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1 Linear alkylbenzene sulfonate (LAS) removal in constructed wetlands: The role of plants

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5 Abstract

6 Linear alkylbenzene sulphonate (LAS) is a major anionic surfactant used in detergents worldwide and 7 as such is a ubiquitous constituent of domestic and municipal wastewaters. Increasingly, constructed 8 wetlands are being employed as a low cost and sustainable alternative to traditional wastewater 9 treatment processes. Plants are known to play a vital role both directly and indirectly in the removal 10 of contaminants in wastewater treatment constructed wetlands. However, relatively little research 11 has been conducted into the manipulation of the plant component in order to optimise constructed 12 wetland performance. Furthermore, little is known about the role of plants in the removal of specific 13 contaminants including LAS. The present study investigated the effects of plant biomass and plant 14 species on LAS removal in a series of experimental subsurface flow wetlands. Our results confirm that 15 the presence of vegetation enhances LAS removal, with higher biomass systems associated with 16 higher LAS removal rates. Differences in LAS removal were also observed between different plant 17 species, although these were not found to be statistically significant.

18 Key words: biomass; constructed wetlands; enzymes; linear alkylbenzene sulphonate (LAS); plant
 19 species; wastewater.

20 Introduction

21 Constructed wetlands are designed to mimic the biogeochemical characteristics and functions of a 22 natural wetland under more controlled conditions. On account of their natural nutrient cycling 23 capacity, the application of constructed wetlands for sewage treatment has been popular, with over 24 50,000 systems reported to be in operation in Europe (Wu et al. 2015), usually in a secondary or 25 tertiary capacity. The effectiveness of the wetland is based on various complex physical, chemical and 26 biological processes occurring in parallel between the substrate, plants and microorganisms. Surveys 27 on the removal of various pollutants in constructed wetlands have been conducted globally, e.g. 5-28 day Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD₅) (Sankararajan et al. 2017), phosphate (Ramasahayam et al. 29 2014), nitrate (Wu et al. 2014) and metals (Šíma et al. 2016). To date however, relatively few studies 30 have considered the role of constructed wetlands in the removal of surfactants.

31 Surfactants are surface-active compounds that consist of both polar and non-polar parts (Swisher 32 1987). These compounds are widely used in detergents due to their unique surface-active properties 33 (Swisher 1987) and are therefore a major component of urban wastewaters. Linear alkylbenzene 34 sulphonate (LAS) is a major anionic surfactant used in detergents worldwide due to its effectiveness, 35 cost/performance ratio, versatility and environmental safety record (de Wolfe & Feijtel 1998). It is the 36 most widely used synthetic anionic surfactant and is therefore an omnipresent water contaminant 37 (Vymazal 2014). It can also be used as an indicator of the presence of other pharmaceuticals and 38 personal care products (PPCPs) in surface waters (Nakada et al. 2008). The surfactant was introduced 39 in the 1960s as a replacement for slowly degradable alkylbenzene sulphonate (ABS). Foaming 40 problems in sewage treatment plants, rivers and lakes mainly due to ABS are well documented (Jensen

41 1999). Since the foaming problems of the 1960s, regulations have been introduced stipulating that 42 surfactants released into the environment must exhibit high biodegradation capacities. Only limited 43 research has been conducted into the fate of LAS and other surfactants in wetlands; Inaba et al. (1988) assessed LAS removal in a large-scale natural wetland system in Japan and reported seasonal variation 44 45 in LAS removal due to temperature-driven changes in biodegradation by bacteria and/or adsorption 46 on sediment particles. Longer alkyl chain homologues are reported to be removed to a greater extent 47 than shorter alkyl chains (Billore et al. 2002; Thomas et al. 2003). Research has also shown that 48 shallower beds, where more oxygenated conditions occur, are associated with the highest rates of LAS 49 degradation (Huang et al. 2004).

50 Plants are known to play a key role in various physical, chemical and biological processes in a wetland. 51 For example, they serve to stabilize the bed surface, insulate against freezing and frost through litter 52 production, prevent clogging, shield algae from incoming solar radiation, adsorb and store nutrients, 53 and prevent channeled flow (Brix 1997, Kadlec & Knight 1996). However, there remains a lack of 54 knowledge and quantitative data on the role of plants in wastewater treatment with information 55 mainly centered on nutrient rather than pollutant removal. Debate has arisen over the necessity of 56 plants and adverse impacts reported in some cases e.g. acid mine drainage treatment (King & Garey 57 1999). However, the impact plants have will depend on the individual constructed wetlands in terms 58 of their design, loading, type of treatment and environmental conditions (Vymazal 2009, Carballeira 59 et al. 2016). Published research suggests that greater LAS removal occurs when plants are present 60 (Federle & Schwab 1989). The present study aims to develop a more comprehensive understanding 61 of the role of plants in LAS removal by investigating the influence of plant biomass and plant species 62 on LAS removal in constructed wetlands.

This paper presents the results of a 6-month field based study comparing planted and unplanted systems in mesocosm experimental subsurface flow wetlands. Plant biomass (zero, low and high) effects were assessed at the same field site over a 15-day experiment. Finally, a microcosm laboratory experiment was conducted to assess the effect of plant species on LAS removal. Substrate enzyme activity was also compared between treatments.

68 <u>Methods</u>

69 Experiment 1: LAS removal in planted and unplanted mesocosm systems

70 Eight identical sub-surface flow wetland mesocosms (Figure 1) were constructed at an outdoor site in 71 Abergwyngregyn, north Wales (grid ref. SH 655736). The mesocosms measured 1.95 m (I) x 0.65 m (w) 72 x 0.4 m (d) and were filled with gravel (approximately 5-10 mm diameter) to a depth of 0.38 m. Four 73 of the mesocosms were planted with *Phragmites australis* at a density of 4 plants per m² and the 74 remaining 4 mesocosms were left unplanted. The design incorporated 2 large storage tanks, each 75 connected via smaller storage tanks to 4 mesocosms arranged in parallel. Flow was controlled using a 76 tap and ball cock valve system. Inflow rates of 35 L day⁻¹ of 5 mg L⁻¹ LAS in distilled water were applied 77 on a continuous basis to mimic full-scale operational constructed wetlands flow and LAS loading at a 78 typical wastewater treatment plant. The theoretical hydraulic residence time (nHRT) was 13.8 days. 79 Outflow water from each mesocosm was sampled on a monthly basis over a 6-month period 80 (September 2000 to February 2001). The addition of LAS-spiked water began at the start of September 81 2000 with the first samples taken at the end of the month. LAS concentration measurements were

- 82 conducted on outflow water. Enzyme (phosphatase, β -glucosidase and sulphatase) measurements
- 83 were conducted on 5 replicate gravel grab samples (150 cm³/ 5-10 cm depth) collected monthly from
- 84 each mesocosm.

85 **Experiment 2: Effect of plant biomass on LAS removal**

86 The mesocosms described in experiment 1 were also used to investigate the effect of plant biomass 87 (zero, low and high) on LAS removal. Artificial sewage (see Table 1) containing 10 mg L⁻¹ LAS (simulating 88 normal – high LAS loading) was loaded onto the mesocosms continuously over a 15 day period (6-20th 89 June 2001) at a rate of 35 L day⁻¹ (nHRT = 13.8 days). Sampling of outflow water began 1 day after the 90 start of the treatment, with subsequent samples collected every 2 days. LAS concentration 91 measurements were conducted on outflow water. As with experiment 1, gravel substrate samples 92 (150 cm³) were also collected for enzyme (phosphatase, β -glucosidase and sulphatase) analyses. KBr 93 $(1.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ Br})$ was added to the water supply tank at the start of the experiment, as a chemical tracer

94 to assess the hydraulic retention time.

95 **Experiment 3: Effect of plant species on LAS removal**

96 Small-scale replicate wetland microcosms were built to compare the effect of 5 different plant species 97 on LAS removal. The microcosms were constructed from transparent plastic beakers (11.5 cm 98 diameter x 13 cm depth) filled with gravel substrate and planted with a single specimen (Phragmites 99 australis, Typha latifolia, Salix viminalis, Iris and Juncus effusus). Unplanted microcosms acted as a 100 control. The microcosms (4 replicates per treatment) were stored in a temperature-controlled room 101 maintained at 12°C. 350 mL of artificial sewage containing 10 mg L⁻¹ LAS was added to each microcosm 102 at the beginning of the experiment. Sampling of water began 1 day after the addition of the sewage 103 solution and continued on a daily basis until day 4, after which samples were collected every 4 days. 104 Filters (cut off 2.5 mL Plastipak[™] syringes packed with glass wool) were inserted as a sample port in 105 the top of each microcosm. LAS concentration measurements were conducted on collected water.

106 Determination of LAS concentration

107 LAS Analytical Procedure

108 Quantification of LAS was based on the procedure developed by Matthijs & De Henau (1987), but 109 modified slightly to improve selectivity. Prior to analysis, samples were filtered through a 0.2 µm 110 Whatman membrane filter. Solid Phase Extraction (SPE) was used to isolate and concentrate the LAS 111 in the aqueous samples before HPLC analyses. Each sample was initially passed through a Hypersep 112 C18 SPE column and then eluted with methanol onto a Hypersep SAX Anion Exchange SPE column 113 (both Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA, US). LAS was then eluted into a glass vial with 3 mL of 114 CH₃OH:HCl solution (80:20) and evaporated to dryness at 75°C under a gentle stream of nitrogen. The 115 samples were stored in a dry state at <4°C before analyses. In order to minimise contamination all 116 glassware was washed in methanol then conditioned with LAS solution for 24 h prior to use to reduce 117 loss of surfactant to the glass surface.

HPLC Analyses 118

- 119 Separation of LAS homologues was achieved by reversed phase separation using a Dionex DX-300
- 120 HPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA, US) equipped with a µBondclone C18 analytical
- 121 column (Phenomenex, Torrance CA, US). Measurement was using a LS50 fluorescence spectrometer
- 122 (PerkinElmer, Waltham MA, US) (excitation λ = 232 nm; emission λ = 290 nm; slit width = 10 nm). The
- 123 mobile phase was a 22:78 distilled water:methanol solution containing sodium perchlorate buffer
- 124 (0.0875 M) with the flow rate set to 2 mL min⁻¹. Calibration standards were Nansa HS 80/S alkylbenzene sulfonic acids containing C10-C13 LAS homologues (with alkyl chain distributions of of C10 125
- 126 15.8%; C₁₁ 41.5%; C₁₂ 30.1%; C₁₃ 12.5%). LAS concentrations were derived by addition of the C₁₀-C₁₃
- 127 LAS homologue concentrations.

128 Enzyme assays

- Activities of three hydrolytic enzymes (β -glucosidase, sulphatase and phosphatase) were determined 129
- 130 in 5 replicate gravel samples from each mesocosm using fluorogenic methylumbelliferyl (MUF)
- 131 substrates (Freeman et al. 1995). 2 mL of cellosolve (ethylene glycol monoethyl ether) was used to
- 132 pre-dissolve all MUF substrates for each assay as substrates have minimal solubility in pure water.
- 133 Cellosolve does not affect enzyme activity (Hoppe, 1983).
- 134 In a plastic stomacher bag, 7 mL of MUF substrate was added to 1 g of gravel sample, homogenised using a Seward Stomacher 80 Laboratory Blender and incubated at field temperature for 1 h. The 135
- reaction was terminated by centrifuging the mixture at 10,000 rpm for 5 min. 0.5 mL of supernatant
- 136 was then added to 2.5 mL of deionised water and fluorescence determined with a LS50 fluorescence 137
- 138
- spectrometer (PerkinElmer, Waltham MA, US) (excitation λ = 330 nm; emission λ = 450 nm; slit width
- 139 = 2.5 cm). Calibration curves were constructed using 0-100 μ M MUF-free acid solution and assayed as 140 above.

Determination of KBr tracer 141

142 A Dionex DX-120 Ion Chromatograph equipped with an IonPac AS4A anion analytical column was used 143 to measure the concentration of bromide. The eluent was 1.7 mM Na₂HCO₃/1.8 mM Na₂CO₃. The 144 column was calibrated using standard Dionex solutions and a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹ was used.

145 Statistical Analysis of Results

Statistical analyses were conducted using Minitab[™] version 13.1 (Minitab Inc. 2000). Differences 146 147 between planted and unplanted treatments were assessed via paired t-tests. For differences between 148 more than two treatments (species and biomass), repeated measures ANOVA tests were applied. For 149 significant ANOVA results, the Tukey post-hoc test was used to identify were significant differences 150 between groups lay.

151 Results

152 Planted vs. unplanted mesocosms

153 LAS removal

154 High LAS degradation was observed from the start of the experiment and increased with time (Figure

155 2). Outflow water LAS concentration in the unplanted mesocosms (mean 0.05 mg L⁻¹) was consistently

- higher than in the planted mesocosms (mean 0.02 mg L⁻¹). This difference was found to be statistically
- 157 significant (p < 0.01). However, high LAS removal rates (>95%) were observed in both systems
- 158 throughout the course of the experiment.

159 Enzyme activity

- 160 Enzyme activity was significantly higher for phosphatase, than β -glucosidase and sulphatase, by a
- 161 minimum of a 2-fold factor in the planted (F = 6.04, p < 0.01) and unplanted (F = 12.79, p < 0.001)
- 162 mesocosms (Figure 3). Unplanted systems exhibited higher mean enzyme activity in comparison to
- planted microcosms but this was only significant for phosphatase (p < 0.05). Both phosphatase and β -
- 164 glucosidase activity decreased from the initial activity measured in September, especially for the
- unplanted systems (Figure 3a and 3b). In contrast, an increase in sulphatase activity from initial levels
- 166 after LAS addition was observed (Figure 3c).

167 Effect of plant biomass on LAS removal

168 LAS

169 High LAS removal (>95%) was observed in all treatments with LAS concentrations increasing initially,

and then decreasing in the last 7 days (Figure 4). Mean LAS removal rates varied as follows: high-

biomass (0.08 mg L⁻¹)>low-biomass (0.36 mg L⁻¹)>unplanted (0.45 mg L⁻¹). Statistical analysis identified

- significant differences in LAS removal rates between treatments (F = 8.26, p < 0.01). However, the
- 173 post-hoc test revealed no significant differences between the unplanted and low biomass planted
- 174 treatments.

175 Enzyme activity

176 Highest activity in all treatments was observed for phosphatase, followed by β -glucosidase and 177 sulphatase, respectively (Figure 5). No statistically significant correlations were identified between

- sulphatase, respectively (Figure 5). No statistically significant correlations were identified between enzymes in different treatments, except for phosphatase (p < 0.05), reflecting the large fluctuations
- 179 in activity measured. The only statistically significant differences between planted and unplanted
- 180 treatments was observed for sulphatase (F = 15.192, p < 0.001). Compared with the levels reported
- 181 for experiment 1, approximately 4-fold higher phosphatase and β -glucosidase activity was observed.
- 182 However, in contrast, lower sulphatase activity was observed. This was more prominent in the planted
- 183 (low-biomass -30%, high-biomass -60%) than unplanted (-20%) mesocosms.
- 184 Tracer study

185 Figure 6 shows the tracer study results which provide an indication of the diffusion rate. Faster

- recovery was observed in the unplanted, compared with the low and high-biomass mesocosms, respectively. The control/high-biomass comparison was statistically significant (F = 7.756, p < 0.01). A
- 188 slower initial diffusion rate was exhibited for the planted treatments in comparison to unplanted.

189 Effect of plant species on LAS removal

190 LAS

191 The mean concentrations measured after 12 days in the six treatments were, in descending order, the 192 gravel control (1.83 mg L⁻¹), *Typha* (0.23 mg L⁻¹), *Iris* (0.12 mg L⁻¹), *Juncus* (0.10 mg L⁻¹), *Salix* (0.09 mg

- 193 L⁻¹) and *Phragmites* (0.08 mg L⁻¹) (Figure 7). A marked and statistically significant difference in LAS
- 194 concentration was observed between the unplanted and each of the planted treatments (p < 0.001).
- 195 No significant difference was identified between planted treatments.

196 Discussion

197 LAS removal in planted and unplanted systems

198 LAS

The high LAS removal rates observed both in the planted and unplanted systems suggest that 199 200 constructed wetlands have high potential for LAS degradation under optimal conditions. However, 201 significantly higher LAS outflow concentration in the unplanted system suggests that the presence of 202 vegetation enhances LAS treatment efficiency. This is consistent with the findings of previous studies 203 which report higher removal of organic matter (Allen et al. 2002), nutrients (Heritage et al. 1995), 204 heavy metals (Doyle & Otte 1997) and ammonia (Sikora et al. 1995) in planted systems. Federle & 205 Schwab (1989) reported a higher rate of LAS mineralization with microbiota associated with aqueous 206 plants in the rhizosphere than in nearby root-free sediment. This may be explained by several possible 207 plant mechanisms facilitating microbial activity, including rhizophere oxygen release, rhizosphere and 208 root attachment sites for bacterial growth, DOC root release enhancing bacterial activity and plant 209 uptake (Brix 1994, Brix 1997). The high removal efficiency observed in the unplanted systems suggests 210 that related physical processes such as adsorption or formation of biofilms on the gravel surface 211 contribute significantly to LAS removal. Indeed Fountoulakis et al. (2009) report that adsorption onto 212 media is the main mechanism for LAS removal in their pilot constructed wetland systems.

The observed general decline in LAS concentration with time could be explained by the acclimatisation 213 214 of the microcosm bacterial community to the surfactant. Microbial communities acclimated by pre-215 exposure to the surfactant are enriched in organisms capable of degrading the compound, resulting 216 shifts in community structure with increasing dominance in populations of these organisms (Federle 217 & Pastwa 1988). Previous adaptation accelerated by initial LAS degradation is reported (Larson & 218 Payne 1981, Palmisno et al. 1991, Federle & Pastwa 1988, Branner et al. 1999, Jensen 1999). Brown 219 (1995) suggests that the bacterial population can increase its capacity to degrade surfactants by, for 220 example, population growth potentially increasing the number of degraders, an increase in the 221 amount of enzyme per cell biosynthesised, or random genetic mutations increasing biodegradation 222 activity or creating new activity. Terzic et al. (1992) reported that the composition of a mixed bacterial 223 culture rather than total number of bacteria determined biodegradation efficiency. Larson & Payne 224 (1981) reported a shorter half-life with a 10-fold faster rate for degradation tests with river sediment 225 collected closest to the vicinity of the effluent from a sewage treatment plant, similarly suggesting 226 adaptation of communities receiving higher LAS concentrations. Shimp et al. (1989) reported greater

- 227 numbers of LAS degrading microorganisms, reduced lag period and higher degradation in water
- 228 samples collected from an effluent exposed site compared with a pristine control site.

229 Enzyme activity

230 Measurement of enzyme activity showed that greatest activity occurred for phosphatase, confirming

the findings of previous studies (Freeman *et al.* 1995, Chappell & Goulder 1992). The low enzyme activity observed overall may reflect the low nutrient and organic carbon availability in the system.

activity observed overall may reflect the low nutrient and organic carbon availability in the system.
 The decrease in phosphatase and β-glucosidase activity over time, especially for the unplanted

234 systems, may suggest toxicity or lack of suitable substrate and nutrients.

Surprisingly, planted systems exhibited lower enzyme activity than unplanted systems. Previous studies have shown higher phosphatase activity in planted compared with unplanted systems (Khan 1970, Neal 1973, Kiss *et al.* 1974 as quoted in Speir & Ross 1978). This effect may be indirect and caused by changes in organic matter and microbial populations brought about by the plants with highest activity when growth was most intensive (Speir & Ross 1978).

240 Effect of plant biomass on LAS removal

241 *LAS*

The occurrence of highest LAS removal in the high biomass systems suggests that wetlands with a high plant biomass ratio will promote LAS removal to a greater degree than comparative low plant biomass ratio wetlands. Knaebel & Vestal (1992) reported that the amount of above ground plant biomass correlated positively with the initial rates of mineralization. Wiessner *et al.* (2002) reported that the total size of the root system did not significantly affect the amount of oxygen root release but was governed by the size of the above ground biomass.

KBr was chosen as a tracer in this study due to its stability and ease of analysis (Tanner et al. 1998). 248 249 Tanner et al. (1998) reported similar curves in a rain-free tracer study using bromide to those shown here. The results suggest slower diffusion rates in the planted mesocosms, especially in the high 250 251 biomass treatment. The slower the diffusion rate, the greater the contact time between 252 microorganisms and LAS within the wetland, promoting greater biodegradation. Greater removal has 253 been reported in wetland systems with longer retention times. For example, greater removal of TN, 254 TP and COD is reported with a 5 day retention time compared with a 2.5 day retention time (Breen 255 1997). Tanner (1994) reported a positive correlation between removal and retention time. Fisher 256 (1990) and Marstener et al. (1996) found that plant roots markedly affected the hydraulic flow profiles 257 in the upper layers of gravel wetlands in comparison to unplanted controls (as quoted in Tanner et al. 258 1998). On the other hand, the faster diffusion rate for the unplanted control may suggest potential 259 short-circuiting. Gravel substrate can cause problems with non-uniform and short-circuiting flow of 260 wastewater through the wetland (King et al. 1997). Factors, such as clogging by solid particles, can 261 lead to preferential flow paths occurring. However, channelling within planted wetlands has also been 262 reported (Bavour et al. 1988 as quoted in King et al. 1997).

263 Enzyme activity

No significant difference between treatments in enzyme activity was observed, except for sulphatase
 which was highest in the unplanted mesocosms. This contradicts the hypothesis that planted

- 266 mesocosms would exhibit higher activities. A comparison of the activity of different enzymes 267 (phosphatase> β -glucosidase>sulphatase) supports findings reported previously (Freeman *et al.* 1995). 268 Higher phosphatase and β -glucosidase activities compared with the planted/unplanted experiment
- reflect the higher nutrient input with levels more reflective of operational wetlands. The stimulated
- activity may also reflect the warmer temperature (Kang & Freeman 1998). Higher activity associated
- with plant growth mechanisms reported elsewhere (Speir & Ross 1978) is unlikely as the increase was
- observed in both planted and unplanted mesocosms.

Lower sulphatase activity compared with the planted/unplanted experiment may suggest inhibition
of this enzyme. Inhibition may be due to specific effects on microbial growth and subsequent enzyme
synthesis or possible modification of the active site of the enzyme protein (Dinesh *et al.* 1995).
Possible inhibition of enzyme activity and subsequent nutrient cycling by LAS is suggested elsewhere
(Jensen 1999). The greater reduction observed in the planted compared with the unplanted
mesocosms may suggest plant mechanisms enhancing the inhibitory effect. However, no further
conclusions may be drawn from the data.

280 Effect of plant species on LAS removal

281 LAS

The high LAS removal rates observed in this laboratory-scale experiment (>98% in planted systems) again highlights the potential for high LAS removal in constructed wetland systems. This study also confirms greater LAS removal in planted treatments in comparison to the unplanted gravel control. Though small in an operational context, the difference between planted systems in terms of net percentage removal were significant.

287 Variations in treatment by different plant species have been reported previously (Allen et al. 2002, 288 Zhu & Sikora 1995) and several studies support the order of treatment efficiency reported here. For 289 example, greater removal by Phragmites than Typha for ammonia and BOD (Gersberg et al. 1986), 290 ammonium and nitrate (Zhu & Sikora 1995) and TN and TP (House et al. 1994) has been reported. 291 Gersberg et al. (1986) attributed this result to the enhanced ability of Phragmites to pass oxygen into 292 the root-zone. However, Burgoon et al. (1990) found Typha removed a significantly larger percentage 293 of BOD₅ and total phosphate than Phragmites and Coleman et al. (2001) reported that Typha 294 outperformed Juncus in wastewater treatment.

Although this experiment was conducted under controlled conditions, it is recognised that the effect of environmental conditions on treatment performance may vary between plant species. For example, *Phragmites* has an optimal pH of 2-8, *Typha* of pH 4-10 and *Juncus* of pH 5-7.5 (Reed *et al.* 1995). Plant biomass will also influence treatment efficiency. *Phragmites* is reported to have much deeper root penetration in gravel than *Typha* (Reed *et al.* 1995).

The effect of using a mixture of species on treatment efficiency has also been investigated with some evidence of improved performance using mixtures compared with monocultures (Coleman *et al.* 2001). However, the issue of competition between species is also important since this can cause a shift in species assemblage. Coleman *et al.* (2001) found that *Typha* was the superior competitor in plant mixture mesocosms, whereas *Juncus* is unlikely to be competitive (Tanner 1996).

305 Conclusion

306 This study investigated the importance of plants in LAS removal in small-scale experimental wetlands. 307 The effect of plant biomass and species was assessed and a comparison of substrate enzyme activity 308 conducted between treatments. All of the experiments confirmed that the presence of plants 309 significantly enhanced LAS removal. No clear relationship between the presence/absence of plants and analysed substrate enzyme activity was evident from the data. However, for the longer-term 310 311 experiment (experiment 1, lasting 6 months) and the plant species experiment (experiment 3) LAS 312 removal increased with time, possibly due to acclimatisation of the microcosm bacterial community 313 to the surfactant. Further research is necessary to develop a more comprehensive understanding of 314 the mechanisms involved in the degradation of LAS and the role of plants therein. In particular, 315 research should focus on the relative importance of biological and physical processes as well as their 316 interaction, and the impact of environmental parameters such as temperature, pH and oxygen 317 availability.

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Tables and Figures



Ingredient	Concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	/	Acid
Peptone	70] /	Sodium
Urea	25		Sodium
			propion
Sucrose	35] /	Sodium
Soluble starch	35]/	Sodium
Ammonium sulphate	140	/	Sodium
Mixed acids	105		
Potassium hydrogen phosphate	28] /	Metal
Ferrous ammonium sulphate	21		CuCl ₂ .21
Trace metals solution	1 mL		Co(NO ₃)
		\	Na-R.O.

Acid	Concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
Sodium acetate	136
Sodium	28
propionate	
Sodium butyrate	12
Sodium benzoate	100
Sodium citrate	44
/	

	Metal	Concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
	$CuCl_2.2H_2O$	0.25
	Co(NO ₃).6H ₂ O	0.25
	$Na_2B_4O_7.10H_2O$	0.25
	$ZnCl_2.2H_2O$	0.25
	MnSO ₄ .H ₂ O	1.00
	K ₂ Mo ₄	0.25
\backslash	NH ₄ VO ₃	0.10



461 Figure 2. Outflow LAS concentrations in planted (red) and unplanted (blue) mesocosms between
 462 September and February. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (n = 4).





Figure 3. Enzyme activity in planted (red) and unplanted (blue) mesocosms between September and February showing phosphotase (a), β -glucosidase (b) and sulphatase (c). Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (n = 4).



- Figure 4. Outflow LAS concentrations for high density (pink), low density (red) and control (blue) plant biomass treatments. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (n = 4).



treatments showing phosphotase (a), β -glucosidase (b) and sulphatase (c). Error bars represent the

Figure 5. Enzyme activity in high density (pink), low density (red) and control (blue) plant biomass standard error of the mean (n = 4).



Figure 6. Br⁻ tracer study results showing Br⁻ concentration for the high density (pink), low density (red) and control (blue) plant biomass treatments. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean (n = 4).



Figure 7. Outflow LAS concentrations planted mesocosms and gravel control. Error bars represent
 the standard error of the mean (n = 4).