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1 **A review on numerous modeling approaches for effective,**
2 **economical and ecological treatment wetlands**

3

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11

11 **ABSTRACT**

12 Constructed wetlands (CWs) for wastewater treatment have evolved substantially over the
13 last decades and have been recognized as an effective means of “green technology” for
14 wastewater treatment. This paper reviews the numerous modeling approaches ranging
15 from simple first-order models to more complex dynamic models of treatment behaviour
16 in CWs. The main objective of the modeling work is to better understand the process in
17 CWs and optimize design criteria. A brief study in this review discusses the efforts taken
18 to describe the process based model for the efficient removal of pollutants in CWs.
19 Obtaining better insights is essential to understand the hydraulic and biochemical
20 processes in CWs. Currently, employed modeling approaches can be seen in two
21 categories, i.e. “black-box models” and “process-based models”. It is evident that future
22 development in wetland technology will depend on improved scientific knowledge of
23 internal treatment mechanisms.

24 **Keywords:** Constructed wetlands, Reed bed, Rate constant, Kinetics, Black-box model,
25 Process-based model.

26

27 1. Introduction

28 2. Current status of CW models

29 2.1 Black-box models category

30 2.1.1 Regression models

31 2.1.2 First-order models

32 2.1.3 Time dependent retardation model

33 2.1.4 Tank-in-series model

34 2.1.5 Monod model

35 2.1.6 Neural Networks

36 2.1.7 Statistical approaches

37 2.2 Process-based model category

38 2.2.1 FITOVERT model

39 2.2.2 CW2D model

40 2.2.3 STELLA Software

41 2.2.4 PHWAT Software

42 2.2.5 2D mechanistic model

43 2.2.6 CWM1

44 3. Discussion

45 3.1 Black-box models

46 3.2 Process-based models

47 4. Summary and conclusions

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Industrialization, urbanization and inadequate disposal practices precede a mammoth
50 pollution problem in water environment including rivers, estuaries, lakes and oceans (Zhao
51 et al. 2009). One of the sustainable wastewater treatment alternatives is the
52 implementation of CWs since they are efficient, low-cost, easy to use and eco-friendly
53 (Naz et al. 2009). Compared with natural wetlands which have large variability in
54 functional components and thus unknown and unstable treatment capability, CWs can be
55 built with a much higher degree of control, thus allowing the establishment of
56 experimental treatment facilities with a well-defined composition of substrate, type of
57 vegetation and flow pattern. As such, CWs are often termed as “engineered wetlands”
58 (Knight et al. 1999; Haberl et al. 2003; Babatunde et al. 2009). Pollutants in CWs are
59 removed through a combination of physical, chemical, and biological processes including
60 sedimentation, precipitation, adsorption, assimilation by the plant tissue and microbial
61 transformations. The main advantages of using CWs are flexibility in sizing and site
62 selection, control over hydraulic pathways and retention time. In addition to this, CWs are
63 well recognized as having low construction and maintenance cost and low energy
64 requirement. However, it has to be noted that CWs are a land intensive treatment option
65 and show in some extent a stochastic behavior (Haberl et al. 2003).

66

67 Treatment behaviour in CWs is often considered to be figurative black-box (Rousseau et
68 al. 2004). Detailed understanding of CW functioning is still desirable because a large
69 number of physical, chemical and biological processes occur in parallel and influence each
70 other. Until now, CWs design has been mainly based on rules of thumb approaches using
71 specific surface area of requirements (Brix and Johansen, 2004) or simple first-order decay

72 models (Kadlec and Knight, 1996; Rousseau et al. 2004). The increasing application of
73 CWs for wastewater treatment and strict water quality standards is an ever growing
74 incentive for the development of better process design tools (Rousseau et al. 2004).
75 Originally, working with simple regression equations, most researchers and designers
76 evolved towards the use of the well known first-order $k-C^*$ model (Kadlec and Knight,
77 1996). However this black-box model is based on only two parameters, the first-order
78 decay rate k , and the background concentration, C^* , which is an obvious over
79 simplification of the complex wetland processes. As has been indicated by Kadlec (2000)
80 the first-order model is inadequate for the design of treatment of wetlands. More recently,
81 several dynamic, compartmental models were developed by several researchers such as
82 Mayo and Bigambo (2005), Nabizadeh and Mesdaghinia (2006), Brasil et al. (2007)
83 Langergraber et al. (2008), Giraldo et al. (2010) and Pimpan and Jindal, (2009). These
84 studies have shown promising results for the CW processes for various wastewater
85 treatments. Therefore attentions and attempts have been made to CWs modeling and this
86 paper tries to review such developments.

87

88 **2. Current status of CWs models**

89 CW models range from simple simulation models such as empirical, numerical and
90 statistical models to more complex process-based model. The details of the current status
91 of CWs modeling is presented below.

92 **2.1 Black-box model category**

93 2.1.1 Regression models

94 Majorities of the investigations on treatment wetlands have mainly been focussed on
95 input-output (I/O) data rather than on internal process data. An empirical regression

96 analysis is often performed to determine if significant relationships existed between inlet
97 and outlet concentrations of the wetlands. As a whole, regression equations seem to be the
98 useful tools in interpreting and applying these I/O data (Rousseau et al. 2004). Stone et al.
99 (2002) used the regression equation (Eq. (1)) to predict the outlet concentration in swine
100 lagoon wastewater treatment.

$$101 \quad C_{out} = aC_{in}^b q^c \quad (1)$$

102 Where, C_{in} is inlet concentration, C_{out} is outlet concentration, q is the hydraulic loading
103 rate HLR ($m d^{-1}$), a , b , c is regression coefficients. With the help of a regression analysis,
104 Tang et al. (2009) successfully employed multivariate linear regression equations for
105 effluent benzene prediction in a study of benzene removal in vertical-flow CWs. Effluent
106 benzene is set as a function of effluent dissolved oxygen, electric conductivity, redox
107 potential, pH and temperature of the wetland system. Though the regression equations
108 provide useful information on the overall performance of the wetlands, they are typically
109 valid only for the range of data used to model them. It has been mentioned that although
110 the literature values focus on the wide range of variety of the wetland systems, cautions
111 should be paid to compare the empirical regression equations since they were derived from
112 large varieties of wetland scales, wastewater strength (Stone et al. 2002), environmental
113 conditions and species of cultivated plants.

114 2.1.2 First-order models

115 Many individual wetland processes are basically first-order, such as mass transport,
116 volatilization, sedimentation and sorption (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009). First order models
117 are used commonly for the design of treatment wetlands using either Eq. (2) or Eq. (3)

$$118 \quad \frac{C_{out}}{C_{in}} = e^{-\frac{k_A}{q}} \quad (2)$$

119 where k_A is the areal decomposition constant (m d^{-1})

$$120 \quad \frac{C_{out}}{C_{in}} = e^{-k_v t} \quad (3)$$

121 where t is HRT in days, k_v is the volumetric decomposition constant (m d^{-1}). Several
122 authors including Kadlec et al. (2000), Knight et al. (2000), Stone et al. (2004), Sun et al.
123 (2005), Jamieson et al. (2007) and Stein et al. (2007) have published papers relating to the
124 first-order model application in CWs. This approach has been used for design and to
125 predict almost all major pollutants such as organic matter (OM), suspended solids (SS),
126 nitrogen (N) and RP (Mitchell et al. 2001). Jamieson et al. (2007) reported that the
127 efficiency of treated livestock wastewater in cold climates was found reasonably well but
128 the performance is poor in regard to P removal. The size of the wetland was kept at
129 approximately 5m wide and 20m long, consists of deep zones and shallow zones which are
130 vegetated with cattails (*Typha Latifolia*) and duckweed (*Lemna spp*). The corresponding
131 k_A for water quality parameters is 0.026 m d^{-1} for biological oxygen demand (BOD_5),
132 0.011 m d^{-1} for total phosphorus (TP), 0.018 m d^{-1} for total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN), 0.019
133 m d^{-1} for ammonium nitrogen ($\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$), 0.005 m d^{-1} for ammonia nitrogen ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$) and
134 0.023 m d^{-1} for total suspended solids (TSS). Interestingly, after adjusting the outlet
135 concentration for dilution the rate constant values were lowered by at least 0.005 m d^{-1}
136 compared with the k_A values reported by Reed et al. (1995) and Kadlec and Knight,
137 (1996). Stone et al. (2004) reported the much lower k_A values for the marsh-pond-marsh
138 wetland systems. However it is justified that the low reaction rate constant is due to higher
139 hydraulic loading in the system. Kadlec (2000) pointed out that the inadequacies of first-
140 order model are due to the variability caused by unpredictable events such as fluctuation in
141 input flows and concentration and henceforth changes in internal storages, as well as by
142 weather, animal activity and other ecosystem factors. However, the first-order model is

143 still considered as an appropriate design equation for pollutant removal in CWs (Kadlec
144 and Wallace, 2009). Rousseau et al. (2004) gave a comprehensive and critical review of
145 first-order rate constants for horizontal subsurface flow (HSSF) constructed treatment
146 wetlands. These are commendable efforts to address the reaction rates taking place in the
147 treatment wetlands and help the designer to harmonize design guidelines. Although first-
148 order model looks simple, it represents the highest level of complexity that can generally
149 be calibrated with wetland data and provides a reasonable approximation of performance
150 for a wide range of pollutants in wetlands (Knight et al. 1999).

151

152 2.1.3 Time-dependant retardation model

153 Due to inadequacies in first-order model, Shepherd et al. (2001) introduced the time-
154 dependent retardation model for chemical oxygen demand (COD) removal that replaces
155 the background concentration C^* by two other parameters K_0 and b . It has been assumed
156 that removal rates decrease during the course of time, because easily biodegradable
157 substances are removed first and fast, thus leaving a solution with less biodegradable
158 constituents and hence with slower removal kinetics. This continuous change in solution
159 composition can be represented by a continuously varying volumetric first-order rate
160 constant, k_v , as shown in Eq. (4)

$$161 \quad k_v = \frac{K_0}{(b\tau + 1)} \quad (4)$$

162 Where, K_0 is initial first-order volumetric rate constant (d^{-1}), b is time based retardation
163 coefficient (d^{-1}) and τ is retention time (d). This model was considered to be more
164 appropriate for CW design because it allows a steady decrease in COD (or any other
165 component) with increased treatment time rather than a constant residual COD, C^* value.

166

167 2.1.4 Tank-in-series (TIS) model

168 It has been evident that many treatment wetland variables and parameters do not possess
169 single unique values but are distributed with respect to some wetland attribute (Kadlec,
170 2003). Water travels in wetlands through fast and slow tracks due to vegetation,
171 topography and other environmental factors (Kadlec and Knight, 1996). This leads to
172 distribution of detention times in wetlands. These distributions may be due to velocity
173 profile effects and no contribution from the mixing processes (Kadlec 2003). Numerous
174 mechanistic models have been utilized to describe wetland detention time distribution
175 (DTD), i.e. tank-in-series (TIS), plug flow (PF) with dispersion (Kadlec and Knight,
176 1996). The most common model is TIS and the result is a gamma distribution with $n=N$
177 and $\beta = t_i$ as shown in Eq. (5)

$$178 \quad g(t) = \frac{1}{t_i(N-1)!} \left(\frac{t}{t_i}\right)^{N-1} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{t_i}\right) \quad (5)$$

179 t is detention time (d), t_i is mean detention time in one tank (d). N is number of tanks.

180 TIS mixing can be described through gamma distribution but the distribution time does not
181 suggest the turbulent mixing existence. Therefore gamma distribution can be caused from
182 totally unmixed and separate travel paths with different velocities (Kadlec, 2003). The end
183 result of all experiments and models is the prediction of extreme sensitivity of high levels
184 of pollutant reduction to the character of the DTD. The number of tanks in the TIS-model
185 represents the degree of mixing. A high value of N means a small degree of dispersion and
186 thus the presence of a PF reactor. If $N = 1$, then a single combined stirred tank reactor
187 (CSTR) is defined (Kadlec and Knight, 1996; Persson and Wittgren, 2004). Uddameri
188 (2009) used the TIS model to characterize the movement of pollutant as it traverses
189 through the wetland and is discharged at the outlet. The below mentioned TIS (Eq. (6)) has

190 been suggested by to offer a better platform to accommodate distributed parameters
191 (Kadlec, 2003)

$$192 \quad \frac{C_{out}}{C_{in}} = \frac{1}{(1 + k_{VRC}t / N)^N} \quad (6)$$

193 k_{VRC} is first order volumetric rate constant (d^{-1}),

194

195 2.1.5 Monod models

196 The transition from first to zero-order biological degradation kinetics due to increased load
197 can be represented by the well-known Monod expressions, as shown in Eq. (7).

$$198 \quad r = k_{o,v}V \frac{C}{K_{HSC} + C} \quad (7)$$

199 where r ($mg\ d^{-1}$) is the rate of biological degradation and K_{HSC} ($mg\ m^{-3}$) is the so called
200 half-saturation constant, C is contaminant concentration ($mg\ m^{-3}$) $k_{o,v}$ is zeroth-order
201 volumetric rate constant ($mg\ m^{-3}\ d^{-1}$). When $C \ll K_{HSC}$, kinetics are first-order and as C
202 increases, the kinetics become saturated. Monod kinetics reveals that the loading rate and
203 the zero-order degradation rate constant are essential parameters for efficient wetland
204 design for the removal of organic carbon in subsurface flow (SSF) CWs (Mitchell et al.
205 2001). Most process based models use Monod type expressions for describing the reaction
206 rates, not only CW2D (Langergraber, 2005). One of the interesting features of this model
207 is an alternative explanation of C^* . Indeed, if concentrations drop to near zero, the Monod
208 equation predicts a very low reaction rate, which may prevent total decomposition of the
209 pollutant within the given HRT. Kemp and George (1997) used a comparable model to
210 represent ammonia removal in a pilot scale HSSF- CWs treating domestic wastewater.
211 They found a $k_{o,v}$ of $7.8\ mg\ L^{-1}d^{-1}$ for N and a K_{HSC} value of $5\ mg\ L^{-1}$ for N. The
212 coefficient of determination R^2 indicated that the Monod type model better described the

213 variability of the data than a first-order model. Sun et al. (2008) used Monod and first-
 214 order kinetics for the removal of organic matter in horizontal flow reed beds in United
 215 Kingdom and stated that the sizing of horizontal flow reed beds is primarily based on
 216 organic matter BOD₅ and Kickuth equation as shown in Eq. (8), which is a combination of
 217 first-order kinetics and PF model.

$$218 \quad A_h = Q (\ln C_{in} - \ln C_{out}) / k \quad (8)$$

219 Where, A_h is the surface area of a single horizontal flow reed bed (m²), Q is the daily flow
 220 rate of wastewater (m³ d⁻¹), k is general first-order reaction rate constant (m d⁻¹).

221

222 2.1.6 Neural networks

223 An ANN (Artificial Neural Network) which is usually called “neural network” (NN), is a
 224 mathematical or computational model that tries to simulate the structure and/or functional
 225 aspects of biological neural networks. ANN is well known for forecasting/predicting,
 226 pattern recognition and process control in most of the areas in science and technology
 227 (Nayak et al. 2006). Akratos et al. (2009a, b) derived a design equation through ANN for
 228 the removal of TN in CWs. A design equation for TN removal is proposed in their work as
 229 an alternative to the first-order model, as shown in Eq. (9) and Eq.(10).

$$230 \quad R_{TN} = \frac{HRT}{K_{TSRP} + HRT} \quad (9)$$

$$231 \quad \text{with } K_{TSRP} = \left(\frac{22.8}{T}\right) 45.5 \left(\frac{n}{1-n}\right)^3 \quad (10)$$

232 where R_{TN} is TN removal, HRT and K_{TSRP} is time scale of the removal process, days, n is
 233 the porosity and $\left(\frac{n}{1-n}\right)$ is an expression which includes many formulas predicting

234 hydraulic conductivity in porous media (Sidiropoulou et al. 2007). The above mentioned

235 hyperbolic equation combines zero and first-order kinetics as this is considered most
236 handy for CWs. The performance of the design equation appears to be reasonably good for
237 NH_3 removal despite relatively low regression coefficient $R^2 = 0.42$. Naz et al. (2009)
238 compared the performance of HSSF- and free water surface flow (FWSF)-CWs and
239 modeled the performance using an ANN-back propagation algorithm. The results showed
240 that R^2 values for predicting effluent total chemical oxygen demand (TCOD), soluble
241 chemical oxygen demand (SCOD) , and total biological oxygen demand (TBOD) of
242 HSSF-CW were 0.90, 0.90 and 0.94, respectively, whereas the R^2 values for FWSF-CW
243 were 0.96, 0.74 and 0.84, respectively. ANN predictions may allow the process engineer
244 to take some measures to overcome possible process upsets. Tomenko et al. (2007)
245 compared multiple regression analysis (MRA) and two (ANN)- multilayer perceptron
246 (MLP) and radial basis function network (RBF) for the prediction of BOD. The results
247 revealed that MRA as well as ANN models were found to provide an efficient and robust
248 tool in predicting CW performance.

249

250 The SOM (Self Organizing Maps) is also a neural network model and algorithm that
251 implements a characteristic non-linear projection from the high-dimensional space of
252 sensory or other input signals onto a low dimensional array of neurons and has been
253 widely applied for visualization of dimensional systems and data mining (Kohonen et
254 al.1996). Zhang et al. (2008, 2009) applied SOM to predict the outlet concentration of
255 BOD_5 , $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ and P in the integrated constructed wetlands (ICW) treating farmyard
256 runoff. The results revealed that the above parameters plus the temperature, conductivity
257 and dissolved oxygen were predicted well using SOM model. SOM can also be applied to
258 predict the heavy metal removal in CWs (Lee and Scholz, 2006). Scholz et al. (2007) have

259 applied the self-organizing Kohonen map as a novel modeling approach to few CWs data
260 in Ireland.

261

262 2.1.7 Statistical approaches

263 Stein et al. (2007) applied two statistical techniques known as Levenberg-Marquardt (L-
264 M) method and Non-linear mixed effects (NLME) to fit the $k-C^*$ model to data set
265 consisting of 192 time-series COD concentrations measured from batch loaded SSF
266 wetlands. Temperature based reaction rate constants (k_{20}) were obtained for all the three
267 plant species treatment; such as *Carex utriculata*, *Schoenoplectus acutus*, *Typha Latifolia*
268 and control. k_{20} (d^{-1}), calculated using L-M method for *Carex utriculata* was 0.896, 0.783
269 for *Schoenoplectus acutus* , 0.688 for *Typha Latifolia* and 0.615 for the control whereas
270 the reaction rate constant calculated using NLME method was 0.925 for *Carex utriculata*,
271 0.743 for *Schoenoplectus acutus* , 0.612 for *Typha Latifolia* and 0.366 for the control.
272 Therefore, it was concluded that that the magnitude of the coefficients varies strongly by
273 species. Sun and Saeed (2009) examined the accuracy of four design approaches
274 including Monod-kinetics, first-order kinetics, CSTR and PF patterns using three
275 statistical parameters (coefficient of determination, relative root mean square and model
276 efficiency) for the organic matter removal in 80 horizontal flow reed bed for domestic
277 sewage treatment. They found that the combination of Monod kinetics and PF have good
278 agreement with theoretical and actual performance data. However the statistical analysis
279 approach requires a large amount of performance data from different experimental
280 conditions which is a challenging task.

281

282 **2.2. Process-based model category**

283 2.2.1 FITOVERT model (mathematical model for vertical subsurface flow, VSSF-CWs)
 284 Relatively few numerical models specifically developed to simulate CWs have been
 285 reported (Brovelli et al. 2007). Most of the currently available models can simulate HSSF-
 286 CWs (Giraldi et al. 2009) but only few models can simulate VSSF-CWs (Langergraber and
 287 Simunek, 2005). To bridge the gap in VSSF-CWs, Giraldi et al. (2009) developed a
 288 mathematical model, called FITOVERT. It can simulate the hydraulic behaviour of VSSF-
 289 CWs in both saturated and unsaturated conditions. Biodegradable OM and N compounds in
 290 FITOVERT model was developed by using activated sludge model 1 (ASM 1) (Henze et
 291 al. 2000). On the other hand, FITOVERT can also handle the porosity reduction due to
 292 bacteria growth and accumulate of particulate components, so that the clogging process is
 293 also simulated as an effect of pore size reduction on the hydraulic conductivity of the
 294 simulated system. The relationship between pressure head, hydraulic conductivity and
 295 water content was explained through Van Genuchten-Mualem functions (Van Genuchten,
 296 1980) which is shown in Eq. (11).

$$297 \quad K_{USHC} = K_{SHC} \left(\frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} \right)^{0.5} \left[1 - \left(1 - \left(\frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} \right)^{\frac{1}{m}} \right)^m \right]^2 \quad (11)$$

298 where K_{USHC} (cm s^{-1}) is the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity, K_{SHC} (cm s^{-1}) is the
 299 saturated hydraulic conductivity, θ is the volumetric water content, θ_r and θ_s are the
 300 residual and saturated hydraulic conductivity, m is the empirical parameter for unsaturated
 301 conditions. It has to be pointed out that most of the values were obtained for FITOVERT
 302 model based on an extended literature analysis. The K_{SHC} obtained from the pilot VSSF-
 303 CW for six different layers ranges from 8 to 20 cm (thickness) and the particle size (20-60
 304 mm) and its corresponding saturated hydraulic conductivity was found between 0.169 to 2,

305 cm s⁻¹ The efficiency of the model was reported as 0.990 for partial saturation condition
306 whereas 0.979 for complete saturation condition (Giraldi et al. 2009).

307

308 2.2.2 Constructed wetland two dimensional (CW2D) model

309 The first implemented HYDRUS-2D was used as a starting point for the CW2D
310 implementation. However, the software is now called HYDRUS (Simunek et al., 2006,
311 See <http://www.pc-progress.com>). The multi-component reactive transport model CW2D
312 for sub-surface flow CWs was developed by Langergraber and Simunek (2005) as an
313 extension of HYDRUS-2D variably saturated flow and solute transport package.
314 Biochemical transformations in CW2D are based on the ASM (Henze et al. 2000). The
315 main drawback of CW2D is that up till now only dissolved substances are considered and
316 it is necessary to consider particulate wastewater constituents for the realistic model
317 (Langergraber and Simunek, 2005).

318

319 Langergraber (2003) used CW2D model which consists of different layers (main,
320 intermediate and drainage) filled with various size of the gravel planted with *Arundo*
321 *donax* (giant reed) to focus mainly on the hydraulic behaviour of the CWs. Results reveals
322 that the reactive transport simulations with CW2D fit the measured data well for the pilot
323 scale CWs. Toscano et al. (2009) modeled the pollutant removal in a pilot scale two stage
324 subsurface flow CWs. Flow and single solute transport was described using HYDRUS-2D
325 whereas the transformation and elimination processes of organic matter and nutrients were
326 described using multi-component reactive transport module CW2D. Simulation results fit
327 well with the measured data of pollutant removal processes, water flow and tracer data.

328

329 2.2.3 STELLA (Structural Thinking Experimental Learning Laboratory with Animation)

330 Software

331 STELLA is a graphical programming language especially for system dynamics study. To
332 model and better understand the non-linear dynamic systems in CWs many researchers
333 used STELLA graphical programming language such as Wang and Mitsch (2000), Ahn
334 and Mitsch (2002) and Ouyang et al.(2010). Pimpan and Jindal (2009) explained the
335 adsorption, desorption and plant uptake in the laboratory scale FWSF-CWs planted with
336 bulrush (*Cyperus Corymbosus* Rottb) using the STELLA software. The simulated and
337 measured average cadmium (C_d) removal efficiencies were in the range of 61.7- 99.6 %
338 and 74.6 - 96.5 %, respectively. Since the measured and simulated values are in good
339 agreement, it has been recommended to use the developed mathematical model for the C_d
340 removal. Mayo and Bigambo (2005) studied the process of N transformation in HSSF-
341 CWs. It has been found that the sedimentation and the regeneration mechanisms accounted
342 for $0.872 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.752 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ of N transformation respectively. Significant
343 transformations were also observed through denitrification and nitrification which were
344 responsible for $0.436 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.425 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ of transformed N respectively. However
345 N removal through plant uptake requires plant harvesting from the wetlands.

346

347 2.2.4 PHWAT Software

348 Brovelli et al. (2009) presented a modular modelling tool suitable for simulating the
349 clogging process in 1, 2 and 3D. A new clogging module was implemented for the
350 numerical model which evolved from PHT3D. PHWAT is a computer code for 3D
351 reactive transport in variable-density saturated flow. This numerical model is able to
352 simulate the effect of biomass growth on the hydraulic properties of saturated porous

353 media, i.e. bioclogging. The model is developed at the macro-scale, and includes the effect
354 of flow-induced shear stress on biofilms. This model has greater flexibility because of an
355 arbitrary reaction network and the multiple components can induce pore clogging. The
356 simulation results demonstrated that the rate and patterns of bioclogging development are
357 sensitive to the initial biomass distribution.

358

359 2.2.5 2D mechanistic model

360 Ojeda et al., (2008) used a two-dimensional (2D) mechanistic mathematical model in
361 order to evaluate the relative contribution of different microbial reactions to organic matter
362 removal (in terms of COD) in HSSF-CWs that treated urban wastewater. The model is
363 based on the code RetrasoCodeBright, which has been modified to include the main
364 microbial processes related to organic matter and nitrogen transformations in the wetlands.
365 In their study, they also evaluate how changes in the organic loading rate affect both
366 organic matter removal efficiency and the relative importance of the microbial reactions.

367

368 2.2.6 CWM1 (Constructed Wetland Model No.1)

369 Langergraber et al., (2009) presented a general biokinetic model to describe biochemical
370 transformation and degradation processes for organic matter and nitrogen in subsurface
371 flow CWs. CWM1 considers the biokinetic processes in HF and VF CWs and the main
372 objective is to simulate the effluent concentration. They suggested to include other
373 processes including porous media hydrodynamics, the influence of plants, the transport of
374 particles/suspended matter to describe clogging processes, adsorption and desorption
375 processes and physical re-aeration must be considered for the formulation of a full model
376 for constructed wetlands. It is believed that CWM1 such as the IWA ASMs, will become a

377 widely accepted model formulation for biochemical transformation and degradation
378 processes in subsurface flow CWs and will be implemented in many simulation platforms.
379

3805 **3. Discussion**

381 The above listed efforts of modeling in CWs can be seen clearly in either black-box
382 models or process based models

383

384 **3.1 Black-box models**

385 It is realized that most models used in CWs were based on input/output data (Rousseau et
386 al. 2004) and the treatment processes in wetland were considered as a black-box, as
387 illustrated in Fig. 1. On the other hand PF assumption seems to be reasonable
388 approximations to the hydraulic conditions in the wetland (Kadlec, 2000). Furthermore
389 imperative issue of the background or the initial concentration in the wetland is assumed
390 to be constant in most first-order modeling efforts (USEPA, 2000). In reality, the initial
391 concentrations in the wetland may exhibit spatial variability (Uddameri, 2009). Kadlec
392 (2000) made a distinction between true background concentration (C_b) and apparent
393 background concentration (C_a^*). Constants of k and C^* are in fact the function of the
394 wetland characteristics and operating conditions, as shown in Eq. (12) and Eq. (13),
395 respectively.

$$396 \quad k = \psi_k = (h, q, C_{in}, D, P - ET) \quad (12)$$

$$397 \quad C^* = \psi_{C^*} = (h, q, C_{in}, D, P - ET) \quad (13)$$

398 where D is the wetland dispersion coefficient ($m^2 d^{-1}$), ψ_k is the rate constant function
399 symbol, ψ_{C^*} is the apparent background concentration symbol ($g m^{-3}$), h is free water
400 depth (m), P is precipitation ($m d^{-1}$), ET is evapo-transpiration ($m d^{-1}$).

401

402

[Insert Fig.1 here]

403

404 Interestingly, when water flows in the wetland it passes through diverse vegetation and it
405 leads to short-circuiting which impacts on the treatment (Kadlec, 2000). In TIS model
406 wetland is partitioned into a number of equally sized CSTRs reactor tanks and the
407 concentration “C” of a certain pollutant leaving each tank is equal to the uniform internal
408 concentration (Kadlec and Knight, 1996). Retardation model is considered as one of the
409 efficient method for designing CWs because it allows a steady state decrease in COD (or
410 any other component) (Shepherd et al. 2001). Kadlec and knight (1996) acknowledged the
411 time-dependent nature of the BOD₅ (or COD) removal constant, but did not further
412 analyze the retardation rate of the decay constant. It is worth noting that the performance
413 of CWs normally analyzed on the basis of first-order degradation kinetics often limited by
414 a residual outlet concentration. However, biological systems are more likely to operate
415 under Monod-type kinetics, where degradation rates are limited by pollutant availability at
416 relatively low pollutant concentration, and saturated at relatively high pollutant
417 concentration (Mitchell et al. 2001). Several researchers have determined the reaction rate
418 constant (k_A , k_V , k_{20} , k_0 , k_{HSC} , k_{TSRP} , $k_{0,V}$, k) for different types of CWs. Interestingly, ‘k’
419 values reported by several researchers are not the same because all the experiments have
420 been carried out under different set-up and environmental conditions. However there is a
421 lack of data to draw conclusions for a unique ‘k’ values for the removal rates. Even if
422 CWs are widely used and studied, they are often describes as “black-boxes” where the
423 interactions between soil vegetation, water and microorganisms are not well known

424 (Toscano et al. 2009). This perplexing situation leads to numerical models with different
425 complexities to better understand the process in CWs.

426

427 Efforts at applying statistical techniques to interpret the CW data have been made in recent
428 years (Scholz, 2003; Stein et al. 2007; Sun and Saeed, 2009). The only limitation is large
429 number of data sets required for the application of any statistical packages. A few authors
430 such as Tomenko et al. (2007), Akrtos et al. (2009a, b) and Naz et al. (2009) applied ANN
431 for modeling in CWs and used for prediction purpose. Though it has been considered as a
432 robust tool the principal drawback is that it is typically used as a “black-box” approach,
433 hiding the internal process mechanisms. Like ANN, the other standard tool named SOM
434 can be applied in CW modeling (Lee and Scholz, 2006; Scholz et al., 2007; Zhang et al.,
435 2008). SOM model can also be used as a prediction tool for the daily control of wetland
436 system. However, application of SOM models in wastewater treatment process control is
437 relatively new (Hamed et al. 2004; Grieu et al. 2005). GIS is a powerful tool which can
438 also be used in CWs for mapping, siting, sizing of wetlands (Trepel and Palmeri, 2002; Li
439 and Chen, 2005; White and Fenney, 2005). The size of the watersheds, the flow processes
440 (that drive wetland functions) and the characteristics (that influence wetland biological and
441 biogeochemical characteristics) make it advantageous to automate these procedures using
442 GIS (White and Fennessy, 2005).

443

444 **3.2 Process-based models**

445 Process-based models allow the increased understanding of the processes occurred in the
446 “black- box” CWs (Langergraber, 2007). These models can provide insight into the
447 “black-box” and gives indulgent information which helps highly for the design purpose.

448 Results obtained from the hydraulic model of FITOVERT seem to be better for the
449 simulation in both saturated and unsaturated conditions for the VSSF-CW, but the
450 biochemical model has not been published yet (Giraldi et al. 2009). HYDRUS is a
451 simulation tool in which CW2D module has been implemented to simulate transport and
452 reactions of the major pollutants including OM, N and P in CWs (Toscano et al. 2009). It
453 is worth noting that these process based models are highly sensitive and dependent on
454 temperature especially for N transformations. It has been reported that by introducing
455 temperature dependencies for half-saturation constants for the hydrolysis and nitrification
456 processes it is possible to simulate COD and NH₄-N effluent concentration at low
457 temperatures (Langergraber, 2007). STELLA is a good example of mathematical-based
458 software, however it is recommended that further calibration and validation of the
459 developed model using STELLA software is still required in CWs. Brovelli et al. (2009)
460 observed the largest degree of variability in the simulations where the initial biomass
461 concentration was a log-normal spatially correlated random distribution. It has been
462 concluded that the quantitative prediction of rate of bioclogging is possible only when the
463 initial conditions are well characterized. Ojeda et al. (2008) evaluated the importance of
464 different microbial reactions on organic matter removal in horizontal subsurface flow CW.
465 It has been reported changing influent COD concentration (for example from 290 to 190
466 mg/L) while maintaining a constant HLR has a smaller impact, causing efficiency to
467 increase from 79% to 84%. Changes in influent COD concentration (at a constant HLR)
468 affect the relative contribution of the microbial reactions to organic matter removal.
469 CWM1 describes the most relevant aerobic, anoxic and anaerobic bio-kinetic processes
470 occurring in HF and VF CWs. CWM1 consists of 17 processes and 16 components in
471 subsurface flow CWs and it is expected CWM1 will become a widely accepted model

472 formulation for biochemical transformation and degradation processes in subsurface flow
473 CWs (Langergraber et al. 2009). A brief comparison of the existing numerical modeling
474 software's in CWs is shown in Table 1.

475

476 **[Inters Table 1 here]**

477

478 **4. Summary and conclusions**

479 It is generally accepted that the CWs may enable the effective, economical and ecological
480 treatment of agricultural, industrial and municipal wastewater. The first-order model is
481 still widely recognized for the design of CWs (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009). Monod kinetics
482 is probably better to describe the biological processes in wetlands (Mitchell and McNevin,
483 2001). Time dependent retardation model, i.e. TIS model has its unique features.
484 However, none of these models explains the internal process mechanisms and therefore all
485 these models fall under the category of “black-box” models. Statistical technique can be
486 adopted while analyzing the data obtained from CWs. ANN and SOM all show huge
487 promise and are recommended for further scientific studies. The fundamental scientific
488 knowledge of pollutant processes, which takes place within the system, is highly limited.
489 Technical and scientific processes studied are geared towards the media and pollutant
490 interactions in the CW system. FITOVERT, CW2D, STELLA, PHWAT, 2D mechanistic
491 model, CWM1 modeling software's/simulation tool can be used to explain the
492 mathematical processes equations in a better way.

493 From the current review, it is evident that the future direction of CW modeling work
494 should be focused to quantify the rates of individual processes which are happening inside
495 the system. The individual reaction rate constants and the percentage of removal by

496 various mechanisms are vital because it provides valid information to the designers for the
497 efficient design of CWs. Once such kind of information is available, design
498 recommendation can be made for sizing and the pollutant removal can be estimated in
499 great detail. However, process based models for the removal of pollutants in the CWs is
500 still in its infant stage and more technical and scientific study is required to improve the
501 understanding of these complex processes. Considering the fact that time constants of
502 certain microbial and physical chemical reactions range between seconds and hours,
503 calibration probably requires large, high frequency data sets. On the other hand, emphasis
504 should be given to hydraulics of mechanistic model for reliable simulation of CWs. In
505 addition the relationship between dispersivity and saturation degree should also be
506 included in the process-based model because of the variation in water content dynamically
507 during the standard operation (Giraldi et al. 2010). Therefore, it is highly recommended to
508 develop a process based model which can explain the various processes occurring within
509 the wetland system.

510

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692 **List of Figures**

693 Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of wetlands process

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703 **Table captions**

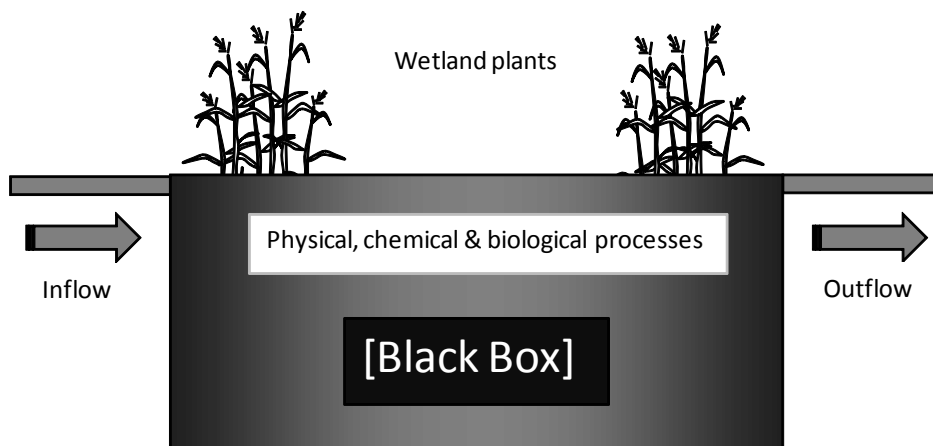
704 Table 1 Brief comparison of the existing modeling software's in CWs

Name	Source	Comments
FITOVERT- Version 0.1	University of Pisa, Italy	Newly developed software for VSSF- CW
HYDRUS (CW2D)	PC progress http://www.pc-progress.com	Developed as an extension of HYDRUS 2D
STELLA	High performance systems http://www.hps-inc.com	Lots of users, most used in academic and business and research
PHWAT	Ecole Polytechnique Federale De Lausanne (EPFL),Switzerland	A new module for an existing coupled flow and reactive transport code- PHWAT was implemented
2D Mechanistic Model	Technical University of Catalonia, Spain	2D simulation model is based on the code RetrasoCodeBright (RCB)
CWM1	University of Natural Resources and Applied Life Sciences, Vienna	Mainly used by researchers working in CWs

705

706 **Figure**

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710 Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of wetlands process

711