1	Effects of design and operational parameters on ammonium
2	removal by single-stage French vertical flow filters treating
3	raw domestic wastewater
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15	Abstract
16	Four pilot-scale single-stage vertical flow filters (of 2.25m ² each), treating raw domestic
17	sewage, were studied over 20 months in order to assess the impact of different designs
18	and operational conditions on treatment efficiency. One of them was designed and
19	operated as a standard 1st stage "French" vertical flow constructed wetland unit. The
20	other 3 pilots differed from the standard pilot with respect to the filtration depth, the

21 loading rate or the partial replacement of gravel by zeolite (chabazite), respectively. The 22 pilots were monitored by analysing 24-hour flow-weighted composite samples for TSS, 23 COD_{tot}, COD_d, ammonium, nitrate and carbonate. All pilots showed a high ability to 24 remove TSS and COD_{tot}, with average removal of 81% and 75%, respectively. 25 Increasing the depth of the filtration layer from 40 to 100 cm allowed to significantly 26 improve ammonium removal (81%), whereas the simultaneous increase in hydraulic 27 and organic loads resulted in a deterioration of ammonium and COD_d removals (44% 28 for both parameters). Using zeolite did not induce any observable improvements in 29 ammonium removal under the conditions of the study.

30 *Keywords*: Ammonium, Vertical flow constructed wetland, Domestic wastewater,
31 Design

32 I) Introduction

Constructed wetlands (CWs) for wastewater treatment met an increasing worldwide interest during the past three decades because of their performances, low investment and operational costs and their environmental friendly image. Moreover, this technique is efficient to treat various kinds of effluents such as domestic wastewater, industrial wastewater or combined sewer overflows, etc. (Ávila *et al.*, 2013; Wu *et al.*, 2015; Meyer *et al.*, 2013).

The classical design of "French CW systems" treating raw domestic wastewater (Molle *et al.*, 2005) consists of two vertical flow constructed wetland (VFCWs) stages operating in a sequential mode of feeding and rest periods (3.5 days and 7 days, respectively). The first stage (1.2 m²/population equivalent), composed of three parallel

43 filters filled with gravel, is fed by batches of raw screened wastewater. Most of the 44 suspended solids and a part of the dissolved pollution (organic matter and ammonium) 45 are removed at this stage. The second stage (0.8 m²/pe divided in 2 parallel units) filled 46 with sand ensures a further treatment of dissolved pollution under aerobic conditions. 47 This configuration allows high removal performances on COD_{tot}, TSS and TKN, 48 namely over 90%, 95% and 85%, respectively (Morvannou *et al.*, 2015) and also easier 49 sludge management than other conventional processes. Besides, "French systems" have 50 a high tolerance to variation of hydraulic and organic loads (Molle et al., 2006; Arias et 51 al., 2014).

52 TKN removal is dependent on various parameters such as wastewater composition, design considerations (media characteristics, design loads...) or external parameters 53 54 (maintenance, climate). Proper design and optimal operation are needed in order to 55 provide favourable conditions for nitrification. Molle et al. (2005) reported that a 56 minimum surface area of 2 m²/p.e. was required in order to achieve full nitrification for 57 a two-stage VFCW configuration. This may be a problem for larger units or when land 58 availability is limited. Recirculation has been reported to improve TKN removal 59 performance (Prigent et al., 2011). Nevertheless, recirculation increases hydraulic loads 60 and can thus negatively affect oxygen transfers. Prost-Boucle and Molle (2012) 61 proposed to limit the hydraulic load to 0.7m/d on the filter in operation in order not to 62 affect nitrification. Oxygen transfer can be increased by implementing passive or active 63 aeration systems (e.g. tidal flow (Sun et al., 2005) or forced bed aeration (Boog et al., 64 2014; Foladori et al., 2013; Nivala et al., 2013)). However, such intensifications lead to 65 additional operating costs (Austin and Nivala, 2009).

66 Current methods for design improvement appear to favour more complex and more

67 intensified systems. The objective of the present study was to assess the extent of 68 removal performance improvement by adapting design parameters without increasing 69 energy consumption. Since nitrification is known to be highly sensitive to several 70 operational conditions such as oxygen transfer into the filter, hydraulic and organic 71 loads or the feeding strategies, it was used as an indicator for design optimisation. Four 72 pilot-scale French VFCWs were monitored over 20 months for this purpose. One of them was designed and operated as a standard 1st stage filter according to the French 73 74 guidelines (Molle et al., 2005) in order to serve as a reference. The design parameters 75 tested were the filter depth (0.4 to 1.0 m), the use of zeolite (chabazite) as filter media 76 and the hydraulic and organic loading rates.

77 II) Materials and Methods

78 Experimental setup

Four vertical flow pilot filters of 2.25 m² each were monitored for 20 months, from March 2014 to October 2015. One of them, denoted as Vertical Flow Standard (VFSt), was designed and operated as a standard 1st stage "French" VFCW unit. The other 3 pilots differed from the standard pilot with respect to the filtration depth (Vertical Flow Gravel⁺, VFG⁺), loading rate (Vertical Flow High Load, VFHL) or a partial replacement of gravel by zeolite (Vertical Flow Zeolite, VFZ), respectively.

The pilots were all composed, from bottom to the top, of a 15-cm-deep drainage layer made of 16/22 mm grain size cobbles and a filtration layer whose characteristics are given in Table 1. To avoid particulate migration from the filtration layer to the drainage layer in the VFHL pilot, a 10-cm-deep transition layer (grain size 16/22mm) was implemented above the 15-cm-deep drainage layer which was composed of 20-50 mmcobbles as shown in Figure 1.

91 The pilots were operated outdoors on an experimental site located at the site of a 92 domestic wastewater treatment plant (Jonquerettes, south east of France). This facility 93 allowed us to assess the performance of VFCWs for the treatment of real raw domestic 94 wastewater screened at 20 mm under Mediterranean climate.

95 A sludge deposit layer was progressively formed at the surface of the filters by 96 accumulation of filtered particles (up to a thickness of 3cm at the end of the monitoring 97 period). The pilots were planted in September 2013 with one year old plantlets of 98 Phragmites australis at a density of 6 plants.m². According to French guidelines, the 99 pilots were fed for 3.5 days and rested for 7 days. During the feeding periods, 18 batches of 2 cm were applied daily (2 m³.h⁻¹), except for the high load pilot VFHL 100 101 where 32 batches a day were applied which was considered as the highest acceptable 102 hydraulic load based on full-scale observations. The monitoring started after a 103 commissioning period of five months which was meant to allow for the establishment of 104 microorganisms and reeds.



106 Figure 1 Experimental setup and design characteristics

107 Table 1 Characteristics of the pilot design

Pilot units	Studied	Filtration layer			Passive	Hydraulic	Organic
	parameters				aeration	load	load
					location	$(m^3.m^2.d^2)$	(gCOD.
					$(cm)^{(1)/(3)}$	¹) ⁽²⁾	m⁻².d⁻
							¹) ⁽²⁾
		Material	Depth	Sampling	-		
			(cm)	systems			
				$(cm)^{(1)}$			
Standard	Unit of	Gravel	40	10 and 30	Bottom	0.36	234 (62)
(VFSt)	reference	2/6 mm					

Deep Filtration (VFG+)	Effect of filtration depth	Gravel 2/6 mm	100	10, 20, 40, 60, 80	Bottom, 30 and 60	0.36	240 (80)
High Load (VFHL)	Effect of hydraulic and organic loads	Gravel 2/6 mm	30	10	Bottom and 30	0.64	536 (276)
Zeolite Chabazite (VFZ)	Effect of sorbent materials	Gravel 2/6 mm Zeolite 2/5 mm	30 + 10	30 and 40	Bottom	0.36	237 (71)

108 Depth from the filter surface

109 ² Loads are calculated for the filter in operation

³All drains are connected to the atmosphere, resulting in a passive aeration from the

bottom on the length of the filter. The intermediate passive aeration systems consist of

- 112 drilled pipes, with connection to the atmosphere, which are crosswise implemented in
- 113 the filtration layer of the pilot.
- 114 **Preliminary validation of reference pilot**

115 A preliminary step of validation of the reference unit was required to verify whether the 116 treatment performance of the VFSt was in the range of those usually observed at full-117 scale 1st stages of a classical French VFCW. For that purpose, inlet and outlet 118 concentrations of the VFSt were compared with a set of data collected from three full-119 scale treatment plants with the same design (part of data from Morvannou *et al.*, 2015). 120 The inflow of each pilot was also compared in order to confirm that they received the 121 same wastewater during the study so that their performance could be compared.

122 Experimental monitoring of the pilots

123 The inlet and outlet water concentrations were assessed for the first and the last day of 124 the feeding periods using refrigerated samplers (Ponsel, ISCO 4700 and Hach, Bühler 125 2000). 24-hour flow-weighted composite samples were taken from the outlet while, for 126 the inlet, 24-hour composite samples were obtained from one grab sample per batch. 127 Intermediate 24-hour composite samples were taken from different depths (see Table 1) 128 and analysed. Pore water was collected during infiltration by PVC gutters (9 cm and 30 129 cm of width and length, respectively), located at different depths within the filtration 130 layer, and then stored into pre-acidified 25L polyethylene containers. Each pilot was 131 evaluated for total and dissolved COD (COD_{tot} and COD_d, respectively), TSS, NH₄-N, 132 NO₃-N and CaCO₃ using quick method tests (Hach).

Online measurements were also carried out for continuous monitoring of hydraulic and treatment performance dynamics. Inlet flows were determined using an electromagnetic flowmeter (Siemens, SITRANS MAG 5100W) whereas outlet flows were measured with ultrasonic probes (Pil, P43-F4V-2D1-D0-330E) by the rise of the level of effluent drained into a collecting tank. Nitrogen concentrations (NH₄-N and NO₃-N) were continuously monitored at the inlet and the outlet of each pilot at time intervals of 15 and 2 minutes, respectively, using ion selective electrodes (AN-ISE, Hach).

140 The monitored data were used to compare the performance of pilots. For this purpose,

removal rates were calculated on mass basis considering the measured concentrationsand the inlet volumetric flows.

143 **Statistical analysis**

Experimental results were statistically analysed using R software. Kruskal Wallis tests were carried out on the full set of data, in order to validate that all pilots received the same influent, while Wilcoxon and Student tests were used for pair-wise comparison of each pilot with the reference unit. Significant difference was established at p-value \leq 0.05.

149 **III) Results and Discussions**

150 **1) Validation of control pilot VFSt**

151 The treatment performance of VFSt was compared to full-scale classical French first 152 stage filters (Morvannou et al., 2015) with respect to TSS, COD_{tot} and ammonium as 153 shown in Figure 2. The results of Wilcoxon statistical comparison between VFSt and 154 full-scale VFCWs confirmed that the reference pilot VFSt of the study could be 155 considered as a standard filter. Moreover the pollutant concentrations in the inlet 156 (TKN/COD_{tot}, TSS/COD_{tot} and TKN/NH₄-N) were in the range of what was reported 157 from a survey of almost 3000 treatment plants of small French communities (Mercoiret 158 et al., 2010).



160Figure 2 Influent and effluent composition of VFSt and Full scale treatment plants (depth of 40cm) (p-values
are the outcome of a Wilcoxon test comparing data from pilot and full-scale systems)

Figure 3 shows the distribution of influent composition over the whole study without distinction between pilots. It can be observed that inlet composition during the study was similar for all pilots, as confirmed by the Kruskal Wallis test comparing average inlet concentrations of each pilot. It was therefore relevant to compare them with the VFSt filter. Nitrate concentrations however were significantly different. This can be explained by a few high values measured in the influent which modified the average value.



170Figure 3 Influent wastewater composition during the study (note that one TSS outlier over 3000 mg/L, one171COD_{tot} outlier over $1500 \text{ mgO}_2/\text{L}$, one COD_d outlier over $1000 \text{ mgO}_2/\text{L}$ and four NO₃⁻ outliers between 10 and17220 mgN/L are not shown for visibility reasons). P-values are the outcome of a Kruskal Wallis test comparing data173from pilot full dataset.

2) Influence of filtration depth

175 Increasing the filtration layer depth from 40 to 100 cm did not significantly improve 176 TSS removal (p = 0.09). Median TSS removal efficiency was 92% and 91% for VFSt 177 and VFG⁺, respectively, falling within the range of removal rates usually observed for 178 first stage filters in French VFCW system (Morvannou et al., 2015, Paing and Voisin, 179 2005). Molle et al. (2005) and Paing & Voisin (2005) reported that TSS removal mostly 180 occurred at the surface of the first stage filter. Figure 4a shows the effect of applied load 181 on treatment efficiency. It can be seen that TSS removal was linear even for high loads. The lowest removal rates (especially for the VFSt at loads of 100 g.m⁻².d⁻¹) were 182 183 obtained within the first five months after the commissioning period when the sludge 184 deposit layer was still very thin. TSS removal efficiencies were thereafter higher than 185 90%. This observation confirmed the positive effect of the sludge deposit layer 186 thickness on filtration performance (Molle et al., 2005).

187 The effect of filtration depth on COD_{tot} removal was quite similar as for TSS (Figure 188 4b). This was mainly explained by the fact that most of COD_{tot} was under particulate 189 form $(COD_d/COD_{tot} = 0.3 \text{ in this study})$.



190 Figure 4 Treated TSS (a) and COD_{tot} (b) loads according to the applied TSS and COD_{tot} loads, respectively

191 Figure 5a showed that, within the range of COD_d loads applied in this study, the 192 reference pilot VFSt performed similarly to the deep filter pilot VFG⁺. COD_d removal 193 was not statistically improved by increasing the filtration depth (p = 0.06) although a slightly better removal was observed for VFG⁺ (59% and 66% for VFSt and VFG⁺, 194 195 respectively). Even though the implementation of a deeper filtration layer did not result 196 in a statistically significant improvement of COD_d removal, it allowed a slight improvement of the outlet concentration (92.5 and 73.1 mg.COD_d⁻¹ on average for VFSt 197 198 and VFG⁺, respectively).

Around 60% of COD_d was degraded within the upper 20 cm of the filter as shown by the depth profile presented in Figure 5b. The removal rate then strongly decreased up to 40 cm-depth to become almost negligible with further depth. Morvannou *et al.* (2014)

202 reported that the heterotrophic community was mainly located in the sludge deposit and 203 the upper part of the filtration layer in French first stage VFCW. Their similar 204 performance in COD_d removal was consistent with the distribution of heterotrophic 205 bacteria of Morvannou et al. (2014). Olsson (2011) carried out a similar experiment 206 with VFCWs filled with different media (gravel or sand) and fed with pre-treated 207 wastewater. The depth profile of total organic carbon (TOC) in sand revealed 68% 208 removal at 20 cm-depth, which was very close to the COD_d profile observed in the 209 present study. For gravel however, the profile was quite linear until 80 cm deep, 210 suggesting that heterotrophic community can colonize deeper zones of filtration. This 211 different depth profile with gravel may be explained by the fact that the gravels used in 212 Olsson's work were coarser than in this study (4/8 mm and 2/6 mm, respectively) and 213 the influent was pre-treated in a settling tank. In our study, the infiltration rate was thus 214 probably lower. The similar depth profile between our study and the sand VFCW (1/3 215 mm) of Olsson shows the positive impact of sludge deposit on the hydraulics of the 216 French systems (Molle et al., 2006).



Figure 5 Treated COD_d loads according to COD_d the applied loads (a) and COD_d depth profile during feeding cycle for the VFG⁺ pilot (Six 24-hour composite samples) (b)

As illustrated in Figure 6a, ammonium removal efficiency was significantly improved by increasing the filtration depth (p = 0.01). It increased from 62% in 40cm-deep reference pilot VFSt to 81% in 100cm-deep VFG⁺. Ammonium removal was linear within the applied load between 5 and 25 gNH₄-N.m⁻².d⁻¹.

We also observed a significantly different consumption of alkalinity (p = 0.04) and production of nitrate (p = 0.001). While VFSt had a mean nitrate production of 10.1 gN.m⁻².d⁻¹ and removed 57.1 g.m⁻².d⁻¹ of calcium carbonate on average, increasing the filtration depth from 40 cm to 100 cm improved the phenomena by almost 50% (14.1 gN.m⁻².d⁻¹ and 75.9 g.m⁻².d⁻¹ of nitrate production and CaCO₃ removal, respectively). These observations, along with the results on ammonium removal discussed above, revealed that a deeper filtration layer enhanced the nitrification rate.



Figure 6 Ammonium treated loads according to the ammonium applied loads (a) and ammonium depth profile during feeding cycle for the VFG+ pilot (Six 24-hour composite samples) (b)

235 The depth profile of ammonium concentration (Figure 6b), carried out on 6 24-hour 236 composite samples in the last stages of operation, showed that the upper 40 cm achieved 237 about 75% of removed ammonium, while the overall performance was 87% at 100 cm 238 deep. These results are in accordance with previously published works. Thus, Torrens et 239 al. (2009) observed a higher TKN removal when increasing the filtration depth of a 240 sand VFCW (from 69% to 78% at 25 cm and 65 cm, respectively) and Molle et al. 241 (2008) reported a negligible improvement of TKN removal when increasing the 242 filtration depth of the first stage of a French system from 60 cm to 80 cm. These 243 observations may be attributed to the fact that autotrophic bacteria are mainly located in 244 the sludge deposit and the upper 30 cm of the filtration layer as reported by Morvannou 245 et al. (2014).

248

3) Effects of hydraulic and organic loads

Figure 7a presents the removal efficiency observed for TSS, COD_{tot} , COD_d and NH_4 in the reference (VFSt) and high load (VFHL) pilots. VFSt and VFHL showed similar TSS removal (92% and 84% respectively) indicating that hydraulic and organic loads had no significant influence on this parameter within the studied range (p = 0.12). Analytical data were exploited in terms of concentrations since the pilots did not receive identical loads.

COD_d removal was significantly impacted (p=0.04). It was reduced from 59% in VFSt 255 256 to 44% in VFHL as shown in Figure 7a. This observation may be explained by the 257 hydraulic changes induced by the increase of the loads. More frequent feedings resulted 258 in an increase of ponding time, a decrease of water retention time (Molle et al., 2006) 259 and thus hindered oxygen renewal within the filter. This in turn was detrimental for 260 aerobic microbial activity. The impact of hydraulic conditions is well described in 261 Figure 7b which shows the COD_d removal in relation with loads. The removed load was 262 lower with VFHL than with VFSt for similar applied organic loads.



Figure 7 Treatment performance for global pollutants (a) and COD_d treated loads according to the COD_d applied loads (b) (Note that a selection in VFHL data was carried out in order to study treatment efficiency for similar organic loads but different hydraulic loads)

268 A significant reduction of ammonium removal (p = 0.007) occurred when increasing the hydraulic load from 0.36 cm.d⁻¹ to 0.64 cm.d⁻¹. Performance dropped from 62% to 44% 269 270 for VFSt and VFHL, respectively (Figure 7a). Ammonium removal related to applied 271 loads in VFSt and VFHL is shown in Figure 8. For similar applied ammonium loads (between 5 and 25 gN.m⁻²d⁻¹), VFHL exhibited lower removal capacity than VFSt. This 272 might be explained by the lower oxygen transfer capacity of the system, lower water 273 274 retention time as well as a higher saturation of ammonia adsorption sites due to less 275 time for nitrification between batches.



276

277 Figure 8 Ammonium treated loads according to the ammonium applied loads

4) Effect of the implementation of a sorbent material

The implementation of zeolite at the bottom of the filtration layer did not result in a significant improvement of ammonium removal (p = 0.29) regardless of the applied load as shown in Figure 9a. VFSt and VFZ achieved 62% and 68% of ammonium removal, respectively. This observation was consistent with Stefanakis and Tsihrintzis (2009) who reported that no significant improvement occurred in TKN removal by using zeolite in VFCW.

285 Knowing the cationic exchange capacities of zeolite (Erdoğan and Ülkü, 2011; 286 Malekian et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2010; Ivanova et al., 2010), we can observe that 287 adsorption process was not efficient with the design used for VFZ. Since regeneration 288 of sorption sites was expected to occur through nitrification of ammonium during the 289 resting period, the progressive fouling of the media may not fully explain this lack of 290 efficiency. The alkalinity concentrations and the pH values measured in VFZ effluent 291 were favourable for nitrification (284 mg/L and 7.5, respectively). However, Figure 9b 292 shows that almost no ammonium removal occurred in the zeolite layer. Different 293 possible explanations can be drawn as preferential flows, short water retention times as 294 well as the low ammonia concentration at this stage (< 10 mgN.L^{-1}). Nevertheless, 295 Lahav and Green (1998) reported outlet ammonium concentrations lower than 1 mgN.L⁻ 296 ¹ with upflow mode columns fed at 40 mgN.L⁻¹. Such ammonium removal was possible 297 by the implementation of large amount of chabazite (almost five times the amount in 298 this study) with short contact time (2 minutes). It should be thus possible to improve the 299 ammonium removal by increasing the zeolite fraction of the filtration layer.

It is also known from kinetic studies, carried out under static conditions for different contact times, that sorption increases with contact time until an equilibrium is reached (Huang *et al.*, 2010; Wen *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, limiting the outflow rate may be one possible option to improve the effect of zeolite by increasing contact time without adding more zeolite.



Figure 9 Treated ammonium loads versus applied ammonium loads (a) and depth profile of ammonium concentration during a feeding cycle (3 24-hour composite samples) (b) Note that the systems were drained vertical flow filters which were therefore operated under unsaturated conditions.

308 IV) Conclusion

This study aimed at identifying the leverage actions in order to reduce the treatment footprint of VFCW. The respective impact of design criteria and operation conditions on the ability of a 1st stage of VFCW to perform treatment of different pollutants (TSS,

312 COD_d, ammonium), from raw domestic wastewater, were assessed for this purpose.

313 TSS removal was not affected by the studied modifications of design or operational 314 parameters since it was mainly a surface mechanism. Therefore, reduction of the 1st 315 stage surface would not result in a drop in particles treatment efficiency. Nevertheless, 316 the decrease in surface of treatment (from 0.4 m²/p.e./bed to 0.25 m²/p.e./bed, respectively) would cause an increase in daily hydraulic load (from 0.36 m.d⁻¹ to 0.64 317 318 $m.d^{-1}$) which showed significant adverse effects on COD_d and ammonium removal 319 (from 59% to 44% and from 62% to 44%, respectively) because of the shorter contact 320 time as well as lower oxygen renewal within the filter.

321 The lower removal of COD_d and ammonium observed when decreasing the surface of 322 the 1st stage may be partly counterbalanced by the implementation of deeper filtration 323 layer. Ammonium removal was actually raised from 62% to 81% and COD_d removal 324 was improved from 59% to 66% when filtration depth increased from 40 cm to 100 cm. 325 Nevertheless, the relation between gain of performance and depth of filtration was low, 326 especially when the filtration layer was deeper than 60 cm since the microbial 327 community was mainly located in the upper part of the filtration layer. In addition, a 328 deeper filtration layer enabled to maintain a more constant efficiency which might be 329 valuable when fluctuation of performance is observed (i.e. when temperature variations, 330 over year, are wide).

331 Furthermore, despite its theoretical ion exchange capacity, zeolite implementation in the 332 filtration layer did not allow to reach the expected improvement of ammonium removal 333 for the assessed characteristics of design and operation. Higher zeolite content might 334 provide different conclusions but would result in prohibitive extra-costs (zeolite was 335 almost 5 times more expensive than gravel). The implementation of such reactive 336 material, as suitable alternative to intensification, should not be further considered 337 unless the operation conditions allowed the optimal use of exchange capacity. Further 338 studies are thus necessary to determine the best design and operational conditions for its 339 efficient use.

340 In conclusion, it seems difficult to reach low discharge levels with a single stage of 341 VFCW treating domestic wastewater. However, surface requirements may be reduced to 342 $0.25 \text{ m}^2/\text{p.e./bed}$ if a second stage ensures the final treatment of remaining pollution and 343 if filtration depth is also used as an adjustment parameter.

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