

1 **Evaluating the sustainability of free water surface flow constructed wetlands:**
2 **methane and nitrous oxide emissions**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Constructed wetlands (CWs) have been used as a green technology to treat various
13 wastewaters for several decades, and greenhouse gases production in these systems
14 attracted increasing attention considering the contributions of methane and nitrous
15 oxide emissions to global warming. However, the detailed knowledge about the
16 contribution of CWs to methane and nitrous oxide emissions in treating sewage
17 treatment plant effluent are still limited in particular for a better understanding of the
18 sustainability of CWs. The fluxes of methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) from free
19 water surface (FWS) CWs in northern China were measured continuously using the
20 static-stationary chamber technique from 2012 to 2013. The results showed that CWs
21 were the significant source of CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Average emission rates of CH₄
22 and N₂O ranged from -30.2 μg m⁻² h⁻¹ to 450.9 μg m⁻² h⁻¹, and -58.8 μg m⁻² h⁻¹ to
23 1251.8 μg m⁻² h⁻¹, respectively. Obvious annual and seasonal variations of CH₄ and
24 N₂O emissions were observed over the 2-year period. In addition, temperatures and

25 plant species had an impact on CH₄ and N₂O emissions. The obtained results showed
26 that FWS CWs, improving water quality but emitting lower CH₄ and N₂O, could be the
27 alternative method for sewage treatment plant effluent.

28 **Keywords:** Constructed wetlands; Methane; Nitrous oxide; Wastewater treatment

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Over the last few decades, point and non-point pollution from agricultural, fishing,
31 municipal and industrial drainage has become a worldwide environmental issue,
32 especially in developing countries (Wu et al., 2015). On the one hand, untreated
33 wastewater is directly discharged into continental surface waters because large scale
34 municipal wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) have not been constructed or fully
35 operated due to large capital investments and operating costs in rural areas.
36 Furthermore, considering the stringent discharge guidelines and standards,
37 conventional wastewater treatment processes fail to remove large amount of nutrients
38 efficiently, and are also not specifically designed to eliminate micropollutants (Luo et
39 al., 2014; Kong et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016). Consequently, untreated
40 wastewater and sewage effluent which contain a variety of excessive organics and
41 nutrients are discharged into rivers, estuaries and oceans, and may deteriorate the
42 water environment quality and impact aquatic ecosystem health. Thus, the potential
43 cost-effective treatment technologies of sewage/wastewater have been partially
44 investigated in previous studies (Wu et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2013; Ekeborg et al.,
45 2014; Pan et al., 2016).

46 In recent years, constructed wetlands (CWs), as a green wastewater treatment
47 technology by simulating natural wetlands, have been proven to be an effective
48 alternative for conventional wastewater treatment technologies owing to their lower

49 cost, less operation and maintenance requirements, and little reliance on energy
50 inputs (Vymazal, 2011; Wu et al., 2015). CWs are generally comprised of vegetation,
51 substrates, soils, microorganisms and water, and have been found to be able to
52 remove various pollutants (e.g., organics, nutrients and micropollutants) from
53 wastewater by utilizing a variety of physical, chemical, and biological mechanisms
54 (microbial degradation, plant uptake, sorption, sedimentation, filtration and
55 precipitation etc.) (Vymazal, 2011; Saeed and Sun, 2012; Wu et al., 2015). Such
56 natural-like systems can be mainly divided into free water surface (FWS) and
57 subsurface flow (SSF) CWs, and are usually used to treat different wastewaters such
58 as domestic sewage, industrial drainage, urban and agricultural, stormwater runoff,
59 animal wastewaters, leachates, mine drainage and polluted river water (Rai et al.,
60 2013; Li et al., 2014; Vymazal, 2014; Greenway, 2015; Saumya et al., 2015). In
61 addition, CWs might be utilized as a supplement to the existing conventional WWTPs
62 for reclaiming and reusing the sewage effluent (Greenway, 2005; Rai et al., 2013).
63 However, with the aim of improving the water quality and conserving aquatic
64 ecosystem, little attention has been paid to purification of WWTPs effluent which was
65 characterized by relatively low organic content and moderate nitrogen and
66 phosphorous concentrations. Meanwhile, as an artificial ecological system simulating
67 natural wetlands, greenhouse gases (GHG) production in these systems attracted
68 increasing attention considering the contributions of methane (CH_4) and nitrous oxide
69 (N_2O) emissions to global warming (Kong et al., 2016). Compared to natural wetlands,
70 heavy nutrient loading to CWs stimulates bacterial processing, resulting in higher
71 fluxes of CH_4 and N_2O , and thus CWs might be significant sources of CH_4 and N_2O
72 emissions. Many studies investigated the emission of CH_4 and N_2O in various types of
73 CWs for treating various kinds of wastewaters (such as domestic wastewater, dairy

74 farm wastewater, municipal wastewater and mining runoff) based on the lab-scale and
75 full-scale experiments (Tanner et al., 1997; Mander et al., 2008; Van der Zaag et al.,
76 2010; Mander et al., 2014). From the current literature review by Mander et al. (2014),
77 it indicated that average values of CH₄ and N₂O emissions in various types of CWs
78 are 97-142 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ and 2.2-3.1 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, and can be influenced by various
79 physical, hydrological and operational factors such as dissolved oxygen (DO),
80 hydraulic retention time (HRT), water depth, inflow loading, influent C/N ratio, climate
81 and vegetation. Therefore, in order to comprehensively evaluate the environmental
82 benefit of using CWs as a sustainable wastewater treatment technology, a continuous
83 measurement of CH₄ and N₂O emissions in treatment processes from CWs is
84 absolutely necessary. Moreover, the detailed knowledge about the contribution of
85 CWs to CH₄ and N₂O emissions in treating WWTPs effluent would be required in
86 particular for the potential of GHG mitigation.

87 The aim of this work was to quantify the long-term CH₄ and N₂O emissions from FWS
88 CWs for treating sewage treatment plant effluent. Annual and seasonal variations of
89 CH₄ and N₂O emissions were analyzed over an approximate 2-year period. The CH₄
90 and N₂O fluxes and their global warming potential were further comparatively
91 compared with common CW treatments and current WWTPs.

92 **2. Material and methods**

93 **2.1 Experimental system and operation**

94 Experimental FWS CW systems which were built in Baihua Park in Jinan, northern
95 China (36°40'36"N, 117°03'42"E) were designed to treat the effluent of sewage
96 treatment plant (Figure 1). The climate of the area is characterized by a
97 warm-temperature monsoonal climate. The experimental treatment system consisted

98 of twelve FWS CW systems with a surface area of approximately 0.13 m² (50 cm in
99 depth and 40 cm in diameter), and each system had an outlet at the bottom. All CW
100 system were filled with washed river sand (particle size <2 mm, 0.39 porosity) as the
101 substrate with a depth of 25 cm. Nine of CW systems were planted with three
102 macrophyte species (W1: *Phragmites australis*, W2: *Cyperus rotundus*, W3: *Zizania*
103 *caduciflora*) with three duplicates, and three of CW systems were not planted (U4:
104 control). The density of plants was 12, 20 and 20 rhizomes per system for W1, W2
105 and W3, respectively. Each system held 20 L water when filled. The water depth of
106 each system was approximately 10 cm from the sand surface.

107 All experimental CW systems were operated for a period of approximate two years
108 (from April 2012 to December 2013). The synthetic sewage treatment plant effluent
109 was used as influent in each wetland in this study, The synthetic wastewater was
110 prepared from tap water and mainly composed of sucrose, (NH₄)₂SO₄, KH₂PO₄ and
111 KNO₃ based on Grade I treatment standard of municipal sewage treatment plants
112 in China (Wu et al., 2011). Specially, the characteristics of the influents in the present
113 study were COD 72.71 mg L⁻¹, NH₄⁺-N 8.36 mg L⁻¹, TN 21.14 mg L⁻¹ and TP 8.36 mg
114 L⁻¹, respectively. Sequencing fills-and-draw batch mode was applied to influent in the
115 whole experimental period. The HRT was 10 d from April to November and 15 d in
116 November and March when temperature was low.

117 **2.2 Sampling and analysis**

118 **2.2.1 Environmental parameters**

119 The following environmental parameters and climatic data in the experimental site
120 were recorded: air temperature (°C) and relative humidity (%).

121 **2.2.2 Water sampling and analysis**

122 Water samples of influent and effluent were taken to evaluate their treatment
123 performance. According to standard methods (APHA, 2005), and all samples were
124 transferred immediately to the lab and analyzed immediately for the following water
125 physicochemical parameters: chemical oxygen demand (COD; HACH DR 2008™
126 Spectrophotometer, USA), ammonia nitrogen (NH_4^+ -N), total nitrogen (TN) and total
127 phosphorus (TP). Dissolved oxygen (DO) and pH were measured in situ by a DO
128 meter (HQ 30d 53LED™ HACH, USA) and a glass pH meter (SG2-T SevenGo pro™
129 MTD, Switzerland).

130 **2.2.3 Gas sampling and analysis**

131 CH_4 and N_2O fluxes from the FWS CWs have been investigated in this study. Gas
132 sampling was done using the static-stationary chamber every two days during the
133 whole experimental period. The transparent chamber system ($50\text{ cm} \times 50\text{ cm} \times 50$
134 cm) was made of polymethyl methacrylate, and the details of collecting steps of gas
135 samples were according to the method described in the previous studies (Wu et al.,
136 2009). The N_2O concentration was determined using the gas chromatography
137 (SP-3410, China) with an electron capture detector (ECD) and a Poropak Q column,
138 using 30 mL/min high-purity nitrogen as the carrier gas. The temperature of the
139 detector and column were set at 36 °C and 50 °C, respectively. The CH_4
140 concentration was determined using the gas chromatography (SP-6890, China)
141 equipped with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID) and stainless steel packed
142 columns (GDX502). The operating conditions for the GC were: 375 °C reformer
143 temperature, 40 °C oven temperature and 200 °C detector temperature. The carrier
144 gas was ultra-high purity N_2 (30 mL min^{-1}). CH_4 and N_2O fluxes ($\mu\text{g m}^{-2}\text{ h}^{-1}$) were

145 determined from the increase in concentration in the chambers over time with linear
146 regression analysis according to the method described in the previous studies (Wu et
147 al., 2009).

148 2.3 Statistical analysis

149 Statistical analyses were performed through the software SPSS 11.0 (SPSS Inc.,
150 Chicago, USA). A two independent samples t-test was conducted to determine the
151 significance of differences between means. In all tests, differences and correlations
152 were considered statistically significant when $P < 0.05$.

153 3. Results and discussion

154 3.1 Environmental variables and water characteristics

155 As shown in Figure 2, monthly mean air temperature during the whole monitoring
156 period ranged from 2.1 °C to 29.5 °C, and the annual average air temperature in
157 2012 was 21.4 °C, which was slightly higher than that in 2013 (19.1 °C). Moreover,
158 the maximum temperature was observed to appear from May to August, and the
159 minimum temperature was recorded in January and February. The average relative
160 humidity during the study period was 57.4%, with the higher value in the first year
161 (59.6%) and the lower value in the second year (55.6%). The average effluent
162 concentrations of COD, $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, TN and TP in different FWS CW systems in the
163 present study were 16.7-24.6 mg L^{-1} , 0.5-4.4 mg L^{-1} , 3.2-11.7 mg L^{-1} and 0.5-1.1 mg
164 L^{-1} , respectively. These results indicated a significant improvement in water quality of
165 sewage treatment plant effluent by treatment through FWS CWs. However, the
166 average removal performance of the planted FWS CW systems was higher than that
167 of unplanted CW systems, which suggested that there was a positive correlation

168 among water purification and plant growth and establishment. On the whole, our
169 results are consistent with other research which reported that reduction of pollutants
170 was found to increase with growth and establishment of the plants (Rai et al., 2013).

171 **3.2 Variation of CH₄ emission**

172 The variation of CH₄ emission from different FWS CW systems in 2012-2013 is shown
173 in Figure 3a. Average CH₄ fluxes had obvious annual and seasonal variations in
174 different FWS CWs, and ranged from -30.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ to 450.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$. Specially,
175 the average CH₄ flux in CW systems in the second year (138.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) was
176 significantly higher than that (88.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) measured in the first year. The higher
177 flux of CH₄ was observed in summer compared to spring and fall, and a general
178 seasonal peak occurred at the end of the summer/beginning of fall. However, it should
179 be noted that the weak absorption (the sink) of CH₄ was found in cold season
180 (November and December) compared with other period when wetland became a
181 source of CH₄. These results suggested that seasons might have a significant effect
182 on CH₄ emissions in FWS CW systems. These results can also be illustrated by the
183 line regression relationship between CH₄ fluxes and air temperature. As shown in
184 Figure 3b, during the 2-year monitoring period, the rate of CH₄ emission in CW
185 systems was significantly associated with air temperatures, and CH₄ flux generally
186 increased with the temperature rising. However, clear difference was found between
187 vegetation and non-vegetation systems. The possible reason may be that microbial
188 activity in CWs would increase with the increasing of temperature at a certain climatic
189 condition (Wu et al., 2011; Mander et al., 2014). On the other hand, it is well
190 recognized that temperature affects plant photosynthesis and plant biomass directly,
191 and thus increases organic matter and gas transportation, which would give a positive

192 effect on CH₄ emission (Zhao et al., 2016). However, some other studies have
193 reported negative effect of plant biomass on CH₄ emission, and these impacts on CH₄
194 emission from CWs vary significantly among plant species (Bhullar et al., 2014).
195 Specifically, significant difference of CH₄ emission rate was found among different
196 CWs with various plant species in this study. The wetlands (W1) vegetated with
197 *Phragmites australis* emitted higher CH₄ (164.1 µg m⁻² h⁻¹) than wetlands (W3) planted
198 with *Zizania caduciflora* (152.1 µg m⁻² h⁻¹), following by and the wetlands (W2) with
199 *Cyperus rotundus* (104.5 µg m⁻² h⁻¹) throughout experimental period. Similarly, Zhao
200 et al. (2016) studied the effects of plant diversity on CH₄ emission and nitrogen
201 removal, and concluded that the best combination of low CH₄ emission and high N
202 removal rates could be achieved in CW microcosms planting *P. arundinacea*. These
203 results about difference among various plant species suggested that CH₄ emission
204 could be affected by other various factors such as CW type, oxygen level, inflow
205 loading and C/N ratio (Mander et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016).

206 On the whole, analysis of CH₄ emission in two years showed FWS CW systems were
207 a CH₄ source, but the mean CH₄ emission rate measured in this study were lower
208 than the values (0.2-36 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) in FWS CW treatment systems and the values
209 (0.064-23 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) in SSF CWs reported in the literature (Mander et al., 2014), and
210 as high as the values (0.003-6.2 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) in enhancing CW systems such as
211 aerated CWs (Maltais-Landry et al., 2009). CH₄ emission was also found to be
212 significantly lower than the results (0.61-9.7 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) from natural wetlands (Chen
213 et al., 2013). Moreover, when compared with common WWTPs, the emission rate was
214 greatly lower than the values (0.06-978 g m⁻² d⁻¹) obtained among different processing
215 units in the typical conventional WWTPs (Ren et al. 2015).

216 3.3 Variation of N₂O emission

217 The variation of N₂O emission from FWS CW systems during the experimental period
218 is illustrated in Figure 4a. It is shown that N₂O emission from the planted and
219 unplanted wetlands varied annually and seasonally. The N₂O emission rate ranged
220 from -58.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ to 1251.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, and specially, the average N₂O flux in CW
221 systems in 2013 (381.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) was significantly higher than that (311.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)
222 recorded in 2012. This result indicated that the wetlands plants were well developed in
223 the second year, and flourishing plants and active microbial population beneficial to
224 nitrification and denitrification would promote production and transport of N₂O as
225 compared with in the initial first year. The N₂O emission was also observed to be
226 higher in summer than in spring and fall, and there had a lower N₂O emission rate in
227 winter due to the plants withering and microorganism activity decreasing. This result
228 indicated that temperature had an important effect on the N₂O emission in CWs, which
229 is in agreement with other reports (Zhang et al. 2005). Figure 4b presents the
230 polynomial regression relationship between N₂O emission rates and air temperature
231 during the 2-year operating period. It can be illustrated that the N₂O emission rate in
232 CWs was increased with the rising temperatures, but the statistics was not significant.
233 Mander et al. (2014) reported that the higher temperature of the environment slightly
234 increased CH₄ emission in CWs, whereas in terms of N₂O emission the relationship
235 was insignificant and unclear.

236 The average N₂O emission rate from the different wetlands in the whole experiment
237 also varied each other. The planted wetlands had higher N₂O emission rate than the
238 unplanted wetlands, which indicated that the plant species had an impact on N₂O
239 emission. N₂O emission rates from the planted wetlands also varied among plant

240 species because of the relative differences in intrinsic species, possible ecotype and
241 growth characteristics. On the whole, wetlands (W1) vegetated with *Phragmites*
242 *australis* had highest N₂O fluxes (mean value 514.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) following by wetlands
243 (W3) planted with *Zizania caduciflora* (mean value 334.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) and the wetlands
244 (W2) with *Cyperus rotundus* (mean value 328.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$). The results suggested
245 that FWS CW systems were a source of N₂O throughout experimental period when
246 treating sewage treatment plant effluent. The maximum N₂O emission rates measured
247 in this study were higher than the values (50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) in natural ecosystems
248 reported by Saggari et al. (2007), but lower than the values measured in CWs treating
249 wastewater (2145 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) reported by Wu et al. (2009), and still greatly lower than
250 the values (2×10^3 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) measured in sewage treatment plants (Benckiser et al.
251 1996).

252 4. Conclusions

253 In this study, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from FWS CWs treating sewage treatment plant
254 effluent, ranging from -30.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ to 450.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, and -58.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ to
255 1251.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively, were significantly low compared with traditional
256 WWTPs, but obvious temporal variations were found in different FWS CWs. The
257 average emission rates of CH₄ and N₂O in CWs in the second year (138.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$
258 and 381.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) were significantly higher than that in the first year (88.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$
259 h^{-1} and 311.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$), and the higher fluxes of CH₄ and N₂O were observed in
260 summer compared to spring and fall. The rate of CH₄ and N₂O emission was
261 increased as the temperature rising, and the planted wetlands had higher CH₄ and
262 N₂O emission than the unplanted wetlands. These results showed that FWS CWs,
263 achieving the better treatment performance and lower GHG emission, could be an

264 alternative method for sewage treatment plant effluent, which would be beneficial for
265 the sustainable operation and successful application of CW systems.

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375 **Figure Captions:**

376 Figure 1 Figure 1 Profile of the laboratory-scale constructed wetland (a) and

377 photograph of the experimental constructed wetland systems (b)

378 Figure 2 The variation of air temperature and relative humidity during the experimental
379 period.380 Figure 3 The variation of CH₄ emissions from different wetland systems (W1:381 *Phragmites australis*, W2: *Cyperus rotundus*, W3: *Zizania caduciflora*, W4:

382 unplanted) during the experimental period (a), and linear regression between

383 air temperature and CH₄ emission rates (b).384 Figure 4 The variation of N₂O emissions from different wetland systems (W1:385 *Phragmites australis*, W2: *Cyperus rotundus*, W3: *Zizania caduciflora*, W4:

386 unplanted) during the experimental period (a), and polynomial regression

387 between air temperature and N₂O emission rates (b).

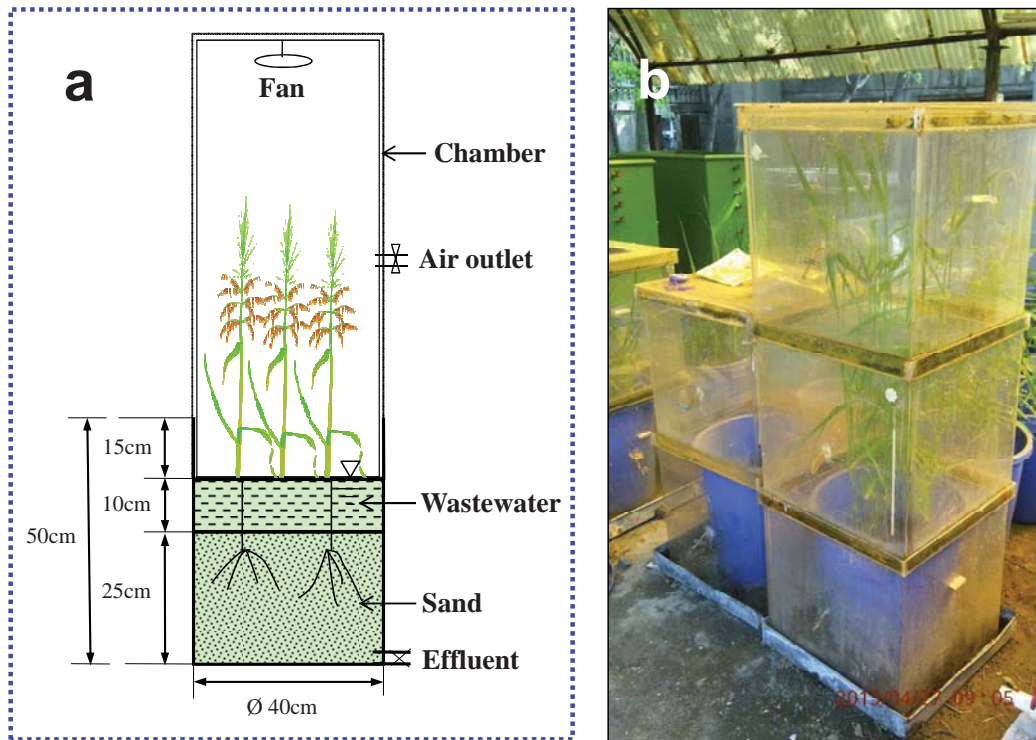


Figure 1 Profile of the laboratory-scale constructed wetland (a) and photograph of the experimental constructed wetland systems (b)

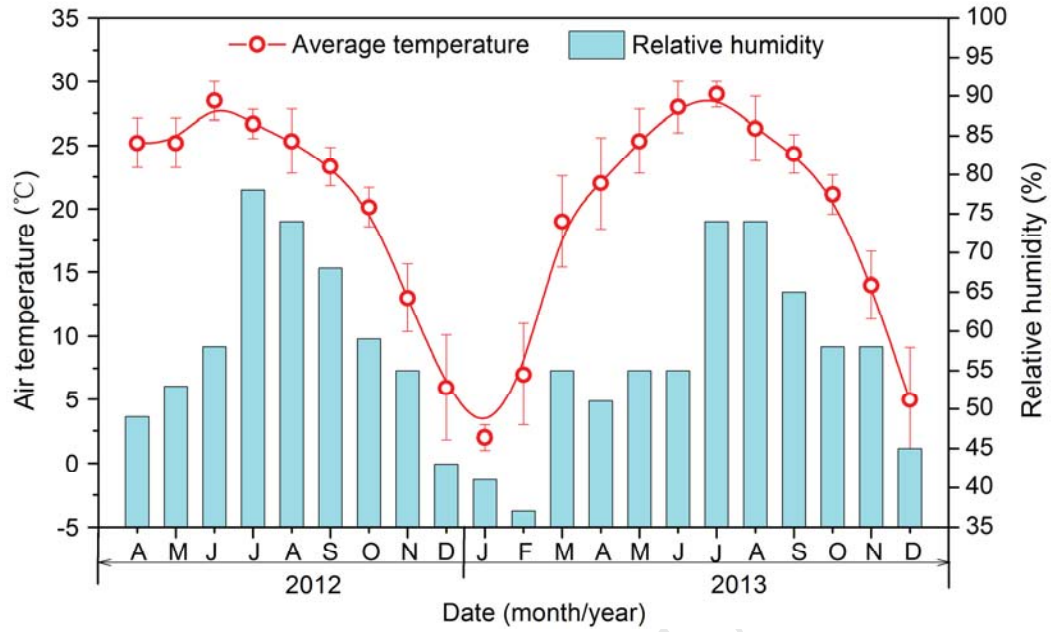


Figure 2 The variation of air temperature and relative humidity during the experimental period.

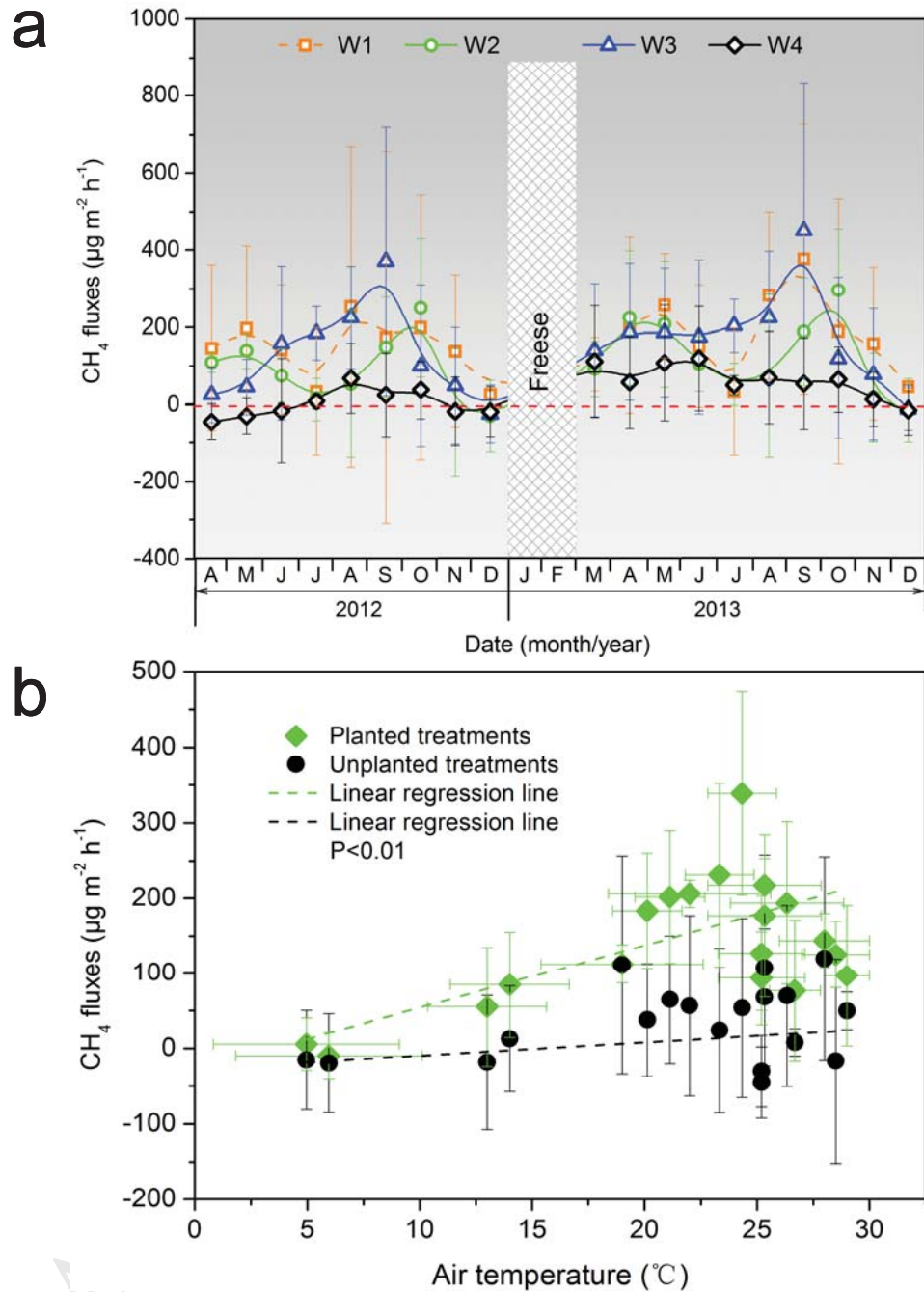
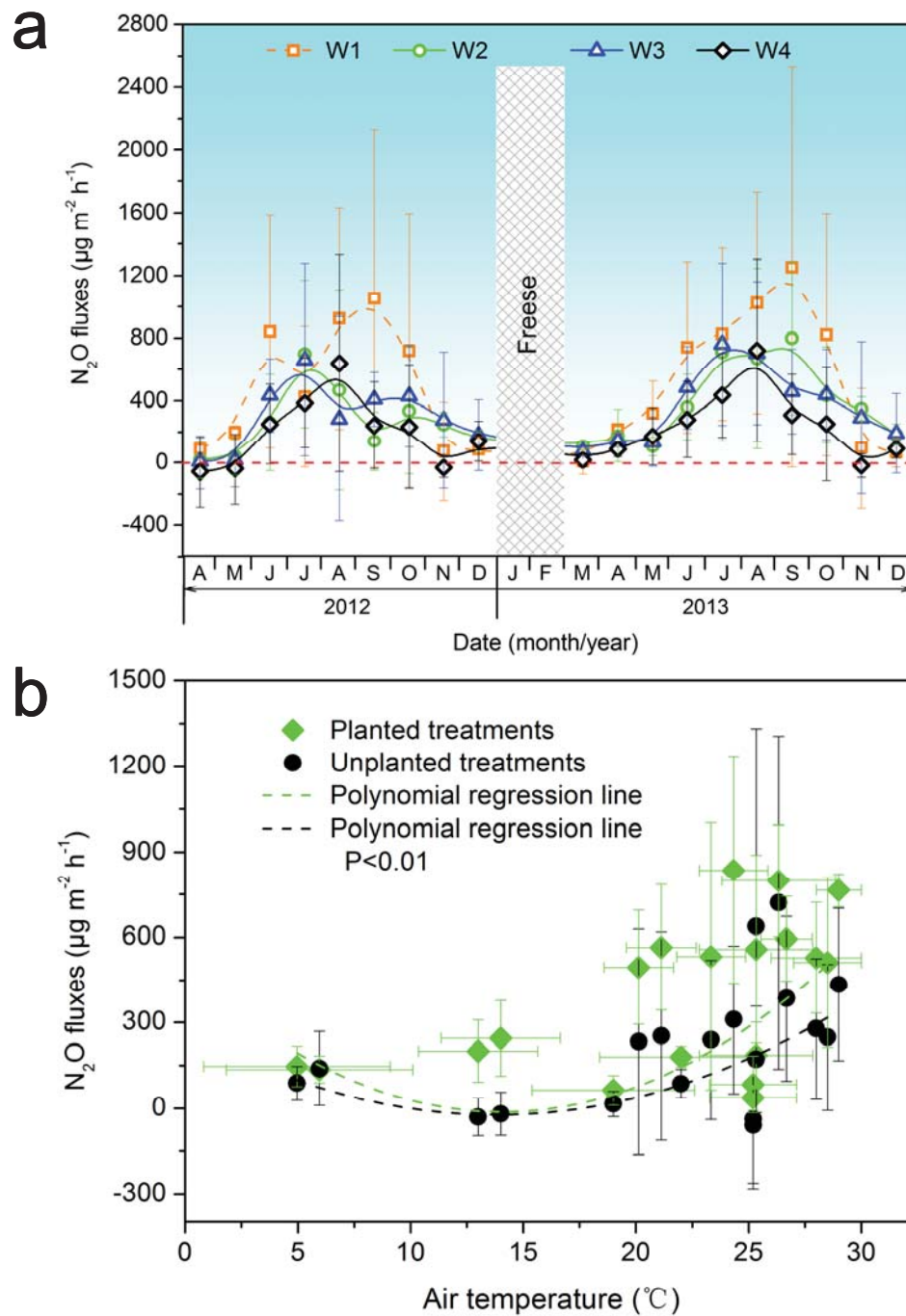


Figure 3 The variation of CH₄ emissions from different wetland systems (W1: *Phragmites australis*, W2: *Cyperus rotundus*, W3: *Zizania caduciflora*, W4: unplanted) during the experimental period (a), and linear regression between air temperature and CH₄ emission rates (b).



Research Highlights

- 1) FWS CWs were used to treat sewage treatment plant effluent for about two years.
- 2) Annual and seasonal variations of CH₄ and N₂O fluxes from FWS CWs were observed.
- 3) FWS CWs might be the significant source of CH₄ and N₂O.
- 4) Temperatures and plant species had an impact on CH₄ and N₂O emission.