Effect of process parameters and operational mode on nitrous oxide emissions from a nitritation reactor treating reject wastewater
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14 ABSTRACT

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) and methane emissions were monitored in a continuous granular airlift nitritation reactor from ammonium-rich wastewater (reject wastewater). N₂O emissions were found to be dependent on dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration in the range of 1 to 4.5 mg O_2/L , increasing within this range when reducing the DO values. At higher DO concentrations, N₂O emissions remained constant at 2.2% of the N oxidized to nitrite, suggesting two different mechanisms behind N₂O production, one dependent and one independent of DO concentration. Changes on ammonium, nitrite, free ammonia and free nitrous acid concentrations did not have an effect on N₂O emissions within the concentration range tested. When operating the reactor in a sequencing batch mode under high DO concentration (> 5 mg O_2/L), N₂O emissions increased one order of magnitude

reaching values of 19.3 ± 7.5 % of the N oxidized. Moreover, CH₄ emissions detected were due to the stripping of the soluble CH₄ that remained dissolved in the reject wastewater after anaerobic digestion. Finally, an economical and carbon footprint assessment of a theoretical scaled up of the pilot plant was conducted.

Keywords: partial nitrification; reject wastewater; nitrous oxide emissions; continuous vs
discontinuous operation; economical analysis.

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32 **1. Introduction**

Specific treatments for high ammonium (NH_4^+) streams such as reject wastewater 33 34 produced in the anaerobic digester sludge dewatering process have been implemented in many wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). Anaerobic digestion reject water is 35 characterized by its high NH₄⁺ content (500-1500 mg N/L) and its treatment is normally 36 done via partial nitrification followed by denitrification (Hellinga et al., 1998; Mulder et 37 38 al., 2001) or the combination of partial nitrification with anammox (van Dongen et al., 39 2001) to reduce the operational costs. In the last few years, several studies have reported uncontrolled direct nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions during this treatment, especially in the 40 nitritation reactor, where conversion of NH_4^+ to nitrite (NO₂) occurs due to the action of 41 42 ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) (Kampschreur et al., 2008a; de Graaff et al., 2010; 43 Desloover et al., 2011; Law et al., 2012). In full-scale partial nitritation installations N_2O values ranging from 1.7 to 6.6% of the nitrogen load have been measured, which 44 45 correspond to 3.4-11.2 % of the NH_4^+ -N oxidized emitted as N_2O since these systems operate with partial conversion of NH₄⁺ to NO₂⁻ (Kampschreur et al., 2008a; Desloover et 46 al., 2011). N₂O has a warming potential 265 times higher than that of CO₂ (IPCC 2013) 47

48 and in some cases might be responsible of the majority of the carbon footprint of the 49 plant, especially in those systems with high conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_2^- .

AOB are known to be net producers of N_2O which originates via two possible pathways: 50 a) oxidation of hydroxylamine (NH₂OH) which could be regulated by the concentration 51 of free ammonia (Stein 2011); b) the reduction of NO_2^- to N_2O in a process known as 52 nitrifier denitrification (Bock et al., 1995). Low dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration 53 levels, high NO_2^- concentrations and variation in influent NH_4^+ concentrations have been 54 identified to promote N₂O formation (Kampschreur et al., 2009a). To this end, effective 55 56 process control specifically devoted to keep desired set-points for the key parameters of operation in nitritation reactors (i.e. DO concentration, NH₄⁺ concentration, pH) should 57 be targeted. 58

The aim of this manuscript was to identify the DO, NH_4^+ and free ammonia concentration 59 thresholds that originated the lowest N₂O emissions in a nitritation reactor. The novel 60 control strategy applied in this reactor and described in Bartrolí et al. (2010) allowed the 61 flexibility of operating at a desired DO set-point without compromising the effectiveness 62 of the system. The control strategy also allowed to operate at full (100% conversion of 63 NH_4^+ to NO_2^-) or partial nitritation (50% conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_2^-) depending on the 64 subsequent denitritation step: either heterotrophic or autotrophic (anammox), 65 respectively. A comparison in terms of treatment performance and N₂O emissions 66 67 between continuous and discontinuous operation mode for the same reactor is also presented and highlights the importance of considering greenhouse gas emissions when 68 implementing a technology. Finally, an economic and carbon footprint analysis of 69

applying a N₂O mitigation strategy was conducted for the pilot plant and extrapolated to
real facilities.

72

73 **2. Materials and methods**

74 **2.1. Pilot plant**

75 2.1.1. Continuous operation

The pilot plant consisted in a 150L granular airlift reactor with a height to diameter ratio 76 of 8.4. It was located in a municipal WWTP in Catalonia, Spain, and it was performing 77 full partial nitrification of reject wastewater produced in situ during the dewatering 78 79 process of the anaerobic digester sludge from the WWTP. The temperature of the reactor 80 was kept at 30°C by using an electric heating system and a temperature controller. The pH was maintained at 7.5±0.2 through the addition of solid Na₂CO₃. DO concentration 81 82 was monitored with an online DO probe (LDO luminescence sensor, Hach-Lange, 83 Düsseldorf, Germany) and was maintained around the desired set-point (see table 1) by changing the aeration flow-rate (from 11 to 100 L/min). The total ammonium nitrogen 84 $(TAN=NH_4^+-N/L+NH_3-N/L)$ concentration in the bulk liquid was monitored with an 85 86 online probe (NH4D sc probe with a Cartrical cartridge, Hach Lange, Düsseldorf, 87 Germany).

The reactor was operated with a variation of the control strategy presented in Bartrolí et al. (2010) during the period of monitoring. The variable measured for the control loop was the TAN concentration whereas the manipulated variable was the wastewater inflow rate fed to the reactor. The feedback control loop maintaining the TAN concentration in the bulk liquid allows for a maximization of the treatment capacity at any time, because

93 the loading rate is as high as possible during the continuous operation of the reactor. The influent wastewater was added in an on/off mode controlled by the concentration of NH_4^+ 94 present in the bulk liquid. When the NH_4^+ concentration was lower than the set-point (40) 95 mg NH₄⁺-N/L), the feeding pump was activated, until the NH₄⁺ concentration was again 96 at the set-point value. With this strategy, NH₄⁺ concentration was always kept between 97 98 the desired set-point \pm 5 mg N/L and NO₂⁻ concentration depended on the concentration of NH_4^+ in the influent, but always with an NH_4^+ to NO_2^- conversion higher than 92%, 99 100 except for the period where partial nitritation was applied (see figure 1). Nitrate (NO_3^{-}) 101 was hardly detected in the reactor at all times, presenting concentrations around 1-2 mg 102 N/L in the bulk liquid (see figure 1). The system was controlled and monitored through a 103 SCADA (supervisory control and data acquisition) program. For the control system, the manipulated variable was the inflow rate of the reject water. DO concentration was 104 manipulated by changing the air flow-rate through the opening of the pneumatic valve 105 106 that could be regulated continuously (i.e. via a frequency modulated solenoid valve). The 107 air flow-rate was kept constant during each monitoring period to decrease the impact of 108 total aeration flow-rate on the estimation of N₂O and CH₄ emissions. The DO varied during a monitoring period within a very small range (i.e. ± 0.1 of the desired set-point). 109 At the time of the study, the reactor had been working for more than 100 days under 110 stable operation (see figure 1) and had a nitrogen loading rate (NLR) of 0.85 g N/Ld, a 111 biomass concentration of 5 g MLVSS/L, and a mean granule size of 0.5 mm (Torà et al., 112 2013). The hydraulic retention time (HRT) was maintained within the range of 0.4-0.6 d 113 and the sludge residence time (SRT) was kept at 50 d. 114

115 2.1.2. Sequencing Batch Reactor operation

116 Towards the end of the study, the reactor was switched from continuous to sequencing batch reactor mode (SBR) for a period of 2 weeks. The reactor volume was decreased, 117 resulting in 100 L after the feeding phase. The cycle time consisted in: 6 min feeding, 118 119 where 50L of wastewater was fed into the reactor; an aerobic phase, with the length being 120 controlled by the control strategy explained above and based on the TAN concentration; a 121 settling phase which varied between 7 and 30 min depending on the cycle; and 2 min decanting phase where 50L of treated wastewater was discharged. The aeration was kept 122 constant at 100 L/min during the reaction phase which provided a DO concentration 123 124 range between 5.7 and 7.2 in all cycles tested. Solid Na_2CO_3 was added when the pH reached values lower than 7.5 in the reactor bulk liquid. HRT and SRT were maintained 125 126 in the same range than in the continuous operation.

127 2.2. Wastewater characteristics

The reject water produced in the WWTP where the pilot plant was located was stored into 128 two tanks of 1000L at room temperature, connected alternatively to the reactor inflow 129 pump. During the study under continuous operation the composition of the reject water 130 131 was within the following concentrations: TAN 726 \pm 50 mg N/L, total organic carbon (TOC) 240 - 696 mg C/L, total inorganic carbon (TIC) 358 - 723 mg C/L, total nitrite 132 nitrogen (TNN=NO₂⁻-N + HNO₂-N) 2 - 7 mg N/L, NO₃⁻ 0 mg N/L, MLSS 122 - 239 133 mg/L, MLVSS 100 – 206 mg/L; pH 8.1 – 8.8. The percentage of biodegradable organic 134 matter in the reject water was determined as only 5 ± 3 % of the total TOC following the 135 methodology described in Suárez-Ojeda et al. (2007). Due to some changes in the 136 operation of the WWTP anaerobic digester, the concentration of TAN decreased in the 137 138 reject wastewater when the reactor operated in SBR mode resulting in $450 \pm 78 \text{ mg N/L}$.

139 **2.3.** Nitrous oxide and methane monitoring

140 Off gas was collected continuously (at 0.5L/min) from the reactor headspace which was 141 covered with a plastic bag and connected via a gas tube to a gas conditioning unit (series 142 CSS, M&C Tech group). The gas outlet from the conditioning unit was connected to the 143 multicomponent online gas analyser (VA-3000, Horiba, Japan) which provided an online 144 measurement of N_2O and CH₄ concentrations from the gas flow. Data were logged every 145 15 seconds for a period of 3-4 h for each of the monitoring tests.

- 146 2.3.1. Monitoring during continuous operation
- 147 Twenty-four monitoring tests (T1-T24) were conducted to assess the N_2O and CH_4
- emission dynamics from the reactor under different DO concentrations in the range of 1.1

to 7.7 mg O_2/L . The different DO concentrations are summarised in table 1 and were

- achieved by varying the air flow-rate from 11 to 100 L/min. The reactor operated under
- the conditions described for each of the tests (table 1) 24 h previous to the monitoring.
- 152 To explore the effect of NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , free ammonia (FA) and free nitrous acid (FNA)
- 153 concentration on N_2O emission, six of these tests (T11-T16) were conducted under the
- same DO concentration (3.2-3.3 mg/L) but with different NH_4^+ concentration and pH,
- 155 providing different FA, NO₂⁻ and FNA concentrations (table 2).
- 156 2.3.2. Monitoring during SBR operation

157 Five cycles (TC1-TC5) were monitored when the reactor was operated in SBR mode. The

- 158 conditions of each cycle monitored are described in table 3. These conditions were
- applied in the SBR at least 24 h before the monitoring was conducted.
- 160 **2.4. Calculations**
- 161 The total N_2O and CH_4 emitted were calculated using the following equations:

162 N₂O emitted=
$$\sum (C_{N2O-Ngas} \times Q_{gas} \times \Delta t)$$
 (1)

163 CH₄ emitted=
$$\sum (C_{CH4gas} \times Q_{gas} \times \Delta t)$$
 (2)

164 Where

165 $C_{N2O} (g N_2O-N/L) = C_{N2O} (ppmv)*10^{-6} * molar gas volume^{-1} (0.0414 mol/L at 25°C and$

166 1atm)*28.

167 C_{CH4} (g CH₄/L) = C_{CH4} (ppmv)*10⁻⁶ * molar gas volume⁻¹ (0.0414 at 25°C and 1atm)*16. 168 Q_{gas} = the gas flow rate of the aeration (L/min).

169 Δt = time interval by which the off-gas N₂O concentration was recorded.

The emission factor for N₂O was calculated based on the total amount of N₂O emitted in a particular time (equation 1) relative to the total NH_4^+ converted to NO_2^- in that time (mg N₂O-N/mg NH_4^+ -N). This way of calculating the emission factor is very important to compare the emission factors when the reactor is oxidizing only a certain fraction of the ammonium load (e.g. either full or partial nitritation).

To directly compare the emission factors reported in the literature for single-stage N 175 removal systems (nitritation and anammox in 1 single reactor) with the emissions 176 reported in this study and in other nitritation systems (Table 5), the following procedure 177 was applied: (i) the values reported for single-stage N-removal systems (normally given 178 in %N₂O/N-load) were used to calculate emission factor as percent of N removed; (ii) a 179 50% of the N removed was considered to be oxidized to NO_2^- (roughly following the 180 anammox stoichiometry); iii) all the N₂O emissions reported in these systems were 181 182 assumed to be produced during the nitritation process as anammox bacteria do not produce N₂O (Kartal et al., 2010). This procedure could be summarized with the 183 following equation: 184

185 %N₂O emitted (per NH₄⁺ oxidized to NO₂⁻) = 2* (%N₂O emitted per N removed) (3)

186 **2.5. Economical assessment of N₂O mitigation**

To conduct an economic and carbon footprint analysis of implementing a N₂O mitigation 187 strategy we considered a WWTP of ca. 140000 p.e. and dimensioned a nitritation reactor 188 to treat the reject water coming from the dewatering process of the anaerobic digester 189 sludge (reactor volume of ca. 100m³ treating ca. 160 kg N/d). Two different scenarios 190 191 were taken into consideration: (i) low DO concentration (1.5 mg O_2/L) and (ii) high DO concentration (4.5 mg O_2/L). Aeration flow rates were estimated for both scenarios 192 scaling up the values required for the pilot reactor (i.e. 1400 and 2000 m^3/d respectively). 193 For convenience, aeration efficiency was assumed to be equivalent to that in the pilot 194 reactor, and the aeration flow rates were scaled up as proportional to reactor volume. The 195 same N_2O emission factors determined with the pilot installation for each one of the 196 scenarios (~ 6% and 2% respectively) were assumed for the full scale installation. To 197 198 estimate the energy consumption associated to aeration, a pressure difference of 1.2 bar 199 was assumed, accounting for both the reactor height and pressure drop (i.e. effective height of water column of 12 m). The energy requirements of a displacement screw 200 blower at each one of the air flow rates (1400 and 2000 m³/d) were estimated as 47 and 201 71 kWh for each scenario, respectively. To this end, the indications of the manufacturer 202 203 on efficiency of the equipment related to the particular compressed flow were followed 204 although it has to be taken into account that these efficiencies often incorporate an over 205 estimation.

To estimate the carbon footprint, the following equivalences were assumed: 1 kg of N_2O = 265 CO₂ equivalents (IPCC 2013) and 1kWh = 0.544 CO₂ equivalents (UKWIR 2008).

For the economical assessment with the carbon taxes, the two scenarios chosen (low and high carbon tax) were based on the values expected to be implemented in Europe (SBS, 2012).

211 **2.6.** Chemical and microbial analysis

TAN was analyzed using a continuous flow analyzer based on potentiometric 212 determination of ammonia. TNN and NO₃⁻ were measured with ionic chromatography 213 using a DIONEX ICS-2000 Integrated Reagent-Free IC System with an auto-sampler 214 AS40. TIC and TOC were measured with an OI Analytical TOC Analyzer (Model 215 216 1020A) equipped with a non-dispersive infrared (NDIR). Mixed liquor suspended solids (MLSS), and volatile MLSS (MLVSS) were determined according to standard methods 217 218 (APHA, 1995). A Malvern Mastersizer 2000 instrument was used to measure the granule size and size distribution. N_2O and CH_4 analysis were performed by a commercial 219 infrared analyzer (VA-3000, Horiba, Japan). Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) 220 was performed to quantify the amount of AOB and NOB microorganisms present in the 221 reactor. Full details about the procedure can be found in the supplementary information 222 section. 223

224

225 **3. Results**

3.1. Nitrogen transformations in the granular airlift reactor

At the time of the study, the granular airlift reactor had been operating in continuous mode for more than 100 days, achieving partial nitrification from reject wastewater as shown in figure 1. More details about the reactor start-up and stabilization can be found in Torà et al. (2013). At the time of the experiments, the mean size of the granular sludge was 0.5 mm and the microbial composition consisted of 70 ± 10 % AOB and <1% NOB. The strong oxygen limiting conditions even at high DO concentrations were assured due to the great excess of NH₄⁺ in the bulk liquid (Bartrolí et al., 2010). NO₃⁻ was always at very low values (< 1.5 mg N/L) during the period of the study. The pilot plant operated at full nitritation conditions for the majority of the monitoring period. However, the control system applied also allowed its operation under partial nitritation conditions as shown in figure 1 (days 255-280).

3.2. Emission dynamics of N₂O and CH₄ during continuous operation

239 An example of the N₂O and CH₄ emission dynamics from the reactor under stable operation is represented in figure 2. N₂O levels in the off-gas oscillated within 40 and 85 240 241 ppmv when the reactor was operated with an aeration flow of 50 L/min, increasing the concentration a few minutes after each addition of wastewater (Figure 2). The minor 242 oscillations produced by the on-off action of the NH₄⁺ concentration control loop resulted 243 in slight NH_4^+ and NO_2^- concentration disturbances which seem to have an effect on the 244 N_2O emissions (Figure 2A&B). Taking into account these emissions and the NH_4^+ 245 transformed to NO_2 , the N_2O emission factor during this particular period of monitoring 246 247 was 2.4% N₂O-N/oxidized-N.

Regarding CH₄, the emissions detected in our system came from the stripping of the soluble CH₄ that remained dissolved in the reject wastewater after anaerobic digestion and were not produced in the reactor. These emissions are clearly uncoupled from the N₂O emissions (see Figure 2B), showing that the N₂O variation was due to the nitritation process, and was not linked to either stripping or other physical processes that might be occurring in the reactor.

254 **3.3. Effect of DO concentration on N₂O emission**

The effect of different DO concentrations on N_2O emissions was tested by changing the aeration flow rate in the pilot plant. To compare the emissions under different DO concentrations, the N_2O emission factor was calculated as described in Materials and Methods section. Figure 3 presents the N_2O emission factor dependency on DO concentration.

The lowest N₂O emission factor was measured at DO concentrations of 4.5 mg O₂/L or 260 higher (Figure 3, region b). At this range, 2.2 ± 0.4 % of the NH₄⁺ nitrified was emitted as 261 N₂O and was not dependent on the DO concentration. However, when reducing the DO 262 263 concentration to levels lower than 4.5 mg O₂/L, the N₂O emission factor increased, 264 reaching values around 6% of the NH_4^+ nitrified being emitted as N₂O (Figure 3, region 265 a). Operating the reactor under partial or full nitritation conditions did not have an effect on N₂O emissions. Emissions detected under partial nitritation conditions matched the 266 same profile as the emissions found when operating under full nitritation within the 267 268 concentration DO range of 1.6-5.3 mg O_2/L (highlighted in figure 3 with empty circles and triangles). 269

Stripping conditions changed among the experiments, since changes on DO concentration in the reactor could only be achieved by changing the aeration flow rate (table 1). It can not be excluded that changes in stripping conditions might also have a direct effect on the N_2O emissions detected but changes in DO concentration seem to be the main driver to changes on N_2O as shown by the strong correlation depicted in figure 3 and the bigger dispersion observed when depicting the correlation between N_2O emission factor and air flow rate (figure SI.1) 3.4. Effect of ammonium, free ammonia, nitrite and free nitrous acid on N₂O
emission.

The effect of operating the pilot plant at different NH_4^+ and FA concentrations on N_2O production was tested by varying the NH_4^+ concentration set-point in the control loop and the pH (Table 2). FNA concentration was calculated considering the amount of $NO_2^$ present in the reactor and the pH and was also related to N_2O . Results are presented in figure 4.

The pilot plant operated under the same DO concentration $(3.2-3.3 \text{ mg O}_2/\text{L})$ when these 284 285 experiments were carried out to exclude the effect of DO on N₂O emissions. The N₂O emission factor remained constant at $4.4\pm0.3\%$ of the NH₄⁺ oxidized emitted as N₂O 286 despite of the wide range of NH₄⁺, FA, NO₂⁻ and FNA concentrations tested. Therefore it 287 288 can be concluded that within the concentration range tested and with a DO concentration of 3.3 mg O_2/L , changes on NH_4^+ , FA, NO_2^- and FNA did not have an effect on N_2O 289 290 production. Interestingly, the N₂O emission factor was independent of the performance of 291 the granular reactor for achieving full nitritation (100% conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_2^-) or partial nitritation (50-75% conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_2^-). 292

293 **3.5.** Emission dynamics of N₂O and CH₄ during SBR operation

The pilot plant was shifted from continuous to SBR operation mode to study if this operation had an effect on the overall nitrogen transformations in the plant. For a period of two weeks, five different cycle studies (Table 3) were monitored and one of them is presented in figure 5.

During SBR operation an aeration flow rate of 100L/min was applied. DO concentration followed the same pattern in all the cycles: a slow increase during the reaction phase

300 (from 5.6 till 7.2 mg O_2/L approximately), a sharp decrease as soon as aeration stopped 301 during the settling phase (from 7.2 till 0.5 mg O_2/L in the cycle with the longest settling time tested, 30 min) and a sharp increase as soon as aeration started during the feeding 302 303 (reaching 5.2-5.5 mg O_2/L in the first minute of aeration). pH increased at the beginning of the cycle to values close to 8 due to the alkalinity provided by the wastewater. After 304 305 that, and due to the nitrification reaction, pH decreased until 7.5, when pH control started. The cycle length was controlled by the NH_4^+ set-point applied in the control loop. As 306 soon as the concentration reached values lower than 40 mg N/L, aeration stopped and 307 settling started. NO_2^{-1} concentrations in the bulk liquid were comprised between 190 308 (beginning of the cycle) and 370 mg N/L (end of the aeration phase) at all times during 309 SBR operation. These concentrations were lower than those measured in the bulk liquor 310 during continuous monitoring. This was due to the lower NH_4^+ concentration present in 311 the reject wastewater when the reactor operated in SBR mode. 312

Peaks of CH₄ and N₂O were detected at the beginning of the cycle as soon as aeration 313 started. The CH_4 peak corresponded to the stripping of the soluble CH_4 present in the 314 reject wastewater. Indeed, this peak was 10 times higher than the peaks detected under 315 316 continuous operation but this was because 10 times more wastewater was added as a pulse under SBR operation. No difference was found when considering the total amount 317 of CH₄ emitted per wastewater treated (Figure SI.2). The N₂O profile also displayed a 318 319 peak at the beginning of the aeration phase reaching concentrations of 1000 ppmv during the first 10 min of the cycle. After that the N_2O concentration decreased until values 320 321 around 100 ppmv towards the end of the aerobic phase. This concentration from the end 322 of aeration was very similar to the concentrations measured during the monitoring conducted under continuous operation at similar operational conditions (Tests T18, T22, T24 performed at 100L/min of aeration flow rate; 4.4-6.7 mg O₂/L; 7.5-8 pH). However, when considering the total N₂O emitted per N oxidized, the emission factor obtained during SBR operation was 19.3 ± 7.5 %, one order of magnitude higher than the 2.2 ± 0.4 found under continuous operation at the same DO concentration range. The application of different settling times during SBR operation mode did not show an apparent correlation with the N₂O emitted during the cycle (Figure SI.3).

330 3.6. Economical assessment of N₂O mitigation

331 From the results presented, operating the reactor in a continuous mode at high aeration rates (DO concentration > 4.5 mg O_2/L) can be postulated as an effective approach to 332 333 mitigate N₂O emissions. However, from the practical point of view, this can be seen as an 334 expensive operational strategy, since it involves higher electricity consumption. In fact the main operating costs of such an installation have been related to the electricity used to 335 aerate the reactor (Carrera et al., 2010). If lowering greenhouse gas emissions during 336 wastewater treatment is not associated with an economical incentive it will be difficult for 337 the industry to implement mitigation strategies that imply increasing operational costs. 338 339 However, many governments are starting to implement a price tag or carbon tax on pollution to discourage industry from emitting greenhouse gases in an attempt to control 340 341 global warming. In this sense, a more elaborated assessment has been performed taking 342 into account three different scenarios: (i) without carbon tax; (ii) applying a low carbon tax; (iii) applying a high carbon tax (Table 4). To conduct such analysis the obtained N_2O 343 344 emission factors have been applied to a scaled up theoretical nitritation system treating the reject wastewater from a 140,000 p.e. WWTP. It has to be taken into account that 345

theoretical calculations incorporate some assumptions such as same stripping efficiency
for the pilot plant as for the full-scale theoretical installation, which might differ from the
reality.

In continuous mode, operating at a higher DO to mitigate N_2O emissions resulted in a 43% lower carbon footprint. Remarkably, at low DO concentration N_2O emissions were estimated to account for 81% of the total carbon footprint. The analysis shows that operating with the lowest carbon emission will only be economically feasible in the high carbon tax scenario.

A similar analysis was conducted with the emission factors found for the SBR operation. For convenience, nitrogen loading rate and aeration needs were considered equivalent to those determined for the continuous mode of operation. The carbon footprint increased almost three times even when comparing with the low DO scenario in the continuous mode. In case of application of carbon taxes, the SBR technology would not be a good choice for the nitritation of reject wastewater in view of the costs analysis.

361 **4. Discussion**

4.1. Possible N₂O production pathways affecting N₂O emissions under different DO concentrations

364 DO is considered an important parameter affecting N_2O emissions, with lower DO 365 concentrations increasing N_2O emissions (Kampschreur et al., 2009a). However, it is still 366 unclear if a DO concentration threshold to minimise N_2O emissions can be established for 367 nitrifying systems since different N_2O emission factors have been reported at different 368 DO concentrations (Table 5). 369 It is accepted that two different N_2O production pathways exist during nitrification: i) the 370 nitrifier denitrification pathway and ii) the hydroxylamine oxidation pathway. Which one of these pathways is the main responsible for the N_2O production in AOB is still unclear. 371 372 Sutka et al. (2006) used stable nitrogen isotopes to conclude that the NH₂OH oxidation pathway contributed to N₂O production mainly at high DO concentrations whereas the 373 nitrifier denitrification pathway was more active at low DO concentrations. Recently, 374 Wunderlin et al. (2013) carried out a series of batch tests where the N₂O production 375 pathways were identified using site-specific isotope composition of N_2O in real time. In 376 377 their nitrification tests, there was always a combination of the two pathways that produced the N₂O detected, except for the cases where only NO₂⁻ was added, in which 378 only the nitrifier denitrification pathway was active. Our results suggest the presence of at 379 least two different predominant pathways for N₂O production: one linked to the DO 380 concentration, probably the nitrifier denitrification pathway (as can be observed in region 381 "a" from Figure 3) and another one that would not depend on it (as can be observed in 382 383 region "b" from Figure 3). The fact that N_2O dependency on DO concentrations starts at a DO concentration relatively high (4 mg/L), could be due to the pilot plant operating with 384 385 aerobic granular sludge. In aerobic granules, DO is consumed very fast by the microorganisms present in the outer layers of the granules (Pijuan et al., 2009), thus 386 creating micro-aerobic or anoxic conditions in the inside of the granules which could 387 388 favour the denitrification pathway in AOBs resulting in N_2O formation, even at relatively high DO concentrations in the bulk liquid. 389

390 It can not be excluded either the possibility that a fraction of the N_2O detected is 391 produced by chemical reactions. High ammonia oxidation rates may lead to high

concentrations of NH_2OH which has been demonstrated to react with NO_2^- or FNA to form N_2O . As suggested by Schreiber et al. (2012) chemical N_2O production in systems dealing with high-strength N wastewater could be important. Our results show how N_2O emissions can be reduced by increasing the DO concentration in the bulk liquid, but this reduction has a minimum value (the baseline in region "b", as defined in Figure 3), that seems to be unalterable when DO concentration is further increased.

Interestingly our results also show that operating the reactor under different NO₂⁻ 398 concentrations (from 368 till 740 mg N/L) or different FNA concentrations (from 0.006 399 400 till 0.065) did not affect the N₂O emissions. This could be due to the fact that the AOB of this study were adapted to high concentrations of NO_2^- (500-750 mg N/L). Previous 401 studies have reported an increase on N₂O emissions when increasing NO₂⁻ concentrations 402 in a pure culture of *Nitrosomonas europaea* (Anderson et al., 1993) and several mixed 403 nitrifying systems (Kampchreur et al., 2008b; Tallec et al., 2006). These differences 404 could be related to the fact that different AOB strains possess different adaptation 405 strategies to high NO_2^- environments and therefore it is possible that the same NO_2^- 406 concentration triggers different N₂O production depending on the adaptation of AOB at 407 408 that particular environment.

409 **4.2.** Continuous *versus* discontinuous operation

One of the key differences between continuous and SBR operation mode is the presence of a settling phase in the last one. During settling, aeration stops, and DO sharply decreases (Figure 5), reaching DO levels < 1 mg O_2/L , which could be even lower at the bottom of the reactor where all the biomass concentrates. These conditions might trigger N_2O formation, which would be stripped from the bulk liquid in the subsequent aeration 415 phase, originating the high N_2O peak detected. Several studies have inferred in the effect 416 that periods of anoxia can have on N₂O production from nitrifying cultures. Kampschreur et al. (2008b) reported the effect of oxygen limitation during NH_4^+ oxidation in a 417 418 nitrifying lab-scale system. They observed an immediate N₂O increase when air was replaced by nitrogen gas attributed to the activation of the denitrification pathway in 419 420 AOBs. On the other hand, Yu et al. (2010) only observed N_2O production in a pure culture of Nitrosomonas europaea during the recovery from a 48h period of anoxia, as 421 soon as aeration started. Recently, Rodriguez-Caballero & Pijuan (2013) demonstrated 422 423 that the majority (60-80%) of the N_2O emitted from a nitritation lab-scale system treating reject wastewater originated during settling and depended on the presence of NH_4^+ and 424 NO_2^{-} . 425

Another explanation for the higher N₂O production when operating in SBR mode could 426 be the sudden variations on NH_4^+ and NO_2^- concentrations experienced during the cycle, 427 more pronounced than in continuous operation. Dynamic process conditions can enhance 428 429 N_2O production. Kampscheur et al. (2008b) studied the effect of dynamic process conditions on nitrogen oxides in a nitrifying culture. They subject the culture to a 430 stepwise increase on NO_2^- concentrations which gave an increase on N_2O production. 431 Recently, Law et al. (2013) reported a relationship between the specific N_2O production 432 rate and a gradual NO₂⁻ accumulation in a partial nitritation culture treating synthetic 433 434 reject wastewater. Interestingly, NO_2^- had a suppressive effect on N_2O production when increasing the concentration from 50 to 500 mg N/L. At higher NO_2^- concentrations, N_2O 435 production remained constant. It is clear that more research on a fundamental level is 436 437 needed to clarify these hypotheses.

438 At this stage, the use of SBR technology for nitritation of reject wastewater treatment 439 needs further evaluation due to the higher N_2O emissions it presents compared with 440 continuous operation.

441 **4.3.** Impact of these results in the selection of single- or two-stage N removal

Currently, the treatment of high and low-strength NH_4^+ wastewater can be carried out by 442 single- or two-stage autotrophic N removal systems. The choice of one or another may 443 depend on several factors such as: reactor volume, loading rate, process stability, 444 economical issues, etc. (van Hulle et al., 2010; Jaroszynski et al., 2011). Another factor 445 446 that is increasingly gaining attention is the N₂O emission from these systems which could have a big impact on the overall carbon footprint of the plant. Currently, N_2O emission 447 values from single stage systems are still scarce and rather variable (see table 5). An N₂O 448 emission factor of 1.67% of the N removed was reported in a full-scale single stage 449 nitritation-anammox reactor located in the Netherlands which corresponds to 2.5% of the 450 N oxidized to nitrite (Table 5, Kampschreur et al., 2009b). In this reactor, nitritation and 451 autotrophic denitritation was occurring in the same tank. Another monitoring performed 452 recently in the same plant reported an emission factor of 2.1% of the N removed which 453 454 corresponds to 4.0% of the N converted to nitrite (Castro-Barros et al., 2013). Interestingly, they detected a peak on N₂O emissions when NO₂⁻ accumulated in the 455 reactor, during periods of low anammox activity, highlighting the need for efficient 456 457 process control to avoid a sudden increase on N₂O emissions in single stage nitritationanammox systems. 458

On the other hand, emissions from partial nitritation systems from lab and full-scalereactors have been also reported in the literature (Table 5). In these cases, emissions vary

461 from 0.8 to 11.2 % of the N oxidized being emitted as N_2O . Our findings indicate that changes in the NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , FNA or FA concentrations have no impact on N_2O emissions 462 during nitritation within the common operational ranges. Therefore, emissions detected in 463 two stage nitritation-anammox systems are expected to be similar to those found in one-464 465 stage nitritation-anammox reactors for the treatment of reject wastewater. A possible 466 advantage for the two-stage systems is that changes in the concentration of soluble N compounds would not have a big effect on the N₂O emissions probably due to the 467 adaptation of the biomass at these N concentrations while the current data seems to 468 469 suggest that small accumulation of NO₂⁻ in single nitritation-annmox reactors would lead 470 to an increased emission factor (Kampschreur et al., 2009b). More full-scale N_2O monitoring campaigns are needed for systems treating high strength N wastewater to 471 clarify the treatment technology that provides lower emissions. 472

Single-stage N-removal systems operating at low temperatures and at low nitrogen 473 loading rates have been demonstrated as feasible, but several challenges may well 474 475 difficult the final implementation. These challenges include mainly the outcompetition of anammox by NOB and conventional heterotrophic denitrifiers (Winkler et al., 2012). 476 477 These limitations would not be present in a two-stage N-removal system, and the operation of such a system in continuous mode using a nitritation step similar to the one 478 presented here, will only increase slightly the N₂O emissions if adequate DO 479 480 concentration is maintained in the bulk liquid. This strategy may be an alternative to be considered since nitritation has been successfully tested at low temperatures (Jemaat et 481 482 al., 2013).

483

⁴⁸⁴ **5.** Conclusions

⁴⁸⁵ Nitrous oxide emissions were monitored in a nitritation airlift reactor treating reject
⁴⁸⁶ wastewater. The main findings of this study are listed as follow:

- DO concentration can be used as a control parameter to minimise N₂O emissions.
 Increasing the DO to 4.5 mg O₂/L resulted in a decrease on N₂O emissions from 6
 to 2.2%. However, a further increase on DO did not result in an additional
 reduction, suggesting the involvement of two different mechanisms responsible
 for N₂O production.
- Continuous operation is preferred to SBR for partial nitrification systems. SBR
 operation resulted in a substantial increase on N₂O emissions when compared to
 those obtained in continuous mode.
- N₂O emissions would dominate the total carbon footprint in a hypothetical scale up of the reactor studied. Operating at minimal N₂O emission would only be
 economically feasible if a carbon tax on emissions is implemented.

498

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509 Supporting information available

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635 LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Nitrogen transformations in the granular airlift reactor before and during the GHG monitoring period. • NH_4^+ in the reactor; $\Box NO_2^-$ in the reactor; ∇NO_3^- in the reactor; $\blacktriangle NH_4^+$ in the wastewater.

- **Figure 2.** A- On-line N_2O and CH_4 emissions from the reactor during continuous
- operation at DO 4.7 mg O_2/L and pH 7.5. N_2O (Black line); CH₄ (grey line); influent flow
- 641 (thin black line); aeration flow (dashed line); NH_4^+ (•); NO_3^- (∇); NO_2^- (\Box). **B-** Zoom in
- 642 from figure A (135-185 min).
- **Figure 3.** Correlation between the N₂O emission factor and the DO concentration in the
- reactor: Operation under full nitritation conditions (>90% NH_4^+ oxidation to NO_2^-); \circ
- 645 Operation under partial nitritation conditions (70%-75% NH_4^+ oxidation to NO_2^-); Δ
- 646 Operation under partial nitritation conditions (50%-55% NH_4^+ oxidation to NO_2^-).
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- **Figure 5.** Cycle study profile of the pilot plant operating in SBR mode with a settling time of 7 min and an aeration flow of 100 L/min. A- pH (grey line), DO (black line), ammonium (discontinuous line) and nitrite (\Box) concentrations; B- N₂O (black line) and CH₄ (grey line) emission profiles; aeration flow (discontinuous line).
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658 **TABLES**

Table 1. Experimental tests conducted under continuous operation at different dissolved

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12
DO (mg O ₂ /L)	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.2	3.2
Air flow (L/min)	13	11	14	37	11	11	13	50	11	24	13	18
рН	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.7	7.6	8.1	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.7
	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	T22	T23	T24
DO (mg O ₂ /L)	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.3	6.7	7.5
Air flow (L/min)	16	15	100	27	50	100	50	50	65	100	100	50
рН	8.1	7.6	8	7.7	8.4	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.6	8.0	7.5	7.2

660 oxygen concentrations.

661

- **Table 2.** Experimental tests conducted under continuous operation at different NH_4^+ , FA
- and FNA concentrations.

	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16
NH4 ⁺ (mg N/L)	37.5	158	319	5.3	192	58.6
NO_2^- (mg/L)	629.1	519.4	368.4	663.5	554.9	740.0
FA (mg N/L)	1.2	2.0	29.4	0.2	14.3	2.3
FNA (mg N/L)	0.031	0.065	0.006	0.033	0.011	0.029
pН	7.6	7.2	8.1	7.6	8	7.7
$DO (mg O_2/L)$	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3

664

FA and FNA concentrations were calculated according to Anthonissen et al. (1976).

665

 Table 3. Experimental tests conducted under SBR operation.

	TC1	TC2	TC3	TC4	TC5
DO (mg O_2/L)	5.7-7.2	6.7-7.0	6.15-6.40	5.6-7.2	5.6-6.6
Air flow (L/min)	100	100	100	100	100
рН	8.4-7.4	8.4-7.6	8.5-7.6	8.2-7.4	8.4-7.4
Settling time (min)	7	15	15	23	30

Table 4. Annual carbon footprint and cost analysis calculated with and without carbon

taxes, considering two different DO scenarios in an installation treating the reject water

671	of a WWTP of 140,000 p.e	. Low DO: 1.5 mg	O ₂ /L; high DO: 4.5	$5 \text{ mg O}_2/L$
	· · ·	0	2 / 0	0 -

Data	Low DO	High 1	DO	Units	
Data	(Continuous)	Continuous	SBR	Cints	
Annual energy requirements for aeration	408,303	625,4	21	kWh year ⁻¹	
Annual N ₂ O emissions	3.5	1.2	11.1	Tn N ₂ O year ⁻¹	
Equivalent CO ₂ emissions for aeration	222	340		Tn CO_2 eq year ⁻¹	
Annual N ₂ O emissions (CO ₂ eq.)	927	310	2941	Tn CO ₂ eq year ⁻¹	
Annual carbon footprint	1,149	650	3282	Tn CO ₂ eq year ⁻¹	
Annual cost associated to energy requirements for aeration	34.7	53.2		k€ year ⁻¹	
Annual cost associated to CO ₂ emissions (Low carbon tax ^a)	4.6	2.6 13.1		k€ year ⁻¹	
Annual cost associated to CO_2 emissions (High carbon tax ^b)	34.5	19.5	98.5	k€ year ⁻¹	
Total annual costs (without carbon tax)	34.7	53.2		k€ year ⁻¹	
Total annual costs (low carbon tax)	39.3	55.8	66.3	k€ year ⁻¹	
Total annual costs (high carbon tax)	69.2	72.7	151.6	k€ year ⁻¹	

Factors used for calculations: 0.085 euro / kWh; 0.544 kg CO_2 eq / kWh; 265 kg CO_2 eq / kg N₂O. ^aLow carbon tax: 0.004 euro / kg CO_2 ; ^bHigh carbon tax: 0.03 euro / kg CO_2 . For details of

each scenario, associated calculations and references see section 2.5 of the Materials & Methods.

- Table 5. Emission factors reported in the literature and in this study for the treatment of 676
- high strength nitrogen wastewater. 677

Wastewater (reference)	Process type	DO concentration (mg O ₂ /L)	Emission factor (%N-N2O/N- oxidized)	
Anaerobically digested	Partial nitritation+anammox		8.1-11.2* ^a	
industrial WW	(2-stage). Full-scale.	0.4-1.0	*emissions from	
(Desloover 2011)	(Floccular sludge)		nitritation reactor	
Concentrated black water (de Graaff 2010)	Partial nitrification in		_	
Water (de Graan 2010)	Lab-scale	4.1-4.2	3.2ª	
	(Floccular sludge)			
Reject WW (Joss 2009)	Partial nitritation+anammox (1-stage). SBR full-scale. (type of sludge not	<0.5	0.8 ^a	
	described)			
Reject WW	Partial nitritation + anammox		3.4*	
(Kampschreur 2008a)	(2-stage). Full-scale.	2.5	*emissions from	
	(Floccular sludge)		nitritation reactor	
Reject WW	Partial nitritation+ anammox			
(Kampschreur 2009b)	(1-stage). Full-scale.	5	$2.5^{a,b}$	
	(Granular sludge)			
Reject WW	Partial nitritation+anammox		1	
(Castro-Barros 2013)	(1-stage). Full-scale.	N.R.	$4.0^{a,b}$	
	(Granular sludge)			
Reject WW (Law 2011)	Partial nitritation			
	Lab-scale SBR.	0.5-0.8	1.0	
	(Floccular sludge)			
Reject WW (Rodriguez-	Partial nitrification		0.8	
Caballero 2013)	Lab-scale SBR.	0.8-1.5	0.0	
	(Floccular sludge)			
Reject WW	Full or Partial Nitrification			
(this study)	Pilot-scale granular airlift.	4.5-7.5	2.2	
	(Granular sludge)			
Reject WW	Full or Partial nitritation			
(this study)	Pilot-scale granular airlift.	1.1-4.5	6.1-2.2	
	(Granular sludge)			

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N.R. Not reported; a values calculated taken into account the %N2O/N load and the NH4 converted to nitrite reported. In the case of one-stage systems a 50% conversion of the 679 ammonium removed to nitrite has been assumed as reported in materials and methods section 680 (equation 3).^b Values reported for the same reactor under at two different monitoring campaigns. 681



Figure 1. Nitrogen transformations in the granular airlift reactor before and during the GHG monitoring period. • NH_4^+ in the reactor; $\Box NO_2^-$ in the reactor; ∇NO_3^- in the reactor; $\blacktriangle NH_4^+$ in the wastewater.



Figure 2. A- On-line N₂O and CH₄ emissions from the reactor during continuous operation at DO 4.7 mg O₂/L and pH 7.5. N₂O (Black line); CH₄ (grey line); influent flow (thin black line); aeration flow (dashed line); NH₄⁺ (\bullet); NO₃⁻ (∇); NO₂⁻ (\Box). **B-** Zoom in from figure A (135-185 min).



Figure 3. Correlation between the N₂O emission factor and the DO concentration in the reactor: • Operation under full nitritation conditions (>90% NH₄⁺ oxidation to NO₂⁻); • Operation under partial nitritation conditions (70%-75% NH₄⁺ oxidation to NO₂⁻); Δ Operation under partial nitritation conditions (50%-55% NH₄⁺ oxidation to NO₂⁻).



Figure 4. Correlation between the N₂O emission factor and ammonium /nitrite (A), free ammonia (B) and free nitrous acid (C) concentrations. •- Ammonium, FA & FNA; \Box -Nitrite.



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