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# Nitrous oxide emissions and carbon footprint of decentralized urine fertilizer production by nitrification and distillation

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#### 19 Abstract

20 Combining partial nitrification, granular activated carbon (GAC) filtration, and distillation is a well-studied 21 approach to convert urine into a fertilizer. To evaluate the environmental sustainability of a technology, the 22 operational carbon footprint and therefore nitrous oxide (N2O) emissions should be known, but N2O emissions 23 from urine nitrification have not been assessed yet. Therefore, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of a decentralized urine nitrification 24 reactor were monitored for one month. During nitrification, 0.4% to 1.2% of the total nitrogen load was emitted 25 as N<sub>2</sub>O-N with an average N<sub>2</sub>O emission factor (EF<sub>N2O</sub>) of 0.7%. Additional N<sub>2</sub>O was produced during anoxic 26 storage between nitrification and GAC filtration with an estimated  $EF_{N20}$  of 0.8%, resulting in an  $EF_{N20}$  of 1.5% 27 for the treatment chain. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during nitrification can be mitigated by 60% through avoiding low 28 dissolved oxygen or anoxic conditions and nitrite concentrations above 5 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>. Minimizing the hydraulic 29 retention time between nitrification and GAC filtration can reduce N<sub>2</sub>O formation during intermediate storage by 30 100%. Overall, the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions accounted for 45% of the operational carbon footprint of 14 kg-CO<sub>2,eq</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup> 31 for the urine fertilizer production. Using electricity from renewable sources and applying the proposed N<sub>2</sub>O 32 mitigation strategies could potentially lower the carbon footprint by 85%.

## 33 Keywords

- 34 Greenhouse gas emissions; Resource recovery; MELiSSA; Nitrite sensor; Digester supernatant
- 35

## 36 Graphical abstract



## 38 **1 Introduction**

39 In developed countries, urine is conventionally mixed with other liquid household waste streams and transported to a centralized wastewater treatment plant (WWTPs), where most of the nitrogen is 40 41 removed by nitrification and denitrification and released into the atmosphere as  $N_2$ .<sup>1</sup> Simultaneously, 42 atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> is converted in the chemical Haber-Bosch process to NH<sub>3</sub> that can be further processed into several nitrogen-based fertilizers, such as urea or ammonium nitrate.<sup>2</sup> An alternative approach is to 43 separate urine at the source and directly produce a fertilizer that can partly substitute synthetic fertilizers 44 and reduces the nitrogen and phosphorus loads to WWTP.<sup>3</sup> This direct recovery and local shortcut of 45 the nitrogen cycle can potentially reduce nutrient emissions to the environment,<sup>4-5</sup> which is important as 46 the global nitrogen and phosphorus cycles have exceeded their safe planetary boundaries.<sup>6</sup> In addition, 47 48 urine source separation is the primary approach in regenerative life support systems for space application such as the Micro-Ecological Life Support System Alternative (MELiSSA).<sup>7-8</sup> 49

One well-studied treatment chain to convert urine into a liquid ammonium nitrate fertilizer is through 50 51 partial nitrification, granular activated carbon (GAC) filtration and distillation. In the system, urea is 52 hydrolyzed to ammonia and then partially oxidized to nitrate<sup>9</sup>. In the GAC, micropollutants are removed<sup>10</sup>, and in the distiller, pathogens are killed and the volume is reduced to produce the fertilizer 53 product<sup>9</sup>. In 2018, this urine fertilizer has been approved by the Swiss Federal Office for Agriculture for 54 55 the fertilization of edible crops (www.vunanexus.com/aurin-fertiliser). To evaluate the environmental 56 sustainability of a technology, life cycle assessments (LCA) on impact categories such as global warming potential, eutrophication potential and acidification potential are required.<sup>11</sup> As a first step, 57 58 estimating the operational carbon footprint allows a simple comparison between different scenarios, 59 with the system boundaries starting at collected urine and ending at a comparable fertilizer.

Daelman et al.<sup>12</sup> showed that direct nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) emissions can be the largest contributor to the carbon footprint of wastewater treatment, accounting for up to 80% of the operational carbon footprint of a WWTP.  $N_2O$  from wastewater treatment is mainly produced by ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) through hydroxylamine oxidation and nitrifier denitrification,<sup>13</sup> and by heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria.<sup>14</sup>  $N_2O$  emissions measured at WWTP are highly dynamic and depend strongly on factors such

as influent characteristics, nitrogen removal efficiency, and stability of nitrification.<sup>15</sup> N<sub>2</sub>O emissions 65 66 are usually reported as emission factors (EF<sub>N2O</sub>) relative to the total nitrogen (TN) load in the influent expressed as [g N<sub>2</sub>O-N g N<sup>-1</sup>] or [%]. For mainstream nitrification in WWTPs,  $EF_{N2O}$  generally range 67 from 0.01 to 2% of the TN load for the majority of the different process groups.<sup>16</sup> For full-scale 68 69 continuous long-term studies, an average EF of 0.9% has recently been suggested for WWTP with 70 nitrification and denitrification,<sup>15</sup> which is lower than the EF<sub>N20</sub> of 1.6% recommended by the updated IPCC guidelines as an assumption for WWTP.<sup>17</sup> The EF<sub>N2O</sub> from sidestream processes are generally 71 considered to be higher ranging from 0.2 to 5.1%, which is among others related to higher ammonia 72 oxidation rate and nitrite accumulation.<sup>16</sup> 73

To our knowledge,  $N_2O$  emissions from urine nitrification have not been studied before. Martin<sup>18</sup>assumed an EF<sub>N2O</sub> of 0.5% for the LCA of urine nitrification, but no N<sub>2</sub>O measurements were made. Other LCAs of urine recovery systems focused on treatment technologies such as reverse osmosis,<sup>19</sup> struvite precipitation,<sup>19-20</sup> ion exchange,<sup>19, 21</sup> and microbial electrolysis,<sup>20</sup> which all were assumed to emit no N<sub>2</sub>O. Only in the case of extended urine storage for hygienization, Spangberg et al.<sup>22</sup> estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of 1% of ammonia nitrogen emitted to the air during collection and storage.

80 Partial urine nitrification has been reported to have high ammonium oxidation rates up to 640 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, high nitrite concentrations (1 to 20 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>) compared to mainstream nitrification 81 and a low chemical oxidation demand (COD) to nitrogen ratio in the influent of about 1 g-COD g-N<sup>-1.9</sup> 82 These are all factors that potentially promote N<sub>2</sub>O production.<sup>23</sup> However, influent concentrations and 83 84 operational temperatures are relatively constant because there is no mixing with storm water and no 85 temperature related seasonality due to the in-building settings. These two factors are potentially leading to lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.<sup>15, 24-25</sup> Since it is difficult to extrapolate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for urine nitrification 86 87 based on reports of municipal wastewater or digester supernatant treatment, in this study, the  $N_2O$ 88 emissions and the carbon footprint of a decentralized urine fertilizer production setup consisting of a 89 nitrification, GAC filtration and distillation were determined. The study had the following three research 90 objectives:

91	•	Quantify the $N_2O$ emissions of urine fertilizer production by partial nitrification, GAC filtration
92		and distillation.
93	•	Determine the influencing factors enhancing $N_2O$ production and emission, and propose
94		mitigation strategies.
95	•	Determine the contribution of $N_2O$ emissions to the operational carbon footprint of urine
96		fertilizer production.

#### 97

## 2 Materials and methods

#### 98

## 2.1 Urine fertilizer production system

99 The investigated treatment system collected urine from more than 100 employees and was located at the 100 Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology (Eawag, Dübendorf, Switzerland). The 101 decentralized treatment system consisted of four steps (Figure 1). First, urea was hydrolyzed to free ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) under anaerobic conditions as described in Udert et al.<sup>26</sup> in two 102 103 1000-L collection tanks with a hydraulic retention time (HRT) of around 26 days (average, data analysis 104 2018 to 2021, SI 1). Subsequently, ammonia was partially oxidized to nitrate in two 120-L nitrification 105 reactors. The nitrification reactors were operated in fed-batch mode with suspended activated sludge. 106 One fed-batch cycle consisted of an aeration phase during which 12 L were fed to the reactor, a settling 107 phase of typically 30 minutes without aeration, and a decant phase of 2 minutes during which 10% of 108 the reactor volume was extracted. No base is added in the partial nitrification process. Instead, the pH is 109 controlled with the urine inflow via a narrow two-position controller. Once the pH reaches the lower 110 setpoint due to protons released during nitrification, the inflow is turned on, causing the pH to increase 111 due to the higher pH and alkalinity in the urine inflow. A faster nitrification rate therefore resulted in higher flow rates. The available alkalinity in urine (~1 mole-Alkalinity mole-N<sup>-1</sup>) is responsible that 112 113 only about 50% of the total ammoniacal nitrogen (TAN =  $NH_3-N + NH_4^+-N$ ) is converted to nitrate 114 nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N), as each nitrified mole of N produces two moles of H<sup>+</sup>. Despite only converting 115 around half of the TAN, ammonia volatilization is prevented because nitrification causes a pH drop so 116 that free ammonia converts virtually fully to non-volatile ammonium. Typically, the pH in the reactor is between 5.8 and 6.7 (5th and 95th percentile, data analysis 2018 to 2021, SI 1). Higher pH setpoints 117 118 can accelerate the nitrification process but can also lead to nitrite accumulation and even partial 119 nitritation.<sup>9</sup> Therefore, the nitrite concentration has to be monitored frequently. After nitrification, the 120 urine was stored in a 500-L intermediate storage tank with a working volume of 200 to 215 L. Once the higher volume level was reached, 15 to 25 L of urine were pumped through the granular activated carbon 121 (GAC) filter, where pharmaceuticals are removed as described by Köpping et al.<sup>10</sup> The effluent was 122

123 stored in 500-L intermediate storage tank with a working volume of 50 to 400 L. Once the higher volume 124 level was reached, 350 L of urine was pumped to a vapor compression vacuum distiller, where pathogens 125 are killed and the nutrients were concentrated by a factor of 10 to 15 as described by Fumasoli, et al.<sup>27</sup>. Because the GAC and the distiller were dimensioned for higher flow rates than the maximum observed 126 127 flow rate of the nitrification, the HRT in the intermediate storage depends on the nitrification rate. The 128 final product of the urine treatment was a liquid ammonium nitrate fertilizer with a nitrogen content 129 (w/w) of roughly 4% (www.vunanexus.com/aurin-fertiliser). If more urine was collected than the 130 treatment capacity of the urine fertilizer production, the excess urine had to be flushed to the wastewater 131 treatment plant.



**Figure 1:** Decentralized urine fertilizer production system consisting of urea hydrolysis, partial nitrification, pharmaceutical removal and distillation.

#### 132 **2.2** N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the nitrification process

The N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the off-gas of one 120-L urine nitrification reactor was measured continuously for one month (5 August 2020 to 7 September 2020) with a resolution of ten seconds. For the measurement, 1 L min<sup>-1</sup> was diverted from the off-gas, dehumidified by cooling, and measured at a controlled and constant temperature of 60°C with a nondispersive infrared sensor (NDIR, X-stream X2GP, Emerson). The airflow ( $Q_{air}$ ) in the nitrification reactor was controlled with a series of mass flow controllers (red-y smart controller GSC, Vögtlin Instruments GmbH). The EF<sub>N2O</sub> [%] was calculated according to **Equation 1**,

140 
$$EF_{N_2O} = \frac{Q_{air} * C_{N_2O-N,off-gas}}{Q_{influent} * C_{TN,influent}} * 100\%$$
(1)

where Qair is the airflow supplied to the nitrification reactor [L min<sup>-1</sup>], C<sub>N2O-N,off-gas</sub> is the N<sub>2</sub>O 141 concentration in the off-gas of the nitrification reactor [mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>], Q<sub>influent</sub> is the pump rate to the 142 143 nitrification reactor [L min<sup>-1</sup>], and C<sub>TN.influent</sub> the TN concentration in the influent [mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>]. C<sub>TN.influent</sub> was estimated based on the TAN measurement in the collection tanks, assuming that the TAN accounts 144 for 90% of the TN in stored urine.<sup>28</sup> In addition, nitric oxide (NO) was measured in a range of 0 ppm to 145 150 ppm during the first half of the measurement campaign using the same NDIR unit as for N<sub>2</sub>O. While 146 147 NO is not used for the carbon footprint, it can provide information on potential N<sub>2</sub>O formation pathways because it is an intermediate in heterotrophic and nitrifier denitrification.<sup>23</sup> 148

149 Usually, N<sub>2</sub>O measurement campaigns should extend over the seasonal variations of at least one year.<sup>29</sup> 150 However, in the investigated system no strong seasonal temperature change patterns (seasonal temperature boxplot, SI 1) or wet-weather related influent fluctuations occur due to the separate in-151 152 house collection of urine. In partial urine nitrification, changes of environmental conditions are primarily 153 induced by the operators. Therefore, the influence of operator-induced environmental conditions was 154 evaluated by testing a range of typical pH setpoints, airflow rates and settling times during the 155 measurement campaign. To determine typical operation conditions for partial urine nitrification, 156 nitrification data from 2018 to 2021 were evaluated (boxplot of operational conditions, SI 1). During 157 the measurement campaign, pH was increased stepwise from 5.75 to 6.45 before decreasing it again. 158 The airflow rate was adjusted to obtain dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations in the range of 0.5 to 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> during the aerated phase. Changing the pH setpoints and the airflow further allowed influencing 159 160 the nitrite concentration in the reactor, as high pH values and low DO concentrations can trigger nitrite accumulation.<sup>9</sup> In this way, nitrite peaks up to 20 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> were targeted in the second half the 161 162 measurement campaign. In addition to the settling time of 30 minutes, two shorter phases of 6 and 15 minutes were tested to determine the influence of the settling time. 163

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#### 166 **2.3** N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from intermediate storage, GAC filtration and distillation

To estimate  $N_2O$  production in the two intermediate storage tanks, liquid  $N_2O$  samples were taken 167 weekly for three weeks (8 January 2021 to 29 January 2021). Because stratification might has occurred 168 169 in the tanks, samples were taken at the same height at which the urine was pumped to the next stage 170 (20 cm above the bottom). The concentrations in the samples therefore represented the effluent 171 concentrations. Samples were also taken simultaneously from both intermediate tanks and the influent 172 and effluent of the GAC filter on a one-time basis on 31 March 2021. No samples were taken from the 173 collection tank because no  $N_2O$  production was expected due to inhibition of nitrification by the high 174 concentration of free ammonia.

175 Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations were determined with headspace gas chromatography as in Woszczyk 176 and Schubert <sup>30</sup>. For this purpose, samples were filled in 120-mL serum bottles, and the pH was increased 177 to pH > 11 with sodium hydroxide to inhibit microbial activity. Back in the laboratory, 30 mL sample 178 aliquots were displaced by adding N<sub>2</sub> gas to create a headspace. The N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the headspace 179 was measured with a GC column (GS Carbonplot 30m x 0.32mm x 3µm, Ref. 113-3133, Agilent 180 Technologies modified by Jasco) with electron capture detection. The measurement device was 181 calibrated with reference gas mixtures from Carbagas for a range of 0.1 to 30 ppm, and the samples were diluted accordingly with N2 to fit within this range. The dissolved N2O concentration was determined 182 using the solubility coefficients of Weiss and  $Price^{31}$  (see equations in SI 2). The measurement 183 184 uncertainty (standard deviation) for the determination of the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was 15%.

185 In addition, storage experiments were performed to investigate the influence of storage duration and 186 nitrite concentration on N<sub>2</sub>O production from partially nitrified urine. The aim was to determine whether 187 and how N<sub>2</sub>O production changes over time during storage. Nitrite was added because the nitrite concentrations in the nitrification effluent can vary between 0.1 to 20 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> and can strongly 188 influence N<sub>2</sub>O production<sup>32</sup>. Therefore, 14 laboratory bottles (500 mL) were filled with effluent from 189 the nitrification reactor with equal ammonium and nitrate concentrations of about 1300 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> and 190 191 nitrite concentrations of about 0.1 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>. Nitrite was spiked to half of them to obtain final 192 concentrations of about 10 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>. One bottle with and one without additional nitrite were harvested every three to four days for three weeks and prepared for headspace gas chromatography. Last but not least, one bottle (500 mL) was filled with effluent from the GAC filter and harvested after one week for headspace gas chromatography. For the distillation, it was assumed, that no N<sub>2</sub>O would be produced or consumed, because the operating temperature of 80°C should be too high for biological N<sub>2</sub>O production or consumption and too low for abiotic N<sub>2</sub>O processes such as thermal decomposition.<sup>33</sup> Instead, all dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O is expected to be stripped during distillation process at the latest. Therefore, the EF was derived from the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration according to **Equation 2**,

200 
$$EF_{N_2O} = \frac{C_{N_2O-N}}{C_{TN}} * 100\%$$
(2)

where  $C_{N20-N}$  is the concentration of dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O [mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>]. For the EF<sub>N20</sub> during intermediate storage, TN concentration in the solution  $C_{TN}$  was used [mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>] instead of the TN concentration in the influent because no influent measurement was available during this period. Nitrogen losses between the influent and the storage tanks should be small.<sup>34</sup> Here, TN was simplified as the sum of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and N<sub>2</sub>O-N.

#### 206 **2.4 Analytical methods**

207 Samples for the analyses of cations (ammonium, potassium, sodium, calcium and magnesium) and 208 anions (nitrate, phosphate, sulfate and chloride) were filtered through a 0.45 µm GF/PET filter 209 (Chromafil, Macherey-Nagel) and measured with ion chromatography (881 compact IC pro, Metrohm). 210 Nitrite and dissolved COD were measured with spectrophotometric cuvette tests (LCK 341 resp. 211 LCK114, Hach Lange GmbH) using a spectrophotometer from Hach Lange GmbH (DR 2800, Hach 212 Lange GmbH). Total suspended solids and volatile suspend solids were measured according to APHA 213 (2012) standard protocols. An optical oxygen sensor (Oxymax COS61D, Endress+Hauser) was used to 214 measure DO, and pH (Orbisint CPS11D, Endress+Hauser) was measured continuously and calibrated 215 weekly. An electrochemical sensor enabled online measurements of nitrite during the second half of the measurement campaign.<sup>35</sup> The sensor was calibrated *in situ* with offline nitrite measurements, and a new 216

calibration curve was generated every time the sensor was cleaned, which was at least every week (see
SI 3 for calibration curves).

#### 219 **2.5 Operational carbon footprint calculation**

220 The direct N<sub>2</sub>O and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions, and the indirect carbon footprint of the electricity demand 221 were considered for the operational carbon footprint of the urine fertilizer production. Direct carbon 222 dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emissions from the nitrification reactor were measured during the second half of the measurement campaign, but following the IPCC guidelines,<sup>36</sup> they were not taken into account for the 223 224 footprint calculation because they are considered biogenic. Continuous CH<sub>4</sub> off-gas measurements 225 during nitrification were conducted during two weeks with the same measurement setup as for N2O with a measurement range of 0 to 500 ppm. In addition, grab samples from the headspace of the collection 226 227 tanks were analyzed by NDIR to determine if considerable amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> were released in the 228 anaerobic collection tanks. For the air exchange of the collection tanks with the environment, it was assumed that the tanks are half full on average and that the entire headspace is exchanged once a day, 229 resulting in an air leakage of 1000 L d<sup>-1</sup>. A global warming potential of 265 g-CO<sub>2.eq</sub> g-N<sub>2</sub>O<sup>-1</sup> and 230 28 g-CO<sub>2.eq</sub> g-CH<sub>4</sub><sup>-1</sup> was applied according to the IPCC assessment report 5<sup>37</sup> for a 100-year period. 231

232 For the energy demand, the distiller, the aeration system, pumps and the process control were considered (Table 1). According to Fumasoli et al.<sup>27</sup>, the energy demand of the distiller, including pumping, was 233 234 31 kWh kg-N<sup>-1</sup> when related to the total nitrogen in the influent of the nitrification. Since compressed 235 air from a central facility was used for the aeration of the nitrification reactor, the energy demand could 236 not be measured. Instead, the aeration from another urine fertilizer production system (three 300-L fed-237 batch reactors, UrinExpress, www.vuna.ch/en/urin-recycling-technologie) was used and scaled 238 according to the average airflow rate and the reactor height. For consistency, the energy demand of the 239 two remaining pumps and the process control system were also taken from the UrinExpress. More details 240 can be found in the SI 4.

Table 1: Energy demand in [Wh  $L_{urine}^{-1}$ ] and [kWh kg-N<sup>-1</sup>] for the distiller, aeration, pumping and process

control.

	[Wh L <sub>urine</sub> <sup>-1</sup> ]	[kWh kg-N <sup>-1</sup> ]	Source
Distiller	107	31	Fumasoli et al. <sup>27</sup>
Aeration	5.9	1.7	UrinExpress, own data
Pumping	3.2	0.9	UrinExpress, own data
Process control	3.2	0.9	UrinExpress, own data

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A European electricity mix of 230 g- $CO_{2,eq}$  kWh<sup>-1</sup> was used for the measurement campaign.<sup>38</sup> To investigate the impact of a greener energy mix, a fictional renewable energy production scenario was used consisting of 50% onshore wind and 50% photovoltaic, resulting in a specific CO<sub>2</sub> emission of 26 g- $CO_{2,eq}$  kWh<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>37</sup>

248 Monte Carlo simulations were performed to analyze the uncertainty of the carbon footprint. The standard 249 deviations of the parameter values were estimated or calculated and 10'000 simulations were run to 250 determine the standard deviation of the operational carbon footprint. For the N<sub>2</sub>O and the CH<sub>4</sub> from the 251 nitrification, the standard deviation observed during the measurement campaign was used, and it was 252 assumed that the uncertainty of the measurement device was negligible. For the  $N_2O$  from the 253 intermediate storage, the standard deviation of the storage durations observed during the main 254 measurement campaign, and the measurement uncertainty of the headspace gas chromatography method 255 were considered. For the CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from the collection tanks, the standard deviation of the 256 measured concentration and an uncertainty for the air exchange rate was included. The standard 257 deviation of the distiller was included according Fumasoli, et al. 27, taking also into account the different 258 TN concentrations during the measurement campaign. Since the aeration, pumping and process control 259 had only a minor impact on the operational carbon footprint, a general standard deviation of 50% was 260 considered for all of them.

#### 262 **3 Results**

#### 263 **3.1 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during nitrification**

The average  $EF_{N20}$  for the nitrification over the whole measurement campaign was 0.7  $\pm$  0.2% of the 264 265 TN load. The  $EF_{N20}$  per fed-batch cycle varied between 0.4% and 1.2% of the TN load, and no diurnal 266 patterns were found Figure 2A). Instead, the settling time had a strong influence on the  $EF_{N2O}$ . A 267 temporary reduction in settling time from 30 minutes to 15 minutes on day 5, while maintaining all other operational variables, led to a reduction in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of 40%, which was reversible once the settling 268 269 time was increased again. In the second half of the measurement campaign, the settling time was 270 permanently reduced to 6 minutes based on the minimally required sludge settling duration (settling 271 curve in SI 5), which again led to a decrease in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.



Figure 2: Performance and settings of the nitrification reactor during the measurement campaign. (A) N<sub>2</sub>O
 emission factor (EF<sub>N2O</sub>) and duration of settling phase. (B) pH and volumetric nitrification rate. (C) Concentrations

of the major soluble nitrogen compounds. (D) Dissolved oxygen (DO) and temperature. A statistical overview of
all measured variables can be found in the SI 6.

A wide range of typical environmental conditions for urine nitrification was covered during the measurement campaign (**Figure 2B to 2D**). Higher pH generally resulted in higher nitrification rates with a mean of 860 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. Due to the stable influent composition with TN concentrations of around 3500 mg N L<sup>-1</sup>, the ammonium and nitrate concentrations in the reactor were fairly constant around 1750 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>. Nitrite peaks up to 20 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> were triggered either by a temporary increase in pH setpoints or a decrease in airflow leading to DO concentrations as low as 0.4 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the second half of the measurement campaign. Temperature was fairly constant with a standard deviation of  $0.4^{\circ}$ C.



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Figure 3: N<sub>2</sub>O off-gas load within a fed-batch cycle for two different settling times. The dissolved oxygen (DO)
 concentration indicates the start and end of the settling and decant phase.

Within a fed-batch cycle, a significant N<sub>2</sub>O peak occurred always after the settling and decant phase, accounting for up to 85% of the emission during a fed-batch cycle with a settling time of 30 minutes (**Figure 3**). Within less than one hour, the emissions returned to the level prior to the settling phase. A shorter settling time of 15 minutes resulted in a smaller peak in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and thus lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions per fed-batch cycle, which explains the influence of the settling time. For NO, a high emission peak was also observed at the beginning of the aeration phase (NO emissions during a fed-batch cycle in **SI 7**). For further analysis, the characteristic N<sub>2</sub>O peak in the first hour after the decant phase was separated from the rest of the aerated phase for every fed-batch cycle (see **SI 8** for data processing). Overall, the peaks at the beginning of each aeration phase were responsible for 55% of the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the entire measurement campaign. The strongest correlation with the N<sub>2</sub>O peaks was found for the settling time with a Pearson's correlation coefficient of r = 0.89 (p < 0.05) (correlations plots in **SI 9**).



300 Figure 4: N<sub>2</sub>O emissions attributed to the aerobic activity during nitrification (excluding the emission peak in the 301 first hour after re-aeration). Only the data of the measurement campaign with the online nitrite sensor are shown.

302 A strong increase in the nitrite concentration always went along with an increase in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions 303 during the aerated phase of the fed-batch cycle (Figure 4). The Pearson correlation coefficient of 304 r = 0.84 (p < 0.05) for the nitrite relative to the N<sub>2</sub>O load was the highest correlation found for all 305 investigated variables (correlation plots in SI 10). A moderate correlation of r = 0.53 (p < 0.05) remained 306 for nitrite if the Pearson coefficient was calculated for the EF<sub>N2O</sub>. DO levels also affected N<sub>2</sub>O emissions 307 during the aerated phase. Over the entire measurement campaign, the  $EF_{N20}$  and the DO concentration 308 showed a moderate negative correlation of r = -0.45 (p < 0.05), and especially DO concentrations below 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> seem to increase N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. A temporary decrease of DO from 3 mg L<sup>-1</sup> to 1.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on 309 310 day 10 led to an increase of  $N_2O$  by more than a factor of 10, which was reversible once the DO was 311 increased again (DO experiment in SI 11).

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#### 313 **3.2** N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from intermediate storage, GAC filtration and distillation

Dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations of up to 90 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>, representing 3.4% of the dissolved TN, were found 314 315 in the first intermediate storage between nitrification and GAC filtration (Figure 5A). The  $N_2O$  fraction had a strong linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.83$ ) with the HRT in the storage tank (linear regression in SI 12). 316 317 N<sub>2</sub>O fractions were considerably lower in the second intermediate storage between GAC filtration and 318 distillation. Grab samples from the first intermediate storage, the influent and the effluent of the GAC, 319 and the second intermediate storage showed that the N<sub>2</sub>O fraction did not change during GAC filtration 320 (measurement in SI 13). The lower N<sub>2</sub>O fraction in the intermediate storage between the GAC filter and 321 the distiller must therefore be due to processes in this tank itself and are not a result of biological 322 processes in the GAC filter.



Figure 5: N<sub>2</sub>O production during intermediate storage after nitrification and GAC filtration. (A) Grab samples
 from the intermediate storage. (B) Bottle experiment with nitrification effluent and GAC filtration effluent.

Nitrite concentrations did not influence  $N_2O$  production during intermediate storage (**Figure 5B**). The addition of 10 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> had a negligible effect in the bottle experiment with the nitrification effluent. The N<sub>2</sub>O fraction in the effluent of the nitrification reactor were 0.01% of the dissolved TN after a settling time of 6 minutes, but increased up to 2.9% of the dissolved TN within three weeks. In contrast, the N<sub>2</sub>O in the effluent of the GAC increased only slightly within one week. The measurement campaign for the intermediate storage and the GAC were conducted during a period of comparatively low flow rates due to the limited availability of fresh urine. To obtain a representative EF<sub>N2O</sub> for the main measurement campaign, the N<sub>2</sub>O fraction was estimated using the above mentioned linear relationship between the N<sub>2</sub>O fraction and the HRT. Based on the average HRT of 1.7 days during the main measurement campaign, a dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O fraction of 0.8  $\pm$  0.3% of the dissolved TN was estimated for the first intermediate storage.

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## **3.3** Operational carbon footprint

338 the operational carbon footprint during the main measurement campaign was Overall,  $14.3 \pm 2.5$  kg-CO<sub>2,eq</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup> using the European electricity mix, with N<sub>2</sub>O accounting for about 45% of 339 carbon footprint (Figure 6). For N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during intermediate storage, the estimated EF<sub>N2O</sub> of 340  $0.8 \pm 0.3\%$  was used, assuming that all dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O from the first intermediate storage is volatilized 341 342 at the latest in the distiller and that no N<sub>2</sub>O is produced after GAC filtration. The distillation process was 343 the largest contributor to the carbon footprint. In contrast, the carbon footprint of the aeration, pumps 344 and process control accounted for only a small portion of the total footprint (see details of energy 345 calculation in SI 4). Direct  $CH_4$  emissions were also negligible, with a carbon equivalent of  $0.02 \pm 0.01 \text{ kg-CO}_{2,eq}$  kg-N<sup>-1</sup> for 346 the collection tanks (details in SI 14) and of  $0.07 \pm 0.03$  kg-CO<sub>2.eq</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup> (timeline in SI 15) for the nitrification. Direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the 347 348 biological process had a strong linear relationship with the nitrogen in the influent, with a ratio of 349  $2 \text{ kg-CO}_2 \text{ kg-N}^{-1}$  (timeline in **SI 16**), but because direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are biogenic, they were not 350 included in the carbon footprint calculation.



Figure 6: Operational carbon footprint for the measurement campaign using a European electricity mix, a  $N_2O$ mitigation scenario, a green energy mix scenario, and a combination of both scenarios. Error bars represent  $\pm$  one standard deviation. A table with all values including the uncertainties can be found in SI 17.

355 To investigate the influence of potential carbon reduction strategies, different scenarios were compared 356 (Figure 6). In the N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation scenario, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during nitrification were assumed to be reduced by completely avoiding periods without aeration and by keeping nitrite concentrations below 357 358 5 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> resulting in an EF<sub>N2O</sub> of  $0.26 \pm 0.13\%$  of the nitrogen load (timeline in SI 18). Furthermore, it was assumed that the  $N_2O$  emissions from intermediate storage can be completely avoided by directly 359 360 feeding the GAC filter. This is possible if the GAC loading capacity is higher than the observed 361 maximum loading rate to the nitrification, as it was the case for the measurement campaign. In the green 362 energy mix scenario, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions remained unchanged, and the current European electricity mix was 363 replaced with the green energy mix. Last but not least, both reduction strategies were combined. The N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation scenario and the green energy mix scenario strongly reduced the carbon footprint by 364 about 35% to 9.2  $\pm$  2.2 kg-CO<sub>2,eq</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup> and 50% to 7.2  $\pm$  1.3 kg-CO<sub>2,eq</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. A 365 combination of both strongly reduced the carbon footprint by 85% down to  $2.1 \pm 0.6$  kg-CO<sub>2.ea</sub> kg-N<sup>-1</sup>. 366

## 367 **4 Discussion**

#### 368 4.1 Sources and influencing factors of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

The average  $EF_{N20}$  of 0.7% for urine nitrification falls well within the range of 0.01% to 2% suggested for mainstream nitrification processes,<sup>16</sup> and is lower than the average  $EF_{N20}$  of 1.9% reported by Gruber et al.<sup>15</sup> for three long-term measurement campaign of mainstream nitrification. Comparing urine nitrification with the treatment of digester supernatant, which is more similar in terms of concentrations, the measured  $EF_{N20}$  is even at the lower end of the range from 0.2% to 5.1% reported for sidestream reactors.<sup>16</sup>

375 DO and nitrite were identified as the most important factors influencing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during 376 nitrification. In particular, long anoxic phases or phases with very low DO (e.g. settling phase) lead to 377 high N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The strong dependence of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the settling time indicates that N<sub>2</sub>O 378 was mostly produced during the unaerated phases and then was stripped once aeration started, resulting 379 in a dominant N<sub>2</sub>O peak. Similar N<sub>2</sub>O peaks in the beginning of the aerated phase were also observed by Stenstrom et al.<sup>39</sup> for sidestream nitrification and denitrification or by Gabarro et al.<sup>40</sup> for partial 380 381 nitritation of as landfill leachate. Nitrifier denitrification or heterotrophic denitrification are presumably 382 the predominant pathways during the settling and decant phase, also indicated by the peak in NO concentration, which is an intermediate of the denitrification pathways.<sup>41</sup> High N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during 383 384 the aerated phase were concomitantly observed with high nitrite concentrations in the reactor. This 385 positive correlation between nitrite concentration and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions has been shown in several other publications.<sup>32, 42</sup> As the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the aerated phase correlated with the nitrite 386 387 concentrations, a nitrifier denitrification or heterotrophic denitrification pathway is very likely.<sup>16</sup>

388 The  $EF_{N2O}$  in the intermediate storage after the nitrification was estimated to 0.8%, which more than 389 doubled the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of the overall treatment chain. During periods of very low flow rates, either 390 due to limited urine availability or slow nitrification rates, N<sub>2</sub>O production from the intermediate storage 391 would be even higher. Significant N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are known to occur in secondary clarifiers of 392 WWTP,<sup>43-44</sup> but the emissions from the second clarifiers strongly correlated with the emissions from the biological treatment, indicating that the  $N_2O$  from WWTP secondary clarifiers was already produced in the biological nitrification and denitrification step. In contrast, the dissolved  $N_2O$  measurements from the urine treatment chain clearly showed that the  $N_2O$  was produced during intermediate storage.

396 The HRT in the intermediate storage between nitrification and GAC filtration was identified to be the 397 most important factor for N<sub>2</sub>O production. Similar to the settling and decant phases, DO concentrations 398 were very low in the intermediate storage, which most likely led to nitrifier denitrification and 399 heterotrophic denitrification. Although the biomass concentration in the storage tank is much lower than 400 in the reactor, the longer retention time of at least one day compared to the settling time of max. 401 30 minutes led to high N<sub>2</sub>O production. After the GAC filtration the N<sub>2</sub>O production seems to stop (see 402 Figure 5B), which could be related to the removal of residual COD or removal of active biomass in the filter.<sup>10</sup> In the second intermediate storage the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was around 80% lower than in the first 403 404 intermediate storage. Since no removal was observed in the GAC, and the bottle experiment with the 405 GAC effluent did not reveal any N<sub>2</sub>O sink due to denitrification, it is very likely that the decrease in 406 N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the second intermediate storage was caused by N<sub>2</sub>O volatilization. Although the 407 tank was covered, a liquid-air exchange of around 350 L occurred each time the distillation was turned 408 on, which increased N<sub>2</sub>O volatilization. N<sub>2</sub>O most likely also volatilized in the first intermediate storage 409 tank, but the volatilization should be much lower because the volume was more constant and therefore 410 less liquid-air exchange occurred. Nevertheless, further studies would be needed to determine the 411 amount of N<sub>2</sub>O leaking from the intermediate storage and the exact cause of the lower N<sub>2</sub>O concentration 412 in the second intermediate storage.

The emission factor for the whole urine fertilizer production was estimated at 1.5%. For comparison, Gruber (2021)<sup>15</sup> calculated an emission factor of 2% for a model WWTP where 60% of emissions came from from the mainstream nitrification and denitrification and secondary clarifier, and 40% from the sidestream treatment and sludge incineration.

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#### 419 **4.2** N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation strategies

420 Anoxic conditions and conditions with very low DO must be avoided during urine nitrification, e.g. by 421 reducing the settling time during the fed-batch cycle as shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3. If the settling 422 time is reduced, the time in which  $N_2O$  can be produced is reduced. However, the minimum settling 423 time must be chosen based on the sludge settling characteristics to avoid undesirable biomass loss. A 424 settling time around 6 minutes, as applied in this study, should be appropriate. Another option is to 425 operate a reactor setup without a settling phase, such as a membrane bioreactor (MBR) or a biofilm 426 system. However, system changes require additional studies on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, because other pathways 427 of N<sub>2</sub>O formation could occur. The use of biofilm-based nitrification systems could result in anoxic zones within the biofilm and promote denitrification and N<sub>2</sub>O production.<sup>45</sup> Based on this study, the DO 428 429 concentration during the aerated phase should probably be maintained above 2 mg  $L^{-1}$ . Similar guidelines have been proposed for centralized wastewater treatment,<sup>23</sup> but while DO concentrations 430 above 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> are difficult to achieve in mainstream treatment, high DO concentrations during urine 431 432 nitrification are feasible.

433 In partial urine nitrification, high nitrite concentrations can be avoided by controlling nitrification using continuous nitrite monitoring with an electrochemical nitrite sensor as proposed in Britschgi et al.<sup>35</sup>) or 434 with ultraviolet spectrophotometry.<sup>46</sup> Based on this study, an upper limit for nitrite of 5 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> might 435 be suitable, which is more conservative than the upper limit of 12 to 30 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> proposed by Britschgi 436 437 et al.<sup>35</sup> for stable partial urine nitrification, or the upper limit of 20 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup> applied during the 438 measurement campaign. Another approach to mitigate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions might be to separate the treatment 439 of organics from nitrification. This could reduce the abundance of heterotrophic bacteria and of soluble 440 organics in the reactor, thus reducing denitrification. Degradation of organics prior to urine nitrification 441 has been tested<sup>47</sup>), but the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from these systems have yet to be determined. In the long 442 term, off-gas treatment could become an option since the off-gas can be easily captured, but cheap and 443 suitable catalysts for decentralized treatment are not yet available.

444 To mitigate  $N_2O$  production during intermediate storage, the storage duration before GAC filtration 445 should be minimized. The most effective way to do this, would be to reduce the working volume of the 446 storage tank prior to the GAC filter or to directly feed the GAC filter, which could potentially fully 447 mitigate the N<sub>2</sub>O production during intermediate storage. This is possible as long as the maximum 448 observed flow rate in the nitrification is less than the dimensioned flow rate through the GAC column, as it was the case in the studied urine fertilizer production. In addition, biomass overflow from the 449 450 nitrification step should be minimized, as this adds active biomass and organic substrate to the storage 451 tank. While a longer settling time would result in a better solid-liquid separation and therefore less 452 biomass overflow, it would also result in higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during nitrification, so a different 453 approach should be taken to minimize the amount of biomass in the storage tank. For example, the 454 biomass at the bottom of the storage tank could be pumped back to the nitrification reactor, or biomass 455 could be retained in the reactor using a MBR, with the added benefit of avoiding anoxic conditions in 456 the bioreactor. Another option would be to slightly aerate the storage tank to avoid anoxic conditions, 457 but this could lead to a drop in pH and the release of harmful NO due the growth of acid-tolerant AOB.<sup>48</sup> 458 Especially for life support systems in space,  $N_2O$  and NO emissions need to be minimized because they 459 can become a potential health hazards in closed systems.<sup>7</sup>

#### 460 **4.3 Carbon footprint of urine fertilizer production**

461 Direct  $N_2O$  emissions and indirect  $CO_2$  emissions from the distiller are the main contributors to the 462 carbon footprint. Concentrating the nutrients in the treated urine with the distiller, to reduce the volume 463 for easier transport and storage, is energy-intensive. If the fertilizer is applied where it is produced (e.g. 464 urban farming), distillation would become obsolete and a more energy-efficient pasteurization step 465 would be sufficient to kill the pathogens. Since the energy required for aeration is almost negligible, the trade-off between the N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation due to higher DO and the increased energy demand of aeration is 466 small. In Fumasoli et al.<sup>27</sup> the energy demand for aeration during urine nitrification was at least six times 467 468 larger than during the measurement campaign because higher airflow rates were applied to ensure 469 sufficient mixing in the moving bed biofilm reactor, which resulted in constantly high DO concentrations above 7 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Such high airflow rates and DO concentrations were not required during 470 471 the measurement campaign. Mitigation of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions had a smaller impact than changing the energy mix towards a greener energy mix, which is different than for WWTPs where N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation has the 472

473 largest impact on the carbon footprint.<sup>49</sup> Nevertheless, the proposed simple N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation measures
474 should be pursued, especially as they should not conflict with process stability.

The N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and the operational carbon footprints derived in this study can be used as part of a 475 476 comprehensive LCA that compares urine fertilizer production with centralized removal of the nutrients contained in urine and synthetic fertilizer production. For a holistic comparison, the footprint associated 477 478 with reactor and sewer components and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from different fertilizers applied to agricultural fields<sup>50</sup> must be considered, which was beyond the scope of this study. In addition, it should be taken 479 480 into account that on-site urine treatment could for example allow for a higher heat recovery at household level,<sup>51</sup> avoid GHG emissions in the sewer,<sup>52</sup> save flushing water,<sup>19</sup> and enable local fertilizer 481 482 production<sup>19</sup>.

## 484 **5 Conclusions**

- N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during urine nitrification are in the same range as for mainstream nitrification,
   despite higher nitrite concentrations and higher ammonium oxidation rates.
- N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during urine nitrification can effectively be mitigated by avoiding phases with
   low or no DO (e.g. settling phases) and nitrite concentrations above 5 mg-N L<sup>-1</sup>.
- N<sub>2</sub>O production during intermediate storage between nitrification and GAC filtration doubles
   the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of the treatment chain but can be strongly mitigated by directly feeding
   nitrified urine to the GAC filtration without intermediate storage.
- Direct N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and indirect CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from distillation are major contributors to the
   carbon footprint, hence it is worth to mitigate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and opt for a green electricity mix.

## 495 **Supporting information**

496 The supporting information is available free of charge at <u>http://pubs.acs.org</u>: Details on the energy 497 calculations, additional data from the urine treatment system, and supplementary results from the  $N_2O$ , 498 NO, and CH<sub>4</sub> measurement campaigns (PDF).

## 499 **Declaration of Competing Interests**

500 The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships, which may be considered 501 as potential competing interests: Kai M. Udert is co-owner of the Eawag spin-off Vuna Ltd. The 502 company uses biological and physical processes for nutrient recovery from urine. The study was not 503 influenced by the relationship of Kai M. Udert with Vuna Ltd.

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