

Role of C3 plant species on carbon dioxide and methane emissions in Mediterranean constructed wetland

Carmelo Maucieri,¹ Maurizio Borin,¹ Antonio C. Barbera²

¹Department of Agronomy, Food, Natural Resources, Animals and Environment, University of Padua, Legnaro (PD); ²Department of Agriculture and Food Science, University of Catania, Italy

Abstract

C3 plant species are widely used to vegetate constructed wetlands (CW), but so far no information is available on their effect on CW CO_{2(eq)} balance in the Mediterranean climate. The aim of this research was to study carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) emissions and CO_{2(e0)} budgets of CW horizontal sub-surface flow pilot-plant beds vegetated with Arundo donax L. and Phragmites australis (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. compared with an unvegetated bed in Sicily. The highest total plant biomass production was measured in the bed vegetated with A. donax (17.0 kg m⁻²), whereas *P. australis* produced 7.6 kg m⁻². CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and showed significant correlation with average air temperature and solar radiation for each bed. The CO₂ emission values ranged from 0.8 ± 0.1 g m⁻² d⁻¹, for the unvegetated bed in April, to 24.9 ± 0.6 g m⁻² d⁻¹ for the bed with *P. australis* in August. The average CO_2 emissions of the whole monitored period were 15.5 ± 7.2 , 15.1 ± 7.1 and 3.6 ± 2.4 g m⁻² d⁻¹ for A. donax, P. australis and unvegetated beds respectively. The CH₄ fluxes differed significantly over the monitored seasons, with the highest median value being measured during spring $(0.963 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$. No statistical differences were found for CH₄ flux

Correspondence: Carmelo Maucieri, Department of Agronomy, Food, Natural Resources, Animals and Environment (DAFNAE), University of Padua, Agripolis Campus, viale dell'Università 16, 35020 Legnaro (PD), Italy. E-mail: carmelo.maucieri@hotmail.it

Key words: Arundo donax L., Phragmites australis (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud., methane, carbon dioxide, $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance, biomass production, horizontal subsurface flow constructed wetland.

Acknowledgments: the research was supported by *Progetto AGER*, grant no. 2010-2220 on the basis of the research agreement with the Department of Agronomy, Food, Natural Resources, Animals and Environment (University of Padua) and the Department of Agriculture and Food Science (University of Catania). The authors thank Prof. Salvatore Barbagallo, Prof. Giuseppe L. Cirelli and Prof. Attilio Toscano for making the constructed wetland pilot plant available.

Received for publication: 24 March 2014. Revision received: 17 June 2014. Accepted for publication: 24 June 2014.

©Copyright C. Maucieri et al., 2014 Licensee PAGEPress, Italy Italian Journal of Agronomy 2014; 9:601 doi:10.4081/ija.2014.601

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Noncommercial License (by-nc 3.0) which permits any noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author(s) and source are credited. among the studied beds. Cumulative estimated CH₄ emissions during the study period (from April to December) were 159.5, 134.1 and 114.7 g m⁻² for *A. donax*, *P. australis* and unvegetated beds respectively. $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance showed that the two vegetated beds act as $CO_{2(eq)}$ sinks, while the unvegetated bed, as expected, acts as a $CO_{2(eq)}$ source. Considering only the above-ground plant biomass in the $CO_{2(eq)}$ budgets, *P. australis* and *A. donax* determined uptakes of 1.30 and 8.35 kg $CO_{2(eq)}$ m⁻² respectively.

Introduction

C3 plant species are widely used to vegetate constructed wetlands (CWs), which are common natural-like systems (Vymazal, 2010) adopted to treat different wastewaters: landfill leachate (Bulc, 2006), agriculture drainage and animal wastewater (Borin and Tocchetto, 2007; Borin et al., 2013a), textile wastewater (Bulc and Ojstršek, 2008), urban wastewater (Barbera et al., 2009), pesticides (O'Geen et al., 2010). In these systems the organic carbon fraction content in the wastewaters is mainly removed through volatilization, determining a positive flux of greenhouse gases (GHGs), such as carbon dioxide (CO_2) and methane (CH_4) into the atmosphere. However, the atmospheric CO_2 uptake by plant photosynthesis can balance $CO_{2(eq)}$ fluxes (Barbera et al., 2014a). In general plants through their root systems (Lai et al., 2011) influence CO2 production (Ström et al., 2005) and CH₄ production and consumption (Segers, 1998; Ström et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2008), mainly through roots oxygen (Griess et al., 1990) and exudate release (Brix et al., 2001). In particular, plant species with different physiology and therefore different magnitude of oxygen (Wigand et al., 1997) and exudate release (Ström et al., 2003) can determine a different CO₂:CH₄ ratio emission and global warming potential (GWP) given that CH₄ has a GWP 25 times higher than CO₂ (IPCC, 2007). In the Mediterranean basin, where temperatures in late spring and summer are high, the use of C3 species in CWs could determine a different environmental C balance compared with the CWs located at higher latitude.

Several studies on GHG emission, at different latitudes, include CW beds vegetated with *Phragmites australis*, which is the most widely studied C3 species. Only a few studies have been carried out in a Mediterranean environment on GHG emission from pilot-plant CWs (Garcia *et al.*, 2007; Barbera *et al.*, 2014a) or a full-scale CW (Barbera *et al.*, 2014b) vegetated with *P. australis* or C4 plant species. To our knowledge no studies have focused on GHG emission from CWs vegetated with *Arundo donax* (C3 species), either in a Mediterranean environment or at other latitudes.

The question if wetlands act as sinks or sources of GHGs has recently gained increasing importance to understand more thoroughly the role of the ecosystem services that they provide (Mitsch *et al.*, 2013) and address their management. Since vegetation is the key component of CWs, its role needs to be definitely better understood.



In this contest the aim of this research was to compare CO_2 and CH_4 emissions and $CO_{2(eq)}$ budgets of CW horizontal sub-surface flow (HSSF) pilot-plant beds unvegetated or vegetated with *A. donax* L. and *P. australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud.

Materials and methods

Study sites

The research was conducted from April 1st to December 20th 2012 in a pilot plant located in San Michele di Ganzaria (Eastern Sicily – lat. 37°30′ N, long. 14°25′ E, alt. 370 m asl). The area has a typical Mediterranean climate (Köppen climate classification) with medium rainfall (approximately 500 mm y⁻¹) mainly in winter. The pilot plant consisted of three parallel HSSF beds, two vegetated with *P. australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. (common reed) and *A. donax* L. (giant reed) and one unvegetated control bed. Each bed was rectangular in shape with a surface area of 4.5 m² (1.5×3.0 m) and was built of concrete, partially buried, and lined with an impermeable membrane. The beds were filled to an average depth of 0.6 m, with 10-15 mm volcanic gravel; during the monitoring period, water depth was about 0.55 m. System details are available in Toscano *et al.* (2009). Wastewater inflow was 40 L h⁻¹. Beds were planted in December 2011 at a density of 5.5 plants m⁻².

Studied C3 species

P. australis is the most frequently used macrophyte to vegetate CWs. It is a tall perennial grass of the Poaceae family found in natural wetlands across temperate and tropical regions of the world. It commonly forms extensive stands (known as reed beds) and is capable of reproduction by seed, but primarily asexually multiplication via rhizomes. *P. australis* is a C3 plant species characterised by aerating tissues (aerenchyma channels and pith cavities) which play a crucial role in this species and generally in aquatic plants by providing oxygen to the submerged organs and often to the rhizosphere (Engloner, 2009).

A. donax is a tall perennial herbaceous plant of the same family occurring in grasslands and wetlands over a wide range of climatic habitats. It is classified as an emergent aquatic plant (Cook, 1990). Like *P. australis*, it is a C3 species, with an unusually high photosynthetic capacity (Rossa *et al.*, 1998) and productivity similar to that of C4 species (Christou *et al.*, 2001; Borin *et al.*, 2013b).

Meteorological variables

A CR510 automatic weather station (Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) was installed close to the experimental plant to measure rainfall, air temperature, wind speed and global radiation. Evapotranspiration rates were estimated using a water balance method, measuring for each bed the influent wastewater flow rate, the water increase due to precipitation and the discharged wastewater volume.

Gas sampling and analyses

 CO_2 and CH_4 sampling and analysis were performed from April 1st (vegetative regrowth) to December 20th 2012 (end of vegetative cycle). The gas samplers did not cover growing plants.

 CO_2 emissions were estimated *in situ* using the static-stationary chamber technique. The cylindrical chambers, of PVC, were 35 cm high and 12.5 cm wide. The bottom part (20 cm) was permanently inserted in the gravel substrate and the chamber was sealed with a lid in which the CO_2 emitted from the bed was absorbed in a sodium hydroxide

(NaOH) solution trap following modifications reported in Barbera *et al.* (2014b) to reduce experimental error (Jensen *et al.*, 1996). The CO_2 traps, two in each bed, were placed in the inner part of the beds to reduce the border effect. They were replaced every ten days, therefore the monthly total bed respiration (respiration of bed microbes, roots and rhizomes) was calculated based on a decadal dataset.

CH₄ flux was measured using the static non-stationary chamber technique (Barbera *et al.*, 2014a) three times a month in two microsites in order to replicate the measures. The flux cylindrical chamber, 42 cm high and 20 cm wide, was inserted into the gravel substrate using a permanent ring inserted into the substrate before the beginning of measurements to prevent soil disturbance in each site. The surface CH₄ flux was determined by measuring the temporal change in CH₄ concentration inside the chamber using a portable flame ionisation detector (Crowcon Gas-Tec; Crowcon Detection Instruments Ltd., Abingdon, UK) detecting CH₄ concentrations down to parts per million levels.

Biomass sampling and analyses

In December 2012 above-ground and below-ground biomasses were sampled from three points in the inner part of each bed in order to minimize the border effect. The below-ground biomass was collected at three depths (0-20, 20-40 and 40-60 cm) and was divided in roots and rhizomes. Biomass sub-samples were homogenized for quality analysis: biomass dry weight was determined using a thermo-ventilated oven at 65°C until constant weight was reached. Biomass C content was determined by CNS Macrovario combustion analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany).

Growing season CO_{2(eq)} balance

Carbon environmental balance was calculated considering CO_2 and CH_4 emissions and the storage of fixed carbon in plant biomass in terms of $CO_{2(eq)}$ using the following formula:

$$CO_{2(eq)} = CO_2 + (CH_4 * 25) + C_{biomass} * (44/12)$$
(1)

where:

- CO₂ and CH₄ were the GHG emissions measured during the growing season;
- the CH₄ emission for CO_{2(eq)} budgets was computed as 25 times CO₂ (IPCC, 2007);
- 44 represents the molecular weight of CO₂, and 12 is the C atomic weight.

As indicated by Mander *et al.* (2008), the above-ground plant biomass respiration was not considered, assuming that respired C was previously assimilated by plant gross photosynthesis.

Statistical analysis

The normality of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Lilliefors, and Shapiro-Wilk tests. CO_2 and CH_4 emissions from the study sites did not show a normal distribution, so the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test was used to check the significance of differences (accepted at the level of P≤0.05) using a combination of replications in time and space rather than through independent experimental units. Correlations between average air temperature and solar radiation with CO_2 and CH_4 emissions were evaluated using Spearman Rank correlation. The range distribution of biomass and emission values was expressed in terms of standard deviation.

Results and discussion

Environmental parameters

Meteorological data recorded at the site during the monitoring period (April-December 2012) are reported in Figure 1. Cumulative rainfall was 105.8 mm; the air temperature reached its maximum value on July 13th (43.4°C) and its minimum value on December 13th (0.2°C). The highest monthly average solar radiation value (27.6 MJ m⁻² d⁻¹) was recorded in July and the average wind speed was generally below 1 ms⁻¹. The correlation between average air temperature and solar radiation with CO₂ and CH₄ emissions showed a specific response for each bed (Table 1). CO₂ emission was positively correlated with average air temperature in the bed vegetated with P. australis (P<0.001), instead no correlation was found for A. donax. For all beds CH4 emission was positively correlated with solar radiation (P<0.001), whereas only the unvegetated bed showed a positive correlation between CH4 emission and average air temperature (P<0.05). These results are undoubtedly interesting, but caution must be used due to the short monitoring period of about nine months and considering that the study was carried out during the first operating year and so the systems did not reach the below-ground biomass turnover with a low amount of sludge accumulated in the beds. Both conditions could determine, in the following years, different emission ratios between the two species and different responses to environmental conditions.

Plants biomass production

At the end of the vegetative season, *A. donax* showed the higher total plant biomass yield (16.8 kg m⁻²), while *P. australis* produced 7.5 kg m⁻². Considering the plant organs, giant reed has always scored the highest biomass production, namely 1.8, 5.1 and 3.3 times higher than the common reed in terms of biomass of above-ground portion, roots and rhizomes respectively. Roots density declined with depth in the bed vegetated with *A. donax*, whereas for *P. australis* higher density was found in the 20-40 cm gravel layer. Rhizomes were distributed only in the first 20 cm of substrate for *A. donax* and in the 0-40 cm layer for *P. australis* (Table 2). At the end of the study period, *P. australis* showed a higher above-ground/below-ground ratio (2.7) than *A. donax* (1.5; Table 2). The reported high above-ground production confirms the high productive potential of the two species cultivated under optimal water and nutritional conditions (Idris *et al.*, 2012a; Borin *et al.*, 2013b).

Greenhouse gases emissions

The average CO₂ emission was significantly lower in spring for all studied CW beds (Figure 2A) with the lowest monthly CO₂ average daily emission recorded in April with 5.2 \pm 1.6, 6.1 \pm 1.0 and 0.8 \pm 0.1 g m⁻² d⁻¹ for common reed, giant reed and unvegetated beds respectively. The highest monthly average daily CO₂ emissions were recorded in August for common reed (24.9±0.6 g m⁻² d⁻¹) and in September for giant reed $(24.3\pm2.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ and the unvegetated bed $(6.6\pm1.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$. With respect to season averages, no significant differences were found in CO₂ emission between A. donax and P. australis beds, instead a significantly lower emission was recorded for the unvegetated bed (Figure 2B), with a median value 4.3 times lower than the average median value of vegetated beds. Bed respiration did not show any species-specific effect, but there was a significantly higher emission from vegetated beds than the unvegetated one, confirming that the presence of vegetation is very important for the respiration of CW total ecosystems (Ström et al., 2007). Nevertheless the effect of different species may be present, as suggested by Maltais-Landry et al. (2009) who reported significant differences among HSSF CW mesocosms vegetated with P. australis, Phalaris arundinacea and Typha angustifolia.



In our study the average respiration of the bed throughout the entire monitored period was 15.1 ± 7.1 , 15.5 ± 7.2 and 3.6 ± 2.4 g CO₂ m⁻² d⁻¹ for P. australis, A. donax and unvegetated beds respectively, in agreement with Barbera et al. (2014b) who reported, in the same area, higher CO₂ emissions from vegetated sites than an unvegetated one in a full scale HSSF CW. Even at higher latitudes in Southern Sweden, Ström et al. (2007) reported an average CO₂ flux of 25.1 \pm 4.7 and 4.3 \pm 0.7 g m⁻² d⁻¹ from a zone vegetated with P. australis and an unvegetated zone respectively in a peat-based CW site. Søvik et al. (2006) reported an average CO₂ emission of 2.5±0.2 and 10.6±0.6 g m⁻² d⁻¹ during winter and summer respectively in a comparative study conducted in northern Europe (Estonia, Norway and Poland) on GHG emissions from vegetated HSSF CWs (P. australis, Iris pseudocorus, Typha latifolia, and Scirpus lacustris). Picek et al. (2007) reported CO₂ emissions varying between 0.4 and 27.2 g m⁻² d⁻¹ during summer and fall in an HSSF CW bed vegetated with P. australis that treated combined sewage and stormwater runoff.

In our study common and giant reed showed similar CO_2 cumulative emissions, with about 3.98 and 4.08 kg m⁻² respectively, whereas the



Figure 1. A) and B) Meteorological data recorded in San Michele di Ganzaria during the study period.

Table 1. Correlation of CO_2 and CH_4 bed emissions with temperature and solar radiation.

Correlation	P. australis	A. donax	Unvegetated
CO2 vs solar radiation	0.108 n.s.	-0.311 n.s.	-0.541**
CO ₂ vs average air temperature	0.789***	0.293 n.s.	0.196 n.s.
CH ₄ vs solar radiation	0.760***	0.818***	0.798***
CH ₄ vs average air temperature	0.191 n.s.	0.341 n.s.	0.477*

*P<0.05; **P<0.01; ***P<0.001. n.s., not significant;



unvegetated bed reported 0.94 kg m⁻².

The fluxes of CH₄ were significantly different among the studied seasons (Figure 3A). The highest median value was measured during spring (0.963 g m⁻² d⁻¹), followed by summer (0.399 g m⁻² d⁻¹) and fall (0.018 g m⁻² d⁻¹). The highest CH₄ spring emission was probably due to the plant settlement phase characterised by: i) a fast development of root system resulting in high release of exudates that improved the activity of methanogen microorganisms (Brix *et al.*, 2001; Ström *et al.*, 2003; Saarnio *et al.*, 2004) in vegetated beds. This is supported by the positive correlation between CH₄ emissions and solar radiation, which influenced root exudates by photosynthesis activity (Grayston *et al.* 1997); ii) the incomplete root system development that determined less oxygen presence in the bed and so lower CH₄ oxidation rate.

Considering the unvegetated bed, the significant (P \leq 0.001) positive correlation between CH₄ emission and solar radiation can be supported by the indirect effect of the latter on substrate and water temperature. Furthermore only for the unvegetated bed CH₄ emissions were also correlated (P \leq 0.05) with average air temperature, in agreement with Tanner *et al.* (1997) who found a correlation between air temperature and CH₄ emissions, and with Sorrel *et al.* (1997) who reported significantly lower methanogenesis at 12°C than 30°C. Johansson *et al.* (2004) studied CH₄ emission from ponds where urban wastewater was treated and reported that sediment and water temperatures explained a large proportion of the flux variations (33-43%).

No statistical differences were found for the CH₄ emissions from the three studied beds (Figure 3B). Inamori *et al.* (2007) reported that CH₄





Figure 3. Emission from methane beds: A) in different seasons and B) with different species.

Table 2. Above-ground and below-ground biomass production (±SD) at the end of the study period and plant fraction incidence.

Species	Above-ground biomass	Deste	Below-ground biomass (Mg ha ⁻¹)				Roots:Rhizomes ratio	Above-ground: Below-ground
	(Mg na ⁻)	0-20 cm	20-40 cm	40-60 cm	0-20 cm	20-40 cm		rauo
P. australis	55.0 ± 3.9	0.24 ± 0.01	$0.78 {\pm} 0.06$	0.12 ± 0.02	12.89 ± 0.62	6.02 ± 0.34	0.06	2.7
A. donax	99.3 ± 6.9	3.25 ± 0.16	2.01 ± 0.13	0.57 ± 0.08	62.40 ± 3.63	-	0.09	1.5



emission from plant units is the net balance between CH₄ production by methanogens and oxidation to CO_2 by methanotrophs. Given that macrophytes' aerenchymatous tissues transport and release oxygen into the rhizosphere, they increase CH₄ oxidation in the anaerobic bed layers (Griess *et al.*, 1990; Jespersen *et al.*, 1998; McDonald *et al.*, 2002).

Cumulative estimated CH₄ emission during the study period was 159.5, 134.1 and 114.7 g m⁻² for *A. donax*, *P. australis* and the unvegetated bed respectively.

The higher bed respiration and methane emissions from vegetated beds can be also attributed to more labile carbon being accessible via plant exudates (Zemanovà *et al.*, 2010), estimated as 20% of the aboveground biomass produced during the growing season (Picek *et al.*, 2007), that intensified bacterial activity (Gagnon *et al.*, 2007). Ström *et al.* (2003) reported that CH₄ emission rates and potential CH₄ production are dependent on substrate quality and the linkage between root exudation of labile carbon, *e.g.* acetate and CH₄ formation.

Growing season CO_{2(eq)} balance

The highest monthly average daily $CO_{2(eq)}$ emission was calculated for all beds in June and ranged from 25.9 g m⁻² d⁻¹ (unvegetated bed) to 60.7 g m⁻² d⁻¹ (bed vegetated with *A. donax*). At the end of the trial period, the two vegetated beds had similar $CO_{2(eq)}$ cumulative emission values and trends (Figure 4) with 7.34 and 8.07 kg $CO_{2(eq)}$ m⁻² for common and giant reed respectively. The unvegetated bed instead had a cumulative $CO_{2(eq)}$ emission of 3.81 kg m⁻².

Considering the plant biomass C content (Table 3) and the beds biomass yield (Table 2), *P. australis* and *A. donax* fixed 11.61 and 27.03 kg $CO_{2(eq)}$ m⁻² respectively, showing a positive balance, while the unvegetated bed, as expected, had a negative balance (Table 4).

Since CWs are multiyear wastewater depuration systems, where, after the settlement phase, C fixed in the plants below-ground biomass remains stable due to the root systems turnover, we can exclude it (Table 4, column 3) from the $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance. Moreover assuming a yearly above-ground biomass cut agronomy management, the $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance for the two vegetated beds showed that during the trial period (about 9 months) they acted as $CO_{2(eq)}$ sinks, with an atmosphere $CO_{2(eq)}$ uptake equal to 1.30 and 8.35 kg m⁻² for *P. australis* and *A. donax* respectively (Table 4). The above-ground biomass could be used to produce renewable energy, in fact estimating the higher heating values (HHV) using C fixed in the biomass, in accordance with Demirba (1997) formula HHV = 0.196 * %C + 14.119, *A. donax* and *P. australis* have an HHV respectively of 22.96 and 22.51 MJ kg⁻¹.

The C3 plants studied in the Mediterranean environment determined a positive $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance. A. donax that has a high photosynthetic rate and productivity similar to those of C4 species (Christou et al., 2001) fixes more than six times $CO_{2(eq)}$ in its above-ground biomass than P. australis. Considering that the depuration efficiency, in terms of wastewater pollutant abatement, is not significantly different between the two plant species (Idris et al., 2012a), A. donax could be used in CW in the Mediterranean environment. Nevertheless, A. donax is a perennial plant that produces a high quantity of rhizomes concentrated in the bed first layer and could lead after several years of operation to a possible decrease of its efficiency and/or an increase in maintenance costs. Although the result showed interesting prospects for A. donax, so far only a few studies have been carried out on this plant and in small experimental CW beds (Calheiros et al., 2010, 2012; Idris et al., 2012a, 2012b); therefore long terms study are needed to validate the effects of this species on CW depuration efficiency and GHG emission prior to disseminate information for technology transfer.

Conclusions

CWs are natural-like systems widely used to treat different wastewaters, where depuration processes determine greenhouse gas emis-



Figure 4. Cumulative $CO_{2(eq)}$ emission trends for the three beds.

Table 5.	Percentage	carbon	content 1	n dioma	iss fract	lons.	

Species	Above-ground biomass	d biomass (%carbon)	mass (%carbon)			
	(%carbon)	Roots 0-20 cm	Roots 20-60 cm	Rhizomes 0-20 cm	Rhizomes 20-40 cm	
P. australis	42.83	34.31	38.53	41.06	39.33	
A. donax	45.09	35.89	40.47	42.81	-	

Table 4. Beds CO_{2(eq)} balance (kg m⁻²).

Species	$\begin{array}{c} CO_{2(eq)} \\ emitted \end{array}$	CO _{2(eq)} fixed total biomass	CO _{2(eq)} fixed above-ground biomass	$CO_{2(eq)}$ total balance*	CO _{2(eq)} partial balance°
P. australis	7.34	11.61	8.64	4.27	1.30
A. donax	8.07	27.03	16.42	18.96	8.35
Unvegetated	3.81	-	-	-3.81	-3.81

*CO_{2(eq)} total balance = CO_{2(eq)} fixed total biomass - CO_{2(eq)} emitted; °CO_{2(eq)} partial balance = CO_{2(eq)} fixed aboveground biomass - CO_{2(eq)} emitted.



sion. With this in mind Søvik *et al.* (2006) reported that the question then arises if CWs, used to protect freshwater ecosystems, are a solution to an environmental problem or if they substitute one problem with another by reducing water pollution, yet increasing greenhouse gas emissions.

The results achieved in this study confirm the role of plants in CO_2 and CH_4 emissions from CWs that with respect to CO_2 determine significantly higher emission from vegetated beds than unvegetated ones.

Nevertheless the $CO_{2(eq)}$ balance needs to be considered in order to have a more complete view to answer the question posed by Søvik *et al.* (2006). Both vegetated beds showed a positive balance (CO₂ sink), whereas the unvegetated one gave a negative value (CO₂ source) confirming that vegetation in CWs contributes to enhance the environmental value of this system of wastewater depuration.

Although *A. donax* fixed in the above-ground biomass 1.9 more times $CO_{2(eq)}$ than *P. australis*, it had a positive balance of $CO_{2(eq)}$ 6.4 times greater than *P. australis*. These positive preliminary results should encourage further studies to confirm the *A. donax* promising role as vegetation in Mediterranean CWs.

References

- Barbera AC, Borin M, Cirelli GL, Toscano A, Maucieri C, 2014a. Carbon balance in Mediterranean pilot constructed wetlands vegetated with different C4 plant species. Environ. Sci. Pollut. R. [In press].
- Barbera AC, Borin M, Ioppolo A, Cirelli GL, Maucieri C, 2014b. Carbon dioxide emissions from horizontal sub-surface constructed wetlands in the Mediterranean Basin. Ecol. Eng. 64:57-61.
- Barbera AC, Cirelli GL, Cavallaro V, Di Silvestro I, Pacifici P, Castiglione V, Toscano A, Milani M, 2009. Growth and biomass production of different plant species in two different constructed wetland systems in Sicily. Desalination 246:129-36.
- Borin M, Barbera AC, Milani M, Molari G, Zimbone SM, Toscano A, 2013b. Biomass production and N balance of giant reed (Arundo donax L.) under high water and N input in Mediterranean environments. Eur. J. Agron. 51:117-9.
- Borin M, Politeo M, De Stefani G, 2013a. Performance of a hybrid constructed wetland treating piggery wastewater. Ecol. Eng. 51:229-36.
- Borin M, Tocchetto D, 2007. Five year water and nitrogen balance for a constructed surface flow wetland treating agricultural drainage waters. Sci. Total Envir. 380:38-47.
- Brix H, Sorrell BK, Lorenzen B, 2001. Are Phragmites-dominated wetlands a net source or net sink of greenhouse gases? Aquat. Bot. 69:313-24.
- Bulc TG, 2006. Long-term performance of a constructed wetland for landfill leachate treatment. Ecol. Eng. 26:365-74.
- Bulc TG, Ojstršek A, 2008. The use of constructed wetland for dye-rich textile wastewater treatment. J. Hazard. Mater. 155:76-82.
- Calheiros CS, Quitério PV, Silva G, Crispim LF, Brix H, Moura SC, Castro PM, 2012. Use of constructed wetland systems with Arundo and Sarcocornia for polishing high salinity tannery wastewater. J. Environ. Manage. 95:66-71.
- Calheiros CSC, Teixeira A, Pires C, Franco AR, Duque AF, Crispim LFC, Duque AF, Crispim LFC, Castro PML 2010. Bacterial community dynamics in horizontal flow constructed wetlands with different plants for high salinity industrial wastewater polishing. Water Res. 44:5032-8.
- Christou M, Mardikis M, Kyritsis S, Cosentino S, Jodice R, Vecchiet M, Gosse G, 2001. Screening of Arundo donax L. populations in South Europe. Proc 1st World Conference on Biomass for Energy and Industry, Seville, Spain, 5–9 June 2001, pp 2048-51.

- Cook CDK, 1990. Aquatic plant book. SPB Academic Publishing, The Hague, The Netherlands.
- Demirba A, 1997. Calculation of higher heating values of biomass fuels. Fuel 76:431-4.
- Engloner AI, 2009. Structure, growth dynamics and biomass of reed (Phragmites australis) A review. Flora 204:331-46.
- Gagnon V, Chazarenc F, Comeau Y, Brisson J, 2007. Influence of macrophyte species on microbial density and activity in constructed wetlands. Water Sci. Technol. 56:249-54.
- García J, Capel V, Castro A, Ruiz I, Soto M, 2007. Anaerobic biodegradation tests and gas emissions from subsurface flow constructed wetlands. Bioresource Technol. 98:3044-52.
- Grayston SJ, Vaughan D, Jones D, 1997. Rhizosphere carbon flow in trees, in comparison with annual plants: the importance of root exudation and its impact on microbial activity and nutrient availability. Appl. Soil Ecol. 5:29-56.
- Gries C, Kappen L, Lösch R, 1990. Mechanism of flood tolerance in reed, Phragmites australis (Cav.) Trin. ex Steudel. New Phytologist 114:589-93.
- Idris SM, Jones PL, Salzman SA, Croatto G, Allinson G, 2012a. Evaluation of the giant reed (Arundo donax) in horizontal subsurface flow wetlands for the treatment of recirculating aquaculture system effluent. Environ. Sci. Pollut. R. 19:1159-70.
- Idris SM, Jones PL, Salzman SA, Croatto G, Allinson G, 2012b. Evaluation of the giant reed (Arundo donax) in horizontal subsurface flow wetlands for the treatment of dairy processing factory wastewater. Environ. Sci. Pollut. R. 19:3525-37.
- Inamori R, Gui P, Dass P, Matsumura M, Xu KQ, Kondo T, Ebie Y, Inamori Y, 2007. Investigating CH_4 and N_2O emissions from ecoengineering wastewater treatment processes using constructed wetland microcosms. Process Biochem. 42:363-73.
- Jensen LS, Mueller T, Tate KR, Ross DJ, Magid J, Nielsen NE, 1996. Soil surface CO₂ flux as an index of soil respiration in situ: A comparison of two chamber methods. Soil Biology Biochem. 28:1297-306.
- Jespersen DN, Sorrell BK, Brix H, 1998. Growth and root oxygen release by Typha latifolia and its effects on sediment methanogenesis. Aquat. Bot. 61:165-80.
- Johansson AE, Gustavsson AM, Oquist MG, Svensson BH, 2004. Methane emissions from a constructed wetland treating wastewater - seasonal and spatial distribution and dependence on edaphic factors. Water Res. 38:3960-70.
- IPCC, 2007. Climate Change 2007: The Scientific Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, edited by S. Solomon et al., Cambridge Univ. Press, New York, NY, USA.
- Lai W, Wang S, Peng C, Chen Z, 2011. Root features related to plant growth and nutrient removal of 35 wetland plants. Water Res. 45:3941-50.
- Maltais-Landry G, Maranger R, Brisson J, Chazarenc F, 2009. Greenhouse gas production and efficiency of planted and artificially aerated constructed wetlands. Environ. Pollut. 157:748-54.
- Mander Ü, Löhmus K, Teiter S, Mauring T, Nurk K, Augustin J, 2008. Gaseous fluxes in the nitrogen and carbon budgets of subsurface flow constructed wetlands. Sci. Total Environ. 404:343-53.
- McDonald MP, Galwey NW, Colmer TD, 2002. Similarity and diversity in adventitious root anatomy as related to root aeration among a range of wetland and dryland grass species. Plant Cell Environ. 25:441-51.
- Mitsch WJ, Bernal B, Nahlik AM, Mander Ü, Zhang L, Anderson CJ, Jørgensen SE, Brix H, 2013. Wetlands, carbon, and climate change. Landscape Ecol. 28:583-97.
- O'Geen AT, Budd R, Gan J, Maynard JJ, Parikh SJ, Dahlgren RA, 2010. Chapter One-Mitigating nonpoint source pollution in agriculture



with constructed and restored wetlands. Adv. Agron. 108:1-76.

- Picek T, Čížková H, Dušek J, 2007. Greenhouse gas emission from a constructed wetland - Plants as important source of carbon. Ecol. Eng. 31:98-106.
- Rossa B, Tuffers AV, Naidoo G, von Willert DJ, 1998. Arundo donax L. (Poaceae) - a C3 species with unusually high photosynthetic capacity. Bot. Acta 111:216-21.
- Saarnio S, Wittenmayer L, Merbach W, 2004. Rhizospheric exudation of Eriophorum vaginatum L. - potential link to methanogenesis. Plant Soil 267:343-55.
- Segers R, 1998. Methane production and methane consumption: a review of processes underlying wetland methane fluxes. Biogeochemistry 41:23-51.
- Søvik AK, Augustin J, Heikkinen K, Huttunen JT, Necki JM, Karjalainen SM, Klove B, Liikanen A, Mander U, Puustinen M, 2006. Emission of the greenhouse gases nitrous oxide and methane from constructed wetlands in Europe. J. Environ. Qual. 35:2360-73.
- Sorrell BK, Brix H, Schierup HH, Lorenzen B, 1997. Die-back of Phragmites australis: influence on the distribution and rate of sediment methanogenesis. Biogeochemistry 36:173-88.
- Ström L, Ekberg A, Mastepanov M, Christensen TR, 2003. The effect of vascular plants on carbon turnover and methane emissions from a tundra wetland. Glob. Change Biol. 9:1185-92.
- Ström L, Mastepanov M, Christensen TR, 2005. Species-specific effects

of vascular plants on carbon turnover and methane emissions from wetlands. Biogeochemistry 75:65-82.

- Ström L, Lamppa A, Christensen TR, 2007. Greenhouse gas emissions from a constructed wetland in southern Sweden. Wetl. Ecol. Manag. 15:43-50.
- Tanner CC, Adams DD, Downes MT, 1997. Methane emissions from constructed wetlands treating agricultural wastewaters. J. Environ. Qual. 26:1056-62.
- Toscano A, Langergraber G, Consoli S, Cirelli GL, 2009. Modelling pollutant removal in a pilot-scale two-stage subsurface flow constructed wetlands. Ecol. Eng. 35:281-9.
- Vymazal J, 2010. Constructed wetlands for wastewater treatment: five decades of experience. Environ. Sci. Technol. 45:61-9.
- Wang Y, Inamori R, Kong H, Xu KQ, Inamori Y, Kondo T, Zhang J, 2008. Influence of plant species and wastewater strength on constructed wetland methane emissions and associated microbial populations. Ecol. Eng. 32:22-9.
- Wigand C, Stevenson JC, Cornwell JC, 1997. Effects of different submersed macrophytes on sediment biogeochemistry. Aquat. Bot. 56:233-44.
- Zemanová K, Picek T, Dušek J, Edwards K, Šantrůčková H, 2010. Carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus transformations are related to age of a constructed wetland. Water Air Soil Poll. 207:39-48.