

1 **Title: Can limestone, steel slags or man-made sorption materials be used to enhance**
2 **phosphate-phosphorus retention in treatment wetland for peat extraction runoff**
3 **with low phosphorous concentration?**

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12
13 **Abstract**

14 This study examined possibilities to enhance phosphorus (P) retention in wetlands using
15 different materials that could enhance removal of phosphate P (PO₄-P) from runoff waters
16 with fairly low P concentrations (P_{tot} average 80-90 µg L⁻¹ and PO₄-P 25-30 µg L⁻¹) typical
17 for peat extraction runoff. The retention potential of sorption materials, that had
18 previously shown good retention capacity was first studied in laboratory batch tests using
19 steel slag (basic oxygen furnace slag (BOF)), Filtralite[®]P (high Ca and Mg clay), CFH 12
20 (ferrihydroxide), limestone, Phoslock[®] (95% bentonite clay material + 5% lanthanum)
21 and iron gypsum in year 2010. Based on batch test results and material properties (column
22 tests not suitable for fine clay materials such as Phoslock[®]), steel slag, CFH 12 and iron
23 gypsum products were selected for column tests. The columns experiments were run for
24 almost three months during spring 2011. Steel slag and Phoslock[®] were selected for

25 further testing *in situ* in a treatment wetland. In the laboratory set-ups, all materials tested
26 retained PO₄-P (70-90% in batch tests and approximately 10-80% in column
27 experiments). However, in the field scale set-up, neither steel slag nor Phoslock®
28 successfully retained PO₄-P. The reasons may be e.g. for steel slag, too low pH, too large
29 grain size, and too short retention time. Also, for some set-up, the given instruction were
30 not followed during construction works. Further studies are needed to test different
31 particle sizes and new potential materials for retaining P in treatment wetlands with high
32 hydraulic loading rate, low P concentration and low pH.

33

34 **Keywords**

35 Phosphorus, Sorption material, Treatment wetland, Peat, Retention

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Treatment wetlands (TWs) are globally used for wastewater purification purposes, and
39 their ability to retain suspended solids (SS) is usually high (70-90%), but the ability to
40 retain phosphorus (P) is lower (30-60%) (Vymazal, 2010). In Finland, TWs have mainly
41 been constructed on intact peatlands, where they can retain on average 40-55% of
42 phosphorus (P) from peat extraction runoff (Heikkinen et al., 2002; Kløve et al., 2012).
43 In addition, TWs are used for polishing municipal wastewater, and TWs constructed on
44 pristine peatlands show P retention of 12-83% when the hydraulic load range from of 21-
45 44 mm d⁻¹ (Ronkanen and Kløve, 2009). According to the recent Finnish national peatland
46 use strategy, peat extraction areas should be established on previously drained peatlands
47 with little ecological value. Thus treatment wetlands are also often constructed on drained
48 peatlands. According to Postila et al. (2014), some of the TWs constructed on drained

49 areas retain phosphate phosphorus ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$) nearly as well as wetlands constructed on
50 intact areas. However, in the same study some of the TWs released $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, especially
51 during the first years after their establishment. Phosphorus release after rewetting of
52 drained peatlands in wetland restoration has also been observed in other studies
53 (Kieckbusch and Schrautzer, 2007; Koskinen et al., 2011; Nieminen et al., 2005). P
54 leaching may partly occur due to reduction of iron (Fe) under anaerobic conditions,
55 resulting in PO_4^{3-} releases (Reddy and DeLaune, 2008). Also high P concentration in
56 surface peat layer (Postila et al., 2014) and the death of forest species (Jauhiainen et al.,
57 2002) can lead to P leaching after rewetting.

58

59 Possibilities to enhance P retention in TWs have been studied with different materials
60 mainly at laboratory scale (Vohla et al., 2011). The factors found to affect P retention in
61 sorption materials are e.g. material grain size (e.g. Xu et al., 2006), P inflow concentration
62 (e.g. Lyngsie et al., 2015), pH (e.g. Oliveira et al., 2015), hydraulic loading rate (Vohla
63 et al., 2011), retention time (e.g. Lyngsie et al., 2015; Penn et al., 2012), water velocity
64 (Claveau-Mallet et al., 2012), and organic matter content (e.g. Xu et al., 2006). Sorption
65 materials can be divided into: 1) natural materials, such as the siliceous sedimentary rock
66 opoka (Johansson and Gustafsson, 2000), shell sand (Àdàm et al., 2007) and peat (e.g.
67 Kõiv et al., 2009); 2) industrial by-products, such as slags (e.g. Johansson 1999; Vohla et
68 al., 2011) and ash (e.g. Xu et al., 2006); and 3) man-made products, such as Filtralite P®
69 (Àdàm et al., 2005; Vohla et al. 2011). The materials can also be divided according to
70 their chemical composition into: a) materials which contain metals (such as aluminium
71 (Al) and Fe); b) materials which contain soluble divalent earth metals (calcium (Ca) and
72 magnesium (Mg)); and c) mixtures of these (Klimeski et al., 2012). By-product materials

73 such as slags have been frequently tested, because they are widely available and cheap
74 materials. However, based on Klimeski et al. (2012) review, P sorption tests are usually
75 conducted using water with a high P concentration, whereas the average P concentrations
76 in peat extraction runoff are 80-90 $\mu\text{g P}_{\text{tot}} \text{L}^{-1}$ and 25-30 $\mu\text{g PO}_4\text{-P L}^{-1}$ (Postila et al., 2014;
77 Tuukkanen et al., 2012).

78

79 Addition of Fe, Al and Ca can increase $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ retention due to their sorption capacity
80 (Richardson, 1985; Seo et al., 2005). However, Fe and Al sorb P in acidic conditions,
81 whereas Ca sorbs P under near-neutral conditions (Reddy and DeLaune, 2008). The aim
82 of this study was to determine whether addition of sorption materials can enhance $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$
83 retention in TWs constructed for purification of peat extraction runoff. Batch and column
84 tests were first carried out in the laboratory and then promising candidate materials were
85 tested *in situ* in a TW. Our starting hypothesis was that sorption materials can retain P in
86 laboratory and field conditions.

87

88 **2. Material and methods**

89 *2.1 Laboratory tests*

90 Different sorption materials for retaining $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ were first studied in the laboratory in
91 batch (year 2010) and column (year 2011) tests. The materials studied in batch tests were
92 selected based on a literature review considering material cost-effectiveness, retention
93 efficiency, particle size, availability and costs. Locally available materials and by
94 products were carefully considered to avoid e.g. high transport costs and steel slag (basic
95 oxygen furnace slag (BOF) including mainly calcium oxide (CaO), Fe and silicon dioxide
96 (SiO_2)) from Raahe Rautaruukki Oyj (nowadays SSAB) was chosen. Filtralite[®]P (a clay

97 material with high Ca and Mg content), CFH 12 (ferrihydroxide), limestone (mainly
98 CaCO_3), Phoslock[®] (95% bentonite clay material + 5% lanthanum), and iron gypsum
99 from Kemira Oyj was also selected as promising materials. In these batch tests, runoff
100 from a peat extraction area ($8 \mu\text{g PO}_4\text{-P L}^{-1}$) and pore water from the peat or mineral layer
101 of TWs (40 and $250 \mu\text{g PO}_4\text{-P L}^{-1}$) were used. The pH in these waters varied from 5.6 to
102 6.4, with the highest values occurring in runoff water. The batch test on each material was
103 performed with 100 g of sorption material and 200 mL of water in four parallel samples
104 (replicates), because ratio represent more realistically the field conditions. We followed
105 the protocol described by Heikkinen et al. (1995): the mixture of sorption material and
106 water was first shaken mechanically for one hour (shaker speed was selected between
107 $300\text{-}400 \text{ min}^{-1}$ in order to have all the tested mass be in circulation in the bottle), followed
108 by a 23-hour standing time. After this, the samples were shaken for 10 minutes and
109 centrifuged for 15 minutes at 4000 revolutions per minute. Finally, the samples were
110 filtered through a Whatman[®] GF/C filter (pore size $1.2 \mu\text{m}$) and a Gelman filter (pore
111 size $0.45 \mu\text{m}$). The samples were analysed for e.g. $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$, pH, Al, Fe, Ca, Mg and sulphur
112 (S) in an accredited laboratory.

113 Column tests were run with steel slag (grain size 3-10 mm and 10-20 mm, which were
114 used in earlier studies also), CFH 12 and Sachtofer PR (iron gypsum material from
115 Sachtleben Pigments Oy) with peat extraction runoff water with an above-normal $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$
116 concentration ($650 \mu\text{g PO}_4\text{-P L}^{-1}$). In the tests, two different-sized columns were used, so
117 that the diameter was at least 5 time higher than particle size (CEN ISO/TS 17892-11:fi),
118 but the needed water amount was minimized during test. In this way the difficulties in
119 collecting water and storing it were minimized. Columns with inner diameter 10.4 cm and
120 height 20.8 cm were used for steel slag with grain size 10-20 mm and Sachtofer PR, due

121 to their larger particle sizes, while columns with inner diameter 5.2 cm and height 31 cm
122 were used for steel slag with grain size 3-10 mm and for CFH 12. The height of these
123 sorption materials in the columns was about 15 cm. A filter paper (Whatman 114) was
124 installed in smaller columns and a filter mesh (pore size 0.5 mm) in larger columns to
125 prevent sorption material from ending up in the outlet pipe. In smaller columns, a quartz
126 sand layer (grain size 3-5 mm) was also added below (thickness 3 cm) and above (1.5
127 cm) the sorption material to ensure uniform water flow. Because the grain size of quartz
128 sand was <10-20 mm, this material was not used in larger columns. One column per
129 sorption material was used and the water was fed continuously by pump from the bottom
130 of these columns from 1 m³ containers that were continuously mixed by a small pump.
131 The target outflow for small columns was 2 mL min⁻¹ and for large columns 8 mL min⁻¹.
132 Thus the mean water residence time was calculated to be approximately similar (one hour)
133 in all columns. This residence time was used as it was possible to achieve also in field
134 conditions where the water discharge is high. However, the actual mean residence time in
135 columns varied from 1 hour to 1.5 hours and the flow velocity varied from 1.6 to 1.9 mL
136 min⁻¹ in the small columns and from 5 to 8 mL min⁻¹ in the bigger columns. When the flow
137 velocity was noticed to be clearly under the target outflow (2 or 8 mL min⁻¹), the pumping
138 speed was increased. These experiments were done in hydraulically saturated conditions
139 and run for almost three months (83 days).

140

141 The hydraulic conductivity (K) during the column testes was checked regularly to
142 determine clogging effects. First the K was first determined using empty columns where
143 was only filter mesh (large column) or filter paper and a quartz sand layer (small column).
144 The aim of that was to check how the column system restricted water flow (affected

145 hydraulic conductivity). After that, the hydraulic conductivity was determined for the filled
146 columns first one day after the beginning of the test, then approximately every week for
147 two first months, and finally at the end of the test. The hydraulic conductivity (K-value)
148 was calculated as (Tie- ja vesirakennushallitus, 1974):

$$150 \quad K = \frac{Q \cdot L}{t \cdot A \cdot H} \quad (1)$$

151

152 where Q is the amount of water (cm³) flowing through the column sample at certain time t
153 (s), L is the height of sample (cm), A is the surface area of sample (cm²) and H is the
154 pressure height (cm). Q was measured in the space without sorption materials on the top of
155 the column. On the occasions when hydraulic conductivity was measured i.e.
156 approximately every week for two first months, and finally at the end of the test, inflow and
157 outflow samples were also taken and analysed for PO₄-P, total P, pH, Ca, Al, Fe, S, Mg,
158 manganese (Mn), potassium (K), sodium (Na), barium (Ba), strontium (Sr), titanium (Ti)
159 and zinc (Zn) in an accredited laboratory. At the beginning of the test, samples were taken
160 from the water containers supplying inflow water for analyses of total nitrogen (N) (2300
161 µg L⁻¹), total P (670 µg L⁻¹), chemical oxygen demand (COD_{Mn}) (14 mg L⁻¹), suspended
162 solids (SS) (26 mg L⁻¹) and pH (6.5).

163

164 2.2. *In situ* tests

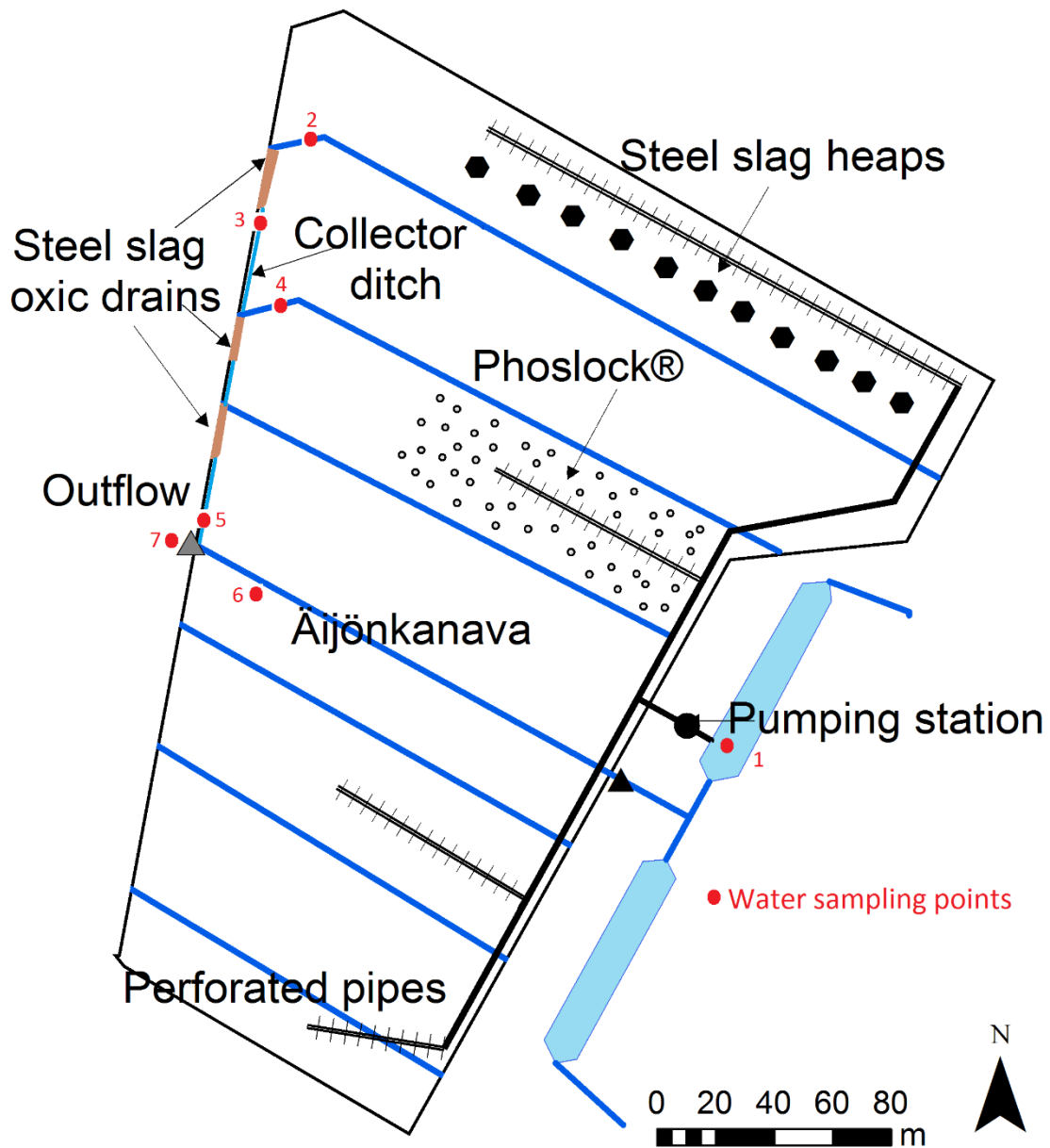
165 Steel slag and Phoslock[®] were also tested *in situ* in Äijönneva TW (64°5'13"N 25°4'56"E)
166 in northern Finland. Steel slag was selected because it is a cheap by-product, available
167 near the study site, can retain PO₄-P based on laboratory tests and does not leach sulphur.
168 Steel slag filters were constructed in the collection ditch as oxic drains to enhance P

169 retention. Slag was also placed in small heaps in front of perforated pipe holes, by request
170 of the peat extraction company who wanted to test this alternative. Phoslock[®] was selected
171 because it is known to retain PO₄-P well and has previously been used in lake restoration
172 projects. In lake restoration it is spread on the bottom of lake, where it binds PO₄-P from
173 the water column and the P released from the sediment. Phoslock[®] was spread on top of
174 the wet and partially water covered peat surface.

175

176 The Äijönneva area was drained some decades ago and is now covered with a dense tree
177 stand. The runoff water from the peat extraction area (surface area 103 ha) is pumped
178 through perforated pipes to the TW from June 2009 onwards. The wetland area (5.8 ha)
179 consists of two parts (southern and northern) separated by a main ditch called
180 Äijönkanava (Fig. 1). The average PO₄-P inflow concentrations were 20 µgL⁻¹, 50 µgL⁻¹
181 and 25 µgL⁻¹ in summer 2009, 2010 and 2011, respectively. PO₄-P leaching from the TW
182 was observed during summer in these years, raising concerns as the environmental permit
183 expects P retention. The average daily outflow discharge from the TW, based on Finnish
184 Environment Institute hydrological watershed model system (WSFS; Finnish
185 Environment Institute, 2013), was 412 L d⁻¹ in summer and 1220 L d⁻¹ in autumn 2011.
186 The average inflow pH was 6.6, 6.6 and 6.5 and the average outflow pH was 6.0, 5.0 and
187 6.2 in summer 2009, 2010 and 2011, respectively. Other information on water quality and
188 purification efficiency results for Äijönneva TW can be found in Postila et al. (2014).

189



190

191 Fig. 1. Sketch of the Äijönneva wetland showing the position of perforated pipes and
 192 collector ditch, the locations of the two sorption materials tested (steel slag and
 193 Phoslock®) and the locations of water sampling points. The runoff water flows to the
 194 wetland via perforated pipes. On the wetland, the water partly flows in the surface peat
 195 layer or on soil surface, and partly via ditches. On the northern part of Äijönkanava
 196 channel, water flows to the collector ditch and finally to the outflow discharge point. On

197 the southern site of Äijönkanava channel, the water flows to the channel and finally to the
198 outflow point.

199

200 In late August-early September 2011, three steel slag oxic drains were constructed in the
201 collector ditch in the northern part of the wetland (Fig. 1). These oxic drains were 6-7 m
202 long and filled with 140 t steel slag with the grain size varying from 10 to 80 mm. The
203 grain size of steel slag used in oxic drains was larger than used in the laboratory test
204 (varying from 10 to 20 mm) as it was not possible to obtain large amounts of the finer-
205 grained steel slag used in the laboratory trial. Also ten tonnes of steel slag with grain size
206 7-15 mm were spread as small heaps in front of one perforated pipe outlet holes in the
207 northern part of the wetland because it was the other grain size, which was possible to get
208 field-scale amounts, and not so big than 10-80 mm. In addition, one tonne of Phoslock®
209 was spread around another perforated pipe.

210

211 Water quality was monitored in ditches below each test area and water flow outlets from
212 the control area (Fig. 1). The southern part of the wetland was then used as a control area,
213 because the water quality was quite similar to that in the northern part in autumn 2010. In
214 autumn 2011, water from all study points was analysed bi-weekly for pH, PO₄-P, total P
215 and dissolved total P in an accredited laboratory (Fig. 1). Wetland outflow water was
216 analysed once per month for Fe, Al, Mn, vanadium (V), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr),
217 copper (Cu), lead (Pb) and nickel (Ni), in order to monitor possible metal leaching from
218 the steel slag material. The water residence time in steel slag oxic drains was determined
219 using sodium chloride (8 kg NaCl in 150 L water) as tracer and measuring the changes in
220 electric conductivity in water.

221

222 3. Results and discussion

223 3.1 Batch tests

224 Based on the batch test results, all sorption materials studied can retain PO₄-P at rates
225 varying from 70% to 100% for the 24 h contact time used (Table 1). The purification
226 efficiency was lowest (70-93%) for limestone, while for the other materials it ranged from
227 88% up to 100%. During the batch test, the water became alkaline when steel slag or
228 Filtralite[®]P was used and it became acidic when CHF 12 was used. With the other
229 materials, the pH stayed neutral. However, CFH 12 and iron gypsum leached noticeable
230 amounts of S (Table 1).

231

232 Table 1. PO₄-P retention (%) and mean values of water quality parameters measured after
233 batch tests. Minimum and maximum values are given in brackets.

Sorption material	PO ₄ -P retention efficiency (%)	pH	S (mg L ⁻¹)	Mg (mg L ⁻¹)	Fe (µg L ⁻¹)	Ca (mg L ⁻¹)	Al (µg L ⁻¹)
Steel slag	98-99	12.2 (12.1-12.2)	1.2 (1.1-1.5)	<0.1	18 (<5-23)	620 (580-660)	120 (98-150)
Filtralite [®] P	93-100	12.3 (12.2-12.3)	9.4 (8.2-12)	<0.1	6 (<5-13)	670 (660-690)	590 (530-640)
CFH 12	98-100	4.6 (4.4-5.5)	2700 (2600-2700)	1800 (1800-1900)	59 (41-87)	280 (260-300)	17 (13-21)
Limestone	70-93	7.9 (7.6-8.0)	0.81 (0.59-10)	3 (3-4)	2100 (1800-2500)	38 (28-50)	120 (29-210)
Phoslock [®]	88-99	6.4 (5.6-6.7)	16 (15-17)	20 (7-40)	<5 (<5-11)	170 (57-350)	2 (1-3)
Iron gypsum	98-99	7.7 (7.5-7.8)	610 (550-640)	63 (56-76)	17 (7-30)	530 (520-550)	30 (26-34)

234

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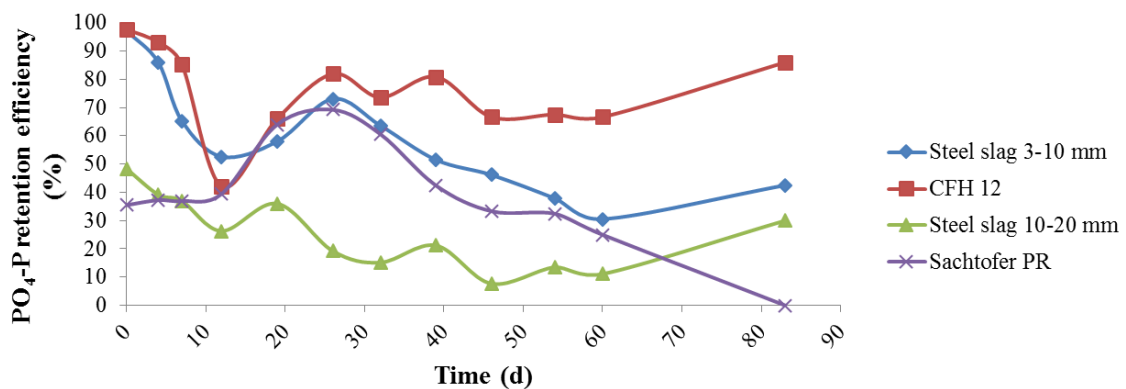
237 3.2 Column tests

238 In the column tests, PO₄-P purification efficiency varied as a function of time (Fig. 2). As
239 expected based e.g. on Johansson (1999) and Xu et al. (2006), higher retention capacity
240 was observed for small particle-sized sorption materials (steel slag 3-10 mm and CFH
241 12). In addition, the Sachtofer PR iron gypsum material retained PO₄-P quite well except
242 at the end of the test, when PO₄-P purification efficiency was 0% and also Al, Fe, Mn, Zn
243 and Ti were leached. Typically, some decrease in the purification efficiency was observed
244 with time, caused by the cumulative P input and saturation, which can be expected (e.g.
245 Àdàm et al., 2007; Shilton et al., 2006; Sjøvik and Kløve, 2005). The difference in outflow
246 water pH between columns was greatest in the beginning of the test (Fig. 3). The pH of
247 water increased after contact with the steel slag material, which contains soluble CaO that
248 can elevate the water pH on dissolution (Klimeski et al., 2012). In the beginning of the
249 test, Sachtofer PR leached more than 600 mg S L⁻¹ and CFH 12 over 200 mg S L⁻¹. The
250 Sachtofer PR column also leached S (160 mg L⁻¹) at the end of test. The Ca content in
251 water from the Sachtofer PR column was elevated during the whole test period. In the
252 columns of the other materials tested it was also elevated, but only in the beginning of the
253 tests. Total P, Al, Fe, Mn, Zn, Na, Ba, Sr, Mg, K and Ti concentrations in column outflow
254 were typically under or at the inflow level except for some individual samples, but Mn,
255 Sr and Mg concentrations in outflow from Sachtofer PR were generally elevated.

256

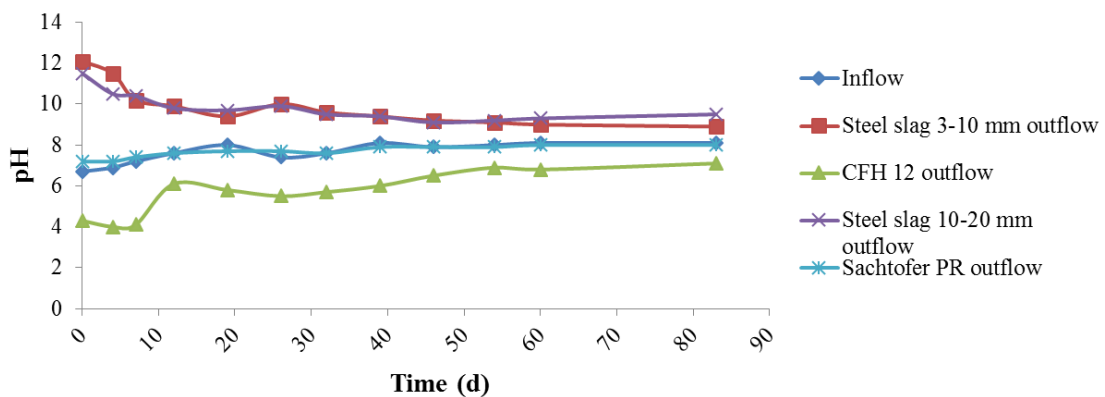
257 Hydraulic conductivity in the small particle size materials tested was lower than in the
258 larger particle size materials (Fig. 4), as previously observed by Penn et al. (2012). The
259 small particle size materials can also become clogged easily (Vohla et al., 2011). The
260 hydraulic conductivity of CFH was low during the test period. However, in the steel slag

261 (3-10 mm) column the hydraulic conductivity suddenly increased noticeably. This was
 262 probably caused by development of a preferential flow path inside the column, and did
 263 not represent the real hydraulic conductivity in the material. During the test period there
 264 was some variation in hydraulic conductivity, which was probably partly caused by
 265 clogging and dissolution of clogged material. For all test runs, the K-values observed
 266 were smaller than for empty columns (including only filter mesh or filter paper and quartz
 267 sand), where the conductivity was 0.05 cm s^{-1} (larger columns) and 0.08 cm s^{-1} (smaller
 268 columns), so the equipment did not affect the sorption materials hydraulic conductivity.
 269



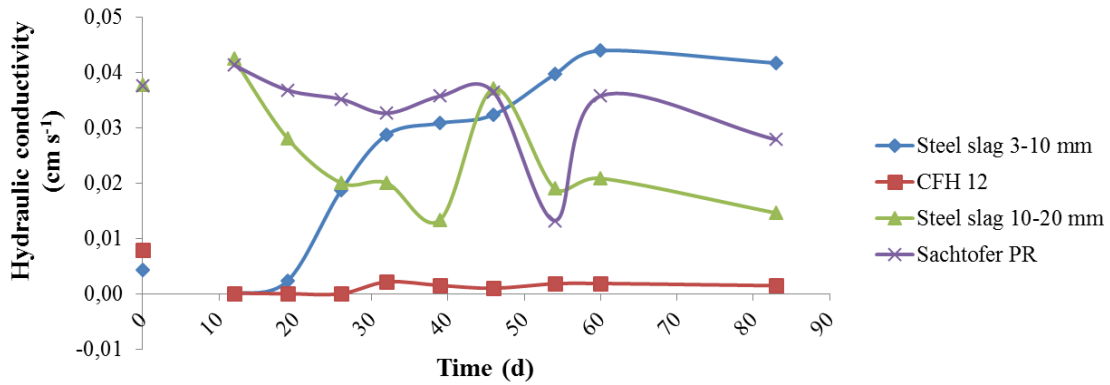
270
 271 Fig. 2. PO₄-P retention (%) in different columns during the column tests.

272



273
 274 Fig. 3. pH values in the inflow and outflow of different columns during the column tests.

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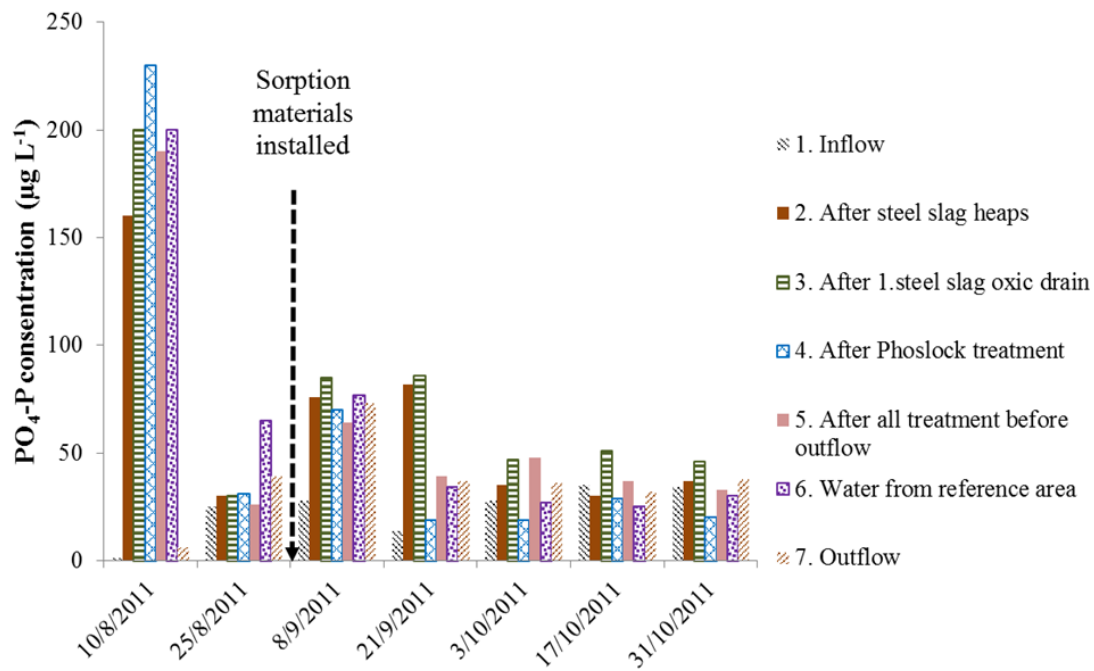
277 Fig. 4. Hydraulic conductivity (cm s^{-1}) in different columns during the column tests.

278

279 3.3 *In situ* tests in a treatment wetland

280 Based on water samples from the TW, the constructed sorption systems did not retain
281 detectable amounts of $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ (Fig. 5), total P or dissolved total P. In the ditch below the
282 Phoslock[®] area, the $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ concentrations were sometimes smaller than in the other areas.
283 Moreover, the Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni and Pb concentrations were under the detection limit in all
284 outflow samples. The Mn and V concentrations were slightly elevated after the sorption
285 materials were installed, but their concentrations returned to their initial level by the end
286 of autumn at the latest. The Fe concentrations in outflow were lower than in inflow. Hence
287 there was no significant metal leaching from the sorption materials.

288



289

290 Fig. 5. PO₄-P concentrations (µg L⁻¹) in wetland water before and after sorption materials
 291 were installed in Äijönneva wetland.

292

293 The residence time of water was only 10-20 minutes in steel slag oxic drains. This is
 294 probably too short for efficient PO₄-P retention. The low P reduction efficiency may also
 295 have been partly caused by large particle size (10-80 mm), as higher reactive surface area
 296 (i.e. smaller particle size) has been observed to enhance P retention (Johansson, 1999; Xu
 297 et al., 2006). The pH at different measurement points (Fig. 1) was mainly at least slightly
 298 acidic, except two samples for point 3 (8.9.2011 (pH 7.5) and 17.10.2011 (pH 7.1)) and
 299 point 5 samples, in which pH varied from 6.8 to 7.2 (21.9.-16.11.2011). On 8.9.2011, the
 300 outflow pH was also 7.0. The formation of Ca-phosphate precipitates is efficient in
 301 alkaline conditions (Johansson and Gustafsson 2000). Thus Ca-rich steel slag was not a
 302 suitable material for P retention in the acidic conditions which occur in Äijönneva TW.
 303 Klimeski et al. (2012) also noted that Ca-rich sorption materials can retain P well in the

304 laboratory, but perhaps not in the field. When dissolved Ca^{2+} contact with atmospheric
305 CO_2 this can also lead formation of CaCO_3 precipitates (Drizo et al., 2002).

306

307 The small heaps of steel slag in the front of the perforated pipe holes may not have worked
308 for the same reason as the steel slag oxalic drains. However, if these heaps are able to retain
309 some $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ from inflow, it is possible that more $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ is leached from the wetland peat
310 before the water flows to the wetland ditch. The Phoslock[®] material contains mostly clay,
311 which can harden during a dry period following a wet (rainy) period. Therefore it should
312 be spread as evenly as possible on the wetland surface. However, here it ended up being
313 applied in small heaps near one of the perforated pipes, the given instruction were not
314 fully understood and followed during construction works. Thus the Phoslock[®] formed
315 much less reactive surface area for P retention than could have provided if it were spread
316 evenly, as initially planned. As a result, this probably reduced the $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ purification
317 potential of this material.

318

319 **4 Conclusions**

320 Sorption materials containing P-precipitating metals can be used for purification of
321 wastewater. We tested six different materials in laboratory experiments first in batch test,
322 and then selected the most promising materials for column tests runs (as Phoslock[®] is a
323 fine clay powder it was not used in column runs). Based on the laboratory test results and
324 considering steel slag as a cost-efficient by-product, steel slag and Phoslock[®] was tested
325 in field experiments. The results indicated that $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ can be retained by sorption
326 materials under laboratory conditions, although due to cumulative P input into sorption
327 material columns, the sorption capacity can decrease over time. When steel slag and

328 Phoslock[®] were added to a treatment wetland, clear enhanced P purification was not
329 observed. The reasons for this may be too large grain size of the steel slag material used,
330 and consequently too short water retention time in this sorption material. In addition, the
331 pH of water passing through the steel slag was too low for Ca-rich sorption material to
332 precipitate P. It was concluded that sorption materials such as Phoslock[®], which can be
333 spread on the wetland surface, should be evenly distributed to gain the most efficient P
334 sorption. Further studies are needed to identify suitable sorption materials and material
335 particle sizes for acidic field conditions with high hydraulic loading rate and low P
336 concentration. Overall, converting drained peatlands to efficiently working treatment
337 wetlands remains a challenge for research and water protection actions.

338

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