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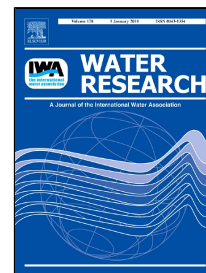
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Optical technologies applied alongside on-site and remote approaches for climate gas emission quantification at a wastewater treatment plant

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Highlights

- Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and NH₃ were quantified from a wastewater treatment plant
- Whole-plant and on-site emissions were measured using optical analytical techniques
- Biosolid stockpiles accounted for 70% of total CH₄ emission
- N₂O was principally (about 82%) emitted from nitrifying trickling filters
- Important NH₃ emission sources were biosolid stockpiles and mechanical dewatering

Keywords: Methane, nitrous oxide, ammonia, biosolid stockpiles, sewage sludge, emission factors

24

25 **Abstract**

26 Plant-integrated and on-site gas emissions were quantified from a Swedish wastewater treatment
27 plant by applying several optical analytical techniques and measurement methods. Plant-integrated
28 CH₄ emission rates, measured using mobile ground-based remote sensing methods, varied between
29 28.5 and 33.5 kg CH₄ h⁻¹, corresponding to an average emission factor of 5.9% as kg CH₄ (kg CH₄
30 production)⁻¹, whereas N₂O emissions varied between 4.0 and 6.4 kg h⁻¹, corresponding to an average
31 emission factor of 1.5% as kg N₂O-N (kg TN_{influent})⁻¹. Plant-integrated NH₃ emissions were around
32 0.4 kg h⁻¹, corresponding to an average emission factor of 0.11% as kg NH₃-N (kg TN_{removed})⁻¹.
33 On-site emission measurements showed that the largest proportions of CH₄ (70%) and NH₃ (66%)
34 were emitted from the sludge treatment line (mainly biosolid stockpiles and the thickening and
35 dewatering units), while most of the N₂O (82%) was emitted from nitrifying trickling filters. In
36 addition to being the most important CH₄ source, stockpiles of biosolids exhibited different
37 emissions when the sludge digesters were operated in series compared to in parallel, thus slightly
38 increasing substrate retention time in the digesters. Lower CH₄ emissions and generally higher N₂O
39 and NH₃ emissions were observed when the digesters were operated in series. Loading biosolids
40 onto trucks for off-site treatment generally resulted in higher CH₄, N₂O, and NH₃ emissions from
41 the biosolid stockpiles. On-site CH₄ and N₂O emission quantifications were approximately two-
42 thirds of the plant-integrated emission quantifications, which may be explained by the different
43 timeframes of the approaches and that not all emission sources were identified during on-site
44 investigation. Off-site gas emission quantifications, using ground-based remote sensing methods,
45 thus seem to provide more comprehensive total plant emissions rates, whereas on-site
46 measurements provide insights into emissions from individual sources.

47

48 **1 Introduction**

49 Wastewater treatment is an anthropogenic source of atmospheric emissions of both methane (CH_4)
50 and nitrous oxide (N_2O). Furthermore, ammonium (NH_4^+) is a compound generated and
51 transformed in biological processes occurring at wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs)
52 (Kampschreur et al., 2009) and could potentially be volatilized as ammonia (NH_3). Methane and
53 N_2O are potent greenhouse gases contributing to climate change (Stocker et al., 2013), which is why
54 their quantifications are important in supporting emission reporting and mitigation. Ammonia is a
55 plant nutrient, and thus emissions in this regards contribute to environmental eutrophication
56 (Jenkinson, 2001). However, quantifying air emissions from WWTPs is a challenging undertaking,
57 as these discharges are diffuse by nature because they emanate from several diverse process units
58 and technologies replete with different physical shapes and emission heights, which, when
59 combined, form a large heterogeneous area source.

60 In the last 20 years, emission measurements from WWTPs have been performed mainly using
61 on-site point measurement methods. Floating chambers combined with liquid sample analysis have
62 been the most common way of measuring emissions of N_2O and CH_4 from wastewater treatment
63 units with open air basins (Ahn et al., 2010; Czepiel et al., 1995; 1993; Ren et al., 2013; Ye et al.,
64 2014). Lately, long-term investigations have been carried out along different stages of wastewater
65 reactors, in order to shed light on the temporal and spatial variability of emissions (Rodriguez-
66 Caballero et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2014). Although these approaches have increased knowledge
67 about the mechanisms involved in greenhouse gas emissions, they measure only a portion of the
68 emissions from the reactor's surface. A few studies on covered reactors with an air collection
69 system (Daelman et al., 2013; Toyoda et al., 2011) have tried to fill this gap, thereby obtaining a
70 larger dataset with diurnal and annual emission changes. However, this approach can be applied

71 only to enclosed plants or wastewater treatment units with a ventilation system, and it does not
72 consider physical leakages from pipes and fittings, or any other incidental releases.

73 In the last few years, ground-based optical remote sensing approaches have also been used for
74 greenhouse gas quantification. The vertical radial plume mapping method, using an open-path gas
75 analyzer, can identify elevated concentrations of CH₄ and N₂O from a wastewater reactor, but this is
76 often limited to quantifying CH₄ emissions only, due to background concentrations of N₂O relative
77 to instrument sensitivity (Modrak et al., 2006). Finally, a highly sensitive mobile analytical
78 platform, applied in conjunction with the tracer dispersion method, has provided plant-integrated
79 greenhouse gas emission rates for several Scandinavian open-air WWTPs, by performance of
80 downwind plume measurements of both CH₄ and N₂O (Yoshida et al., 2014; Delre et al., 2017).
81 Ground-based optical remote sensing methods are considered to provide a more comprehensive
82 overview of whole-site CH₄ emissions from large area sources (Reinelt et al., 2017; Yver Kwok et
83 al., 2015). For ammonia, the scientific literature, to the best knowledge of the authors, does not
84 currently report atmospheric emissions from full-scale urban wastewater treatment plants.

85 Earlier studies have indicated that greenhouse gas emissions from process units such as
86 biosolid stockpiles and nitrifying trickling filters could be significant (Mønster et al., 2014a; Delre
87 et al. 2017). However, to date, only Majumder et al. (2014) have quantified these emissions from
88 biosolid stockpiles. Air emission process data are important in environmental assessments
89 comparing the environmental performances of different treatment technologies.

90 This paper aims at presenting for the first time a novel multiple measurement approach for air
91 emission quantifications from a full-scale Swedish WWTP, using several optical analytical
92 technologies and measurement methods, thereby allowing quantifications of air emissions from
93 individual process units as well as the whole plant. Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and NH₃ were
94 measured, and process parameters, which potentially could influence air emissions, were explored.

95 Furthermore, we quantified air emissions from biosolid stockpiles and from nitrifying trickling
96 filters used for urban wastewater nitrification. To the best knowledge of the authors NH_3 emissions
97 from various on-site sources as well as plant-integrated emissions have not been measured at a
98 WWTP before.

100 **2 Material and methods**

101 **2.1 Site description**

102 The investigated Swedish WWTP treats about 147 Mm^3 wastewater per year, corresponding to a
103 pollution load of about 806,000 population equivalent (PE), 6% of which comes from industry and
104 the rest from households. The facility is divided into three main stages: A mechanical pre-treatment
105 line, a wastewater treatment line, and a sewage sludge treatment line. Incoming pollution is
106 mechanically removed with coarse and fine bar screens, a sand trap, a fat oil and grease trap, and
107 primary settling tanks. The wastewater treatment line is a combination of several process units,
108 starting with a high-loaded activated sludge unit involving pre-denitrification, simultaneous
109 phosphorus precipitation, and biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) removal, followed by secondary
110 settlers. Nitrification is carried out in nitrifying trickling filters, while post-denitrification is
111 performed in moving bed biofilm reactors (MBBRs). Disc filters remove any remaining suspended
112 solids before the treated wastewater is finally discharged into a river. Sewage sludge is thickened
113 before undergoing stabilization through mesophilic anaerobic digestion. Subsequently, the digestate
114 is mechanically dewatered on a centrifuge. Thickening and dewatering operations occur in a
115 building where a ventilation system assures a safe working environment. There is no treatment of
116 the vented air. Centrifuges for dewatering are located in a specific room, separated from the other
117 machines but connected to the same ventilation system. Biosolids obtained after dewatering
118 digested sludge are stored for about three weeks in open-air stockpiles before being transported off-

119 site. Reject water from the sludge treatment line is recirculated back to the wastewater treatment
120 line. Mechanical and biological treatments are supported, at different stages, through the addition of
121 coagulants and flocculants for phosphorus and solids removal, and methanol for microorganism
122 carbon supply. The plant receives sewage sludge from smaller WWTPs and co-digests industrial
123 food waste. Produced biogas is stored on-site in a gasholder, and routed in pipes to an off-site
124 upgrading facility and used as vehicle fuel. During treatment, sewage sludge can be named
125 differently. Hereafter, the following nomenclature is used to refer to the different treatment stages.
126 After being removed from wastewater, sewage sludge is called “substrate” when entered into the
127 digester. The liquid output of the digestion is called “digestate,” which, after increasing its solid
128 content via centrifugation, is called “biosolids”. Table 1 provides an overview of key plant-specific
129 information related to the measurement year 2015.

130 Over 2015, the digesters were run in two different modes: In parallel and in series. Usually,
131 digesters work in parallel with a volatile solids (VS) load of $2.4 \text{ kg VS m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$. From June until
132 August, the serial mode was employed, resulting in a sludge retention time of 22 days instead of 20
133 days. When running in series, the VS load into the first digester increased to $4.4 \text{ kg VS m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$,
134 while the second digester had an average load of $2.2 \text{ kg VS m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$.

135 **2.2 Optical analytical techniques applied**

136 Several optical analytical technologies were used to detect different compound concentrations in
137 real time: A Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy analyzer (FTIR), for measuring concentrations
138 of C_2H_2 , N_2O , CH_4 , NH_3 , and C_2H_4 , and two cavity ring down spectroscopy (CRDS) analyzers, for
139 measuring C_2H_2 , N_2O , and CH_4 . Table 2 summarizes details regarding the analytical technologies
140 applied for gas concentration measurements.

141 The FTIR instrument consists of an infrared spectrometer (Bruker Optics GmbH, Matrix-M
142 IRCube) connected to a closed long-path sample cell (Infrared Analysis Inc., model 107-V).

143 Compound-specific concentrations were determined by infrared absorption spectroscopy, whereby
144 CH₄, N₂O, NH₃, C₂H₄, and C₂H₂ were measured simultaneously and analyzed at 3.3, 4.5, 10.3, 10.5,
145 and 13.7 μm wavelengths, respectively. In mobile mode, the FTIR analyzer logged every ninth
146 second at a precision of 1.7, 0.3, 2.0, 1.8, and 4.7 ppb for CH₄, N₂O, NH₃, C₂H₂, and C₂H₄,
147 respectively (C₂H₂ and C₂H₄ were used as dispersion tracer gases). More information about the
148 instrument can be found in Galle et al. (2001) and Scheutz et al., (2011), and about the FTIR
149 technology in general in the USA Environmental Protection Agency Handbook (Mikel and Merrill,
150 2011).

151 CRDS uses an optical technology in which gas concentration is obtained by measuring
152 directly the “ring-down,” or decay, of laser light in a sample cell. One instrument was equipped
153 with lasers detecting CH₄ and C₂H₂ (G2203, Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, CA), and another was set up
154 to identify N₂O and C₂H₂ (S/N JADS2001, Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, CA). The CH₄/C₂H₂ analyzer
155 logged twice per second with a precision of 0.77 ppb and 0.06 ppb for CH₄ and C₂H₂, respectively.
156 The N₂O/C₂H₂ analyzer recorded every 3 seconds with a precision of 7.7 ppb and 0.6 ppb for N₂O
157 and C₂H₂, respectively. More detailed instrument descriptions can be found in Mønster et al.
158 (2014b) and Yoshida et al. (2014).

159 **2.3 Measurement methods applied**

160 Gas concentration detection, using different optical analytical techniques, was combined with
161 different measurement methods to obtain the emission rate of the target compounds.

162 Emission rates were obtained mainly by applying the tracer gas dispersion method (TDM),
163 which is based on the principle that gases (with long atmospheric lifetime) disperse in the same way
164 as far as mixing and transport are concerned. Therefore, when good mixing between the two gases
165 is assured, the real-time emission rate of the target gas can be obtained from the relationship
166 between the downwind concentrations of the target gas and the tracer gas. The tracer gas is

167 constantly released from the emitting source and the emission rate is calculated as shown by Eq. 1.
 168 In this study, acetylene (C₂H₂) was used as main tracer gas, and ethylene (C₂H₄) was occasionally
 169 used as a second tracer to pinpoint a specific source (nitrifying trickling filter).

$$170 \quad E_g = Q_t \frac{(C_g - C_{g \text{ background}}) MW_g}{(C_t - C_{t \text{ background}}) MW_t} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

171 E_g is the target gas emission in mass per time; Q_t is the tracer release in mass per time; C_g and C_t
 172 are the measured off-gas concentrations in parts per billion (ppb); $C_{g \text{ background}}$ and $C_{t \text{ background}}$
 173 are the background concentrations of the target gas and tracer (ppb); and MW_g and MW_t are the
 174 molar weights of target gas and tracer gas, respectively (Scheutz et al., 2011). The method can be
 175 applied in static or mobile mode. In this study, the static tracer dispersion method was applied at a
 176 ventilated duct in the thickening and dewatering building. In this case, C₂H₂ was released upstream
 177 in the enclosed ventilation duct, prior to a fan passage, so that proper mixing of tracer and target
 178 gases was assured from the gas release point to the concentration sampling point. During
 179 measurement, the analytical platform was positioned at a fixed location, and so the mode of the
 180 tracer dispersion method is referred to as “static” (STDM). A detailed description of the static mode
 181 can be found in Fredenslund et al. (2010). Conversely, the mobile mode of the method relies on
 182 dynamic downwind concentration measurements of the mixed target and tracer gases, performed
 183 across the plume by using the analytical platform in mobile mode. Concentrations in the mobile
 184 mode in this study were integrated over the plume’s cross-section to minimize the effects of any
 185 improper source simulation and gas mixing (Mønster et al., 2014b). Moreover, in this study, the
 186 mobile approach was applied for specific on-site sources and to the whole WWTP for plant-
 187 integrated measurements (Table 3). Figure 1 shows an example of downwind plumes used for plant-
 188 integrated quantifications. A detailed description of the mobile mode (MTDM) can be found in
 189 Yoshida et al. (2014) and Delre et al. (2017).

190 In the tracer dispersion method's mobile mode, concentration sampling is done at a distance
 191 away from the source, and the source emission is inherently dispersed to lower concentration levels
 192 substantially at the sampling point compared to nearby the source. Despite the high sensitivity of
 193 the analytical instrument used, in cases where the emission rate of one of the target gases is very
 194 low, the corresponding downwind plume cannot be properly distinguished from the background
 195 concentration when measurements are performed at a long distance to the source. In this case, the
 196 emission rate of the less abundant target gas can instead be inferred from the concentration ratio of
 197 the less abundant gas to the more abundant target gas as being sampled closer to the source where
 198 concentrations are higher, combined with the emission rate of the more abundant target gas as
 199 established with the MTDM (see Eq. 2). When measuring the target gas close to the source, care
 200 must be taken not to prejudice the ratio, in case the target gases are not homogeneously mixed, and
 201 the ratio should be based on an average sampling extended in both space and time.

$$202 \hat{E}^i = \bar{E}^j \cdot \frac{1}{k} \sum_k \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{(c_g^{i,j} - c_{g \text{ background}}^{i,j}) \cdot MW_g^i}{(c_g^{j,j} - c_{g \text{ background}}^{j,j}) \cdot MW_g^j} dt \quad \text{Eq. 2.}$$

203 where:

204 \hat{E}^i = the inferred emission rate of the secondary (less abundant) target gas species i

205 \bar{E}^j = the average emission rate of the main (more abundant) target gas species j obtained from
 206 multiple plume transects as measured by MTDM,

207 $c_g^{i,j}$ = measured off-gas concentration (ppbv) of the main target gas j or the secondary target gas i ,

208 $c_{g \text{ background}}^{i,j}$ = measured background concentration (ppbv) of the main target gas j or the secondary
 209 target gas i ,

210 k = the number of gas ratio measurements, each integrated over a time window t_1 to t_2

211 $MW_g^{i,j}$ = molar weights of the measured main target gas j or the secondary target gas i ,

212 For gaseous ammonia, the TDM method was complemented by measurements made with the
 213 optical remote sensing solar occultation flux (SOF) method (Johansson et al. 2014; Mellqvist et al.
 214 2010, 1999; Mikel and Merrill, 2011). In this study, SOF was used for plant-integrated NH₃
 215 quantification. In Europe, the SOF technique is considered best available technology (BAT)
 216 (Brinkmann et al., 2016) for measurements of diffuse emissions of volatile organic compounds
 217 (VOCs) in the chemical sector. Recently, the SOF method has been used for NH₃ fugitive emissions
 218 characterization from agricultural sources (Kille et al., 2017).

219 The SOF system applied herein is based on an identical FTIR spectrometer previously
 220 described for the TDM method, but instead of an internal infrared source (glowbar), it uses infrared
 221 radiation from the sun. Solar light is continuously directed into the FTIR spectrometer by means of
 222 a solar tracker as the measurement vehicle moves through the cross-section of the source emission
 223 plume, and infrared spectra are then recorded sequentially. The spectra are analyzed for infrared
 224 absorption by molecular species present in the source emission plume. The principle for retrieving
 225 the target gas emission rate from a source via SOF measurement is given in Eq. 3.

$$226 \quad E_g = \int_{Plume\ start}^{Plume\ stop} \left(\int_0^{Plume\ top} c_g(z) \cdot u'(z) \cdot dz \right) \cdot dx = \overline{u'_{mass}} \cdot \int_{Plume\ start}^{Plume\ stop} column(x) \cdot dx$$

227 Eq. 3

228 where

229 E_g = emission rate of the target gas

230 $c_g(z)$ = concentration of the target gas at height (z) above the ground

231 $u'(z)$ = wind speed at height (z) above the ground, specifically the wind speed component

232 orthogonal to the horizontal travel direction (x) through the plume

233 $\overline{u'_{mass}}$ = plume mass weighted average wind speed, the component orthogonal to the travel direction

234 (x)

235 *column* (x) = concentration integrated in the vertical through the plume (e.g. along the slant beam
236 of the sun, compensated with a cosine factor of the solar zenith angle).

237 To obtain gas emissions from a target source, the SOF instrument vehicle is driven crosswind
238 through the plume of the source, so that solar light cuts through the plume and vertically integrated
239 gas concentration columns are recorded. The measurement starts with an atmospheric background
240 spectrum sampled outside the source plume, and consecutive spectra are then analyzed by reference
241 to the atmospheric background spectrum. By adding consecutive gas column measurements, the
242 integrated mass of the target species across the source plume is hence obtained. The source flux is
243 retrieved by multiplying the integrated plume mass with the average wind speed of the plume.

244 The FTIR instrument was operated at 0.5 cm^{-1} wavenumber resolution and a 5-second time
245 resolution. Precision in the measured NH_3 column was 0.08 mg/m^2 . A prop and vane wind monitor
246 (R.M. Young Wind Monitor, model 05103), mounted on a 4-meter mast at the measurement site,
247 measured wind speed and direction. Wind direction and speed were averaged over 1 minute and
248 recorded by a data logger (Campbell Scientific model CR200). The wind monitor had a stated
249 accuracy of $\pm 3^\circ$ and $\pm 0.3\text{ ms}^{-1}$. Uncertainty in the flux estimate obtained by the SOF method was
250 dominated by uncertainty in the wind field (e.g. vertical plume distribution and plume transport
251 speed) and was typically $\pm 30\%$.

252 **2.4 Measurement campaigns**

253 In total, 13 measurement campaigns spread over three seasons in 2015 were performed under
254 normal plant operations. Table 3 provides an overview of these campaigns, including measurement
255 date and time intervals, applied measurement methods, adopted optical techniques, and target gases.

256

257 3 Results and discussion

258 3.1 Plant-integrated emission quantification

259 During the night between August 28th and 29th, plant-integrated measurements were performed by
260 applying MTDM, with two different analytical platforms (FTIR and CRDS) detecting CH₄, N₂O,
261 and NH₃ (Table 3). Three C₂H₂ gas cylinders, each with a different flow rate, were used to simulate
262 CH₄ emissions from the whole facility. Although part of the CH₄ was emitted from the activated
263 sludge reactors, the dominant CH₄ source was the sludge treatment line. CH₄ emission rates from
264 the two analytical platforms provided comparable results: 28.5 ± 3.1 kg CH₄ h⁻¹ and 33.5 ± 3.0 kg
265 CH₄ h⁻¹ for FTIR and CRDS, respectively (Table 4). Values are expressed as the average and
266 standard deviations of transects performed (AV \pm SD). Figure 2 shows the time series of the plant-
267 integrated CH₄ emission quantification. CH₄ emission rates varied between 38.8 kg CH₄ h⁻¹ and
268 23.4 kg CH₄ h⁻¹, and they did not show any specific release trend throughout the 4 hours of
269 measurements. No unusual operation was reported during the measurement campaign, such as
270 activation of the plant flare system for surplus biogas combustion or emergency venting of the
271 digesters, which may have influenced emission patterns (Reinelt et al., 2015; Yoshida et al., 2014).
272 By normalizing emission rates to plant operation parameters so-called emission factors are
273 obtained, which are used for plant and technology intercomparison accounting for differences in
274 material throughput and process efficiencies. Furthermore, emission factors are often applied for
275 estimation of plant emissions (by multiplying with plant specific parameters e.g. material input or
276 removal efficiencies). Emission reporting based on emission factors is common (e.g. Doorn et al.,
277 2006; Kampschreur et al., 2009) and there is a great need for providing reliable emission factors
278 representing current technologies to improve emission reporting. Table 5 reports CH₄ emissions
279 normalized by CH₄ production from anaerobic sludge digestion (e.g. kg CH₄ emitted per kg CH₄
280 produced) and by organic load (chemical oxygen demand COD) to the plant (e.g. kg CH₄ emitted

281 per kg COD_{influent} into the plant), thereby providing CH₄ losses for analysis from an energetic or a
282 treatment capacity perspective, respectively. Since CH₄ was mainly emitted from the sludge
283 treatment, the measured CH₄ emissions were normalized using average CH₄ production and
284 COD_{influent} into the plant recorded during the two months prior to the measurement campaign, in
285 order to account for the plant retention time of carbon entering the plant as COD in the influent and
286 being emitted as CH₄ from the biosolid stockpiles. CH₄ production is recorded every minute
287 whereas the COD in the plant inlet is measured five times per week. EFs were about 5.9% as kg
288 CH₄ (kg CH₄ prod.)⁻¹ and about 0.7% as kg CH₄ (kg COD influent)⁻¹, using an average whole site
289 CH₄ emission of 31.0 ± 3.1 kg CH₄ h⁻¹ (Table 5). Comparing these results with the previous two
290 studies performing plant-integrated CH₄ emission quantification from a Scandinavian WWTP
291 (Yoshida et al., 2014; Delre et al., 2017), CH₄ EF falls into the lower-to-medium part of the
292 reported range (1.1 - 32.7% as kg CH₄ (kg CH₄ prod.)⁻¹ and 0.2 - 9.1% as kg CH₄ (kg COD
293 influent)⁻¹).

294 To measure N₂O emissions from the whole facility, one C₂H₂ tracer gas cylinder and one
295 C₂H₄ gas cylinder were placed by the nitrifying trickling filters, as these were by far the most
296 significant N₂O source at the plant. Also for this target gas, the two analytical platforms provided a
297 comparable result: 4.0 ± 0.8 kg N₂O h⁻¹ and 6.4 ± 2.1 kg N₂O h⁻¹ for FTIR and CRDS, respectively
298 (Table 4). Figure 3 shows the time series of the plant-integrated N₂O emission quantifications,
299 which varied between 2.4 kg N₂O h⁻¹ and 11.8 kg N₂O h⁻¹, and no clear trend in the emission was
300 observed. Figure 3 also shows variation in inlet wastewater flowing into the nitrifying trickling
301 filters, as well as the influent of nitrate (NO₃⁻) and NH₄⁺, albeit no correlation with the measured
302 plant-integrated N₂O emissions could be seen. Similarly, no correlation of plant-integrated N₂O
303 emissions was found either with the drop in NO₃⁻ formation in the first hour of measurements or
304 with the peaks of NH₄⁺ removal occurring during nitrification at the nitrifying trickling filters

305 (Figure 4). N_2O emissions were normalized according to total nitrogen (TN) loaded into the plant
306 ($\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg TN influent)}^{-1}$) and to TN removed from the plant ($\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg TN removed)}^{-1}$).
307 The measured N_2O emission was normalized using the average TN influent and the average TN
308 removed recorded during the week prior to the measurement campaign, to account for the plant
309 retention time of nitrogen entering the plant with the influent and being emitted as N_2O from the
310 nitrifying trickling filters. This was done as the nitrifying trickling filters were found to be main
311 N_2O emission source. No daily variation in TN influent into the plant was considered, as the
312 WWTP only records this data on a weekly basis. The reject water flow made up 2% of the total
313 wastewater flow treated in the nitrifying trickling filters. It was not possible to relate the measured
314 N_2O emissions to the treatment of nitrogen in the reject water as the nitrogen content in the reject
315 water was not measured during the measurement campaign. Only nitrogen in the combined inlet
316 flow to the nitrifying trickling filters (reject water mixed into the main water flow) was measured
317 (as shown in Figure 3 - NO_3^- and NH_4^+ influent flow). On average, the two analytical platforms
318 provided an EF of 0.9% as $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg TN influent)}^{-1}$ and an EF equal to 1.2% as $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg}$
319 TN removed)^{-1} (Table 5) when using an average whole-site N_2O emission of $5.2 \pm 1.5 \text{ kg N}_2\text{O h}^{-1}$.
320 These EFs fall somehow in the middle-lower part of the range (0.1 – 5.2% as $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg TN}$
321 influent)^{-1} and 0.1 – 5.9% as $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N (kg TN removed)}^{-1}$)—as reported by previous plant-
322 integrated N_2O emission quantifications of Scandinavian WWTPs (Yoshida et al., 2014; Delre et
323 al., 2017).

324 Plant-integrated NH_3 measurements were performed in two different campaigns using two
325 different measurement methods but the same optical analytical technology, namely MTDM and
326 SOF, with both using FTIR (Table 3). The main NH_3 source was the sludge treatment line. On July
327 2nd, SOF measurements provided emissions of $0.4 \pm 0.1 \text{ kg NH}_3 \text{ h}^{-1}$, which were similar to

328 measurements performed with MTDM during the night between August 28th and 29th and resulting
329 in an emission of $0.4 \pm 0.2 \text{ kg NH}_3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Table 4).

330 Figure 5 shows plant-integrated NH_3 emission rates over time, recorded in the August
331 campaign, which varied between $0.24 \text{ kg NH}_3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ and $0.67 \text{ kg NH}_3 \text{ h}^{-1}$, with two peak emissions
332 measured around 00:30 and 02:00 (August 28th and 29th). The main NH_3 -emitting units were
333 biosolid stockpiles and thickening and dewatering buildings. Figure 5 shows no correlation between
334 the recorded peaks of plant-integrated NH_3 emissions and variation in the flow of digestate to the
335 centrifuges, or the flow of biosolids to the stockpiles. After almost one hour of measurements on
336 July 2nd, plant-integrated NH_3 emission quantifications did not show any trend (results not shown).
337 Considering the different nitrogen species in the wastewater and the strict relationship between NH_3
338 and NH_4^+ , NH_3 emissions were normalized not only with TN influent and TN removed to and from
339 the plant, but also with NH_4^+ influent and NH_4^+ removed (Table 5). The measured NH_3 emission
340 was normalized using the average TN influent and TN removed recorded during the two months
341 prior to the measurement campaign, in order to account for the plant retention time of nitrogen
342 entering the plant and being emitted as NH_3 from the biosolid stockpiles. This was done because
343 sludge treatment processes (sludge dewatering and biosolid storage) were found to be the most
344 important NH_3 emission sources. NH_3 EFs were 0.09% as $\text{kg NH}_3\text{-N} (\text{kg TN}_{\text{influent}})^{-1}$, 0.11% as kg
345 $\text{NH}_3\text{-N} (\text{kg TN}_{\text{removed}})^{-1}$, 0.12% as $\text{kg NH}_3\text{-N} (\text{kg NH}_4^+_{\text{influent}})^{-1}$, and 0.15% as $\text{kg NH}_3\text{-N} (\text{kg NH}_4^+$
346 $\text{removed})^{-1}$ (Table 5). Since this is the first time that NH_3 air emissions have been quantified from a
347 full-scale WWTP, no literature comparison is possible.

348

3.2 On-Site emission quantifications

3.2.1 On-site CH₄ emission sources and rates

Table 4 reports emission rates for all on-site CH₄ emitting process units, while Figure 6 provides the average contribution of each process unit to the total CH₄ emission quantified from on-site sources. For each process unit, the average emission rate (Figure 6) was calculated based on emission rates obtained in the different measurement campaigns (Table 4). The average emission value for the biosolid stockpiles was calculated as a weighted value according to the operation of digesters, namely in parallel and serial modes. The most important on-site CH₄ sources included the biosolid stockpiles (70%), ventilation from the thickening and dewatering building (11%), the sand trap inlet (9%), and the activated sludge reactors (5%) (Figure 6). Overall, about 81% of the CH₄ emission quantified on-site was released from the sludge treatment line.

Figure 7 shows CH₄ emissions from the biosolid stockpiles normalized by the amount of stored material. CH₄ emissions from still stockpiles were quantified over five measurement campaigns, the first two of which were performed in winter when biosolids were produced with digesters operated in the parallel mode, while the last three measurement campaigns were performed in summer when the biosolids were produced with digesters operated in the serial mode. In the first two summer campaigns, measurements were performed when stockpiles were still and during truck loading of biosolids for off-site treatment. Higher emissions were obtained from biosolids produced when the digesters were operated in parallel (on average $8.77 \cdot 10^{-6}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹) in comparison to when they were operated in the series mode (on average $3.77 \cdot 10^{-6}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹). The lower CH₄ emission obtained when operating the digesters in series mode was most likely a result of the higher share of input sludge CH₄ potential being realized as the retention time for a larger share of the substrate in the digesters increased. In fact, the CH₄ production was 7% higher when operating the reactors in series mode, in comparison

373 to when operated in parallel. A comparison of emissions escaping from still stockpiles and during
374 truck loading showed a CH₄ release about 1.5-2.2 times higher as soon as the piles were moved
375 during loading. We suspect the higher release during loading to be caused by stripping of CH₄
376 locked up in the sludge pore space or dissolved in the liquid phase of the sludge.

377 The second most important CH₄ source was the ventilation exhaust of the thickening and
378 dewatering building, which resulted in an average release of 2.3 kg CH₄ h⁻¹ and represented 11% of
379 the total CH₄ emissions measured from on-site sources.

380 CH₄ stripping from the sand trap inlet resulted in an average release of 1.8 kg CH₄ h⁻¹ (or
381 about 9% of total CH₄ emissions). Activated sludge reactors covered about 5% of the total CH₄
382 emission quantified on-site with an average release of 1 kg CH₄ h⁻¹. Primary and secondary settling
383 tanks covered about 4% and 2% of the total CH₄ emissions quantified on-site with an average
384 release of 0.8 and 0.4 kg CH₄ h⁻¹, respectively. Less than 1% of the total CH₄ emissions quantified
385 on-site was provided by nitrifying trickling filters and post-denitrifying MBBR tanks.

386 The sum of the emission for the on-site sources was 20.8 kg CH₄ h⁻¹. Although measurements
387 were not performed at the same time, a qualitative comparison between on-site and off-site
388 measurements showed that the on-site CH₄ emission rate was about two-thirds of the plant-
389 integrated CH₄ emission quantification (on average about 31.0 kg CH₄ h⁻¹). The lower emission rate
390 obtained by measuring individual on-site sources in comparison to the plant-integrated emission,
391 apart from different timeframes, was most likely a result of not identifying all on-site sources. In
392 this study, potential missing sources could be CH₄ slippages from the sludge treatment line and
393 other unknown sources. Previous studies have reported significant CH₄ losses from the sludge
394 treatment line (Yoshida et al., 2014; Delre et al. 2017), underlining the reasonably higher value of
395 plant-integrated emission rates than on-site measurements, because the former decrease the risk of

396 missing important emission sources at the facility (Jensen et al., 2017; Reinelt et al., 2017; Yver
397 Kwok et al., 2015).

398 Furthermore, other studies that have included an investigation of both wastewater and sewage
399 sludge lines have reported that the largest part of the CH₄ emitted from WWTPs is lost from the
400 sludge treatment line (Daelman et al., 2012; Delre et al., 2017). Both Mønster et al. (2014a) and
401 Delre et al. (2017) cited biosolid stockpiles as an important CH₄ source in WWTPs, but they
402 reported only plant-integrated measurements. Conversely, Majumder et al. (2014) investigated
403 seasonal CH₄ emissions from large biosolid stockpiles produced at a WWTP in Australia. Using a
404 closed static chamber method, emissions were measured from stockpiles of different ages: More
405 than 3 years old, 1-3 years old, and less than 1 year old. CH₄ emissions measured from the less than
406 1-year old biosolid stockpiles were about $8.15 \cdot 10^{-10}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is lower
407 than the biosolids CH₄ emissions measured in our study (which varied between $1.68 \cdot 10^{-6}$ and
408 $9.29 \cdot 10^{-6}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Figure 7)). The higher emissions measured in our study are
409 most likely a result of the shorter storage time (about 3 weeks) in comparison to those in Majumder
410 et al. (2014) (less than one year). Larsen et al. (2017) measured CH₄ emissions from biosolid
411 stockpiles of mechanical dewatered sludge and reported emissions of $1.98 \cdot 10^{-5}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS
412 biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹, which were measured from mechanical dewatered surplus activated sludge (less
413 than one week old) that had not been stabilized by anaerobic digestion prior to dewatering, thus
414 potentially explaining the relatively high emission rates. Our emission rates are important for plant
415 emission reporting while for environmental assessment the emissions from off-site long-term sludge
416 storage should also be considered. In Scandinavia, the sludge storage time could be up to about 6
417 months as sludge is most often applied in spring and autumn. It is possible that the emission rates
418 reported by Majumder et al. (2014) are more representative for longer-term (up to one year) sludge
419 storage. Larsen et al. (2017) also reports CH₄ emission rates for longer-term (4 months) sludge

420 storage ($3.55 \cdot 10^{-6}$ kg CH₄ (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹), which are lower than for short-term (less than a
421 one week old) storage of mechanical dewatered sludge. CH₄ emissions from mechanical pre-
422 treatment have been reported (Wang et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2014) and explained as the
423 consequence of CH₄ formation in the sewer network due to anaerobic conditions (Liu et al., 2015).

424 3.2.2 On-site N₂O emission sources and rates

425 Table 4 reports emission rates for all N₂O-emitting process units, while Figure 6 shows the average
426 contribution of all process units to the total N₂O emissions quantified from on-site sources. For each
427 process unit, the average emission rate (Figure 6) was calculated based on emission rates obtained
428 in the different measurement campaigns (Table 4). The total on-site N₂O emission quantification
429 (3.3 kg N₂O h⁻¹) was about two-thirds of the plant-integrated emission quantification (5.2 kg N₂O h⁻¹),
430 which was similar to the CH₄ results comparing on-site emissions with total emissions.

431 The most relevant N₂O emission sources were the nitrifying trickling filters, which emitted
432 about 2.7 kg N₂O h⁻¹, covering about 82% of the total N₂O emission quantified on-site (Figure 6).
433 Secondary settling tanks and biosolid stockpiles each covered about 5% of the total N₂O emissions
434 quantified on-site - each with an average annual release of 0.2 kg N₂O h⁻¹. Figure 7 describes N₂O
435 emissions from biosolids normalized by the amount of material stored. In general, lower N₂O
436 emissions were obtained from the produced biosolids when the digesters were operated in parallel
437 (on average $1.69 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹), in comparison to when the digesters were
438 operated in the series mode (on average $7.16 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹). This variation
439 in emissions cannot be explained by variations in concentrations of TS, TN, and NH₄-N in the
440 produced biosolids, as these did not change significantly between the two different digestion modes:
441 Average TN concentrations were 43.7 and 43.5 g (kg TS)⁻¹ for the serial and the parallel mode,
442 respectively, while average NH₄-N concentrations were 12.4 and 12.7 g (kg TS)⁻¹ for the serial and
443 the parallel mode, respectively (Figure 8). The small change in TS content was caused mainly by

444 the centrifuge's dewatering capabilities. It is possible that higher temperatures during summer in
445 comparison to winter resulted in higher microbial activity and thus caused higher emissions during
446 summer. However, this was not the case for CH₄, as the highest emissions were recorded during
447 winter when the reactors were operated in parallel. During truck loading, N₂O emissions were
448 almost four times higher than from the still piles; however, in July, N₂O emissions during truck
449 loading were comparable to the still piles (Figure 7). Considering the emission of both CH₄ and
450 N₂O, the total greenhouse gas emission from biosolids reported in CO₂-equivalents was lower
451 ($1.35 \cdot 10^{-4}$ kg CO₂ eq. (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹) when the reactors were operated in a serial mode in
452 comparison to a parallel mode ($2.53 \cdot 10^{-4}$ kg CO₂ eq. (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹).

453 Post-denitrifying MBBR, primary settling tanks, activated sludge reactors, the sludge
454 treatment building, and the sand trap inlet had average emission rates lower than 0.1 kg N₂O h⁻¹ and
455 collectively made up only a small share (8%) of the total N₂O emission quantified on-site (Figure
456 6).

457 Different N₂O emission rates recorded by different campaigns at nitrifying trickling filters and
458 biosolid stockpiles (Table 4) could be justified by the complex relationship between N₂O generation
459 and different factors such as oxygen availability, nitrite content, COD, and TN ratio (Kampschreur
460 et al., 2009).

461 Majumder et al. (2014) investigated N₂O emissions from large still biosolid stockpiles less
462 than 1 year old and reported their emissions as $1.64 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is
463 within the range measured in our study (from $3.3 \cdot 10^{-9}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹ to $1.25 \cdot 10^{-7}$
464 kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Figure 7)). Similarly, Larsen et al. (2017) measured N₂O
465 emissions escaping from biosolid stockpiles of mechanically dewatered sludge and reported
466 emissions of $1.44 \cdot 10^{-7}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹ for material less than one week old while

467 the emission rate of older material (stored for 4 months) was $3.97 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg N₂O-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹
468 h⁻¹.

469 3.2.3 On site NH₃ emission sources and rates

470 Table 4 reports emission rates for all NH₃ emitting process units, while Figure 6 shows the average
471 contribution of all process units to the total NH₃ emission quantified on-site. For each process unit,
472 the average emission rate (Figure 6) was calculated based on emission rates obtained in the different
473 measurement campaigns (Table 4). The most important NH₃-releasing process units were the
474 biosolid stockpiles and the exhaust used to ventilate the thickening and dewatering building,
475 contributing 44% and 22% of the total NH₃ emissions quantified on-site and emitting 0.17 and 0.09
476 kg NH₃ h⁻¹, respectively. Lower NH₃ emissions were in general obtained from biosolids produced
477 when the digesters were operated in parallel (on average $4.87 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg NH₃-N (kg TS biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹)
478 in comparison to when they were operated in series mode (on average $6.94 \cdot 10^{-8}$ kg NH₃-N (kg TS
479 biosolids)⁻¹ h⁻¹). This difference cannot be explained by changes in concentrations of TS, TN, and
480 NH₄-N in the produced biosolids (Figure 8). In the campaign performed in June, NH₃ emissions
481 were almost the same during truck loading and still biosolids (Figure 7), whereas in the July
482 campaign, they emissions were almost three times higher during truck loading in comparison to the
483 still stockpiles (Figure 7).

484 Settling tanks (primary and secondary), the sand trap inlet, activated sludge reactors, and
485 nitrifying trickling filters all contributed to the remaining percentage (34%) of the total NH₃
486 emissions quantified on-site (Figure 6). The sum of the average NH₃ emissions quantified on-site
487 from different process units provided approximately the same emission rate obtained when
488 quantifying plant-integrated NH₃ emissions (0.4 kg NH₃ h⁻¹) (Table 4), although the measurements
489 represent different timeframes.

490

491 **4 Conclusions**

- 492 • Plant-integrated CH₄ emission rates measured using ground-based remote sensing methods
493 varied between 28.5 and 33.5 kg CH₄ h⁻¹, corresponding to an average emission factor of 5.9%
494 as kg CH₄ (kg CH₄ production)⁻¹, whereas N₂O emissions varied between 4.0 and 6.4 kg h⁻¹,
495 corresponding to an average emission factor of 0.9% as kg N₂O-N (kg TN_{influent})⁻¹.
- 496 • Plant-integrated NH₃ emissions were around 0.4 kg h⁻¹, corresponding to an average emission
497 factor of 0.11% as kg NH₃-N (kg TN_{removed})⁻¹.
- 498 • On-site measurements showed that the largest proportion of the CH₄ was emitted from the
499 sludge treatment line, with about 70% coming from biosolid stockpiles. While about 82% of the
500 N₂O was emitted from nitrifying trickling filters, the most relevant NH₃ sources were the
501 biosolid stockpiles (44%) and the thickening and dewatering building (22%).
- 502 • Biosolids showed different emissions when the sludge digesters were operated in series rather
503 than in parallel mode, as usually done at the WWTP. When the digesters were operated in series
504 mode, lower CH₄ emissions and generally higher N₂O and NH₃ emissions were observed.
505 Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and NH₃ tended to be higher while loading biosolids onto trucks.
- 506 • On-site CH₄ and N₂O emission quantifications accounted for approximately two-thirds of the
507 plant-integrated emission quantifications. The difference could be a combined effect of different
508 survey timeframes and that no sources were identified during the on-site investigation. Off-site
509 air emission quantifications, using ground-based remote sensing methods, thus seem to provide
510 more comprehensive total plant emission rates, whereas on-site measurements provide insights
511 into emissions from individual sources.

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630 **TABLES**

631 **Table 1. Plant key parameters in the investigated year.**

Year		2015
Population Equivalent (PE)		805,000
Treated wastewater (m ³ yr ⁻¹)		147,300,000
Influent wastewater (Mg yr ⁻¹)	BOD	20555
	COD	43431
	TN	3366
	NH ₄ ⁺ -N	2367
Effluent (Mg yr ⁻¹)	BOD	1150
	COD	5916
	TN	1169
	NH ₄ ⁺ -N	823
Pollutant removal (%)	BOD	94.4
	COD	86.4
	TN	65.3
	NH ₄ ⁺ -N	65.2
External material treated at the plant (Mg yr ⁻¹)	Food waste	13,783
	Sewage sludge	79,220
Plant production	Biosolids (Mg TS yr ⁻¹)	14,846
	Biogas (m ³ yr ⁻¹)	11,496,818
	CH ₄ content in biogas (%)	63.1

633 Table 2. Overview of applied optical analytical techniques.

Optical technique	Measuring principle	Model	Measured gas	Used absorption wave length	Precision	Detection frequency
FTIR	Infrared absorption spectroscopy	IRCube Matrix-M, Bruker Optics GmbH, Ettlingen, Germany	CH ₄	3.3 μm	1.7 ppb	9 s
			N ₂ O	4.5 μm	0.3 ppb	9 s
			NH ₃	10.3 μm	2.0 ppb (MTDM) 0.08 mg/m ² (SOF)	9 s (MTDM) 5 s (SOF)
			C ₂ H ₂	13.7 μm	1.8 ppb	9 s
			C ₂ H ₄	10.5 μm	4.7 ppb	9 s
CRDS	Gas concentration is obtained by measuring directly the “ring-down,” or decay of laser light in a sample cell.	G2203, Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, CA S/N JADS2001, Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, CA	CH ₄	NA	0.77 ppb	0.5 s
			C ₂ H ₂	NA	0.06 ppb	
			N ₂ O	NA	7.7 ppb	3 s
			C ₂ H ₂	NA	0.6 ppb	

634 FTIR: Fourier Transform Infrared. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy. NA: Information not available. Precision: the capability to reproduce the same
635 concentration measurement and is expressed as the standard deviation of concentrations recorded during a specific time frame (FTIR: 10 minutes, CRDS: 60 minutes)
636 when a gas with a constant concentration goes through the instrument.

637 Table 3. Overview of performed measurement campaigns in 2015.

Date (dd/mm)	Campaign starting time (hh:mm)	Campaign ending time (hh:mm)	Waste water treatment process unit investigated	Optical analytical technology applied	Investigated emissions and measuring method (as superscript, STDM ¹ , MTDM ² , SOF ³ , inferred flux ⁴ using STDM, MTDM, or SOF of main target gas combined with mass ratio measurement of the less abundant gas in plume versus the main target gas)
12/01	11:28	14:40	Ventilation exhaust of thickening and dewatering building	FTIR	N ₂ O ¹ , CH ₄ ¹ , NH ₃ ¹
13/01	12:26	13:48	Biosolid stockpiles	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
	14:24	14:48	Primary settlers	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
14/01	11:45	12:03	Biosolid stockpiles	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
	13:47	14:45	Sand trap inlet	FTIR	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ² , NH ₃ ²
19/02	13:19	14:19	Nitrifying trickling filters	FTIR	N ₂ O ²
	13:18	14:19	Post-denitrifying MBBR	FTIR	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
	13:17	14:14	Secondary settlers	FTIR	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ² , NH ₃ ²
09/03	11:39	12:13	Nitrifying trickling filters	FTIR	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
11/03	10:53	11:58	Sand trap inlet	FTIR	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ² , NH ₃ ²
	11:05	13:15	Primary settlers	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
17/06	10:24	11:16	Ventilation exhaust of thickening and dewatering building	FTIR	N ₂ O ¹ , CH ₄ ¹ , NH ₃ ¹
	11:54	12:15	Centrifuge room	FTIR	N ₂ O ¹ , CH ₄ ¹ , NH ₃ ¹
23/06	10:37	12:25	Nitrifying trickling filters	FTIR	N ₂ O ²
	13:30	14:22	Activated sludge reactors	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
24/06	10:21	13:01	Biosolid stockpiles	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
02/07	10:45	11:37	Whole plant (plant-integrated measurements)	FTIR	NH ₃ ³
06/07	11:42	14:52	Biosolid stockpiles	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
28/08	23:18	23:32	Ventilation exhaust of thickening and dewatering building	FTIR	CH ₄ ²
	23:51	00:44	Nitrifying trickling filters	FTIR	N ₂ O ²
	23:22	00:58	Biosolid stockpiles	FTIR	CH ₄ ² , N ₂ O ⁴ , NH ₃ ⁴
	22:30	02:30	Whole plant (plant-integrated measurements)	FTIR CRDS	N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ² N ₂ O ² , CH ₄ ²

638 MTDM: Mobile Tracer Dispersion Method. STDM: Static Tracer Dispersion Method. SOF: Solar Occultation Flux. FTIR: Fourier Transform Infrared. CRDS: Cavity
639 Ring-Down Spectroscopy. MBBR: Moving Bed Bioreactors. Please note that measurements were done interchangeably between different units during specified time
640 frames.

641 Table 4. Emission rates from different process units and whole plant in 2015.

Investigated wastewater treatment process unit	Date (dd/mm)	CH ₄ (kg h ⁻¹) AV ± SD	N ₂ O (kg h ⁻¹) AV ± SD	NH ₃ (kg h ⁻¹) AV ± SD
Sand trap inlet	14/01	3.3±1.5	0.01±0.02	0.05±0.10
	11/03	0.25±0.11	0.01±0.02	0.01±0.02
Primary settlers	13/01	0.64±0.22	0.08±0.05	0.08±0.07
	11/03	0.98±0.46	0.09±0.07	0.04±0.03
Activated sludge reactors	23/06	0.99±0.79	0.060±0.059	0.013±0.011
Nitrifying trickling filters	19/02	n.m.	1.9±1.3	n.m.
	09/03	0.10±0.05	1.8±0.6	0.001±0.001
	23/06	n.m.	4.0±0.8	n.m.
	28&29/08	n.m.	3.2±0.2	n.m.
Post-denitrifying MBBR	19/02	0.008±0.004	0.08±0.03	<0.002
Secondary settlers	19/02	0.4±0.17	0.18±0.11	0.03±0.02
Ventilation exhaust of thickening and dewatering building	12/01	1.65±0.11	0.041±0.004	0.041±0.010
	17/06	1.74±0.16	0.005±0.001	0.13±0.01
	28/08	3.4±1.4	n.m.	n.m.
Centrifuge room ^b	17/06	0.43±0.01	0.00080±0.00002	0.0043±0.0001
	13/01	22.5±6.4	0.05±0.06	0.12±0.10
Biosolid stockpiles ^c	14/01	20.4±4.5	0.08±0.06	0.17±0.09
	24/06	6.5±2.8 [¹ / ₂ 14.3±3.5] ^a	0.28±0.15 [1.07±0.38] ^a	0.18±0.11 [0.19±0.09] ^a
	06/07	13.4±2.5 [19.4±5.2] ^a	0.36±0.16 [0.25±0.15] ^a	0.28±0.09 [0.81±0.56] ^a
	28&29/08	9.7±2.5	0.03±0.01	0.12±0.07
Whole plant (plant-integrated measurements)	02/07	n.m.	n.m.	0.4±0.1 [FTIR-SOF]
	28&29/08	28.5 ± 3.1 [FTIR] 33.5 ± 3.0 [CRDS]	4.0 ± 0.8 [FTIR] 6.4 ± 2.1 [CRDS]	0.4±0.2 [FTIR-MTDM]

642 ^a Values in the brackets refer to quantifications during truck loading. ^b Notice that the centrifuge room is placed inside the thickening and dewatering building.
643 FTIR: Fourier Transform InfraRed. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy. For results based on inferred flux using STDM or MTDM combined with mass ratios,
644 the given uncertainty corresponds to the combined uncertainty of the STDM/MTDM and the uncertainty in the mass ratio. ^c Note that the sludge digesters were
645 operated in parallel mode January-May, and serial mode June-August. N.m. denotes not measured.
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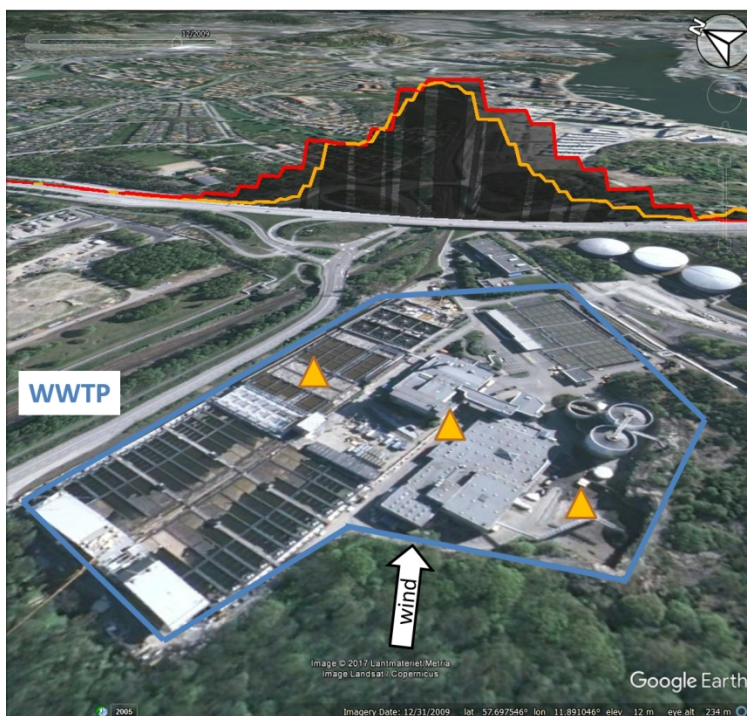
648 Table 5. Plant-integrated Emission Factors (EFs).

Gas	Normalization	EF AV ± SD	Method and analytical technology	Average EF
CH ₄	kg CH ₄ (kg COD _{influent}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.6 ± 0.1	MTDM and FTIR	0.7
		0.7 ± 0.1	MTDM and CRDS	
	kg CH ₄ (kg CH ₄ production) ⁻¹ (%)	5.4 ± 0.6	MTDM and FTIR	5.9
		6.4 ± 0.6	MTDM and CRDS	
N ₂ O	kg N ₂ O-N (kg TN _{influent}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.7 ± 0.1	MTDM and FTIR	0.9
		1.1 ± 0.4	MTDM and CRDS	
	kg N ₂ O-N (kg TN _{removed}) ⁻¹ (%)	1.0 ± 0.2	MTDM and FTIR	1.2
		1.5 ± 0.5	MTDM and CRDS	
NH ₃	kg NH ₃ -N (kg TN _{influent}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.09 ± 0.04	MTDM and FTIR	0.09
		0.09 ± 0.02	SOF and FTIR	
	kg NH ₃ -N (kg TN _{removed}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.11 ± 0.05	MTDM and FTIR	0.11
		0.11 ± 0.03	SOF and FTIR	
	kg NH ₃ -N (kg NH ₄ ⁺ _{influent}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.12 ± 0.06	MTDM and FTIR	0.12
		0.12 ± 0.03	SOF and FTIR	
kg NH ₃ -N (kg NH ₄ ⁺ _{removed}) ⁻¹ (%)	0.15 ± 0.07	MTDM and FTIR	0.15	
	0.15 ± 0.04	SOF and FTIR		

649 AV: average. SD: Standard Deviation. FTIR: Fourier Transform Infrared. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy.
 650 SOF: Solar Occultation Flux. EFs for CH₄ and NH₃ were normalized to the COD and TN influent content of the
 651 wastewater and thus did not consider the COD and TN content in the food waste occasionally fed to the anaerobic
 652 digester. Due to the low amounts of food waste fed to the anaerobic digested this would have only minor effect on the
 653 EFs (<0.05%).
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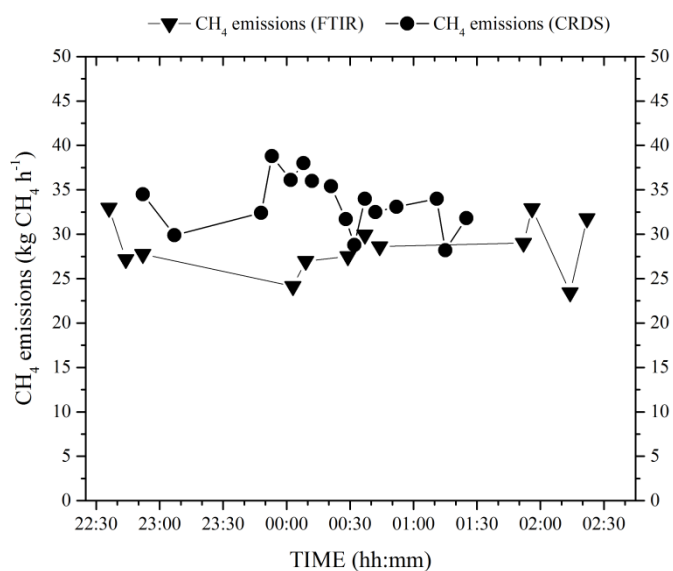
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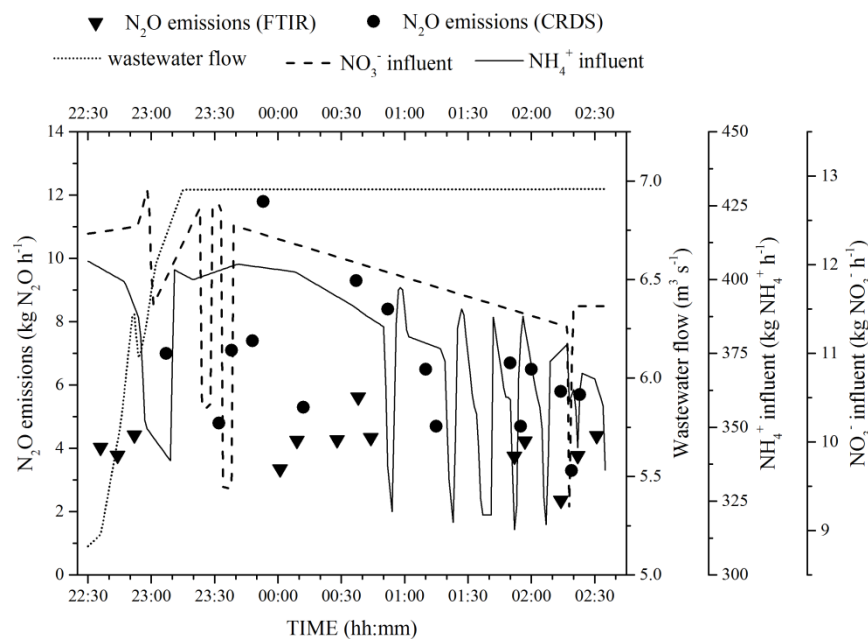
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658 Figure 1. Downwind methane and acetylene plumes along a road 350 m from the main methane
659 sources measured at 01:15 on 29/08. Yellow triangles mark tracer gas positions. The methane
660 plume is reported in red, while the acetylene plume is depicted with a yellow line. WWTP borders
661 are marked in blue.

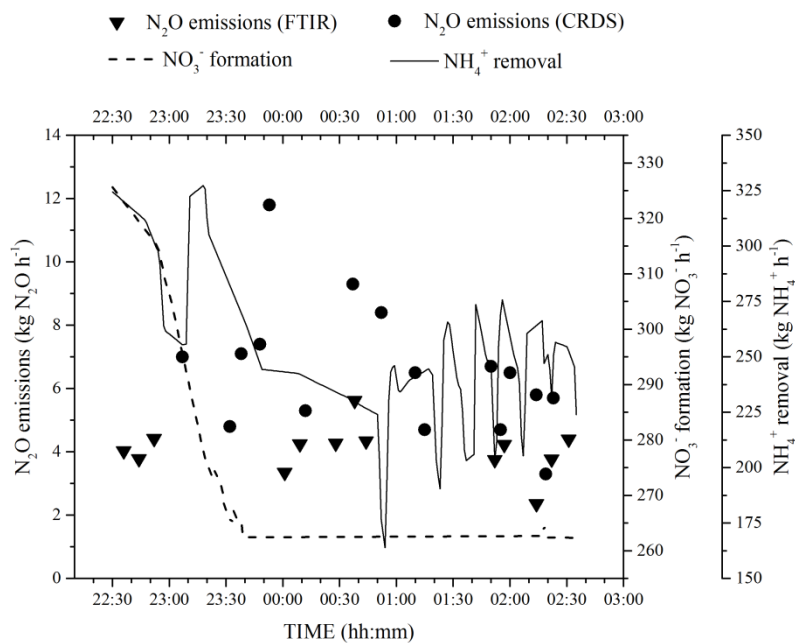


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Figure 2. CH₄ plant-integrated emissions over quantification time (28&29/08) measured with FTIR-
MTDM and CRDS-MTDM. FTIR: Fourier Transform InfraRed. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down
Spectroscopy. MTDM: Mobile Tracer Dispersion Method.

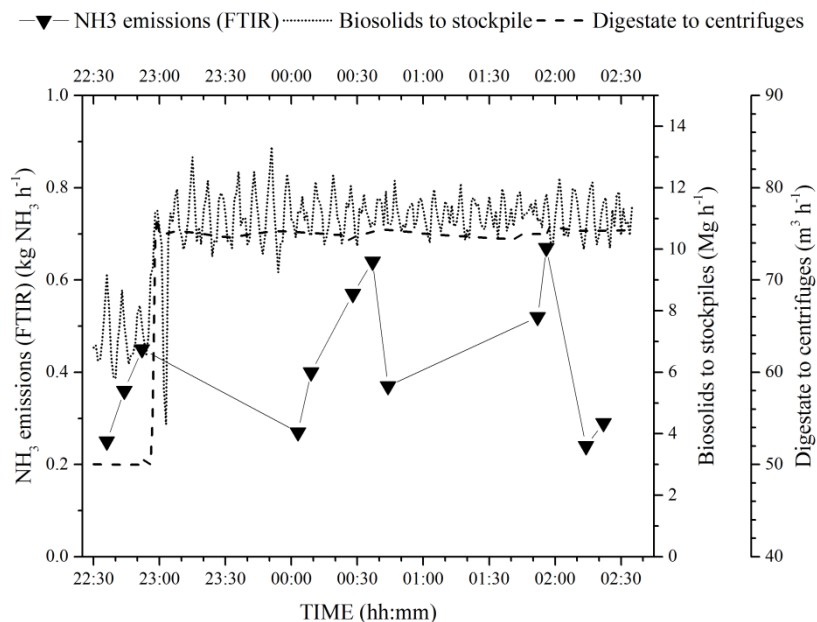


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 667 Figure 3. N₂O plant-integrated emissions over quantification time (28&29/08) measured with FTIR-
 668 MTDM and CRDS-MTDM. The graph shows the variation in the inlet wastewater flow to the
 669 nitrifying trickling filters, as well as the influent of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺. FTIR: Fourier Transform
 670 InfraRed. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy. MTDM: Mobile Tracer Dispersion Method.

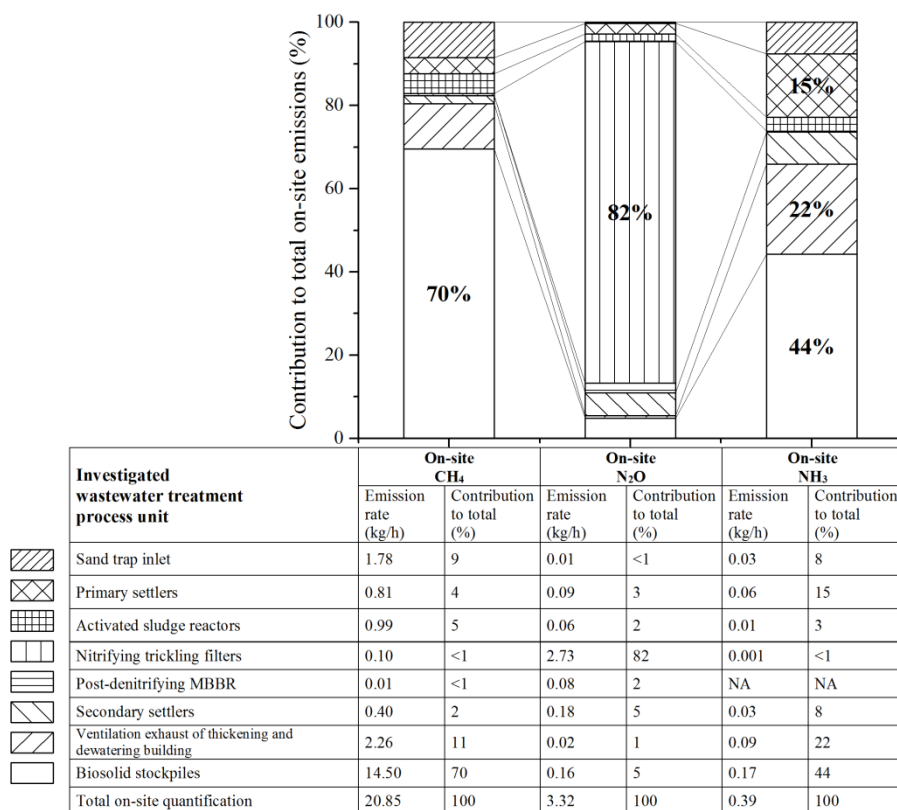


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 672 Figure 4. N₂O plant-integrated emissions over quantification time (28&29/08) measured with FTIR-
 673 MTDM and CRDS-MTDM. The graph shows NH₄⁺ removed and NO₃⁻ formation based on on-line

674 measured inlet and outlet concentrations at the nitrifying trickling filters. FTIR: Fourier Transform
 675 InfraRed. CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy. MTDM: Mobile Tracer Dispersion Method.
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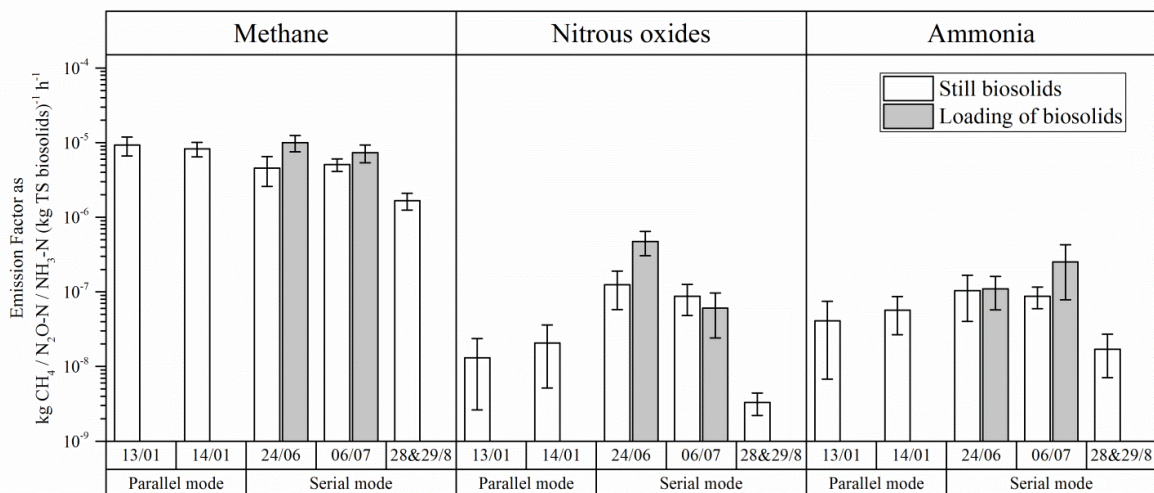


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 678 Figure 5. NH₃ plant-integrated emissions over quantification time (28&29/08) measured with FTIR-
 679 MTDM. The graph shows the quantity of digestate processed in the centrifuges and the quantity of
 680 produced biosolids sent to the stockpiles. FTIR: Fourier Transform InfraRed. CRDS: Cavity Ring-
 681 Down Spectroscopy. MTDM: Mobile Tracer Dispersion Method.
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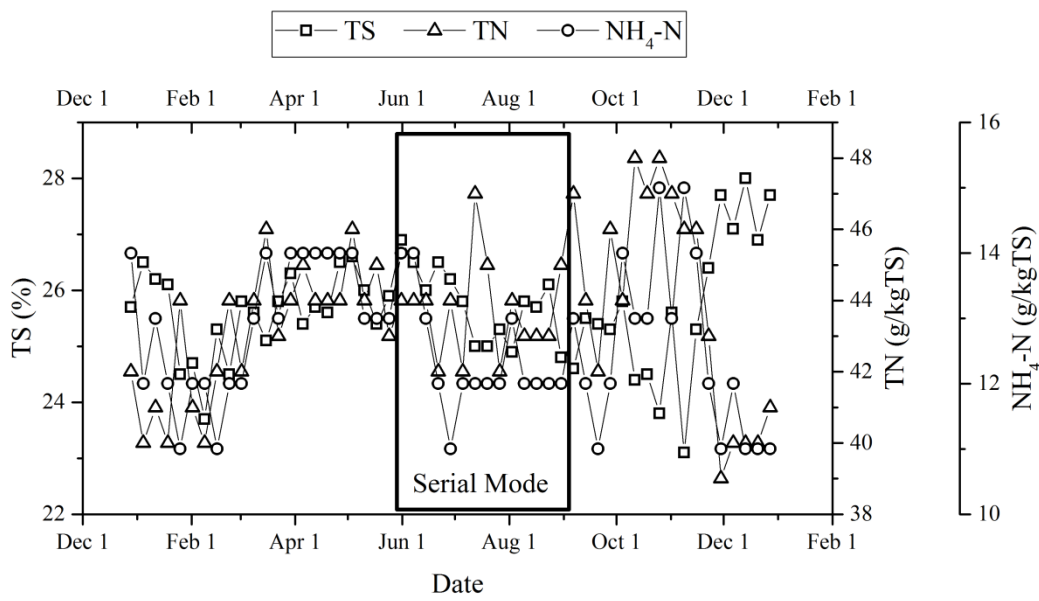
Figure 6. Average contribution of all process units to the total CH₄, N₂O and NH₃ emission quantified from on-site sources.



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Figure 7. Air emissions from biosolid stockpiles normalized by the amount of stored material. The first two campaigns were performed when digesters were run in parallel, while the remaining were performed when the digesters were run in series. For two measurement campaigns, comparison between still and loading of biosolids is showed. Emission factors (EF) are reported with uncertainty representing the standard deviation of several successful transects. Campaign date is reported as dd/mm since all measurements referred to 2015.

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Figure 8. Concentrations of TS, TN and NH₄-N in the produced biosolids in 2015.