from it was obvious that approximately 39% in 1989, 37% in 1999, 35.3 in 2010, and 34.95% in 2021. However, urban land grew from 0.455% in 1989 to 1.2% in 1999 to 4.11% in 2010. Table (4.1) Land use and land cover (LU/LC) area coverage and percent of total basin area, for the Lower Zab River Basin for the water years 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021, in the year 2021, the major LU/LC most common classifications were agricultural lands (39.96%), fol-bare lands (34.915%), and urban lands (5.59%). forest land experienced maximum growth from 2010 to 2021. Because the majority of the agricultural land in the regionis unirrigated, with low average annual precipitation caused acute dryness in the bodies of water and water supplies, as well as a significant decrease in soil and vegetation moisture content.

#### **4.2 Land use and Land Cover Analysis Changing**

The level of area increase and/or decrease of the zone occupied by the specific LU/LC class can be represented by the amount and ratio of the fluctuations identified. Positive numbers represent expansion, whereas negatives represent reduction of the spatial magnitude of the corresponded LU/LC class. The alteration value is estimated by subtracting the specific LU/LC class area for each latest Landsat image date from the corresponding earlier image date, or

subtraction between the recent and first satellite map, or between each consecutive year. The Forestlands experienced the greatest growth. while the main expansion in the upper basin portion urban areas were discovered in the basin's lower reaches as shown in table (4.2).

Table (4.1) Land use and land cover (LU/LC) area coverage and percent of total basin area, for the Lower Zab River Basin for the water years 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021

LU/ LC Typ e	Area							
	1989	%	1999	%	2010	%	2021	
	km <sup>2</sup>		km <sup>2</sup>		km <sup>2</sup>		km <sup>2</sup>	%
WB <sup>1</sup>	140	0.7	128	0.64	104	0.52	90	0.45
FO <sup>2</sup>	1724	8.62	2394	11.97	3021	15.105	3810	19.05
AL <sup>3</sup>	10.212	51.06	9800	49	9001	45	7992	39.96
BLD <sup>4</sup>	193	0.965	140	0.7	41	0.205	7	0.035
BLL <sup>5</sup>	7640	38.2	7298	36.49	7011	35.055	6983	34.915
UL <sup>6</sup>	91	0.455	240	1.2	822	4.11	1118	5.59
Total	20,000	100	20,000	100	20,000	100	20,00	100

Table (4.2) Land Use Land Cover analysis changing

Class	% Land Use Land Cover area gain (+)/loss (-)		
	1989_1999	1999_2010	2010_2021
WB <sup>1</sup>	-0.06	-0.105	- 0.085
FO <sup>2</sup>	3.35	3.115	3.965
AL <sup>3</sup>	-2.06	-3.99	-5.05
BLD <sup>4</sup>	-0.00265	-0.465	-0.200
BLL <sup>5</sup>	- 1.71	-1.44	-0.135
UL <sup>6</sup>	0.745	3.045	3.345

<sup>1</sup>Water Bodies; <sup>2</sup>Forest; <sup>3</sup>Agrucultural Lands; <sup>4</sup>Bare Lands Dark; <sup>5</sup>Bare Lands Light; <sup>6</sup>Urban Lands

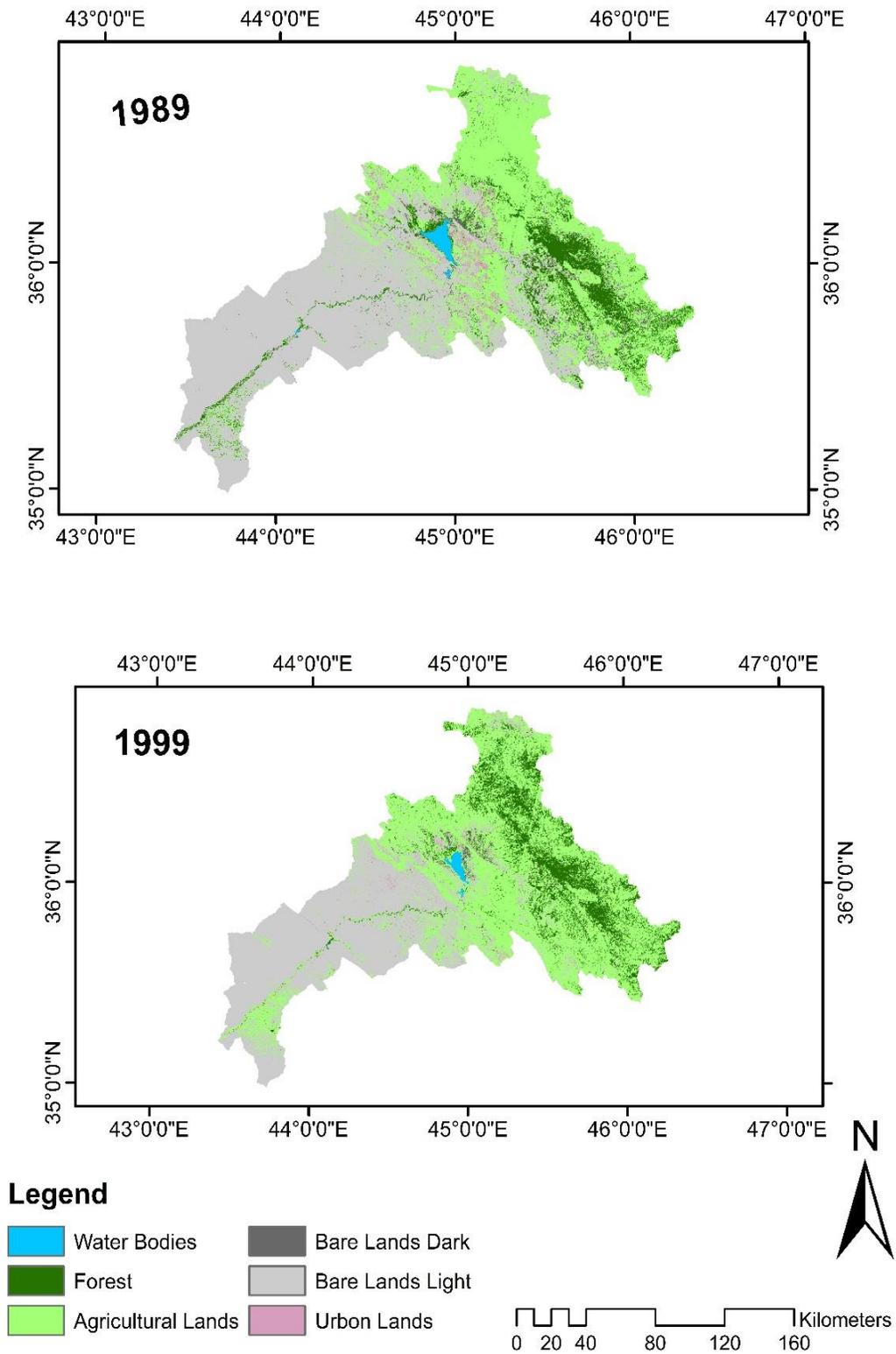


Fig (4.1) LULC maps for the year A)1989 B)1999

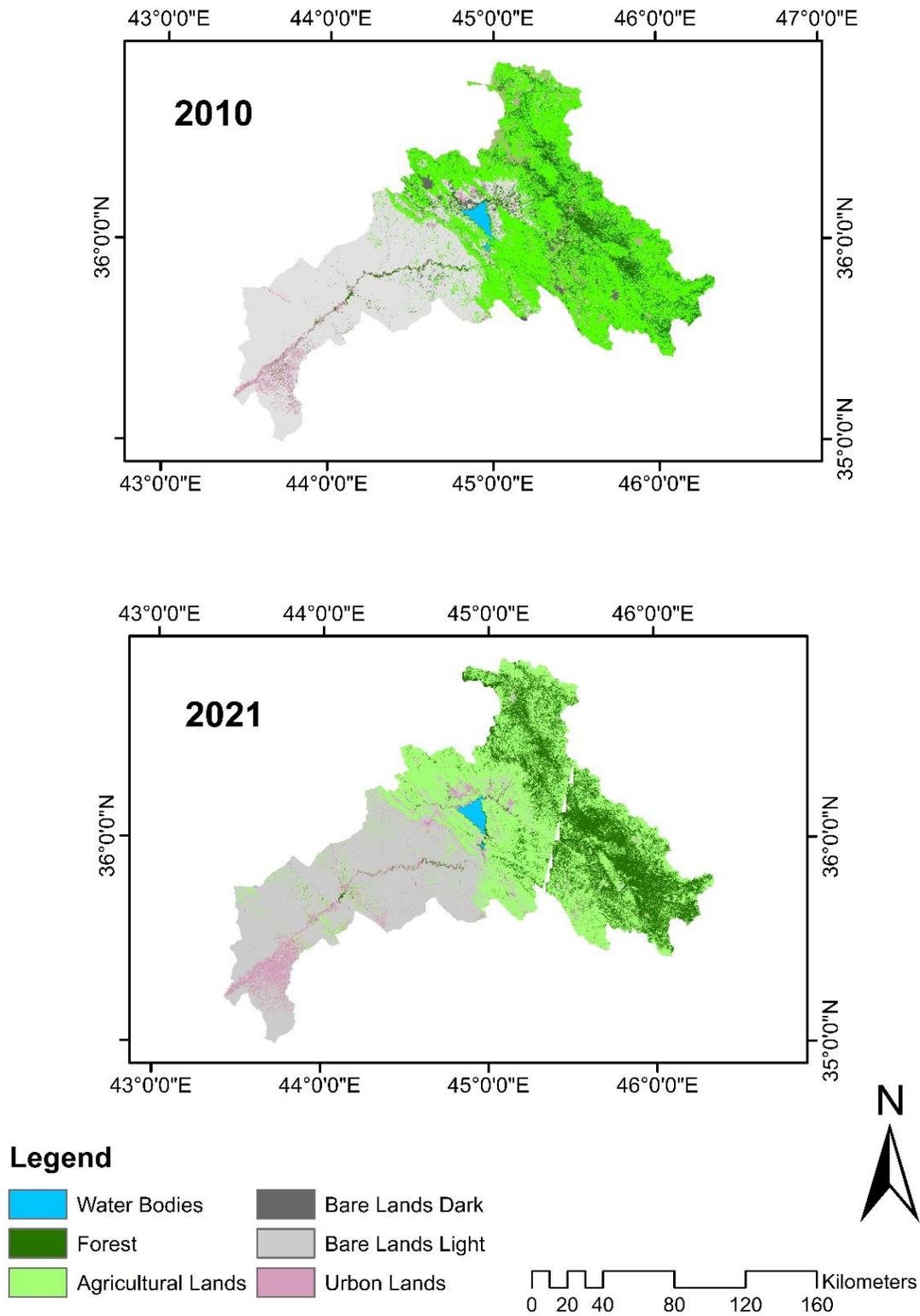


Fig (4.2) LULC maps for the year A) 2010 B) 2021

**4.3 Classification Evaluation**

Table (4.3) displays the overall accuracy assessment calculation results as well as the Kappa coefficient of the LU/LC images from 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021 respectively. 88.67%, 91.80%, and 95.9%.and 87.3%, as well as 0.8656, 0.9008, 0.9516, and 0.8476, respectively. The Kappa Index revealed almost perfect agreement for all years considered (Tadele et al., 2017).

Table (4.3) Calculations of overall accuracy (OA) and Kappa coefficient (KI) for the years 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021

Year	LU/LC	Ground control reference data							UA**
		WB <sup>1</sup>	FO <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	UL <sup>6</sup>	GTH*	
1989	WB <sup>1</sup>	10	0	0	0	0	0	10	100
	FO <sup>2</sup>	0	9	0	0	0	0	9	100
	AL <sup>3</sup>	0	0	7	3	0	0	10	70
	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	1	0	0	6	0	0	7	85.7
	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	0	0	0	1	9	0	10	90
	UL <sup>6</sup>	1	0	0	0	0	6	7	85.7
	Total	12	9	7	10	9	6	53	
	PA***	83.3	100	100	60	100	100		
OA = 88.67%				KI = 86.56%					
Year	LU/LC	WB <sup>1</sup>	FO <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	BLL5	UL <sup>6</sup>	GTH*	UA**
1999	WB <sup>1</sup>	10	0	0	0	0	0	10	100
	FO <sup>2</sup>	0	9	0	0	1	0	10	100
	AL <sup>3</sup>	0	0	10	1	1	0	12	83.3
	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	0	0	0	9	1	0	10	90
	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	0	0	0	0	12	0	12	100
	UL <sup>6</sup>	0	0	0	0	1	6	7	85.7
	Total	10	9	10	10	16	6	61	
	PA***	100	100	100	90	75	100		
OA = 91.8%				KI = 90.08%					
Year	LU/LC	WB <sup>1</sup>	FO <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	UL <sup>6</sup>	GTH*	UA**

	WB <sup>1</sup>	12	0	0	0	0	0	12	100
	FO <sup>2</sup>	0	12	0	0	0	0	12	100
	AL <sup>3</sup>	0	0	10	0	2	0	12	83.33
<b>2010</b>	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	0	0	0	12	0	1	13	92.2
	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	0	0	0	0	13	0	13	100
	UL <sup>6</sup>	0	0	0	0	0	12	12	
	Total	12	12	10	12	13	13	74	
	PA <sup>***</sup>	100	100	100	100	100	92.3		
		OA = 95.9%				KI = 95.16%			
<b>Year</b>	LU/LC	WB <sup>1</sup>	FO <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	UL <sup>6</sup>	GTH <sup>*</sup>	UA <sup>**</sup>
	WB <sup>1</sup>	12	0	0	0	0	0	12	100
	FO <sup>2</sup>	0	8	0	1	0	0	9	88.88
	AL <sup>3</sup>	0	0	4	1	6	0	11	36.36
	BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	0	0	0	10	0	0	10	100
<b>2021</b>	BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	0	0	0	0	10	0	10	100
	UL <sup>6</sup>	0	0	0	0	0	11	11	100
	Total	12	8	4	12	16	11	63	
	PA <sup>***</sup>	100	100	100	83.3	62.5	100		
		OA = 87.30 %				KI = 84.76%			

<sup>1</sup>Water Bodies; <sup>2</sup>Forest; <sup>3</sup>Agricultural Lands; <sup>4</sup>Bare Lands Dark; <sup>5</sup>Bare Lands Light; <sup>6</sup>Urban Lands; <sup>\*</sup>Ground Truth; <sup>\*\*</sup>Use’s accuracy (%); <sup>\*\*\*</sup>Producer accuracy (%)

#### **4.4 kappa coefficient and Accuracy evaluation**

In year 1989 details Kappa coefficient calculation the water bodies, 12 prediction points were used as a guide; 10 of the 12 pixels were correctly predicted, while 1 pixel was classified. as desolate dark lands, and 1 pixel as urban lands, implying that the precision of this LU class is high. was (“10”/ “12” × 100”) 83.3%. Moreover, the overall forest accuracy, agricultural lands, bare. the LU/LC classes for light lands and urban lands were both 100% and (ground pixels were correctly identified) were the most precise classes in the research basin. Second, the overall classification accuracy was approximately

88.67%, indicating that the classification was more precise than random classification as shown in table (A.1, A.2 ,A.3, A.4 ) in Appendix A

**4.5 The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index:**

The vegetation land cover in 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021 was identified. There were no notable exceptions. able changes in vegetation cover result-derived from NDVI estimation and as a result of the Landsat 5,7 TM, ETM Landsat 8 OLI supervised classification 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021 images The Low-density plants were displayed decreasing trend with a ratio from 2010 to 2021 of approximately 45% and 41% respectively. in contrast to the trend of vegetation-free area increased. with a ratio of approximately 3%, as shown inTable ( 4.4) and Fig (4.3).

Table (4.4) The Lower Zab River Basin Normalized Difference vegetation Index area coverage and proportion of total basin area for 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021 water years

Year	1989		1999		2010		2021	
LU/LC	Area		Area		Area		Area	
	Km <sup>2</sup>	%	Km <sup>2</sup>	%	Km <sup>2</sup>	%	Km <sup>2</sup>	%
WB <sup>1</sup>	280	1.4	256	1.28	220	1.1	184	0.92
VFA <sup>2</sup>	8200	41	7800	39	8100	40.5	8400	42
LDP <sup>3</sup>	9920	49.6	9744	48.72	9000	45	8216	41.0
HDP <sup>4</sup>	1600	8	2200	11	2680	13.4	3200	16

<sup>1</sup>Water bodies; <sup>2</sup>Vegetation free area; <sup>3</sup>Low density plants; <sup>4</sup>High density plants;

The spatial distribution of NDVI was primarily caused by changes in meteorological variables such as the occurrence and intensity of rainfall (Fig 4.3). the impact of both climate and anthropogenic activities resulted in massive changes in vegetation cover between 2009 and 2021. Al-Saady et al. (2015) classified the LZRB vegetation cover as NDVI (cropland) or NDVI (natural vegetation).

According to their classification, (NDVI) showed an increasing trend from 1976 to 2014, whereas natural vegetation (NDVI) showed no clear trend

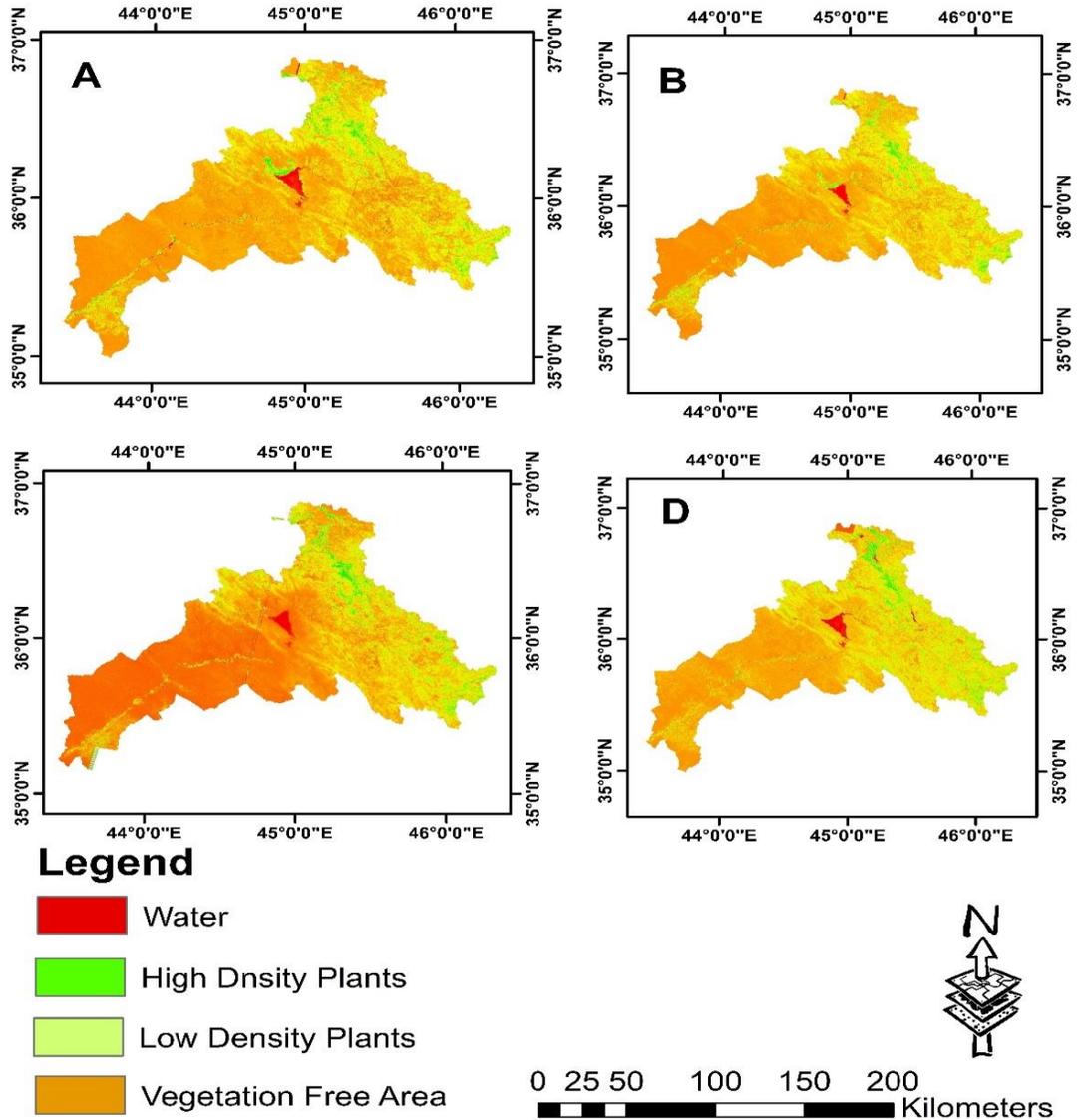


Fig (4.3) Maps of The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index for the year A)1989 B)1999 C)2010 D) 2021

**4.6 Result the Modeling Prediction of Land Use/Land Cover**

The classified LU/LC maps for the 1999–2010 and 2010–2021 were considered to model 2021 and 2041 LU/LC maps, in that order. The results of LU/LC maps prediction revealed that between 2021 and 2041 urban area would increase by 364.79% (from 1117.1 to 5192.2 km<sup>2</sup>). However, bare lands/light, agricultural lands, water bodies, bare lands/dark, forest lands would decrease by 3% (from 6921.34 to 6723.70 km<sup>2</sup>), 12% (from 7972.85 to 7023.60 km<sup>2</sup>), 15% (from 141.03 to 119.86 km<sup>2</sup>), 30 (from 4.80 to 3.37 km<sup>2</sup>), and 76 (from 3808.86 to 903.20 km<sup>2</sup>), as shown in Table (4.5) and Fig. (4.4).

These alterations (increases/declines) are comparative variations in respect to LU/LC class classifications. For example, 365% increase in the urban area during 2041 would be at the cost of decreasing other class categories extent. Additionally, variations ration in each class category areas during the period from 2021 to 2041 designated that the maximum active class cover categories were urban lands, forest lands, and bare lands/dark. While, the least dynamic cover types were water bodies, agricultural lands, and bare lands/light. In 2041, the area of the bare lands/light would decline with only 3%, while the forest lands area with greater than 75% with respect to other land cover categories. The utmost substantial alteration that balance out the total active of the class classifications will be the agricultural lands and bare lands/light.

These classes covers a significant area in comparison to the other classes. This result shows that particular zones, which were enclosed by water bodies in 2021, will be changed by urban lands, sequentially, further water bodies will arise. Water bodies, agricultural fields, and bare lands/light were the least dynamic cover categories.

The agricultural lands and bare lands/light will be the most significant changes that balance out the overall activity of the class. In compared to the other classes, these classes cover a wide range of topics. This finding indicates that certain zones that were surrounded by water bodies in 2021 will be transformed by urban areas, and subsequent water bodies will emerge. The formation of water bodies will most likely be in the configuration of catchments and minor size lakes from fisheries events.

Table (4.5) Area and percentage of area of the land use land cover classes alteration predicting by CA Markov

	2021	Forecasting	2021	Forecasting	2041	Forecasting
	(km <sup>2</sup> )	(%)	(km <sup>2</sup> )	(%)	(km <sup>2</sup> )	(%)
WB <sup>1</sup>	90	0.45	134	0.67	120	0.60
FL <sup>2</sup>	3810	19.05	2408	12.04	904	4.52
AL <sup>3</sup>	7992	39.96	9648	48.24	7036	35.18
BLD <sup>4</sup>	7	0.035	238	1.19	4	0.02
BLL <sup>5</sup>	6983	34.915	7298	36.49	6736	33.68
UL <sup>6</sup>	1118	5.59	274	1.37	5200	26.00
Total	20000	100	20000	100	20000	100

<sup>1</sup>Water Bodies, <sup>2</sup>Forest, <sup>3</sup>Agrucultural Lands, <sup>4</sup>Bare Lands Dark, <sup>5</sup>Bare Lands Light, <sup>6</sup>Urban Lands

**4.7 Validation of the Model Markov**

The genuine LU/LC map of 2021 acquired by satellite pictures was used to confirm the modelled LU/LC map of 2021 created by CA-Markov based on the historical situation of 1999-2021 as mention previously that there was a high degree of match between the simulated and real photos. Total Kappa numerical differences of Kno = 0.8635, Klocation = 0.8541, Klocation Strata = 0.8541, Kstandard = 0.7853 were achieved which are eligible for additional usage in terms of model justification consistency (Khwarahm et al. 2021).

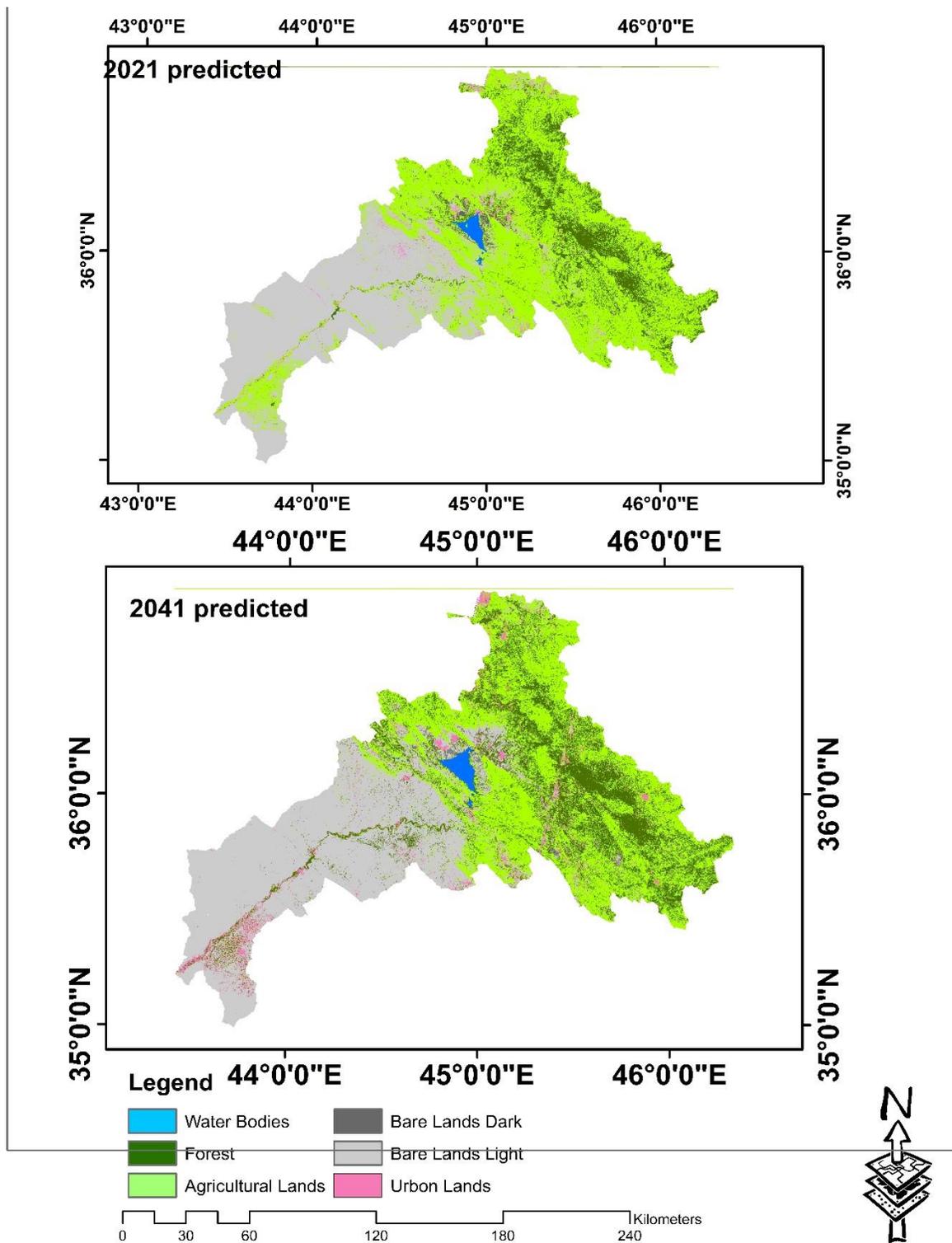


Fig (4.4) Marcov model prediction for Land Use Land Cover Map 2021,2041

However, the model underestimated agricultural and barren lands by 2.73% (6990 km<sup>2</sup>) and 8.28% (7992 km<sup>2</sup>), respectively, and aquatic bodies by 0.22% (90 km<sup>2</sup>). In contrast, the model overestimated the forest and urban areas by 7.01% (3810 km<sup>2</sup>) and 4.22 % (1118 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively, of the true area.

Furthermore, the gap between the categorized and modelled LU/LC map of 2021 was expected to stem from underestimating certain class classifications, namely barren and urban area, there is an obvious interval variation from 2010 to 2021, the pace and number of LU/LC change dynamic were superficially adjusted related with the period from 1999 to 2010.

Table (4.6) shows that the whole model performance in predicting a potential scenario based on the transition probability matrix from 1999 to 2010 established excellent precision. Table (4.7) shows an agreement coefficients between the real and modeled land use and land cover 2021 maps and Kappa coefficient difference values for the CA-Markov approach. Figure (4.5) shows that there is good agreement between the predicted and categorized LULC maps, with a coefficient of determination value of  $R^2=0.951$  the difference between real and anticipated LU/LC maps.

A reliability test was carried out to confirm the results of the Ca Markov using the SPSS program between the map of 2021 that was classified using (as an independent variable) the GIS program and the predictive map of 2021 resulting from the program Idrissi Selva (dependent variable), in order to accept the results of the 2041 prediction map and the following results were obtained.

Table (4. 6) Transition probability matrix resulting from land use maps for the period from 1999 to 2010 and 2010 to 2021

Matrix 2021						
1999	2010					
	WB <sup>1</sup>	FL <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BLD <sup>4</sup>	BLL <sup>5</sup>	UL <sup>6</sup>
WB <sup>1</sup>	0.8010	0.1989	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001
FL <sup>2</sup>	0.0031	0.5669	0.3796	0.0040	0.0248	0.0215
AL <sup>3</sup>	0.0041	0.2721	0.5106	0.0068	0.1617	0.0446
BLD <sup>4</sup>	0.0085	0.2447	0.2358	0.0677	0.4078	0.0356
BLL <sup>5</sup>	0.0001	0.0618	0.1345	0.0040	0.7384	0.0612
UL <sup>6</sup>	0.0123	0.1408	0.2614	0.0056	0.3753	0.2047

Matrix 2041						
2010	2021					
	WB <sup>1</sup>	FL <sup>2</sup>	AL <sup>3</sup>	BLD <sup>4</sup>	BLL <sup>5</sup>	UL <sup>6</sup>
WB <sup>1</sup>	0.7659	0.1592	0.0330	0.0000	0.0087	0.0332
FL <sup>2</sup>	0.0056	0.3359	0.4866	0.0002	0.1105	0.0613
AL <sup>3</sup>	0.0009	0.3273	0.5445	0.0001	0.0934	0.0339
BLD <sup>4</sup>	0.0003	0.1854	0.5716	0.0002	0.1952	0.0473
BLL <sup>5</sup>	0.0001	0.0474	0.2778	0.0004	0.5636	0.1107
UL <sup>6</sup>	0.0014	0.1411	0.3465	0.0003	0.2984	0.2123

<sup>1</sup>Water Bodies, <sup>2</sup>Forest lands, <sup>3</sup>Agricultural land, <sup>4</sup>Bare land/dark, <sup>5</sup>Bare lands/light, <sup>6</sup>Urban land;

Table (4.7) Descriptive Statistics

Pearson Correlation	2021 forcasted	2021 classified
2021 simulated	1.000	0.975
2021 classified	0.975	1.000

a. Dependent Variable :2021 simulated

b. Independed Variable: (Constant): 2021 classified

Table (4.8) Agreement coefficients between the real and modeled land use and land cover 2021 maps.

Classification agreement/disagreement			
According to the ability to specify accurately quantity and allocation			
Information of Allocation	Information of Quantity		
	No [n]	Medium [m]	Perfect [p]
P(x) <sup>1</sup>	0.4996	0.9561	1.0000
K(x) <sup>2</sup>	0.4996	0.9561	0.9980
M(x) <sup>3</sup>	0.4163	0.8830	0.8851
H(x) <sup>4</sup>	0.1429	0.4549	0.4542
N(x) <sup>5</sup>	0.1429	0.4549	0.4542

<sup>1</sup>Perfect, <sup>2</sup>Perfect Stratum, <sup>3</sup>Medium Grid, <sup>4</sup>Medium Stratum, <sup>5</sup>No

The correlation analysis output between 2021 classified and 2021 simulated by CA Markov. The correlation coefficient is 0.975 which is high degree of positive correlation between 2021 classified and 2021 simulated. Also the correlation coefficient is significant as its p-value is 0.001 and is less than significance level ( $\alpha = 5\%$ ). Table below shows coefficient of determination (R square) 0.951, which means 95.1% variation in dependent variable (2021 simulated) is explained by independent variable (2021 classified

The regression line will take the form  $Y = b_0 + b_1X$

The theoretical expectations are  $b_0$  can take any value and  $b_1 > 0$

$b_0$  is constant or y intercept and  $b_1$  is regression coefficient of 2021 simulated (Y) on 2021 classified (X). Hence the regression equation using coefficient table is  $Y = 5.32E2 + 0.83 X$  The regression coefficient of 2021 simulated on 2021 classified is found to be 0.83.

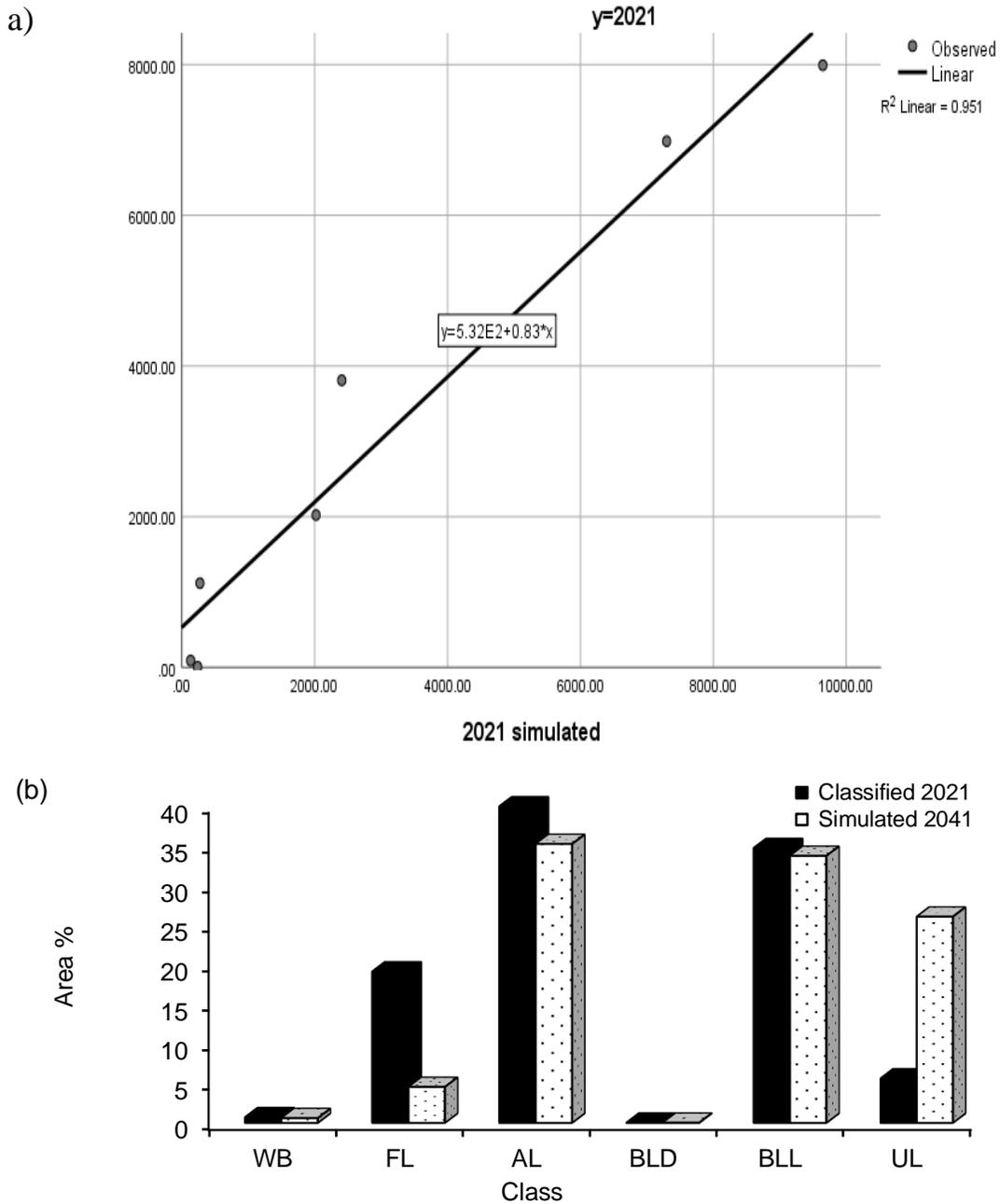


Fig (4.5) (a) The relationship between the actual and predicted land use and land cover maps of 2021; (b) Dynamics of land use/land cover for 2021 and 2041. Note: WB=Water Bodies, FL=Forest lands, AL=Agricultural lands, BLD=Bare lands/dark, BLL=Bare lands/light, UL=Urban lands

## 4.8 Watershed simulation

### 4.8.1 Boundaries and Stream Networks of the Watershed

Figure 4.6 show the results of the watersheds delineation by using the DEM based method that applied in ArcSWAT because of large difference in elevations between Upstream and Downstream in the catchment

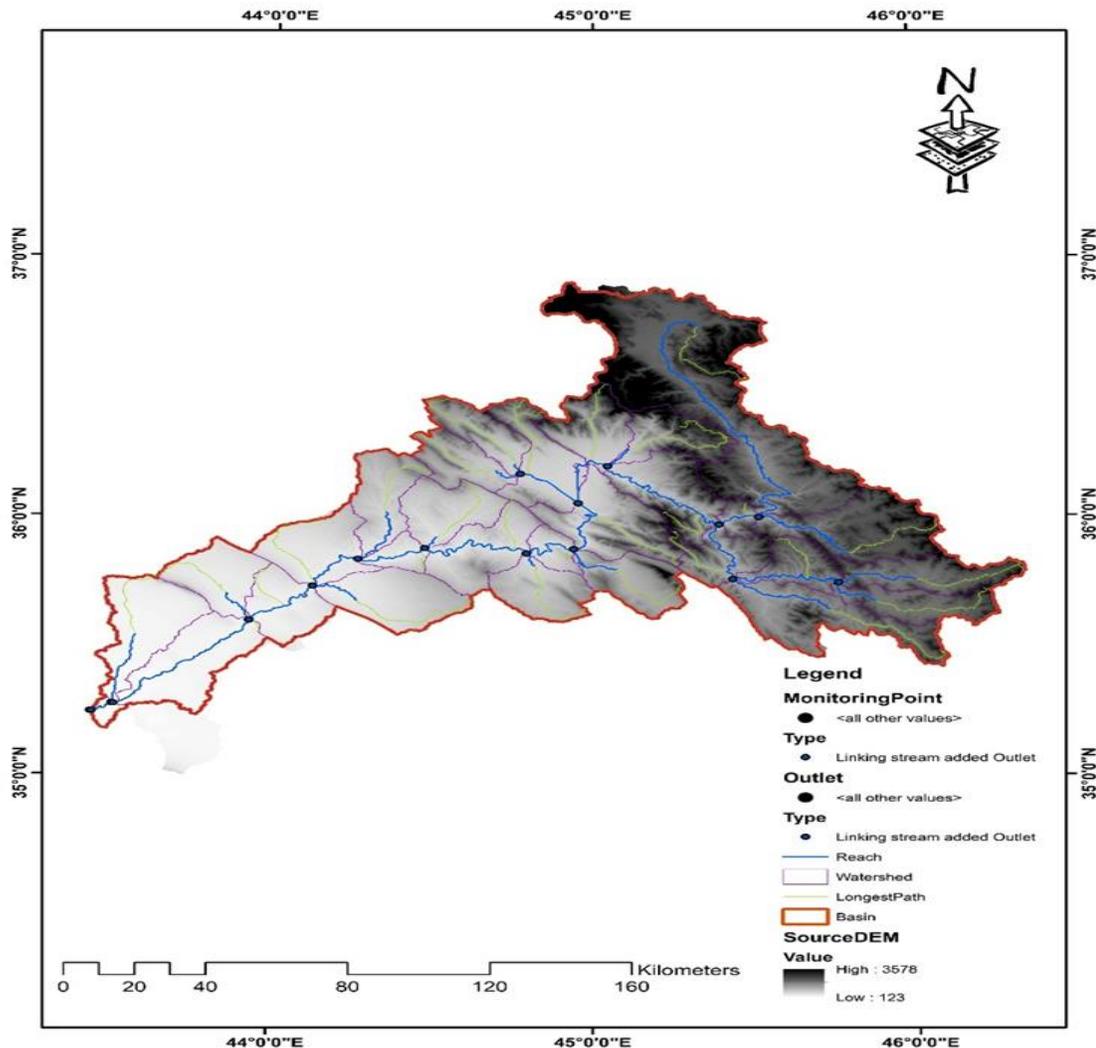


Fig (4.6) Lesser Zab river basin watershed delineation and stream network for dem resolution 30 m

### 4.8.2 Soil Data of the Watershed

Soil is an important input data for SWAT; the watershed subdivision (HRU) allows the model to reflect differences in evapotranspiration for different soils; runoff is predicted separately for each HRU and routed to obtain the total runoff for the watershed. Soil properties have an impact on processes such as infiltration, surface water transport, evaporation, and pollution. All models used the FAO soil dataset. Tables (4.9) show the results of FAO soil datasets identified by the SWAT model's soil definition window. According to these tables, the watershed's clay loam of the C and D hydrologic groups has the highest percentage of soil texture.

Table( 4.9) Lesser Zab river basin fao soil data classifications and percentage

No	Class	Value	%	Texture	Hydrologic group
1	I-E-Xk-bc	3108	5.7	Y_Clay_Loam	D
2	I-E-bc	3109	22.04	Y_Clay_Loam	C
3	I-Rc-Xk-c	3122	26.32	Clay_Loam	D
4	Vc1-3a	3276	4.39	Loam	D
5	Vc50-3ab	3279	6.4	Sandy_Loam	D
6	Xh31-3a	3288	0.57	Loam	D
7	Xh33-3a	3289	2.52	Loam	D
8	Xk26-2/3a	3298	6.94	Loam	D
9	Xk28-b	3300	15.59	Y_Clay_Loam	D
10	Xk9-2/3a	3312	0.22	Sandy_Loam	D
11	Xy5-a	3323	2.32	Loam	D
12	Yk34-b	3603	0.41	Loam	D
13	Yy10-2ab	3614	6.58	Loam	D

**4.8.3 Hydrological Response Unit Analysis**

The HRU threshold delineation was set on zero for slope, LULC and soil for all models, the number of HRUs for a specific LC/LU is controlled by two parameters: the LULC resolution and the number of feature classes. The LULC resolution and number of feature classes, on the other hand, are determined by the spatial resolution of the satellite image and the desired level of classification. While, for a specific DEM, one parameter, the slope.

Table (4.10) Watershed characteristics function of DEM and LU LC

No	No of SB <sup>1</sup>	No of HRU <sup>2</sup>	Dem (m)	LU\LC (m)	Areas (km <sup>2</sup> )	Elevation (m.a.s.l)		
						Min	max	mean
Dokan watershed	33	1252	30	30	11545.63	426	3589	1392.3458
Dibis watershed	21	589	30	30	8351.34	195	2579	545.2880

1 Subbasin    2 Hydrological response units

**4.9 Sensitivity Analysis**

The goal of sensitivity analysis is to reduce the number of parameters in the calibration process by removing less sensitive parameters. A sensitivity analysis was carried out using the more reliable all-at-once (global) method.

A multiple regression approach is used to quantify sensitivity.

The number of runs needed to conduct sensitivity analysis. The evaluation score is 500 and the sensitivity of 12,8 parameters was tested in the two delineations. Scenarios were created using 500 simulation runs. The rank and type of sensitive parameters were different in the two scenarios for the same number of simulations (500) and length of historical data, as shown in tables (4.11 - 4.14) The number of iterations and length of flow and rainfall data may influence the

rank of sensitive parameters. The most sensitive flow parameters for a given watershed must be determined. Because the type of input data observations varies by region, and changes in model input parameters affect modeling results.

It is also useful to define the important hydrological processes. The four sensitive flow parameters in Dukan watershed not effective in Didis watershed. As a result, the groundwater parameter in the basin is effective and contributes in the stream flow, And the snow parameter is effective in the Dukan and decrease in scenario LU/LC 2010 about LU/LC 2000 due to global warming and reduced precipitation but not effective in the Dibis watershed because of The Dukan level in the Little Zab Repository's Upstream is higher in relation to sea level than the dibis level in the same catchment's downstream

Table (4.11): Sensitivity analysis for the Dukan Watershed DEM 30 m LU/LC 2000 map

Rank	Parameter Name	Desicription	t_Stat	P_value
1	CN2.mgt	SCS-curve number	14.31	0
2	GW_DELAY.gw	Ground water delay	-0.69	0.42
3	GW_REVAP.gw	Ground water re evaporation	-3.01	0.31
4	GWQMN.gw	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer	-1.01	0.33
5	SOL_AWC(..).sol	Soil available water capacity	2.63	0.13
6	ESCO.hru	Soil evaporation compensation factor	1.11	0.22
7	SFTMP.bsn	Snowfall temperature	0.26	0.8

8	SMTMP.bsn	Snow melt temperature	1.21	0.25
9	OV_N.hru	Over flow Manining coefficient	0.51	0.62
10	SLSUBBSN.hru	Subbasin slope	-0.36	0.72
11	RCHRG_DP.gw	Groundwater deep recharge	-0.37	0.81
12	RAINHHMX(..).wgn	Rainfall variation of basin	1.2	0.25

Table (4.12): Sensitivity analysis for the Dukan Watershed DEM 30 m LU/LC 2010 map

Rank	Parameter Name	Desicription	t-Stat	P-Value
1	CN2.mgt	SCS-curve number	-22.45	0.89
2	GW_DELAY.gw	Ground water delay	-0.79	0.53
3	GW_REVAP.gw	Ground water re evaporation	-7.21	0.01
4	GWQMN.gw	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer	-2.41	0.16
5	SOL_AWC(..).sol	Soil available water capacity	-1.67	0.21
6	ESCO.hru	Soil evaporation compensation factor	2.05	0.04
7	SFTMP.bsn	Snowfall temperature	-0.77	0.88

8	SMTMP.bsn	Snow melt temperature	-1.1	0.28
9	OV_N.hru	Over flow Manning coefficient	-0.84	0.4
10	SLSUBBSN.hru	Subbasin slope	0.51	0.61
11	RCHRG_DP.gw	Groundwater deep recharge	-0.71	0.48
12	RAINHHMX(..).wgn	Rainfall variation of basin	0.16	0.89

Table (4.13): Sensitivity analysis for the Dibis Watershed DEM 30 m LU/LC 2002 map

Rank	Parameter Name	Description	t-Stat	P-Value
1	CN2.mgt	SCS-curve number	-12.42	0
2	GW_DELAY.gw	Ground water delay	0.09	0.82
3	GWQMN.gw	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer	0.11	0.83
4	GW_REVAP.gw	Ground water re evaporation	0.02	0.91
5	ESCO.hru	Soil evaporation compensation factor	-2.01	0.38
6	SOL_AWC(..).sol	Soil available water capacity	0.63	0.93
7	HRU_SLP.hru	Average slope steepness	0.13	0.79
8	PRECIPI(..){..}.pcp	precipitation	-1.26	0.08

Table (4.14): Sensitivity analysis for the Dibis DEM 30 m LU/LC 2010 map

Rank	Parameter Name	Description	t-Stat	P-Value
1	CN2.mgt	SCS-curve number	-11.63	0
2	GW_DELAY.gw	Ground water delay	0.13	0.76
3	GWQMN.gw	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer	0.26	0.92
4	GW_REVAP.gw	Ground water re evaporation	1.7	0.81
5	ESCO.hru	Soilevaporation compensation factor	1.2	0.78
6	SOL_AWC(..).sol	Soil available water capacity	0.45	0.64
7	HRU_SLP.hru	Average slope steepness	1.02	0.51
8	PRECIPI. (..){..}.pcp	precipitation	-0.57	0.15

## 4. 10 Calibration and Validation

### 4.10.1 Runoff Modeling Evaluation

By comparing simulated runoff to observations, the model's response to various topographic and LC/LU data was tested. As previously discussed, the model output was calibrated and validated using a set of commonly used goodness of fit indicators, with NS set as the objective function in SWAT-CUP

By optimizing an objective function, calibration reduces errors between observations and model simulations. Automatic calibration was performed in two watersheds in this study.

The obtained hydrographs of calibrated and validated models are shown in Figures 4.7 and 4.8, with the model with the highest NS during the validation period considered the best model.

For the Dukan Watershed, the model of DEM 30 m resolution (SRTM) and LC/LU 30 m resolution (from Landsat) (2000) achieved the highest NS value, with 0.81 and 0.87 of NS and  $R^2$  for the calibration period (2000-2007) and 0.63 and 0.79 for validation period (2007-2010), respectively as shown in fig (4.7).

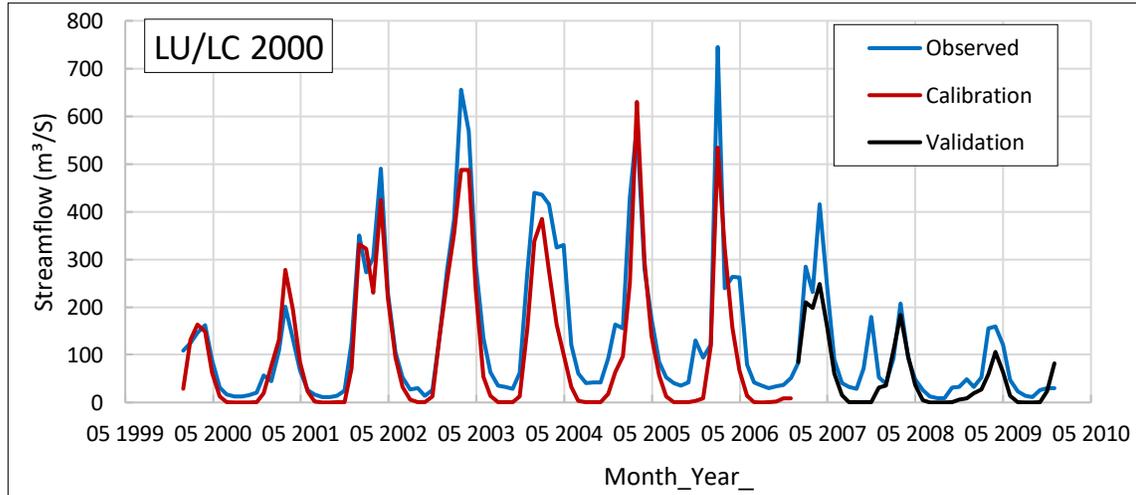


Figure (4.7): The best accurate simulated runoff for the Dukan watershed for LULC 2000.

#### 4.11. 2 Water balance

Table (4.16) displays the values for the most commonly used statistical indices calculated to investigate the effect of watershed delineation on SWAT simulation accuracy. The SWAT's performance improved for the simulated flow for two LU/LC (2000-2010). Following the validation of (LULC 2000-2010), the Dukan, Dibis, the value of NSE increased by 13%, 20%, and respectively. This variation could have occurred as a result of regrouping, conversion of minor land uses to major land uses as the number of subbasins expanded

The calibration of a large scale distributed hydrologic model against river discharge may not provide enough confidence for all components of the water balance. Abbaspour et al., (2015) proposed multi criteria calibration to improve characterization of different components and to address the non uniqueness problem (narrowing prediction uncertainty).

Table (4. 15) Values of statistical indices for model calibration and validation

	(LU/LC 2000)				(LU/LC 2010)			
	Calibration		Validation		Calibration		Validation	
	R <sup>2</sup>	NSE						
Dukan watershed	0.87	0.81	0.79	0.63	0.74	0.71	0.76	0.76
Dibis watershed	0.82	0.76	0.8	0.63	0.9	0.89	0.85	0.83

The results show that higher NS models do not always produce the best water balance for the validation period when compared to observed. The water balance for the calibration and validation periods is shown in appendix B .

For two cases during the validation period, the models of (LU/LC 2000-LU/LC 2010) output simulated flow was closer to the observed flow than the other models, for Dukan watershed

For the Dukan Watershed, the model of DEM 30 m resolution (SRTM) and LuLc 30 m resolution (from Landsat) (2010) achieved the highest NS value, with 0.71 and 0.74 of NS and R<sup>2</sup> for the calibration period (2010-2017) and 0.76 and 0.76 for validation period (2017-2022), respectively.as shown in fig(4.8)

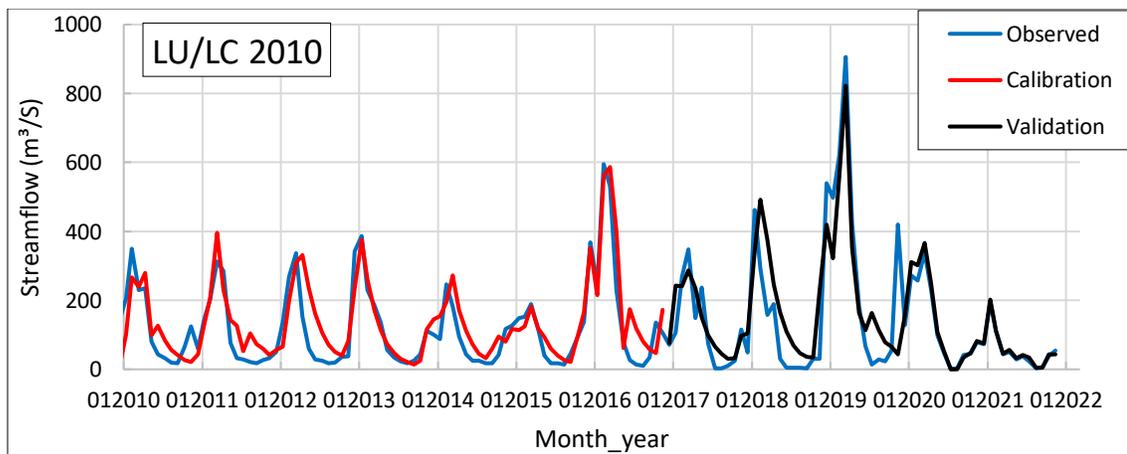


Figure (4.8): The best accurate simulated runoff for the Dukan watershed for LU/LC 2010.

For the Dibis Watershed, the model of DEM 30 m resolution (SRTM) and LC/LU 30 m resolution (from Landsat) (2002) achieved the highest NS value, with 0.76 and 0.82 of NS and R2 for the calibration period and 0.63 and 0.80 for validation period, respectively as shown in Fig ( 4.9)

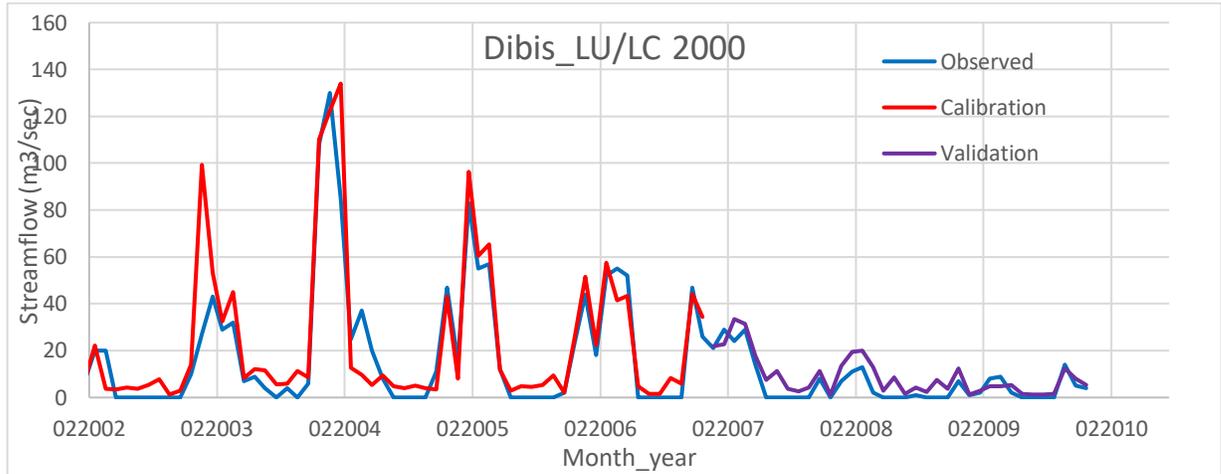


Figure (4.9): The best accurate simulated runoff for the Dibis watershed for LU/LC 2002.

For the Dibis Watershed, the model of DEM 30 m resolution (SRTM) and LC/LU 30 m resolution (from Landsat) (2010) achieved the highest NS value, with 0.89 and 0.90 of NS and R2 for the calibration period and 0.83 and 0.85 for validation period, respectively, as shown in Fig (4.10)

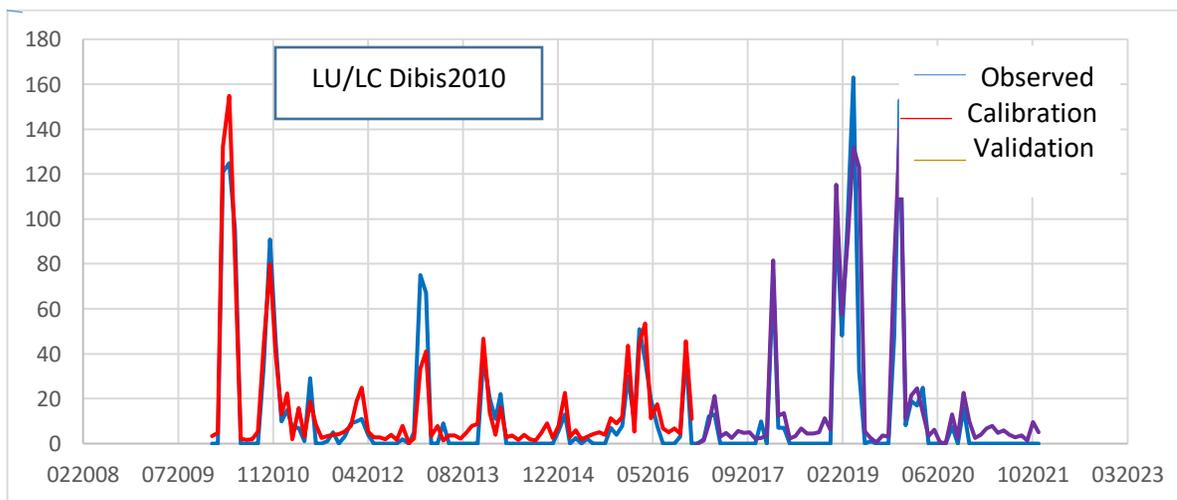


Figure (4.10): The best accurate simulated runoff for the Dibis watershed for LU/LC 2010.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Conclusions and Recommendations**

#### **5.1 Conclusions**

The current study applied remote sensing data and GIS technology to delineate land use and land cover (LU/LC) images and assess and identify alterations in the Lesser Zab Basin (LZB) during 1989, 1999, 2010, and 2021.

##### **5.1.1 Land Use and Land Cover Alteration**

- According to the supervised image classification process, seven general classes have been identified; water bodies, forest lands, agricultural lands, bare lands, and urban lands.
- Agricultural lands can be considered as the prevailing class;
- Agricultural lands decreased from 51.06 in 1989 to 39.96% in 2021.
- Shrinkage in water bodies has been one of the causes of reducing the agricultural areas.
- There had been a speedy alteration in agricultural lands to urban lands. In 1989, urban lands covered 0.46%, but in 2021, it increased to 5.59% compared to 1989.
- Natural ecology and biodiversity would be lost due to expanding urban areas.

##### **5.1.2 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index**

Based on Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) analysis, vegetation land cover during 1989, 1999, 2009, 2019, and 2021 was also recognized.

- The vegetation cover showed a decreasing trend from 2009 to 2021, with a ratio of 27.2% for low-density plants area. However, the vegetation-free area displayed a rising trend of about 28.6%.
- NDVI areal distribution is caused, generally, by alterations of the weather variables, such as precipitation and temperature.
- There were substantial variations in the vegetation cover from 2009 to 2021 due to the climate change impact linked to anthropogenic activities.

### **5.1.3 Land Use/Land Cover Prediction**

The CA–Markov model has been applied to predict prospect LU/LC alterations, contributing to an enhanced consideration of potential LU/LC alterations and their dynamic influences. The results reveal that:

- Between 1999 and 2021, basin-wide urban areas increased considerably, whereas agricultural lands, forest cover and bare lands decreased.
- It is expected that by 2041, the built-up area will be about 5200 km<sup>2</sup> (26%), while the coverage area of agricultural lands, forest, bare lands, and water bodies are expected to decrease.
- Urban areas would continue to expand mainly at the cost of agricultural, bare and forest areas.
- Agricultural lands have revealed a notable drop from 1999 to 2021, and future predictions established that this tendency would remain (i.e. from 2021 to 2041).
- LU/LC changing aspects are human-driven, which in turn distresses individuals and changes the availability of natural resources such as plants, water bodies, soil, and livestock.

- The map of 2041 would be used as a standard for decision-making, preparation, ecological management of the atmosphere, and biodiversity protection.

### **5.1.4 Hydrological Modeling**

Arc SWAT software was examined and used for the period from 2000 to 2021 to simulate the Lesser Zab river flow. The following conclusions can be drawn from the findings:

- The streamflow characteristics changed due to the LU/LC variations.
- The SWAT model evaluation revealed that the annual surface runoff in the Dukan watershed increased due to the flood wave that occurred in 2019.
- As snow melt sensitive parameters effective in Dukan watershed as years progress, the thickness of the snow decreases and its contribution to the stream flow and not effective in Dibis watershed.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Several recommendations would be suggested for further research associated with the hydrological impact of LU/LC change on LZRB.

- Frequently performing LU/LC changes detection.
- Explore different LU/LC classes by satellites, such as the Google Earth Engine platform and Sentinel.
- Identification of LU/LC and climate change impacts on the hydrological characteristics of a basin in arid to semi-arid regions.
- Estimating seasonal land surface temperature (LST) variations over different LU/LC classes using CA-Markov simulation and simulating future LU/LC and seasonal LST variations for 2041.

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## Appendix A

Table (A.1) Details of the mathematical calculations for kappa coefficient and Accuracy evaluation for 1989

$$OA^* \% = \frac{47}{53} \times 100 = 88.67$$

$$KI^{**} \% = \frac{(47 \times 53) - ((10 \times 12) + (9 \times 9) + (10 \times 7) + (7 \times 10) + (10 \times 9) + (7 \times 6))}{2809 - ((10 \times 12) + (9 \times 9) + (10 \times 7) + (7 \times 10) + (10 \times 9) + (7 \times 6))} \times 100$$

$$= 86.559\%$$

Class	User accuracy calculation%	Procedure accuracy calculation%
WB <sup>1</sup>	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{10}{12} \times 100 = 83.3$
FO <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{9}{9} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{9}{9} \times 100 = 100$
AL <sup>3</sup>	$\frac{7}{10} \times 100 = 70$	$\frac{7}{7} \times 100 = 100$
BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	$\frac{6}{7} \times 100 = 85.7$	$\frac{6}{10} \times 100 = 60$
BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	$\frac{9}{10} \times 100 = 90$	$\frac{9}{9} \times 100 = 100$
UL <sup>6</sup>	$\frac{6}{7} \times 100 = 85.7$	$\frac{6}{6} \times 100 = 100$

Table (A.2) Details of the mathematical calculations for kappa coefficient and Accuracy evaluation for 1999

$$OA^* \% = \frac{56}{61} \times 100 = 91.8$$

$$KI^{**} = \frac{(56 \times 61) - ((10 \times 10) + (10 \times 9) + (10 \times 12) + (10 \times 10) + (12 \times 16) + (7 \times 6))}{3721 - ((10 \times 10) + (10 \times 9) + (10 \times 12) + (10 \times 10) + (12 \times 16) + (7 \times 6))} \times 100$$

$$= 90.08\%$$

Class	User accuracy calculation%	Procedure accuracy calculation%
WB <sup>1</sup>	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$
FO <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{9}{9} \times 100 = 100$
AL <sup>3</sup>	$\frac{10}{12} \times 100 = 83.3$	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$
BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	$\frac{9}{10} \times 100 = 90$	$\frac{9}{10} \times 100 = 90$
BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{12}{16} \times 100 = 75$

UL <sup>6</sup>	$\frac{6}{7} \times 100 = 85.7$	$\frac{6}{6} \times 100 = 100$
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Table (A.3) Details of the mathematical calculations for kappa coefficient and Accuracy evaluation for 2010

$$OA^* \% = \frac{71}{74} \times 100 = 95.9$$

$$(KI)^{**} \% = \frac{(71 \times 74) - ((12 \times 12) + (12 \times 12) + (12 \times 10) + (12 \times 13) + (13 \times 13) + (12 \times 13))}{5476 - ((12 \times 12) + (12 \times 12) + (12 \times 10) + (12 \times 13) + (13 \times 13) + (12 \times 13))} \times 100 = \frac{4365}{4587} \times 100 = 95.16$$

Class	User accuracy calculation%	Procedure accuracy calculation%
WB <sup>1</sup>	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$
FO <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$
AL <sup>3</sup>	$\frac{10}{12} \times 100 = 83.3$	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$
BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	$\frac{12}{13} \times 100 = 92.3$	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$
BL <sub>L</sub> <sup>5</sup>	$\frac{13}{13} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{13}{13} \times 100 = 100$
UL <sup>6</sup>	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{12}{13} \times 100 = 92.3$

Table (A.4) Details of the mathematical calculations for kappa coefficient and Accuracy evaluation for 2021

$$OA^* \% = \frac{55}{63} \times 100 = 87.3$$

$$(KI)^{**} \% = \frac{(55 \times 63) - ((12 \times 12) + (8 \times 9) + (11 \times 4) + (12 \times 10) + (10 \times 16) + (11 \times 11))}{3969 - ((12 \times 12) + (8 \times 9) + (11 \times 4) + (12 \times 10) + (10 \times 16) + (11 \times 11))} \times 100 = \frac{2804}{3308} \times 100 = 84.76$$

Class	User accuracy calculation%	Procedure accuracy calculation%
WB <sup>1</sup>	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{12}{12} \times 100 = 100$
FO <sup>2</sup>	$\frac{8}{9} \times 100 = 88.8$	$\frac{8}{8} \times 100 = 100$
AL <sup>3</sup>	$\frac{4}{11} \times 100 = 36.3$	$\frac{4}{4} \times 100 = 100$
BL <sub>D</sub> <sup>4</sup>	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{10}{12} \times 100 = 83.3$

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BL <sup>5</sup>	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{10}{10} \times 100 = 100$
UL <sup>6</sup>	$\frac{11}{11} \times 100 = 100$	$\frac{11}{11} \times 100 = 100$

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\* Overall Accuracy ; \*\* kappa coefficient; <sup>1</sup>Water Bodies; <sup>2</sup>Forest; <sup>3</sup>Agricultural Lands; <sup>4</sup>Bare Lands Dark;

<sup>5</sup>Bare Lands Light; <sup>6</sup>Urban Lands

## APPENDIX B

Table (B.1) The water balance of Dukan models for calibration period (2000 - 2007) ) and validation periods ( 2007 - 2010 )

No	Year	Month	Observed	Simulated
1	2000	January	108.1	29.1
2	2000	February	124.9	131.5
3	2000	March	146.2	164.0
4	2000	April	161.6	149.2
5	2000	May	88.4	62.5
6	2000	June	31.3	12.7
7	2000	July	16.1	0.0
8	2000	August	12.2	0.0
9	2000	September	12.7	0.0
10	2000	October	14.7	0.0
11	2000	November	20.2	0.2
12	2000	December	56.2	19.3
13	2001	January	44.7	77.0
14	2001	February	108.1	131.1
15	2001	March	201.1	278.2
16	2001	April	132.7	193.5
17	2001	May	67.9	84.0
18	2001	June	26.1	22.8
19	2001	July	16.5	1.5
20	2001	August	11.5	0.0
21	2001	September	11.2	0.0
22	2001	October	13.7	0.1
23	2001	November	25.3	1.2
24	2001	December	125.5	71.7
26	2002	February	273.0	321.0

27	2002	March	303.0	230.0
28	2002	April	490.0	424.4
29	2002	May	230.0	219.9
30	2002	June	105.0	93.4
31	2002	July	52.0	32.7
32	2002	August	27.0	6.0
33	2002	September	30.0	0.5
34	2002	October	14.0	0.5
35	2002	November	26.0	13.2
36	2002	December	137.0	136.2
37	2003	January	278.0	255.8
38	2003	February	383.0	354.0
39	2003	March	655.0	487.4
40	2003	April	569.0	488.1
41	2003	May	290.0	237.3
42	2003	June	136.0	54.6
43	2003	July	63.0	13.5
44	2003	August	35.0	0.3
45	2003	September	33.0	0.1
46	2003	October	29.0	0.2
47	2003	November	62.0	12.8
48	2003	December	273.0	155.6
49	2004	January	440.0	338.3
50	2004	February	435.0	385.2
51	2004	March	415.0	275.4
52	2004	April	325.0	163.6
53	2004	May	330.0	100.7
54	2004	June	120.0	32.8
55	2004	July	60.0	3.3
56	2004	August	40.0	0.1

57	2004	September	42.0	0.0
58	2004	October	42.0	0.1
59	2004	November	93.0	17.6
60	2004	December	163.0	63.2
61	2005	January	155.0	96.6
62	2005	February	430.0	251.1
63	2005	March	580.0	629.9
64	2005	April	280.0	295.6
65	2005	May	175.0	140.0
66	2005	June	85.0	56.0
67	2005	July	52.0	12.4
68	2005	August	40.0	0.4
69	2005	September	35.0	0.1
70	2005	October	42.0	0.2
71	2005	November	130.0	2.7
72	2005	December	94.0	8.5
73	2006	January	120.0	117.4
74	2006	February	745.0	534.0
75	2006	March	240.0	322.4
76	2006	April	264.0	156.7
77	2006	May	262.0	67.3
78	2006	June	79.0	14.0
79	2006	July	42.0	0.9
80	2006	August	35.0	0.0
81	2006	September	30.0	0.0
82	2006	October	34.0	2.5
83	2006	November	37.0	8.6
84	2006	December	51.0	9.1
85	2007	January	82.0	85.0

86	2007	February	285.0	209.9
87	2007	March	232.0	198.6
88	2007	April	415.0	248.3
89	2007	May	240.0	156.0
90	2007	June	90.0	60.6
91	2007	July	41.0	15.4
92	2007	August	33.0	0.2
93	2007	September	28.0	0.0
94	2007	October	71.0	0.0
95	2007	November	180.0	0.3
96	2007	December	52.0	31.8
97	2008	January	39.0	35.8
98	2008	February	92.0	109.8
99	2008	March	207.0	183.9
100	2008	April	93.0	96.8
101	2008	May	48.0	36.8
102	2008	June	26.0	4.7
103	2008	July	13.0	0.0
104	2008	August	9.0	0.0
105	2008	September	9.0	0.0
106	2008	October	31.0	0.7
107	2008	November	33.0	6.3
108	2008	December	48.0	8.7
109	2009	January	32.0	19.4
110	2009	February	53.0	27.5
111	2009	March	155.0	59.4
112	2009	April	160.0	106.5
113	2009	May	120.0	63.5
114	2009	June	47.0	14.0
115	2009	July	23.0	0.2

116	2009	August	14.0	0.0
117	2009	September	11.0	0.0
118	2009	October	26.0	0.2
119	2009	November	30.0	23.6
120	2009	December	30.0	82.2

Table (B.2) The water balance of Dokan models for calibration period ( 2010 - 2018 ) and validation periods( 2018 - 2021 ) For LU/LC 2010 map

No	Year	Month	Observed	Simulated
1	2010	January	138.0	1.85136
2	2010	February	205.0	101.076
3	2010	March	350.0	265.99
4	2010	April	230.0	238.873
5	2010	May	235.0	279.994
6	2010	June	80.0	99.5367
7	2010	July	43.0	127.008
8	2010	August	32.0	83.7574
9	2010	September	19.0	56.7597
10	2010	October	17.0	40.8535
11	2010	November	66.0	27.218
12	2010	December	125.0	21.7342
13	2011	January	60.0	42.9581
14	2011	February	146.0	132.145
15	2011	March	202.0	205.897
16	2011	April	313.0	395.077
17	2011	May	286.0	229.787
18	2011	June	77.0	142.463
19	2011	July	33.0	126.877
20	2011	August	28.0	51.8677

21	2011	September	22.0	103.777
22	2011	October	18.0	72.8755
23	2011	November	26.0	59.861
24	2011	December	33.0	41.0519
25	2012	January	51.0	55.6839
26	2012	February	135.0	65.4924
27	2012	March	269.0	199.324
28	2012	April	337.0	309.07
29	2012	May	152.0	332.165
30	2012	June	60.0	235.567
31	2012	July	28.0	161.981
32	2012	August	25.0	106.302
33	2012	September	18.0	71.876
34	2012	October	19.0	51.3165
35	2012	November	36.0	39.9933
36	2012	December	38.0	82.7952
37	2013	January	343.0	235.112
38	2013	February	387.0	376.229
39	2013	March	229.0	261.906
40	2013	April	185.0	171.183
41	2013	May	135.0	114.146
42	2013	June	57.0	73.6263
43	2013	July	35.0	47.419
44	2013	August	23.0	30.631
45	2013	September	17.0	21.108
46	2013	October	24.0	14.3971
47	2013	November	44.0	24.8693
48	2013	December	111.0	115.357
49	2014	January	101.0	145.765
50	2014	February	88.0	154.661

51	2014	March	247.0	194.671
52	2014	April	181.0	272.943
53	2014	May	95.0	171.132
54	2014	June	43.0	110.903
55	2014	July	25.0	72.3713
56	2014	August	24.0	45.4045
57	2014	September	17.0	32.301
58	2014	October	18.0	59.1081
59	2014	November	42.0	94.8643
60	2014	December	117.0	80.8
61	2015	January	127.0	117.403
62	2015	February	149.0	113.996
63	2015	March	153.0	125.055
64	2015	April	190.0	182.64
65	2015	May	117.0	118.945
66	2015	June	39.0	92.9883
67	2015	July	18.0	60.181
68	2015	August	18.0	38.971
69	2015	September	14.0	26.5373
70	2015	October	46.0	20.74
71	2015	November	94.0	95.521
72	2015	December	137.0	164.697
73	2016	January	369.0	351.062
74	2016	February	242.0	215.797
75	2016	March	595.0	561.297
76	2016	April	530.0	586.83
77	2016	May	230.0	400.558
78	2016	June	79.0	62.63
79	2016	July	26.0	175.123
80	2016	August	14.0	118.205

81	2016	September	11.0	80.7277
82	2016	October	35.0	57.4758
83	2016	November	135.0	47.1433
84	2016	December	104.0	173.255
85	2017	January	71.0	76.6839
86	2017	February	107.0	242.707
87	2017	March	268.0	241.646
88	2017	April	348.0	286.667
89	2017	May	148.0	235.648
90	2017	June	238.0	150.46
91	2017	July	74.0	99.0548
92	2017	August	3.0	65.6094
93	2017	September	2.0	45.2017
94	2017	October	10.0	30.9635
95	2017	November	24.0	31.4387
96	2017	December	116.0	97.8
97	2018	January	49.0	103.382
98	2018	February	462.0	341.193
99	2018	March	292.0	491.535
100	2018	April	158.0	375.593
101	2018	May	190.0	246.194
102	2018	June	30.0	165.723
103	2018	July	5.0	109.105
104	2018	August	5.0	96.8374
105	2018	September	5.0	47.899
106	2018	October	2.0	36.5055
107	2018	November	31.0	34.7323
108	2018	December	31.0	227.853
109	2019	January	539.0	419.4
110	2019	February	497.0	322.925

111	2019	March	622.0	560.145
112	2019	April	906.0	822.59
113	2019	May	426.0	353.529
114	2019	June	183.0	163.46
115	2019	July	67.0	114.084
116	2019	August	14.0	163.935
117	2019	September	28.0	112.74
118	2019	October	23.0	78.9755
119	2019	November	54.0	64.9417
120	2019	December	419.0	44.131
121	2020	January	129.0	155.3
122	2020	February	273.0	311.2
123	2020	March	258.0	300.9
124	2020	April	339.0	365.7
125	2020	May	232.0	250.1
126	2020	June	98.0	107.7
127	2020	July	48.0	54.1
128	2020	August	1.0	0.0
129	2020	September	2.0	0.0
130	2020	October	41.0	33.2
131	2020	November	45.0	46.2
132	2020	December	79.0	81.5
133	2021	January	73.0	75.3
134	2021	February	197.0	201.3
135	2021	March	109.0	111.3
136	2021	April	44.0	45.2
137	2021	May	50.0	55.8
138	2021	June	29.0	32.5
139	2021	July	38.0	41.3
140	2021	August	23.0	34

141	2021	September	3.0	5.3
142	2021	October	7.0	5
143	2021	November	37.0	43
144	2021	December	54.0	44

Table (B.3) The water balance of Dibis models for calibration period ( 2002- 2007) and validation periods (2007- 2010) For LU/LC 2002 map

No	Month	Year	OUT DIBIS	OUT DUKAN	KIRKUK	C5- c6	C4- c7	Observed	Simulated
1	January	2002	95	58	21	37	58	58	33.976
2	February	2002	45	56	18	38	7	7	7.321
3	March	2002	21	59	58	1	20	20	22.091
4	April	2002	14	69	75	-6	20	20	3.819
5	May	2002	25	115	88	27	-2	0	3.401
6	June	2002	34	137	100	37	-3	0	4.339
7	July	2002	60	160	90	70	-10	0	3.761
8	August	2002	85	165	80	85	0	0	5.303
9	September	2002	80	158	72	86	-6	0	7.803
10	October	2002	20	61	41	20	0	0	1.301
11	November	2002	26	66	38	28	-2	0	2.998
12	December	2002	45	65	30	35	10	10	14.001
13	January	2003	235	248	40	208	27	27	99.321
14	February	2003	240	230	33	197	43	43	53.207
15	March	2003	148	179	60	119	29	29	32.599
16	April	2003	98	141	75	66	32	32	45.001
17	May	2003	115	173	65	108	7	7	8.209
18	June	2003	181	235	63	172	9	9	12.213
19	July	2003	208	269	65	204	4	4	11.464
20	August	2003	216	286	65	221	-5	0	5.502

21	September	2003	203	260	61	199	4	4	5.873
22	October	2003	72	143	65	78	-6	0	11.386
23	November	2003	160	209	55	154	6	6	8.628
24	December	2003	280	215	43	172	108	108	110.239
25	January	2004	465	380	45	335	130	130	122.301
26	February	2004	405	370	50	320	85	85	133.981
27	March	2004	220	270	75	195	25	25	12.542
28	April	2004	75	126	88	38	37	37	9.739
29	May	2004	84	138	74	64	20	20	5.302
30	June	2004	140	215	83	132	8	8	9.471
31	July	2004	148	255	90	165	-17	0	4.778
32	August	2004	230	343	106	237	-7	0	3.906
33	September	2004	210	310	83	227	-17	0	5.003
34	October	2004	203	275	65	210	-7	0	4.009
35	November	2004	276	330	65	265	11	11	3.409
36	December	2004	370	363	40	323	47	47	43.091
37	January	2005	65	120	70	50	15	15	8.029
38	February	2005	155	115	43	72	83	83	96.209
39	March	2005	70	70	55	15	55	55	60.407
40	April	2005	72	87	72	15	57	57	65.302
41	May	2005	70	125	67	58	12	12	11.992
42	June	2005	210	290	71	219	-9	0	3.001
43	July	2005	200	300	73	227	-27	0	4.831
44	August	2005	185	296	90	206	-21	0	4.573
45	September	2005	103	191	87	104	-1	0	5.432
46	October	2005	125	206	80	126	-1	0	9.308
47	November	2005	100	155	57	98	2	2	2.002
48	December	2005	125	170	68	102	23	23	25.299
49	January	2006	55	66	55	11	44	44	51.441
50	February	2006	64	110	64	46	18	18	22.383

51	March	2006	60	68	60	8	52	52	57.451
52	April	2006	53	51	53	-2	55	55	41.508
53	May	2006	66	80	66	14	52	52	43.442
54	June	2006	91	289	91	198	-	0	4.891
							107		
55	July	2006	100	418	100	318	-	0	1.607
							218		
56	August	2006	107	345	107	238	-	0	1.512
							131		
57	September	2006	75	176	75	101	-26	0	8.234
58	October	2006	82	171	82	89	-7	0	5.903
59	November	2006	71	95	71	24	47	47	44.289
60	December	2006	48	70	48	22	26	26	34.509
61	January	2007	40	80	61	19	21	21	21.871
62	February	2007	40	71	60	11	29	29	22.671
63	March	2007	20	38	42	-4	24	24	33.481
64	April	2007	18	25	36	-11	29	29	31.301
65	May	2007	17	31	28	3	14	14	17.821
66	June	2007	74	158	74	84	-10	0	7.431
67	July	2007	90	190	90	100	-10	0	11.237
68	August	2007	150	232	81	151	-1	0	3.821
69	September	2007	95	178	80	98	-3	0	2.642
70	October	2007	70	147	73	74	-4	0	4.321
71	November	2007	85	132	55	77	8	8	11.201
72	December	2007	110	198	83	115	-5	0	1.123
73	January	2008	35	78	50	28	7	7	13.541
74	February	2008	12	17	16	1	11	11	19.541
75	March	2008	14	23	22	1	13	13	19.921
76	April	2008	15	40	27	13	2	2	13.001
77	May	2008	17	62	43	19	-2	0	2.843

78	June	2008	31	102	71	31	0	0	8.651
79	July	2008	58	118	60	58	0	0	1.598
80	August	2008	31	90	60	30	1	1	4.39
81	September	2008	21	67	46	21	0	0	2.231
82	October	2008	100	178	70	108	-8	0	7.501
83	November	2008	53	123	70	53	0	0	3.653
84	December	2008	70	143	80	63	7	7	12.531
85	January	2009	12	28	17	11	1	1	1.305
86	February	2009	7	27	22	5	2	2	2.761
87	March	2009	10	28	26	2	8	8	4.865
88	April	2009	9	36	36	0	9	9	4.671
89	May	2009	10	36	28	8	2	2	5.309
90	June	2009	14	57	37	20	-6	0	1.671
91	July	2009	31	97	52	45	-14	0	1.309
92	August	2009	46	105	49	56	-10	0	1.301
93	September	2009	18	54	36	18	0	0	1.671
94	October	2009	24	47	37	10	14	14	12.398
95	November	2009	16	49	38	11	5	5	8.011
96	December	2009	16	50	38	12	4	4	5.229

Table (B.4) The water balance of Dibis models for calibration period ( 2010- 2017) and validation periods(2017- 2022) For LU/LC 2010 map

No	Month	Year	OUT		KIRKUK			Observed	Simulated
			DIBIS	DOKAN					
1	January	2010	45	82	50	32	-11	0	3.211
2	February	2010	103	160	57	103	-34	0	4.871
3	March	2010	70	89	62	27	121	121	132.118
4	April	2010	21	62	52	10	125	125	154.818
5	May	2010	69	162	77	85	95	95	82.102

6	June	2010	148	230	76	154	-42	0	2.221
7	July	2010	135	236	91	145	-132	0	1.541
8	August	2010	180	283	91	192	-177	0	1.981
9	September	2010	112	202	81	121	-87	0	5.312
10	October	2010	13	40	29	11	34	34	43.441
11	November	2010	15	48	36	12	91	91	79.71
12	December	2010	34	69	44	25	45	45	39.301
13	January	2011	10	30	30	0	10	10	12.891
14	February	2011	11	27	31	-4	15	15	22.332
15	March	2011	8	33	32	1	7	7	1.854
16	April	2011	12	48	43	5	7	7	15.782
17	May	2011	16	72	57	15	1	1	2.965
18	June	2011	58	87	58	29	29	29	18.631
19	July	2011	98	192	75	117	-19	0	8.369
20	August	2011	151	248	80	168	-17	0	2.512
21	September	2011	27	85	59	26	1	1	3.438
22	October	2011	20	52	37	15	5	5	3.98
23	November	2011	9	41	31	10	-1	0	4.329
24	December	2011	6	30	27	3	3	3	5.327
25	January	2012	19	62	52	10	9	9	7.831
26	February	2012	25	59	44	15	10	10	18.849
27	March	2012	22	69	58	11	11	11	24.891
28	April	2012	20	94	78	16	4	4	5.409
29	May	2012	21	82	61	21	0	0	2.891
30	June	2012	53	155	91	64	-11	0	2.891
31	July	2012	103	250	114	136	-33	0	1.839
32	August	2012	55	186	110	76	-21	0	3.891
33	September	2012	23	83	59	24	-1	0	1.729
34	October	2012	24	79	57	22	2	2	7.871
35	November	2012	27	108	72	36	-9	0	0.331

36	December	2012	23	88	70	18	5	5	2.289
37	January	2013	74	41	42	-1	75	75	33.451
38	February	2013	53	55	69	-14	67	67	41.012
39	March	2013	13	74	61	13	0	0	3.409
40	April	2013	20	95	74	21	-1	0	7.982
41	May	2013	21	76	64	12	9	9	1.304
42	June	2013	53	150	85	65	-12	0	3.761
43	July	2013	150	259	99	160	-10	0	3.572
44	August	2013	118	218	84	134	-16	0	2.113
45	September	2013	49	114	64	50	-1	0	4.892
46	October	2013	17	63	44	19	-2	0	7.901
47	November	2013	17	81	64	17	0	0	8.732
48	December	2013	54	75	59	16	38	38	46.732
49	January	2014	47	77	50	27	20	20	13.901
50	February	2014	19	48	40	8	11	11	4.003
51	March	2014	12	30	40	-10	22	22	16.098
52	April	2014	11	68	52	16	-5	0	2.641
53	May	2014	12	50	36	14	-2	0	3.658
54	June	2014	29	100	60	40	-11	0	1.742
55	July	2014	108	178	70	108	0	0	4.003
56	August	2014	169	240	70	170	-1	0	1.982
57	September	2014	28	80	52	28	0	0	1.401
58	October	2014	21	82	61	21	0	0	4.893
59	November	2014	41	106	65	41	0	0	8.951
60	December	2014	99	162	62	100	-1	0	2.561
61	January	2015	26	86	66	20	5.516129	5.516129	7.801
62	February	2015	26	76	63	13	13	13	22.509
63	March	2015	34	86	50	36	-2	0	3.081
64	April	2015	12	48	39	9	2.566667	2.566667	5.762
65	May	2015	25	67	40	27	-2	0	1.813

66	June	2015	29	67	40	27	2.333333	2.333333	3.091
67	July	2015	92	134	37	97	-5.333333	0	4.204
68	August	2015	107	143	35	108	-0.58065	0	5.113
69	September	2015	55	92	35	57	-2	0	3.782
70	October	2015	41	88	54	34	7	7	11.301
71	November	2015	56	101	49	52	4	4	8.998
72	December	2015	26	77	59	18	8	8	11.904
73	January	2016	74	81	37	44	30	30	43.489
74	February	2016	44	72	38	34	10	10	5.302
75	March	2016	85	83	49	34	51	51	45.077
76	April	2016	53	74	58	16	37	37	53.406
77	May	2016	48	74	46	28	19.74194	19.74194	11.293
78	June	2016	142	172	38	134	8	8	17.403
79	July	2016	152	197	43	154	-2.29032	0	6.812
80	August	2016	213	265	45	220	-6.96774	0	4.932
81	September	2016	148	201	49	152	-4	0	6.731
82	October	2016	43	75	35	40	3	3	4.529
83	November	2016	88	83	35	48	40	40	45.509
84	December	2016	37	72	35	37	-0.32258	0	11.009
85	January	2017	49	87	34	53	-4	0	0.012
86	February	2017	41	93	54	39	2	2	1.403
87	March	2017	50	101	63	38	12	12	8.711
88	April	2017	53	73	33	40	13	13	21.132
89	May	2017	51	76	17	59	-8	0	3.112
90	June	2017	43	112	67	45	-2	0	4.871
91	July	2017	46	98	39	59	-13	0	2.508
92	August	2017	52	123	61	62	-10	0	5.503
93	September	2017	46	101	53	48	-2	0	4.672
94	October	2017	49	89	39	50	-1	0	5.129
95	November	2017	50	148	89	59	-9	0	2.101

96	December	2017	50	123	83	40	10	10	2.604
97	January	2018	95	140	40	100	-5	0	3.741
98	February	2018	135	103	42	61	74	74	81.409
99	March	2018	70	106	43	63	7	7	12.401
100	April	2018	50	88	45	43	7	7	13.501
101	May	2018	40	80	39	41	-1	0	2.315
102	June	2018	99	146	40	106	-6.66667	0	3.392
103	July	2018	141	194	42	152	-11	0	6.751
104	August	2018	134	187	44	143	-9	0	4.402
105	September	2018	118	165	40	125	-7.06897	0	4.501
106	October	2018	47	105	42	63	-16	0	5.001
107	November	2018	66	114	46	68	-2	0	11.224
108	December	2018	79	137	50	87	-8	0	6.208
109	January	2019	145	82	38	44	101	101	115.32
110	February	2019	131	123	40	83	48	48	57.548
111	March	2019	260	200	40	160	100	100	90.441
112	April	2019	915	802	50	752	163	163	131.981
113	May	2019	452	496	76	420	32	32	122.908
114	June	2019	195	262	61	201	-6	0	5.396
115	July	2019	215	283	69	214	1	1	2.432
116	August	2019	202	282	70	212	-10	0	0.432
117	September	2019	197	268	70	198	-1.16667	0	3.671
118	October	2019	78	120	40	80	-2.25806	0	2.983
119	November	2019	90	83	40	43	47	47	79.671
120	December	2019	177	64	40	24	153	153	140.023
121	January	2020	141	181	48	133	8.258065	8.258065	11.323
122	February	2020	102	133	50	83	18.89655	18.89655	21.402
123	March	2020	71	104	50	54	17	17	24.674
124	April	2020	67	105	63	42	24.92857	24.92857	13.821
125	May	2020	59	124	62	62	-3	0	3.398

126	June	2020	91	164	67	97	-5.66667	0	6.312
127	July	2020	158	232	70	162	-4.41935	0	0.431
128	August	2020	160	235	70	165	-4.51613	0	0.321
129	September	2020	95	155	68	87	7.5	7.5	13.001
130	October	2020	162	280	66	214	-52	0	2.431
131	November	2020	193	233	56	177	15.93103	15.93103	22.651
132	December	2020	150	202	51	151	-1.16129	0	9.901
133	January	2021	20	82	60	22	-2	0	2.391
134	February	2021	12	56	44	12	0	0	3.891
135	March	2021	9	74	58	16	-7.32258	0	6.613
136	April	2021	10	78	64	14	-4	0	7.836
137	May	2021	10	70	55	15	-4.54839	0	4.761
138	June	2021	16	78	56	22	-5.63333	0	5.861
139	July	2021	31	94	55	39	-8	0	3.877
140	August	2021	71	129	55	74	-2.64516	0	2.671
141	September	2021	30	92	55	37	-7.06667	0	3.631
142	October	2021	18	90	64	26	-8.09677	0	1.301
143	November	2021	29	93	57	36	-7.03448	0	9.672
144	December	2021	22	85	60	25	-3.06452	0	4.981

## الخلاصة

يعد استخدام الأراضي والغطاء الأرضي أحد أكبر المكونات النشطة للبيئة، والتي كانت تختلف بشكل غير منظم عن الوقت الذي أعقب ثورة التصنيع في عمليات متنوعة.

تهدف الدراسة الحالية الى التحقق في نمط استخدام الأراضي وغطاء الأراضي وقياس تغيير الارتباط في المناخات الجافة وشبه الجافة من خلال اخذ حوض نهر الزاب الصغير في شمال شرق العراق. تم اخذ صور لاندسات للسنوات 1989 و 1999 و 2010 و 2021 بشكل عام تم تصنيف الى ستة أنواع رئيسيه وقد أظهرت النتائج في عام 1989 شكلت الأراضي الحضريه 0,46% مع ذلك في عام 2021 زادت الأراضي الحضريه الى 5,59 من اجمالي مساحة الأرض حيث شهد الحوض انخفاضاً في الأراضي الزراعيه والقاحله بينما اتسعت الأراضي الحضريه وكان هناك تذبذباً في المنطقه التي شغلتها المسطحات كذلك تهدف الدراسة الى التنبؤ المستقبلي بالتغيرات المحتملة لاستخدام الأراضي وغطاء الأراضي من خلال تطبيق نموذج ماركوف الخلوي، تم استخدام الخرائط المصنفة للسنوات الثلاث (1999-2010) (2010-2021) لتصميم خرائط استخدام الأراضي وغطاء الأراضي المتنبئة للسنوات 2021 و 2041. تم انشاء خريطة التنبؤ لعام 2021 للتأكد من صحة اخراج النموذج و كانت دقة الاتفاقيات بين الصور المصنفة والمتنبئة

$$K_{no} = 0.8635 \text{ و } K_{standard} = 0.7851 \text{ و } K_{location} = 0.8541$$

بهذا الترتيب. يتم التحقق من صحة احتمالات التوقع بين عامي 2021 و 2041، سترتفع المنطقة الحضريه بنسبة 364.4% (من 1118 إلى 5192 كم<sup>2</sup>) ، والمسطحات المائية 33% (من 90 إلى 120 كم<sup>2</sup>). ومع ذلك، فإن الأراضي العارية / باللون الفاتح ، والأراضي الزراعيه، والأراضي الجرداء / الداكنة، والأراضي الغابات ستخف بمقدار 3.5 (من 6983 إلى 6736 كم<sup>2</sup>) ، و 11.96 (من 7992 إلى 7036 كم<sup>2</sup>) ، و 42.85 (من 7 إلى 4 كم<sup>2</sup>) ، و 76.27 (من 3810 إلى 904 كم<sup>2</sup>) ،

أيضا تهدف هذه الدراسة الى التحقق في تأثير تغيير استخدام الأراضي وغطاء الأراضي على العمليات الهيدرولوجيه لمنطقه الدراسة لمدته 21 عام (بسبب نقص البيانات الهيدرولوجيه وتوفرها لهذه السنوات فقط) تم استخدام نموذج أداة تقييم مياه التربه سوات لمحاكاة تدفق التيار. أظهرت نتائج النموذج أن خصائص تدفق المجرى قد تغيرت بسبب تغير غطاء الأراضي واستخدام الأراضي وتغير المناخ وارتفاع وتغير وتيرة الفيضانات. اظهر تقييم نموذج سوات أن الجريان السطحي السنوي لمستجمعات المياه في .

دوكان قد زاد بسبب موجة الفيضانات التي حدثت في عام 2019 وفقاً للبيانات الهيدرولوجية التي تم الحصول عليها من وزارة الموارد المائية / المركز الوطني لإدارة الموارد المائية. نتيجة لذلك ، تم استنفاد الطاقة الاستيعابية لسد دوكان. وتقليل الجريان السطحي في مستجمعات مياه الدبس. كان رقم المنحنى ، والقدرة المائية المتاحة لطبقة التربة ، وعامل تكوين تبخر التربة من أكثر العوامل حساسية التي تم تحديدها لتدفق مجرى النهر. وفاعلية ذوبان الثلج في مستجمعات دوكان المائية مع تقدم السنوات ، يتناقص سمك الثلج ومساهمته في تدفق مجرى المياه وغير فعال في مستجمعات مياه الدبس . من خلال استخدام برنامج سوات للمعايرة والتحقق بين التدفق الحقيقي والمحاكى أظهرت النتائج معامل التحديد وقيم الكفاءة للاختبار الاحصائي للنموذج هي 0,87 و 0,81 للفترة 2000-2007افتره المعاييرة و 0,79 و 0,63 لفترة 2007-2010 على التوالي لفترات التحقق وقيم الكفاءة 0,74 و 0,71 لفترات امعايره 2010-2017 على التوالي و 0,76 و 0,76 لفترات التحقق 2017-2021 الخاصه بمنطقه دوكان , كذلك أظهرت وقيم الكفاءة للاختبار الاحصائي للنموذج 0,82 و 0,76 للفترة 2000-2007 لفترة معامل التحديد ا المعاييرة و 0,8 و 0,63 للفترة 2007-2010 على التوالي لفترات التحقق وقيم الكفاءة 0,9 و 0,89 لفترات امعايره 2010-2017 على التوالي و 0,85 و 0,83 لفترة التحقق الخاصه لمستجمعات مياه الدبس ، مخرجات هذه الدراسة مفيدة للاداره الفعالة لحوض النهر



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## نمذجة التأثير الهيدرولوجي لاستخدام الأراضي/ تغير الغطاء الأرضي في حوض نهر الزاب الأسفل، العراق

رسالة مقدمة إلى قسم الهندسة المدنية، كلية الهندسة، جامعة بابل وهي جزء من متطلبات  
الحصول على درجة الماجستير علوم في الهندسة/ الهندسة المدنية / هندسة الموارد المائية

من قبل:

**زهراء علي مهدي عبود**

بكالوريوس علوم في الهندسة المدنية 2010

بإشراف:

**أ.م.د: رقية كاظم محمد**

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