

“Rainwater Reuse in Smart Buildings”

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Abstract:

In this paper, the sustainability of rainwater reuse in intelligent buildings for combating escalating water shortages in arid zones is analyzed. As temperatures continue to rise and urbanization continues to advance, freshwater supplies dwindle, traditional water supply systems have proven incapable of sustaining. This study, therefore, suggests that RWH systems are an effective complement to smart-building technologies for better water use efficiency and reduced dependence on potable sources while building resilience against climate vagaries. This study explains the fundamentals of rainwater harvesting, storage, treatment and distribution focusing particularly on how Building Management Systems (BMS) and Internet of Things (IoT) sensors can assist in maximizing performance through automated monitoring, predictive control and demand management. A water-balance model and life-cycle approach show RWH can deliver annual reductions of 18–46% as well as environmental savings for all the broader climatic scenarios considered arid. Economic study indicates that this approach has achievable payback period, case studies from both urban and campus cases indicate practical tips, options and consideration. The report also considers regulatory regimes, economic drivers and public acceptance challenges which affect systems uptake. In conclusion, the inclusion of rainwater harvesting in smart-building infrastructure can serve as a successful adaptable and sustainable response to water resources protection in aridification-prone areas.

Keywords: Arid regions; Rainwater harvesting; Smart buildings; Sustainable water management; Water reuse; Water scarcity.

1. Introduction

2016 was among the hottest years ever recorded and included eight of the first nine months — from January through September (including June, July and August) that were each record-breakers at then. The year also saw record heat in both the land and oceans of the northern hemisphere, where temperatures soared to a new high for July. Sea-level rise is global, with a global mean sea level rising by about one third of a metre by 2050 and by 1 m at 2100 under high greenhouse gas emission scenarios, which has potential impacts on many coast cities (Hay et al. On May 5, 2024, two days after San Francisco International Airport had never before seen 6.42 inches (163 mm) of rain in a period of 24 hours recorded, Mayor Edward Lee declared a state of emergency and ordered the Department of Public Works to clear many flooding hotspots around town, help out local residents and businesses with equipment like sandbags, and remove once-and-for-all debris as these big rainstorms which were predicted by the National Weather Service were on their way. More than 420 Bio-Retention Cisterns have been implemented in San Francisco that are designed to start at the gutter and flow through a series of spears and rock [1].2.

2. Background and Rationale

Up to one-third of the world's population is currently living under severe water scarcity in 2015. Population increase is also one of the main causes of urbanization in megacities in developing countries. Together, they result in greater water needs and a growing water crisis. Water To provide water in the future, we need to explore large sources of water. Preserving the available water resources is therefore crucial. According to Way et al. [2], rainwater retention is also worth consideration, particularly in climatic regions that support it. It could even be termed an ecologically and economically sound method if one thinks of saving on transport and collection, as well as local irrigation. However, available studies mainly focus on large scale systems applied in public buildings but ignore building-integrated RWH. Smart buildings can collect rainwater for nonpotable purposes, such as toilet flushing, decreasing the carbon footprint in certain arid regions with limited water. Abrantes et al. [3] only refers that rainwater can be collected from roofs or external walls. The unmet demand for rainwater harvesting systems, especially the building integrated ones in arid environments, is still a challenging problem.

Smart buildings (Figure 1) The definition of a smart building corresponds with the vision of next generation building-management systems which utilize information and communication technologies to autonomously control a wide range of applications in the field such as mechanical, lighting, heating, cooling and security systems, resulting in reduced energy consumption. BIPV- Building Integrated Photovoltaic is an energy generated on facade/roof of building. Solar energy and rainwater harvesting together in the context of smart buildings can be promising for arid regions with the challenge of water shortage. Gardels [4] stress that urbanization and total water requirements are developed dramatically wherever in the world it may be. It is also estimated that at least 18 countries worldwide could potentially face water stress by the year 2025 and

20 countries by the year 2050. Alternative water-supply options need to be considered, therefore, in addition to those derived from traditional avenues. Parts of South-West Asia and the USA also already have per capita annual water availability of less than 1,700 m³. The global radiative cooling of the earth-atmosphere system, water variability, and snow cover are still high. Varying amounts of rain fall also world wide which some regions get heavy rainfall and others severely drought and facing the problem for stress for water shortage.

Fig. 1 Rainwater Harvesting System – Concept & Components



2.1. Water Scarcity in Arid Regions

Water is a vital resource for social and economic development, productivity and ecosystem fitness [4]. In most already-urbanized regions of the world, including much of the US, there is growing evidence for water scarcity. Cities are expanding and fresh water is in increasingly short supply or restricted. The above-mentioned alternative water saving measures, such as those limiting demand on resources or water reuse (graywater treatment, rainwater utilization and other waster recycling systems) could also play a role for future management of waster resources. And in water-starved areas like the Southwestern United States, it will be essential for future growth to expand recycling of water.

The prevention and remediation of rainwater irrigation should be carried out in arid regions with severe water shortage. There are several methods for recycling water within the household, such as reusing greywater (previously used water drained from sinks, showers and bathtubs) treated or untreated, reclaimed wastewater (treated effluent) on a large scale which is not generally viable for rainwater harvesting systems), water storage tanks like cisterns to store the harvested rainwater or treating the runoff in place before it is discharged to another location. Using the second is frequently also that option for the environment and economy. However, individual water recycling projects would still need to be assessed on the location and building-by-building basis as future weather patterns and regulations evolve.

2.2. Principles of Rainwater Harvesting

Rainwater harvesting as a convenient decentralized alternative source of supply is an on-site reuse practice for urban areas. Depending on adopted approach, it provides different levels of integration with the existing infrastructure. Systems may be of a simple or complex design and consider back-up supply, treatment and end use applications.

Rainwater is collected from the roof of a building, usually via a cistern or holding tank and then used for immediate use. Unrequired runoff is commonly directed to a storm drain and then released. Distributed systems offer the choice of locations for installation and potential to reduce pipe run lengths, but they may need to be more accurately sized to prevent spillage.

Collection and distribution characteristics, designed for simple installation are contained in a compact single-family home, condo or town-house unit. Typical products include a pre-fabricated and waterproofed underground storage tank, an automated pump station with integral controls, prefabricated filtration before and after storage with the capacity for monitoring of filter clogging and optional features such as emergency overflow kits for connection to on-lot drainage. Pre- and post-storage filters may also include minor treatment capacity.

An illustration of house AI-generated content of the image above may not be accurate. Catchment design, conveyance sizing, filtration before storage and contamination control all fall under the broad umbrella of rainwater harvesting principles. Typical runoff-coefficient values can be 0.8 (most roofs), 0.5 (asphalt pavements) and 0.25 (concrete and other impervious pavements) [5]. Estimates based on volume help identify robust design capacity based on temporal mode of rainwater collection. Rainwater capture should be considered as a building-permit requirement and can be defended in terms of quantitative benefits within the framework of water resources management." Factorial analyses (occupancy, roof runoff, season, building-appliance use and aquifer deposit) approximate previous stochastic methods.

Commercial and institutional buildings with large roof areas are achieving good hydraulic-volume factors, and the results of water-conservation upgrades have been impressive. For around (when applicable) and shell-storage radial-pumped designs, simple inexpensive lids are used. Water-distribution sensors may include flow monitors, pressure switches or current monitoring of electrical usage. Tele-measurement technology has remote monitoring capabilities which are tele-meters with simplex operation over copper or fiber optic wire media, and wireless automation radio wave systems [6].

2.3. Smart Building Technologies and Integration

Integrating smart building technologies into rainwater harvesting systems allows for optimization of operations, ensuring efficient use of water resources and extending the life of equipment. A smart building typically employs a building management system (BMS) as shown in Fig. 2. to control lighting, heating, air conditioning, security, and other building functions. Such systems include sensors that collect and share data on parameters such as temperature and lighting levels, opening the door to advanced data analysis. The miniaturization and cost reduction of sensors and controllers have led to widespread adoption of the Internet of Things (IoT), in which multiple devices connected to a cloud platform enables remote monitoring and control. Using controls that can coordinate multiple devices and run advanced analytics enables users to discover patterns, optimize settings, conduct predictive maintenance, and demonstrate compliance with regulations [4].

Research on residential water reuse has identified smart controllers as a major driver of water savings, allowing more complex equipment arrangements combined with less-than-optimal design to remain viable. A high degree of integration obviates the need for a separate controller while enabling other BMS and smart-building functions to be applied. Such retrofits will likely be useful for many existing commercial, institutional, and industrial buildings, particularly as more locations adopt regulations that favour or require rainwater or other nonpotable water use [3].

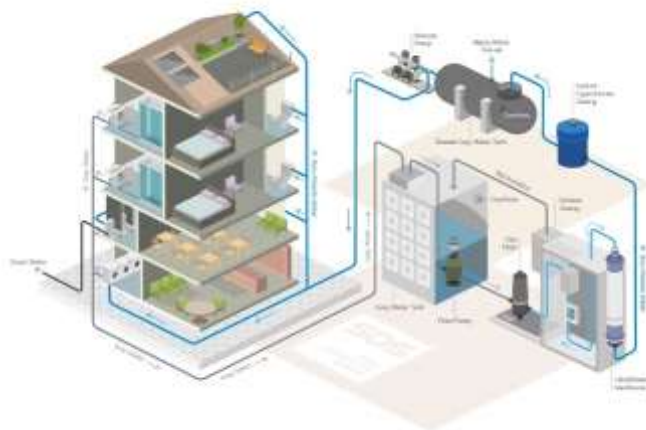


Fig. 2 Smart Building Integration – BMS, IoT, Automation

3. System Architecture and Components

Briefly, a rainwater harvesting system includes the collection of water from precincts or other surfaces followed by its transmission to another location where it is filtered and stored before being utilised in an isolated fashion [4]. There are several systems, components and principles that can reduce potential for contamination, whilst also being reliable in

operation, consistent with smart building integration and flexible in the face of new regulations.

Unfiltered water may be collected from an impervious surface and channeled or directed into a reservoir, underground or elevated including cisterns. Rainwater harvesting combined with building management softwares (BMS) offers the possibility to combine harvested sources with potable ones with flexibility without facing extensive treatment trains [1]. Rainwater reuse can be divided into treatment train or demand management.

For non-potable uses intermittent supply and varying quality usually requires some treatment, though many examples of greywater or stormwater is pre-treated at buildings locally before being discharged into the sewerage system. Urban impervious water reuse 5.1. Health and safety Health and safety concerns have traditionally focussed on the potential of stormwater exposure to hazardous contaminants (Heraty, 1983). Governments regulate rainwater for drinking in Australia where there is a direct route transmission via harvesting or by requiring passage through an extensive treatment train if it travels from impervious surfaces exposed to dusts, vehicle emissions etc. This includes walkways as observed when examining rain tank research conducted in Sydney after helicopters carried out low level flying bridge inspection works (James et al., 2012). The regulations would also limit urban impervious water reuse that may be contaminated either through vandalism or malfunction favouring larger than necessary collection area per user. Or is it possible that there are no laws against catchment unless your system is attached to the domestic supply and therefore a little bit of leeway is given in peak use times [3].

3.1. Catchment and Conveyance

Rainwater harvesting is executed in the natural hydrological cycle to capture and utilize rain flowing off buildings that can be divided into three distinct elements- collection, storage and filtering, distribution, and use [7]. Material and design of catchment are important factors which decide the runoff that can be harvested: an historical approach to supplement water for crop irrigation and domestic consumption in arid/semi-arid regions is rainwater harvesting treated in roofs as a catchment allowing estimation on quantity problems of water. Hydraulic and structural analysis of rainwater harvesting systems such those covered in this study seeks a hydraulic model embracing each component of the supply, starting from catchment area responsible for collection of the rainwater [8]. Thus, it is vital to initially grasp the volume of direct runoff generated by building rooftops since this primarily depends on the depth of rainfall and the extent of catchment size. Building level rainwater harvesting systems in urban areas are believed to have the highest potential for mitigating inefficient conventional drainage of urban runoff at the watershed level as they yield peak flow and volume which otherwise would have entered the watershed's drainage system. Hydraulic modeling specifies how additional characteristics may change with different operational conditions, as well as seasonal and more temporal changes; the availability of a stand-by water source increases reliability. Water shortage issues are increasing across the world, particularly in arid regions, where freshwater demand is rising [1]. In water-scarce countries, where the conventional water system is largely set up here i.e. Listing rainwater harvesting as an opportunity to improve urban water Management (this is in addition to keeping roof tops clean and educating community members on the benefits of rainwater) In these nations it is increasingly difficult to devote budgets from urban water sector investments for "developing" a rainwater harvesting market.

3.2. Storage Systems

A functional rainwater harvesting system includes five key components: collection, conveyance, storage, treatment and use. The first 3 elements are the hydrological subsystem [7], and treatment and demand management are the hydraulic subsystem. An integrated system including both subsystems is necessary for the management of rainwater. The design of the catchment, conveyance and storage system is therefore important, as are decisions about how to treat water and manage demand. The cloud-to-tap idea serves as a symbolic representation of the interconnectedness of water capture and digital systems. L'accompagnement numérique par les objets connectés (IoT) et par la gestion technique de bâtiment facilite le suivi qualité de l'eau, la commande des systèmes de désinfections et la collecte des données d'exploitation pour le contrôle performance. Intelligent building technologies can facilitate enhanced controls and financial viability of rainwater systems.

In contrast to centralised supply schemes, storage reliability for rainwater harvesting is highly temporally and spatially fluctuated [6]. The differences are partially due to rainfall patterns. Commercial light-industrial building catchments in humid climates are defined by roof areas and rarely do overflows occur, making this a reliable storage system. Arid locations, on the other hand (like those in the Middle East and North Africa), have low annual precipitation, high intra-annual variability and seasonal variability, as well as limited heavy rainfall events. On a finer scale, rainfall events in arid regions are

temporally concentrated such that there is an extended duration between rainfall. Therefore, the water needs of lawns and gardens cannot be satisfied solely with summer rain.

3.3. Treatment and Quality Assurance

Let's not forget the coronavirus, and its potential to contaminate any rainwater you may collect. Safe reuse of rainwater requires some treatment to prevent contamination and establish the level that will allow facility-specific requirements to be met. Clearly defined objectives for treatment must be set at the onset: these may variously include particle load, the bioconversion of pathogens and organic contaminants, control of 'objectionable' taste and odour (OT&O), pH, salinity, COD (chemical oxygen demand), turbidity or color. [4] Treatment options that are used include the following: granular media filtration; ultrafiltration and microfiltration membranes; membrane bioreactors; slow sand filtration; adsorption systems for taste and odor reduction; ultraviolet light disinfection; chlorination, if necessary, to control microbial growth in the distribution system. Implementation of real-time or flow-based surveillance system for system validation and performance measurement is necessary [9]

Performance assessment, cost-benefit analysis and operation and maintenance aspects are the criteria for selecting treatment alternatives. And to optimize your water savings, it's natural that you would want on-demand control from the tank for non-potable fixtures. In such situations, a simple prefiltration and disinfection system will generally suffice. Unless the building automation system allows, surplus rainwater for non-potable use can be limited to just the outside supply when the tank is not full enough to support toilet flushing to minimize capital costs. A typical treatment train of a settling followed by ultra-violet disinfection is used for such systems but with an automatic flush water system to keep the inlet end clear as shown in Fig 3.

Uv light spectrum diagram Please note that AIT is an algorithm based artificial intelligence (and still need to be verified) may fool you.

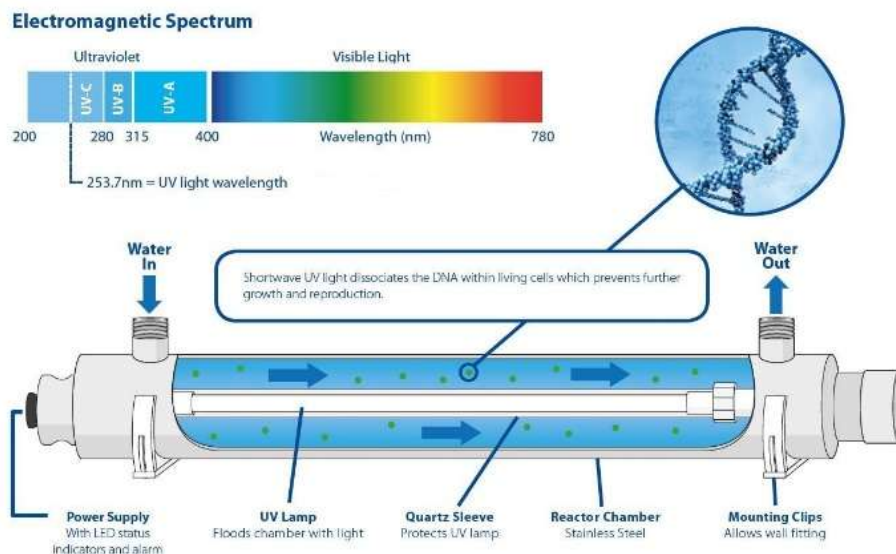


Fig 3 The Basics of Ultraviolet (UV) Disinfection

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Uv light spectrum diagram Please note that AIT is an algorithm based artificial intelligence (and still need to be verified) may fool you. Fig 3 What you need to know about UV Disinfection

3.4. Demand Management and Distribution

To compensate for peak cyan water demand in urban environments, an oversized rainwater harvesting system might be installed. By a holistic demand management scheme, the excess of blue water delivered can be transported to treatment plant or other building precinct using the same supply network [6]. Rainwater harvesting smart buildings can peak shave using demand management methodologies. These solutions are widely used in smart water distribution systems to ensure service continuity at times of severe water stress [8]. Generally, the concept of demand management can be described as an application of appropriate control measures to reduce agreed consumption of treated potable water [1].

Demand management strategies may include one or more options: imposition of water use restrictions, economic adjustments to influence demand, provision of incentives for reduced use and behaviour change towards a lower volume. A smart building integrated with a rainwater harvesting system after all could do any number of things to help combat the consumption of cyan water at an urban level. Advanced demand side management systems are implemented as a network of many devices coupled to a communication infrastructure. Within each building, meters could measure cyan water usage and control systems adjust to minimize additional demand. Both systems should be able to operate as a standalone unit, for increased efficiency and more features such smart cluster architecture outside connections between modules can be used. The generation of a mean occupancy state for the buildings of the surroundings could be identified, enabling future renovation cycles and conditioning further demand management around: THE URBAN PRECINCT.

3.5. Control Systems and Automation

A control or water management system (WMS) is critical for monitoring, controlling and automating the process of rainwater harvesting. Automation of activities for rainwater systems related to overflow control, prefilters, pumps and distribution, as well all other data can be applied to the water quality monitoring [10]. Logic can be fixed or variable (as a function of rainfall, amount left in the tanks etc.) to control how often or how much is reused, when it returns to the mains and similar. For models like this type of logic, the data required are measured water volumes (e.g. How much soil moisture should there be) for direct system behaviour and accumulation analysis, use of rainwater continues (i.e consumption rate), and Planner weather data to predict when it will rain next.

Excellent compatibility with other building devices. BMSs monitored HVAC equipment control and scheduling; energy, water use; and potentially rainwater reuse Enabling net-zero-water conductive rainwater supplies prediction capability Building Management Systems (BMS) governed the control of heating, cooling and ventilation systems as well as water consumption, could also monitor rainwater reuse Consulta. For fire, irrigation and the power-generation-water systems, more water can be simulated to be reused if their usage baseline is established; simple forecasting for these systems can then also be utilized.

4. Performance and Sustainability Assessment

As such, rainwater harvesting in buildings is considered a strategic adaptation practice for arid regions. Capture potential is quantified by water-balance models of five climate scenarios, and life-cycle assessment includes impacts from embodied, operational, and end-of-life stages. The resulting models provide estimates of system sustainability under a range of climates and demonstrate potential water savings between 36% and 85% in the peak month for outdoor watering (July) and by as much as 18-46% across an entire year. Cost analysis covers capital cost, power consumption and planned maintenance, showing a payback period of 4-7 years for given circumstances. Climate sensitivities are quantified through a drought-triggered analysis routine with iterative adjustments and roof area, storage volume, and discharge tariff emerge as significant contributing factors to the capture potential. The study indeed suggests that rainwater harvesting is a possible adaptation to continued aridification around the world [18].

4.1. Water Balance Modeling

Crust in a pie chart of various colored circles AI Generated content may be wrong. Rainwater-harvesting (RWH) systems coupled with smart building controls can enable substantial water savings in diverse climates and types of buildings [1]. Solid quantitative performance data nonetheless are rare, impeding confidence in the assessment of feasibility and design optimization. Water balance modeling offers a quantitative methodology to predict RWH performance and sensitivity analyses of key design variables. The modeling approach, input data and scenario study applied to answer the following research questions are described as follows: How much water can be saved by implementing the rainwater harvesting approach in this paper? How robust is the suggested approach to climate variation and uncertainty? A water balance model calculates annual and monthly building water demand to determine rainwater reuse catchment area and storage volume. To evaluate the influence of climate variability, the model contrasts expected performance under actual demand conditions with worst-case monthly demands in a historical record of climate. A baseline for these inputs was assumed to be that of Abu Dhabi, UAE: a desert climate, Mohenji (2018) Rain-fed agricultural management practices and challenge 7 increasing water needs resulting from urbanization, an average annual temperature of 31.0 °C predicted value; rainfall amounting to about 0.045 mm/day; and severe groundwater salinity [6]. The required water demand and recovery numbers also serve to quantify adaptive design needs for designing weather variability (alternative OPERATING) and parallel design options that achieve performance while tuning their parameters to even the most adverse residual assumptions.

4.2. Life-Cycle Assessment

The life-cycle analysis of full-scale potable reuse scenarios can involve numerous factors that have defined metrics. These factors may also be useful to evaluate rainwater harvesting for non-drinking uses. With this in mind, the assessment of rainwater harvesting is presented much in the same way as other assessments described in a series of measures developed according to guidelines suggested by the National Research Council (NRC) [9] regarding alternative urban water sources analysis. Life-cycle assessments of this nature assess energy and carbon impacts, hydraulic performance, economic sectors and environmental outcomes at various system life stages [2]. Sustainability is considered through 5 criteria: (1) Total material requirements, (2) production-based CO₂ emissions, and (3) hydrological alteration, and 4 Pointers Water Conservation and 5 Demand for water. In this analysis, the first three indicators follow the consequences of energy generation, whereas the last two indicate the conservation goals in place within the system just mentioned. These 5 factors are used in an urban system sustainability index but can be applied to RWH as well [4].

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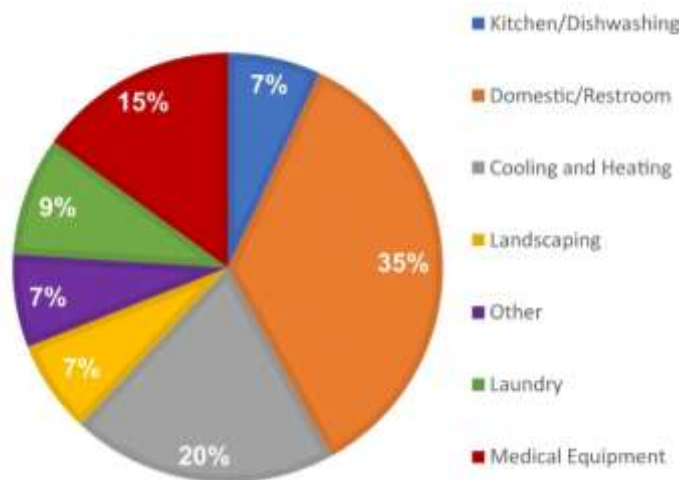


Fig 4 Hospital water end uses

4.3. Economic Viability and Cost-Benefit Analysis

Rainwater harvesting is an option with potential to save water in smart buildings, but its economic performance needs to be assessed in order to conclude if it is feasible and how much the system depends on the scenarios proposed. Cost data (both capital and operating) and anticipated maintenance have been summarized for a range of rainwater systems. Cost benefit analysis, or simply payback period calculation, is a useful analytical tool; payback estimates are modestly low (7 years suggesting that rainwater reuse systems would be cost effective under normal circumstances of azimuth 233.5 and new roofs meeting the revised 1998 standards.

Rainwater systems are typically cost-effective in most of the world's arid and semi-arid areas; longer payback periods may also be acceptable if other supplementary benefits, such as reduced vulnerability to climate variability and drought, are considered. In several areas experiencing in some instances an increased number of days without direct rainfall, future projections reveal more increases in such days which will make rainwater systems even more attractive. The deviation of climate, which resulted in the beginning of droughts in some parts of the world seems to have taken place also with azimuth 233.5 being largely hit; different adaptations ways that go beyond rainwater systems have been suggested [4]; [11].

4.4. Resilience and Adaptation under Climate Variability

Large Scale and Commercial Rainwater Harvesting UK Specifics of the natural climate variability in areas such as northern Mexico need to be taken into account when devising adaptation measures for buildings, where rainwater harvesting systems are used as an example [12]. In view of the high pressures due to on-going urbanisation, principle of precaution implies staged supply. 6) in the perception of impulses tending to the investment necessary for decoupling supply, from 30 to only 10–15 years by large technological solutions at a global scale. Furthermore, drainage, recycled water and aquifer recharge as well as waterless urinals and other overplayed possibilities are left behind on society's way early in a process while decentralised water purification is no more than an intermediate stage towards affordability of large-scale systems today. Contrasted with this is the vast potential offered by tiny in-building installations that are still compatible with the conventional system for short term relief of supply, demand, quality and convenience problems. Even so, diminishing urban densities

and increasing consumption continue to further reduce the already marginal case even for these water recapture beginners; let alone for continuation once coverage of rainfall imperviousness declines sharply

5. Design Guidelines and Case Studies

An illustration of a building that has a pool So for all I know, we could be wrong. As depicted in Fig 5, an illustrative procedure for the design of rainwater reuse system in smart buildings in dry regions is presented. By analyzing existing and future water demands, laws, and recommendations a system can be designed with design standards and performance goals that are appropriate for the unique circumstances of each site. The retrofit of a water-reuse system in an existing urban building where space was limited and community participation minimal is described as the first case; while development from the design stage of a campus-scale building with modularised input to both landscape irrigation and toilet flushing, similar to that shown in Fig 6, are discussed as the second study.



Fig 5 Smart Sustainable Drainage System

Therefore, it is concluded that system works satisfactorily— rainwater for reuse showed successful systems to be applied in two types of environments typical for arid regions - an existing sited midrise urban building with tight boundaries of the site, and campus shaped on new construction aiming at optimal land use and the less sloping length. The two cases are briefly summarised here and some of the lessons learned from their realisation in terms of increasing probability for successful future installations. Performance indicators are provided to illustrate replicability to other contexts. Particular attention is given to the remote monitoring and the mobile access to system information.

5.1. Design Methodology for Arid Environments

CC has intensified drought in several parts of the world. Starting in 2010, Al Ain in the UAE has had its worst drought on record according to the U.A. E's National Centre of Meteorology. Overall, the arid and semi-arid regions of the world must deal with enhanced climate variability and require a holistic approach towards climate resilience, covering priorities for water energy nexus. Hence, the INTeGrated Water Transport (INWAT) Management System project at Massachusetts Institute of Technology is developing systems-level models, metrics and decision support tools to evaluate trade-offs in integrated water & transport challenges within an urban system. State-of-the-art technologies Currently advanced technologies are the rainwater collecting systems in smart buildings [6]. Such systems save potable water resources and require less treatment energy relative to greywater or wastewater even if the former utilises the cisterns treated, due to the fact that rainwater by nature is less polluted than wastewater, hence a better performance in customers of water-energy relationship [4].



Fig 6 Rainwater Harvesting

Design standards for rainwater harvesting systems are the cornerstone in grounding its realistic application on the level of smart buildings and decision-making tools. A methodology for designing the rainwater harvesting system in an intelligent building was presented. It addresses the particular context of arid zones and directs advancement through identification of site or local standards. Through characterization of catchment, storage, treatment, use and monitoring aspects permit an in-depth evaluation of rainwater reuse systems in smart buildings and provides a further step towards the deployment of water conservation strategies for arid climate scenarios.

5.2. Case Studies: Urban and Campus Contexts

Rainwater use as a path to sustainability in urban and campus environments: Application of the methodology to a commercial building in Bogotá, and research campus in Mexico City. Water balance and economic analysis of the building revealed that a rainwater- collection system could achieve a high degree of autonomy, as seen with residential projects in comparable microclimates (although more difficult for commercial property and functional types). The college and university system also demonstrated the potential for satellite systems to have clear impacts, with rainwater contributing to both potable and non-potable needs via combined moderation and dual supply controls under drought.

The purpose of this section is to summarize the case studies and to present lessons learned from them along with consideration for transferring rainwater-harvesting systems successfully. The lessons learned and tools generated therefore may help different contexts to achieve water-sustainability targets more efficiently.

5.3. Lessons Learned and Transferability

Rainwater harvesting is an important measure for climate change adaptation and to address the fresh water supply problem in smart building technology placed in arid areas. The cases analysed show that these facilities are viable and provide climate change adaptation to the buildings where they are intended. However, it is desirable to increase the performance of such systems. For that purpose, the following lessons can be extracted from these studies. Designing a Rainwater Harvesting system consideration should be given during the initial design stage. Building-efficient modeling tools, like those from EnergyPlus, should be applied during design to determine how the rain can best be used to meet water-reuse requirements.

Design and operational factors constraining rainwater harvesting Some design parameters need to be addressed when developing rainwater harvesting. Two, size of tank is to be calculated by the people's probabilistic methods. When the quality of the rainwater collected allows, direct use should then be considered. Third, roof spa- paired bathroom fixtures to allow recycling of rainwater. Fourthly, any approach relying on drinking water to enhance the quality of harvested rainwater must be avoided. Best practice is to only clean surface water for reuse with captured rainwater if this is possible. Rooftops and terraces are the most suitable surfaces for capturing as much rainwater that falls but is not used for immediate reuse. Weather-based (remote) controlling of the rainwater tank discharge is one of the best practices that enables better

management of the system. Finally, the use of an early prototyping and design-simulation tool allows us to be able to test soon and extensively how multiple technical, climate and users' criteria will be achieved after the project. These findings are applicable to other arid and semi-arid areas as well, that face the same challenges across the world. For wet climatic zones there may be very young system, but lessons can be sought through standards and practice as applied in tropical zone.

6. Policy, Regulation, and Governance

Smart regulatory, financial and other governance support helps promote the market development of rainwater reuse system in Smart Buildings. Today's codes and permitting continue to slow deployment, even as acceptance among the public increases. Perception, stakeholder engagement and establishment of the right governance frameworks are important to achieve compliance with the required regulation identification and promotion of incentives. While a guidance document may be useful to inform authorities and the public about the technology, it might not be the best of options for facilitating an acceleration of implementation in the short term [4].

As rainwater harvesting can have other benefits beyond general water reuse, specific regulation of its use including recognition and exemption from full wastewater reuse permits should be considered. Generally, rainwater reuse could enhance climate-resilient urban development as private/non-state actors play a role in investing, constructing and sustaining the water systems. Flexible arrangements, which enable investors to recoup some of their investment through water user fees and charges, also promote the uptake. But the growing attention to developing publicly financed alternatives to big, costly, and skill-demanding water supply options by means of smart rainwater harvesting systems widens and makes more complex this institutional matrix [13].

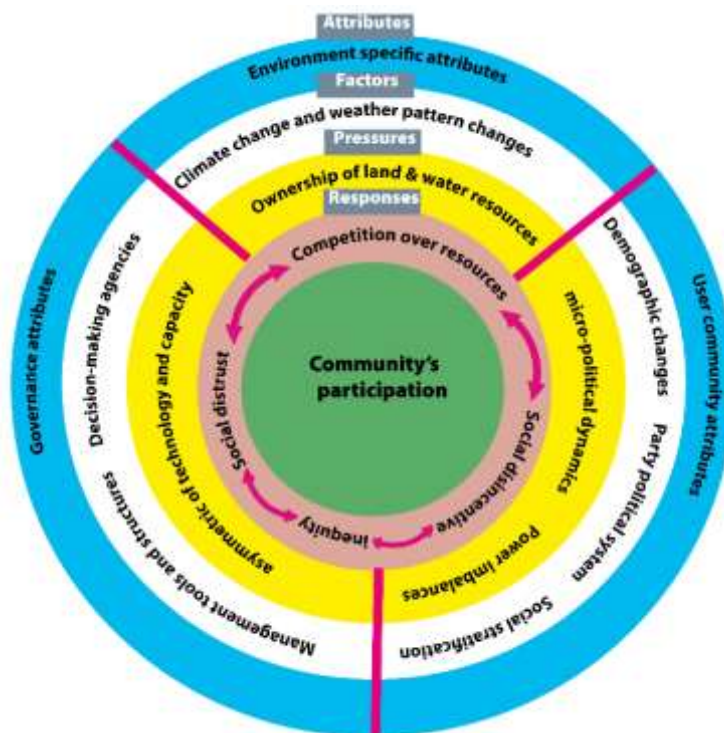


Figure 5. Conceptual framework for analyzing the impacting factors of the community participation.

6.1. Standards and Certification

There are no specific guidelines or standards for rainwater harvesting in either general rainwater harvesting schemes, nor specifically about integrating rainwater harvesting with smart building concept in Abu Dhabi and the U.A.E. But internationally, different governments have different regulations and code of practices for the construction and/ or operation of RWH systems. Rainwater collection and treatment equipment The Institute has published codes of practice for Rainwater harvesting, & greywater treatment from property. They set out criteria for the design, installation and operation of rainwater harvesting schemes, describe terms used in this context and provide guidance on how to select and use cost-effective materials and components for these installations. The Building Regulations 2000 detail technical standards in England and Wales for sanitation, hot water safety, and water efficiency. Such as the United Kingdom Government has published several advisory papers on system design for rainwater or greywater. These studies include the best practice guidelines for the use of rainwater or greywater in homes, water saving potential of household recycled greywater and stored rainwater, and energy and carbon implications of RWH and GWR [7] [2].

6.2. Financing Mechanisms and Incentives

In reaction to the financial limitations of potential rainwater reuse adopters, a combination of financing and incentive instruments is recommended. First, technical and economic aid networks. These are meant to encourage better recovery of capital and prevent asset abandonment because of construction challenges, lengthy return periods, and claimed performance over-promising [3]. Such measures may include design and construction assistance with pilot projects to demonstrate adaptation and lengthen regulation approval process thereby promoting the use of more comprehensive reuse systems. Technical solutions do in fact raise the overall economic suitability [14]. A second mechanism is the grant or exemption of taxes, fees or duties. Contrary to the loans, pre-existing funds invested in various associations or transfers can directly facilitate capital recovery through partial investment or exemption. Thirdly, financial support to planning and verification. Supply-demand modelling is still crucial and needs comprehensive analyses over the operational period of water-reuse systems. Standardised guidelines are recommended for these reasons to improve project credibility and promote ownership [8]. Such financial instruments and incentives, defined as complementary or alternative instruments within the framework of general fundraising, also ensure new system construction by offering additional added collision to complete rainwater - reuse systems.

6.3. Stakeholder Engagement and Public Acceptance

Public acceptance and stakeholder involvement are crucial for the application of rainwater reuse technologies in smart buildings, including potential end users [15]. As already mentioned, several obstacles can be identified that restrict the application of water management technologies and participation is necessary for systems to meet user needs. Stakeholder issues and perceptions concerning rainwater are similar to ones already encountered with established practices like greywater reuse or reusing treated wastewater. Perceptions If the public use of treated rainwater is considered for non-potable purposes, attitudes are often fear and an attitude of hesitant due to not knowing risks, quality and look concerns. Awareness levels are growing with SWM and rainwater reuse being discussed more commonly, a need for public education and participation continues to be crucial. Creating space for community discussion can facilitate integration and acceptance of rainwater systems.

7. Challenges, Risks, and Mitigation Strategies

The issue of reusing rainwater to use is complicated in arid areas. Main risks are failure of recovery and contamination leading to a loss of viability. Realization of these weaknesses, together with proper protection, can alleviate the most pressing fears. Smart building philosophy also adds to the resiliency and performance.

Reduced catchment yield Building roof area is a limiting factor in some cases, when there are very small roofs. Therefore, accurate calculation of optimum roof area for theoretical and practical collection is a matter of system feasibility. Dirty or ill-maintained catchments represent another big threat. An integrated cleaning and maintenance policy supported by rigorous documentation and monitoring will, however, reduce this risk significantly.

Both direct and indirect reuse, combined with system complexity as well as associated public-health and water-quality risks,

can present obstacles to implementation. Adhering to national and international standards, guidelines, and regulatory instruments provide conformity to established norms. Being able to rely on existing knowledge bases also helps the certification process [16].

That such technologies are expensive to acquire; they rely too much on grants, and that some systems are perceived as being insufficiently designed or modelled might also resist uptake. A thorough evidence base and rational modelling of costs and benefits financial, but also non-financial can reinforce the business case. A coherent and persuasive account over the physical, operational and economic independence provided by RWH can also raise competition⁴.

Unequal access to some technologies could lead the most fortunate among us to unfair advantages in life. Universal or inclusive design frameworks can ensure the participation of marginalised groups. One such solution involves, for example, the provision of proportional online training modules that would allow smaller providers to implement a gradual approach and climb up their way in receiving more complex help.

Privacy invasion, which could be caused by system monitoring, may dissuade monitoring and inhibit ongoing improvement. Thoughtful design of monitoring objectives can facilitate the collection of needed information with privacy being safeguarded. Exploring decentralised options reduces privacy invasion potential.

7.1. Technical Challenges

In many situations, especially in dry lands, water shortage becomes critical as a serious environmental challenge in both environmental and economic terms because it affects development and people's well-being and causes far greater problems such as added thirstily growing public health problems, losses of agricultural campaigns and industrial activities. As a result of the rapid urbanization, improved living conditions and increasing population, modern buildings use a significant amount of water compared with days gone by, leading to excessive utilization of freshwater resources. Rainwater is a sustainable water resource and renewable, which could be used to alleviate efficiency as well supply problems of fresh water; thus in-tandem with contemporary buildings rainwater harvesting is a sustainability approach. Integration of rainwater harvesting with smart building systems (such as building management systems, Internet of Things, and sensors) improves the functionality and sustainability of the system – a win-win scenario for contemporary buildings in water-stressed regions.

Rainwater harvesting involves a number of steps that capture and store rainwater for household or industrial uses, these include creating catchment areas, developing conveyance systems, filtering the water in-line as it enters the tank to preserve downstream treatment efficacy, storing filtered harvested water and distributing stored water to different applications such as toilets for flushing, irrigation or cooling tower make-up. The water can be treated prior to long-term storage or following long-term storage depending on how the stored water is to be used. From a technological point of view, smart building is defined as one with a set of connected technologies through Internet-of-Things (IoT) so as to provide monitoring, evaluation and real-time control on the building systems, which in turn help achieve more efficient operation or shall be characterized by sustainability and safety. BMSs, which are central to intelligent buildings, combine and automate control of multiple building systems—such as HVAC, lighting, electricity, security and plumbing—in order to improve operational efficiency and energy use. Inclusion of smart buildings in the rainwater harvesting systems augments them because practitioners can measure performance, monitor water demand, estimate treatment needs, analyse supply and demand and detect anomalies.

URBANIZATION AND INCREASING POPULATION GROWTH IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES MAKE CONVENTIONAL WATER SUPPLIES INCREASINGLY UNSUSTAINABLE; ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUES MUST BE PURSUED TO ENSURE CONTINUED ACCESS TO SAFE DRINKING WATER [3].

7.2. Health and Safety Considerations

Health and safety concerns represent significant obstacles to the use of rainwater harvesting. While several Pathogen Control Departments allow rainwater to be used for indirect non-potable applications in toilets, washbasins and sinks, and irrigation purposes, bacteria infection is still a concern. The study of the perception of health risk in children reports that the reuse of rainwater for personal hygiene causes a higher expectation to become sick [4].

The microbiological quality of the rainwater collected is influenced by direct catchment exposure to contaminants and fillters/diversion treatment prior to storage [3]. Thus, roof runoff should not be used as the first supplied water for indirect

non potable applications. Satisfactory level of treatment Whereas under compliance, rainwater reuse presents no greater risk than conventional recycled water.

7.3. Social and Equity Implications

External forces, such as population expansion and climate change, are causing water systems all around the world to be increasingly stressed [3]. The scarcity of water due to long-term drought or the exhaustion of available hydrological resources often result in socio-political tensions. A possible solution to this problem could be the use of alternative water resources in substitution for long distance transportation and desalination. Rainwater (RW) is one such option [4]. The sustainable use of alternative resources is necessary for the development of resource conservative water systems. To achieve this, a politik is needed to mobilise more systematically at a greater variety of building types for RW collection, storage, treatment and reuse.

7.4. Security and Privacy Aspects

Many elements of design have implications for security, privacy and H&S. Integration of smart water systems can deliver considerable benefits in terms of sustainability, yet it also affects the risk spectrum and has important implications for stakeholders and associated co-benefits. This analysis is based on water-oriented design, which sociocultural and environmental cobenefits are discussed elsewhere [3].

Rainwater systems can introduce security and privacy concerns, mainly related to the gathering of monitoring data and due to cyber threats. Surveillance also can improve reliability, and ease maintenance before there is any operating history or system knowledge. Value of service-oriented monitoring, the use-case driven monitoring approach creates much more value for the system owner than general-purpose monitoring does, which encourages implementation. Thus, only the required sensors to support system design should be utilized in order to reduce extraneous logging of data that is not pertinent to system operation.

Monitoring rainwater also involves a potential violation of the privacy of residents. Timestamp metadata alone sometimes proves sufficient to alert as opposed to gathering resource-consuming information that must be stored, managed or depended upon (i.e., video surveillance, audio recording). As well as these measures there are other ways to mitigate privacy intrusion such as: combining data sensor streams, the use of local storage, pre-processing so that only statistically or weekly relevant features can be shared, limiting system progress and egress between trusted parties using a multidirectional approach to privacy, and how security relates to target threats concerning communication systems.

Security in cybersystem is also a similar critical factor related to buildings functional information. Standardized procedures are available to secure the design from unauthorized interference or observation, and to guarantee the ongoing trusted behaviour. Given high incidence of other types of securities in other applications, adaptations for rainwater systems may be worthwhile.

8. Conclusions

Reduced rainy water resources pyrogeothermal systems in arid regions volume is small, low rainfall availability and high evaporation rate will have a great impact on the management of water resource. In the arid lands of the Middle East, rainwater harvesting (RWH) is a valuable supplemental water resource [1]. By integrating these RWH systems into (smart) buildings with specific control strategies, the rainwater collection, storage, distribution, cleaning/treating and reusing can be better optimized at building level.

Considering all the above factors also provide a full scope view of designing and operating these systems on arid climate smart buildings. It also seeks the solution of these key aspects by means of building systems modelling, control engineering and a sustainability perspective to analyze the fundamental solutions built on three strategies for resilience: A flexible RWH system architecture, a hybrid operating with an alternative water source, and a targeted design that operates both in context [4]. In general, the systems for supplying and treating water correspond to the best practices of RWH and contribute to a larger living building water cycle.

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"إعادة استخدام مياه الأمطار في المباني الذكية"

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الملخص:

يقدم هذا البحث دراسة معمقة لإعادة استخدام مياه الأمطار في المباني الذكية باعتبارها استراتيجية مستدامة لمواجهة التحديات المتصاعدة لندرة المياه في المناطق الجافة. فمع تزايد تأثيرات التغير المناخي وارتفاع درجات الحرارة وتوسع التحضر وتراجع الموارد المائية العذبة، أصبح الاعتماد على شبكات الإمداد التقليدية غير كافٍ لتلبية الطلب المتزايد. وي طرح البحث دمج حصاد مياه الأمطار مع تقنيات المباني الذكية—مثل أنظمة إدارة المباني (BMS) وأجهزة إنترنت الأشياء—(IoT) كحل واعد لتعزيز كفاءة إدارة المياه وتحسين القدرة على التكيف مع الظروف المناخية المتغيرة.

تتضمن الدراسة عرضاً تفصيلياً لمكونات النظام، بدءاً من تصميم أسطح التجميع ونظم النقل والتخزين، مروراً بعمليات المعالجة وضمان الجودة، ووصولاً إلى إدارة الطلب والتحكم الآلي. ويبرهن نموذج ميزان المياه وتحليل دورة الحياة أن الأنظمة المقترحة يمكن أن تحقق وفورات مائية تتراوح بين 18% و46% سنوياً، مع انخفاض ملحوظ في البصمة البيئية، وفترات استرداد اقتصادي تتراوح بين 4 و7 سنوات. كما تؤكد نتائج النمذجة أهمية العوامل التصميمية مثل مساحة السطح، حجم الخزان، نمط الأمطار، وخصائص الطلب، كما تستعرض الدراسة حالتين تطبيقيتين: إعادة تأهيل مبنى حضري متوسط الارتفاع مع قيود في المساحة، وتصميم نظام معياري لمبنى جامعي جديد يدعم الري والاستخدامات غير الصالحة للشرب. وتبرز هذه الحالات الدروس المستفادة، والتحديات التقنية والتنظيمية، وآليات القبول المجتمعي، مما يؤكد أن دمج حصاد مياه الأمطار في بيئة المباني الذكية يمثل خياراً قابلاً للتعميم لدعم الاستدامة في المناطق المعرضة للجفاف المتزايد.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المناطق القاحلة؛ حصاد مياه الأمطار؛ المباني الذكية؛ الإدارة المستدامة للمياه؛ إعادة استخدام المياه؛ ندرة المياه.