#### TREATING MUNICIPAL WASTEWATER THROUGH A VEGETATION FILTER WITH 1 2 A SHORT-ROTATION POPLAR SPECIES 3

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#### 17 ABSTRACT

18 The performance of a vegetation filter using a short-rotation coppice of poplars was 19 evaluated over a 3-year period in terms of pollutant removal capacity. The vegetation 20 filter was designed for scattered and small populations with no storage facilities and a 21 wastewater application constrained by the own production of effluent.. Wastewater 22 effluent was pre-treated in an Imhoff tank and applied to the vegetation filter. The 23 chemical compositions of drainage water and groundwater were regularly monitored. 24 Surface soil samples at the beginning and the end of the study were also collected. The monitored chemical species in drainage water and groundwater were DOC, COD, 25 26  $N_{T}$ ,  $NO_3$ -N,  $NH_4$ -N,  $P_T$ ,  $PO_4$ -P, and other major ions. Electrical conductivity, organic 27 matter content (%), NO<sub>3</sub>-N, available P, cation exchange capacity and major cations 28 were analysed for soil. The vegetation filter presented efficient removal of wastewater-29 originated pollutants. DOC and COD removal reached values of 85%. A correlated 30 increase in soil organic matter content was detected (from 1.0% to almost 2.8%). A 31 similar removal capacity was observed for  $P_T$  which is interpreted as due to plant uptake mechanisms and  $PO_4^{3-}$  precipitation in the presence of soil Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Around 73% of 32 33  $N_T$  was removed. However due to the high applied  $N_T$  load, the average  $N_T$ 34 concentration in drainage water was about 41.9 mg/L, higher than the admissible 35 concentration limit. When considering  $N_T$  mass, about 10% of the cumulative applied 36  $N_{T}$  leached through the vadose zone. Groundwater quality was not affected by the 37 vegetation filter operation.

**Keywords:** vegetation filters, wastewater reuse, vadose zone, pollutant removal, short rotation 38 39 coppice.

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#### 1 1. INTRODUCTION

Nature-based wastewater purification systems have been reported as a feasible solution for small municipalities and scattered populations with limited access to sewage networks (Ortega et al., 2011). They came about as an alternative to conventional treatment systems given their advantages in term of robustness, low management and maintenance costs, and environmental benefits, primarily related with low sludge production. Specifically, these systems imply reduced operational, energy and chemical requirements if compared to conventional methods (Dimitriou and Aronsson, 2011).

Vegetation filters (VFs), a specific type of nature-based wastewater purification 9 10 systems, involve the application of pre-treated and/or treated wastewater to a vegetated 11 soil surface. Such a system relies on soil attenuation capacity and plant uptake to 12 remove potential wastewater contaminants (i.e., nutrients). The use of fast-growing tree 13 species with a high evapotranspiration rate, and the fact that their root systems show 14 excellent tolerance to anaerobic conditions, enable the application of considerable amounts of wastewater (Herschbach et al., 2005; Persson and Lindroth, 1994). In 15 Northern European climates, the most widely used tree species are willows (Salix spp.) 16 17 whereas poplars (*Populus spp.*) or eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus spp.*) are mostly used in Southern climates (Dimitriou and Rosenqvist, 2011). Commonly, a VF is characterised 18 19 by the low density of planted trees (300-500 plants/ha) and long cutting periods (12-17 years) (de Bustamante, 1990; Magesan and Wang, 2003; Sanz et al., 2014). 20

Nowadays, VF technologies are oriented more towards short-rotation coppice (SRC)
applications to enhance the removal of contaminants from infiltrating wastewater
(Dimitriou & Aronsson, 2011; Holm & Heinsoo, 2013). SRC refers to an intensive
biomass production strategy based on fast-growing species that are able to resprout

from stumps after being harvested at short intervals (Dimitriou and Rosenqvist, 2011).
SRC involves intensive tree management, which is more similar to agriculture than
forestry practices. The application of domestic wastewater to these plantations has been
identified as an appealing method to produce biomass, increase wastewater treatment
and nutrient recycling, and to reduce greenhouse emissions (Dimitriou and Aronsson,
2005; Tzanakakis et al., 2009)

7 This paper reports the results of a 3-year research (March 2011-May 2014) conducted in 8 Southern Spain in which a VF, based on SRC of poplars (*Populus alba*), was applied to 9 treat the wastewater produced by an office building with a very high nutrient 10 concentration. We aimed to evaluate the pollutant removal capacity of a VF 11 characterised by lack of wastewater storage facilities and highly variable application 12 rates in volume and quality terms. In addition, possible effects on groundwater were 13 also investigated.

### 14 **2. METHODS**

To assess the efficiency of the VF we (i) monitored the chemical composition of the 15 16 drainage water collected by a lysimeter; (ii) controlled the chemical composition of groundwater in a nearby piezometer; (iii) evaluated the changes in soil properties 17 between the beginning and the end of the study, and used them as support information 18 19 to interpret the vadose zone processes. The VF's pollutant removal capacity was 20 investigated by considering the average concentration in drainage water and groundwater. However for DOC, COD, N<sub>T</sub> and P<sub>T</sub> which are usually the most 21 22 problematic pollutants, a mass calculation-based approach in the vadose zone was also 23 considered.

#### 24 **2.1 Site description and VF design**

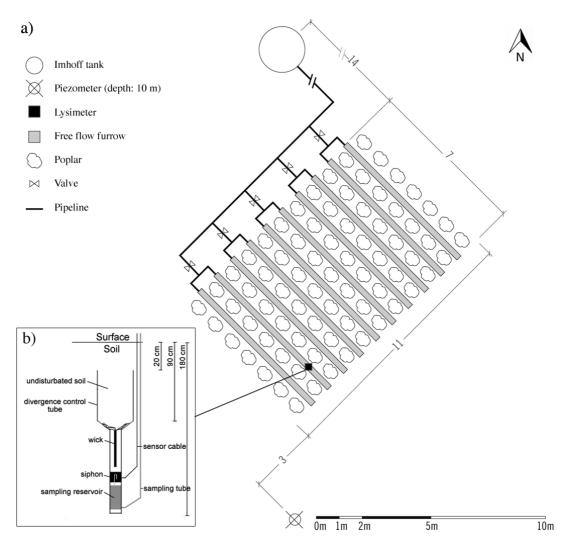
The study was carried out in South-East Spain at the R&D&I Centre of Carrión de los 1 Céspedes (Seville) (37°22′ N, 6°19′ W). The VF was designed to treat effluent from an 2 3 office building, with a capacity of 20 workers who produce an average wastewater volume of 0.5  $m^3/day$ . The average annual rainfall and the reference crop 4 5 evapotranspiration in the area are 543 mm and 1,448 mm, respectively. The average temperature is 17.4°C (AEMET, 2011). Climate is characterised by scarce, but intense, 6 7 rainy events, which take place mainly in spring and autumn, and also by a hot dry 8 summer season.

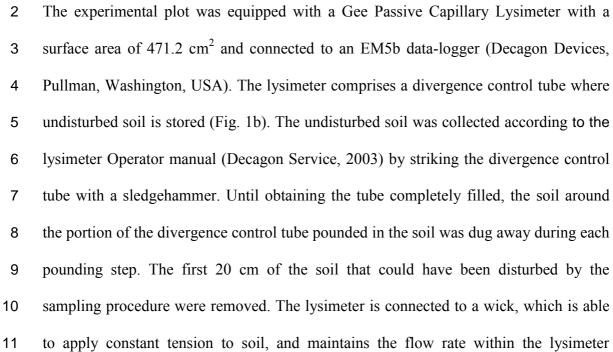
The experimental plot, with a gentle surface slope directed towards south, is 9 10 characterised by loamy soils (20.4% Clay, 46.8% Sand and 32.8% Silt) classified as 11 Calcic Haploxeralf (de Bustamante, 2010) according to the USDA classification (Soil 12 Survey Staff, 2010). Before beginning the wastewater application, soil pH, electrical 13 conductivity (EC) and organic matter content (OM) were 8.3, 520 µS/cm and 1.0%, respectively. The soil infiltration capacity measured by a double ring infiltrometer test 14 15 ranged between 6.5 and 8.0 mm/h. The water table depth varied from 1 m to 3 m. Prior 16 to the investigation the area of the experimental plot was left fallow during the last 17 decade.

The VF surface was calculated using the methodology proposed by de Bustamante et al. (2009), which estimates the VF extension through soil water balance. Considering the natural precipitation in the area, the wastewater volume to be applied and the volume of water evapotranspired, it is possible to quantify the VF surface by minimising run off or water stress periods. Daily and monthly climatic data were obtained from the Spanish Agroclimatic Information System for Irrigation (SIAR). Thus, information from the nearest agroclimatic station (Aznalcázar, Seville) was used to estimate the water requirements of plants. The crop coefficient (Kc) required to estimate the poplar monthly evapotranspiration was obtained from Urbano-Terrón (1992). The maximum daily water flow to be applied was estimated by taking into account the results obtained from the infiltration test. However after installing the VF, the number of workers in the office building unexpectedly lowered and resulted in an average wastewater production of about 0.25 m<sup>3</sup>/d.

7 Given the objective to enhance nutrient pollutant uptake by maximising biomass production, an SRC-based management with 3-year harvesting cycles was chosen. 8 9 Poplars were planted along 10 lines with a distance between them of 1 m, resulting in a 10 plantation density of 10,000 plants/ha (Fig. 1a). Planting was performed from unrooted 11 hardwood cuttings of about 1.5 m high. Spontaneous vegetation growth was not 12 prevented. Before irrigation, wastewater was previously treated in an Imhoff tank (volume of 2.5 m<sup>3</sup>). Subsequently, effluent was applied into free flow furrows of 30 x 13 14 20 cm, which were filled with gravel to avoid odours and direct contact (Fig. 1a). 15 Irrigation lines were grouped into five blocks. The irrigation schedule was designed to apply effluent to each block once per week (5 working days per week). Devices that 16 17 regulate wastewater irrigation rates were not used. Such a decision reflects the purpose 18 of simulating wastewater alternative treatment for scattered small populations for which 19 wastewater is not stored, but applied according to its production. The irrigation rate was 20 monitored during the study by flowmeters.

Figure 1. Scheme of the VF and detail of the lysimeter device (annotated lengths in the mainscheme are in meters).





equivalent to the flow rate in the surrounding soil. The volume of drainage water is
measured by a syphon and a 1-litre sampling container is used for storage. The
lysimeter was used to monitor the volume of water leached from the vadose zone (at a
depth of 90 cm) and to collect the leachate for the water chemical analysis. To assess
the potential effects of wastewater irrigation on groundwater quality, a piezometer
(filter at a depth of 10 m) located 4 m downgradient of the VF was also monitored.

#### 7 2.2 Water samples analysis

8 To determine changes in the physico-chemical properties, water samples were collected 9 every month from the Imhoff tank effluent and the piezometer, and after drainage 10 events also in the lysimeter. In all, 116 leachate and wastewater samples were analysed 11 according to the Standard Method for the Examination of Water and Wastewater (Eaton 12 et al., 2005). Analyses were performed at the IMDEA Water (Madrid, Spain) and at the CENTA Foundation laboratories (Seville, Spain). When the analyses were not 13 performed immediately after sampling, the samples were stored for no more than 30 14 15 days at -21°C. The measured parameters were: EC and pH (Crison Multimeter MM 41); chemical oxygen demand (COD - Merck Spectroquant TR420 and Spectroquant 16 NOVA60 Spectrophotometer); dissolved organic carbon (DOC - Shimadzu TOC 17 analyzer); the ions Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub>-N, Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub>-N (Metrohm ion 18 chromatography Advanced Compact IC with two-channel) and HCO3<sup>-</sup> (Metrohm 19 Titrando 809). For  $N_T$  and  $P_T$  determination, measures were previously digested using 20 21 the peroxodisulphate oxidation method (Ebina et al., 1983) and were subsequently 22 analysed in the forms of NO<sub>3</sub>-N and PO<sub>4</sub>-P with a Brand+Luebbe Segmented Flow 23 Analyser due to the high electrical conductivity derived from the extraction method.

# 24 2.3 Soil samples analysis

1 Surface soil samples (up to a depth of 20 cm) were collected in quadruplicate at the 2 beginning and the end of the study. Prior to the analysis, samples were air-dried, gently 3 crushed and passed through a 2-mm sieve. Soil pH and EC were measured in a soil-4 water suspension (1:2.5 and 1:5 soil-water ratio, respectively). OM was determined by 5 the Walkley-Black method, consisting in potassium dichromate-sulphuric acid oxidation (Nelson and Sommers, 1982). Soil available P was extracted by the Olsen and 6 Dean method (Olsen et al., 1954), determined by the ascorbic acid molybdate blue 7 method (Murphy and Riley, 1962) and quantified using a spectrophotometer at 880 nm. 8 NO<sub>3</sub>-N was extracted by CaSO<sub>4</sub> (Griffin et al., 2009) and analysed by ionic 9 10 chromatography. Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC) was determined by extraction with 11 ammonium and sodium acetate solutions and the Exchangeable Bases by extraction with ammonium acetate. After soil extraction, exchangeable cation concentrations (Na<sup>+</sup>, 12  $K^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ) were analysed by ICP-MS at the IMDEA Water facilities. 13

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# 2.4 Statistical analysis

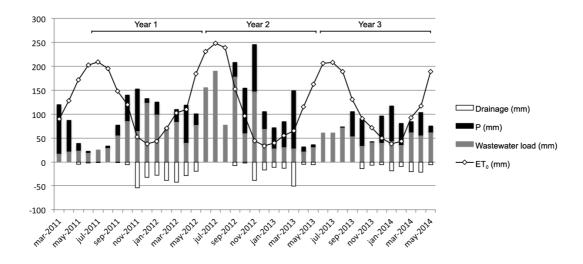
The differences in the chemical composition of the water collected from the effluent, 15 16 leachate and groundwater among the three years were evaluated using a one-way ANOVA and Tukey's test in the case of normal distributed data. When data did not 17 present a normal distribution and homogeneity of variance, a Kruskall-Wallis test was 18 19 applied. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate if data was well-modelled 20 by a normal distribution and Levene test was used to verify homogeneity of variance. 21 The significance level was set at  $p \le 0.05$ . Calculations were carried out using the 22 software Minitab (version 17) and Statgraphics (version Centurion XVI). Statistical 23 analyses were not considered for soil chemical data due to the limited number of 24 samples.

#### 1 **3 RESULTS**

# 2 **3.1 Effluent**

3 As previously described, the effluent applied to the VF came from an isolated office 4 building. The employed hydraulic load depended on the building's wastewater production and it did not always meet the water requirements of the plantation. 5 6 According to the amount of applied wastewater, precipitation and potential 7 evapotranspiration  $(ET_0)$ , each year of the study was characterised by a water deficit period which occurred during dry seasons (spring-summer) (Fig. 2). Throughout the 8 9 remaining study period, moderate water excess conditions were periodically recorded 10 (Fig. 2). As specified by the Operator's manual of the lysimeter (Decagon Service, 11 2003), we decided to set the equilibration period to the first three months of the study 12 (from March to May 2011). One drainage period (from October to May) ocurred during each year of the study (in total 3 periods of drainage). Therefore, the annual data 13 presented in this work refers to the period from June to May in agreement with the end 14 15 of the drainage period (Fig. 2). The annual irrigated wastewater load was 778 mm, 1,022 mm and 625 mm for the first, second and third year, respectively (Fig. 2). 16 Drainage water was approximately 15% of the hydraulic load (precipitation and 17 18 wastewater) on the VF surface, mostly restricted to the drainage period (Fig. 2).

Figure 2. Temporal variation of the applied wastewater load, precipitation (P), drainage water and
 reference crop evapotranspiration (ET<sub>0</sub>).



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2 Owing to the water consumption pattern in such a building in which most of the water is 3 used for toilet flushing and hand washing, the pollution load was remarkably high if 4 compared to a typical domestic wastewater effluent (Table 1). This holds especially true 5 for nutrients such as N<sub>T</sub> and P<sub>T</sub>, whose average wastewater concentrations were 154.9 6 and 16.1 mg/L, respectively. NH<sub>4</sub>-N was the dominant N<sub>T</sub> species (94%), which 7 reflected the anaerobic conditions in the Imhoff tank. Org-N and org-P represented 6% 8 and 23% of N<sub>T</sub> and P<sub>T</sub>, respectively. No significant differences were detected in the 9 concentration of phosphorus compounds among the three years whereas in the case of 10 nitrogen compounds, only the second year presented a concentration significantly 11 higher than the others (Table 1).

The applied wastewater presented an average concentration of COD and DOC of 269.6 mg/L and 88.0 mg/L, respectively (Table 1). Their concentrations in the first year resulted to be significantly higher than concentrations measured in the following years. The average effluent pH was 7.7, whereas EC was slightly high with a value of 2,046.9  $\mu$ S/cm (Table 1). However, no effects on tree growth were believed to occur given the high salt tolerance capacity of the poplars (Chen and Polle, 2010). Since wastewater showed a Sodium Adsorption Ratio (SAR) of 2.6, no decrease, or only a slight decrease, 1 in the soil infiltration rate was expected. As suggested by Oster and Schroer (1978),

2 when the SAR is higher than 2, infiltration rate could decrease. This phenomenon is due

3 to the loss of the soil structure as a consequence of the  $Na^+$  contained in the WW.

Table 1. Reference and effluent chemical composition. Mean values with standard deviations and applied loads for each parameter during the entire study period. The average values and applied loads for each year are also shown. Means with different letters were statistically different at p < 0.05.

	Reference	e 3-year study		1st Year		2nd Year		3rd Year	
	(Metcalf & Eddy, 2003)	Mean	Load (kg/ha)	Mean	Load (kg/ha)	Mean	Load (kg/ha)	Mean	Load (kg/ha)
pН	-	$7.7\ \pm 0.04$	-	$7.6\ \pm 0.04a$	-	$7.7\ \pm 0.1a$	-	$7.7\ \pm 0.1a$	-
EC (µS/cm)	-	2,046.9 ± 72.0	-	1,933.2 ± 108.8ab	-	2,216.3 ± 143.1a	-	1,930.0 ± 55.9b	-
DOC (mg/L)	260.0	$88.0\ \pm 7.2$	476.5	$113.9\ \pm\ 10.7a$	692.9	$58.8\ \pm\ 5.2b$	271.4	$62.4\ \pm 9.8b$	346.3
COD (mg/L)	800.0	$269.6 \pm 22.0$	1,458.9	$360.6 \pm 32.7a$	2192.9	$202.3 \pm 21.7b$	932.5	$157.6 \pm 27.5b$	873.9
N <sub>T</sub> (mg/L)	70.0	$154.9\ \pm 7.8$	838.4	$156.7 \pm 10.2a$	952.7	$176.9 \pm 12.3b$	815.5	$146.1~\pm 6.3a$	810.4
NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg/L)	0.0	$0.4\ \pm 0.3$	2.3	$0.1\ \pm 0.04a$	0.4	$1.2\ \pm 1.0b$	5.6	$0.3\ \pm 0.1b$	1.5
NH <sub>4</sub> -N (mg/L)	45.0	$145.8~\pm7.2$	789.3	$146.4~\pm 9.6a$	890.0	164.2 ± 11.2b	756.9	$142.5\ \pm 4.8a$	790.2
P <sub>T</sub> (mg/L)	12.0	$16.1\ \pm 0.9$	87.4	$16.7 \pm 1.3a$	101.4	$17.7~\pm1.8a$	81.7	$14.5\ \pm 0.6a$	80.6
PO <sub>4</sub> -P (mg/L)	8.0	$12.4\ \pm 0.7$	66.9	$12.8~\pm1.0a$	78.0	13.6 ± 1.4a	62.9	$10.9\ \pm 0.6a$	60.4
Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg/L)	-	$164.2~\pm7.9$	888.9	$156.5~\pm 8.5a$	951.6	$156.6~\pm 8.7a$	721.3	$146.7~\pm 5.3a$	813.6
SO4 <sup>2-</sup> (mg/L)	-	$41.4\ \pm 6.1$	224.1	$36.2~\pm 9.3a$	220.2	$37.5~\pm5.5a$	172.9	$33.6~\pm 3.0a$	186.4
HCO <sup>3-</sup> (mg/L)	-	831.0 ± 31.5	4,497.4	815.3 ± 51.2a	4,957.7	933.8 ± 56.3b	4305.0	772.7 ± 17.6a	4,284.9
Na <sup>+</sup> (mg/L)	-	$100.3\ \pm 4.5$	542.6	96.9 ± 5.2a	589.2	93.4 ± 5.3a	430.8	91.1 ± 3.6a	505.4
K+ (mg/L)	-	$51.8\ \pm 2.3$	280.6	51.3 ± 3.1a	311.9	56.9 ± 3.3a	262.1	$50.4\ \pm 2.2a$	279.3
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	-	$16.0\ \pm 0.8$	86.8	$14.2\ \pm 0.7a$	86.4	$16.7\ \pm 0.7b$	77.1	$16.7\ \pm 0.6b$	92.9
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	-	$51.0\ \pm 5.8$	276.1	45.3 ± 1.0a	275.4	$51.3\ \pm 2.2b$	236.6	$36.8\ \pm 2.8c$	204.0
SAR	-	$2.6\ \pm 0.1$	-	2.6 ± 0.1a	-	2.3 ± 0.1a	-	2.6 ± 0.1a	-

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# 8 **3.2** Contaminant removal capacity of the VF

9 To evaluate the effectiveness of the VF to remove wastewater contaminants, the 10 chemical composition of the Imhoff tank effluent was compared with that of the leachate collected by the lysimeter in terms of concentrations. In Table 2, the average 11 12 values of the leachate and the related removal percentages are reported separately for the three years of study. The corresponding values averaged throughout the research 13 period are also presented. Some of the monitored parameters and chemical species (EC, 14 Cl<sup>-</sup>,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$ ) presented negative removal percentages; i.e., the values 15 in the leachate were higher than that in the effluent (Table 2). 16

1 2 3 Table 2. Chemical composition of the leachate collected by the lysimeter. Mean values and standard

2	deviations for the entire period and for each year of the study. Percentages of removal are also reported.
3	Means with different letters were statistically different at $p < 0.05$ .

	3-year study		1st Year		2nd Year		3rd Year	
	Mean	% Removal	Mean	% Removal	Mean	% Removal	Mean	% Remova
pН	$7.8\ \pm 0.1$	-	7.8 ± 0.1a	-	$7.8\ \pm 0.2a$	-	$7.7\ \pm 0.16a$	-
EC (µS/cm)	2,821.3 ± 218.2	-37.8	3,557.9 ± 222.7a	-84.1	1,688.3 ± 90.3b	23.8	1,687.9 ± 74.33b	12.
DOC (mg/L)	$12.7\ \pm 0.7$	85.6	12.2 ± 1.0a	89.3	$14.5~\pm1.6a$	75.4	$12.6\ \pm\ 0.62a$	79.
COD (mg/L)	$40.1\ \pm 3.0$	85.1	41.7 ± 3.5a	88.5	$48.7\ \pm 8.3a$	75.9	$28.3\ \pm 0.77b$	82.
N <sub>T</sub> (mg/L)	$41.9\ \pm 3.4$	73.0	43.4 ± 4.3a	72.3	27.3 ± 5.4a	84.6	50.2 ± 3.09a	65.
NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg/L)	$40.1~\pm 3.4$	*	$41.4\ \pm 4.4a$	*	$25.8\ \pm 4.8a$	*	48.5 ± 3.15a	*
NH <sub>4</sub> -N (mg/L)	$0.6\ \pm 0.3$	*	$0.7\ \pm 0.4a$	*	$0.7\ \pm 0.7a$	*	$0.3\ \pm 0.28a$	*
P <sub>T</sub> (mg/L)	$1.5\ \pm 0.3$	90.7	$1.8 \pm 0.4a$	89.5	$1.9\ \pm 0.5a$	89.5	$0.5\ \pm 0.11a$	96.
PO <sub>4</sub> -P (mg/L)	$1.0\ \pm 0.2$	*	$1.2 \pm 0.3a$	*	1.3 ± 0.3a	*	$0.3\ \pm 0.07a$	*
Cl <sup>-</sup> (mg/L)	$497.2 \pm 55.6$	-202.7	$693.9 \pm 53.4a$	-343.4	$195.8~\pm7.9b$	-25.2	$193.6 \pm 12.80b$	-31.
SO4 <sup>2-</sup> (mg/L)	$294.9 \pm 33.6$	-612.1	413.9 ± 32.5a	-1,043.1	$126.6\ \pm\ 8.1b$	-237.5	$99.3\ \pm\ 5.86b$	-195.
HCO <sup>3-</sup> (mg/L)	$391.5 \pm 11.7$	52.9	417.7 ± 11.6a	48.8	405.2 ± 23.2a	56.6	356.0 ± 13.80b	53.
Na <sup>+</sup> (mg/L)	$235.1 \pm 18.4$	-134.5	297.3 ± 18.3a	-206.8	$131.2\ \pm\ 1.9b$	-40.4	$146.4 \pm 5.86b$	-60.
K+(mg/L)	$5.2\ \pm 0.5$	90.0	$5.4\ \pm 0.5a$	89.4	$7.1\ \pm 1.4a$	87.5	$2.8\ \pm\ 0.38b$	94.
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	$53.9\ \pm 4.6$	-236.0	$68.5\ \pm 4.9a$	-381.9	$30.2\ \pm 0.5b$	-80.7	$32.4\ \pm\ 1.22b$	-93.
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (mg/L)	290.2 ± 22.7	-468.9	369.0 ± 22.9a	-714.9	$174.5\ \pm 8.7b$	-240.0	$164.0 \pm 8.30b$	-345.

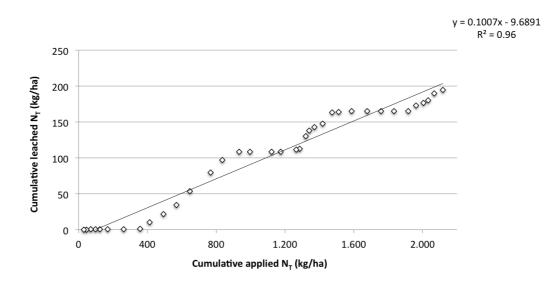
4 \*Transformed compound

The DOC and COD values in drainage water were relatively constant throughout the 5 6 study with mean values of 12.7 and 40.1 mg/L, respectively. The average removal 7 percentage calculated by taking into account the whole study period was about 85% for 8 both parameters. However this value was higher during the first drainage period (more 9 than 88%) and lower during the following periods (between 75% and 82%). The higher 10 removal percentage corresponds to the first drainage period, when the concentration in 11 the applied wastewater was lower.

12 Concerning nitrogen species, the mean concentrations of N<sub>T</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub>-N and NH<sub>4</sub>-N in drainage water were 41.9, 40.1 and 0.6 mg/L, respectively (differences among years 13 were not statistically significant). Due mainly to the nitrification processes which 14 occurred in the vadose zone, NO<sub>3</sub>-N was the dominant nitrogen species in the leachate 15 16 (96%). The average N<sub>T</sub> removal capacity of the VF, after taking into account the

1	average concentrations measured during the entire experiment, reached a value of about
2	73% (Table 2). When the three years were considered separately, the removal
3	percentage of the first and third year were lower (72 and 65%, respectively) than that
4	obtained during the second year of the study (85%) This is related to the high
5	concentration of $N_{\text{T}}$ in the effluent measured during this year (Table 1). Concerning $N_{\text{T}}$
6	mass, cumulative leached $N_{T}$ was plotted against cumulative applied $N_{T}$ (Fig. 3). Both
7	values were calculated for each month. The resulting linear regression model ( $R^2 = 0.96$ )
8	can be used to estimate the future cumulative leached $N_{\text{T}}$ when the applied $N_{\text{T}}$ mass is
9	known (Duan et al., 2010a). The slope of the regression model indicates that, during the
10	study period, only 10% of cumulative applied $N_{\rm T}$ leached through the vadose zone
11	confirming the VF's high removal capacity. The model has been also applied to $P_T$ ,
12	DOC and COD and only about 5% of the cumulative applied load infiltrates towards the
13	lysimeter (data not shown).

14 Figure 3. Cumulative applied  $N_T$  vs. cumulative leached  $N_T$ .



15

16 Other nutrients such as  $P_T$  or  $K^+$  were almost fully removed by the VF, and their mean 17 concentrations in drainage water were 1.5 and 5.2 mg/L, respectively. The soil-plant

system's removal capacity for these two species was relatively constant during the study
 period with values generally above 89% (Table 2).

3 The EC variation in the drainage water was also evaluated (Table 2). A different trend 4 of this parameter was observed between the first and the following years (significant 5 statistical difference). During the first year, water showed an average EC that almost doubled that of the effluent (about 3,557.9 µS/cm). However, EC lowered to a mean 6 value of 1,688.3 µS/cm and 1,687.9 µS/cm during the second and third years, 7 8 respectively. The initial increase in EC is also reflected by the increased concentration of dissolved ions Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> (significant statistical difference among 9 10 first and following years).

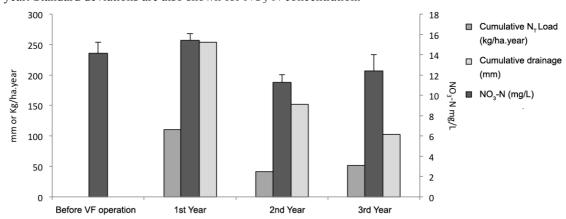
#### 11 **3.3 Groundwater**

12 The groundwater at the field site presented average pH and EC values of 7.6 and 13 4,100.7  $\mu$ S/cm, respectively, and these values did not vary during the study period. The 14 high EC values are related to the presence of dissolved salt and correlate well with the 15 concentrations of Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup>. P<sub>T</sub> was not detected in groundwater. The average 16 DOC and COD were 5.9 and 21.0 mg/L, respectively.

The average N<sub>T</sub> concentration in the groundwater at the field site before the VF 17 operation was 14.1 mg/L (Fig. 4) and NO<sub>3</sub>-N was the only detected nitrogen species. 18 Therefore already before the wastewater application began, groundwater exhibited an 19 NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration that was slightly above the legal limits (11.3 mg/L) (CEE, 1991b). 20 In Figure 3, the amount of leached water (mm) and N<sub>T</sub> leached loads (kg/ha.yr) 21 22 calculated by the lysimeter for each year are also reported. Despite the wastewater 23 application, the NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in groundwater was higher (15.4 mg/L) than the background concentration only during the first year. In the following years, NO<sub>3</sub>-N 24

concentrations decreased to values of 11.3 and 12.5 mg/L, respectively (Fig. 4).
 However according to the results obtained by the statistical analysis, no significant
 differences were detected among the NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration before the VF operation and
 the 3-year application.

Figure 4. Mean NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in groundwater (mg/L), cumulative drainage (mm) for each year
 and cumulative N<sub>T</sub> leached load (kg/ha.yr) before the VF operation and during the first, second and third
 year. Standard deviations are also shown for NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration.



8 9

# 3.4 Chemical changes in soil properties

10 Differences in the soil chemical properties between the two soil sampling campaigns are 11 shown in Table 3. Soil pH dropped by only 5% and showed a good buffering capacity 12 despite the applied OM loads and plant activity. After the 3-year VF operation, the soil 13 EC displayed almost a three-fold decrease in comparison to its initial value. The OM content in surface soil increased from 1.0% to 2.8% at the end of the study. Before the 14 15 beginning of wastewater application the available P in soil was 14.1 mg/kg. After the 3-16 year study this parameter raised up to 43.8 mg/kg. Therefore, the final available P 17 content increased by up to 210% if compared with the initial conditions. Nevertheless, NO<sub>3</sub>-N decreased from 53.3 to 37.5 mg/kg. Soil CEC did not vary during the study. 18 19 Table 3. Average values and related standard deviations of chemical soil properties before and after the

20 VF operation

Sampling campaign Variation

Properties	Beginning	End	(%)
pН	$8.3\pm0.1$	$7.9\pm0.01$	-4.8
EC (dS/m)	$0.5\pm0.03$	$0.2\pm0.02$	-65.3
Organic matter (%)	$1.0\pm0.1$	$2.8\pm0.4$	140.8
Available P (mg/kg)	$14.1 \pm 1.1$	$43.8\pm7.3$	209.8
NO3 <sup>-</sup> N (mg/kg)	$53.3\pm2.1$	$37.5\pm4.0$	-29.6
B (mg/kg)	$0.3\pm0.04$	$0.5 \pm 0.02$	53.3
CEC (cmol/kg)	$13.6\pm0.3$	$14.5\pm0.8$	6.6
Na <sup>+</sup> (mg/kg)	$108.3 \pm 15.6$	$58.8 \pm 4.5$	-45.7
$K^{+}$ (mg/kg)	$174.0 \pm 19.0$	$84.3\pm5.7$	-51.5
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (mg/kg)	$2,\!196.7\pm 64.7$	$2,542.0 \pm 167.3$	15.7
$Mg^{2+}$ (mg/kg)	$188.6 \pm 10.4$	$203.1\pm38.0$	8.8

1

## 2 4 DISCUSSION

3 Due to differences in plants species, effluent quality, hydraulic loads and adopted management, the comparison among results from different studies is anything but 4 straightforward (Paranychianakis et al., 2006). However independently of the modus 5 operandi of VFs, the experiences reported in the literature identify such a system as 6 7 having a great potential for wastewater treatment. Thus, several articles published in the 8 last decade have pointed out how poplars and other plants species together with soil and 9 soil microbiota are able to reduce wastewater originated compound and enhance biomass production (Duan et al., 2010b; Justin et al., 2010; Tzanakakis et al., 2009; 10 11 Tzanakakis et al., 2011; Dimitriou and Aronsson, 2011; Duan and Fedler, 2009; 12 Heinsoo and Holm 2008 in Isebrands and Richardson Eds. 2014; Holm and Heinsoo, 13 2013). Results obtained by the present study confirm this outstanding capability.

Concerning the organic load, DOC and COD concentrations in the applied wastewater
were far below those reported by Metcalf and Eddy (2003) for domestic wastewater.
According to Ortega et al. (2011), the treatment through the Imhoff tank is able to
remove about 20-30% of the total organic load. Therefore, the organic load was

1 presumably reduced prior the entrance of the wastewater into the VF. The high removal 2 percentage obtained along the 3-year VF operation (higher than 85%) ensured a COD 3 concentrations below the limits established by Directive 91/271/EEC (CEE, 1991b) for 4 discharges from urban wastewater treatment plants (125 mg/L or 75% of removal). 5 Differences in the removal percentages among the years have been described in the 6 previous section and according the statistical analysis (Tables 1 and 2), they seem to be 7 related to changes in the quality (i.e. the DOC and COD concentrations) of the applied 8 wastewater. However from the results obtained by other authors, the organic load is efficiently removed independently of the applied DOC and COD loads, plant species 9 10 and soil types (Duan and Fedler 2010; Jonsson et al., 2004; Ou et al., 1997).

11 It should be noted that the reduction of DOC and COD in the drainage water reported 12 here is accompanied by a substantial increase in OM soil content after a 3-year 13 operation (Table 3). According to the classification proposed by Marañés et al. (1998), 14 soil that is initially characterised by a low OM content (1.0%) becomes a soil with a 15 high OM content (2.8%) at the end of the study. Similar soil OM accumulation results have been reported by Jueschke et al. (2008). These authors observed increased OM 16 17 content in surface soil (0-20 cm) at three of the four sites irrigated with wastewater 18 secondary effluent. According to Marschner & Kalbitz (2003), fine soil particles show 19 delayed OM decomposition due to OM entrapment in micropores with a diameter under 20 0.2 µm. The small size of these micro-pores not only hampers the access of 21 heterotrophic microorganisms to OM, but also limits the oxygen diffusion required for 22 biodegradation.

23  $N_T$  removal capacity obtained by considering masses and concentration considerably 24 differs (i.e., 90% and 74%, respectively). Although both values reflect the VF's effectiveness, better efficiency was calculated by the mass approach. This difference
relates to the small drainage volume collected by the lysimeter. Obviously, better
removal efficiency can also be estimated for other pollutants by taking into account
masses instead of concentrations.

5 Even if the nutrient concentration in the wastewater applied in this study is much higher than those reported by Metcalf and Eddy (2003) for high strength urban wastewaters 6 7 (Table 1), the soil-plant system was able to lower the  $N_T$  and  $P_T$  concentrations. Several 8 studies report nutrient removal capacity of VF managed through SRC (Heinsoo and 9 Holm, 2008 in Isebrands and Richardson, 2014; Holm and Heinsoo, 2013; Kuusemets 10 et al. 2001 in Isebrands and Richardson, 2014). During our research, the cumulative loads of NT and PT were 838.4 kg/ha.yr and 87.4 kg/ha.yr respectively, which are 11 12 notably higher than those applied in the cited studies. However Aronsson et al. (2010), i 13 in their study on landfill leachate application to an SRC of willows in Sweden, report a satisfactorily N<sub>T</sub> removal percentages up to 80% (based on mass calculation) when the 14 15 supply of N<sub>T</sub> was extremely high (varying between 720 and 2,160 kg/ha.yr). In our study even if a remarkably efficient N<sub>T</sub> removal occurred under high application loads, 16 17 the average N<sub>T</sub> concentration in drainage water exceeded the limit value of 15 mg/L set 18 by Directive 91/271/EEC (CEE, 1991b). However, the same Directive states that, according to the local situation, a minimum N<sub>T</sub> reduction of 70-80% can also be applied 19 20 as a regulatory criterion. In this case, the VF presented herein meets this part of the 21 Directive regulation since average N<sub>T</sub> removal was 73%.

N<sub>T</sub> removal is controlled by mechanisms such as plant uptake, denitrification, soil
storage by adsorption, bacterial immobilisation, ion exchange and ammonia
volatilisation. Plant uptake is considered the primary N<sub>T</sub> removal mechanism in a VF

18

1 (Tzanakakis et al., 2009). However, such a process depends highly on the plant species 2 and adopted management (Barton et al., 2005). As reported by Tzanakakis et al. (2009) 3 for a VF irrigated with domestic effluent, nutrient recovery by the biomass in an SCR 4 poplar plantation is about 120 kg N<sub>T</sub> /ha.yr. This value could be higher when 5 spontaneous vegetation is taken into account. However since we did not regularly mow this vegetation, its nitrogen uptake is limited. The N<sub>T</sub> removal reported in the present 6 7 study is far beyond the nitrogen rates applied, so mechanisms other than nutrient uptake 8 are expected to be involved in nitrogen removal.

9 The appearance of NO<sub>3</sub>-N in drainage water during our study indicates that nitrification 10 processes through the vadose zone are involved. Consequently, the produced NO<sub>3</sub>-N 11 can be further transformed by denitrification. As reported by Duan et al. (2010a), 12 despite the wide variability, the denitrification process can play a key role in  $N_T$ removal. It can remove up to 80% of the N<sub>T</sub> applied to a VF (EPA, 1981). In this sense, 13 14 an increment in soil OM can expand the microbial population and activity by promoting 15 nitrification and denitrification processes (de Miguel et al., 2013). Even if the field site conditions are prevalently aerobic as suggested by the nitrification processes, we cannot 16 17 rule out that temporally anoxic conditions could have occurred immediately after 18 applying the effluent. This could have facilitated NH<sub>4</sub>-N sorption to soil clay particles 19 and OM. Alternatively under temporal anoxic conditions, NH<sub>4</sub>-N oxidation (Annamox) 20 could have occurred as another process to remove N<sub>T</sub> from the system (Sher et al., 21 2012). However, we consider that these processes are considerably less effective than 22 nitrification and subsequent denitrification. As also described by several authors (Fenn 23 and Kissel, 1975, 1973; Fenn and Miyamoto, 1981), ammonia volatilisation due to a reaction with calcium carbonate in soil, could have contributed to further N<sub>T</sub> removal. 24

Nutrient uptake is an also important issue for P<sub>T</sub> removal. Yet as with N<sub>T</sub>, the highly 1 2 applied load (about 87.4 kg P<sub>T</sub>/ha.yr) substantially exceeds the nutrient recovery 3 estimated by Tzanakakis et al. (2009) for poplars (17 kg P<sub>T</sub>/ha.yr). Phosphate precipitation  $(PO_4^{3-})$  in the presence of  $Ca^{2+}$ , which is relatively abundant in the 4 experimental plot soil, might be the reason for the low P<sub>T</sub> levels measured in the 5 6 leachate (McGechan, 2002). This hypothesis is ratified by the increase in available P 7 content in soil, whose value at the end of the study tripled that measured before 8 wastewater was applied. Degens et al. (2000) stated how available P accumulation was 91%, mainly at a soil depth of 0-25 cm after 22 years of dairy effluent application. 9 Falkiner and Polglase (1999) found that 97% of the applied P<sub>T</sub> was recovered from soil 10 at a depth of between 0 and 0.5 m. Neutral soil pH can increase P<sub>T</sub> solubility, 11 facilitating its transport to deeper soil horizons (Tzanakakis et al., 2011). In our 12 research, the measured P<sub>T</sub> concentrations in drainage water were below the legal limit of 13 2 mg/L (80% of reduction) established by Directive 91/271/EEC (CEE, 1991b). 14

15 Commonly, the EC in soil after wastewater application usually increases due to 16 accumulation of salts (e.g. Duan et al., 2011). In the present study, the initial soil EC 17 was about three times that measured at the end of the study. This may be interpreted as 18 the result of soil salt lixiviation produced by irrigation, which is also reflected by an 19 increased EC of the leachate during the first year. As already reported in the results 20 section, this is related to the increase in the leachate of other dissolved ions 21 concentrations (Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>).

The groundwater monitored in the piezometer seems not to be affected by the VF operation. As expected for the relevant NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in drainage water, one may consider that groundwater quality could have been degraded by leachate infiltration

1 towards the saturated zone. However the background NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in 2 groundwater was already high, with levels above those set by groundwater legislation 3 (CEE, 1991a). The high NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration in groundwater before the VF operation 4 probably occurred as a result of the extensive, prolonged agricultural practices carried 5 out in the areas surrounding the field site. Moreover, the lysimeter collecting drainage water was located at a depth of 90 cm. Therefore, the leachate had to travel a longer 6 7 distance before reaching the groundwater surface which, in this area, seasonally 8 fluctuates between 1 m and 3 m depths. Certainly while the leachate travelled from the lysimeter to groundwater, it underwent the previously described biotransformation 9 10 processes that further reduced the NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentration. Furthermore, any dissolved 11 species undergo mechanical dispersion if they enter groundwater (due to variation in the 12 groundwater velocity field) and molecular diffusion (due to concentration gradients), 13 which also smoothes solute concentration peaks.

However, the  $N_T$  leaching may represent a serious concern when  $N_T$  application rates 14 15 are, over the long-term, considerably higher than the crop requirements (Isebrands and Richardson, 2014). Although numerous studies have demonstrated that N<sub>T</sub> leaching 16 below VFs is negligible (e.g. Dimitriou and Aronsson, 2003), there are few case studies 17 18 reporting N<sub>T</sub> concentrations in the leachate above limits established by European and/or 19 local directives (Aronsson et. al, 2010; de Bustamante et al., 1990; Perttu and Kowalik, 20 1997). It is a widely accepted criterion that when deciding wastewater irrigation rates, 21 nitrogen plant requirements should be taken into account to avoid leaching of nitrogen compounds. Also soil physical and chemical attributes and microbiological community 22 23 should be considered (Barton et al., 2005). However, the highly variable  $N_T$  concentration in the wastewater renders arduous the calculation of wastewater irrigation
 rates based on this parameter.

The obtained removal percentages of  $N_T$  were more than satisfactory under the conditions of the experiment (high  $N_T$  loads). Considering that no affection on the groundwater quality was observed, the VF system could be a suitable wastewater treatment strategy for scattered small populations and isolated source of domestic wastewater. Our experience suggests that the low drainage volumes produced by such systems minimize the pollutant leached load and therefore the environmental risk associated with the pollutant spreading

# 10 **5 CONCLUSION**

According to the obtained results, the VF presented in the current study may be a feasible solution as an alternative wastewater treatment for scattered populations. The VF efficiently removed most wastewater-originated pollutants despite the high nutrient concentration and the variable hydraulic load, which did not always meet plant water requirements.

16 The VF fulfil with the EU legislation of wastewater discharge for COD,  $P_T$  and  $N_T$ 17 percentage removals. Concerning concentrations, only  $N_T$  in the leachate was above 18 legal limits.

19 Despite the high  $N_T$  loads, only 10% of the applied cumulative  $N_T$  mass leached through 20 the vadose zone. Since the good removal efficiency of the VF cannot be explained by 21 only the  $N_T$  plant uptake capacity, additional  $N_T$  removal mechanisms, such as 22 denitrification, ammonia volatilisation and annamox, must have come into play.

22

P<sub>T</sub> was also optimally removed, with a concentration in drainage water below 2 mg/L.
Plant uptake processes are responsible mainly for P<sub>T</sub> depletion. However, as reflected
by the increase in soil available P, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> could have been precipitated in the presence of
naturally-occurring Ca<sup>2+</sup> in soil.

The 3-year VF operation did not imply changes in the groundwater quality at the site.
Despite the presence of NO<sub>3</sub>-N in drainage water, groundwater seems no to be affected
by an increase in the N<sub>T</sub> concentration. Biotransformation processes and retardation
effects could have further lowered NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations during transport from the
lysimeter location to the monitoring well.

10

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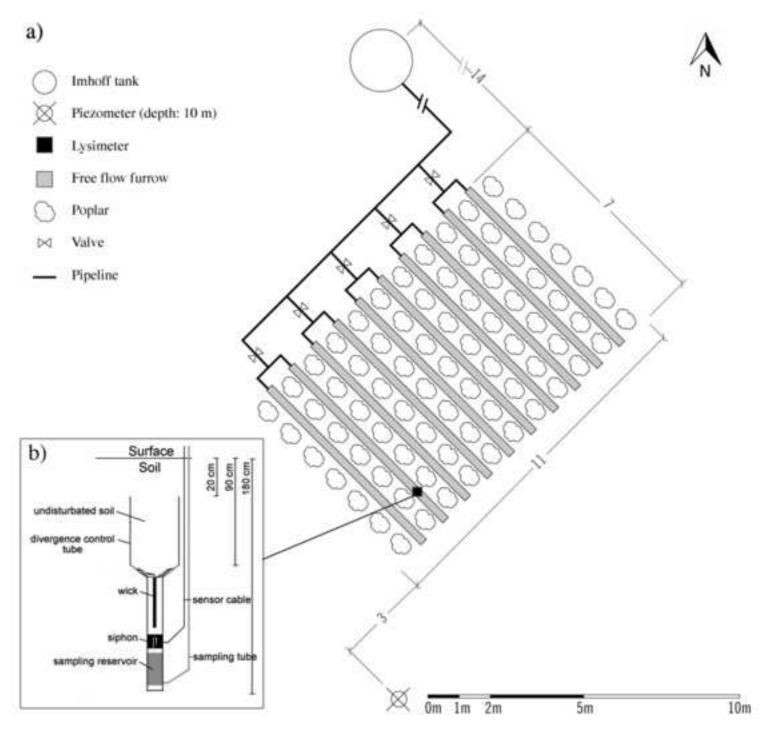
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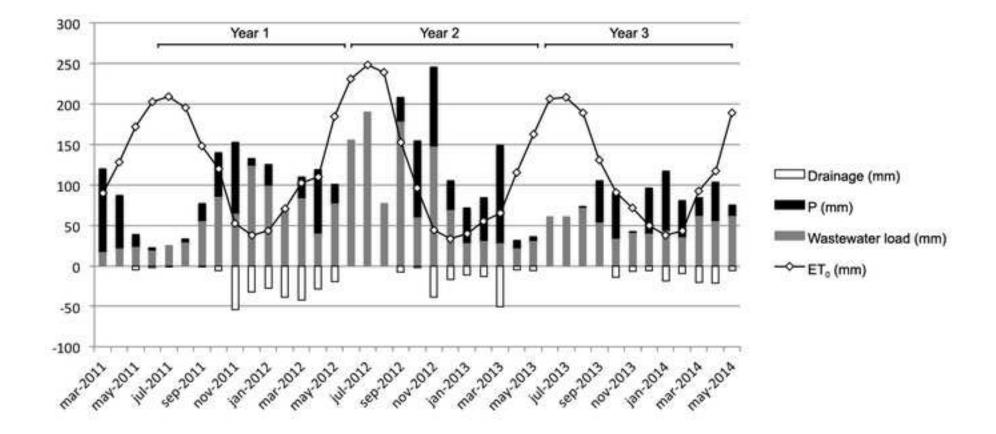
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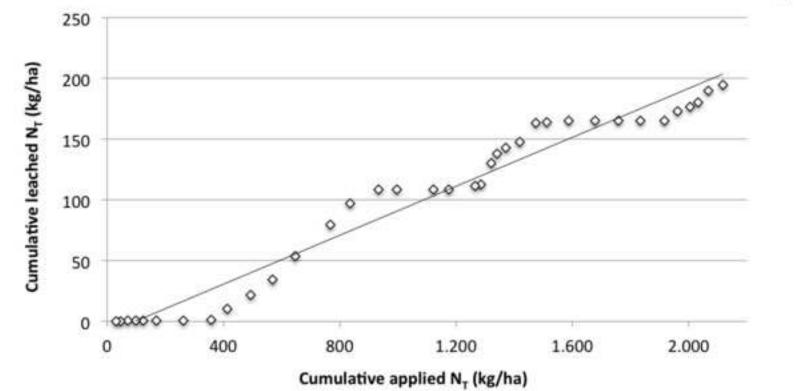
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y = 0.1007x - 9.6891 R<sup>2</sup> = 0.96

