

1 **INTEGRATING ARTIFICIAL URBAN WETLANDS INTO COMMUNITIES: A PATHWAY**  
2 **TO CARBON ZERO?**

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11 **Abstract**

12 In their natural state, wetland ecosystems provide an optimum natural environment for the  
13 sequestration and long-term storage of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) from the atmosphere. The loss of  
14 wetlands under advancing urbanization not only diminishes this capacity for storage, but increases  
15 methane and greenhouse gases as the land is disturbed. Nevertheless, there is growing scientific  
16 interest in using artificial or constructed wetlands as a way to mitigate the impact of global climate  
17 change, with most attention on their use for water management. Using a potential integrated urban  
18 wetland site in Glasgow as a case study, this paper critically examines how artificial urban wetlands  
19 can contribute to urban net zero targets in terms of their ability for carbon sequestration, and as part  
20 of sustainability initiatives more broadly. We find there are several barriers to implementing artificial  
21 urban wetlands for carbon drawdown alone, in particular regarding land ownership constraints,  
22 uncertainties in capture efficacy and capture quantitation, and eligibility for market-based crediting  
23 schemes. These issues make it currently challenging for the carbon reduction contribution of urban  
24 wetlands to be quantified and, say, certified to generate revenue to communities through market-  
25 based carbon crediting. However, if integrated within wider community-based sustainability  
26 initiatives, artificial urban wetlands can support multiple dimensions of sustainability, creating or

27 supporting value far beyond water management and carbon sequestration objectives. Potential co-  
28 benefits range from areas such as health and wellbeing, biodiversity, education, food security,  
29 behavioural changes and social care. Our findings show that for these co-benefits to be identified,  
30 maximised and realised, a place-based approach to urban wetland development must be adopted,  
31 engaging stakeholders from the project outset to define and facilitate collaboration towards shared  
32 outcomes for society, community and environment. These findings will be relevant to any urban  
33 infrastructure development seeking to meet sustainability goals beyond carbon capture.

34

## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 The rapid expansion of the world's urban population has put pressure on natural landscapes at an  
37 unprecedented rate and has led to the significant loss of natural wetlands, a resource which plays a  
38 critical role in climate change, biodiversity, hydrology, and human health. Despite planning  
39 initiatives to reduce urban sprawl and promote more compact cities, wetland loss has continued with  
40 urbanisation, to the point where it is claimed between one third and one half of all wetlands have  
41 been lost over the last past two centuries (Hu et al, 2017; Davidson, 2014).

42 In response to such loss, constructed or artificial urban wetlands (i.e. areas of high water saturation  
43 such as fresh or saltwater marshes and lakes) have been viewed as an effective type of nature-based  
44 solution for water management and are being increasingly adopted internationally, centred on 'living  
45 with and making space for water' (O'Donnell et al, 2017). Such infrastructure often aims to couple  
46 storm-water management functions and water pollution treatment within landscape-scale ecosystem  
47 conservation and/or restoration (Ahn & Schmidt, 2019). For example, the East Kolkata Wetland  
48 complex - on the edge of the Indian city and covering some 3000 hectares - has been maintained and  
49 managed primarily to provide natural sewage treatment to remove phosphorus, to provide stormwater  
50 management, and a resource for fish (Gupta et al, 2016). In contrast, in Melbourne, Australia, more

51 than 600 small-scale wetland areas form part of an integrated urban water management scheme,  
52 providing rich environments for wildlife alongside storm water management (Furlong et al, 2016;  
53 Oral et al, 2020).

54 Although constructed wetlands are one of the most common infrastructure types for urban water  
55 management schemes, there are few examples integrated into the urban environment rather than on  
56 the periphery of settlements (Ahn and Schmidt, 2019)). And whilst there is an awareness that blue-  
57 green infrastructure provides health benefits such as improved air and water quality, reduced urban  
58 noise, access to greenspace, enabling urban farming, reducing energy consumption, as well as water  
59 management, research into achieving such potential benefits is in the very early stage of development  
60 (Oral et al, 2020). In part such absences reflect challenges faced by natural resource professionals in  
61 cultivating community-based support for wetland ecosystem restoration, most acutely in the setting  
62 of urban projects where alternative uses for land and especially public spaces are often prioritized by  
63 communities and urban managers. Here, often the natural dimensions of wetlands have disappeared,  
64 and communities thus struggle to envisage the character and nature of the artificial or restored  
65 wetland, and its position within their communities. Further, there is little guidance on how to  
66 integrate community stakeholders into restoration planning (Davenport et al., 2010), and few  
67 empirical studies to show how multiple benefits can be identified and fostered alongside models to  
68 promote community governance, ownership and participation.

69 This paper explores how integrated constructed urban wetlands could offer more than a civil  
70 engineering solution for water management. In particular, we consider how such infrastructure could  
71 (i) contribute to carbon net zero targets for cities (ii) contribute to public health targets for cities and  
72 regions, such as air quality and access to greenspace (iii) meet local community needs and (iv) offer a  
73 viable proposition with a manageable legacy. The research draws on a proposed urban wetland site in  
74 Glasgow (Scotland) as a case study. The research critically assesses the viability and sustainability of

75 adopting an integrated approach for urban wetland planning. Further, the case study presents a model  
76 for growing community resilience through a bottom-up process for carbon net zero aligned place-  
77 making, where an iterative methodology for asset-based development is developed through  
78 engagement with local stakeholders as a pathway to net zero futures.

## 79 *2. A PLACE-BASED APPROACH PATHWAY TO ACHIEVING NET ZERO*

80 The United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development provides a shared blueprint for peace  
81 and prosperity for people and the planet, now and into the future, as envisaged through the  
82 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Scotland signed up to the SDGs in 2015, and the SDGs are  
83 reflected as vision statements in Scotland's National Outcomes (Scottish Council for Voluntary  
84 Organisations, 2018) and Scotland's 4th National Planning Framework (Scottish Government, 2020).  
85 Scotland has shown consistent international leadership on climate action (SDG13). It's world leading  
86 carbon emissions reduction targets enshrined in law commit Scotland to net zero by 2045 with the  
87 interim target to reduce emissions by 75% by 2030 compared with 1990 (Climate Change (Scotland)  
88 Act 2009 (as amended by the Climate Change (Emissions Reduction Targets) (Scotland) Act 2019).  
89 Regional climate action is even more ambitious. For example, in 2014, Glasgow City Council set  
90 targets to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 30% by 2020 (Glasgow City Council, 2014), achieving this goal  
91 5 years ahead of target. In May 2019 the city council declared a climate and ecological emergency,  
92 subsequently setting a target to become carbon neutral by 2030, with a vision to become one of the  
93 most sustainable cities in Europe (Glasgow City Council, 2020).

94 Approaches to implement these sustainability and climate ambitions range from national to local.  
95 Scotland's Climate Change Plan 2018 – 2032, updated in December 2020, increases policy ambitions  
96 to cut greenhouse gas emissions across all sectors. The Plan outlines investment commitments  
97 specific to blue-green infrastructure, including the transformation of vacant and derelict land to

98 enable maximum environmental and community benefit, nature-based solutions, and flood risk  
99 management. Importantly, the Plan also emphasizes an iterative approach to delivering the transition,  
100 and place-based approach, with ongoing planning system reforms to enable planning to focus more  
101 on places and people - in particular to support sustainable cities and communities. Indeed, SDG11  
102 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) calls for the development of capacities to support integrated  
103 and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries. This is in recognition  
104 that to tackle the range of interconnected environmental, social and economic challenges facing cities  
105 and communities worldwide, a more holistic, collaborative, 'systems thinking' approach is required  
106 (Childers et al., 2015; Maes et al., 2019).

107 Since the late nineteenth century, planners have looked to large-scale infrastructure and renewal  
108 projects as solutions to society's ills - poverty and ill-health - placing trust in engineering to build  
109 community through development processes (Jacobs, 1961). These projects often ignore the root  
110 causes of social deprivation, and are articulated in response to popular short-termist public policy  
111 context at the time of planning (Finger, 2018; Greenfield, 2017). Bottom-up pathways towards social  
112 innovation on the other hand, that take more place-based approaches to development, face political  
113 challenges in their attempt to scale and become sustainable (Horgan and Dimitrijević, 2021). Open  
114 and agile approaches to development necessitate strong governance, ownership and participation -  
115 qualities that can be acquired by the community through the process of social innovation itself. As a  
116 process towards sustainability, social innovation is an inherently collaborative practice in which  
117 communities participate in decision-making, design and delivery of local development (Horgan and  
118 Dimitrijević, 2021). Such participation is critical; in the same way that sustainability refers to a  
119 process in which an ecosystem develops capacities for resilience, social innovation denotes a similar  
120 process in which sustainable outcomes are identified and worked towards. Iterative participation

121 among local or user communities in this process is therefore imperative to its success (Childers et al.,  
122 2014).

123 Place-based approaches to sustainable development aim to integrate wider social, economic and  
124 environmental goals through collaboration towards shared outcomes and socially innovative  
125 propositions for the joint management of physical assets (Horgan, 2019). The approach links to  
126 Ostrom's (2007) concepts of the 'urban commons' and the concept of human ecosystem transitions  
127 that recognises the "interconnectivity of organisms, including people as individuals and the members  
128 of institutions... and their physical environments" (Ostrom, 2007; Pickett et al. 2014). As such, a  
129 place-based approach seeks to build community resilience, restore the connection between people  
130 and place, and provide tools and capabilities to support local governance (Horgan and Dimitrijević,  
131 2018; 2019). Policy objectives such as net zero can be delivered through the adoption of place-based  
132 approaches that recognise the value of shared, co-produced social infrastructure.

133 In Scotland, the value of a place-based approach to development is translated into national policy,  
134 with place providing a spatial lens for developing community resilience. Responding to the need to  
135 facilitate better dialogue between agencies, the Scottish Government made a commitment to the  
136 'Place principle', a shared context for place-based work (Scottish Government, 2018): "a more  
137 joined-up, collaborative, and participative approach to services, land and buildings, across all sectors  
138 within a place, enables better outcomes for everyone and increased opportunities for people and  
139 communities to shape their own lives", with the principle request that "all those responsible for  
140 providing services and looking after assets in a place need to work and plan together, and with local  
141 communities". Specifically, social innovation in the built environment is enabled by the Scottish  
142 Government through commitments to the place-based approach in overarching national policy tools  
143 used by local agencies to develop specific targeted and contextual local development strategies  
144 (Ozawa-Meida and Alajmi, 2021). The Place Standard, for example, was developed with planners

145 and architects in Scotland for communities, public agencies, voluntary groups and others, and  
146 provides a simple framework to structure conversations about place within a community ecosystem  
147 (Horgan and Dimitrijević, 2019) enabling multiple actors to collaborate, plan for and measure social  
148 impact (Mitchell et al, 2014). The Place Standard tool is used across the public service in Scotland,  
149 having been used by the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland as a way to scope, measure and  
150 evaluate policy interventions in health (Mitchell et al., 2014). This is supported by guidance for  
151 community engagement in Scotland's National Planning Framework, and the Community  
152 Empowerment (Scotland) Act 2015, which mandates that communities are included in decision-  
153 making on the development of community assets. Methods for placemaking and bottom-up  
154 approaches to community and urban development - such as design thinking and participatory  
155 exercises - open up decision-making to local stakeholders, and are expected to impact governance  
156 (Horgan, 2019).

### 157 *3. METHOD: A GLASGOW CASE STUDY*

158 We adopt a case study approach to explore how constructed urban wetlands could contribute to  
159 sustainability targets for cities and regions, including net zero ambitions and place-based social  
160 innovation. The chosen site in the North East of Glasgow is an underdeveloped parkland adjacent to  
161 an old railway line and lying between three neighbourhoods, including some of the most deprived  
162 wards in Scotland. Using the Scottish Government's Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD)  
163 more than 80% of the pupils in the communities surrounding the park live in the lowest quintile  
164 (most deprived), reflected in the relatively high proportion of pupils eligible for free school meals. To  
165 the east of the park, for example, the community has a high proportion of older residents, while the  
166 number of benefit claimants is over 44% (higher than the city average) and child poverty levels are  
167 17% higher than the city average.

168 Areas of the park are subjected to medium and high risks of surface water flooding (SEPA, 2021;  
169 Figure 1) which has diminished the value and use of the land. In its currently degraded state, the park  
170 is nevertheless designated for use as recreation space, with football pitches, a children's play area and  
171 pathways used for dog walking and leisure. The parkland is managed by the city council, and forms  
172 part of a 'green corridor' being developed in the area connecting a number of parks and open spaces.

173 (ADD Figure 1 here )

174

175 The park has the potential to be a connector between the adjacent communities, but at present is  
176 viewed by them as an undervalued resource. Proposals for development in the park area have  
177 previously been suggested but to date there has been limited capacity and vibrancy in the community  
178 to lead initiatives. Nevertheless, there are existing a number of initiatives that had the potential to be  
179 aligned with a net zero future. In particular, a local church group is engaged in small-scale food  
180 production for local consumption, the local primary is actively involved with nature based learning,  
181 and there a community centre run with the support of a Community Development Trust adjacent to  
182 the park. Together these local activities formed the basis for community engagement for the proposed  
183 wetland development. Participants from these groups as well as local representatives on the  
184 community council, elected members of the city council, and other stakeholders involved in the  
185 development of other parks in the local area participated in the community discussions and framing  
186 of the wetland development (Table 1).

187 (Add Table 1 here)

188 In exploring the carbon reduction potential of a wetland development of the park, a two-phase  
189 approach was adopted. Firstly, a place-based framework was adopted to create a potential strategy for



190 developing the park site. This was conducted through a series of 14 semi-structured one to one  
191 interviews with key stakeholders, including the Small and Medium Sized Enterprise (SME) as  
192 wetland experts, key policy decision makers within the local authority, community group  
193 representatives and parkland users. Second, using the outcome of the above, two online workshops  
194 were held with community stakeholders (Table 1) seeking views and comments on the proposal,  
195 identifying potential benefits for the local communities, and also perceived barriers to enabling the  
196 development to take place. Additional research and stakeholder engagement focussed on feasible  
197 business models were held, but this is considered beyond the scope of this paper. Contemporaneous  
198 desk-based review of the carbon capture efficacy of urban wetlands and potential for income  
199 generation through carbon credit was undertaken by the research team.

#### 200 4. DATA

201 The outcome of the first stage of the process, an analysis of the interview records, was an outline  
202 schematic proposal for the site (Figure 2) that enabled exploration of benefits it might offer to the  
203 city council in meeting their carbon net zero targets, both directly through the construction and  
204 management of an artificial urban wetland, and less directly as part of an integrated community  
205 development project. This formed the input to the second stage of wider community engagement,  
206 using the schematic proposal to initiate and focus discussion.

207 (Figure 2 here)

208 In addition, the proposal formed the basis for an assessment of potential carbon reduction. The plan  
209 sought to blend different interventions designed to provide benefits in carbon reduction assisting in  
210 an understanding of the role that urban wetlands could play in contributing to net zero carbon  
211 ambitions. It drew on the recent Taskforce on Scaling Voluntary Carbon Markets (2020) report  
212 which identified that deprived neighbourhoods could benefit from carbon credits generating flows of

213 private capital into these communities. To this end, it specifically examined the potential for carbon  
214 drawdown by urban wetland systems, the factors that influence this, and the potential for generation  
215 of revenue from urban wetland carbon capture through market-based monetisation of carbon  
216 crediting. Possible business cases were developed to allow a carbon credit scheme to be adopted,  
217 using pricing, regulatory and monitoring parameters under the Peatland Core UK  
218 ([PeatlandCode v1.1 FINAL.pdf \(iucn-uk-peatlandprogramme.org\)](#)).

219

## 220 5. RESULTS

221 The case study provided an opportunity to explore two key elements of how artificial urban wetlands  
222 could possibly contribute to net zero pathways; firstly, through a direct contribution to carbon  
223 reduction and sequestration supported by carbon credit schemes; and secondly, through more indirect  
224 carbon reduction as part of an integrated community development project.

### 225 5.1 Constructed wetlands and Carbon Net Zero

226 To date, there has been notably little focus on quantifying the carbon capture potential of urban  
227 artificial wetlands, and how these could fit with net zero ambitions for communities. Existing  
228 scientific research indicates that healthy wetlands are net carbon sinks (de Klein & Van der Werf,  
229 2014). However, unhealthy or disturbed wetlands are net carbon sources (Were et al., 2019) emitting  
230 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Mitsch et al., 2012). A number of  
231 factors affect the balance of carbon sequestered and greenhouse gases emitted, including soil type,  
232 species type, hydrology and drainage, climate and abundance and species of microbial species  
233 (Mitsch et al., 2013; de Klein & Van der Werf, 2014; Were et al., 2019). Consequently, there is  
234 agreement that understanding - and engineering- a net negative carbon balance is important for  
235 ensuring the climate action objectives are met by constructed wetland initiatives (Were et al., 2019).

236 Achieving this as part of constructed wetlands however remains elusive. Relatively little is  
237 understood of the carbon balance complexities of wetlands, and there is identified need for more  
238 research in this topic (de Klein & Van der Werf, 2014; Were et al., 2019). In particular, there is very  
239 little understanding of the length of time required to establish a net negative carbon wetland system  
240 for constructed wetland. It is clear nevertheless that the way in which artificial wetlands are designed  
241 and maintained could be engineered to support the carbon sequestration potential (Were et al., 2019).  
242 For most types of wetlands, the bulk of sequestered carbon is in the soils rather than in the plant  
243 communities and thus it is when the soil rather than the surface growth is disturbed (physically, or  
244 through change in environmental conditions) that carbon release is greatest (Dušek et al., 2020).  
245 Approaches to enhance wetland carbon capture efficacy include ensuring that optimal conditions  
246 (appropriate to the specific environment or species) are maintained, or through environmental  
247 engineering approaches such as selecting soil microbial and plant communities, fine-tuning pH, or  
248 adding key nutrients or biochar (Were et al., 2019).

249 The key conclusion from this exploratory research suggested that artificial urban wetlands of the  
250 scale and form envisaged in the Glasgow case study would be unable to be justified through its direct  
251 contribution to net zero targets. That said, it also revealed significant knowledge gaps and that make  
252 any such analysis challenging.

253 Firstly, there are many uncertainties within the wetland carbon systems, with the current  
254 understanding of the occurrence and variability of carbon storage between wetland types and across  
255 regions (Carnell et al., 2018) representing a major impediment to the ability of nations to include  
256 wetlands in greenhouse gas inventories and carbon offset initiatives. To date, in current peer  
257 reviewed literature, there has been no attempt to quantify the carbon captured through urban farming  
258 initiatives associated with or enabled by the artificial wetland. As well as making the carbon capture  
259 impacts of urban wetland creation challenging to directly ascertain, this gap also brings financial

260 implications. It is difficult to quantify whether the carbon-drawdown through wetland project will be  
261 sufficient to be recognised in carbon credit schemes currently available in the UK, devaluing one  
262 obvious pathway to using wetlands as part of city-wide carbon reduction programmes.

263 The second challenge regards scaling issues; artificial urban wetlands will have a small footprint and  
264 correspondingly small carbon capture potential compared to natural wetland landscapes. Moomaw et  
265 al (2018) estimate that the area of new wetlands needed to remove 1% of the current annual increase  
266 in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is about 2,000,000 km<sup>2</sup>. As a result, emphasis on wetland carbon capture systems  
267 tends to conclude or imply that (i) priority should be on the retention of existing wetlands as their  
268 contribution is significant and difficult to replace and (ii) that new or restored wetlands have to be of  
269 significant scale globally to make a marked impact on climate change. However, this overlooks how  
270 multiple distributed small scale urban wetland systems could contribute to carbon sequestration  
271 efforts; a potential that might be realised in schemes such as Melbourne's 600 constructed wetlands  
272 project.

273 It's important to note also that, in the case study context - i.e. underused urban land - a priority for  
274 site selection was not carbon capture capacity or efficacy. Land constraints in cities and communities  
275 will likely mean that prospective sites for blue-green infrastructure will not be optimised for carbon  
276 drawdown. In that sense, carbon capture will not be a primary driver. Rather, carbon capture efficacy  
277 will be secondary or even tertiary to factors such as land value, land ownership, propensity to  
278 flooding, and other social or sustainability factors in line with local and regional priorities. This is not  
279 only important for understanding the role of SMEs in supporting carbon drawdown initiatives in the  
280 urban environment, but also important in understanding financial enablers or, put differently, the  
281 business case for blue-green infrastructure for climate action. This begs the question whether the  
282 current focus on artificial wetland creation for climate adaptation and resilience - such as storm-water  
283 management - is simply easier to constrain, and therefore justify, in an integrated approach. For the

284 case study project, given that, under current models, the selected site does not have clear value for  
285 carbon sequestration, other benefits that might be offered became increasingly important. This  
286 indicates a need for more empirical research to test the viability of business models in the community  
287 setting within different urban environments.

## 288 **5.2 Collaboration towards shared value beyond carbon**

289 In the absence of clear evidence of how urban wetlands can contribute directly to carbon reduction  
290 strategies, a new approach is required which seeks to connect urban wetlands into communities,  
291 reconceiving and repositioning artificial urban wetlands as one component of a socio-environmental  
292 ecosystem of development to contribute to carbon net zero ambitions and other associated  
293 sustainability objectives. The Glasgow case study provides one example of how such a pathway can  
294 be constructed.

295 Here an integrated approach was essential, as there was a requirement to balance the objectives of the  
296 SME (developing wetland systems) with those of the local authority (carbon net zero), and indeed the  
297 local community (improved community asset). For the SME, an expedited planning process was  
298 desirable in order to take an agile approach to testing and developing models for carbon sequestration  
299 on site. Land in local authority land ownership is therefore preferential, in particular land in areas  
300 with established surface water drainage challenges. Development on such sites necessitates a  
301 comprehensive engagement with both GCC and adjacent communities, and the consideration of  
302 longer-term strategic objectives and capacities. For the local authority, a primary concern was that  
303 any development would not add to the maintenance budget, or limit the capacity within the parks  
304 department to fund the management of costly infrastructure going forward. Aligned to this was the  
305 need to maximise community benefits from any development on public land, with an obvious social  
306 value to the local community. For all stakeholders, the need to build a business case that could marry

307 social, environmental and economic objectives became obvious in order to progress development of  
308 the urban wetlands. At this scale, as noted above, wetlands development is currently not possible  
309 using carbon credits as a business mechanism, decentising private investment. However,  
310 prototyping models for wetlands by providing public land to a profit-making enterprise without a  
311 clear social return on investment (beyond the environmental value) understandably puts councils in a  
312 difficult position.

313 Emerging from interviews with local authority departments, a number of policy objectives were  
314 identified that could allow for socially innovative business models through the combination of uses  
315 on site. In particular, these included opportunities to align additional activities on site to policy  
316 ambitions in areas such as food-security, health and education. Chief among these is the council's  
317 Glasgow City Food Plan, which seeks to increase understanding of the food system especially with  
318 regards to nutrition and sustainability, and calls for more opportunities for communities to enjoy  
319 cooking and growing together. Similarly, the city's Open Space Strategy, prioritises the long term  
320 resilience of the city in relation to issues such as climate change, liveability, and the health of its  
321 population, flora and fauna - as a partner on the Horizon 2020 funded Connecting Nature programme.  
322 Further stakeholder engagement with local schools identified specific opportunities related to  
323 Scotland's Curriculum for Excellence through outdoor learning. One school immediately opposite the  
324 site has no outdoor space whatsoever, while another buses children to another park some miles away.  
325 Dynamic policy development in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic has reiterated calls for better  
326 quality open space to allow for compliant social distancing, and to mitigate the consequences of  
327 quarantine.

328 In this case, the co-development of vacant or underused urban infrastructure such as parks and  
329 wetlands presented a focus for arriving at shared outcomes among a number of stakeholder groups  
330 seeking wider social transformation in areas related to health and well-being, and social exclusion.

331 Local community development groups saw the opportunity for spaces that accommodate services in  
332 areas such as skills and employment, sports and circular economy, alongside socially innovative  
333 provisions to support efforts related to obesity, alcohol and drug addiction. Through sensitive  
334 engagement with those key stakeholders, other community needs and benefits were identified that  
335 could be manifest on site, developed iteratively following a participatory process. In developing an  
336 early masterplan with the SME, community stakeholders proposed several early concepts for social  
337 services included allotments, outdoor classrooms and sports facilities - linking to outcomes for  
338 education, health and well-being and wider policy agendas. While concepts for the park site remain  
339 open, inviting the community into the brief-making process as early as possible will ideally raise the  
340 prospect of community support for the development in the planning process, and local ownership  
341 over any spatial intervention. For the local authority this would support a more manageable legacy  
342 outcome, the potential of literal community ownership - through community asset transfer - where  
343 the infrastructure would be ultimately devolved to the community.

344 Using this place-based approach to developing a shared vision of the park's future, a more robust and  
345 sustainable business case based on carbon reduction strategies was possible. Through innovative use  
346 of agri-technologies and wetland carbon capture to sit alongside onsite renewable energy production,  
347 reinforced by enhancing the community asset development of the site for local use and education  
348 purposes, the project demonstrated that it had the potential to contribute to the city's net zero targets.  
349 This more complex, multifunctional and multi-stakeholder was thus a more credible and achievable  
350 way in which artificial wetlands could, albeit more indirectly, be a pathway to net zero.

## 351 *6. DISCUSSION*

### 352 **Realising integrated blue-green infrastructure in practice.**

353 The case study presented here explored the multiple benefits that could be achieved through the  
354 development of an integrated constructed urban wetland. It provides a basis to establish whether and  
355 how urban wetlands could contribute to a city's net zero targets, and for testing an integrated urban  
356 planning approach to support multiple sustainability objectives.

357 Integration to support multiple co-benefits beyond water management has implications for how new  
358 urban wetlands are designed and implemented, and how they are supported in the planning process.  
359 For example, O'Donnell et al. (2017) found that in order to overcome barriers that have constrained  
360 the adoption of blue-green infrastructure, there is merit in looking beyond water management  
361 benefits, which is traditionally the central rationale for investment in wetland construction. They  
362 suggest that promoting these areas as multifunctional space can be vital to ensure local support,  
363 looking beyond what is statutory required to implement projects. Co-benefits associated with projects  
364 to reduce carbon include increased biodiversity, job creation, and health benefits from improved air  
365 quality. Communicating multiple benefits, which are contextual and extend into the socio-cultural,  
366 ecological, and economic spheres, could greatly increase public confidence and open up avenues for  
367 co-funding schemes to support development of blue-green infrastructure (Ashley et al., 2015). Active  
368 engagement supports the behavioural and cultural change required for communities to embrace  
369 artificial wetlands contrasting to traditionally speculative approaches to development in cities  
370 (O'Donnell et al, 2017). Additional synergies between green technologies and urban quality of life  
371 can also arise in areas where wetlands are a key part of an integrated water management approach.  
372 Studies in China, USA and Australia have suggested that both the distance to the nearest wetland and  
373 the number of wetlands within close proximity significantly influence a number of other property-  
374 specific and neighbourhood attributes, including social mix (Boyer and Polasky, 2004; Du and  
375 Huang, 2018; Tapsuwan et al, 2009). Since the COVID-19 pandemic in particular, there is growing



376 recognition of the role wetlands play in providing ecosystem services, improving outcomes for  
377 physical and psychological health, increased community stewardship and sense of place.

378 However, an integrated approach goes beyond public support and uptake. Without integration, the  
379 multi-functionality will be limited. Gómez Martín et al. (2021) apply a system thinking approach to  
380 assess the contribution of nature based solutions to multiple SDGs, and conclude that engaging  
381 stakeholders in the very first stages of design and implementation is key to maximising sustainability  
382 benefits. Embedded social innovation, that requires the co-construction of solutions, addresses the  
383 democratic deficit in planning at the community level giving the community oversight - and  
384 ownership - over the development process (Horgan and Dimitrijević, 2021). This follows Arnstein's  
385 (1969) scale of eight levels of community participation, and his call for improved feedback loops to  
386 facilitate knowledge transfer between the community and design team, prioritising engagement as  
387 early as possible in the design process (Arnstein, 1969). The greater partnership approach taken in the  
388 Glasgow case sits high on Arnstein's (1969) scale, moving toward delegated power and full citizen  
389 control, where targeted collaboration among stakeholders and end users can deliver impact that  
390 offsets spatial imbalances and short-termist politics in planning. Realising integrated systems in  
391 practice remains challenging, meaning that community engagement - to shape a brief and vision for  
392 development - should begin at the earliest opportunity.

393 An integrated, community embedded, approach to urban blue-green infrastructure requires changing  
394 how it is planned and delivered, seeking greater collaborative working and participation from a range  
395 of agencies with diverse remits and objectives. The Glasgow study provides a glimpse at how,  
396 through facilitated discussion with local organisations, a framework for wetlands construction could  
397 be realised in practice - transforming the currently underused land into a thriving restored ecosystem  
398 contributing to the local economy, population, and wildlife through improved environmental  
399 standards, green access, economic and career opportunities. Collective stakeholders united around the

400 concept of a ‘living lab’, providing an innovative blend of wetland outdoor and indoor agricultural  
401 production along with learning spaces and community-focused assets all linked to the creation of  
402 more sustainable and local food production, leading to better outcomes for citizens. Such a prototype  
403 could be replicated in similar living labs and facilities in other communities globally, and elaborated  
404 upon following a service design methodology to propose potential services with local citizens. The  
405 concept represents an opportunity to develop a model for genuine community engagement and  
406 participation, centring the community as key stakeholders in the co-design and co-delivery of the  
407 living lab. Linking community development projects with wider sustainability outcomes and vice  
408 versa calls for new capacities and a nuanced approach to community education and engagement.

#### 409 *7. CONCLUSIONS*

410 Artificial urban wetlands are known to bring benefits in terms of water management and habitats that  
411 contribute to the sustainability of social ecological systems. At the local level, and to ensure that they  
412 become key parts of carbon net zero pathways, investment in restorative wetlands depends on the  
413 ability to build a strong business case that considers initiatives such as carbon sequestration alongside  
414 other functions, within a holistic masterplan. Encouraged by frameworks for community resilience  
415 informed by an ecology for cities, this paper explored the potential for such blue-green infrastructure  
416 to bring other sustainable development benefits so far overlooked.

417 Drawing on a unique case study pilot project, this paper has considered possible pathways by which  
418 such wetlands can contribute direct to carbon reduction through sequestration and carbon trading, and  
419 indirectly as part of community development projects. It has sought to help fill a knowledge gap  
420 exploring how in practice artificial urban wetlands can make a contribution to carbon net zero  
421 futures. It concludes that the potential of wetlands to sequester carbon needs to be augmented by  
422 other carbon-reduction actions, including using wetlands for food production for local markets and in  
423 turn displacement of carbon-heavy transportation of food, or utilising local renewable energy sources

424 to provide heat, electricity, and potential for local grid networking to community assets. However,  
425 like many other nature-based initiatives the process of embedding projects such as the Glasgow case  
426 study into mainstream net zero strategies requires further analysis. As Bulkeley et al (2021) note,  
427 many nature-based solutions are not being implemented through long-term planning frameworks or  
428 as a result of local regulation concerning the use and management of urban nature. Instead, they are a  
429 form of governance by experimentation in which urban sustainability is pursued through a patchwork  
430 of initiatives and projects which bring together diverse actors.

431 Under such approaches, in terms of carbon capture efficacy of artificial urban wetland sites as a  
432 contribution to net zero targets, it remains difficult to identify more generic conclusions, and will  
433 likely be context specific according to factors such as environmental conditions, species, as well as  
434 maintenance. More research is needed to investigate the potential for carbon capture and  
435 environmental engineering approaches to enhance carbon drawn down, including long-term  
436 maintenance needs. At an urban scale, the carbon drawdown is likely to be small, and unlikely to be  
437 eligible for currently available carbon credit schemes. This indicated a need for research on  
438 mechanisms for modular credits for, say, city-wide artificial wetland infrastructure. In addition, the  
439 multiple constraints placed on development land in cities from the perspective of urban governance,  
440 impacts greatly on site selection, means that sites that will be most effective at capturing carbon are  
441 not always the most appropriate for urban wetlands development. For this reason, sites that help to  
442 realise other sustainability objectives where carbon is not a primary driver may realise greater co-  
443 benefit than those with optimal carbon drawdown. In this study, site selection was governed by land  
444 ownership and overall fit with strategy, which altered the values underpinning the project more  
445 generally. This process - and responsibilities of the SME to envisage wider community benefit -  
446 would have been considerably different in the context of a development on land in private ownership.

447 However, the Glasgow case study points to how significant contributions to net zero targets can be  
448 achieved associated with, for example, using local food production to help reduce and offset carbon  
449 emissions, or utilise local renewable energy sources to provide heat, electricity, and potential for  
450 local grid networking to community assets. Through experimental project-based activities with  
451 stakeholders, the living lab could be used to demonstrate the effectiveness of urban wetlands as  
452 carbon sinks, natural flood barriers and remediation tools in an urban setting. Programming use of the  
453 site for educational purposes to raise awareness of urban agri-technology solutions through education  
454 and outreach programmes, inspiring a new generation of urban farmers, agriculturalists and  
455 consumers can deliver significant indirect benefits towards net zero targets and stimulate long-term  
456 job creation in maintenance and operations for local people. Initiatives that support apprenticeship  
457 and similar schemes to upskill local people in food production and greenspace management may  
458 increase potential for community asset transfer and the local management of public assets through  
459 capacity building and participation in design and decision-making.

460 The historic focus on urban wetlands as water management tools, and as discrete landscapes  
461 separated from the surrounding built-up urban environment, has inhibited the full benefit that  
462 integrated approach can unlock. A new approach is required which seeks to connect urban wetlands  
463 into communities, reconceiving and repositioning artificial urban wetlands as one component of a  
464 socio-environmental ecosystem of development to contribute to carbon net zero ambitions and other  
465 associated sustainability objectives. The demonstrator project suggests that crucially constructed  
466 wetlands need to be integrated into wider re-development initiatives in cities, where the potential of  
467 wetlands to sequester carbon is augmented by other carbon-reduction actions. These include using  
468 wetlands for food production for local markets and in turn displacement of carbon-heavy  
469 transportation of food, and for renewable energy. The scope and realisation of such projects must be  
470 place-based and stakeholder and community led. In so doing, there is strong potential for them to

471 contribute more to climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies in cities - and indeed to  
 472 sustainable development more broadly.

473

474 Table 1: Community stakeholder engagement

475

	<b>Phase 1 interviews</b>	<b>Phase 2 online discussion group</b>
<b>Local council departments and officials</b>	Neighborhoods, Regeneration and Sustainability (NRS) Development and Regeneration Services (DRS) Parks and Gardens Sustainable Glasgow team Connecting Nature team Waste and environmental services Education Planning department	Parks and Gardens Sustainable Glasgow team Connecting Nature team Education liaison
<b>Elected community representatives</b>		Community councillors
<b>Wetland experts</b>	SME partner Agritech partner	SME partner Agritech partner Private sector growing organisations
<b>Local community representatives</b>	Community Development Trust Local primary schools	Community Development Trust Local primary schools Church food growing group Friends of (neighbouring) park Local community bowling club

476

477

478

479 *CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD STATEMENT*

480 There is growing scientific interest in using artificial or constructed wetlands as a way to mitigate the  
 481 impact of global climate change but to date little research which has explored how in practice

482 artificial urban wetlands can make a contribution to carbon net zero futures. Drawing on a unique  
483 case study pilot project, this paper considers possible pathways by which such wetlands can  
484 contribute direct to carbon reduction through sequestration and carbon trading, and indirectly as part  
485 of community development projects. It concludes that the potential of wetlands to sequester carbon  
486 needs to be augmented by other carbon-reduction actions, including using wetlands for food  
487 production for local markets and in turn displacement of carbon-heavy transportation of food, or  
488 utilising local renewable energy sources to provide heat, electricity, and potential for local grid  
489 networking to community assets. We outline through the case study how such gains can be achieved  
490 and how such projects can emerge.

491

#### 492 **Conflict of Interest**

493 *The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial*  
494 *relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.*

#### 495 **Author Contributions**

496 This paper draws on research conducted with communities and stakeholders in Glasgow. The  
497 community engagement was led by RR who was responsible for the review of previous research on  
498 artificial urban wetlands. The wider discussion on place based approaches and on the policy context  
499 was conducted by DH. JR was lead researcher on the contribution of wetlands to carbon  
500 sequestration and net zero targets.

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615

#### 616 **Data Availability Statement**

617 The datasets generated for this study can be found in the Institute for Future Cities project databased,  
618 at [www.ifuturecities.com](http://www.ifuturecities.com).