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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.

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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), Giraldi 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 ( $\text{m d}^{-1}$ )

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

121 where  $t$  is HRT in days,  $k_v$  is the volumetric decomposition constant ( $\text{m d}^{-1}$ ). 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  $0.026 \text{ m d}^{-1}$  for biological oxygen demand ( $\text{BOD}_5$ ),  
132  $0.011 \text{ m d}^{-1}$  for total phosphorus (TP),  $0.018 \text{ m d}^{-1}$  for total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN),  $0.019$   
133  $\text{m d}^{-1}$  for ammonium nitrogen ( $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ),  $0.005 \text{ m d}^{-1}$  for ammonia nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ) and  
134  $0.023 \text{ m d}^{-1}$  for total suspended solids (TSS). Interestingly, after adjusting the outlet  
135 concentration for dilution the rate constant values were lowered by at least  $0.005 \text{ m d}^{-1}$   
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  $\tau$  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 BOD<sub>5</sub> 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 (m<sup>2</sup>),  $Q$  is the daily flow  
 220 rate of wastewater (m<sup>3</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $k$  is general first-order reaction rate constant (m d<sup>-1</sup>).

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  $\text{NH}_3$  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  $\text{BOD}_5$ ,  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  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  $K_{USHC}$  ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) is the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity,  $K_{SHC}$  ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) is the  
 299 saturated hydraulic conductivity,  $\theta$  is the volumetric water content,  $\theta_r$  and  $\theta_s$  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<sup>-1</sup> 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 ( $m^2 d^{-1}$ ),  $\psi_k$  is the rate constant function  
399 symbol,  $\psi_{C^*}$  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 BOD<sub>5</sub> (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 NH<sub>4</sub>-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**

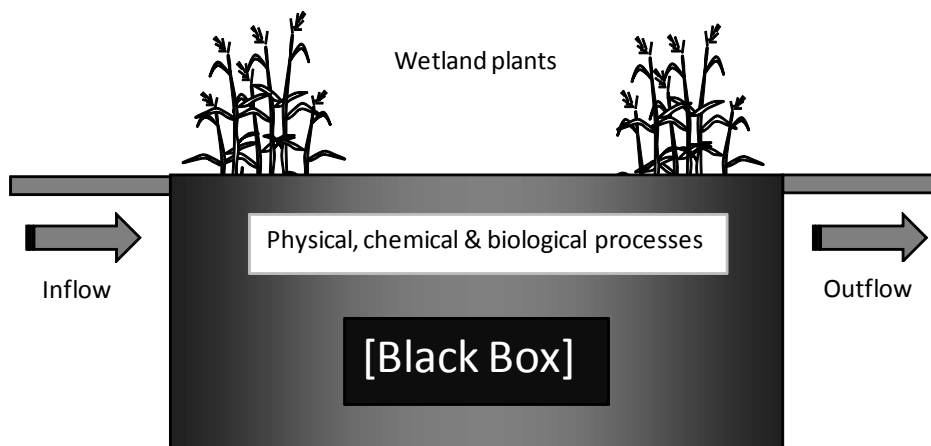
704 Table 1 Brief comparison of the existing modeling software's in CWs

Name	Source	Comments
FITOVERT- Version 0.1	University of Pisa, Italy	Newly developed software for VSSF- CW
HYDRUS (CW2D)	PC progress <a href="http://www.pc-progress.com">http://www.pc-progress.com</a>	Developed as an extension of HYDRUS 2D
STELLA	High performance systems <a href="http://www.hps-inc.com">http://www.hps-inc.com</a>	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