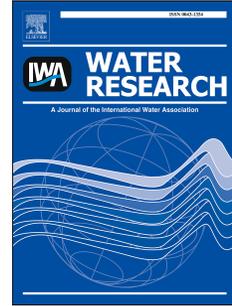


# Journal Pre-proof

A knowledge discovery framework to predict the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the wastewater sector

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PII: S0043-1354(20)30336-5

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2020.115799>

Reference: WR 115799

To appear in: *Water Research*

Received Date: 17 December 2019

Revised Date: 4 March 2020

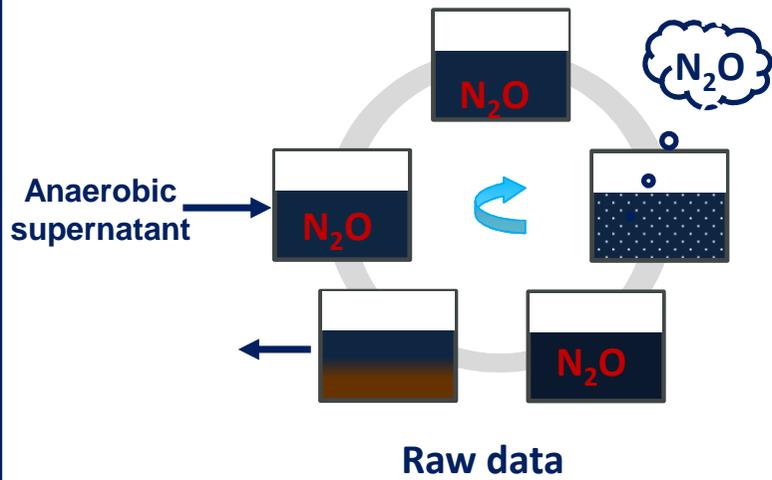
Accepted Date: 3 April 2020

Please cite this article as: Vasilaki, V., Conca, V., Frison, N., Eusebi, A.L., Fatone, F., Katsou, E., A knowledge discovery framework to predict the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the wastewater sector, *Water Research* (2020), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2020.115799>.

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## S.C.E.N.A

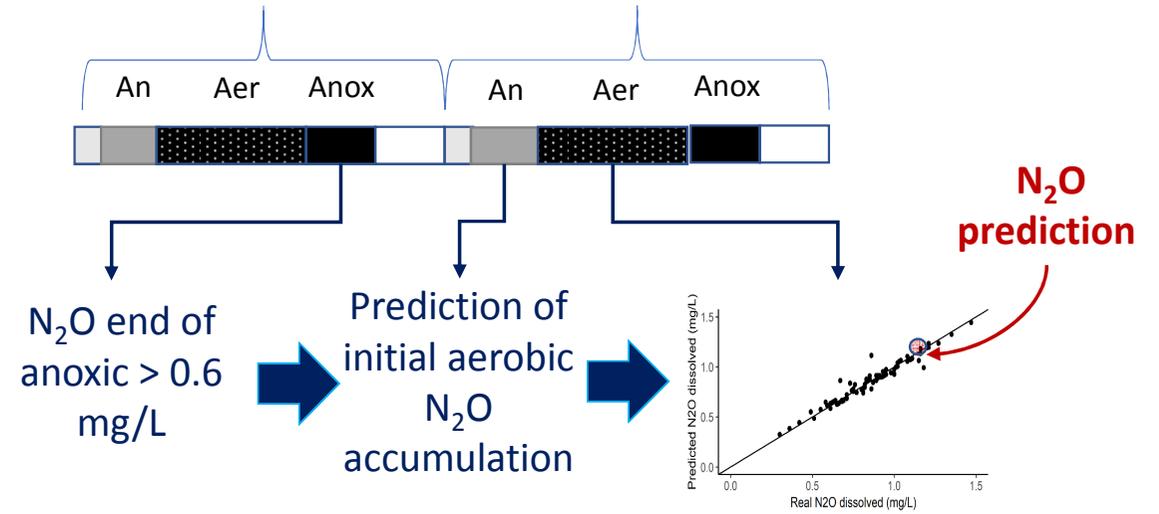


Raw data

Knowledge discovery  
and data-mining

Cycle 1

Cycle 2



1     **A knowledge discovery framework to predict the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the wastewater sector**

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9     Keywords: short-cut enhanced nutrients abatement - SCENA; long-term dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O and  
10    energy consumption monitoring, knowledge discovery and data mining

11

**Abstract**

12 Data Analytics is being deployed to predict the dissolved nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) concentration in a  
13 full-scale sidestream sequence batch reactor (SBR) treating the anaerobic supernatant. On  
14 average, the  $N_2O$  emissions are equal to 7.6% of the  $NH_4-N$  load and can contribute up to 97 % to  
15 the operational carbon footprint of the studied nitrification-denitrification and via-nitrite enhanced  
16 biological phosphorus removal process (S.C.E.N.A). The analysis showed that average aerobic  
17 dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration could significantly vary under similar influent loads, dissolved  
18 oxygen (DO), pH and removal efficiencies. A combination of density-based clustering, support  
19 vector machine (SVM), and support vector regression (SVR) models were deployed to estimate  
20 the dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration and behaviour in the different phases of the SBR system.

21 The results of the study reveal that the aerobic dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration is correlated with the  
22 drop of average aerobic conductivity rate (spearman correlation coefficient equal to 0.7), the DO  
23 (spearman correlation coefficient equal to -0.7) and the changes of conductivity between  
24 sequential cycles. Additionally, operational conditions resulting in low aerobic  $N_2O$  accumulation  
25 ( $<0.6$  mg/L) were identified; step-feeding, control of initial  $NH_4^+$  concentrations and aeration  
26 duration can mitigate the  $N_2O$  peaks observed in the system. The  $N_2O$  emissions during aeration  
27 shows correlation with the stripping of accumulated  $N_2O$  from the previous anoxic cycle. The  
28 analysis shows that  $N_2O$  is always consumed after the depletion of  $NO_2^-$  during denitrification (after  
29 the “nitrite knee”). Based on these findings SVM classifiers were constructed to predict whether  
30 dissolved  $N_2O$  will be consumed during the anoxic and anaerobic phases and SVR models were  
31 trained to predict the  $N_2O$  concentration at the end of the anaerobic phase and the average  
32 dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration during aeration. The proposed approach accurately predicts the  $N_2O$   
33 emissions as a latent parameter from other low-cost sensors that are traditionally deployed in  
34 biological batch processes.

## 35 1. Introduction

36 In recent years the sustainability and operational efficiency of wastewater treatment plants  
37 (WWTPs) have come to the fore (Liu et al., 2018). Several biological technologies such as  
38 partial-nitrification – anammox (anaerobic ammonium oxidation) have emerged, towards the  
39 efficient, low-cost treatment of high-strength municipal wastewater streams (Lackner et al., 2014;  
40 Zhou et al., 2018). The anaerobic supernatant is a by-product of dewatering of the anaerobic  
41 digestion effluent and represents less than 1-2% of the total influent flow in the WWTP. It  
42 contains 10–30% of the N load and 20–30% of the P load (Janus and van der Roest, 1997; van  
43 Loosdrecht and Salem, 2006). Sidestream treatment of the anaerobic supernatant can contribute to  
44 the reduction of energy consumption for N-removal, decrease of nitrogen loads in the secondary  
45 treatment, and the minimisation of risks related to exceeding effluent regulatory requirements of  
46 nitrogen concentrations in the water line of WWTPs (Eskicioglu et al., 2018). However, the  
47 performance and environmental evaluation of different sidestream technologies is still under  
48 investigation (Eskicioglu et al., 2018; Rodriguez-Garcia et al., 2014).

49 SCENA (Short-Cut Enhanced Nutrient Abatement) is a new sidestream process, that combines  
50 the conversion of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  under aerobic conditions (nitrification) with the subsequent  
51 reduction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to nitrogen gas and enhanced biological phosphorus uptake by polyphosphate-  
52 accumulating organisms (DPAOs) in a sequencing batch reactor (SBR) (Frison et al., 2015).  
53 External volatile fatty acids (VFAs), are produced via acidogenic fermentation of the primary and  
54 secondary sludge on-site and dosed into the SBR. In a recent study, Longo et al. (2016),  
55 quantified the environmental and cost benefits and impacts of the integration of the SCENA  
56 process in a full-scale WWTP. They reported major energy savings for aeration after the  
57 integration of sidestream SCENA process. The direct  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions were equal to 1.42% of the

58 influent N-load. Short-term monitoring campaigns were implemented, while the effect of  
59 operational conditions on N<sub>2</sub>O generation was not investigated.

60 N<sub>2</sub>O is a potent cause of global warming, its global warming potential is 265 - 298 times more  
61 than that of CO<sub>2</sub> (IPCC, 2013). The emission of N<sub>2</sub>O in full-scale sidestream partial-  
62 nitrification/partial-nitrification–anammox or nitrification-denitrification systems range from 0.17%  
63 to 5.1% of the influent N-load (average equal to ~2.1% of the N-load is emitted (Vasilaki et al.,  
64 2019) . Schaubroeck et al. (2015) showed that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from a full-scale sidestream  
65 DEMON process in Austria were significantly higher than the direct N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the  
66 mainstream treatment in a full-scale WWTP. On average, 0.256 g N<sub>2</sub>O were emitted compared to  
67 0.005 g emitted in the secondary treatment per m<sup>3</sup> treated wastewater. The increased direct N<sub>2</sub>O  
68 emissions can be mainly attributed to low DO concentrations, higher ammonia oxidation rates  
69 (AOR) and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> build-up (Desloover et al., 2011; Kampschreur et al., 2008); conditions that also  
70 prevail in the SCENA process. The variability of EF reported in sidestream technologies can be  
71 partially attributed to both complex relationships between emitted N<sub>2</sub>O and operational conditions  
72 and different configurations (i.e. SBR, continuous systems), loads (i.e. NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations),  
73 feeding strategies and operational control (i.e. DO set-points). Additionally, different interactions  
74 between operational variables trigger a different response of N<sub>2</sub>O generation. For instance, in a  
75 recent modelling study of a granular one-stage partial-nitrification-anammox reactor, Wan et al.  
76 (2019) showed that higher temperatures resulted in increased N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the presence of  
77 COD (chemical oxygen demand) and in decreased N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the absence of COD (due to  
78 increased anammox activity and reduction of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> accumulation in higher temperature).  
79 Additionally, the long-term temporal variations of direct N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were not adequately  
80 assessed in sidestream technologies; the majority of the monitoring campaigns in sidestream  
81 reactors lasted less than 5 days (Vasilaki et al., 2019).

82 The digitalisation of water services and the data-driven knowledge discovery from wastewater  
83 treatment plant may increase the resilience of water utilities under climate change and other  
84 water-related challenges (Sarni et al., 2019). Recent studies have provided extensive overviews of  
85 the use of data-driven techniques in the wastewater sector for different applications including the  
86 development of soft-sensors, fault prediction and multi-objective optimisation of control of water  
87 utilities (Corominas et al., 2018a; Haimi et al., 2013; Newhart et al., 2019). Data-mining and  
88 extraction of the information hidden in the raw sensor signals can facilitate the identification of  
89 patterns and hidden structures and reveal significant information on the behaviour of  $N_2O$   
90 emissions in continuous wastewater treatment processes (Vasilaki et al., 2018). The SBR in the  
91 SCENA process is multiphase (i.e. anaerobic, aerobic, anoxic conditions) applying different  
92 operational variables (unsynchronised data), non-linear and subject to different disturbances, such  
93 as influent compositions and fermentation liquid characteristics. Moreover, SBR process data are  
94 based on a 3d-structure that consists of the number of i) cycles, ii) variables and iii) sampling  
95 points within each cycle. Therefore, the identification of process abnormalities and patterns can  
96 be complicated.  $N_2O$  emissions could be affected by both within-cycle and between-cycle batch  
97 dynamics.

98 In this study, sensor and laboratory analyses data from a full-scale SCENA SBR were analysed to  
99 provide insights on the  $N_2O$  emissions behaviour and generation. A structured approach was  
100 followed for knowledge discovery from the available dataset using a combination of abnormal  
101 events detection, classification and regression techniques. The objectives of the study were to i)  
102 investigate whether the sensors integrated in the system (i.e. conductivity, pH) can provide  
103 actionable information on the dynamics of  $N_2O$  emissions, ii) detect hotspots for the  
104 accumulation and emission of  $N_2O$  and iii) develop data-driven regression and classification

105 models to predict the dissolved  $N_2O$  behaviour and concentration for the different phases  
106 (anaerobic, aerobic, anoxic) of the SBR.

## 107 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 108 **2.1 Process description and data origin**

109 The Carbonera plant is designed to treat domestic wastewater of a population equivalent of  
110 40,000 (dry weather flow equal to 10,000  $m^3/d$ ). After screening and degritting and primary  
111 sedimentation, the effluent from the primary clarifier is sent to a Schreiber reactor (single basin –  
112 working volume 4671  $m^3$ ). Schreiber reactor effluent is pumped to two secondary clarifiers (2260  
113  $m^3$  each) and subsequently to the tertiary treatment unit for disinfection and filtration before final  
114 discharge in the Melma River.

115 Waste activated sludge (WAS) generated by the biological treatment is recycled to the primary  
116 sedimentation unit and mixed with primary sludge. The final concentration of the thickened  
117 mixed sludge is around 5% total solids (TS). About 90% of the mixed thickened sludge is fed to  
118 an anaerobic digestion unit (1800  $m^3$  working volume). Digestate is dewatered by a centrifuge  
119 with the addition of polyelectrolyte; the solid fraction is mechanically composted and used as  
120 agricultural fertilizer. The anaerobic supernatant is sent to the equalization tank (of 90  $m^3$ ) in the  
121 SCENA system for the biological N and P removal.

122 The remaining portion of mixed sludge (10%) is fed to a sequencing batch fermentation reactor  
123 (SBFR) with hydraulic retention time (HRT) equal to 5 days. The SBFR is operated under  
124 mesophilic condition (37°C) for the alkaline fermentation of thickened sewage sludge and the on-  
125 site production of carbon source enriched of VFAs (mainly acetic and propionic acids). Daily, 10  
126  $m^3$  of fermentation sludge are extracted and replaced with fresh thickened sludge. The solid/liquid  
127 separation of the fermented sewage sludge is carried out by a screw-press (SCAE), generating ~2-

128 4 m<sup>3</sup>/h of fermentation liquid rich of VFAs (in total, ~ 10.5 m<sup>3</sup>/d). The latter is collected in a  
129 storage tank of 20 m<sup>3</sup> and automatically dosed during the anaerobic and anoxic phases of a short-  
130 cut sequencing batch reactor (SBR) based on pH and conductivity sensors. The solid fermented  
131 fraction (13-15% TS based) is mixed with the thickened mixed sludge and fed to the anaerobic  
132 digester.

133 The anaerobic supernatant is treated in an SBR with a maximal working volume of 70 m<sup>3</sup> (3-4  
134 cycles daily). The SBR is fed with ~10-15 m<sup>3</sup> of anaerobic supernatant in each cycle that is  
135 treated via nitrite enhanced phosphorus removal associated with nitrification-denitrification  
136 (S.C.E.N.A process). The typical SBR (Figure 1) cycle consists of feeding (6-8 min), anaerobic  
137 conditions (30 min), aerobic conditions (200-240 min), anoxic (~60-140 min), settling (30 min)  
138 and discharge (8 min). The sensors integrated in the SBR include: pH, Dissolved Oxygen (DO),  
139 conductivity, Oxidation Reduction Potential (ORP), mixed liquor suspended Solids (MLSS) and  
140 temperature. Conductivity and pH are used to control the length of the aerobic and anoxic phases  
141 and the carbon source dosage. Additionally, variable frequency driver is used to control the air  
142 flow-rate of the blowers, maintaining the dissolved oxygen during aerobic phase in the range of  
143 1.0 to 1.5 mg/L. The aeration system consists of volumetric blowers (nominal power 11 kW) and  
144 n80 diffusers (INVENT), providing ~500 m<sup>3</sup>/h of compressed air at 400 mbar of pressure. The  
145 treated supernatant is recirculated back to the WWTP headworks.

146 A monitoring campaign was conducted in the sidestream line at Carbonera WWTP treatment  
147 plant for approximately 4 months (January 2019 – April 2019). Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations  
148 were measured using a polarographic Clark-type electrode (Unisense, Aarhus, Denmark). To  
149 supplement the long-term monitoring campaign with Unisense probes, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the  
150 headspace of the SBR reactor, were also continuously monitored with MIR9000CLD analyser  
151 (Environment Italia S.p.A.) during March – April 2019. Details of the monitoring campaign, N<sub>2</sub>O

152 emissions' calculation and laboratory analyses are provided in the supplementary material (S1-  
153 S3).

154 [Figure 1]

## 155 **2.2 Data analysis**

### 156 2.2.1 *Methodological Framework*

157 Figure 2 summarises the methodological framework of the study. Phase one includes preliminary  
158 analysis of the collected data. Features extraction and density-based clustering was applied (Ester  
159 et al., 1996), to isolate abnormal cycles. The methodology and results of abnormal cycles'  
160 isolation are given in the supplementary material (section S4). In phase two, the behaviour of  
161 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration during normal operation was investigated;  
162 efforts were focused to identify dependencies with the operational dataset and laboratory  
163 analyses. Finally, in phase three, classification and regression models were trained to predict the  
164 behaviour of aerobic dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the different cycles. A support vector  
165 machine classification (SVM) and regression (SVR) models were constructed (Cortes and  
166 Vapnik, 1995).

167 The first step for the prediction of the average aerobic dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration included the  
168 training of an SVM classifier (ANOX SVM) to predict whether dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O will be consumed  
169 during the anoxic phase. This was significant, given that accumulated dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O in the  
170 beginning of the aerobic phase, will be stripped during aeration. All cycles were divided in two  
171 classes: class anoxA (dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O < 0.6 mg/L) and class anoxB (dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O > 0.6 mg/L).  
172 The dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration threshold was set equal to 0.6 mg/L, since in ~88% of these  
173 cases, N<sub>2</sub>O was consumed by the end of subsequent anaerobic phase. In cycles belonging to class  
174 anoxA, no N<sub>2</sub>O carryover was assumed. It is important to note that the term anaerobic phase, is

175 used to describe the first operational phase of the SBR (Figure 1) within each cycle and is not  
176 necessarily representative of the actual conditions in the reactor.

177 Subsequently, an SVM classifier (ANSVM) was trained to predict if dissolved  $N_2O$  will be  
178 consumed in the subsequent anaerobic phase. The threshold of  $N_2O$  at the end of the anaerobic  
179 phase was set equal to 2.6 mg/L (sensor calibration limit). Therefore, anaerobic phases with  
180 accumulated  $N_2O$  were classified in two groups: class anaerA ( $N_2O$  concentration < 2.6 mg/L)  
181 and anaerB ( $N_2O$  concentration > 2.6 mg/L). Cycles belonging to anaerA class, were used to  
182 train an SVR model (ANSVR) to predict the dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration at the end of the  
183 anaerobic phase.

184 Finally, an SVR model was trained to predict the average  $N_2O$  concentration during the aerobic  
185 phase (AERSVR), utilizing the ANSVR model predictions for cycles with initial aerobic  $N_2O$  less  
186 than 2.6 mg/L. Finally, the aerobic SVR model was also tested to cycles belonging in class  
187 anaerB ( $N_2O$  concentration > 2.6 mg/L). In anaerB cycles, initial aerobic  $N_2O$  accumulation  
188 exceeds the calibration limit of the sensor. Additionally, aerobic  $N_2O$  accumulation starts before  
189 completion of the stripping of pre-existing dissolved  $N_2O$ . In these cases, the average dissolved  
190  $N_2O$  concentration of the cycle, was calculated considering the period from the first minimum of  
191 dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration until the end of aeration (or after 30 min if a local minimum did not  
192 exist). Additionally, initial  $N_2O$  accumulation was assumed to be equal to 0.6 mg/L (average  
193 minimum after initial  $N_2O$  stripping observed in these cycles).

194 In practice, the methodology followed was not linear as it is illustrated in Figure 2; it involves  
195 several backward and forward loops between the different steps. The feedback loops were  
196 necessary to leverage the knowledge discovered and adjust the data-preparation (i.e. new features  
197 extraction, different pre-processing) and mining phases.

198

[Figure 2]

199 2.2.1 *Support Vector Machines classification and Support vector regression*

200 Support vector machines (SVMs) are a range of supervised non-parametric classification and  
201 regression algorithms that have various applications in several fields including hydrology  
202 (Raghavendra and Deka, 2014), bioinformatics (Byvatov and Schneider, 2003) and wastewater  
203 (Corominas et al., 2018). For instance, in wastewater, support vector regression (SVR) has been  
204 successfully applied to data generated from mechanistic modelling of biological processes (Fang  
205 et al., 2011) or to experimental data (Seshan et al., 2014) to predict reactors' performance.

206 SVM classification and SVR models were constructed to predict the behaviour of dissolved  $N_2O$   
207 production/consumption in different phases of the SBR operation (Figure 2). SVM aims to define  
208 an optimum separating hyperplane in the feature space that maximizes the margin between two  
209 different classes. Classes with large margins are clearly separable and provide a 'safety' for the  
210 generalisation of the algorithm when applied to new points. In practical applications, the  
211 overlapping of a number of data belonging to the two classes, is common. Therefore, soft margins  
212 are introduced to allow a number of misclassifications to identify feasible solutions when the  
213 training dataset is not strictly linearly separable. Similarly, in the SVR case, the aim of the  
214 method is to identify the hyperplane that has the minimum distance to all data points. A complete  
215 description of the SVM and SVR algorithms is provided in the supplementary material. Radial  
216 basis function (RBF) was selected to construct the models in this study. The 'kernel trick' and  
217 enables SVMs to operate even in infinite feature space (where data are mapped), without in  
218 practice executing calculations there (Luts et al., 2010).

219 The algorithms were implemented with the kernlab package (Karatzoglou et al., 2004) in R  
220 software. Repeated 10-fold cross validation (3 repetitions) was applied to select the cost and

221 gamma ( $\gamma$ ) regularization parameters over a grid-search with the caret package (Kuhn, 2008). The  
222 cost determines the penalty of misclassified instances or instances violating the maximal margin  
223 whereas  $\gamma$  determines the amplitude of the kernel. The dataset was randomly divided into test and  
224 train, with 70% of the available data used for training the SVM model and 30% used for testing.

225 In the classification case, over-sampling was applied for the minority classes within the 10-fold  
226 cross validation loop (before training). Local models were developed based on observations from  
227 each phase of the SBR reactor instead of the dataset from the duration of the whole cycle. The  
228 underlying characteristics and dependencies of the operational variables vary between anoxic,  
229 aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Additionally, the performance of the system under different  
230 phases within the cycle can also vary. There are significant benefits in the development of local  
231 phase-based models. The behaviour of dissolved  $N_2O$  and triggering operational conditions vary  
232 between the different phases; local models enable to investigate the phase-based dependency  
233 structures that would not be possible using the whole cycle dataset. The performance of the  
234 classification SVM models were evaluated based on accuracy and kappa and from the sensitivity  
235 and specificity as described in the supplementary material (S3.1). Similarly, the regression  
236 models were evaluated considering the root mean squared error (RMSE) and R-squared ( $R^2$ )  
237 (S3.1).

### 238 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 239 **3.1 SCENA performance**

240 The SBR treats up to 43 kg of N/day of anaerobic supernatant, which results in a volumetric  
241 nitrogen loading rate up to  $0.78 \text{ kgN/m}^3 \text{ day}$ . The performance of the SBR reactor in terms of  
242  $NH_4-N$  removal, was stable during the monitoring campaign. During system's normal operation  
243 (January 2019 - April 2019), the average removal efficiency of  $NH_4-N$ , TN and  $PO_4-P$  was 78%,

244 ~77% and 84% respectively. Influent and effluent concentrations of the SCENA system for the  
245 duration of the monitoring campaign are provided in Table 1. A detailed description of the  
246 abnormal cycles isolated is provided in the supplementary material

247 [Table 1]

### 248 **3.2 N<sub>2</sub>O Emission factor**

249 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were measured using a gas analyser (March – April 2019); on average ~0.8 kg of  
250 N<sub>2</sub>O-N was emitted in each cycle, equivalent to 7.6% of the NH<sub>4</sub>-N load in the SBRR. In terms  
251 of the NH<sub>4</sub>-N removed the N<sub>2</sub>O EF was equal to 11% ( $\pm 4$ ). The emissions during the aerobic  
252 phase were considered. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions exhibited significant variability ranging from 0.14 kg  
253 N<sub>2</sub>O-N/cycle (1.3% of NH<sub>4</sub>-N load) to ~2 kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/cycle (19% of NH<sub>4</sub>-N load) as shown in  
254 Figure 3 (a). Emission peaks higher than 1.5 kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/cycle and the increasing trend observed  
255 close to the end of the monitoring campaign coincide with peaks in the conductivity change in the  
256 aerobic phase of the cycles (Figure 3 (b)). Laboratory analyses performed approximately four  
257 times per week, did not demonstrate any significant changes in the influent COD, NH<sub>4</sub>-N loads  
258 and removal efficiencies linked with the increasing trend of the emissions observed in Figure 3  
259 (a). Given the wide range of the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions observed in the system, in the following sections,  
260 efforts were focused to identify triggering operational conditions.

261 [Figure 3]

### 262 **3.3 Energy consumption vs N<sub>2</sub>O emissions**

263 The operational carbon footprint of the sidestream line was estimated using the direct GHG  
264 emissions (from N<sub>2</sub>O) and electricity consumption. The electricity consumption was relatively  
265 steady over the monitoring period; on average ~5.4 kWh was consumed in the SBR for the  
266 removal of 1 kg of NH<sub>4</sub>-N from the anaerobic supernatant. The average energy consumption of

267 the SBR represented ~77% of the total electricity consumption of the SCENA system. On  
268 average ~48.7 kg of CO<sub>2eq</sub> are generated for the removal of 1 kg of NH<sub>4</sub>-N due to the direct N<sub>2</sub>O  
269 emissions and electricity consumption in the system. The contribution of the total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
270 to the operational carbon footprint of the S.C.E.N.A process ranged from 66.7% to 96.8% when  
271 all the equipment electricity consumption (i.e. fermenter, dynamic thickener) were considered.  
272 Given the variability of the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions observed in the system (Figure 3) the kg of CO<sub>2eq</sub>  
273 emitted per kg of NH<sub>4</sub>-N removed ranged between 9.5 kg CO<sub>2eq</sub> to 117.7 kg CO<sub>2eq</sub>. Figure 4 (a),  
274 shows the average operational carbon footprint (considering direct N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and electricity  
275 consumption) of the SCENA system for two cases with different ranges of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In the  
276 first case (26/03), a considerable amount of N<sub>2</sub>O was emitted, equal to ~10.5% of the influent  
277 NH<sub>4</sub>-N load. In the second case, the emissions were significantly lower, equal to ~4% of the  
278 influent NH<sub>4</sub>-N load. Both cases are characterised by similar influent NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentrations,  
279 phase duration, temperature and ammonia removal efficiencies (~79%). The DO concentration is  
280 equal to ~1 mg/L. In case 1, the operational carbon footprint of the process is ~136% higher  
281 compared to case 2. This example shows that under similar conditions (considering laboratory  
282 analyses, average pH and DO), dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations can vary significantly in the studied  
283 system. Investigation of the behaviour of conductivity during the two aerobic phases, showed  
284 higher conductivity and pH decrease in case one (~ 510 µS/cm and ~1 respectively) compared to  
285 case two (~350 µS/cm and 0.7 respectively) (Figure 4 (b) and (c)). Additionally, the initial  
286 aerobic ORP in case 2, was higher (-43 mV) compared to case 1 (-274 mV) (Figure 4 (b)).  
287 Therefore, efforts to understand the N<sub>2</sub>O triggering operational conditions and mitigate GHG  
288 emissions, should consider the dynamic in-cycle behaviour of the variables monitored in the  
289 system. The relationship between the operational variables (i.e. DO, NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentration, ORP,  
290 conductivity) will be discussed in the following sections.

291 [Figure 4]

### 292 3.4 Variability of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during normal operation

293 N<sub>2</sub>O was emitted during aeration phase in all cycles and correlated significantly with the  
294 dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation. One representative cycle profile for the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O  
295 concentration and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in cycles starting without dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation from the  
296 previous cycle is shown in Figure 5, together with the DO, NH<sub>4</sub>-N, conductivity, ORP and pH.

297 ORP at the beginning of the aerobic phase shows a correlation with the DO, whereas N<sub>2</sub>O  
298 accumulation is minimum. Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O increases in the first 60-70 min of aeration (a small  
299 change in the pH slope can be seen coinciding with the peak of accumulated N<sub>2</sub>O) indicating that  
300 the generated N<sub>2</sub>O generation is higher than the stripped N<sub>2</sub>O. N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation shows a  
301 decreasing trend after ~90 minutes of aeration. Subsequently dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration  
302 increases when aeration stops, and the anoxic phase starts. This shows that production of N<sub>2</sub>O  
303 continues under decreasing DO and until DO depletion. The calibration range of the dissolved  
304 N<sub>2</sub>O probe is between 0 - 2.6 mg/L. Therefore, the accumulation of dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O can be higher  
305 than the peak shown in Figure 5. During the anoxic phase, pH increases rapidly during the dosage  
306 of fermentation liquid, followed by a slow decrease upon the end of carbon dosage phase. A  
307 sudden change in the ORP signal slope ('nitrite knee') indicates the depletion of nitrite whereas  
308 TN still exists in the form of N<sub>2</sub>O. Accumulated N<sub>2</sub>O is subsequently depleted rapidly after NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>  
309 N depletion.

310 [Figure 5]

### 311 3.5 The pattern of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

312 Offline data from laboratory studies and the ranges of the operational variables were analysed in  
313 order to investigate significant changes that contribute to high accumulation of dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O  
314 concentration and high N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

315 Figure 6 (a) shows the daily average dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (coloured points) during  
316 aerobic phase versus conductivity at the end of aerobic phase and the effluent NH<sub>4</sub>-N  
317 concentration. Conductivity is significantly related and can be linked with the NH<sub>4</sub>-N  
318 concentration in the reactor (spearman correlation coefficient equal to 0.97). High average  
319 aerobic dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (>1.5 mg/L) was mainly observed with NH<sub>4</sub>-N  
320 concentrations lower than 150 mg/L and higher than 300 mg/L in the effluent of the SBR.  
321 Additionally, the spearman correlation coefficient between dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O and average aerobic  
322 conductivity decrease rate ( $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}/\text{min}$ ) was equal to -0.7 and N<sub>2</sub>O concentration peaks were  
323 observed for conductivity decrease rate  $> 1.8 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}/\text{min}$ . The latter indicates that higher  
324 emissions occur under high ammonia removal efficiency that can be linked with higher ammonia  
325 oxidation rates (AOR) (i.e. due to pH values observed  $\sim 8$ ) triggering the NH<sub>2</sub>OH oxidation  
326 pathway or higher than average NO<sub>2</sub>-N accumulation (triggering nitrifier denitrification  
327 pathway). Domingo-Félez et al., (2014) found that N<sub>2</sub>O production rates were positively  
328 correlated with the extant nitrification rate in a single-stage nitritation/Anammox reactor.  
329 Similarly, Law et al. (2011) identified a linear relationship between AOR and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in a  
330 partial nitritation SBR reactor treating the reject water from anaerobic digestion. Law et al. (2011)  
331 suggested that is attributed to higher accumulation of the ammonium oxidation intermediates  
332 (hydroxylamine (NH<sub>2</sub>OH) and nitrosyl radical (NOH)) leading to faster N<sub>2</sub>O formation or to the  
333 increased use of electrons reducing nitrite to nitric oxide (nitrifier denitrification pathway) under  
334 low DO concentrations. High nitrite accumulation has been also linked with elevated N<sub>2</sub>O

335 emissions and the nitrifier denitrification pathway, especially under low DO concentrations  
336 (Tallec et al., 2006; Kampschreur et al., 2008; Desloover et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2015; Massara  
337 et al., 2017; Law et al., 2012). For instance, Peng et al. (2017) and Kampschreur et al. (2009), in a  
338 nitritation-denitritation SBR and a full-scale single stage nitritation-Anammox reactor  
339 respectively, identified linear relationship between nitrite accumulation and  $N_2O$  emissions at  
340 DO levels below 1.5 mg/L. Similarly, Tallec et al (2006) in a nitrifying activated sludge observed  
341 eightfold increase of  $N_2O$  emissions with the addition of nitrite pulses (10 mg/L) at DO equal to 1  
342 mg/L. Therefore, both hydroxylamine oxidation and the nitrifier denitrification are possible  
343 during aeration in the investigated SBR.

344 The average dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration during the aerobic phase of different cycles varied  
345 significantly in relation to the average DO concentration. Figure 6 (b), shows that the dissolved  
346  $N_2O$  concentration peaks coincided with average DO concentrations less than 0.9 to 1 mg/L. The  
347 spearman correlation coefficient between dissolved  $N_2O$  and DO concentrations was equal to -  
348 0.7. The coloured points in the Figure, represent the ORP at the end of the aerobic phase; ORP is  
349 higher than 40 mV in the majority of the cycles with average aerobic dissolved  $N_2O$   
350 concentration less than 1 mg/L. Only cycles without dissolved  $N_2O$  accumulation from the  
351 previous anoxic phase are shown in the graph. Stenström et al. (2014) showed decreasing DO  
352 concentrations lower than 1–1.5 mg/L are linked with higher nitrite accumulation and are  
353 positively correlated with  $N_2O$  emissions during nitrification in a full-scale predenitrification-  
354 nitrification SBR treating anaerobic supernatant. Similarly, Pijuan et al., (2014) reported an  
355 increase of  $N_2O$  emissions in a nitritation reactor with the reduction of DO from 4 to <1 mg/L.  
356 During the monitoring period, blowers operated at maximum flow-rate. Therefore, the presence  
357 of residual biodegradable COD concentration in the aerobic, is expected to decrease DO  
358 concentration. Similarly, higher influent  $NH_4^+$  loads or higher ammonia oxidation rates (that can

359 also result in increased  $\text{NO}_2^-$  accumulation) can impact the DO concentration in the system. The  
360 dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentration can be affected by a combination of variables; therefore, it cannot be  
361 deduced that the decreased DO is the sole contributing factor triggering the increased  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
362 generation observed.

363 [Figure 6]

### 364 **3.6 Impact of accumulated $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ in the end of anoxic and anaerobic phase**

365 Several parameters have been reported to affect the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  accumulation under anoxic conditions,  
366 such as the inhibition of the nitrous oxide reductase (Nos) by free nitrous acid (FNA) or high  
367 accumulation of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , the electron competition between electro acceptors and the type of carbon  
368 source (Itokawa et al., 2001; Pan et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2008; Zhu and Chen, 2011).  
369 Additionally, low values of COD/N can result in incomplete denitrification and therefore,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
370 accumulation via the heterotrophic denitrification pathway during the anoxic phase of the SBR.  
371 Accumulated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  in the end of the anoxic phase is stripped in the subsequent cycle, increasing  
372 the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. Caranto et al. (2016) have recently showed that  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  can be the main product  
373 of anaerobic  $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}$  oxidation catalysed by the cytochrome P460 in *N. europaea*. The latter can  
374 be an evidence of the biological  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  generation under limited DO and high  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations,  
375 both conditions occurring in the target system in the during the transition from aerobic to anoxic  
376 phases when  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  accumulation rapidly increases.

377 In this study, the average soluble COD concentration in the fermentation liquid was equal to  
378 13082 mg COD/L over the monitoring period (Table 1). Overall, in >27% of the examined cycles  
379 the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  was completely consumed by the end of the anoxic phase. Zhu and Chen, (2011),  
380 showed that the use of sludge alkaline fermentation as carbon source in an anaerobic-aerobic  
381 system treating high-strength stream, can reduce the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production by up to 68.7% compared to

382 alternative carbon sources (i.e. acetic acid). On the other hand, Li et al., (2013a) in a process  
383 utilizing PHA as internal carbon source, observed higher  $N_2O$  production and reduction rates at  
384 higher influent COD concentrations linked with higher anaerobic PHA synthesis (ranging from  
385 100 to 500 mg/L). The higher  $N_2O$  production rates were attributed to the accumulated  $NO_2^-$   
386 inhibiting the  $N_2O$  reduction.

387 The dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration in the anoxic phase exceeded the calibration limit of the  
388 sensors; only cycles in which “nitrite knee” was observed and  $N_2O$  reduced to values lower than  
389 2.6 mg/L could be investigated. Therefore, the effect on  $NO_2^-$  in anoxic  $N_2O$  generation could not  
390 be studied. However, studies have shown that elevated  $NO_2^-$  concentrations during denitrification  
391 can reduce the denitrification rate and increase the  $N_2O$  accumulation (Schulthess et al., 1995).  
392 The electron competition between nitrite reductase NIR, nitric oxide reductase (NOR) and nitrous  
393 oxide reductase (NOS) is intensified under high  $NO_2^-$  concentrations; NOS is less competitive  
394 under limitation of electron donor and this will result in  $N_2O$  accumulation (Pan et al., 2013; Ren  
395 et al., 2019).

396 Based on the profiles shown in Figure 5 ,  $N_2O$  was always consumed after the depletion of  $NO_2^-$   
397 during denitrification; specifically, dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration decreased after the “nitrite knee”.  
398 Gabarró et al. (2014), studied a partial-nitrification reactor treating landfill leachate, and operated  
399 under alternating aerobic/anoxic conditions to allow heterotrophic denitrification. The authors  
400 demonstrated that significant  $N_2O$  accumulation was observed during anoxic periods.  $NO_2^-$   
401 denitrification rate was higher under both biodegradable COD limiting conditions and after  
402 acetate addition compared to  $N_2O$  reduction;  $N_2O$  reduction rate was maximum after  $NO_2^-$   
403 removal (similar to what was observed in this study). In denitrifying phosphorus removal  
404 processes, Li et al. (2013) showed that the  $N_2O$  accumulation can be higher compared to  
405 conventional denitrification; the authors suggested that in the electron competition between

406 denitrifying enzymes and PHA,  $N_2O$  reductase is less competitive. On the other hand, Ribera-  
407 Guardia et al. (2016) investigated the electron competition during denitrification (PHA as the sole  
408 carbon source) of enriched dPAO and dGAO biomass and found that higher  $N_2O$  accumulation  
409 in the latter culture. Additionally, the last step of denitrification was inhibited in dGAO cultures (  
410  $N_2O$  accumulation up to ~84% of the N-reduced), under high levels of  $NO_2^-$  (~ 15 mgN/gVSS)  
411 whereas  $N_2O$  consumption in dPAO biomass was not affected. Wang et al., (2015) demonstrated  
412 that during denitrifying phosphorus removal, mitigation of  $NO_2^-$  accumulation is possible via  
413 continuous dosage of phosphate and nitrate. Wang et al., (2011), showed that optimisation of the  
414 synthesis of PHA during the anaerobic phase can mitigate the  $N_2O$  production during the anoxic  
415 phase leading to complete denitrification.

416 In the system,  $N_2O$  emissions and dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration at the aerobic phase is strongly  
417 related with incomplete denitrification in the previous cycle. In ~26% of the cycles with incomplete  
418 denitrification, the  $N_2O$  concentration did not decrease below ~2 mg/L in the anaerobic phase and  
419 therefore the stripping of accumulated  $N_2O$  in the subsequent aerobic phase was substantial.  
420 Figure 7 (a) shows representative profiles of the dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration and the  $N_2O$   
421 emissions based on different initial concentrations of  $N_2O$  in the beginning of the aerobic phase.  
422 The profiles of the ORP, DO and pH are comparable in the preseted cycles (Figure 7 (b)). In  
423 cycle B ~0.56 kgN of  $N_2O$  were emitted during the aerobic phase, whereas in cycle A  $N_2O$   
424 emissions are equal to 0.33 kgN (given the duration of these cycles is not equal only 220 min  
425 were considered). The initial dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration in cycles A and B is equal to 0.27 and  
426 >2.6 mg/L respectively. The  $N_2O$  emissions increased significantly due to the accumulated  $N_2O$   
427 at the beginning of the previous anoxic phase that was stripped at the beginning of aeration.

428 Overall, in ~72% of the cycles, the dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration at the beginning of the anaerobic  
429 phase was higher than 0.3 mg/L. In cycles with dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration higher than 0.3

430 mg/L at the beginning of the anaerobic phase, the change in dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration during  
431 the anaerobic phase was highly correlated with the ORP at the beginning of the anaerobic phase.  
432 Additionally, the spearman correlation coefficient between the magnitude of the ORP reduction  
433 and magnitude of the dissolved  $N_2O$  reduction was equal to 0.7. Figure 8 shows the boxplots of  
434 dissolved  $N_2O$  reduction in relation to initial anaerobic ORP and ORP change for two cases: i)  
435 negligible dissolved  $N_2O$  change mainly due to influent dilution or anaerobic dissolved  $N_2O$   
436 concentration  $> 2.6$  mg/L, and ii) occasions with  $N_2O$  reduction during the anaerobic phase. In  
437 Figure 8 (a) only occasions with ORP decrease higher than  $-50$  mV are shown. The presence of  
438 nitrites in the bulk liquid during the (anaerobic) phase affected the ORP.  $NO_2-N$  depletion in the  
439 bulk liquid resulted in a sharp “nitrite knee” in the ORP profile (similar to the one observed  
440 during the anoxic phase. Therefore, higher ORP change was expected in cycles with  $NO_2-N$   
441 depletion and  $N_2O$  consumption during the anaerobic phase.

442

443 [Figure 7]

444 Anaerobic phase term, is used to describe the first operational phase of the SBR (Figure 1) within  
445 each cycle and might not represent the actual conditions in the reactor. For instance, ORP  $\sim -80$   
446 mV in the anaerobic phase of the SBR indicates anoxic conditions, due to residual  $NO_2-N$   
447 concentration from the previous anoxic phase of the reactor.

448 [Figure 8]

### 449 3.7 Prediction and control of $N_2O$ accumulation in the anoxic and anaerobic phases

450 As discussed in section 3.6, the behaviour of ORP was significantly related with the behaviour of  
451  $NO_2^-$  and consequentially of the dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration during the anaerobic phase.  
452 Therefore, in the ANSVM model, features related with the ORP profile were mainly used (Table

453 2). Similarly, there was a strong link with the ORP behaviour and the nitrite “knee” with the N<sub>2</sub>O  
454 accumulation during the anoxic phase. The features considered in ANOXSVN model are shown  
455 in Table 2.

456 [Table 2]

457 The classification matrices for train and test datasets of the ANSVN and ANOXSVN models are  
458 presented in Table 3. The average classification accuracy for the ANOXSVN model, was equal  
459 to 99% and 97% for the test and validation datasets. Similar results were obtained for the  
460 anaerobic phase with 95% and 98% accuracy in the train and test datasets respectively.

461 Jaramillo et al. (2018) developed an SVM classifier to estimate online the end of partial  
462 nitrification in a laboratory aerobic-anoxic SBR based on features extracted from pH and DO  
463 sensors over time-windows, resulting in 7.52% reduction in the operational time. In this study, the  
464 main focus was to estimate offline the behaviour of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions based on historical batch data.  
465 The results from this study indicate that ORP and pH sensor data can be used to detect the  
466 consumption of N<sub>2</sub>O during the nitrification/nitrification in SBR reactors. The results show that  
467 knowledge-based feature-extraction and SVM classification could help in explaining the  
468 behaviour of the system and potentially optimise the control to consider the consumption of  
469 accumulated N<sub>2</sub>O (i.e. in this system the denitrification can be stopped after the local maximum of  
470 the ORP rate after the nitrite “knee” in all the cycles investigated.)

471 [Table 3]

472 Figures 9 (a) and (b) illustrate the predicted and measured N<sub>2</sub>O concentration at the end of the  
473 anaerobic phase (ANSVR model). The SVR parameters were optimised based on the root mean  
474 square error using the train dataset. RMSE of the SVR model was equal to 0.11 and 0.1 mg N<sub>2</sub>O-  
475 N/L for the train and test datasets respectively (R-squared equal to 0.85 and 0.75 respectively).

476 As shown in Figure 9 (b) the simulation results follow the behaviour of the actual dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O  
477 concentrations observed. One of the major factors affecting the performance is the limited  
478 number of data points, but the prediction is still accurate.

479 [Figure 9]

### 480 **3.8 Prediction of the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in aerobic phase**

481 The input features are shown in Table 4 and were selected based on the identified influential  
482 variables. The N<sub>2</sub>O predicted values of the ANSVR model were used (anaerP). The procedure  
483 followed for the selection of model parameters was similar to the respective one followed for the  
484 anaerobic phase. Additionally, ANSVR test dataset cycles, were identified and used in AERSVR  
485 test dataset A. The model was also applied in anaerB cycles (test dataset B).

486 [Table 4]

487 Figure 10 (a), shows the predicted and measured average aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O concentration for the  
488 trained and test datasets. RMSE of the SVR model was equal to 0.06 and 0.11 mg N<sub>2</sub>O-N /L for  
489 the train dataset and test dataset A respectively, whereas the R-squared was equal to 0.94 and  
490 0.82 (Figure 10 (a) and (b)).

491 [Figure 10]

492 The RMSE of the predicted values for the test dataset B, was equal to 0.29 mg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/L and the  
493 R-squared was equal to 0.72 (Figure 10 (a)). The AERSVR model underpredicted the average  
494 dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration of test B dataset. This is expected given that in test B dataset cycles,  
495 the initial aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation exceeds the sensor calibration limit. Therefore, on many  
496 occasions the initial aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation was also underestimated (section 2.2.1 - anaerB  
497 cycles). An example is shown if Figure 11. In cycle A, the average dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration

498 (calculated as discussed in section 2.2.1 for anaerB cycles) is equal to 1.33 mg/L. The AERSVR  
499 model predicted 0.87 mg/L underestimating the actual concentration (considering initial  
500 accumulation equal to 0.6 mg/L). In cycle B, the AERSVR model predicted N<sub>2</sub>O concentration  
501 equal to 0.61 mg/L (considering initial accumulation equal to 0.6); the observed average  
502 dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (after the local minimum), was equal to 0.6 mg/L.

503 [Figure 11]

504 The results show that under the investigated operational conditions, the framework shown in  
505 Figure 2 **Error! Reference source not found.** can provide a good estimation of the real dissolved  
506 N<sub>2</sub>O behaviour and concentration observed during the different phases of SBR operation.  
507 Instabilities in the performance of machine learning models due to changes in the operational  
508 conditions in wastewater bioreactors have been reported in the literature (Shi and Xu, 2018).  
509 Therefore, long-term datasets and investigation of different patterns and dependencies should be  
510 investigated before model construction.

### 511 **3.9 Mitigation strategy**

512 During aerobic phases, elevated average dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was linked with DO less  
513 than 1 mg/L and increased conductivity decrease rates (conductivity values represent NH<sub>4</sub>-N  
514 concentration values in the reactor). Therefore, cycles with increased conductivity decrease rate  
515 indicate higher NH<sub>4</sub>-N removal efficiency and NO<sub>2</sub>-N accumulation. Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O  
516 concentrations lower than 0.6 mg/L were identified in cycles with average DO concentration  
517 equal to ~1.36 mg/L, and conductivity decrease rate > 1.8 μS/cm/min. Increasing the reactor DO  
518 concentration to values higher than 1.3 mg/L can result in decreased aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O generation  
519 (Law et al., 2012). However, with the current anaerobic supernatant feeding strategy, blowers  
520 operate at maximum flowrate, so it is not possible to increase the aeration in the system.

521 On the other hand, the implementation of a step-feeding strategy could foster the reduction of  
522  $N_2O$  emissions thanks to the lower  $NH_4-N$  and free ammonia (FA) concentration at the beginning  
523 of the cycle, which has been recognized as a triggering factor for  $N_2O$  production (Desloover et  
524 al., 2012). Conductivity at the end of the cycle can act as surrogate to estimate the effluent  $NH_4-N$   
525 concentration of the reactor and optimize the anaerobic supernatant feeding load. Consequently,  
526 the aerobic initial  $NH_4-N$  concentration could be controlled to avoid either FA accumulation or  
527 high AOR with subsequent  $N_2O$  generation.

528 Additionally, frequent alternation of aerobic/anoxic phases can be introduced in order to avoid  
529 high nitrite accumulation. The impact of nitrite concentration on  $N_2O$  production can be also  
530 minimized by ensuring adequate DO levels within the reactor to inhibit the nitrifiers  
531 denitrification pathway (Blum et al., 2018; Law et al., 2013). Rodriguez-Caballero et al. (2015)  
532 reported that in a full-scale SBR treating municipal wastewater, intermittent aeration (alternation  
533 between 20–30 min oxic and anoxic) led to a minimization of  $N_2O$  compared to long oxic periods  
534 that enhanced  $N_2O$  emission. The authors related this behaviour to the presence of shorter  
535 aeration times with subsequently lower nitrite accumulation and  $N_2O$  production.

536 In addition, Su et al. (2019) reported that slightly acidic or neutral pH in nitrification reactors (at  
537 values that do not inhibit microbial activity) can decrease  $N_2O$  generation by up to seven times.  
538 Based on the pH profiles observed in this study, regulation of aerobic (alkalinity consumption)  
539 phase duration can be also considered to control the pH at lower levels.

540 The developed models can be used to estimate rapidly and precisely the hard-to-measure  $N_2O$   
541 concentrations during aeration and detect  $N_2O$  accumulation in non-aerated phases. Additionally,  
542 it can alert operators about cycles with anoxic and anaerobic  $N_2O$  accumulation and elevated  
543 aerobic  $N_2O$  concentrations, that require modifications to the system operation. The ANOX SVM

544 model can predict if  $N_2O$  is consumed in anoxic phases or if anoxic duration should be extended.  
545 Thus, additional provision of fermentation liquid can be performed to promote  $N_2O$  consumption  
546 through denitrification, when after 70-90 minutes the anoxic SVM model still indicates incomplete  
547 denitrification.

548 This study provides evidence on the relationship of DO, ORP and conductivity and pH with the  
549 dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration (in terms of correlation coefficients, behaviour and thresholds that  
550 indicate specific ranges of  $N_2O$  accumulation). These findings together with the models  
551 developed in this study, can be the basis for the development of intelligent control algorithms to  
552 integrate emissions control in sidestream SBR reactors performing nitrification/partial nitrification or  
553 other systems similar to S.C.E.N.A. Moreover, features based on ORP, pH, DO and conductivity  
554 measurements in wastewater SBR processes, that can be used to predict dissolved  $N_2O$   
555 concentrations have been identified. The developed framework can be also tested in continuous  
556 processes for the data-driven prediction of  $N_2O$  emissions.

## 557 **Conclusions**

558 Knowledge discovery and data-mining techniques were employed to extract useful information  
559 about the dynamic behaviour of  $N_2O$ , and to predict the behaviour of dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration  
560 in a full-scale SBR reactor treating the anaerobic supernatant. The main conclusions are  
561 summarized as follows:

- 562 • The  $N_2O$  emissions in SCENA process varies from 1.3% to 19% of  $NH_4-N$  load,  
563 therefore they can contribute considerably to the operational carbon footprint of the  
564 process (~90% on average).
- 565 • Average aerobic dissolved  $N_2O$  concentration could significantly under similar influent  
566 loads, DO, pH and removal efficiencies. Extracting information from the dynamic in-

567 cycle behaviour of the variables monitored in the system is a significant step towards  
568 understanding N<sub>2</sub>O behaviour.

569 • Aerobic dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration peaks (>1 mg/L), were observed in cycles with  
570 average DO concentrations less than 0.9-1 mg/L and ORP concentration at the end of the  
571 aerobic phase less than 40 mV. Conductivity was correlated with the reactor NH<sub>4</sub>-N  
572 concentration (0.97). N<sub>2</sub>O peaks were also observed in cycles with elevated decrease of  
573 conductivity during aeration. Step-feeding, control of initial NH<sub>4</sub>-N concentrations and  
574 control of pH via the regulation of aerobic phase duration can mitigate the N<sub>2</sub>O peaks  
575 observed in this study.

576 • The accumulation of N<sub>2</sub>O at the end of the SBR anoxic phase was stripped in the  
577 subsequent aerobic phase and had a significant impact on the amount of N<sub>2</sub>O emitted.  
578 The accumulated N<sub>2</sub>O was consumed rapidly after nitrite 'knee' that was linked with the  
579 nitrite depletion. The ANOX SVM model can be used to detect if anoxic duration should  
580 be extended or additional fermentation liquid provided to enhance N<sub>2</sub>O consumption in  
581 anoxic phases.

582 • This study shows that low-cost sensors, conventionally used to monitor SBR systems (i.e.  
583 pH, DO, ORP), have good capabilities to predict the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O behaviour and  
584 concentrations when couple with knowledge discovery techniques. The AERSVR model,  
585 showed reliable estimations of the aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O concentration and can provide guidance  
586 to WWTPs operators, on whether N<sub>2</sub>O levels are acceptable or mitigation actions are  
587 required.

588 **Acknowledgements**

589 This research was supported by the Horizon 2020 research and innovation program SMART-  
590 Plant (grant agreement No 690323).

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Table 1: Influent and effluent concentrations of the SCENA system

	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>unit</b>	<b>mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>
<b>SBR Influent</b>	NH <sub>4</sub> -N	mg/L	992.5	90
	PO <sub>4</sub> -P	mg/L	30.8	6.9
	pH		8.2	0.2
	sCOD	mg/L	1111.7	562
	Flow-rate	m <sup>3</sup> /d	30 (8.4 per cycle)	2.2
	Gas flow-rate	m <sup>3</sup> /h	450 (170 - 520)	78
	Dimensions	mxmxm	8 x 3.5 x 2.5	
<b>SBR Effluent</b>	NH <sub>4</sub> -N	mg/L	214.7	80.93
	NO <sub>2</sub> -N	mg/L	3.23	9.7
	NO <sub>3</sub> -N	mg/L	0.28	0.34
	PO <sub>4</sub> -P	mg/L	6.78	2.22
	pH		8.04	0.3
<b>SBR Reactor</b>	MLSS	g/L	5.05	0.87
	HRT	d <sup>-1</sup>	1.05	
	SRT	d <sup>-1</sup>	15	
	pH		7.7	0.5
	T	°C	30.02	1.56
<b>Fermentation Unit</b>	NH <sub>4</sub> -N	mg/L	715	72.6
	PO <sub>4</sub> -P	mg/L	86	12
	pH		5.6	0.6
	T	°C	36	5.1
	sCOD	mg/L	13082	2228
	ferm_Hac	mg/L	3250	546
	ferm_HPr	mg/L	2281	588
	ferm_Hbut	mg/L	1347	196
	Flow-rate to SBR	m <sup>3</sup> /cycle	7.45 (~2.41 per cycle)	3.0

Table 2: Features used in the classification algorithm to predict the accumulation of dissolved  $N_2O$  at the end of the anoxic and anaerobic phases

<b>Anaerobic</b>	<b>Anoxic</b>	<b>Anaerobic regression</b>
ORP phase initial	Last ORP value	ORP phase initial
ORP change	ORP change	ORP change
First local maximum ORP first derivative	Mean pH	
Local minimum of ORP first derivative after first local maximum ORP first derivative	Difference between first local maximum (after carbon dosage) and subsequent local minimum of the ORP first derivative	pH phase initial
Duration between first local maximum and subsequent local minimum of the ORP first derivative	Duration of carbon dosage	Time of ORP first derivative minimum/duration of phase
pH phase initial	Duration between first local maximum (after carbon dosage) and subsequent local minimum of the ORP first derivative	Difference between first local maximum and subsequent local minimum of the ORP first derivative
Time local minimum ORP first derivative/Phase duration	Last ORP first derivate	

Table 4: Features selected in the SVR model for the aerobic phase

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<b>Aerobic Features</b>
Average conductivity rate
ORP end of aeration
ORP increase during aeration
Conductivity at the beginning of aeration
Average DO
pH at the beginning of aeration
Conductivity increase (based on the conductivity at the end of the aerobic phase of the previous cycle)
pH change during aeration
Initial aerobic N <sub>2</sub> O concentration (based on ANSVR predictions)

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Table 3: SVM classification results anoxic and anaerobic phases

Phase	Dataset	Misclassified	Sensitivity	Specificity	Accuracy (%)	Kappa	Class
Anoxic phase cycle N	Train	anoxA: 1 anoxB: 0	1	0.99	99	0.97	anoxA: Final dissolved N <sub>2</sub> O concentration end of anoxic < 0.6 mg/L
	Test	anoxA: 1 anoxB: 0	1	0.98	98	0.92	anoxB: Final dissolved N <sub>2</sub> O concentration end of anoxic > 0.6 mg/L
Anaerobic phase cycle N+1	Train	anaerA:2 anaerB: 1	0.98	0.97	97	0.94	anaerA: N <sub>2</sub> O end of anaerobic > 2.6 mg/L
	Test	anaerA: 1 anaerB: 0	1	0.97	98	0.95	anaerB: N <sub>2</sub> O end of anaerobic < 2.6 mg/L

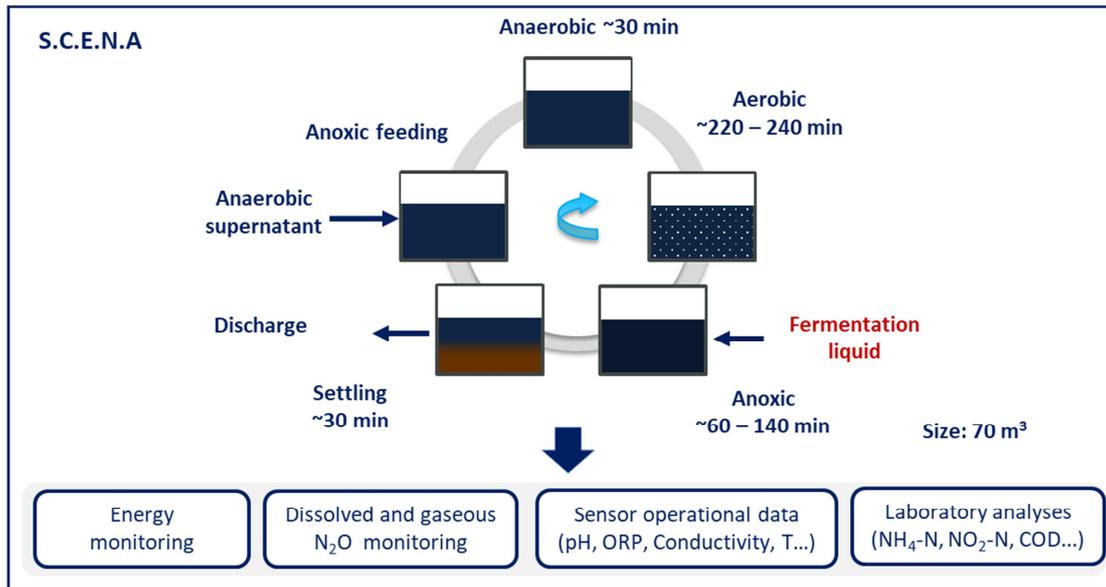


Figure 1: Schematic representation of a complete cycle in the S.C.E.N.A process and datasets used in the analysis

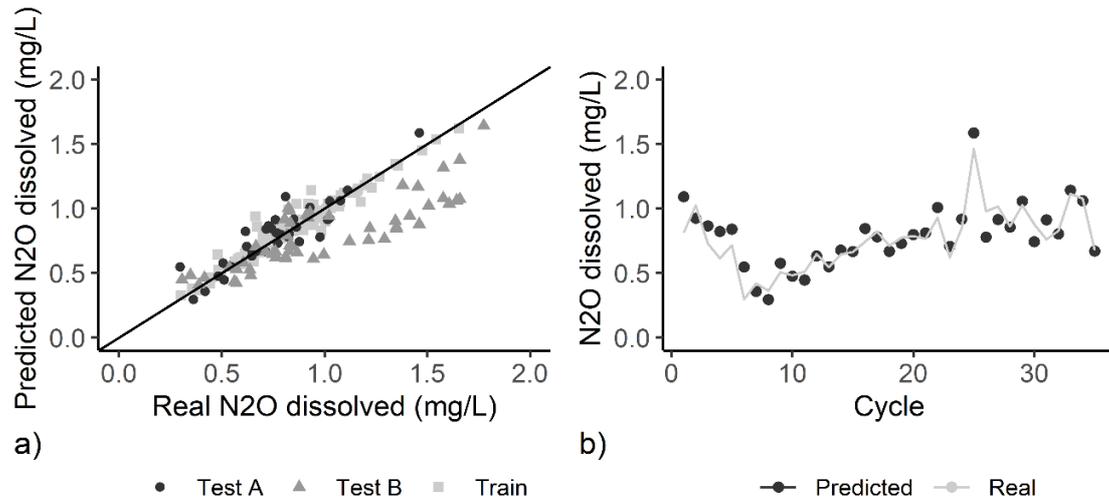


Figure 10: (a) Predicted vs measured dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (AERSVR) in the aerobic phase for the train dataset, the test dataset A and the test dataset B and (b) comparison of predicted and measured dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration for the test dataset B

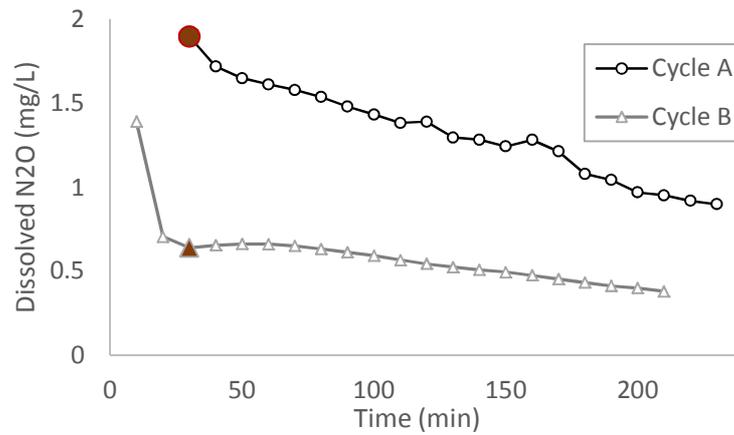


Figure 11: An example of dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O profiles for cycles belonging to anaerB cycles (test dataset B). The red points represent the first point considered for the calculation of the average aerobic N<sub>2</sub>O accumulation (as described in section 2.2.1). Data points in the beginning of aeration exceeding sensor calibration limits are not shown.

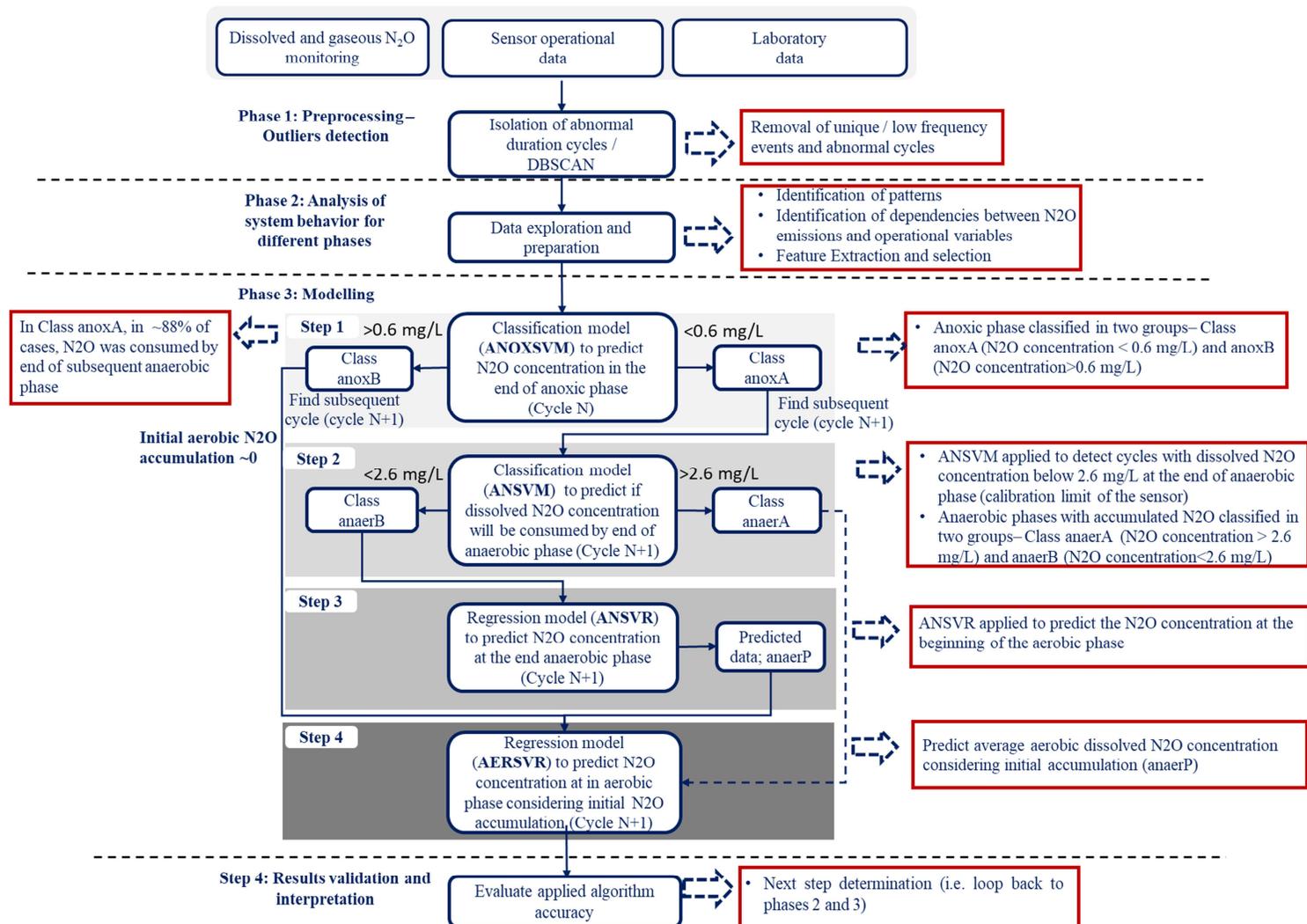


Figure 2: Methodological Framework followed in the study

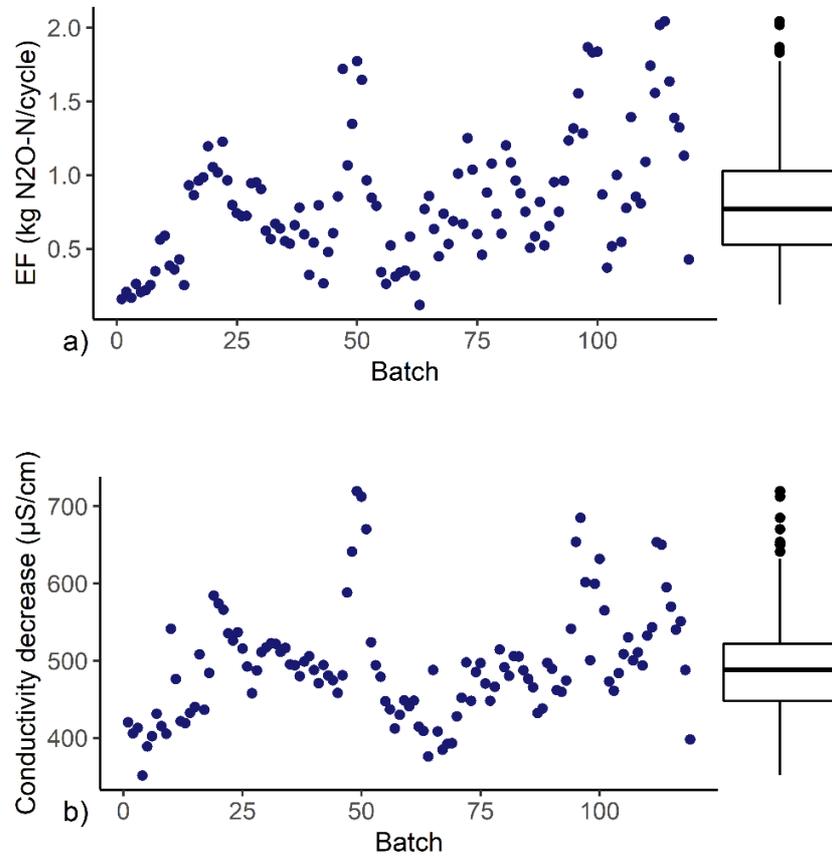


Figure 3: (a)  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions and (b) aerobic phase conductivity decrease, during monitoring campaign (gas analyser, March-April)

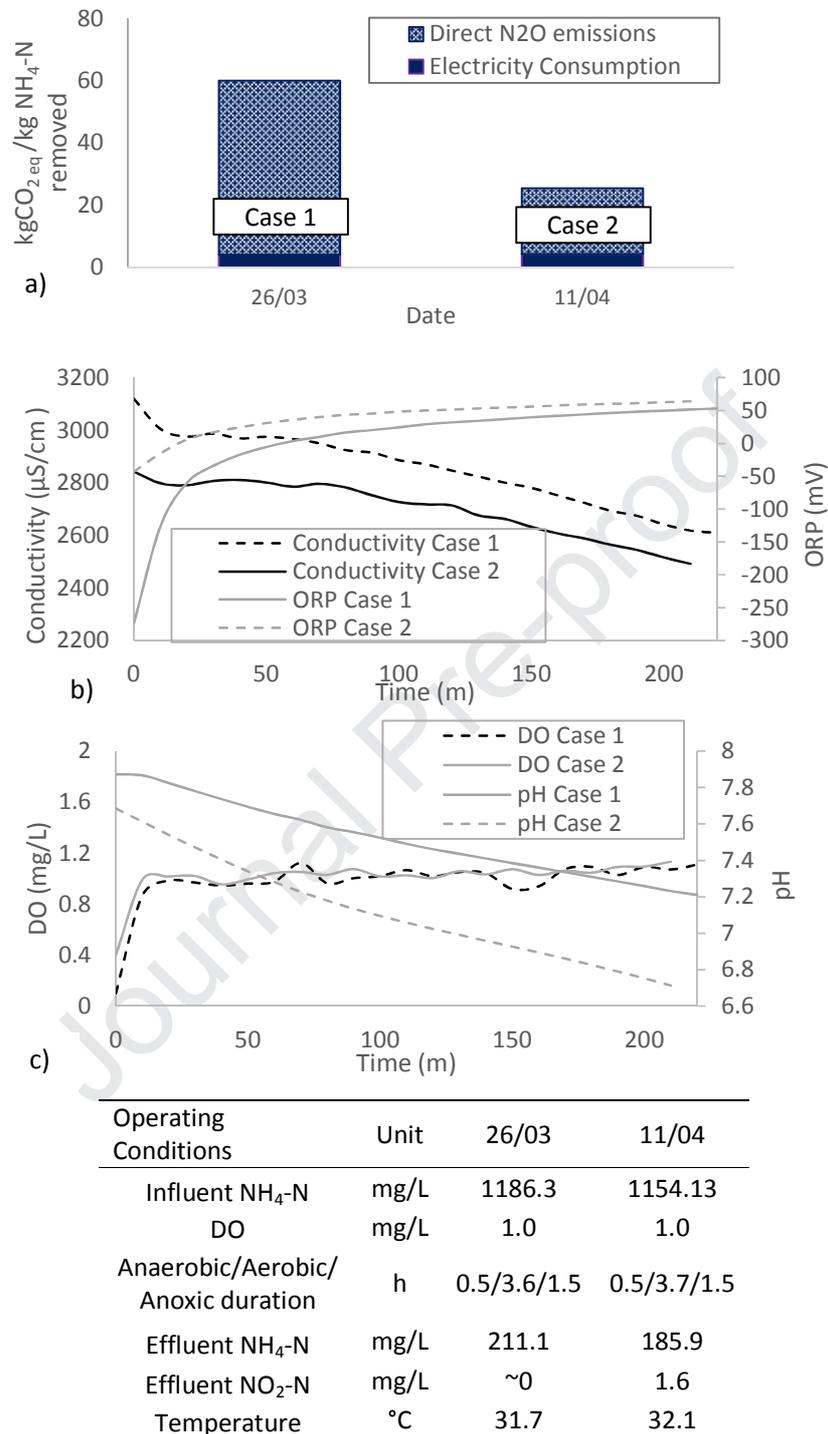


Figure 4: (a) Example of the effect of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in the operational carbon footprint for two cases, (b) aerobic profiles of conductivity, ORP and (c) DO for the two cases shown in (a)

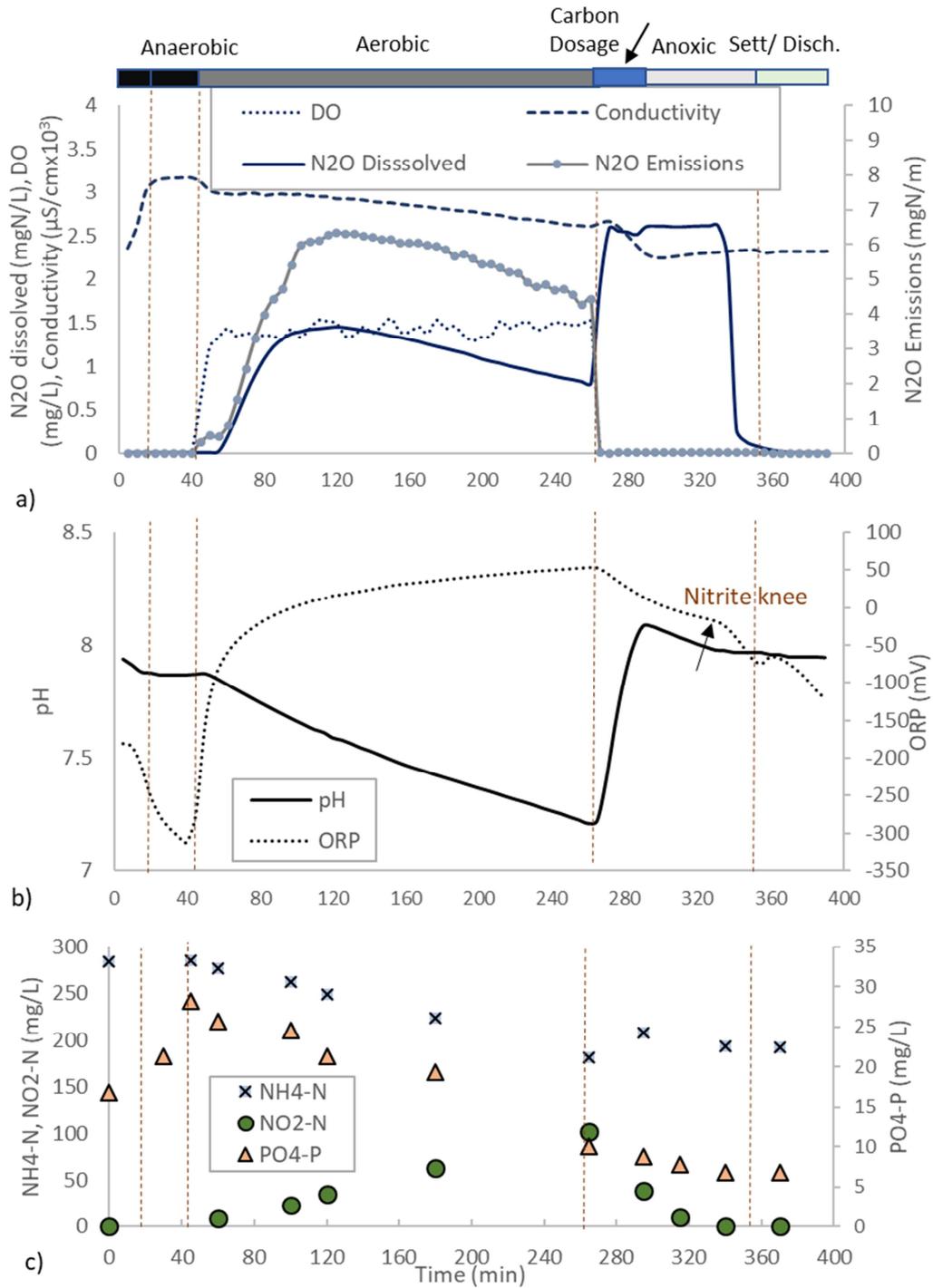


Figure 5: Representative cycle profile for the (a) dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, conductivity, DO, (b) ORP and pH, and (c) NH<sub>4</sub>-N, NO<sub>2</sub>-N and PO<sub>4</sub>-P concentrations

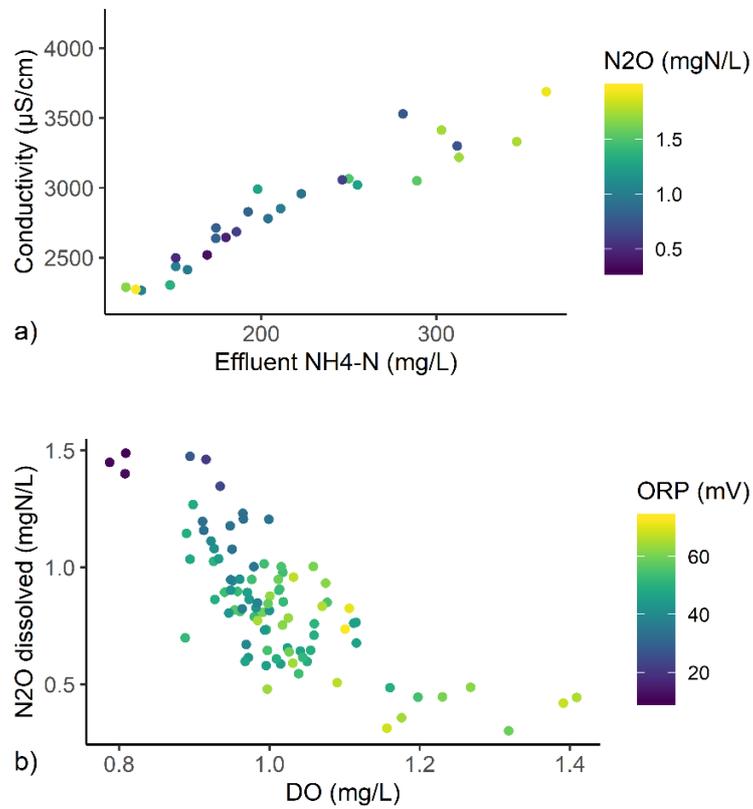


Figure 6: (a) Daily average conductivity at the end of the aerobic phase versus effluent  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  concentration (coloured points: average dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  accumulated in the aerobic phase), (b) Aerobic average accumulated dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  in respect to DO concentration; only cycles without initial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  accumulation from the previous anoxic cycle are shown (coloured points: ORP at the end of the aerobic phase)

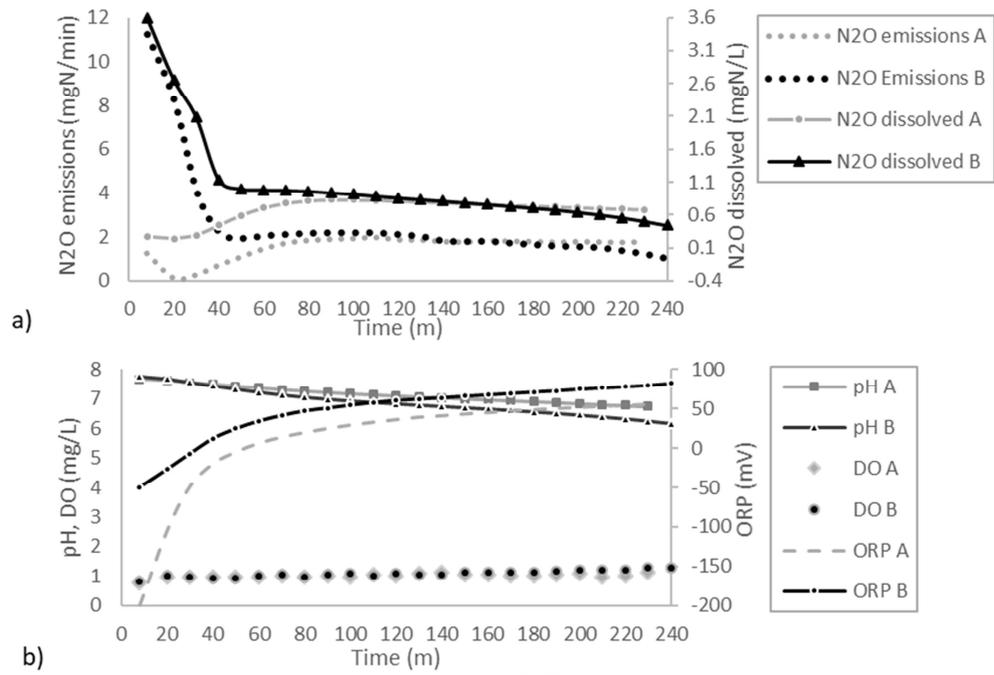


Figure 7: (a) Representative profiles of dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration based on different initial concentrations of N<sub>2</sub>O in the beginning of the aerobic phase and (b) ORP and DO profiles

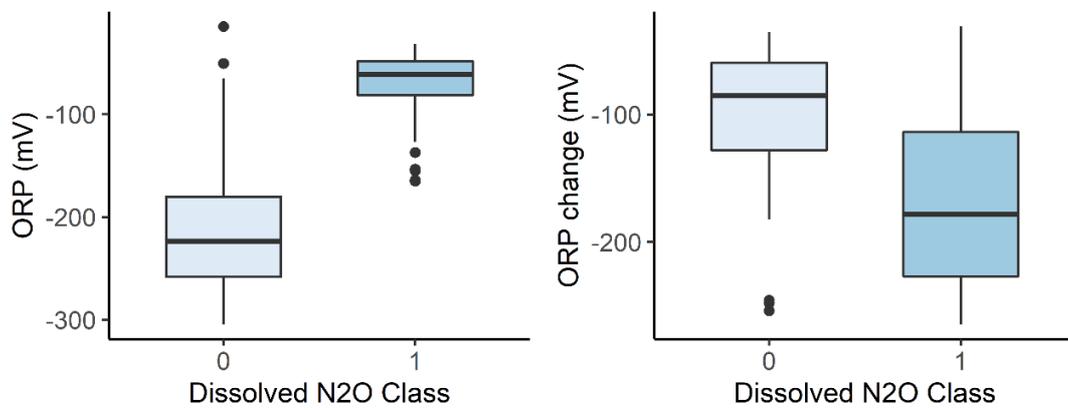


Figure 8: Box-plots of the (a) initial anaerobic ORP and (b) the ORP change during the anaerobic phase for cycles with and without N<sub>2</sub>O consumption (Class 0: no significant N<sub>2</sub>O consumption or anaerobic N<sub>2</sub>O concentration > 2.6 mg/L; Class 2: significant N<sub>2</sub>O consumption)

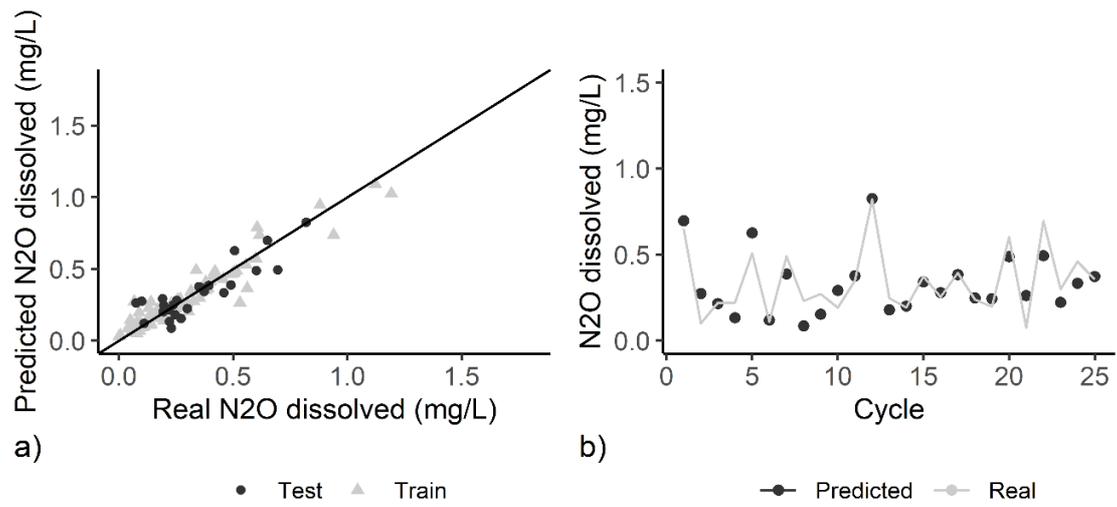


Figure 9: (a) Predicted vs measured dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the end of the anaerobic phase (ANSVR) for the test and train datasets and (b) comparison of predicted and measured dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration for the test dataset

Highlights

- S.C.E.N.A  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions contribute up to 97.3% to the operational carbon footprint
- Stripping of accumulated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  from the previous anoxic cycle increases emissions
- Aerobic dissolved  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentration is correlated with DO and conductivity
- Conductivity can be used to control SBR  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  can be estimated as a latent parameter from other low-cost sensors

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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: