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Do wastewater pollutants impact oxygen transfer in aerated horizontal flow wetlands?

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Abstract

1 Aerated treatment wetlands are an increasingly recognized nature-based tech-
2 nology for wastewater treatment that relies heavily on mechanical aeration.
3 Although aeration-mediated oxygen transfer into the wastewater can be im-
4 peded by wastewater pollutants, little is known about the link between the
5 volumetric oxygen mass transfer coefficient k_{La} and the organic carbon con-
6 centration of the wastewater in aerated wetlands. In this study, oxygen
7 transfer experiments were carried out in a lab-scale gravel column using clean
8 water and wastewater from a pilot-scale horizontal flow (HF) aerated wet-
9 land treating domestic sewage. The α -factor, which describes the ratio of
10 the volumetric oxygen mass transfer coefficient k_{La} in wastewater to clean
11 water, was reduced by increasing soluble chemical oxygen demand (COD_s).
12 The derived regression equation $\alpha = 1.066 - 0.0014 \text{ mg COD}_s \text{ L}^{-1}$ was incor-
13 porated into a numerical process model to simulate the impact of the reduced
14 oxygen transfer on a hypothetical HF aerated wetland. The simulations re-

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15 vealed that α and treatment efficacy for nitrogen were substantially reduced
16 by COD_s at low aeration (k_{La} of 1 h^{-1}) and high influent wastewater strength
17 (COD_s of 300 mg L^{-1}). At the same k_{La} and influent COD_s concentration,
18 longitudinal gradients of α and concentrations for dissolved oxygen (DO),
19 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_x\text{-N}$ in the simulated wetland were shifted up to 21% of wet-
20 land length downstream. These effects decreased with increasing k_{La} and
21 were found to be negligible at $k_{La} > 3 \text{ h}^{-1}$, which corresponds to an air flow
22 rate of approximately $400 \text{ L m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Following this, higher organic carbon
23 concentrations reduce oxygen transfer in HF aerated wetland systems, thus
24 resulting in decreased treatment efficacy.

Keywords: domestic sewage, constructed wetland, numerical process
modeling, nature-based technology, aeration, alpha factor

Highlights:

- Oxygen absorption experiments were conducted in a gravel column with real wastewater
- α linearly decreased with increasing COD_s concentration
- Numerical process model was extended with $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_s)$
- Reduction of treatment efficacy due to changes in oxygen transfer was simulated

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Nature-based technologies were recently mentioned as potential contribu-
27 tors to adress the worldwide challenges of the deterioration of water resources

28 caused by inadequate wastewater treatment [1]. Treatment wetlands, a kind
29 of nature-based technology, are usually simple in design, which translates
30 into low operational costs, low maintenance and operation requirements and
31 robust treatment under a wide range of climate conditions [2–4].

32 Aerated wetlands are intensified treatment wetlands in which air is injected
33 into the wetland basin to serve the dissolved oxygen (DO) demand of the
34 microbial community present. This increases treatment capacity and efficacy
35 [5, 6]. Aerated wetlands are increasingly recognized for their capacity to re-
36 move organic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous from industrial and domestic
37 wastewater [7, 8], as well as organic trace contaminants [9] and associated
38 toxicological effects [10]. However, it is still not well understood how oxygen
39 transfer is impacted by wastewater pollutant concentrations in an aerated
40 wetland. The oxygen mass transfer rate of aeration depends on the size of
41 the injected air bubbles and the rheological conditions in the proximity of
42 the bubbles, which in turn depend on the operational (e.g. plant design,
43 aeration system, air flow rate (AFR), reactor hydraulics) and environmental
44 conditions (influent wastewater oxygen demand and pollutant concentration)
45 [11–13]. Aeration is a critical research topic for wastewater treatment tech-
46 nologies involving the injection of air or oxygen such as activated sludge and
47 membrane bioreactor technologies [12–16], biofilters [17], anaerobic ammo-
48 nia oxidation (ANNAMOX) systems [18], granular sludge reactors [19] and
49 aerated wetlands [7, 20] as aeration is the main contributor of associated
50 operational costs [21]. However, research on aeration in wetlands, especially
51 oxygen transfer, has not evolved to the same extent as for activated sludge
52 and membrane bioreactor technologies. Recently, Boog et al. [22] developed

53 and applied a numerical process model that is able to simulate oxygen trans-
54 fer for aeration in horizontal flow (HF) aerated wetlands; however, did not
55 include the link of the volumetric oxygen mass transfer coefficient k_{La} to
56 wastewater pollutant concentration. The ratio of k_{La} in wastewater to that
57 in clean water is termed the α -factor. In wastewater, α is reported to be af-
58 fected through surfactants, microbial activity and solid matter concentration
59 [12, 13, 23]. Solid matter is reported to alter bubble coalescence behavior in
60 activated sludge and membrane-bioreactor systems operated at high mixed-
61 liquor suspended solid concentrations (0.5–30 g L⁻¹) [24–26]. The impact of
62 microbial activity was also found to alter α in membrane-bioreactors at high
63 mixed-liquor suspended solids concentration [25, 27]. Microbial activity in
64 the studies by Germain et al.[25] and Henkel et al.[27] was linked to the ef-
65 fect of mixed-liquor suspended solids concentration (biomass was present as
66 suspended flocs) and, in [25], also to surfactants that were contained in the
67 liquid fraction of the biomass. Despite investigations are lacking, it is quite
68 unlikely that similarly high suspended solids concentrations will be observed
69 in HF aerated wetlands and that the effect of solid matter and solid-phase
70 microbial activity on α plays such a significant role for HF aerated wetlands.
71 In contrast, the effect of surfactants in aerated HF wetlands is, most probably,
72 of high importance.

73 Surfactants attach at the gas-water interface and hinder inter-facial oxy-
74 gen mass transport. Surfactants can reduce α and, therefore, the oxygen mass
75 transfer rate down to 50% [23, 26, 28]. Additionally, in treatment systems
76 with plug-flow, surfactants decrease along the system length [29]. In such
77 systems, α is the lowest at the influent zone, in contrast, the oxygen demand

78 is the highest at the influent zone. This trend could be similar for HF aerated
79 wetlands based on observed concentration gradients and hydraulics [7, 30].
80 Exploring the potential change of α with influent wastewater strength and
81 along the length in HF aerated wetlands is, thus, of fundamental interest.

82 Surfactants, however, are not a common wastewater quality parameter
83 analyzed in wetland research studies [7, 8] or recommended for full-scale de-
84 sign and operation [31, 32]. Jiang et al. [33] recently developed a process
85 model for activated sludge systems using influent organic carbon concentra-
86 tion (measured as total chemical oxygen demand (COD_t)) as a proxy for
87 surfactants to dynamically estimate α . It is questionable whether this esti-
88 mation of α holds for aerated wetlands as well. In aerated wetlands, different
89 aerators are used and the observed COD_t concentration can be lower than the
90 COD_t range considered by Jiang et al. [33]. Additionally, HF aerated wet-
91 land hydraulics will induce a longitudinal gradient of surfactants that should
92 be considered to estimate α . By using a commonly analyzed parameter such
93 as COD or total organic carbon (TOC) to predict α , the derived knowledge
94 can be more useful for aerated wetland researchers, designers and operators,
95 as well as, for using computer models based on COD or TOC.

96 Thus, this paper investigates the link of α to wastewater organic carbon
97 concentration in HF aerated wetlands and investigates the associated impact
98 on the removal of organic carbon and nitrogen. Oxygen transfer experiments
99 in a lab-scale gravel column with wastewater from a pilot-scale HF aerated
100 wetland were carried out to derive an equation to estimate α based on or-
101 ganic carbon concentration measured as TOC and COD. This equation was
102 then incorporated into a process model. To investigate the impact of influent

103 organic carbon concentration on α and treatment efficacy, a simulation sce-
104 nario analysis was carried out. By providing new insights on oxygen transfer
105 in HF aerated wetlands, this study provides a significant advancement in
106 research on aeration in HF aerated wetlands.

107 **2. Material and methods**

108 *2.1. Pilot-Scale aerated wetland and water quality analysis*

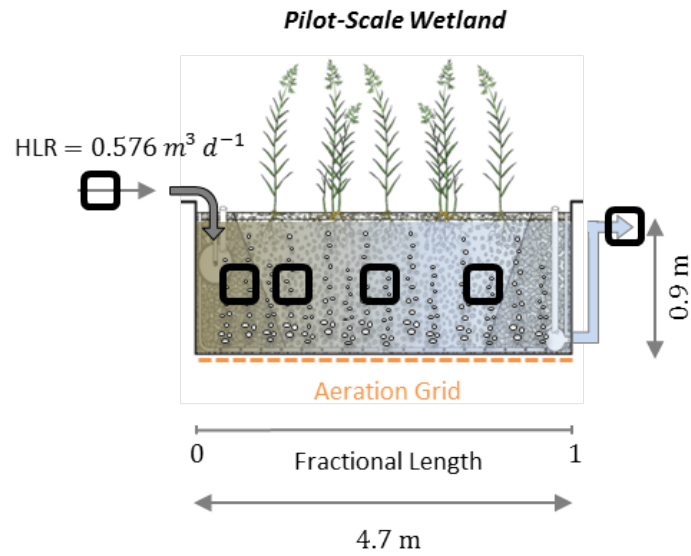
109 Wastewater samples for the oxygen transfer experiments were taken from
110 the pilot-scale aerated HF wetland named *HAp* at the research facility in
111 Langenreichenbach, Germany described by Nivala et al. [34] (Figure 1; Figure
112 S1 in supplementary information). The wetland was loaded with primary-
113 treated domestic sewage at a hydraulic loading rate (HLR) of $0.576 \text{ m}^3 \text{ d}^{-1}$
114 (equivalent load of a five person household considering the new German stan-
115 dard for small-scale treatment wetlands [32]). Medium gravel (8–16 mm) was
116 used as the main media and coarse gravel (16–32 mm) for the in- and efflu-
117 ent zones. The wetland was planted with *Phragmites australis* and had been
118 operating in steady state for 7.5 years prior to the start of this study. The
119 aeration system consisted of a network of drip irrigation lines (AzudDrip,
120 Azud, $d_{line} = 16 \text{ mm}$, orifice diameter of 1 mm, orifice spacing of 0.3 m) at
121 a line spacing of 0.3 m, which translates into an uniform aeration grid on
122 the wetland bottom. Air was supplied by electric diaphragm pumps (Mistral
123 2000, AQUA MEDIC) operated 24 h d^{-1} [35]. Routine weekly sampling of
124 the in- and effluent was conducted to ensure stable operation of the wetland
125 during sampling for the oxygen transfer experiments. Water samples of 30
126 L were taken during December 2017 to February 2018 at locations indicated

127 in Figure 1 according to the procedures in Nivala et al. [34]. To quantify
128 total and soluble organic carbon content, all samples were analyzed for total
129 organic carbon (TOC, DIN EN 1484, Shimadzu TOC-VCSN,) and dissolved
130 organic carbon (DOC, DIN EN 1484, Shimadzu TOC-VCSN, filtration by
131 0.45 μm ceramic filter). Due to logistical reasons, total (COD_t) and soluble
132 chemical oxygen demand (COD_s) concentrations were not analyzed, indeed,
133 were estimated by regression on TOC and DOC concentrations and sampling
134 location within the wetland. Briefly, the regression equations were calibrated
135 and validated by measurements of TOC, DOC, COD_t and COD_s of additional
136 samples taken during February to April 2018 at similar sample locations of
137 two other HF aerated wetlands at the site with similar design (Supplemen-
138 tary information (S) Section S2). Corresponding COD_t and COD_s (filtered
139 through a 0.45 μm glass fiber filter) were analyzed using test-kits (LCK 514
140 & LCK 314, Hach-Lange) and a spectrophotometer (DR3900, Hach-Lange);
141 TOC and DOC as previously described.

142 2.2. Oxygen transfer experiments

143 A laboratory column experiment was conducted to simulate oxygen trans-
144 fer of the pilot-scale aerated HF wetland. To keep the laboratory conditions
145 as close to the conditions observed for the pilot-scale system, the cylindrical
146 glass column ($d_{col} = 0.15$ m, $h_{col} = 1.00$ m, $h_{gravel} = 0.95$ m, $h_{water} = 0.9$ m)
147 was filled with similar gravel than what was used in the pilot-scale wetland
148 *HAp* ($d_{gravel} = 8\text{--}16$ mm, porosity of 0.38) and equipped with a section of an
149 aeration line similar to that used in *HAp* (AZUD Drip, $d_{line} = 16$ mm, $d_{orifice}$
150 $= 1$ mm, one orifice) (Figure 2). The column was controlled at 20 °C using
151 a water jacket (LAUDA). Aeration was provided by an electric diaphragm

a)



b)

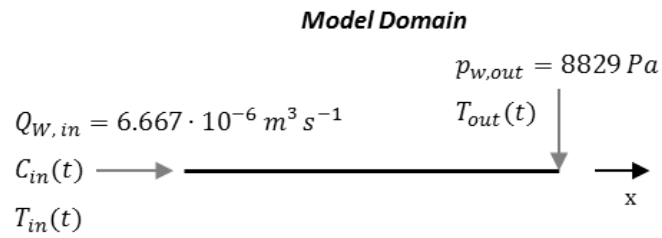


Figure 1: a) Experimental pilot-scale wetland (width of 1.2 m, sampling points indicated by black squares); b) corresponding domain of the 1D process model. HLR is the hydraulic loading rate. Modified with permission from Boog et al. [22].

152 pump at AFR of 510, 1359 and 2718 L m⁻² h⁻¹. AFR was measured using
153 a thermal mass flow meter (TSI 4043, TSI GmbH). Dissolved oxygen (DO)
154 was measured using optical oxygen probes (DP-PSt3-YOP, PreSens GmbH)
155 connected to a measurement converter (Oxi 4 Mini, PreSens GmbH) and a
156 laptop for data recording (Software OXY4 v2.30, PreSens GmbH). Ambi-
157 ent air pressure was measured by a weather station outside the building to
158 correct DO concentrations to a pressure of 1013 hPa.

159 Oxygen transfer experiments with the sampled wastewater and clean
160 (tap) water ($h_{water} = 0.9$ m) were carried out using the non-steady state
161 absorption method according to the German guideline DWA M-209 [36]. For
162 each trial, a solution of NaSO₄ was added (plus 0.5 mg L⁻¹ of CoSO₄ · H₂O
163 as catalyst) prior to each water sample to deplete DO below 0.1 mg L⁻¹ and
164 to inhibit re-aeration while filling the column. Then total dissolved solids
165 (TDS) were measured using a hand-held device (M350i, WTW Weilheim)
166 prior to filling the column. Afterwards, aeration was started and DO was
167 recorded until saturation. After each trial the column was flushed with tap
168 water to wash out the sample solution and clean the column. Each trial was
169 conducted in triplicate to obtain a reliable estimate of k_{La} . For each trial
170 and sensor position, k_{La} and the apparent DO saturation concentration S_{O}^*
171 were estimated using non-linear regression `nls()` function of the R statistical
172 software [37]. The estimated k_{La} were averaged over the three replicated
173 trials, the three oxygen sensors, and, corrected to a temperature of 20 °C
174 (Equation S3, $\theta = 1.024$ as recommended by [11] and [36]) and a TDS con-
175 centrations of 1000 mg L⁻¹ (Equation S4); this corrected parameter is termed
176 $k_{La,20,1000}$. Then, the α -factor was computed as the ratio of $k_{La,20,1000}$ in

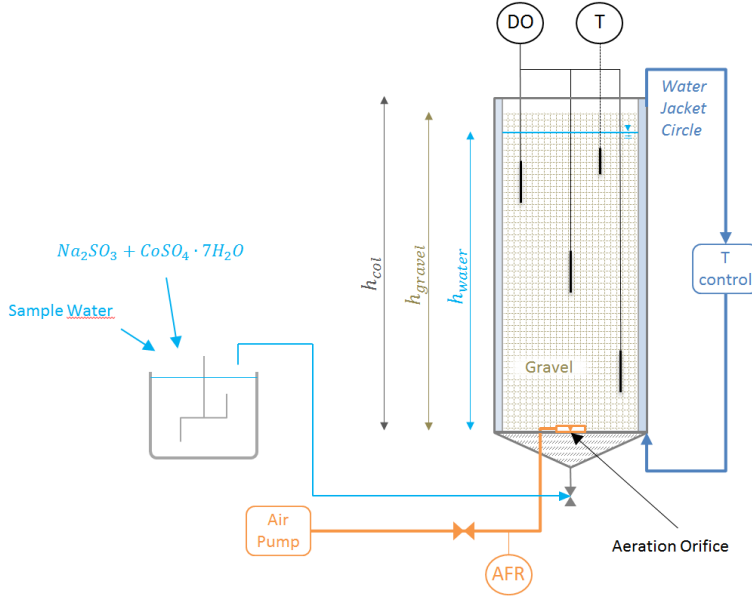


Figure 2: Set-up of the gravel column ($d_{col} = 0.15$ m, $h_{col} = 1.00$ m, $h_{gravel} = 0.95$ m, $h_{water} = 0.9$ m) used for the oxygen transfer experiments. Positions of DO sensors were 0.10, 0.45 and 0.80 m above the aeration orifice.

177 wastewater (w_w) to clean water (c_w) ($\alpha = k_{La,20,1000,w_w}/k_{La,20,1000,c_w}$). Finally,
 178 the computed α was regressed on COD_t , COD_s , TOC and DOC concentra-
 179 tion of the corresponding water sample ($\ln()$ function of the R statistical
 180 software [37]).

181 2.3. Process model

182 A numerical process model was used to analyze the impact of organic
 183 carbon concentration on the α -factor in simulation scenarios of a hypothet-
 184 ical HF aerated wetland at different influent wastewater strengths and volu-
 185 metric oxygen mass transfer coefficients k_{La} and to estimate the associated
 186 impact of the impacted oxygen transfer on treatment performance. The de-

187 sign of the hypothetical HF aerated wetland was based on the pilot-scale
188 wetland *HAp* described in section 2.1. Therefore, the process model used
189 was based on the 1D reactive transport model by Boog et al. [22], which was
190 also based on a similar HF aerated wetland design. This model was imple-
191 mented in the open-source finite-element code OpenGeoSys (OGS, v5.7.1
192 [38]) coupled to the geochemical solver IPhreeqc [39] (coupling via operator-
193 splitting [40]). It simulates water flow using a dual-permeability approach;
194 advective-dispersive transport of solute and particulate wastewater compo-
195 nents, biodegradation and bacterial growth according to the Constructed
196 Wetland Model No. 1 (CWM1)[41] and aeration as a first-order mass trans-
197 port process. Additionally, the model also simulates convective-conductive
198 heat transport; however, this feature is not of relevance here as water tem-
199 perature is restricted to 20 °C during the simulations. The full set of model
200 equations and descriptions are presented in Boog et al. [22]. Here, oxygen
201 mass transfer from air to water (Equation 1 and 2) was extended with the
202 equation $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_s)$ (Equation 3) that was derived from the oxygen trans-
203 fer experiments. Considering the similarity of the pilot-scale system used in
204 this study and by Boog et al. [22] and the fact that the gravel column was
205 based on the pilot-scale wetland design, this modeling approach is reasonable.
206 Due to the simple description of solid matter transport and attachment, the
207 model lacks accuracy in simulating solid matter turnover within HF aerated
208 wetlands. This translates into a less reliable simulation of spatial patterns for
209 COD_t compared to COD_s . Therefore, the regression equation using COD_s
210 as regressor (Equation 3) was chosen to estimate α during the simulations.

$$r_{S_o, aeration} = \alpha k_{La, T} (S_o^* - S_o) \quad (1)$$

$$k_{La, T} = k_{La, 20} \theta^{20-T} \quad (2)$$

$$\alpha = 1.066 - 0.0014 \text{ mg COD}_s \text{ L}^{-1} \quad (3)$$

211 Here, $r_{S_o, aeration}$ is the oxygen transfer rate in $\text{g L}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{La, T}$ and $k_{La, 20}$
 212 are the volumetric oxygen mass transfer coefficients at temperature T and
 213 at 20°C in s^{-1} , respectively. S_o^* and S_o are the actual and saturation dis-
 214 solved oxygen concentration in g L^{-1} , θ is the temperature correction factor
 215 ($\theta = 1.024$ as recommended by [11] and [36]). The model was discretized into
 216 a finite-element mesh of 94 line elements with an element size of 0.05 m each
 217 using the open-source mesh generator GMSH [42]. A regular time-stepping
 218 scheme with a step size of 1800 s was applied in all simulations. The same
 219 parameter set as in Boog et al. [22] was used, except for k_{La} . Originally, Boog
 220 et al. [22] lumped α into k_{La} . Due to the extension of the current model to
 221 explicitly consider $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_s)$, it was necessary to recalibrate the current
 222 model by adjusting k_{La} . Boog et al. [22] calibrated their model using data of
 223 a similar pilot-scale HF aerated wetland at the same experimental site than
 224 *HAp*. As the intention of this study is to simulate a hypothetical HF aerated
 225 wetland based on the design of the pilot-scale wetland *HAp* (section 2.1) we
 226 used the same data as Boog et al. [22] (scenario *Calibration* in [22]) to recal-
 227 ibrate the extended model. Recalibration started with the default values from
 228 Boog et al. [22], then k_{La} was manually increased until a fit with sufficient
 229 accuracy was achieved. After recalibration, the scenario *Cross-Validation of*
 230 Boog et al. [22] (simulation of a third HF aerated wetland at the same site)

231 was re-run with the extended and recalibrated model to assess its validity.
232 The goodness of fit for recalibration and validation was assessed by com-
233 paring measured pore water and effluent concentrations using the modified
234 Nash-Sutcliff Efficiency E_1).

235 The validated model was then applied to analyze the performance of the
236 pilot-scale aerated HF wetland *HAp* in different simulation scenarios. Simu-
237 lation scenarios with a duration of 60 days, a constant temperature of 20 °C
238 including three influent wastewater strengths (Table 1) and three values of
239 $k_{La,20,cw}$ (1.0, 2.0 and 3.0 h⁻¹) were considered. Initial water depth and tem-
240 perature were 0.9 m and 20 °C, respectively (Figure 1). Initial concentrations
241 of model components were 1.0E-4 and 1.0E-3 mg L⁻¹ for wastewater pollu-
242 tants and bacteria, respectively. Influent loading was 0.576 m³ d⁻¹ (boundary
243 condition of 6.666E-6 m³ s⁻¹). In the biokinetic model CWM1, COD_t is frac-
244 tionized to account for soluble and particulate as well as biodegradable and
245 non-biodegradable fractions. To fractionize and convert influent COD_t into
246 CWM1 model components, the recommendations for influent fractionation
247 for the Activated Sludge Model (ASM) No.1 and No.2 [43] (Table S1) were
248 used. Remaining initial and boundary conditions are presented in Table
249 S2. All simulations were executed as serial runs on the high-performance
250 computing cluster *EVE* (DellTM PowerEdgeTM R630, Intel Xeon E5-2690 v4
251 CPUs and/or Intel Xeon E5-2670 v2 CPUs). Post-processing and visualiza-
252 tion using the R statistical software [37].

Table 1: Concentrations of the three influent strengths as defined by Tchobanoglous et al. [11]. COD_s was set as 0.38 COD_t.

Parameter	Influent Concentration (mg L ⁻¹)		
	<i>Low Strength</i>	<i>Mid Strength</i>	<i>High Strength</i>
COD _t	250	430	800
COD _s	95	163	304
NH ₄ -N	12	25	45
SO ₄	20	30	50

NO_x-N is defined as zero.

H₂S is not defined by Tchobanoglous et al. [11] and was set to zero.

253 3. Results and discussion

254 3.1. Oxygen transfer experiments

255 In the oxygen transfer experiments using clean water and wastewater from
 256 the pilot-scale aerated HF wetland, $k_{La,20,1000}$ was estimated to be 2–15 h⁻¹
 257 answer to R1Q16](Figure 3). From 189 DO measurement curves, 32 were
 258 excluded due to distortions that impeded the derivation of reliable estimates
 259 for $k_{La,20,1000}$ (Section S3.2). $k_{La,20,1000}$ from clean water samples at AFR of
 260 510 L m⁻² h⁻¹ were in range with values reported by Butterworth [44] for a
 261 comparable AFR and orifice size. At an AFR of 1359 and 2718 L m⁻² h⁻¹,
 262 estimated $k_{La,20,1000}$ were up to 10 h⁻¹ lower than reported by [44]. How-
 263 ever, $k_{La,20,1000}$ varied more intense at higher AFR in this study and But-
 264 terworth [44] reported overall high standard deviations of up to 5 h⁻¹. This
 265 may be explained by the fact that Butterworth [44] performed experiments
 266 in a larger system (tank size of 1.5 m in length and width) but used only two

267 DO sensors. A reasonable explanation for this increase in variability with
268 increasing AFR observed in this study cannot be given.

269 The mean overall $k_{La,20,1000}$ estimated from wastewater samples at an
270 AFR of $510 \text{ L m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ was approximately 3.5 h^{-1} , which is similar to the value
271 at a similar AFR derived by process modeling of an HF aerated wetland
272 by Boog et al. [22]. Considering this and the narrow difference to [44] at
273 an AFR of $510 \text{ L m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, the estimated $k_{La,20,1000}$ can be interpreted as
274 reliable. In general, $k_{La,20,1000}$ increased with increasing AFR, which was also
275 reported from the literature [12]. In the trials using wastewater, $k_{La,20,1000}$
276 was reduced by increasing COD_s concentrations at a similar rate at the three
277 AFR tested (Figure 3). This indicates that oxygen transfer was linked to
278 the organic carbon concentration (TOC, COD) of the wastewater, however,
279 independently of the AFR.

280 3.2. Link between α and organic carbon concentration

281 Measured COD_s concentrations of the wastewater samples describe a de-
282 creasing trend with increasing distance from the wetland influent, which was
283 previously observed in the literature [30]. Opposed to COD_s , α increased with
284 increasing distance from the wetland influent (Figure 4). This underlines pre-
285 vious findings that oxygen transfer is not uniform in treatment systems where
286 hydraulics deviate from complete mixing [29, 45].

287 Above a COD_t of 200 mg L^{-1} and COD_s of 80 mg L^{-1} , α decreased at
288 a similar rate to COD_t and COD_s ; however, the decrease of α with COD_t
289 was shifted approximately $+200 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ compared to the decrease with COD_s
290 (Figure 5). α - COD_t and α - COD_s pairs below α of 1.0 related to the same
291 samples from 0.0–0.25 fractional length. The shifts in COD between these

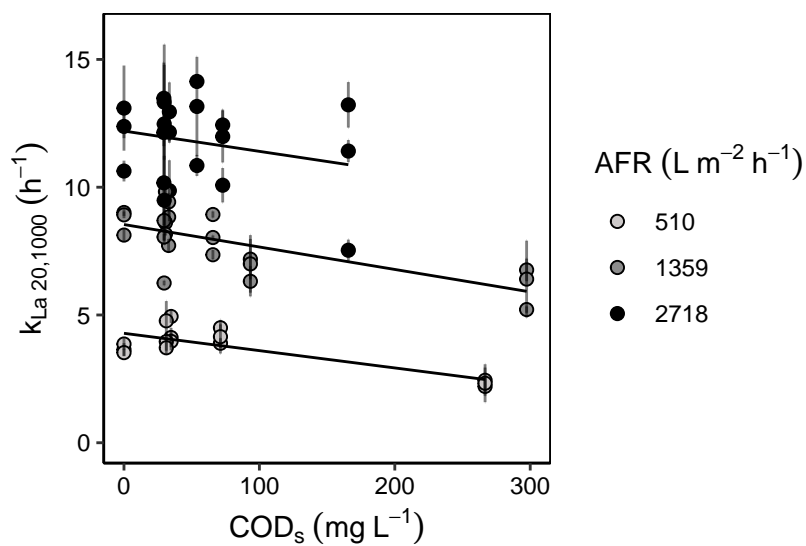


Figure 3: Estimated $k_{La,20,1000}$ as a function of COD_s concentration of the wastewater sampled from the pilot-scale system *HAp*. Dots represent mean values of replicated trials from sensor position at 0.10, 0.45 and 0.80 m. Standard deviations are shown as error bars. Solid lines represent linear regression fits for each AFR.

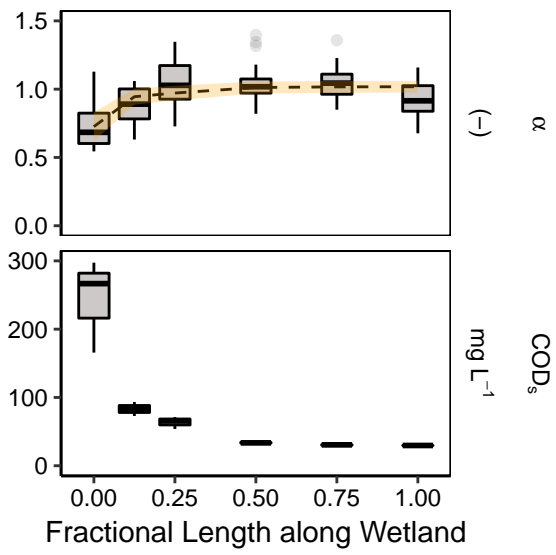


Figure 4: COD_s and estimated α at different fractional lengths along the experimental pilot-scale aerated HF wetland. The dashed line including orange area indicates estimation by $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_s)$ including the 95% confidence interval.

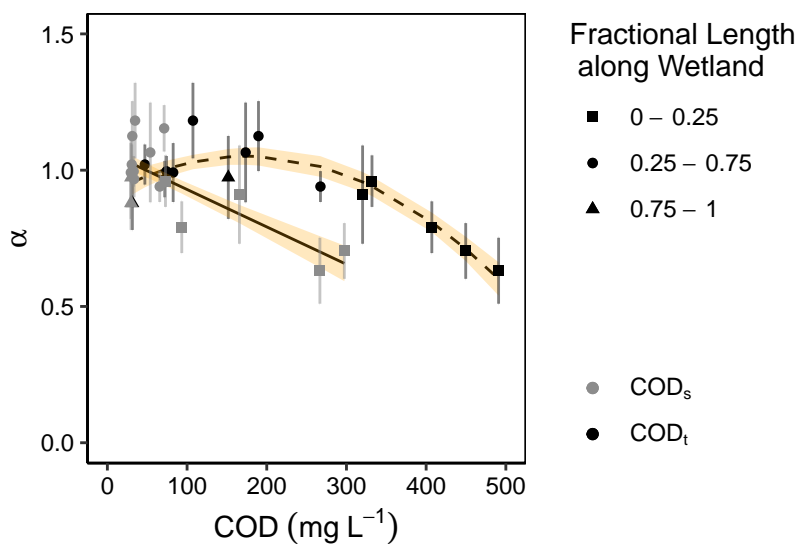


Figure 5: Estimated α vs. COD_t and COD_s concentration. Corresponding regression equations are: $\alpha = 1.066 - 1.372\text{E-}3 \text{ COD}_s$, $R^2=0.40$ (solid line); $\alpha = 9.102\text{E-}1 + 1.602\text{E-}3 \text{ COD}_t - 4.545\text{E-}6 \text{ COD}_t^2$, $R^2=0.52$ (dashed line). Orange areas indicate the 95% confidence intervals. Regression equations for TOC and DOC can be found in Section S3.

292 value pairs were caused by solid matter that was accounted for in COD_t only.
293 Additionally, α -factors scattered unregularly around 1.0 were COD consists
294 mostly of solid matter ($\text{COD}_s \ll \text{COD}_t$ at 0.25–0.75 fractional length, Fig-
295 ure 5). Therefore, it is most likely that the reduction in α was caused by
296 COD_s and that the COD of the solid matter did not substantially contribute
297 to it. Following this, COD_s is likely a better predictor for α although R^2
298 of the regression equation using COD_t as regressor was higher. This is sup-
299 ported by the fact that COD_s , in theory, is a more reasonable proxy for
300 surfactants compared to COD_t as surfactants are soluble. The extent of the
301 impact of surfactants on an aeration device depends on the produced bub-
302 ble size and bubble rise velocity [12]. The literature reports coarse bubble
303 diffusers to be less affected by surfactants than fine bubble diffusers [46].
304 Aeration in aerated HF wetlands was reported to fall between coarse and
305 fine bubble aeration in terms of oxygen transfer efficiency (standard oxygen
306 transfer efficiency of 4.0–5.9% m^{-1} reported by Wallace et al. [47]). However,
307 a median bubble diameter of 3 mm and rise velocities of 0.1–0.2 mm s^{-1} were
308 reported from a comparable aeration system submerged in a gravel column
309 operated at similar AFR [44]. This means that in terms of bubble character-
310 istics, aeration in aerated HF wetland is closer to fine bubble aeration [12].
311 Based on visual observations of bubble movement in the oxygen absorption
312 experiments, bubble characteristics in this study may be similar to the ones
313 reported by Butterworth [44]; although, bubble size and rise velocity were
314 not measured. Based on this, it is likely that the aeration device used in this
315 study is impacted by surfactants in a similar way as fine bubble aerators.

316 The effect of solid matter on α is still being discussed in the literature

317 [13]. Some authors report solid matter to increase α at mixed-liquor sus-
318 pended solids concentrations of 0.5–4.0 g L⁻¹ [24], others report α to decrease
319 at mixed-liquor suspended solids concentrations of 1–30 g L⁻¹ [25, 26]. Ad-
320 ditionally, these authors studied activated sludge plants and/or membrane
321 bioreactors. To the best of our knowledge, there are no studies available
322 that report pore water solid matter concentrations in HF aerated wetlands.
323 As HF aerated wetlands are operated at high retention time (order of sev-
324 eral days) but without sludge return, it seems unlikely to observe suspended
325 solids concentrations in the range of g L⁻¹. Therefore, it is unlikely that sus-
326 pended solids concentration altered α and does so in comparable HF aerated
327 wetlands.

328 The obtained value pairs of α with COD_t fit in the broader pattern ob-
329 tained by Leu et al. [48] and Jiang et al. [33], however, are shifted to higher
330 values of α (Figure 6). This shift was most probably caused by method-
331 ological differences. Leu et al. [48] and Jiang et al. [33] estimated α using
332 off-gas tests in full-scale activated sludge plants using fine pore diffusers.
333 Additionally, Leu et al. [48] and Jiang et al. [33] used municipal wastewater
334 and measured influent COD_t only. In contrast, Steinmetz [49] did not find
335 any relationship between α and organic carbon concentration measured as
336 DOC when conducting oxygen absorption experiments using return sludge
337 from a full-scale activated sludge plant.

338 Other relationships proposed to predict α are based on microbial activity
339 [25], sludge retention time [26] or operational parameters such tank geometry
340 [50], AFR and aeration system [23]. A link of α to microbial activity was
341 reported by Germain et al. [25] and Henkel et al. [27] studying membrane biore-

342 actors. Germain et al.[25] quantified microbial activity in the solid (content
343 of extra-cellular polymeric substance) and liquid phase (soluble microbial
344 products as COD); Henkel et al.[27] quantified the corresponding solid phase
345 only (as mixed-liquor volatile suspended solids). Both authors attributed the
346 impact of the solid phase to its effect on sludge viscosity and rheology. As
347 the corresponding membrane bioreactors were operated at mixed-liquor sus-
348 pended solids concentrations of one to two orders of magnitude higher than
349 what is expected in HF aerated wetlands, the effect of solid-phase microbial
350 activity in HF aerated wetlands is probably low. Liquid-phase microbial
351 activity is probably accounted for in COD_s concentration. However, as it
352 is highly likely to be linked to the magnitude of the solid-phase microbial
353 activity, it will be of minor importance in HF aerated wetlands due to the
354 relatively low suspended solid concentrations.

355 Sludge retention time was reported to be important in membrane biore-
356 actors [26] . In aerated wetlands, sludge retention time is not actively con-
357 trolled and its impact on α very difficult to determine. Further explanation
358 on this cannot be given here. In this study, AFR did not alter the decrease
359 in $k_{La,20,1000}$ with increasing COD (slopes in Figure 3). AFR, therefore, did
360 not affect α . The question how other operational parameters (e.g. aeration
361 system, tank geometry, media size) are likely to alter α across HF aerated
362 wetlands goes beyond the scope of this study. The design of the pilot-scale
363 system *HAp* was derived from long-term practical experience with aerated
364 wetlands in the US [34]. This design served as the basis for the recently
365 established German guidelines for small-scale aerated wetlands [32]. Addi-
366 tionally, many other HF aerated wetlands in th US and Europe are built in

367 a similar fashion [35, 44, 51–53]. Hence, expected differences in the corre-
368 sponding design and operational conditions are relatively low. It is arguable
369 that the influence of operational conditions on α across and especially within
370 HF aerated wetlands is much lower than the influence of COD concentration.
371 Moreover, operational variables such as hydrodynamic conditions are not ex-
372 pected to substantially change across space within an HF aerated wetland
373 due to the uniform aeration system and the presence of the gravel bed [34].
374 A reasonable change in the tank geometry, therefore, will be of less impor-
375 tance than in wastewater treatment systems without a gravel or fixed bed.
376 Therefore, this study was limited to the influence of COD concentration.
377 Thoroughly investigating the influence of design and operational param-
378 eters requires additional extensive experimentation, which deserves further
379 research. Furthermore, it is arguable if the design conditions affect either α
380 or $k_{La,20,1000}$ or both.

381 In summary, the current study and the studies by Leu et al. [48] and
382 Jiang et al. [33] provide significant evidence of a link between α and COD_t
383 (COD_s). Considering that the experiments were conducted in a single gravel
384 column under specific conditions, care should be taken when using the link
385 to estimate α for treatment plant design and/or operation as well as process
386 modeling.

387 3.3. Simulated impact of $\alpha = f(COD_s)$ on treatment efficacy

388 After the implementation of the regression equation $\alpha = f(COD_s)$ into
389 the process model, the default values of $k_{La,20}$ were increased by approxi-
390 mately 0.10–0.25 h^{-1} during the recalibration. Measured pore water and ef-
391 fluent concentrations were fitted in a similar manner as in the original model

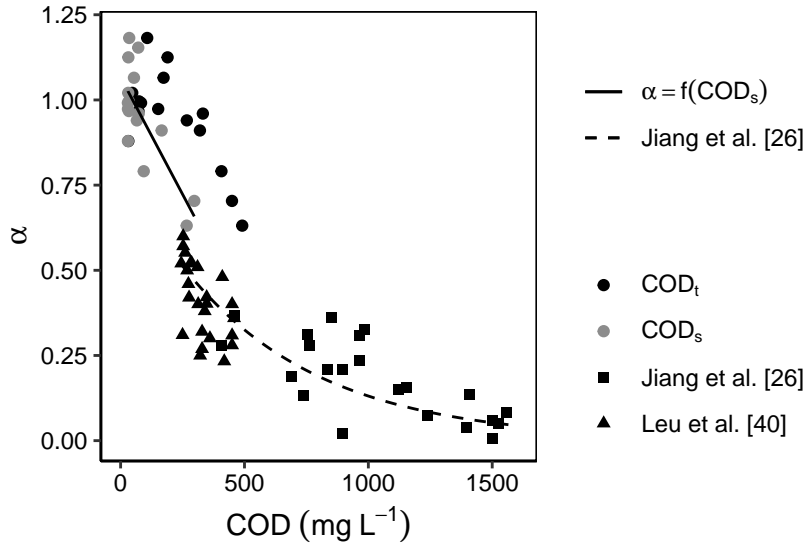


Figure 6: α vs. COD. Corresponding regression equations are: $\alpha = 1.066 - 1.372E-3 \text{ COD}_s$, $R^2=0.4$; $\alpha_{\text{Jiang et al. [26]}} = \exp(-1.82E-3 \text{ COD}_t - 0.213)$, $R^2=0.7$ [33].

392 by Boog et al. [22] (Figure S47–S48). The same holds for the model valida-
 393 tion (Figure S49–S50). These results translate into a relatively low influence
 394 of wastewater COD_s on $k_{La,20}$, α and pollutant concentrations with respect
 395 to the given AFR and influent wastewater quality of the corresponding sim-
 396 ulations.

397 The validated process model was then applied in a scenario analysis to
 398 simulate the impact of different influent wastewater strengths and values of
 399 $k_{La,20,cw}$ on α and the associated impact on treatment efficacy. COD_s influent
 400 concentration substantially impacted α and simulated effluent concentrations
 401 for DO, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_x\text{-N}$ in the scenario *High Strength* influent combined
 402 with low aeration ($k_{La,20,cw}$ of 1 h^{-1}). In the remaining scenarios, the impact of
 403 COD_s on α did not play a substantial role with respect to the effect on effluent

404 concentrations and treatment efficacy. However, pore water patterns of day
405 60 at *High Strength* revealed that in the simulations considering $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_s)$
406 pore water quality gradients for DO, COD_t , COD_s , $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_x\text{-N}$ were
407 shifted in length even at $k_{La,20,cw} > 1 \text{ h}^{-1}$, (Figure 7). The lengths of the shifts
408 were approximately 0.4–0.6 m (10–13% of fractional length) for $k_{La,20,cw}$ of
409 2–3 h^{-1} . In contrast, the shift of pore water gradients was about 1.0–1.5 m for
410 $k_{La,20,cw} = 1 \text{ h}^{-1}$. The impact of wastewater COD_s on α can, therefore, also
411 affect redox zonation and has the potential to alter biogeochemical cycles in
412 HF aerated wetlands.

413 At *Medium Strength*, COD_s caused a reduction in α up to 0.8 at 0–0.2
414 fractional length but without substantially affecting simulated COD_t and
415 COD_s concentrations. This was caused by anaerobic bacteria X_{FB} that con-
416 tributes to COD removal and grew at this fractional length. The decreased
417 oxygen transfer limited available DO for aerobic heterotrophic COD consum-
418 ing bacteria X_H . As a result the activity of X_H decreased while the activity
419 of anaerobic bacteria X_{FB} increased. As the COD removal capacity of X_{FB}
420 is lower than that of aerobic bacteria X_H , COD removal started to substan-
421 tially deteriorate below at limited oxygen transfer (indicated by a low α).
422 This was the case for simulations at *High Strength* influent.

423 In general, influent COD_s did not substantially impact α as well as pore
424 and effluent water quality in the simulations scenarios *Medium Strength* and
425 *Low Strength* and at $k_{La,20,cw} \geq 1 \text{ h}^{-1}$. Nevertheless, it must be noted that
426 the simulations did not include temporal variations in influent wastewater
427 strength and range of temperatures that can occur in full-scale systems.
428 Therefore, the transfer of these results into practice is limited. However, the

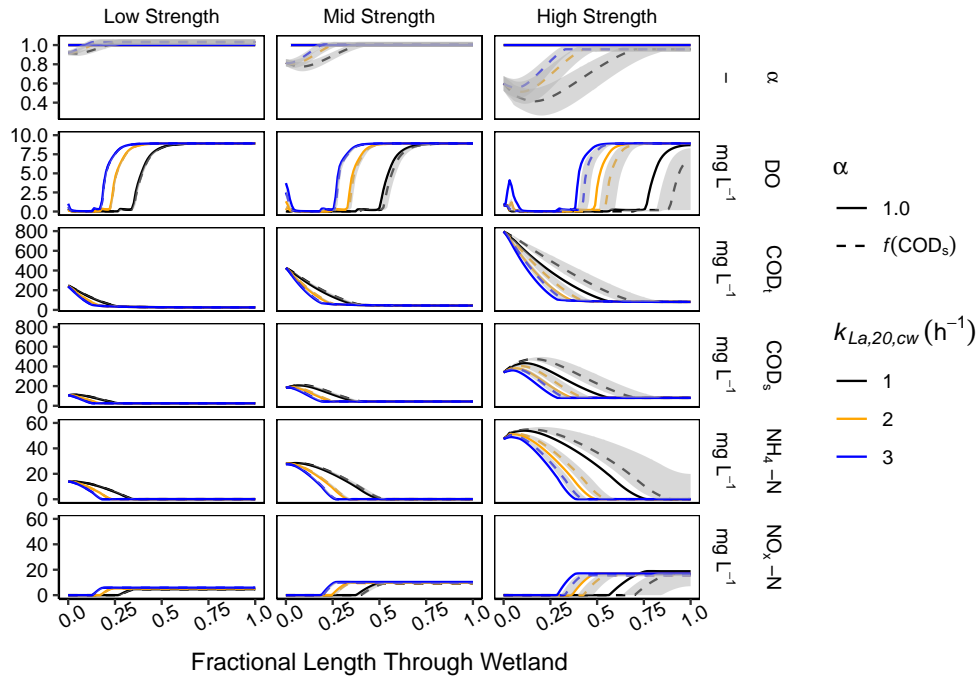


Figure 7: Simulated pore water concentration profiles of the scenario analysis at a simulated time of 60 days. Grey area indicates uncertainty introduced by the 95% confidence interval of $\alpha = f(\text{COD}_S)$. *Low Strength*, *Mid Strength* and *High Strength* refer to influent water qualities defined by Tchobanoglous et al. [11] listed in Table 1.

429 scenario analysis indicates that there can be conditions at which α should
430 be considered. This translates into implications for further research and
431 engineering practice.

432 3.4. Implications

433 The impact of influent COD_s on oxygen transfer can be important for
434 designing and/or operating HF aerated wetlands treating domestic or mu-
435 nicipal wastewater if high COD_s influent concentrations are expected, and if
436 in combination, it is intended to zone aeration and/or intended to keep the
437 AFR at a very low level. In the computer simulations, α was substantially
438 reduced at influent COD_s of 300 mg L^{-1} . This may transfer to the pilot-scale
439 wetland *HAp* if operated at such high influent COD_s . However, further ex-
440 perimental evidence is necessary. In contrast, in other HF aerated wetlands
441 α will probably differ due to different wastewater compositions—even though
442 the wetlands are designed similarly.

443 HF aerated wetlands with zoned aeration (e.g. non-aerated portions along
444 the length) could be helpful for experiments investigating the removal of pol-
445 lutants, where the degradation process requires specific redox conditions such
446 as for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_x\text{-N}$, or specific organic trace contaminants [54]. The
447 simulation scenario analysis showed that pore water gradients were shifted as
448 COD_s limited oxygen transfer at a COD_s influent concentration of approxi-
449 mately 300 mg L^{-1} (scenario *High Strength* in Figure 7). Therefore, it could
450 be difficult to control specific redox conditions or zonation at high influent
451 COD_s concentrations.

452 A similar problem arises when it is intended to keep aeration at minimum.
453 Keeping aeration at minimum is a common means for designers and opera-

454 tors of aerobic wastewater treatment systems [16, 33, 48] to save operational
455 costs. For instance, in the *High Strength* simulation scenarios, COD_s sub-
456 stantially reduced oxygen transfer and treatment efficacy for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ when
457 $k_{La,20,cw}$ was at lowest. In contrast, treatment performance was not altered
458 at the same $k_{La,20,cw}$ in the *Low Strength* scenario. The impact of highly vari-
459 able wastewater strengths and loads will, therefore, change α dynamically.
460 Keeping aeration at minimum requires to dynamically adjust the AFR with
461 respect to α . This will be challenging and implies active aeration control.
462 Such control will be of special concern for on-site or event-driven treatment
463 plants (e.g. temporary residences, camping grounds, stormwater) as highly
464 variable influent strength are expected in such cases. Moreover, the dynamic
465 nature of α has to be accounted for when designing small-scale plants that
466 are commonly not equipped with active aeration control devices.

467 Considering opposed gradients of pollutant concentrations and DO as well
468 as α in the pilot-scale system *HAp* (Figure 4 and the computer simulations
469 7), uniform aeration provided oxygen in excess, especially from 0.5–1.0 frac-
470 tional length. This translates into an unnecessarily high energy requirement
471 and ecological footprint as well as operational costs. With respect to the ex-
472 perimental pilot-scale system used, aeration could be reduced from 0.5–1.0
473 fractional length by a factor of two. This may also apply to other studies
474 or applications of HF aerated wetlands where uniform aeration is used and
475 water quality gradients are similar (see [30]).

476 The oxygen absorption experiments and computer simulations were based
477 on the design (media, AFR, aeration line) of the pilot-scale wetland *HAp*.
478 Therefore, it is arguable to extrapolate from the laboratory experiments and

479 computer simulations to *HAp* and to similarly designed HF aerated wetlands
480 at the similar operational and environmental conditions. Boog et al. [22]
481 recommended an AFR of 150–200 L m⁻² h⁻¹ for a HF aerated wetlands de-
482 signed according to the German guidelines for small-scale wetlands, however,
483 without considering the α -factor explicitly [22]. Using the their relationship
484 $k_{La,20} = 0.511 \log(\text{AFR})$, an AFR of 150–200 L m⁻² h⁻¹ corresponds to a $k_{La,20}$
485 of 2.4–2.8 h⁻¹. In the simulation scenarios at a $k_{La,20,cw}$ above 2 h⁻¹ treatment
486 efficacy was high (Figure 7). Similarly, in the pilot-scale system in Boog
487 et al. [22] treatment performance was also high at $k_{La,20}$ above 2.0 h⁻¹. More-
488 over, Boog et al. [22] observed similar spatial water quality gradients at this
489 $k_{La,20}$ than generated by the simulations in this study. At an AFR of 150–
490 200 L m⁻² h⁻¹, therefore, a deterioration in treatment performance through
491 the impact of COD on oxygen transfer may not be that important for the
492 pilot-scale wetlands used in this study (*HAp*) and by Boog et al. [22] as well
493 as for small-scale HF aerated wetlands under similar conditions. Although
494 this hypothesis needs to be tested empirically. The current German design
495 guideline for small-scale HF aerated wetlands [32], in contrast, recommends
496 an AFR of 600 L m⁻² h⁻¹. This AFR can be interpreted as conservative consid-
497 ering the results of this study and the recommendation of 150–200 L m⁻² h⁻¹
498 by Boog et al. [22]. Indeed, an AFR of 600 L m⁻² h⁻¹ is intended to ensure
499 robust treatment. This AFR may also prevent fouling or clogging of aeration
500 orifices over the long-term operation of the wetland.

501 **4. Conclusions**

502 This study has shown that influent COD_s concentration can impede oxy-
503 gen transfer and can create a descending gradient of α along the length of HF
504 aerated wetlands. Computer simulations revealed that the impeded oxygen
505 transfer was linked to a loss in treatment efficacy at low $k_{La,20,cw}$. This could
506 be relevant for designing HF aerated wetlands to treat wastewater of high-
507 strength and high variability in strength. Considering that design recommen-
508 dations for small-scale HF aerated wetlands still rely on volumetric-based
509 and areal-based heuristics, this study describes a significant advancement for
510 HF aerated wetland design and research. Future research should examine the
511 validity of the equation $\alpha = 1.066 - 1.372E-3 \text{ mg COD}_s \text{ L}^{-1}$ and the process
512 model by comparing these with additional column experiments and/or in-
513 situ oxygen transfer measurements in pilot or full-scale HF aerated wetlands.
514 Additionally, future research should investigate if oxygen transfer in aerated
515 wetlands is impeded by other wastewater pollutants with respect to grey wa-
516 ter, where the ratio of surfactants concentration to COD_s may be higher, or
517 industrial wastewater that contains high amounts of substances potentially
518 affecting oxygen transfer (surfactants, oils, alcohols or petroleum-based pol-
519 lutants).

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532 **6. Supplementary information**

533 Additional information on the methodology and results of the oxygen
534 transfer experiments and process model calibration, validation and simulation
535 scenario analysis are supplied in the file `si.pdf`. All process model input
536 files are supplied in the file `model_input.zip`. The OpenGeoSys source code
537 (incl. the coupling to IPhreeqc) is available at <https://github.com/ufz/ogs5>.

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