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**Simultaneous improvement of waste gas purification and nitrogen removal using
a novel aerated vertical flow constructed wetland**

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Abstract

Insufficient oxygen supply is identified as one of the major factors limiting organic
pollutant and nitrogen (N) removal in constructed wetlands (CWs). This study designed
a novel aerated vertical flow constructed wetland (VFCW) using waste gas from
biological wastewater treatment systems to improve pollutant removal in CWs, its
potential in purifying waste gas was also identified. Compared with unaerated VFCW,
the introduction of waste gas significantly improved $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and TN removal
efficiencies by $128.48 \pm 3.13\%$ and $59.09 \pm 2.26\%$, respectively. Furthermore, the waste
gas ingredients, including H_2S , NH_3 , greenhouse gas (N_2O) and microbial aerosols,
were remarkably reduced after passing through the VFCW. The removal efficiencies of
 H_2S , NH_3 and N_2O were $77.78 \pm 3.46\%$, $52.17 \pm 2.53\%$, and $87.40 \pm 3.89\%$,

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22 respectively. In addition, the bacterial and fungal aerosols in waste gas were effectively
23 removed with removal efficiencies of $42.72 \pm 3.21\%$ and $47.89 \pm 2.82\%$, respectively.
24 Microbial analysis results revealed that the high microbial community abundance in the
25 VFCW, caused by the introduction of waste gas from the sequencing batch reactor
26 (SBR), led to its optimized nitrogen transformation processes. These results suggested
27 that the VFCW intermittently aerated with waste gas may have potential application for
28 purifying wastewater treatment plant effluent and waste gas, simultaneously.

29 **Key words:** Constructed wetland; Waste gas; Nitrogen transformation; Greenhouse
30 gases; Odorous gases.

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Constructed wetland (CW) is an environmentally sustainable, socially accepted
33 and cost-effective wastewater treatment technology which shows a strong potential for
34 better secondary effluent treatment (Greenway, 2005). Ávila et al. (2015) found that the
35 effluent treated by hybrid constructed wetlands could meet all the requirements for
36 reclaimed water in Spain. However, the insufficient oxygen supply in traditional CWs
37 often hinders their treatment efficiencies, especially for organic matter and ammonium
38 (Hu et al., 2012). Artificial aeration and tidal flow (the operation of intermittently flood
39 and drain) have been developed as major dissolved oxygen (DO) optimization
40 processes (Liu et al. 2016). Even though artificial aeration is considered to be the most
41 effective method to ensure sufficient oxygen supply, the corresponding operational
42 costs greatly limit its popularity (Zhang et al., 2010). Tidal flow is also a method used
43 to address oxygen transfer limitations (Wu et al. 2011). However, the oxygen supply

44 efficiency of tidal flow is lower than that of artificial aeration (Wu et al. 2014). Jia et
45 al. (2010) found that removal rates of ammonia nitrogen and chemical oxygen demand
46 (COD) generally increased during the tidal flow operation, although TN removal
47 decreased as a result of the accumulation of nitrate. Hence, it is important to further
48 optimize the wetland oxygen supply strategy.

49 The seriously deteriorated water environment lead to more stringent wastewater
50 discharge standards. For example, the government released Water Pollution Control
51 Action Plan in April 16, 2015, to guide water pollution control in China. At present,
52 many wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) in China have been required to meet third-
53 grade surface water standard. However, in most cases, WWTPs are unable to meet the
54 requirements of these new guidelines. Hence, to effectively remove pollutants, such as
55 organic matter and ammonia nitrogen, intensive aeration is implemented in traditional
56 biological wastewater treatment processes, which accounts for 40-60% of the total
57 operating costs of WWTPs (Gu et al., 2008). Additionally, the waste gas produced from
58 aeration often goes directly into the atmosphere, resulting in a nuisance to adjacent
59 populations and serious environmental pollution risks, including odorous gases
60 (Burgess et al., 2001), high emissions of greenhouse gases (mainly nitrous oxide (N_2O)
61 (IPCC, 2013)) and microbial aerosols (Brandi et al., 2000). N_2O is an important
62 greenhouse gas that can also cause ozone depletion in the stratosphere. Its 100-year
63 global warming potential is 298 times higher than that of carbon dioxide (CO_2).
64 Microbial aerosols have caused concern all over the world. Brenner et al. (1988)
65 reported the distribution of animal viruses, bacteria and phages in the atmosphere

66 around a sewage irrigation station. In addition, the microorganism aerosol threshold
67 limit value is very important for human health risk assessments (Srikanth et al., 2008).
68 Waste gas emission from biological wastewater treatment has become a serious concern.
69 It should be better controlled or, if possible, utilized to protect the urban environment.

70 A range of technologies has been developed to purify waste gas, which can be
71 roughly classified as three categories (Burgess et al., 2001; Kennes and Veiga, 2001),
72 biological (biofilters, bioreactors), chemical (chemical scrubbers, thermal oxidation,
73 catalytic oxidation, ozonation), and physical (condensation, activated carbon, clean
74 water scrubbers). However, the present waste gas purification technologies involve long
75 and complex treatment processes, and more important, waste of resources and energy.
76 Few literatures are found to describe how waste gas can be utilized as a kind of
77 “available resource”. Therefore, it is of great interest to develop novel aerated CWs,
78 which can efficiently recycle resources and minimize gaseous pollution, simultaneously.

79 In this study, the vertical flow constructed wetland (VFCW) was aerated by using
80 waste gas from a sequencing batch reactor (SBR). Specific objectives were: 1) to
81 analyze the feasibility of using waste gas to enhance oxygenation of a VFCW; 2) to
82 evaluate the removal efficiency of waste gas ingredients (including odorous gases,
83 greenhouse gas and microbial aerosols) via a VFCW; and 3) to elucidate the
84 mechanisms of pollutant removal in novel aerated VFCW.

85 **2. Materials and methods**

86 *2.1 Experimental system configuration*

87 The lab-scale systems were located at Shandong University in Jinan, China

88 (36°40'36"N, 117°03'42"E). The experiment was kept running from March 23, 2016 to
89 November 3, 2016. The systems were composed of a SBR followed by three parallel
90 laboratory-scale VFCWs (System I: unaerated VFCW; System II: VFCW intermittently
91 aerated with air; and System III: VFCW intermittently aerated with waste gas). The
92 schematic diagram of the experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1.

93 The effective volume of the anoxic/aerobic SBR was 15 L. The internal diameter
94 and working height of the reactor were 25 and 30 cm, respectively. The schematic
95 design of the reactor has been reported by Zhang et al. (2015). The influent wastewater
96 was prepared in a storage tank (100 L) and introduced into the SBR using a peristaltic
97 pump. The DO was supplied by using an air pump through an air diffuser at the bottom
98 of the reactor. The SBR was intermittently aerated at an airflow rate of 0.12 m³/h. The
99 seeding sludge was obtained from the Second Wastewater Treatment Plant of
100 Everbright Water (Jinan) Ltd., China. After one month of operation, the concentrations
101 of pollutants in effluent tended to be stable and the SBR-VFCWs were in a steady state.
102 The mixed liquor suspended solid (MLSS) of the SBR was maintained at 4500-5000
103 mg/L.

104 The lab-scale VFCWs (Systems I, II and III) were constructed outdoors (25 cm in
105 length, 25 cm in width and 50 cm in depth) with an outlet at the bottom. A dimensional
106 gradation substrate was adopted, which was made of a 10 cm bottom layer of gravel (3-
107 4 cm in diameter) that served as the supporting layer; silica sand (2-3 cm in diameter)
108 as the main substrate layer that was filled in each wetland, with a depth of 30 cm; and
109 a 10-cm top layer of washed river sand (1-2 mm in diameter) that was added for

110 facilitating the dispersion of wastewater and growth of plants. To measure various
111 physical and chemical parameters *in situ*, a vertical perforated PVC pipe (60 cm in
112 length and 3 cm in diameter) was inserted into the substrate in the middle of the VFCWs.
113 In System II and System III, the porous air sparger was installed in the bottom
114 supporting layer of each system for oxygen supply. In this study, sweet flag (*Acorus*
115 *calamus* L.) was selected as the experimental plant. Sweet flag, which is an emergent
116 macrophyte colonizing littoral zones of eutrophic habitats, has been used in naturally
117 occurring and constructed wetlands to treat wastewater (Brändle et al., 1996). Healthy
118 plants with a similar size (approximately 30 cm in height) were weighed and then
119 transplanted into the VFCWs at a density of 20-25 rhizomes per unit. In this study, the
120 size of VFCW units is 25 cm in length and 25 cm in width. According to the density
121 ranges observed in natural aquatic environments, a spacing of sweet flag was set to 5
122 cm, resulting in 20-25 rhizomes per unit. After transplanting, CW microcosms were fed
123 with the SBR effluent for one month before the experiment started, until wetland plants
124 and microorganisms were well established.

125 2.2 Experimental procedure

126 The SBR was fed with synthetic wastewater prepared from tap water. The
127 composition of synthetic wastewater is as follows (per liter): sucrose (133.90 mg),
128 starch (115.40 mg), NH_4Cl (114.64 mg), $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (141.60 mg), $\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$
129 (18.00 mg), KH_2PO_4 (11.00 mg), $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (10.00 mg), MgSO_4 (5 mg),
130 $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (10.00 mg) and a trace element solution (1.0 mL). The composition of
131 the trace mineral solution was derived based on previous literature (Tay et al., 2002).

132 The COD and $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ concentrations of the synthetic wastewater were approximately
133 300 and 60 mg/L, respectively. The influent pH values were adjusted to 7.5-8.0 by
134 adding NaHCO_3 . The SBR was operated at a volumetric exchange ratio of 50%, with a
135 cycle of 4 h, resulting in a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 8 h. Each cycle was
136 consisted of 10 min for filling influent, 60 min for the anoxic process, 120 min for the
137 aeration reaction, 30 min for settling, and 20 min for decanting the effluent.

138 The effluent of the SBR flowed into a setting tank and was subsequently conveyed
139 to the beds of three VFCWs, at a flow rate of 7 mL/min to keep the water level below
140 the sand surface, by using a peristaltic pump. Treated effluent was discharged from the
141 outlet at the bottom of each VFCW. Each wetland was operated continuously at HRT
142 of 1 day. The characteristics of the influent were periodically monitored during the
143 experimental period. Systems II and III were intermittently aerated, which was
144 consistent with the SBR aeration time. System I was operated without aeration.

145 2.3 Sample collection and analysis

146 2.3.1 Water quality monitoring

147 Water samples were taken from the influent and effluent of the SBR and from the
148 effluent of the three VFCWs every 3 days to analyze the transformation of organic
149 matter (COD), phosphorus (P) and nitrogen (N). Water samples were then analyzed
150 immediately for $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_2^-\text{-N}$, TP, TN and COD. The DO concentration
151 was determined *in situ* with a DO meter (HQ30d, Hach, USA). The pH value was
152 determined using a pH meter (SG2, METTLER TOLEDO, Switzerland). The oxygen
153 concentrations in air and waste gas were determined by using an O_2 meter (CY12C,

154 KREAVOR, China). All analyses were performed according to Standard Methods
155 (APHA, 2005).

156 2.3.2 Gas sample and measurement

157 The N₂O and carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission fluxes of the SBR and the three
158 VFCWs were measured when relatively stable effluent quality was achieved. In each
159 sampling process, an aspirator pump was used to move the emitted gas into gas
160 sampling bags (PV-500 ml; Delin, China) at intervals of 10 min according to a closed
161 static-chamber method (unaerated phase) and 15 min according to using an open-
162 chamber method (aeration phase), respectively (Zou et al., 2016). The open-chamber
163 method means the chamber was always open during sampling process. Subsequently,
164 N₂O concentrations were measured using a gas chromatograph (7890B; Agilent, USA)
165 equipped with an electron capture detector (ECD) and back-flush controlled by a 10-
166 port valve, as described in our previous study (Zhang et al., 2016). A thermal
167 conductivity detector (TCD) measured CO₂ simultaneously within the vials. The N₂O
168 emission flux from VFCWs (unaerated phase) was calculated by means of linear
169 increase in the sampling period according to the equation given by Jones et al. (2011).
170 The N₂O emission rate and quantity of SBR were calculated using the equation
171 described by Kong et al. (2013). The N₂O and CO₂ emission fluxes of Systems II and
172 III, during aeration phase, were obtained based on the average concentration of N₂O
173 and CO₂ by modifying the equation described by Hu et al. (2010), in which sludge
174 volume was replaced by the chamber recovery area.

175 A six-stage Andersen sampler (Thermo-Andersen, Smyrna, GA, USA) was used to

176 collect bacterial and fungal aerosols of different sizes from the waste gas of the SBR
177 and System III. The Andersen sampler used here has six stages with different cutoff
178 (D_{50}) sizes from high to low: 7.0, 4.7, 3.3, 2.1, 1.1, and $0.65\mu\text{m}$, representative of the
179 human respiratory system. Each stage was filled with appropriate agar medium for
180 bacterial and fungal growth. The sampling time was 15 min between 8:00-8:15 AM (the
181 beginning of the aeration phase), with a constant sampling flow rate of 28.3 L/min. At
182 least three independent experiments were selected for both bacterial and fungal aerosols
183 in each environment. Before sampling, the inside of the sampler was disinfected with
184 70% alcohol. Bacteria from the collected air samples were cultivated in nutrient agar
185 (Hope Biotech Co., China) at 37 °C for 24 h. Fungi were incubated in a Rose Bengal
186 Medium at (Hope Biotech Co., China) 28 °C for 72 h. After incubation, the numbers of
187 colonies on the plates were determined using the positive-hole correction method
188 (Macher, 1989). The results were calculated as the geometric mean of the replicates and
189 expressed as colony-forming units per cubic meter of air (CFU/m³).

190 To evaluate the changes of odorous gases in waste gas from the SBR via the VFCW,
191 gas samples were taken at the beginning of the aeration phase. In this study, we have
192 tested the H₂S and NH₃ in the waste gas from SBR. Meanwhile, we have also tested the
193 VOCs in the waste gas, but VOCs concentrations were below the detection limit. The
194 sampling time was 40 min at the same time of the day, with a constant sampling flow
195 rate of 1.2 L/min. At least three independent experiments were selected for the analysis
196 of H₂S and NH₃ in each environment (SBR and System III). The released H₂S was
197 measured with the methylene blue spectrophotometric method using a suspension

198 formed by adding sodium hydroxide to a solution of zinc acetate as an absorbent and
199 precipitated as zinc sulfide (Fogo et al., 1948). The released NH_3 was determined with
200 indophenol blue spectrophotometric method using diluted sulfuric acid as an absorbent
201 (Ivančič et al., 1984).

202 2.3.3 *Plant physiology*

203 In the middle of July, August, September and October, mature leaves of the plants
204 were collected to measure chlorophyll content. The leaf samples were extracted with
205 25 mL 80% acetone in darkness. The contents of total leaf chlorophyll were determined
206 as described in Bruuinsma (1963). Wavelength absorbance was measured at 652 nm,
207 using an ultraviolet spectrophotometer, for the determination of total leaf chlorophyll.
208 The chlorophyll content was expressed as a fresh weight (FW) basis (mg g^{-1}). The
209 height of sweet flag was measured every month since the VFCWs were fed with
210 wastewater.

211 2.3.4 *Microbial analysis*

212 At the end of operation, sediment samples were collected from five spots at the
213 same height (approximately 25-30 cm) within each VFCW and mixed as one composite
214 sample. Meanwhile, the mixed liquor sludge (30.0 mL) was sampled from the SBR at
215 the end of the oxic phase. The collected sediment and the mixed liquor were treated
216 with a MOBIO PowerSandTM DNA Isolation Kit to extract the total genomic DNA and
217 stored at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for further analyses.

218 Microbial processes are known to be important pathways that contribute to nitrogen
219 removal. To assess the removal and transformation microbial mechanisms of nitrogen

220 in CWs, the quantities of functional genes involved in biological nitrogen
221 transformations, i.e., total bacteria (*16S rRNA* gene), nitrifying bacteria (*amoA* and *nxrA*
222 genes) and denitrifying bacteria (*nirK*, *nirS* and *nosZ* genes) were measured using
223 quantitative polymerase chain reaction (q-PCR) technology, and the detailed
224 information was shown in the Supplementary Materials. Q-PCR has been widely
225 adopted to detect microbes in natural samples without laboratory culture.

226 To obtain the microbial community for each VFCW, Illumina high-throughput
227 sequencing was performed at the Yuanxu Biotechnology Company (Shanghai, China).
228 To minimize the effects of random sequencing errors, the sequences shorter than 250
229 base pairs (bp) in length and with a quality score lower than 30 were removed from the
230 pyrosequencing-derived data sets. The sequence number of each sample was
231 normalized, and the trimmed sequences were grouped into operational taxonomic units
232 (OTUs) at 97% sequence identity by the UCLUST software (Edgar, 2010). Rarefaction
233 analysis, the Simpson diversity index, Chao richness estimations and Good's coverage
234 were calculated by Mothur analysis (<http://www.mothur.org>) at a 3% distance level.
235 Venn diagrams were generated by R packages Venn diagram.

236 2.4 Statistic analysis

237 All statistical analyses were performed by the statistical program SPSS 11.0 (SPSS
238 Inc., Chicago, USA). Two-sample *t*-tests were used to evaluate the significance of
239 differences between means. All tables and figures show the results of averaged data. In
240 all tests, differences and correlations were considered statistically significant when
241 $P < 0.05$.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Removal of organic and nutrients in different VFCW systems

After acclimatized for two months, three VFCWs showed stable performance and the plants were flourishing. Figs. 2a and 2b show N removal by different VFCW systems. The effluent $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ concentrations of Systems I, II and III were 16.32 ± 2.78 , 4.91 ± 1.16 and 0.61 ± 0.24 mg/L, respectively and corresponded to $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ removal efficiencies of $42.83 \pm 1.13\%$, $82.81 \pm 2.23\%$ and $97.86 \pm 1.92\%$, respectively. $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ removal efficiencies in Systems II and III were better than the removal efficiency of System I, indicating that intermittent aeration significantly enhanced $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ removal.

The $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ removal difference was attributed to the difference in DO concentration of the three systems (Fig. 2d). More precisely, the decrease of DO concentration in System III was faster than that in System II, suggesting that System III has better nitrification performance (Fig. 2c). However, in the unaerated VFCW, the DO level was always near zero (0.15 ± 0.02 mg/L), causing an anaerobic environment and, thus, may have resulted in negligible nitrification. In VFCWs, TN removal is achieved by nitrification-denitrification, which can be limited by various factors such as excess inorganic N (including nitrate and nitrite) in effluent, excess oxygen and an insufficient organic carbon source (Maltais-Landry et al., 2009c). Accumulations of $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ were observed in both System II (25.07 ± 3.92 mg/L) and System III (16.53 ± 2.85 mg/L), compared with System I (6.98 ± 2.18 mg/L) because the DO concentrations of aerated systems (Systems II and III) were much higher than the DO concentration in the unaerated VFCW (Fig. 2d). Similar results were reported in other studies

investigating aerated CWs (Maltais-Landry et al., 2009c; Nivala et al., 2007). Throughout the experiment period, NO_2^- -N concentration was always below 0.2 mg/L, with no obvious fluctuations.

As shown in Fig. 2b, the TN removal efficiency of System III was $51.88 \pm 3.42\%$, which was higher than the removal efficiency of System I ($32.61 \pm 2.35\%$). However, the TN removal efficiency of System II was $29.04 \pm 3.69\%$ lower than that of System I. The best TN removal efficiency was observed in System III, indicating that the introduction of waste gas could effectively develop alternate aerobic and anaerobic conditions in the VFCWs to improve TN removal, which is in accordance with a previous study (Wu et al., 2016). It is worth noting that the VFCW intermittently aerated with air showed the worst TN removal performance ($23.14 \pm 2.12\%$), even when nitrification was successful (Fig. 2a), revealing that the denitrification process in System II was limited. As shown in Fig. 2d, the DO concentrations of Systems II and III increased from 0.89 to 3.86 mg/L and 0.65 to 2.65 mg/L, respectively, during the first 0.5 h of aeration time (0 min-30 min). The DO concentration in System II was higher than that in System III during aeration, which was ascribed to the differences in oxygen content between the air ($21.00 \pm 0.13\%$) and waste gas ($18.96 \pm 0.16\%$). Full denitrification could not be achieved due to excess oxygen in System II. Furthermore, organic carbon sources have an important effect on the denitrification process. Compared with the unaerated VFCW ($26.43 \pm 1.62\%$), the introduction of waste gas into the VFCW ($49.72 \pm 2.13\%$) greatly improved COD removal efficiency. However, no significant difference in COD removal was observed between Systems II and III,

286 which is likely due to low organic loading. Regarding TP removal, no significant
287 differences were found among the three systems, indicating that artificial aeration had
288 a slight effect on TP removal (from $53.46 \pm 3.06\%$ to $58.39 \pm 2.89\%$). Likewise, Tao et
289 al. (2010) and Zhang et al. (2010) found that artificial aeration did not have significant
290 influence ($p > 0.05$) on P removal. The high removal rates of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and TN in this
291 study also showed that intermittent aerated VFCW using waste gas would be a potential
292 choice to intensify nitrogen removal performance for the wastewater. The application
293 of this novel aerated VFCW in full-scale system needs to be further research.

294 *3.2 Plant growth*

295 Wetland plants play an essential role for N and P absorption and the removal of
296 pollutants in CW, which is crucial for its healthy development. Wang et al. (2016)
297 determined that the presence of plants positively affected both microbial abundance and
298 community. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the growth of wetland plants for
299 each system. Throughout the experiment period, chlorophyll content and plant height
300 in the three systems were investigated, as shown in Fig. 3a. All plants in Systems I, II,
301 and III grew well without any obvious symptoms of toxicity or nutrient deficiency.
302 Although no significant differences in plant growth were observed between Systems II
303 and III ($p > 0.05$), both Systems II and III had higher growth rates during the experiment
304 period (0.13 cm/d and 0.14 cm/d, respectively), compare with the unaerated VFCW
305 (0.06 cm/d), suggesting that aeration would remarkably improve plant growth.
306 Moreover, chlorophyll is the core of photosynthetic activity in vegetation, and it can
307 provide a measure of plant growth conditions from another perspective. The variations

in chlorophyll content during the four-month experiment were in accordance with the plant growth rate. The chlorophyll content accumulated in the aerated systems (Systems II and III). Chlorophyll content in System III was significantly higher than the unaerated VFCW, indicating plant growth was improved by artificial aeration because of the enhanced synthesis of chlorophyll. The enhanced synthesis of chlorophyll under aerated conditions can be explained by two reasons: 1) changing oxygen content of the plant root zone affects the growth of plants and long-term anoxic conditions cause death of plants due to alcohol poisoning (Rzewuski and Sauter, 2008); and 2) available nutrients are the key factor influencing the growth of plants. In aerated systems, a high nitrification rate enhances nitrate accumulation and then provides more available nutrients around the surface of the plant root, facilitating its growth. Moreover, CO₂ fluxes can reflect plant photosynthesis and respiration of aerial parts, and the CO₂ total emission fluxes for the three systems are shown in Fig. 3b. The CO₂ fluxes in the aerated VFCWs were lower than that in the unaerated VFCW as a result of the larger amount of plant biomass. The result is consistent with the finding of Maltais-Landry et al. (2009a) and Chen et al. (2015), who reported that the biomasses of three woody species (*Ilex aquifolium*, *Rosa chinensis* and *Fatsia japonica*) increased by 381.75, 606.25, and 896.88 g/m² under aerated conditions, respectively.

3.3 Purification of waste gas

To investigate the purification of microbial aerosols in waste gas after passing through the VFCW, the influent and effluent of culturable microbial aerosol concentrations for System III were examined, as shown in Fig. 4. A significant

330 decrease in particle concentrations of bacterial and fungal aerosols was observed. The
331 results showed that bacterial and fungal aerosols in waste gas could be remarkably
332 reduced by $42.72 \pm 3.21\%$ and $47.89 \pm 2.82\%$, respectively, after passing through the
333 VFCW. No significant difference in capture efficiency was observed between bacterial
334 and fungal aerosols, as fungi and bacteria have the same maximum diameter size
335 distribution, between 1.1 and 2.1 μm (Sanchez-Monedero et al. 2003). The removal
336 mechanism for microbial aerosols in wetlands mainly depends on the interception and
337 sedimentation of wetland filler. This process in wetlands is similar to biofilters, which
338 have become a widely accepted method for microbial aerosol control in WWTPs
339 (Sanchez-Monedero et al. 2003). Additionally, wetland plants also contribute to the
340 removal of aerosols, which can prevent microbial aerosol diffusion.

341 Gas (H_2S , NH_3) odor concentration and greenhouse gas flux (mainly N_2O) in
342 different experimental systems were analyzed (Table 1). The pollutants in waste gas
343 could be remarkably reduced via wetland treatment. Approximately $77.78 \pm 3.46\%$,
344 $52.17 \pm 2.53\%$, and $87.40 \pm 3.89\%$ of H_2S , NH_3 and N_2O , respectively, could be
345 removed from the waste gas. In this study, the VFCW acted as a biofilter to purify waste
346 gas by substrate adsorption, water dissolution or microbial utilization. The
347 heterotrophic microorganisms on the wetland substrate utilized organic matter from the
348 waste gas as the carbon source for their growth and reproduction, and the organic matter
349 was oxidized to harmless substances, such as CO_2 and H_2O . Then, CO_2 was used as
350 carbon source of autotrophic microorganisms to remove the inorganics (NH_3 , H_2S and
351 N_2O) in the waste gas, which is similar to the photosynthesis of green plants (Kennes

352 and Thalasso, 1998). Thus, the risk of gaseous pollution during biological wastewater
353 treatment could be effectively eliminated. Further investigations should be undertaken
354 regarding the effects of wetland plants on waste gas purification.

355 It was found that intermittent aeration had obvious impact on enhancing N₂O
356 emission. More specifically, System II had the highest N₂O emission flux, followed by
357 System III and System I, since N₂O can be produced through both nitrification and
358 denitrification processes. Systems II and III had higher nitrification (Fig. 2a), which
359 accelerated nitrogen transformations, led to high N₂O production and was consistent
360 with other research (Itokawa et al., 2001). However, previous studies reported that
361 lower N₂O emissions could be achieved in CWs through the combination of
362 macrophytes and artificial aeration (Maltais-Landry et al., 2009a), which was different
363 from the present study. The reason is that the influent chemical oxygen
364 demand/nitrogen (C/N) ratio in this study was low (approximately 1~2). Hence,
365 denitrification was inhibited under a low C/N ratio and resulted in more N₂O produce.
366 Furthermore, aerated systems had a better gas flow condition, which is beneficial to the
367 dispersion of produced N₂O into the atmosphere. The highest emission flux detected in
368 System II was approximately 1.36 times higher than that in System III, because System
369 II had the highest NO₃⁻-N accumulation (Fig. 2c) in treated effluents, indicating that the
370 denitrification process was inhibited, which resulted in more N₂O emissions. Maltais-
371 Landry et al. (2009b) also reported that artificial aeration stimulated N₂O production,
372 potentially via incomplete denitrification.

373 3.4 Microorganism analysis

374 3.4.1 Relationship between nitrogen transformation and related genes

375 Gene number can reflect the microbe number, which closely corresponded to
376 nitrogen transformations. Fig. 5 gives the relative abundance of bacterial *16S rRNA*,
377 *amoA*, *nxrA*, *nirK*, *nirS* and *nosZ* genes in each system. According to the q-PCR results,
378 there were remarkable differences in the microbial community compositions of the
379 VFCWs. As shown in Fig. 5a, the highest abundance of nitrifying bacteria (AOB, NOB)
380 was detected in System III, followed by System II, while fewer AOB and NOB were
381 detected in System I. The results exhibited that intermittent aeration was beneficial to
382 promote the growth and reproduction of AOB and NOB, and the low DO concentration
383 in the unaerated VFCW seriously limited the growth of nitrifying bacteria, explaining
384 why Systems II and III had higher $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ removal efficiency than the control, as
385 shown in Fig. 2a. In addition, the gene number of *nirS* and *nirK* demonstrated that the
386 intermittent aeration of the CW with waste gas only inhibited the activity of the
387 denitrifying bacteria but did not eliminate it. The lowest abundance of denitrifying
388 bacteria was detected in the VFCW aerated with air due to its higher DO concentration,
389 which also led to more N_2O emissions (Table 1). However, although denitrification was
390 responsible for N_2O emissions, a negative correlation between denitrifying bacteria
391 numbers and N_2O emissions was detected in System III. Similar result has also been
392 found by Wunderlin et al. (2012). The difference in the *nosZ* gene numbers, a gene
393 encoding nitrous oxide reductase, during denitrification among the three systems also
394 confirmed this result (Fig. 5b). Henry et al. (2006) found that a higher density of *nosZ*
395 gene copies corresponded to more bacteria capable of reducing N_2O to N_2 . Lower *nosZ*

gene copy numbers were found in System II, indicating a reduced ability to reduce N₂O, which led to more N₂O emissions. Furthermore, intermittent aeration with waste gas markedly enhanced the abundance of bacterial *16S rRNA* in the sediment (Fig. 5b). The reason is that the microbe from the SBR was introduced to the CWs by aerating with waste gas.

3.4.2 Comparative analysis of microbial community structures

To further study the microbial mechanism of pollutant removal, microbial community structure of each system was determined by using high-throughput sequencing analysis. Across all samples, a total of 142,377 reads were obtained with an average read length of 433 bp to 436 bp. Chao1 and ACE were employed as community richness estimators at 3% dissimilarity. Community diversity was analyzed by calculating the Shannon and Simpson diversity index. Based on these indices, aeration had positive effects on the bacterial community. First, the introduction of waste gas remarkably increased community richness, which was consistent with the q-PCR results (Fig. 5). Second, the VFCWs, intermittently aerated with air or waste gas, had higher microbial diversity than the unaerated VFCW because the aerated VFCWs may provide a suitable environment for various bacteria. Moreover, the microbial diversity in System III dropped slightly compared with System II, which was probably due to a larger amount of microbial species in the air as opposed to the waste gas.

Apart from bacterial community richness and diversity, community structure is also important to understanding the performance of the three VFCWs. The microbial community structures for all the systems at the phylum level were observed, and the

major phyla groups in the three systems were uniform. Altogether, 23, 19 and 18 bacteria phyla were detected in Systems I, II and III, respectively. System I was mainly dominated by *Proteobacteria* (67.19%), *Bacteroidetes* (14.25%), *Actinobacteria* (5.90%), *Firmicutes* (3.42%), and *Nitrospirae* (1.30%), while System II presented mainly *Proteobacteria* (60.22%), *Bacteroidetes* (16.57%), *Actinobacteria* (7.23%), *Nitrospirae* (5.65%), and *Firmicutes* (2.61%). Similarly, System III contained *Proteobacteria* (58.32%), *Bacteroidetes* (19.31%), *Nitrospirae* (6.82%), *Actinobacteria* (5.59%), and *Firmicutes* (2.01%). The five most dominant phyla made up over 92% of the community in Systems I, II and III. However, the relative sequence abundances of some phyla varied with aeration. For example, *Nitrospirae*'s relative abundance in Systems II and III improved with aeration (76.99% and 80.94% higher than in System I, respectively). The relative abundances of *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes* showed no significant difference between all the CWs. It has been reported that the three typical phyla of *Proteobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes* strains are crucial for denitrification processes (Miao et al., 2015). Based on the results, nitrifying bacteria were greatly enhanced in the intermittently aerated VFCWs, while denitrifying bacteria experienced no significant difference. These results are consistent with the q-PCR analysis (Fig. 5).

The Venn diagram with common and unique OTUs was adopted to describe the difference and similarity among Systems I, II, III and the SBR (Fig. 6). A large part of the OTUs in Systems II and III was unique from the unaerated VFCW, and only 2242 and 2209 of the OTUs were shared for those aerated with air or waste gas VFCWs,

440 respectively. The results demonstrated that the structures of bacterial communities
441 changed during the process of aeration application. Moreover, the numbers of species
442 which were shared between the SBR and Systems I, II, III were 868, 850 and 947,
443 respectively. The VFCW intermittently aerated with waste gas and the SBR had the
444 highest percentage of shared OTUs (19.70%). This result verified that the highest
445 microbial abundance in System III was from the SBR through the introduction of waste
446 gas.

447 **4. Conclusions**

448 This work provides an effective method to enhance overall wetland treatment
449 performance and eliminate waste gas pollution during biological wastewater treatment
450 processes. The introduction of waste gas significantly intensified the removal of COD
451 and N. The highest COD, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, and TN removal efficiencies were achieved in the
452 VFCW intermittently aerated with waste gas. The waste gas was also purified after
453 passing through the VFCW (as a biofilter). Furthermore, the abundance of nitrifying
454 bacteria (AOB and NOB), denitrifying bacteria and total bacteria in the VFCWs aerated
455 with waste gas were markedly enhanced due to the introduction of microbes from the
456 SBR by aerating with waste gas. In sum, the VFCW intermittently aerated with waste
457 gas not only optimized the DO distribution but also improved microbial abundance and
458 diversity, which validated the feasibility of using waste gas to enhance the oxygenation
459 of VFCWs and increase resource utilization in biological wastewater treatment systems.

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468 **Supporting Information**

469 Comparison of phylotype coverage, diversity and richness estimators at a phylogenetic
470 distance of 3% (Table S1), Influent and effluent NO₂⁻-N concentrations during the
471 experimental period (Fig. S1), Influent and effluent water quality of the different CW
472 systems throughout the experiment: (a) COD and (b) TP (Fig. S2), Relative abundance
473 curves at the phylum level. Sequences that could not be classified into any known group
474 were assigned as unclassified bacteria (Fig. S3), Oxygen content of waste gas profile
475 during the aeration phase (Fig. S4) can be found in the Supporting Information.

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623 **Figure Captions:**

624 **Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of the experimental setup (System I: unaerated VFCW;
625 System II: VFCW intermittently aerated with air; System III: VFCW intermittently
626 aerated with waste gas).

627 **Fig. 2.** Influent and effluent water quality of different VFCW systems, throughout the
628 experiment period: (a) $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$; (b) TN (c) $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ and (d) DO (during the aeration
629 phase).

630 **Fig. 3.** The growth of plants in the three systems, during the experiment period: (a)
631 the chlorophyll content and plant height; (b) CO_2 total emission flux in the three
632 systems

633 **Fig. 4.** Influent and effluent of culturable microbial aerosol concentrations for System
634 III: (a) bacterial aerosol and (b) fungal aerosol.

635 **Fig. 5.** The copy numbers of functional genes related to nitrogen metabolism in each
636 system based on q-PCR analysis: (a) nitrification bacteria and denitrification bacteria;
637 (b) bacterial *16S rRNA* and *nosZ*.

638 **Fig. 6.** Venn diagrams of different groups. Venn plot showing the shared and unique
639 genera found in each plotted group.

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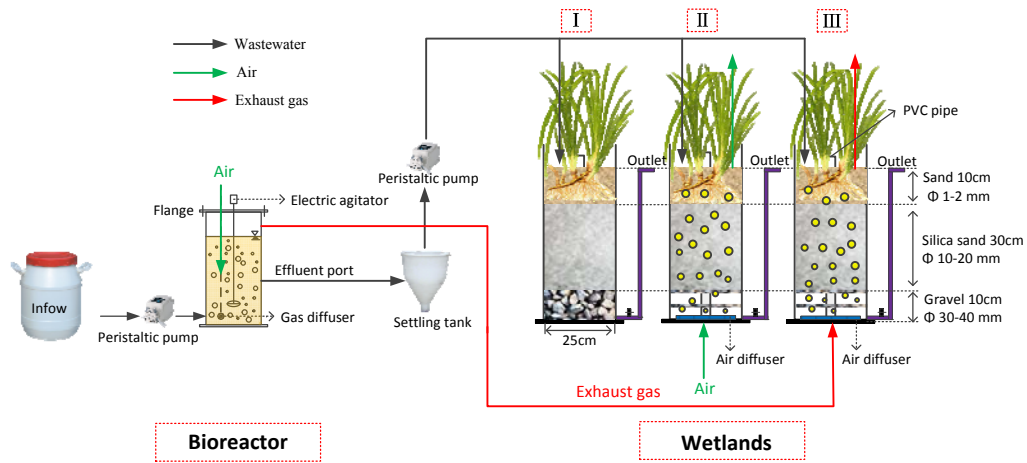
Table 1 N₂O emission flux, H₂S and NH₃ concentrations in different experimental systems.

Experimental systems	Parameters		
	N ₂ O	H ₂ S	NH ₃
	(μgN·m ⁻² ·h ⁻¹)	(mg/m ³)	(mg/m ³)
SBR	10.58 ^c	0.0045 ± 0.0006	0.23 ± 0.02
I	787.34 ± 23.69	—	—
II	1370.47 ± 37.23	—	—
III	1011.38 ± 30.56	0.0010 ± 0.0003 ^a	0.11 ± 0.01 ^b

^a The concentration of H₂S in waste gas after passing through VFCW (system III)

^b The concentration of NH₃ in waste gas after passing through VFCW (system III)

^c N₂O emission quantity during one cycle in SBR (mg)



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648 **Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of the experimental setup (System I: unaerated VFCW;

649 System II: VFCW intermittently aerated with air; System III: VFCW intermittently

650 aerated with waste gas).

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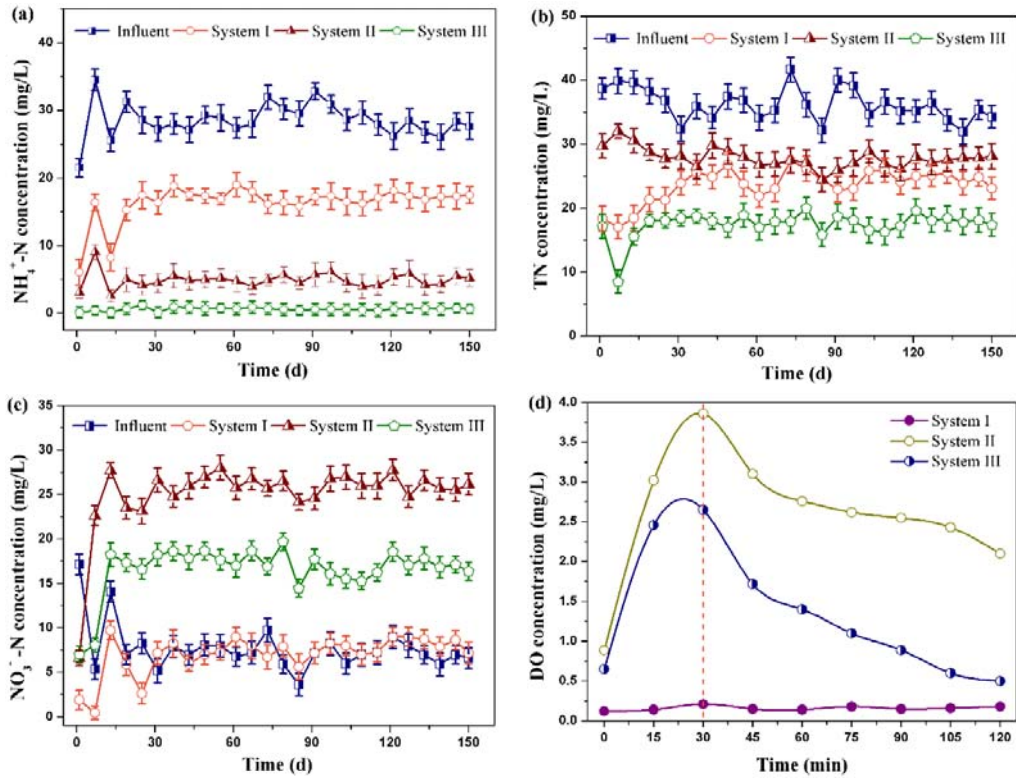
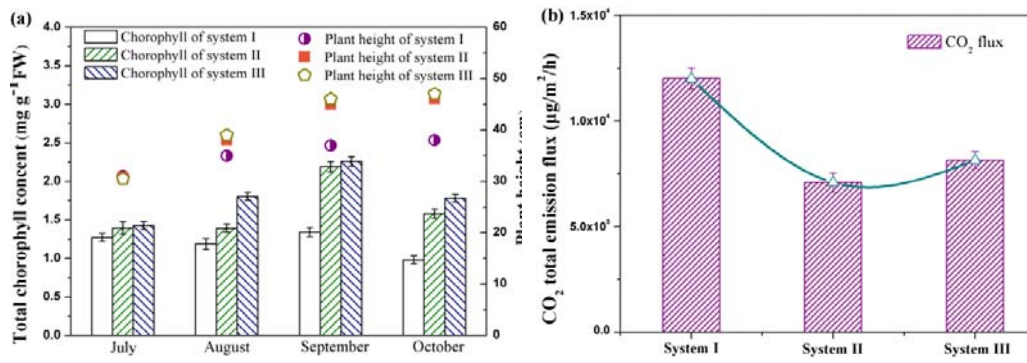
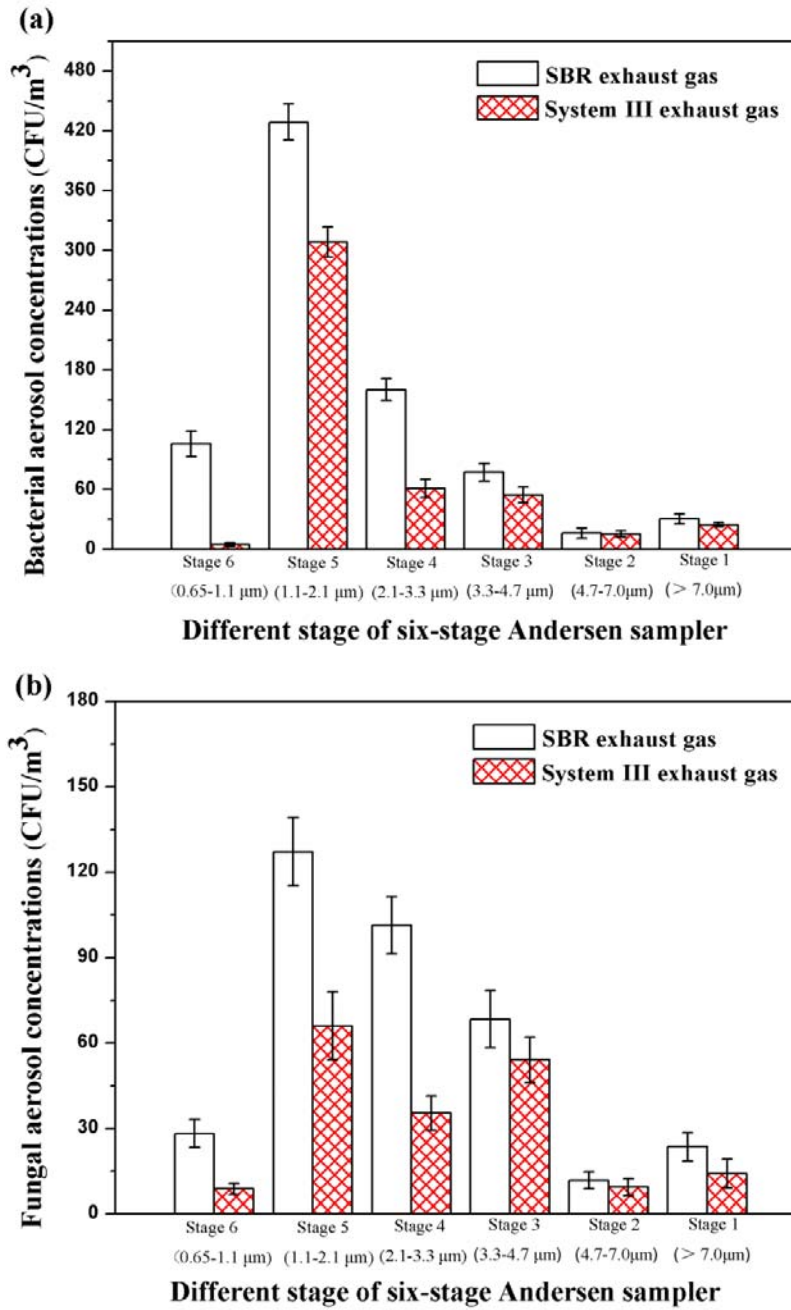


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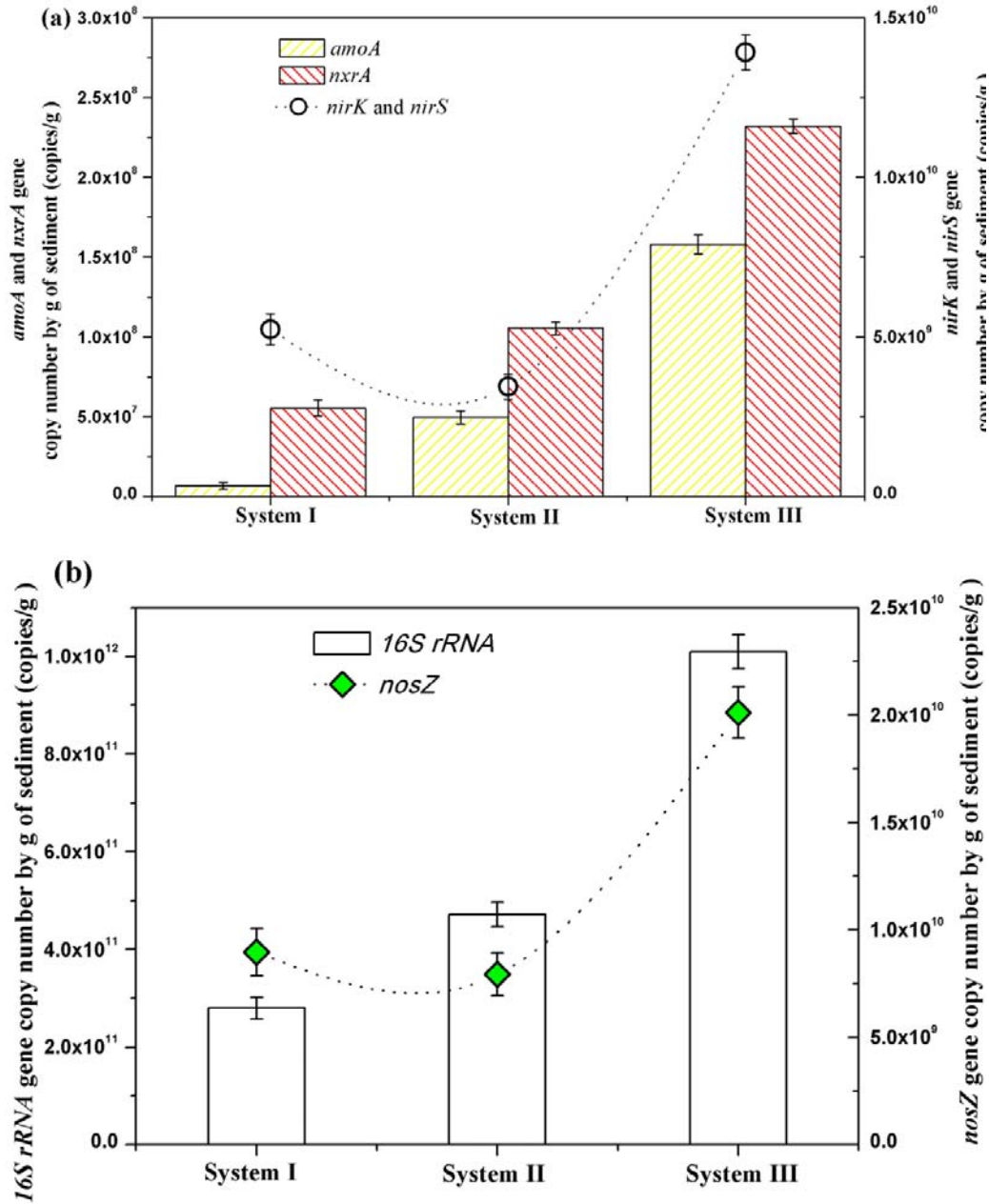


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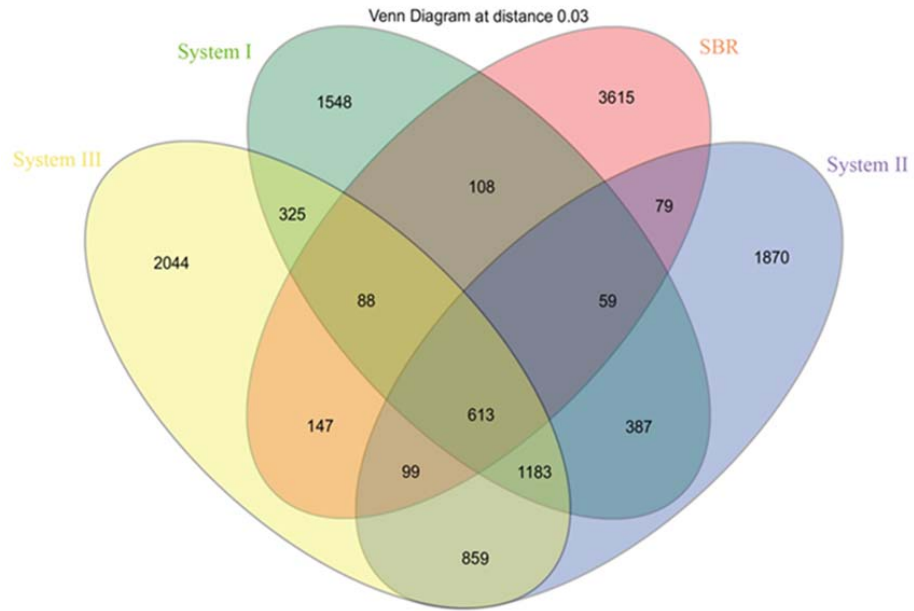
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662



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668 **Fig. 6.** Venn diagrams of different groups. Venn plot showing the shared and unique

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