

1 **Enhancement of surface flow constructed wetlands performance at low**
2 **temperature through seasonal plant collocation**

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12 **Abstract:**

13 In the present study, a novel seasonal plant collocation system (SPCS),
14 specifically the *Potamogeton crispus* and *Phragmites australis* series system, was
15 investigated to enhance the performance of surface flow constructed wetlands
16 (SFCWs) at low temperature. Results of a year-round experiment showed that SPCS
17 conquered the adverse effect of low temperature and achieved sustainable nutrients
18 removal. In addition, during winter, removal efficiencies of NH₄-N, TP, COD, and
19 TN in SPCS were 18.1%, 17.6%, 10.1% and 5.2% higher than that in the control,
20 respectively. *P. crispus* and *P. australis* complemented each other in terms of plant
21 growth and plant uptake during the experiment period. Furthermore, it emerged that *P.*
22 *crispus* could increase the quantity of ammonia oxidizing bacteria by 10.2%, due to

1 its high oxygen enrichment ability. It is suggested that seasonal plant collocation has a
2 promising future in SFCWs of areas being affected by climate change, e.g. northern
3 China.

4 **Keywords:** Constructed wetlands; Nutrients removal; Low temperature; Seasonal
5 plant collocation.

6 **1. Introduction**

7 Constructed wetlands (CWs) are engineered systems that enable natural
8 treatment processes to occur within a more controlled environment. They have been
9 widely used for wastewater treatment because of their ability to remove nutrients,
10 organic matter, pathogenic bacteria and other pollutants (Wu et al., 2016). Compared
11 with conventional purification systems, CWs are economical, easy to operate and
12 maintain (Li et al., 2014). Removal of contaminants in CWs is highly dependent on
13 the combined effects of filtration, sedimentation, plant absorption and complex
14 microbial processes. These include the biodegradation of organics,
15 nitrification–denitrification of nitrogen, uptake of nitrogen and phosphorus and
16 adsorption of phosphorus, etc. (Ávila et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2016).

17 Unlike other traditional wastewater treatment processes, CWs are man-made
18 nature systems, which are subject to changes in seasonal temperature (Rai et al., 2015).
19 Previous studies have shown that treatment performance of CWs clearly declined
20 obviously at low temperature (Bojcevska & Tonderski, 2007; Wang & Li, 2015).
21 Wang et al. (2012) reported that removal efficiency of ammonia nitrogen (NH₄-N),
22 total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP) declined by 15%, 45% and 16%,

1 respectively, in cold winter compared to that in warm seasons in a long-term study of
2 a two-stage surface flow constructed wetland (SFCW). Common thermophile plants
3 (e.g., *P. australis* and *Arundo donax*) in CWs are in a state of senescence at low
4 temperature, which leads to weak metabolism (Van de Moortel et al., 2010). As a
5 result, both plant nutrient uptake rates and the microbial quantities around plant roots
6 declined. Moreover, microbial activities can also be depressed when at low
7 temperature. Various studies on wastewater treatment reported that both nitrite and
8 nitrate bacteria were strongly inhibited below 10 °C (Kim et al., 2006; Randall &
9 Buth, 1984), which led to poor efficiency in nitrogen removal. Thus, in the regions
10 like northern China, strategies should be studied and implemented to enhance
11 treatment efficiency of CWs at low temperature. Doing so will make it possible to
12 overcome the fluctuations in performance that are caused by climate change.

13 To date, strategies for improving CWs treatment efficiency at low temperature
14 have mainly concentrated on optimizing hydraulic loading, psychrotrophic bacteria
15 selection, and insulation. Zhang et al. (2006) reported that removal efficiencies of
16 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and COD of a wetland when treating polluted river water in winter increased
17 from 14% to 39% and 20% to 31%, respectively, when hydraulic loading rate
18 decreased by 50%. However, all the above methods have some disadvantages. Low
19 hydraulic loading could improve wastewater treatment efficiency in winter, but at the
20 cost of reduced treatment capability. Psychrotrophic bacteria have poor competitive
21 ability in wetland, and insulation measurements can be costly. It is therefore critical

1 and urgent to develop an efficient and economical method to improve CWs'
2 performance at low temperature.

3 Plants are essential structural components of CWs, and play an important role in
4 wastewater treatment because of their uptake, storage, and release processes.
5 Koottatep and Polprasert (1997) reported that plant uptake contributed 43% of the TN
6 removal in a study that explored the role of plant uptake in nitrogen removal in
7 wetlands. Greenway and Woolley (2000) also reported that plant uptake accounted for
8 44%-65% of TP removal in a study on plant biomass and nutrient removal in a
9 wetland. Wetland plants show significant differences in physiological properties.
10 Many thermophilous plants (e.g. *P. australis* and *Acorus calamus*) decline in winter
11 while many cold-resistant plants (e.g. *P. crispus* and *Ceratophyllum demersum*) are
12 still growing. A submerged and emergent plants collocation system, which consisted
13 of *P. australis* and *P. distinctus*, was proposed by Weisner et al. (1994) to study the
14 characteristics of organic carbon release in the system. They found that the removal of
15 nitrogen improved theoretically. Liang et al. (2011) compared monoculture and mixed
16 wetlands, and observed that mixed wetlands had significant advantages in terms of
17 treatment performance, adaptability for seasonal variations, and abundance of
18 microbial populations compared to monoculture wetlands. However, no study has to
19 date reported using seasonal submerged and emergent plants collocation to enhance
20 the treatment performance of SFCWs at low temperature.

21 Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate the efficiencies of seasonal plant
22 collocation system (SPCS) for intensifying pollutants removal, focusing on low

1 temperature condition. In addition, the mechanisms of nutrients removal in the SPCS
2 were studied as well.

3 **2. Materials and Methods**

4 **2.1. Experiment setup**

5 The experiment was conducted under a transparent rain shelter in Baihua Park in
6 Jinan, northern China (36°40' 36"N, 117°03'42"E). The climate is characterized by
7 annual precipitation of 670.7 mm, and the highest temperature is above 35 °C in
8 summer while the lowest temperature can reach below 0 °C in winter. The
9 experiment period lasted from March 2, 2015 to January 31, 2016. In February 2016,
10 which is generally known as the freeze-up period, the experiment was stopped.

11 *P.crispus*, one of the common submerged plant species found in north China,
12 was used for this study. Ye and Guo (2011) constructed a series of water purification
13 wetlands with winter vegetation, and *P.crispus* indicated a continuously purification
14 effect in winter. The SPCS comprised *P. crispus* and *P. australis* in a series, while
15 normal plant composition system (NPCS), acting as the control was planted using
16 only the *P. australis* species. Each system was composed of two units in a series, and
17 each unit was constructed by plexiglass with the following dimensions: 100cm height,
18 90cm length and 60cm width (Fig. 1a). Dimensional gradation substrate was used in
19 the treated units: a 10cm bottom layer of gravel (1–2 mm in diameter) and a 30cm top
20 layer of washed river sands (1-2mm in diameter). In SPCS, the first treated unit (FTU)
21 was planted with *P.crispus* and the second treated unit (STU) was planted with *P.*
22 *australis*, while both treated units were planted with *P. australis* in NPCS (Fig. 1b). *P.*

1 *crispus* and *P. australis* were planted at a density of 120 rhizomes per square meter
2 and 45 rhizomes per square meter, respectively. All plants were transferred from
3 Xiaomei River wetland, Liaocheng, China. After planting, the systems were fed with
4 low concentration of wastewater and stabilized for two weeks before the experiment
5 began. *P. crispus* did not survive the summer, so the wilted *P. crispus* was removed in
6 September 9, 2015, and was reseed in September 15, 2015. The systems' influent was
7 met for the water quality: 50mg/L COD, 5mg/L NH₄-N, 20mg/L TN and 1mg/L TP.
8 All systems were fed continuously with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of 5d.

9 **2.2. Plant physiology**

10 Plant heights of the *P. crispus* and *P. australis* were monitored every month
11 during the experiment period. In the middle of April, July, October and January,
12 mature leaves of the plants were collected to measure chlorophyll content according
13 to the method reported by Wellburn (1994). Results of the four months represented
14 for the chlorophyll content in spring, summer, autumn and winter, respectively. *P.*
15 *crispus*'s absorbing capacity for NH₄-N and NO₃-N were tested using hydroponic
16 *P. crispus*, which were cultivated in basins accompanying the purification systems.
17 The experiment parameters and ambient conditions were kept consistent with the
18 purification systems except the static inflow form. On the fifteenth day of each month,
19 5 plants of *P. crispus* in the basin were taken to the laboratory and tested for
20 absorption rates for NH₄-N and NO₃-N. *P. crispus* was put into a beaker filled with
21 artificial wastewater, and the NH₄-N and NO₃-N concentrations were 5 and 15mg/L,
22 respectively. A series of solution samples were taken at 5min intervals for 20min to

1 estimate $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ absorption rates, which could be calculated by linear
2 regression analyses of the concentration versus time (Romero et al., 1999).

3 **2.3. Water sampling and analysis**

4 In each system, water samples were collected from the influent and effluent of
5 the treated units every 5 days. After sampling, all samples were then taken to the
6 laboratory immediately and analyzed for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, TP, COD and TN following the
7 standard methods (APHA, 2005). Dissolved oxygen (DO) and water temperature were
8 measured at the mid-water depth in situ using a DO meter (HQ 30d 53LED™ HACH
9 USA).

10 **2.4. Microbial analysis**

11 At the end of each season, microbial samples in every unit were collected by
12 collecting sand samples from the top layer (5 to 10cm) in five spots in every unit
13 (Wang et al., 2015). MOBIO PowerSand™ DNA Isolation Kits were used to extract
14 the DNA of the mixed substrate of the five sand samples. To characterize the amount
15 of ammonia oxidation bacteria (AOB), the *amoA* genes were detected by quantitative
16 PCR (Q-PCR) using Roche LC-480 (USA). Subunit A of ammonia monooxygenase
17 (*amoA*), which encoding ammonia monooxygenase, is widely used as specific
18 functional genes to indicate AOB in microbiology analysis (Pratscher et al., 2011).
19 The reaction mixture was 20 μL , which was composed by: 10 μL of SYBR® Premix
20 Ex Taq™, 7.2 μL of nuclease-free water, 0.4 μL of each of the forward and reverse
21 primers, and 2 μL of template DNA. PCR programs were as follows: initial

1 denaturation for 60 s at 94 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 60 s, 54 °C for 60 s,
2 and 72 °C for 3 min.

3 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

4 Statistical analysis was undertaken utilizing the statistical program SPSS 22.0
5 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). Significance of differences between means of the results
6 of the experiment group and control group in each season were evaluated through
7 two-sample t-tests. Significant difference was considered to be $P < 0.05$.

8 **3. Results and discussion**

9 **3.1. Complementarity of seasonal plants**

10 The temperature of air and water during the experiment period was presented in
11 Fig. 2a, which revealed the four distinct seasons. Throughout the experiment period, *P.*
12 *crispus* and *P. australis* grew well without any obvious symptoms emerging of
13 toxicity or nutrient deficiency. The growth curves of the two plants are shown in Fig.
14 2b. The mature plant height was 80 and 179cm for *P. crispus* and *P. australis*,
15 respectively, and this is in the range reported by Chen et al. (2011) in their study. The
16 chlorophyll content of the plants is shown in Fig. 2c, and the variation trend during
17 the four seasons was in accordance with the plant growth rate. Fig. 2d presents the
18 results of the *P. crispus*'s absorption rates for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$. *P. crispus*
19 maintained high absorption rates for nitrogen in spring and winter, but these declined
20 to a minimal value in summer (Fig. 2d).

21 *P. crispus* and *P. australis* both had highest growth rates during spring (0.47cm/d
22 and 0.77cm/d, respectively). Significant differences in growth rates of the two plants

1 were observed in the subsequent three seasons. *P. australis* was still growing in
2 summer, when *P. crispus* had gradually stopped growing. During autumn and winter,
3 *P. crispus* began to germinate and grow, while *P. australis* was in the dormant stage
4 (Fig. 2b). Compared to the deficiency of the plant growth in NPCS in autumn and
5 winter, the plant grew in a stable fashion during the long-term experiment in SPCS,
6 and showed growth complementarity in different seasons. In terms of plant growth,
7 SPCS was more stable than NPCS in the long-term study.

8 Chlorophyll content reflected plant growth conditions from another perspective.
9 Both plants had relatively high chlorophyll content in spring (3.81mg/g FW for *P.*
10 *crispus* and 3.46 mg/g FW for *P. australis*), indicating strong photosynthesis that
11 enabled rapid plant growth during that season (Fig. 2c). This explained the highest
12 plant growth rate observed in spring (Fig. 2b). A variation in chlorophyll content was
13 similar with plant growth in the three seasons as well. For *P. crispus*, chlorophyll
14 content fell to 0.59 mg/g FW in summer, while from autumn to winter, it increased
15 from 2.11 to 3.33 mg/g FW. This was corresponded with the plant growth rate of *P.*
16 *crispus*. In summer, *P. crispus*' plant growth rate dropped to the lowest level, and the
17 increasing trend was also obtained from autumn to winter (Fig. 2b). Chlorophyll
18 content of *P. australis* showed a sustained downward trend from summer to winter
19 (Fig. 2c), and the plant growth rate was also in falling state from summer to winter
20 (Fig. 2b).

21 *P. crispus* showed significant higher absorption rates for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ towards $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$
22 (Fig. 2d), which was due to different absorption mechanisms for the different forms of

1 nitrogen. In the plant uptake process of nitrogen, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ uptake is more sensitive to
2 low energy conditions than $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$. The uptake of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ relied on passive diffusion
3 with no energy requirement, whereas $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ uptake was based on the energy
4 requirement process of active absorption (Mengel & Viro, 1978). Even if the
5 absorption rate differed between the two types of nitrogen, *P. crispus* showed the
6 same seasonal variation characteristic in the absorption rate for both nitrogen forms,
7 and in accordance with the *P. crispus*'s growth condition. In spring, when *P. crispus*
8 had reached its highest growth rate, plant uptake also achieved its strongest state to
9 meet the demands of growth, so the highest absorption rates for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$
10 were observed in this season. In autumn and winter, *P. crispus* continued to grow,
11 during which time *P. crispus* could sustain the absorption of nitrogen. Especially in
12 winter, the absorption rates for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ were 1.59 and 0.62 mgNmin^{-1}
13 gDW^{-1} , just lower than that in spring. *P. crispus* showed least absorption for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
14 and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ as it began to decline and subsequently plant uptake was weakest.
15 Conversely, plant uptake of *P. australis* was significantly high in spring and summer,
16 but virtually ceased in winter. Therefore, in terms of plant uptake for nutrients, SPCS
17 showed complementarity in the long-term study as well.

18 **3.2. Effect of SPCS on wastewater treatment performance**

19 Effluent concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, TP, COD and TN during the long-term
20 experiment are shown in Fig. 3. During the experiment, the treatment performance
21 remained stable in SPCS and a significant improvement was observed in winter
22 compared to the NPCCS.

1 In the year-round experiment, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal performance of SPCS had a clear
2 advantage compared with NPCS. In SPCS, the best treatment efficiency regarding
3 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was 76.9% which was observed in spring, and this declined to 65.9% in
4 summer. In the followed autumn and winter, treatment efficiency was higher than in
5 summer even when the temperature fell (Fig. 3a). Compared to NPCS, the efficiencies
6 in treating $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ in SPCS were improved by 6.2%, 14.6%, and 18.1% in spring,
7 autumn and winter, respectively ($P < 0.05$), and no significant difference was observed
8 in summer between the two systems. It is generally accepted that DO and plant uptake
9 are two key factors which influence $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal (Fan et al., 2016). Oxidation via
10 nitrification is the key process in $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal by microbial activities, and DO
11 above 1.5 mg/L is essential for nitrification to occur (Wu et al., 2011). Sui et al. (2016)
12 reported that under high DO conditions (above 3.75 mg/L), $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal efficiency
13 was improved by 35% relative to DO conditions below 1.50mg/L. To study the
14 different outcomes caused by the DO factor on $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal in the two systems,
15 24h DO monitoring began at 6:00am in the two systems and the results are shown in
16 Fig. 4. In the two systems, DO reached maximum values at about 5:00pm, and
17 reached minimum values at 6:00am. Photosynthesis and respiration are two key
18 factors that influence DO concentration in the plant dominant pond. During the
19 daytime, photosynthesis was stronger than respiration and DO was in an enrichment
20 state. At night, photosynthesis almost stopped, respiration became the dominant factor,
21 and DO was consumed at night, so the minimum values appeared at 6:00am. A
22 significantly larger DO concentration was observed in SPCS compared to NPCS (Fig.

1 4). Since *P. crispus* grew below the water's surface, oxygen produced by
2 photosynthesis released into the water directly, which increased DO enrichment in
3 SPCS. According to the discussion in section 3.1, photosynthesis is strong with
4 relatively high levels of chlorophyll during spring, autumn, and winter. DO
5 concentration was high in the three seasons and was in accordance with the NH₄-N
6 treatment performance.

7 Plant uptake is another important way in the NH₄-N removal in CWs. Gottschall
8 et al. (2007) reported that plant uptake accounted for 21% of NH₄-N removal during
9 the growing season in a CW treating agricultural wastewater. In NPCS, plant uptake
10 of NH₄-N almost completely ceased in winter because the *P. australis* was in the
11 resting stage, and this was consistent with the treatment performance in NPCS (Fig.
12 3a). In SPCS, *P. crispus* retained impressive absorption ability for NH₄-N, and
13 furthermore the enrichment of DO, resulted in the stable treatment efficiency of
14 NH₄-N during winter. Even if *P. crispus* gradually declined in summer in SPCS, no
15 significant difference in NH₄-N removal was observed with NPCS, when the NPCS
16 functioned well in summer ($P>0.05$). Numerous studies have shown that the *P.*
17 *australis* system performed better in summer than other seasons (Abou-Elela et al.,
18 2013; Wu et al., 2013), which could make up for the adverse effects caused by decline
19 of *P. crispus* in SPCS. Table 1 summarizes the contribution ratios in nutrient removal
20 of the FTU, from which the plant complementary effect could be seen obviously in
21 SPCS. The FTU's highest contribution ratio for removing NH₄-N from SPCS was

1 82.9%. This was observed in winter while the lowest was 60.7% observed in summer,
2 indicating that the two plant types both alternatively played a major purification role.

3 The highest TP treatment efficiency was observed in the first 60 days during
4 spring in both systems, i.e. 86.9% and 86.8% for SPCS and NPCS, respectively (Fig.
5 3b). In summer, treatment efficiency of TP declined by 26.3% and 23.5% in SPCS
6 and NPCS, respectively. No significant difference was observed between the two
7 systems in spring and summer ($P>0.05$). In autumn and winter, TP treatment
8 performance increased again in SPCS and no significant variation was observed in
9 NPCS. The treatment efficiencies significantly were improved by 8.4% and 17.6% in
10 SPCS compared to NPCS. TP removal mechanisms in CWs mainly include
11 accumulation by substrates and plant uptake. In spring, *P. crispus* and *P. australis* had
12 considerable uptake ability since both plants were still growing, and the substrates'
13 adsorption capacity had reached the maximum level (Ciupa, 1996). Kadlec (2005)
14 reviewed TP treatment performance in emergent plants dominated SFCWs observing
15 that except for the enhanced removal in the spring growth period, seasonal effects on
16 TP removal were minimal. This was consistent with the performance of TP removal
17 in NPCS. In TP removal processes, temperature had little influence on sorption
18 reactions. In this circumstance, TP removal performance changed little when the
19 substrates' adsorption capacity and plant uptake were stable in NPCS during autumn
20 and winter. In SPCS, *P. crispus* began to germinate, and this process restored the
21 ability to adsorb phosphorus in autumn. Concerning the rapid growth stage of *P.*
22 *crispus* in winter, more phosphorus was absorbed by *P. crispus* to meet the needs of

1 growth. Meanwhile, radial oxygen loss and root respiration of *P. crispus* improved the
2 substrates' porosity, which enhanced their adsorption in autumn and winter in SPCS
3 (Gillis & Miller, 2000). The two factors gave the reasons for the better TP removal
4 performance in SPCS during autumn and winter. The FTU's lowest contribution ratio
5 was 64.2% observed in summer, and it increased by 7.6% and 17.2% in autumn and
6 winter, respectively. Variation in the contribution ratio of FTU in SPCS for TP
7 removal was similar with $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal (Table 1), and commensurate with plant
8 growth. *P. crispus* played a major role in TP removal in autumn and winter, making
9 up for the adverse effects caused by the declining *P. australis*.

10 In the long-term experiment period, COD removal efficiency ranged from 32.9%
11 (observed in summer) to 40.7% (observed in winter) in SPCS, while the removal
12 efficiency ranged from 35.6% (observed in winter) to 41.3% (observed in summer) in
13 NPCS. Significant differences in COD removal were found in summer and winter
14 between the two systems ($P < 0.05$). As can be seen in Fig. 3c, COD effluent
15 concentration was generally higher in SPCS than that in NPCS during summer,
16 especially in the last thirty days. In winter, COD treatment performance was poorer
17 than that in summer in NPCS, while SPCS was significantly better than NPCS. Jing et
18 al. (2001) reported that COD removal efficiency ranged from 13%-51% in a SFCWs
19 for polluted river treatment. In winter, COD removal efficiency was generally below
20 30%, which was similar to how well NPCS performed. In comparison, SPCS showed
21 a great advantage in winter with COD removal efficiency improving by 10.1%
22 compared to NPCS. In winter, since the oxygen supply from the growing *P. crispus*

1 root zone can enhance microorganisms' removal of organic material in the sediment
2 or on the surfaces of stems and roots, COD removal did improve. The contribution
3 ratio of the FTU in COD removal in SPCS was highest in winter (77.7%),
4 demonstrating that the *P. crispus* dominated system played critical purification
5 process. *P. crispus* was declined in summer, when the stems and leaves fell to the
6 bottom of the water. Organic matter was released from the decaying plant tissue,
7 leading to rising larger loading of COD in SPCS. This in turn resulted in significantly
8 lower treatment efficiency in SPCS compared to NPCS in summer. FTU's
9 contribution ratio was observed to be the lowest (57.6%) in summer, indicating the
10 declined treatment capacity for COD of *P. crispus* simultaneously. It is very important
11 to note that the *P. crispus* needs to be harvested in time to avoid secondary pollution
12 when using the SPCS.

13 The mean effluent TN concentrations in the purification system throughout the
14 study period are displayed in Fig. 3d. TN removal efficiencies were 43.2%, 44.3%,
15 46.3% and 44.7% for spring, summer, autumn, and winter in SPCS, respectively,
16 which were consistency with the results reported by Vymazal (2007). In NPCS, no
17 significant difference in TN removal performance was found between both systems
18 except during winter ($P>0.05$). TN treatment efficiency slightly increased by 5.2%
19 during the operating period in winter in SPCS compared to NPCS ($P<0.05$). In
20 SFCWs, the complete nitrogen removal was relied on nitrification-denitrification and
21 plant uptake. Nitrogen removal via denitrification is an anaerobic and heterotrophic
22 microbial process, and it can be restricted by various factors such as insufficient

1 organic carbon source and excess oxygen. Ding et. al (2012) reported that optimal
2 COD/N ratio was 9.0 for TN removal in a study of nitrogen removal through
3 microorganism process in CWs. However, the COD/N ratio was 2.5 for the two
4 systems, which was significantly lower than the optimum value of 9.0. Therefore, in
5 both systems COD/N was the limiting factor in microbial activities for TN removal.
6 In this case, plant uptake was the deciding factor for TN removal in the two systems.
7 SPCS showed capacity to engage in sustainable absorption for nitrogen in winter, and
8 compared to the defect of plant uptake in NPCS, SPCS proved to be superior in TN
9 removal performance in winter.

10 **3.3. Microorganism quantities in SPCS**

11 It is believed that oxidation of ammonia to nitrite is a critical step in nitrification,
12 and the process is carried out by obligate aerobes AOB (Sims et al., 2012). Fig. 5
13 presents the differences in AOB quantities among the wetlands in sands based on the
14 *amoA* gene in the two systems. In the FTU in SPCS, the highest *amoA* gene copy
15 numbers was 1.4×10^8 copies/g soil observed in spring, which was 1.2, 1.5 and 1.6
16 times that of the number in summer, autumn, and winter. In the STU in SPCS, there
17 were significantly fewer *amoA* gene numbers observed compared to FTU ($P < 0.05$),
18 and the highest number in STU was 4.6×10^7 copies/g soil observed in summer,
19 which was 2.7, 1.2 and 4.9 times that of the number in spring, autumn, and winter.
20 Total AOB quantities in SPCS improved by 10.2% during the experiment compared
21 to the NPCS. Results further indicated that treatment performance of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
22 corresponded with the AOB abundance distribution in SPCS. *P. crispus* showed

1 significant DO enrichment ability, and $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ loading was higher in FTU in SPCS,
2 which both created favorable conditions for AOB growth. However, many studies
3 have shown that AOB was depressed at low temperature (Urakawa et al., 2008;
4 Vazquez-Padin et al., 2011). In this study, even when at low temperature, AOB
5 quantities were significantly higher in SPCS compared to NPCS. Wang et al. (2012)
6 used a specific type of moss to enhance nitrogen removal under cold temperatures,
7 and concluded that sustaining oxygen transfer to growing moss roots and
8 cold-adapted AOB community explained the stable $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal. In this study, *P.*
9 *crispus* grew well in winter, the high DO concentration level and oxygen transfer to
10 roots may have promoted the cold-adapted AOB community form, and this helped
11 maintain stable AOB quantities in winter. Ratios of AOB quantities of FTU to STU in
12 SPCS were 8.7, 2.5, 6.7, and 5.6 for spring, summer, autumn and winter, respectively,
13 which was also similar with variation trend of contribution ratios of FTU of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
14 removal efficiency in SPCS. Throughout the long-term experiment period, stable
15 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal performance partly benefitted from the improved AOB quantities
16 enhanced by plant collocation

17 **4. Conclusions**

18 Seasonal plant collocation can effectively enhance pollutant removal efficiency
19 in SFCWs at low temperature. In winter, removal efficiency of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, TP, COD, and
20 TN improved by 18.1%, 17.6%, 10.1% and 5.2% in SPCS, respectively. Long-term
21 monitoring of plant growth indicated that seasonal plants showed complementary in
22 plant uptake, ensuring the stable treatment performance in SPCS. Q-PCR results

1 demonstrated that SPCS facilitated the growth of AOB, and the quantity of AOB
2 improved by 10.2% during the experiment period. Finally, a seasonal plant
3 collocation strategy may assist in the popularity and application of SFCWs in climate
4 change areas in the future.

5 **Acknowledgement**

6 This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.
7 21307076, No. 51578321 & No. 21507072), and Fundamental Research Funds of
8 Shandong University (No. 2014TB003) and
9 Shandong Provincial Natural Science Foundation (ZR2015PB001).

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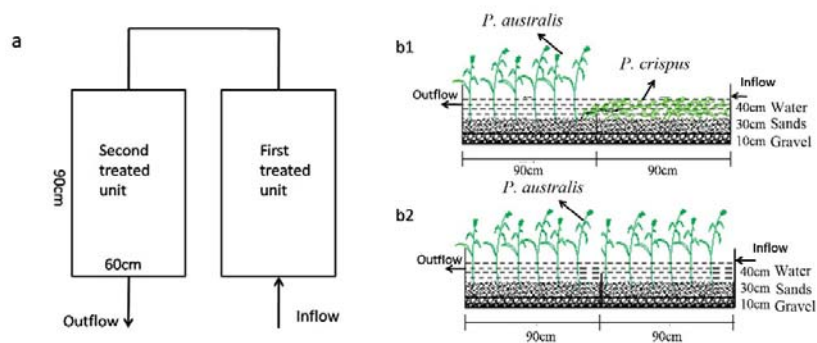
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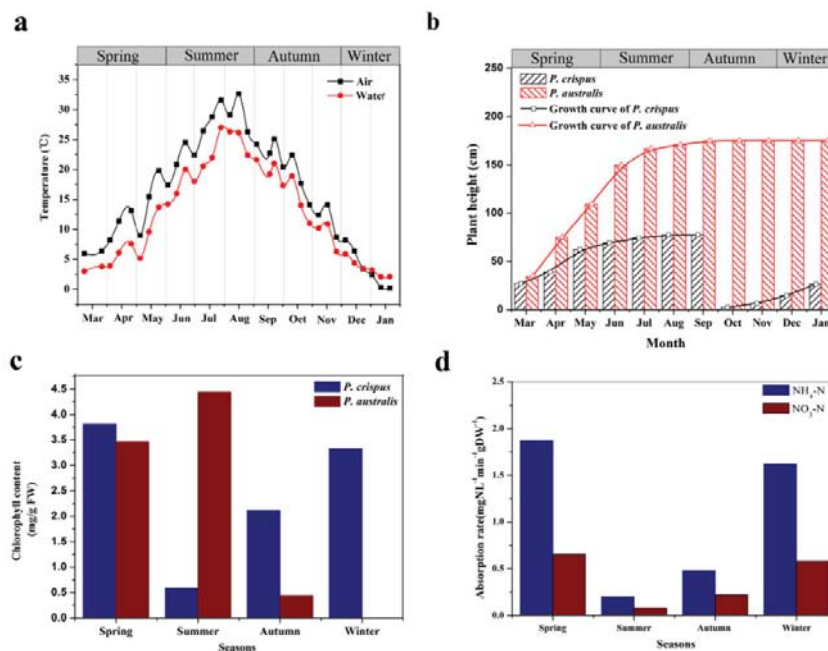
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2 **Fig. 1:** The experiment setup plan (a), and the profiles of SPCS (b1) and NPCS (b2).
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Fig. 2 Air, water temperature (a), growth curves of plants (b), chlorophyll contents (c) and *P.*

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crispus' absorption rates for NH₄-N and NO₃-N (d) during the experiment period.

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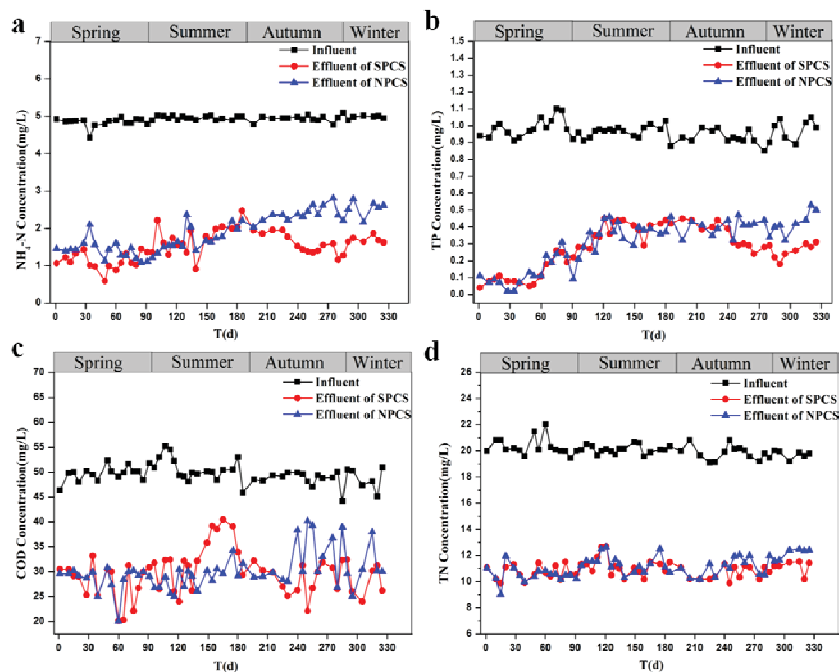
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2 **Fig. 3** Removal of pollutants in the two systems during the experiment period, a ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$), b (TP),
 3 c (COD) and d (TN).

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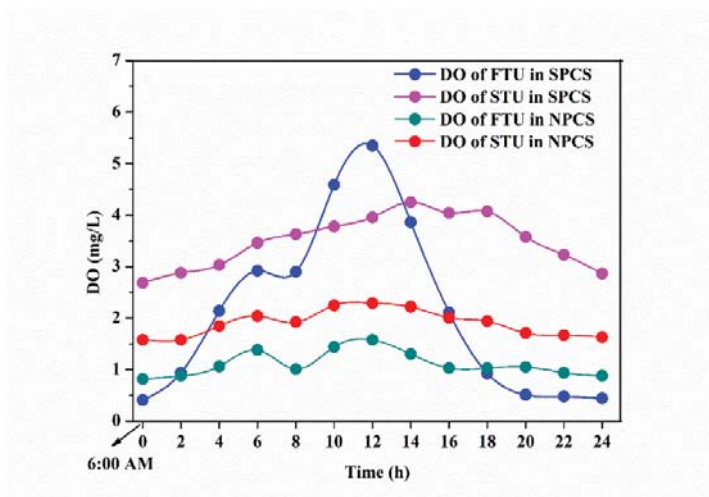
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Fig. 4 DO 24h variation in the two systems.

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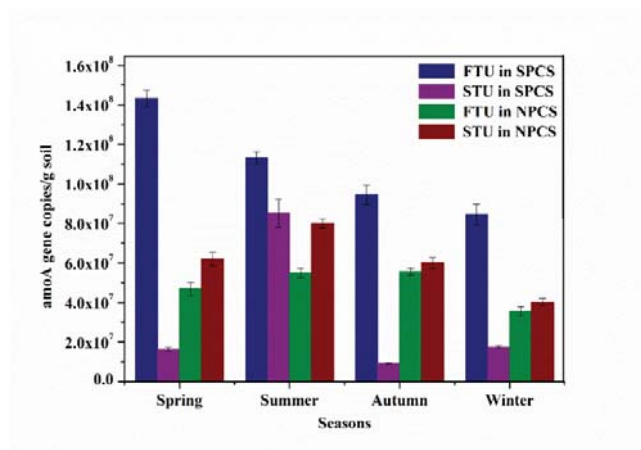


Fig. 5 AOB quantities in different seasons in the two systems.

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1 **Table 1**

2 Contribution ratios in nutrients removal of the FTU in the two systems.

Parameters	System	Contribution ratios (%)			
		Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
NH ₄ -N	SPCS	80.90	60.70	68.10	82.90
	NPCS	80.70	65.80	66.80	67.20
TP	SPCS	79.50	64.20	71.80	81.40
	NPCS	82.00	73.70	69.30	68.20
COD	SPCS	76.50	57.60	62.50	77.70
	NPCS	71.50	64.50	60.20	59.30
TN	SPCS	77.50	72.80	72.00	83.60
	NPCS	80.00	78.20	77.50	74.60

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1 Highlights

- 2 ● Seasonal plant collocation wetland system performed well at low temperature.
- 3 ● Plant growth and plant uptake were sustainable during the year-round
- 4 experiment.
- 5 ● DO and ammonia oxidizing bacteria were enriched benefitting from plant
- 6 collocation.
- 7

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