



Constructed Wetlands: A sustainable way of Treating Wastewater in Cold Climate - A review

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ABSTRACT

The use of constructed wetland (CW) is a natural way of treating wastewater sustainably and economically. However, the implementation of these systems in freezing conditions is still a matter of research and development. The treatment capacity of CWs relies largely on the biological and biochemical processes which further depends on physical conditions such as temperature, solar radiations, etc. Application of wetland systems for treating wastewater faces many challenges in regions with cold climates, resolving which this review has been made. This paper presents a thorough understanding of the components of CWs and their role in contaminant removal. A comprehensive review of the different types of CWs has been done describing the treatment efficiency achieved by its implementation in the cold climate. Furthermore, various technologies which can be clubbed with CWs have also been listed along with the treatment efficiencies obtained. Literature survey indicates that the extent of removing organics (COD and BOD₅) and total phosphorous (TP) are not likely to be affected, but total nitrogen (TN) removal appears to slow down at low temperatures. Despite several advantages of CW technology, further research is required to select suitable macrophytes and optimum design parameters to compensate for frigid conditions.

Keywords: *Canna indica*, *Typha latifolia*, macrophytes, total phosphorus, total nitrogen

INTRODUCTION

The exponential increase in global population in the past years has caused the uncontrolled generation of anthropogenic waste causing extreme harm to the environment and human health (Dahiya, 2015; Liyanage & Yamada, 2017). Unplanned industrialization and urbanization have forced the huge population to agglomerate in small spaces increasing the population density of the area. This increased population density has failed the purification capacity of the natural systems, thus increasing the concentration of pollutants in the environment (Bajpai et al., 2019). Types and concentrations of contaminants generated by the usage of resources and released through domestic and industrial means have affected human health and the natural ecosystem adversely. The unavailability of clean drinking water and poor sanitation facilities is a sensitive issue raised on various public podiums throughout the world. An increase in water demand and continuous decline in the quality of surface and groundwater is one of the major concerns globally (Duran-Encalada et al., 2017).

In recent times, the focus of the governments especially in developing countries has been shifted to water reuse and recycling to promote sustainability in the hydrological cycle (Schaum et al., 2015). Given the economic constraints to design, construct and operate

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conventional wastewater treatment systems, the main stress has been laid on the implementation of innovative methods to treat wastewater at the source of its generation. Artificial or constructed wetland (CW) is an engineered, yet natural way of wastewater treatment (Kadlec and Knight, 1996). A typical CW consists of a pond with substrate media and a special kind of vegetation. Influent flows in the CW and gets treated by physical, chemical, and biological means. CWs improve wastewater quality through various processes such as physical, chemical, and biological (Kadlec and Wallace, 2009; Vymazal, 2010; Garcia et al., 2010). Physical processes include settlement of suspended impurities, filtration, and chemical precipitation takes place when wastewater comes in contact with the substrate media (Tanner et al., 1995). Chemical conversions involve adsorption and ion exchange on the plants and substrate surfaces (Liu et al., 2014). Biological processes such as degradation and conversion of contaminants by microbes and vegetation; nutrients uptake and transformation by microbes and vegetation take place, simultaneously (Vymazal, 2007).

The organics and nutrient removal efficiency of these processes depend on several factors such as vegetation and substrate, pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), temperature, hydraulic loading rates (HLR), hydraulic retention time (HRT), and mode of feeding (Varma et al., 2020; Saeed & Sun, 2012). CW systems are potentially used for treating wastewater as an alternative treatment facility. These have been used globally to treat effluent from different sources such as aquaculture (Gorito et al., 2018; Sindilariu et al., 2007), dairy (Schierano et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2006), tanneries (Ashraf et al., 2018; Calheiros et al., 2012), agricultural runoffs (Mendes et al., 2018; Thorén et al., 2004), municipal sewage (Boonsong et al., 2003; Cameron et al., 2003), etc. Effluent from CW is low in organics and nutrients and possesses the potential to be reclaimed and reused for various uses such as irrigation (Zhang et al., 2019; Ayaz et al., 2015).

Applications of CW systems have shown satisfactory results in the tropical and subtropical parts of the world, but its implementation in the colder region is uncertain. Cold climate is described as the climatic condition where the recorded average temperature in colder months falls below -3°C and in the warmest month, rises to 10°C (Wittgren & Mæhlum, 1997). The cold climate, in general, may refer to polar, tundra, alpine and subarctic climate. However, the studies included in this paper have also crossed the conventional temperature range that cold climate represents, thus exploring various low-temperature ranges that affect the performance of the wetland systems. The treatment capacity of CWs depends primarily on biological phenomena mainly influenced by physical conditions (solar radiation and temperature). Low temperatures inhibit the microbial activity in general, thus affecting its growth and metabolism adversely resulting in poor treatment efficiency (Werker et al., 2002). Also, other processes such as the settlement of suspended impurities, plant uptake, volatilization, filtration, precipitation, and adsorption are influenced by temperature (Stottmeister et al., 2003). The operation of CWs in several countries like Canada, China, Japan, Britain, etc. supports the feasibility of these systems at low temperatures. However several pieces of research are being undertaken worldwide to intensify the factors affecting wetland treatment processes, thus enhancing the treatment efficiency of the wetland system ultimately. In comparison to conventional wastewater treatment methods, these uncertainties make CW applications more dependent on physical conditions. As compared to CW studies in a warm climate, there are relatively fewer researches in cold climatic regions. Figure 1 (a) and Figure 1 (b) shows seasonal variation in the working condition of CWs located in Columbia and despite being covered with snow, the performance of wetland was slightly affected under cold conditions.

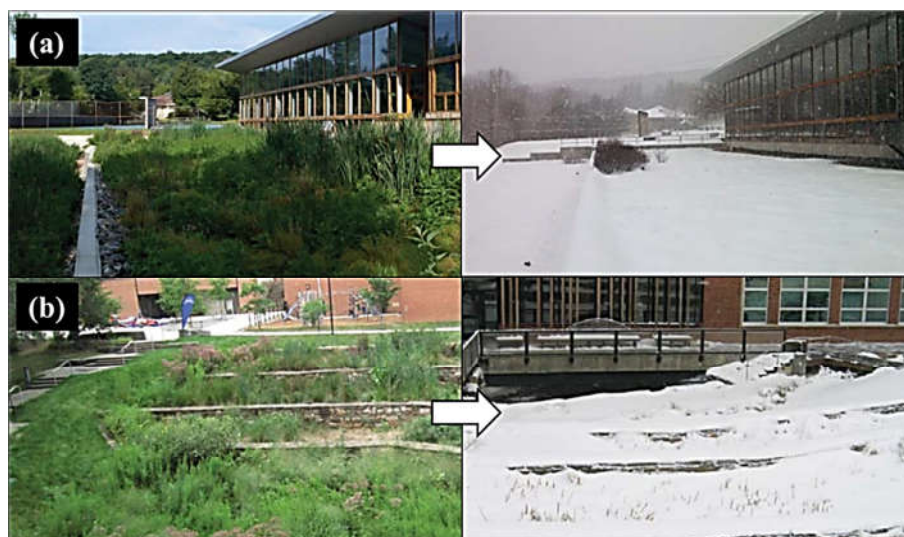


Fig 1: (a) CW at Sidwell Friends Middle School in summer and winter; (b) CW installed at the Omega Center for Sustainable Living in summer and winter (Source: *Biohabitats* 800.220.0919)

This paper epitomizes the literature available worldwide on the application of CWs in areas with low-temperature conditions. A brief introduction of components and pollutant removal mechanisms have also been included for a better understanding of CWs. Treatment efficiencies of CWs in terms of organics and nutrients have been enlisted in tabular format for easy comparison and comprehension. Moreover, the efficient combinations of CWs with innovative technologies have been discussed along with the overall treatment efficiencies achieved. The present paper also focuses on the economic perspective of CWs in comparison to other treatment technologies. Furthermore, the current review concludes with an explanation of the advantages of CWs over other technologies.

COMPONENTS OF CWs

There are four major components of CWs that play a crucial role in eliminating contaminants from influent wastewater:

Water

CW can be constructed at any place by reshaping the surface to accumulate water and basin sealed up to prevent water seepage. Hydrology is an important design factor in CW technology as it relates all the functions to one another. Any changes in hydrology affect the treatment efficiency of CW significantly (Davis et al., 1995).

Substrate

Substrate media in CW supports vegetation and acts as primary storage for microbial populations thriving in the wetland. Most of the biological and chemical changes occur within the substrate media, making substrate an integral link in the contaminant removal process (Stanković, 2018). Substrate permeability allows the flow of water through the wetland, hence coarser media (sand and gravel) is chosen to avoid clogging hazards.

Macrophytes

Macrophytes play a crucial role in CWs as they supply oxygen to the bottom of wetland through their roots; their stem and root system provide a medium for microbes to attach, thus contributing to the biological treatment of the wastewater (Bani-Melhem et al., 2015). Plants regulate the flow velocities, enabling suspended impurities to settle. They utilize carbon, uptake nutrients and trace metals through their roots, and store them into the plant body. Also, vegetation helps in the exchange of gases between the atmosphere and the substrate (Venkata et al., 2011). Most commonly used plant species include *Canna indica*, *Typha latifolia*, *Phragmites australis*, *Acorus calamus*, etc.

Microorganisms and other life forms

The microbial community of CW includes bacteria, yeast, fungi, protozoa, and algae that help in degrading organic matter and other inorganic substances (Wetzel, 1993). Bacterial species found near water surface is aerobic and degrades organic matter in presence of oxygen. In contrast, the bacterial population near the root level carries out biological treatment anaerobically. Several invertebrates (insects and worms) aid in the process of treatment by breaking down dead and decaying matter, and feeding on organic matter (Venkata et al., 2011).

MECHANISM OF POLLUTANT REMOVAL IN CWs

Organic matter and other impurities present in suspension, settle down to the bottom of CW under gravity. Besides suspended solids, pathogens including *E. coli* and other bacteria get removed through sedimentation. Adsorption and absorption are collectively referred to as sorption, which can be physical or chemical. Phosphorous removal in CWs is primarily due to adsorption (Mann & Bavor, 1993). Furthermore, ammonium ions and certain heavy metals are also eliminated by getting adsorbed to the organic matter present in the wetland system. The extent of ammonium ion adsorption is largely affected by the granular size and chemical composition of substrate media and can be improved by choosing media such as zeolite (Vymazal, 2015). Phosphorous intake by microbes is rapid, though limited due to less storage capacity (Vymazal, 2005).

In the CW system, the classical and newly discovered pathways are followed for the transformation and removal of Nitrogen. The classical routes mainly include biological (nitrification-denitrification processes and plant uptake) and physicochemical routes (ammonia volatilization and adsorption). The first step of nitrogen transformation is ammonification, where organic N gets converted to $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ by the enzymatic actions of microorganisms (Vymazal, 2007). After ammonification, the second step is nitrification which involves ammonium ion oxidation to nitrate (NO_3^-) with the formation of nitrite (NO_2^-) as an intermediate product. The first part of the step ($\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^-$) is accomplished by chemolithotrophic microorganisms such as *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrococcus*, aerobically; while the latter step ($\text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_3^-$) is led by facultative chemolithotrophic bacteria such as *Nitrospira* and *Nitrobacter*, anaerobically (Reddy et al., 1984). Followed by nitrification, Denitrification is the key and final step for nitrogen removal in CWs (Matheson & Sukias, 2010). During this process, NO_3^- gets converted to molecular nitrogen (N_2), nitrous oxide (N_2O), or nitric oxide (NO) which gets back to the atmosphere. Denitrification occurs in a limited supply of oxygen ($\text{DO} < 0.3\text{-}0.5 \text{ mg/L}$) (Jong et al., 2010). The other environmental

parameters that affect the rate of denitrification include pH, redox potential, selection of substrate, and concentration of organic matter.

Microbial metabolism (catabolism and anabolism) causes degradation of soluble organic matter, either aerobically or anaerobically. The final products of anaerobic decomposition include CO_2 and H_2O , and that of aerobic decomposition include CO_2 and CH_4 (Vymazal, 2005). The soluble organic matter gets in contact with bio-layer containing active microbial population which further degrades the organic matter. Nutrient uptake by plants is another crucial mechanism for contaminants removal in CWs. Plants possess the ability to uptake and store inorganic nitrogen, which is later utilized in protein synthesis in plants (Vymazal, 2007). Metals such as Cr, Na, Cu, Se, etc. can also be removed by plants. Metal extracting plants can intake metals like Cd, Zn, Co, Mn, etc. (Guittonny-Philippe et al., 2014).

TYPES OF CONSTRUCTED WETLANDS AND THEIR APPLICATION IN COLD CLIMATE

Based upon hydrological flow patterns CWs have been divided into the following:-

Surface flow constructed wetland (SF-CW)

Surface flow CWs have water surfaces exposed to the atmosphere. It consists of a soil bed grown with emergent and rooted plants. Water in SF CWs flows above 6-18 inches from the substrate surface, depth of flow depends upon the type of plants and design of CW. In SF-CWs, the region close to the water surface is found to be aerobic while at depth anaerobic environment exists. The main mechanisms of removal include in SF-CW include surface adhesion, impurities settlement, and agglomeration. The requirement for a larger land area is the main disadvantage of SF-CW. A schematic representation of SF-CW is shown in figure 2.

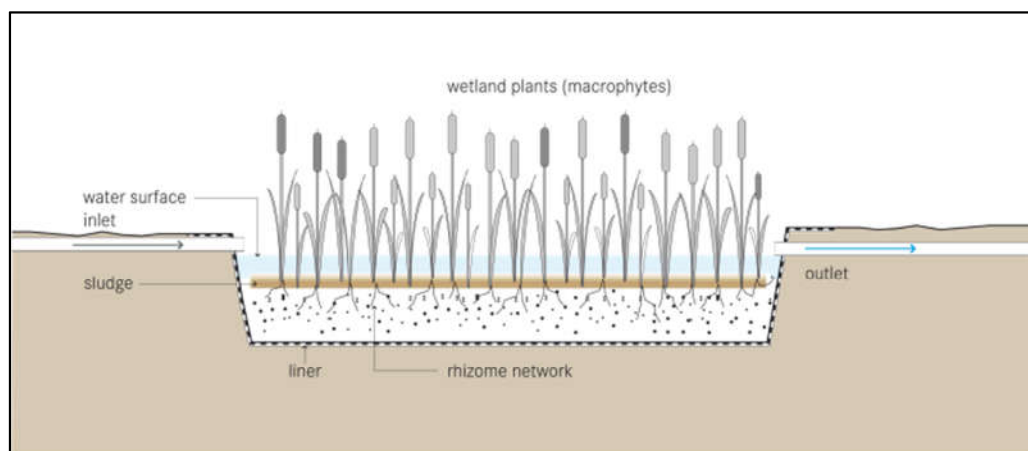


Fig 2: Schematic diagram of Surface flow constructed wetland (SF-CW)
(Source: eCompendium of sanitation systems and technologies)

Application of SF-CWs in cold regions

A lab-scale SF-CW model was developed by (Wu et al., 2018) to investigate the spatial-temporal dynamics of organics and nitrogen removal from secondary effluent under low-temperature conditions ($<10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). The obtained results indicated that a clear spatial-temporal variation of organics and nitrogen was observed. Organics decay mainly occurred in the

surface water and at the interface of water-sediment-plant, while removal of nitrogen was primarily attained in the latter. Low temperature largely affected TN removal in the model. TN removal is hindered due to the restricted supply of carbon for denitrification over the prolonged-time period and could be improved by applying plant carbon sources for denitrification in CWs (Hang et al., 2016). A similar result was drawn by (Kadlec et al., 2012) who successfully monitored a 6.2-hectare marsh implemented in the year 2000 by the Town of Brighton, Ontario. Sufficient treatment was achieved in winters, but the maximum removals were observed in the spring season when the highest growth of vegetation took place. Nutrient reductions were attained, more effectively for phosphorus than for nitrogen.

At Great Village, Nova Scotia, Canada, a SF-CW was designed by (Carreau et al., 2012) to meet the need of having separate treatment systems for discharge from slaughterhouses. A 58.5 m² two-celled SF-CW with *Typha latifolia* (Bulrush) was constructed to treat effluent from a small-scale abattoir. The pollutant removal efficiency of SF-CW may be linked with the fact that the actual residence time (111 days) was close to the total residence time. *Escherichia coli* concentration (88 cfu/100 ml) in the CW effluent was found below the permissible limit (200 cfu/100 ml) in most of the samples (Kadlec et al., 2012). Apart from *Typha latifolia*, the contaminant removal efficiency of other plants such as *Potamogeton crispus*, *Phragmites australis* in SF-CW was tested to treat the polluted river in a cold climate and showed better performance when compared to the unplanted CW system (Fan et al., 2016). An experimental study was performed by Kirby (2002) and Cameron et al. (2003) to treat effluent from sewage lagoon for its direct discharge into water bodies. Two additional treatment stages, slag filters (for phosphorous removal) and a filter strip planted with vegetation were provided in the latter. Water samples collected at the inlet and outlet of the CW system were analyzed for BOD₅, TKN, TSS, TP, ortho-phosphate, faecal coliforms, and *E. coli*. Tests result indicated that CW reduced the concentration of TN, TP, and BOD₅ below the maximum permissible standards allowed for direct discharge into water bodies.

A year-round study was conducted (Smith et al., 2006) to document the treatment processes and removal efficiencies of CWs during winters in Atlantic Canada. Two small-scale CWs of size 100 m² operating at different depths were designed and established at the Bio-Environmental Engineering Center of the Nova Scotia Agricultural College to treat agricultural effluent. Percent removal and mass reductions for BOD₅, TSS, TP, and NH₃-N in CWs ranged from 62% - 99%. During high loading periods, TP removal was less effective as compared to other parameters (Chazarenc et al., 2007). A study in the sub-arctic regions, Norway by (Jenssen & Vrale, 2003) showed that biological activity existed in CWs even when the temperature ranged between 0-5°C, and the system was capable of removing organics and nutrients from wastewater. High adsorption of phosphorous could be achieved by the usage of sand having a high content of iron oxide in its composition (Boujelben et al., 2008); also, sand provided a porous medium for adsorption. A properly designed CW with a prolonged retention time can work satisfactorily under cold conditions (Yan & Xu, 2014). SF-CW planted with common reeds has been found effective to improve characteristics of oil-contaminated soil (Ji et al., 2007). The experimental study was carried out for a period of 3 years at Liaohe Oilfield in China. Test results showed that treatment efficiencies ranged between 88 to 92% in the first two years and up to 96% in the third year. The reed bed helped in the recovery of TN and TP from the top 20 cm of soil in the last two years of operation. Throughout the experiment, it was found that reed biomass increased with the increase in oil pollution loading. Also, results suggested that the application of oil-contaminated soil did not have any detrimental effect on the health and growth of reed plants.

The literature surveyed indicates that removal efficiency achieved in SF-CW for TP, TN, NH₄-N, COD, BOD₅, and TSS varied in the range 30-90%, 17-86%, 50-98%, 72-96%, 34-98%, and 45-99% respectively. Treatment efficiencies of SF-CW in cold climatic regions have been listed in table 1.

Table 1: A summary of the treatment efficiency of SF-CW in the cold climate

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /day)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Jinan, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Secondary effluent from WWTPs	8.64x10 ⁻⁴	10	0.94	8.32	0.82	14.85	-	-	Lab	Haiming et al., 2018
Removal efficiency (%)				44.38	59.92	90.10	78.93	-	-		
Nova Scotia, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Slaughterhouse effluent	0.38	108.4	0.58	21	11	-	44	39	Full	Carreau et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				81.29	82.93	83.82	-	93.75	66		
Jinan, Northern China, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Synthetic STP effluent (Class IA)	-	-	0.049	6.30	0.31	4.66	-	-	Pilot	Fan et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				92.97	55.62	93.70	92.45	-	-		
Ontario, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Lagoon WW	3072	9.4	0.255	11.2	9.42	-	3.2	7.2	Full	Kadlec et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				32.5	17.6	16.8	-	40.7	45.45		
Nova Scotia, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Dairy wastewater (CW-I)	0.3	16	6.9	-	17.8	-	17.4	40.8	Pilot	Smith et al., 2006
Removal efficiency (%)				83.65	-	89.55	-	98.80	94.33		
Nova Scotia, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Dairy wastewater (CW-II)	0.3	16	4.7	-	3.4	-	11.1	28.2	Pilot	Smith et al., 2006
Removal efficiency (%)				88.86	-	98	-	99.23	96.08		
Tahoe, USA											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Runoff	-	-	0.122	1.02	0.014	-	-	0.01	Full	Heyvaert et al., 2006
Removal efficiency (%)				77.5	48.1	70.2	-	-	91.7		
Ottawa, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Farm wastewater	-	0.3 months	4.25	43.54	-	-	43.38	44.52	Full	Bosak et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				90	86	-	-	96	99		

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /day)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Liaoning Province, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Stabilization pond effluent, wastewater from heavy oil production	18.75	15	-	1.6	-	77	3.9	-	Pilot	Ji et al., 2007
Removal efficiency (%)				-	86	-	80	88	-		
Ontario, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Municipal lagoon effluent	57.53	15	0.03	-	0.05	-	2.38	6.18	Pilot	Cameron et al., 2003
Removal efficiency (%)				89.89	-	51.72	-	34	92.52		
Nova Scotia, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Sewage	196.8	42	0.55	4.51	-	-	5	12	Full	Kirby, 2002
Removal efficiency (%)				83	77	-	-	76	45		
Oslo, Norway											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Household sewage	-	-	0.2	45	15	60	24	-	Pilot	Jenssen et al., 1993
Removal efficiency (%)				98	55	83.52	76	88	-		
Sweden											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Agricultural runoff	-	-	0.06	4.3	0.4	-	13.4	-	Full	Thoren et al., 2004
Removal efficiency (%)				-	32.8	50	-	52.2	-		

Horizontal sub-surface flow constructed wetland (HSSF-CW)

HSSF-CW is commonly known as ‘Reed bed treatment’ in the U.K. and ‘Vegetated submerged beds’ in the U.S.A. consists of a sealed basin with sand or gravel-based substrate. Water in HSSF constructed wetlands flows horizontally through the substrate, below the surface. Due to the water-saturated conditions decomposition processes are limited mainly to anaerobic and anoxic zone. HSSF-CWs are best suited to wastewaters with low suspended impurities and uniform flow i.e. secondary or tertiary treatment of wastewater. Some of the advantages of HSSF CW include tolerance to cold conditions, no pest and odor nuisance, etc. (Ayaz et al., 2015). A schematic representation of HSSF-CW is shown in figure 3.

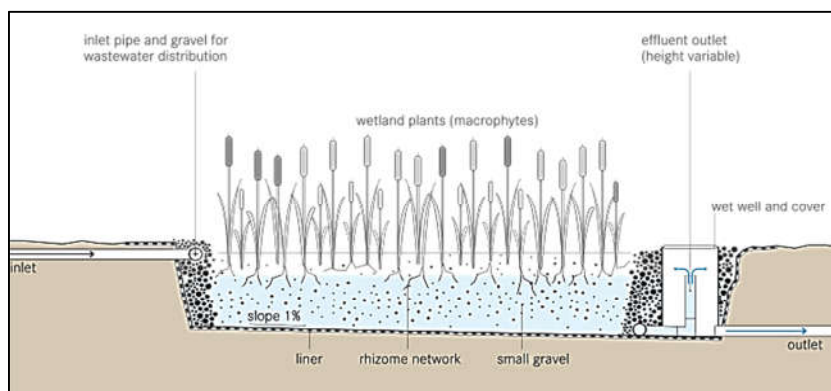


Fig 3: Schematic diagram of Horizontal sub-surface flow constructed wetland (HSSF-CW) (Source: eCompendium of sanitation systems and technologies)

Application of HSSF-CWs in the cold climatic regions

A full-scale trial of a new type of compound double-layer HSSF-CW was conducted by (Pang et al., 2015) operated in the northeast of China for advanced sewage treatment. Results indicated that in the case of ammonia removal, efficiency was found to be low due to limited nitrification at low temperatures. Several measures have been suggested to improve contaminant removal efficiency and operational stability of the wetland system in a cold climate; increasing the depth of the CW, placing layers of insulating mulch layer (Wallace et al., 2001), filling with compound substrate and bio-augmentation. The application of plants *Arundo donax* and *Sarcocornia fruticosa* has been studied to treat saline effluent from a tannery (Calheiros et al., 2012). A *donax* showed higher nutrient uptake compared to *S. fruticosa*. Salt tolerant plant species can be an effective solution to treat effluents induced with salinity (Cheng et al., 2020). The intake capacity of another plant, *Carex aquatilis* was tested for removing nitrogen from municipal wastewater under cold climatic conditions with low light intensity (Yates et al., 2016). The study was conducted at two temperature ranges, 0-5°C and 5-10°C. Test results indicated that *Carex aquatilis* performed well for nutrient removal at both temperatures, compared to a controlled system with no vegetation.

A treatment system consisting of a combination of anaerobic bio-filter followed and a HSSF-CW in Norway was studied for removing organic matter, pathogenic bacteria, nitrogen, and phosphorus from grey-water (Jenssen & Vrale, 2003). The aerobic bio-filter was installed before the CW to remove BOD₅ in a climate where the plants become inactive during winters. Laboratory tests showed that the concentration of pathogenic bacteria in the effluent was within the European permissible limit for swimming water quality. Nutrients concentration in the effluent was also considerably reduced i.e. N < 5mg/l; P < 0.2mg/l. Another hybrid Norwegian system consisted of three parts; a septic tank, a bio-filter and a HSSF-CW (Paruch et al., 2016). Various preliminary treatments have been suggested to supply air to improve nitrification processes and reduce the concentration of organic matter before wastewater enters the CW system, during winter seasons. The establishment of a pre-treatment chamber and new aeration system improved the treatment efficiencies of the wetland system removing organics and nutrients from leachate generated from Jones County Municipal Landfill near Anamosa, Iowa (Nivala et al., 2007). The HSSF-CW has also proven effective for the reduction of iron; total reactive iron (84%) and total soluble iron (78%) from wastewater (Reuter et al., 1992).

HSSF-CW system is also a prominent solution for treating effluent from a trout farm in

cold regions (Sindilariu et al., 2007). The CW treatment efficiency at high HLR was studied by (Sindilariu et al., 2007) in two operational modes i.e. during raceway runoff and cleaning, and was compared with that of sedimentation. Treatment efficiency for TDS removal was found to be highest during the cleaning operation, while TAN treatment efficiency overtopped the removal of other nutrients. Also, the treatment efficiency of HSSF-CW surpassed the treatment effect of the sedimentation basin. To provide the optimum working condition in a cold climate, a novel greenhouse structure has been proposed by researchers. Test results have shown that HSSF CW along with bio-contact oxidation pre-treatment and a greenhouse structure could be operated below 0°C (Gao & Hu, 2012). The use of ornamental plants in these systems can associate economic benefits to the usage of CWs (Gao & Hu, 2012; Sandoval et al., 2019). A HSSF-CW was designed and studied by Rai et al. (2015) to check its potential for removing nutrients and trace elements from urban sewage in Haridwar, India. Three different aquatic plants i.e., *Typha latifolia*, *Phragmites australis*, and *Colocasia esculenta* were used. The treatment efficiency for various parameters i.e., conductivity, TDS, BOD, TSS, NO₃-N, NH₄-N, and PO₄-P in the winter and summer season were observed from 55.3–91.61% to 64.8–94.1%, respectively. The planted macrophytes showed a higher bioconcentration factor (BCF) and translocation factor (TF) in summer in comparison to that in the winter season.

The literature surveyed indicates that removal efficiency achieved in HSSF-CW for TP, TN, NH₄-N, COD, BOD₅, and TSS varied in the range 28-98%, 27-75%, 17-85%, 5-95%, 87-96%, and 34-82% respectively. Treatment efficiencies of HSSF-CW in cold climatic regions have been listed in table 2.

Table 2: A summary of the treatment efficiency of HSSF-CW in the cold climate

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /d)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Harbin Taiping, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Effluent from biological reactor	36-48	0.8-1.1	0.49	19.7	15.7	46.4	-	-	Full	Pang et al., 2015
Removal efficiency (%)				76.7	42	32	51.5	-	-		
Portugal											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	High salinity tannery wastewater	60 mm/d	2	0.25	3.9	1.8	69	11	30	Full	Calheiros et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				82.88	76.07	73.13	64.43	75.55	67.03		
Portugal											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	High salinity tannery wastewater	210 mm/d	0.6	0.18	4.3	1.5	92	14	24	Full	Calheiros et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				74.65	58.65	61.54	63.05	79.10	67.12		
Norway											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage (effluent from aerobic bio-filter)	-	6-7	0.07	2.50	2.3	-	6.90	-	Full	Jenssen et al., 2003
Removal efficiency (%)				78.1	50.0	4.2	-	81.9	-		
Bavaria, Germany											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Aquaculture effluent	10.6 m/d	-	36.1 (µg/l)	5.22	18.48 (µg/l)	5.30	1.52	1.76	Full	Sindilariu et al., 2007
Removal efficiency (%)				38.1	-2	86.9	24.3	36.9	34.4		

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /d)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Shanghai, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Dairy wastewater	5.1 L/d	6.5	0.31	14.1	9.1	42.9	-	-	Pilot	Wang et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				91	80	88	87	-	-		
Ontario, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Municipal WW	-	2-3	-	43.2	35.9	-	-	-	Pilot	Yates et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				-	5	-5	-	-	-		
Oslo, Norway											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	-	-	0.16	40	39	53	52	41	Full	Paruch et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				98.3	67.5	51.3	91.8	96	68.7		
Heilongjiang, China.											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	350	1.45	2.09	-	8.58	22.4	-	-	Full	Gao et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)				27.3	-	25.4	61	-	-		
Anamosa, Iowa											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Landfill leachate	0.4	-	-	89	14	414	12	-	Pilot	Nivala et al., 2007
Removal efficiency (%)				-	55.9	93	44	88	-		
Beijing, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	270	72	17.6	61.8	63	50	-	-	Pilot	Wang et al., 2008
Removal efficiency (%)				73.6	75.3	87.1	95.1	-	-		
Aosta Valley, Italy											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Dairy wastewater	-	-	6	107	15	-	71	-	Full	Gorra et al., 2014
Removal efficiency (%)				40	27	17	-	92	-		
Haridwar, India											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Sewage	-	1.5	2.85	-	8.7	-	14	48	Full	Rai et al., 2015
Removal efficiency (%)				58.29	-	55.3	-	91.61	82.73		

Vertical sub-surface flow constructed wetland (VSSF-CW)

In VSSF-CW wetlands applied wastewater flows vertically downward through the substrate. A time gap is kept between two hydraulic loadings to allow the movement of air into the pores required for aerobic degradation of organic matter. They have proven effective in removing TSS, OM, and ammonia. Similar to other types, the influent coming to VSSF-CW must be primarily treated to prevent clogging of the substrate media. It requires less area when compared to other types, but high maintenance and operational costs make it less economical (Ayaz et al., 2015). A schematic representation of HSSF-CW is shown in figure 4.

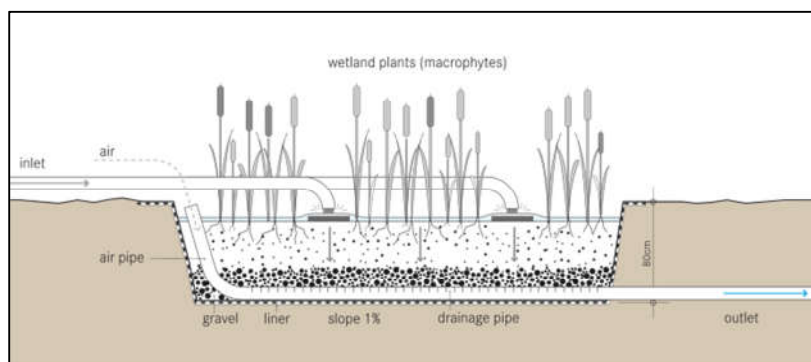


Fig 4: Schematic diagram of Vertical sub-surface flow constructed wetland (VSSF-CW)
(Source: eCompendium of sanitation systems and technologies)

Application of VSSF-CWs in the cold climatic regions

In Beijing, China, a pilot-scale VSSF-CW was built in 2004 near the Longdao River and was found to be a viable means for treating polluted water and restoring the Longdao River ecosystem (Chen et al., 2008). The transformed VSSF-CW system was found appropriate as per the local conditions, less expensive to construct, better operation and maintainability than a conventional wastewater method and relatively occupies less land. Another study in the northern part of China indicated that after using the heat preservation measures, VSSF-CW performed well during winters, and the exchange of gas with the air by water happened efficiently, fulfilling oxygen deficiency in the bed, thus improving the pollutant removal ability of the treatment system (Li et al., 2011). The concentration of COD, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, and TP in the effluent met with the national emission standard.

Literature shows that temperature influences the effectiveness of nitrification and denitrification in wetland systems (Li et al., 2018). A treatment system consisting of VSSF-CW and polishing pond was studied by (Myszograj & Bydalek, 2016) to evaluate the effect of seasonal temperature variation on contaminant removal efficiency of the system. During the monitoring period, the removal efficiency of total nitrogen (TN) was low about 12.7%. During the summer season, the concentration of TN fell by 50% in the treated effluent. During winters, the polishing pond didn't contribute to the treatment efficiency of the whole system. Though studies by other researchers confirm that there is a little seasonal variation on the contaminant removal efficiency of VSSF-CW and the testing result meet with the regulatory limits for discharge to a sub-surface leaching bed (Rozema et al., 2016).

The literature surveyed indicates that removal efficiency achieved in the VSSF-CW for TP, TN, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, COD, BOD_5 , and TSS varied in the range 40-89%, 30-99%, 40-98%, 82-99%, 86-99%, and 87-99% respectively. Treatment efficiencies of VSSF-CW in cold climatic regions have been listed in table 3.

Table 3: A summary of the treatment efficiency of VSSF-CW in the cold climate

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m^3/day)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$	COD	BOD_5	TSS	Scale	References
Ontario, Canada											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Winery process water and domestic sewage	16.620	-	-	0.04	0.02	14.8	0.7	2.9	Full	Rozema et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				-	99.71	97.80	99.30	99.95	97.70		

	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /day)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Lubusz Voivodeship, Poland											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	-	0.25	-	85	30.9	-	-	-	Pilot	Myszograj et al., 2016
Removal efficiency (%)				-	29	70	-	-	-		
Shenyang, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	0.154 m ³ /m ² ·d	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	Full	Li et al., 2011
Removal efficiency (%)				89.81	-	97.97	92.36	-	-		
Beijing, China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic sewage	-	-	0.06	-	4.87	19.25	5.5	6.53	Full	Chen et al., 2008
Removal efficiency (%)				98.4	-	77	81.9	85.9	86.9		
Greece											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Municipal wastewater	0.08 m ³ /m ² ·d	1.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	Full	Prochaska et al., 2007
Removal efficiency (%)				38.8	11.9	-	95.9	-	-		
Beijing China											
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	Domestic wastewater	0.12 m ³ /m ² ·d	-	0.6	-	3.5	-	11.8	3.8	Full	Scholz et al., 2004
Removal efficiency (%)				87.8	-	88.4	-	96	97		

Hybrid constructed wetland (HCW)

Hybrid constructed wetlands are an amalgamation of different CW systems (HSSF and VSSF), to obtain high contaminant removal efficiency. Two or three CW with different flow type is arranged either in series or in parallel. These systems are required when removal efficiency is needed in terms of NH₄-N and TN.

Application of HCW in the cold climatic regions

An experimental study conducted in a small mountainous region of Marrakech, Morocco using hybrid CW showed high removal efficiency for organics and nutrients along with total coliforms, fecal coliforms, and fecal streptococci (Elfanssi et al., 2018). Heavy organic loading beyond design limits could deteriorate the treatment efficiency of these systems (Comino et al., 2013). A properly designed hybrid CW system can work efficiently in the extreme temperature range, -22°C - 30°C, even when covered with snow as shown by the test results from a full-scale CW in Hokkaido, Japan (Sharma et al., 2011). Another study in Hokkaido by (Zhang et al., 2017), monitored the treatment performance of the HCW system treating effluent from dairy and piggery. It was found that removal rates obtained in hybrid systems were highest when provided with a higher hydraulic loading rate. The NH₄-N removal efficiency was adversely affected by the COD/TN ratio.

The literature surveyed indicates that removal efficiency achieved in the HCW for TP, TN, NH₄-N, COD, BOD₅, and TSS varied in the range 50-90%, 85-96%, 40-85%, 55-96%, 41-98%, and 46-% respectively. Treatment efficiencies of HCW in cold climatic regions have been listed in table 4.

The conclusion drawn from the collected researches suggests that SF-CWs are not suitable

to be used in cold climates because the surface of the water is exposed to the atmosphere which may result in freezing of the influent coming to the wetland system. On the contrary, the water surface in the sub-surface flow CWs remains below the surface of the substrate media and could resist if extreme temperature conditions develop. However, the application of VSSF-CWs is still not recommended because of the problem of bio-clogging. Furthermore, the efficiency of the hybrid system (two or more CW in series or parallel) has been found more than that of the single CW.

Table 4: A summary of the treatment efficiency of HCW in the cold climate

	Layout	Source of effluent	Flow rate (m ³ /d)	HRT (day)	TP	TN	NH ₄ ⁻ N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Hokkaido, Japan												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF(R) → VF → HF → VF	Dairy effluent (livestock-500)	30.48	-	13	34	14	382	106	23	Full	Zhang et al., 2017
Removal Efficiency (%)					76	86	40	96	98	84		
Hokkaido, Japan												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF(R) → VF(R) → HF → VF	Piggery wastewater	10.304	-	13	397	135	442	50	293	Full	Zhang et al., 2017
Removal Efficiency (%)					90	70	85	91	95	94		
Hokkaido, Japan												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF → VF(R) → HF	Dairy effluent (livestock-120)	4.592	-	6	21	13	212	92	13	Full	Zhang et al., 2017
Removal Efficiency (%)					71	85	76	94	94	97		
Tidili, Morocco												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF → VF → HF → HF	Domestic sewage	0.5-0.75 m ³ /m ² .d	-	3.16	20.19	-	72.93	47.00	46.83	Full	Elfanssi et al., 2017
Removal Efficiency (%)					50	60.60	-	87.24	86.98	90.07		
Italy												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF(R) → VF → HF	Cheese factory wastewater	0.1 m ³ /m ² .d	4	7	4.9	0.5	1129	800	116	Full	Comino et al., 2011
Removal Efficiency (%)					53.4	x	x	54.4	40.7	46.3		
Hokkaido, Japan												
Effluent characteristics (mg/l)	VF → VF → HF	Milk parlor wastewater	4.5	-	5	32	22	323	138	17	Full	Sharma et al., 2011
Removal Efficiency (%)					76	76	64	88	89	98		

COUPLING OTHER TREATMENT PROCESSES WITH CWs

Literature published worldwide summarizes the novel idea of combining constructed wetlands with other treatment processes to improve the overall removal efficiency of these systems in terms of organics (BOD₅, COD), nutrients (TN, TP), and heavy metals. (Kong & Zheng, 2013) integrated a dynamic membrane bio-reactor with VSSF-CW for treating synthetic municipal wastewater. MBR alone has good removal efficiencies for COD and TSS but fails to achieve satisfactory results for nutrient removal; especially when low-cost membranes are used to reduce the capital cost involved (Kimura et al., 2008; Shin et al., 2014). The integrated technology achieved effective TN (80%) and TP (70%) removal. The CWs can also be clubbed with anaerobic processes such as Up-flow anaerobic sludge blanket reactor (UASBR+CW) (El-Khateeb & El-Gohary, 2003) and Anaerobic baffled reactor (ABR+CW)

(Singh et al., 2009; Valipour et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2012). This combination has emerged as a potential solution for wastewater treatment especially for small communities and rural areas. Significant removal of organics and SS in pre-treatment reduces the risk of bio-clogging in CW and enhances its performance. A crucial advantage of this combination lies in the vigorous removal of pathogens and fecal coliforms. In another treatment process called electrolysis, voltages from redox potentials could drive electrochemical reactions, which can cause oxidation of organic matter and ammonium. Electrolysis when integrated with CWs enhances the overall performance of CWs (Grafias et al., 2010; Ju et al., 2014). This technique has gained popularity in recent times, especially for treating wastewater with a low C/N ratio or recalcitrant contaminants. A lab-scale experiment combining electro-flocculation and constructed wetland (EF+CW) has been found efficient in removing phosphate from synthetic wastewater, contributing to the study of reuse potential of CW effluent (Barash et al., 2009). Moving bed bio-film reactor when clubbed with constructed wetlands has been observed to give satisfactory results in term of contaminant removal efficiency (Lai et al., 2020). Treatment efficiencies of various treatment systems, when clubbed with CWs, are given in table 5.

Table 5: Combination of constructed wetlands with other treatment technologies

	Treatment system	Source of effluent	TP	TN	NH ₄ -N	COD	BOD ₅	TSS	Scale	References
Tehran, Iran	ABR + HSSF-CW	Domestic wastewater	-	79	-	87	93	88	Full	Jamshidi et al., 2014
Removal efficiency (%)										
Nepal	ABR + HSSF-CW + VSSF-CW	Domestic wastewater	-	26.1	69.5	90.0	90.1	95.9	Full	Singh et al., 2009
Removal efficiency (%)										
China	MBR + VSSF-CW	Domestic sewage	93.3	85.4	-	90.3	-	-	Full	Kong et al., 2013
Removal efficiency (%)										
China	ABR + HSSF-CW + SF-CW	Rural sewage	67.25	82.33	-	81.19	-	-	Full	Ye et al., 2012
Removal efficiency (%)										
Cairo, Egypt	UASBR + HSSF-CW + SF-CW	Municipal wastewater	53.85	47.54	48.39	88.23	93	86.39	Full	El-Khateeb et al., 2003
Removal efficiency (%)										
China	Electrolysis + SF-CW	Synthetic effluent	-	-	80	85	-	-	Lab	Ju et al., 2014
Removal efficiency (%)										
China	Electro-flocculation + CW	Synthetic wastewater	90	-	93.2	-	63	67	Lab	Barash et al., 2009
Removal efficiency (%)										
China	MBBR+ CW	Synthetic wastewater	27.9 – 69.6	46.1 – 84.5	65.0 – 99.3	85.9 – 97.5	-	-	Lab	Lai et al., 2020
Removal efficiency (%)										

ECONOMICS OF CWs

Several researchers have tried to focus on the economic perspective of CW technology. A study conducted by Carlos et al. (2017) compared the performance of WWT systems located on a rural property by Life cycle assessment (LCA). The system studied was UASBR combined with an anaerobic filter, four HSSF-CWs, and two photoreactors. The outcome of the LCA for 10 years indicated that the installation and operational costs for the CWs were the least compared to other technologies. Similar emphasis was drawn from other studies as well (Rahman et al., 2020). Another study conducted by Tsihrantzis et al. (2007) provided a cost comparison (operational & maintenance) for SF-CW and VSSF-CW. The SF-CW system

used in the study was designed for a small population of 1200 p.e. and its constructional cost was €305,000, and the capital, operation, and maintenance cost was €22.07/p.e./yr or 0.50/m³ of influent. On the other hand, the VSSF-CW system was designed for 1000 p.e. construction cost was €410,850, and the capital, operation, and maintenance cost was 36.81/p.e./yr or 0.56/m³ of influent (Tsihrintzis et al., 2007). The major deciding factor which affects the selection of CWs for wastewater treatment is land availability. Figure 5 shows the area requirement of selected wastewater treatment technologies for secondary treatment for warm to cold climates. When compared to other treatment systems, CWs have a larger land requirement, but less requirement of external energy (pumps) and lower operational & maintenance cost.

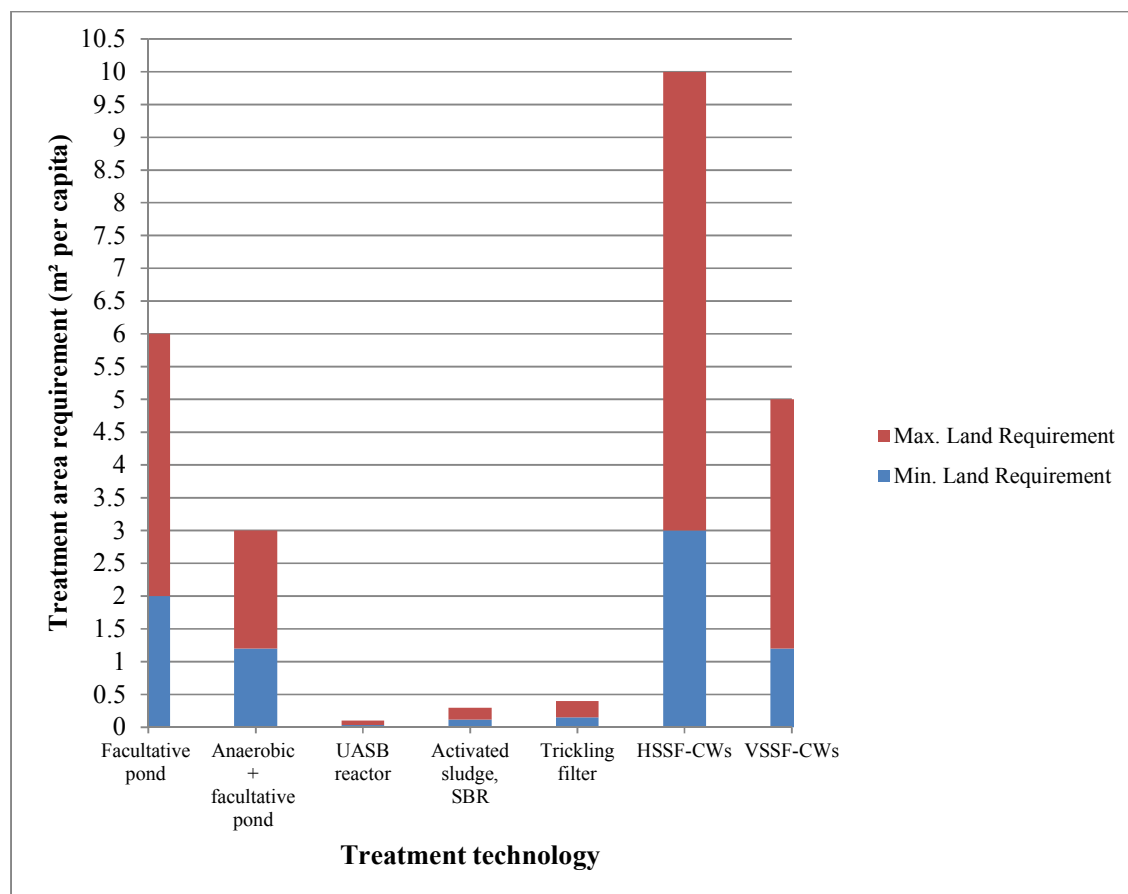


Fig 5: Area requirement of other technologies in comparison to constructed wetlands (CWs).
(Source: Hoffmann et al., 2011; Kadlec and Wallace, 2009)

Resende et al. (2019) studied the eco-efficiency of 2 decentralized, small-scale wastewater systems (WWTS) when used in association with CWs. An LCA based on data from two actual pilot structures was carried out. The results implied that the area required for the installation of the system was less when artificial aeration was employed. The life cycle cost per m³ of treated sewage was 1.8 times smaller for the aerated system when compared to the system without aeration. Thus, aeration is cost-effective for small-scale WWTS coupled to CWs (Resende et al., 2019).

ADVANTAGES OF CW TECHNOLOGY

Water Reclamation or reuse

Treated water received from CWs is low in nutrients and possesses the potential to be reused for non-potable uses such as gardening, landscape irrigation, toilet flushing, etc. as it adheres to the European reuse guidelines (Milani et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020; Nan et al., 2020; Lavrić & Mancini, 2016).

Use of locally available material and plant species

The substrate material used in CWs such as gravel, river sand, coal cinder, etc., is locally available and has been found fit for use (Wang et al., 2018). The macrophytes suggested by researchers to be used in CWs for nutrient uptake can easily be found in nearby ponds, lakes, and wetlands such as *Phragmites Australis*, *Eichhornia crassipes*, etc. (Shelef et al., 2013).

Economical construction and operation

It is easy to design and construct, requiring less expertise (Ingrao et al., 2020; Rahman et al., 2020). The flow-through treatment stages are entirely gravity driven with no or less pumping action required. Thus, power consumption is less.

Cost benefits

The use of several ornamental plants such as *Canna indica*, *Heliconia*, *Zantedeschia*, etc., must be promoted in CWs as these are aesthetically pleasing and also add income for the locals and municipal agencies (Sandoval et al., 2019).

Environmental friendly

This method of wastewater treatment has a low ecological footprint and causes minimal environmental impact (Gkika et al., 2015). As vegetation planted is herbaceous, hence needs to be harvested once a year. The harvested plants can be used as fodder, compost and can be directly mulched on the surface of CWs to produce thermal insulation in case of extreme winters. Several architects propose CWs in urban localities as a part of landscape beautification and also to improve the wastewater quality in terms of nutrients.

CONCLUSION

- Cold climatic conditions have a significant effect on the treatment capacity of constructed wetlands. CWs in cold climates showed no adverse effect on the removal of TSS, BOD₅, COD, but the rate of nitrogen removal (NH_4^+ , NO_3^- and NO_2^-) was significantly reduced.
- The use of HSSH-CWs has been found most suited in colder regions, as water surface is not exposed to the atmosphere, thus maintaining an optimum temperature level required for microbial activity.
- Several insulation measures such as vegetation mulching on the wetland surface, bio-augmentation, and constructing glass houses over wetlands have been suggested to

enhance the microbial activity in CWs.

- The problem of bio-clogging was found more frequent in VSSF-CWs, hence unsuitable for effluent with heavy suspended impurities. This indicates a need for the pre-treatment system such as septic tank, Imhoff tank, etc. to make wastewater free from SS before it enters CW.
- Cold climate showed no adverse effect on TP removal as it was mainly eliminated by getting adsorbed on the surface of the substrate. Phosphorous removal in CWs could be enhanced by using iron-enriched substrate media.
- The contaminant removal efficiency of CWs in cold regions was improved by adopting various strategies such as selecting vegetation tolerant to frigid conditions as it plays a crucial role in oxygen supply and maintaining the microbial population in the root zone of plants.
- The use of artificial aerators to increase the level of dissolved oxygen in sub-surface flow CWs and recirculating effluent back into the wetland system helped in the removal of contaminants further by repeated interaction between microbes and contaminants.
- Another way that improved pollutant removal was the use of a hybrid system instead of a single CW. In many cases, to maintain sanitary conditions SF-CW was employed in end as a means to polish effluent before final disposal.

FUTURE SCOPE

- In most of the cases, the concentration of *E. coli* in the effluent did not meet the regulatory standards implying a need for further disinfection. Chemical disinfection with chlorine compounds leaves behind byproducts again contaminating the treated water. Thus, work could be done to introduce an efficient, yet economical way of disinfecting effluent from CW.
- Salinity in the effluent is detrimental to biological components of the wetland system, especially vegetation. Work needs to be done to incorporate salt-tolerant macrophytes such as mangrove species in the CWs because of their high tolerance to a saline environment.
- Vegetation harvested from CWs is heavily doped with nutrients and metals, if disposed of directly on land may cause toxicity in the soil. Currently, no effective measures are known for the proper management of harvested vegetation. Thus, work needs to be done suggesting measures for proper handling and disposal of harvested macrophytes.
- Bio-augmentation in CWs could be done to aid microbial growth and enhance their metabolism in a cold climate, though sufficient knowledge is not available in this regard.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is not any conflict of interests regarding the publication of this manuscript. In addition, the ethical issues, including plagiarism, informed consent, misconduct, data fabrication and/ or falsification, double publication and/or submission, and redundancy has been completely observed by the authors.

LIFE SCIENCE REPORTING

No life science threat was practiced in this research.

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