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# Environment Canada Water Science and Technology Directorate

# Direction générale des sciences et de la technologie, eau Environnement Canada

Adsorption and Mineralization of Phosphate from Septic System Effluent in Aquifer Materials By:

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TD 226 N87 No. 94-21 · · · ·

94-21

<u>Ptacek, C.J.</u>, Blowes, D.W., Robertson, W.D., and Baker, M.J., 1994. Adsorption and mineralization of phosphate from septic system effluent in aquifer materials. Proceedings of the Waterloo Centre for Groundwater Research Annual Septic System Conference, "Wastewater Nutrient Removal Technologies and Onsite Management Districts", Waterloo Ontario, June 6, 1994, pp. 25-44.

#### Management Perspective

The release of nutrients and other dissolved constituents from septic system tile beds is a common occurrence in humid, temperate climates. This release can lead to the development of large plumes of nonpotable groundwater containing elevated concentrations of nitrate. ammonia, phosphate and other dissolved constituents. Discharge of this septic system leachate to surface water bodies can lead to the development of eutrophic conditions in the receiving waters. Geochemical mechanisms controlling the movement of septic-system derived phosphate in aquifer materials below tile beds are evaluated. Detailed geochemical studies conducted at two field sites are presented to illustrate the highly variable behaviour of phosphate in aquifer materials. At one site, groundwater concentrations of phosphate exceed 5 mg/L up to 20 m downgradient of the tile bed. This phosphate is relatively mobile, moving at a velocity 1/20 of the groundwater flow rate. At a second, higher use site, groundwater concentrations of phosphate are generally < 1 mg/L adjacent to the tile bed area and decline to levels < 0.05 mg/L within 20 m of the tile-bed area. An in situ technique for treating groundwater containing elevated concentrations of phosphate is presented. This technique involves the use of porous reactive geochemical barriers that are installed vertically in the path of the flowing groundwater by excavating the aquifer materials and replacing them with porous materials that chemically remove the phosphate as it moves through the reactive materials. Results of laboratory column tests suggest this treatment system has the potential to effectively remove phosphate from simulated groundwater (>95% removal) at representative groundwater flow rates for sustained periods. Larger scale performance of this system for removing phosphate from groundwater at a septic system site in southern Ontario currently is being evaluated.

# Adsorption and Mineralization of Phosphate from Septic System Effluent in Aquifer Materials

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# Introduction

The release of nutrients from septic systems to groundwater and adjacent surface water bodies is a common occurrence in humid, temperate climates. The principal nutrient released from septic system beds is nitrogen, but in some cases phosphorous can also migrate long distances from the septic system source (Harman, 1992). The movement of nitrogen away from the septic beds is controlled by a series of reactions. These reactions typically follow the sequence of organic-matter and  $NH_4^+$  oxidation in the unsaturated zone to release  $NO_3^-$ , followed by removal of  $NO_3^-$  through denitrification reactions below the water table (*e.g.*, Robertson and Cherry, 1992). Robertson and Cherry describe sites where the oxidation of  $NH_4^+$  above the water table is incomplete, leading to its direct release to the groundwater zone, and sites where denitrification of  $NO_3^-$  is incomplete in the groundwater zone. At some sites  $NO_3^-$  can be highly mobile, moving at approximately the same rate as the flowing groundwater.

The second principal nutrient derived from septic system effluent is phosphorous. The geochemical mechanisms controlling the transport of phosphorous differ substantially from those controlling nitrogen. In the unsaturated zone, organic-bound P and soluble

P, generally in the form of PO<sub>4</sub>, are released directly from the septic system beds. Both forms are biologically utilized, and a high degree of attenuation typically is observed in the near-surface soil zone (Reneau and Perry, 1976). However, some soluble P forms can be released to the groundwater zone, typically as ortho-phosphate  $(PO_{4})$ . Based on the analysis of a large number of groundwater samples collected in the vicinity of septic system leaching beds, several authors (e.g., Sawhney and Starr, 1977; Jones and Lee, 1979) concluded that PO<sub>4</sub> does not generally migrate long distances from septic beds, with decreases in PO<sub>4</sub> concentrations of more than 95% of the influent concentration being common. There are sites, however, where  $PO_4$  has been observed to migrate long distances from the septic system source area. The release of even very low concentrations of PO4 can lead to the development of eutrophic conditions in surface water bodies (Schindler, 1977; Pictcairn and Hawkes, 1973). Phosphorous is a key element controlling the growth of algae and plants in aquatic ecosytems. Algae require from 0.001 - 0.01 mg/L to grow; above 0.5 mg/L, P is no longer a limiting nutrient (Tomson and Vignona, 1984). Studies evaluating the geochemical mechanisms controlling PO<sub>4</sub> migration in aquifer materials provide information that can be used to evaluate the migration of PO<sub>4</sub>, both in the short and long term.

A summary of principal geochemical mechanisms controlling the migration of  $PO_4$  in aquifer materials is described here. Results of two case studies on  $PO_4$  migration in the groundwater zone underlying and adjacent to septic beds, which indicate highly different behaviour for  $PO_4$  attenuation, are presented. Also presented are preliminary results of an *in situ* treatment system for removing phosphate from flowing groundwater in areas where natural attenuation processes are insufficient to maintain low  $PO_4$  concentrations.

## Geochemical Background

Geochemical Conditions in the Vicinity of Septic Systems

When septic system effluent enters the subsurface a series of processes occurs, both physical and chemical, which leads to the development of plumes of dissolved constituents downgradient from the source area (Figure 1). These processes include physical advection and dispersion of the septic system leachate and chemical transformation of the components. As the effluent migrates through the unsaturated zone, a series of oxidation reactions occurs transforming the reduced septic system effluent components to oxidized species (Figure 2). This altered effluent, together with rainfall and snowmelt, migrate downward to the groundwater zone. Once in the groundwater zone, it migrates downward and laterally from the site in the direction of the flowing groundwater (in unconfined aquifers, in the direction of the sloping water table). In the unsaturated zone, the principal oxidant of the organic carbon contained in the septic system effluent is gaseous oxygen. Below the water table, transport of  $O_2$  is in the dissolved form. The solubility of  $O_2$  is low (8-13 mg/L at typical groundwater temperatures), therefore extensive oxidation of septic effluent by  $O_2$  is limited to the unsaturated zone. If septic effluent is incompletely oxidized in the unsaturated zone, its further oxidation in the saturated zone is limited by mixing with dissolved  $O_2$  at the fringes of the septic effluent plume or by the extent of oxidation by other oxidant sources (e.g., Fe(III) and Mn(IV) oxides and (oxy)hydroxides). Attenuation of dissolved PO<sub>4</sub> along the groundwater flow path is highly dependent on the changing geochemical conditions that result from these oxidation reactions. Changes in pH and alkalinity occur along the flow path. Degradation of the organic wastes in the effluent leads to the production of  $CO_2$ , alkalinity, and alteration of the pore-water pH. These chemical changes also influence PO<sub>4</sub> migration from the source area.

# Geochemical Controls on Phosphate Mobility

The discussion that follows will focus on the principal geochemical mechanisms that potentially can influence the rate of  $PO_4$  migration in the groundwater zone. Specific geochemical mechanisms controlling the movement of  $PO_4$  in the septic system environment include adsorption/desorption and precipitation/dissolution reactions.

# Adsorption Reactions

Phosphate potentially can be adsorbed by a number of minerals and amorphous phases present in the aquifer solids. Phosphate is a protolytic acid with PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> protonating to form HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>,</sup> and H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>0</sup> (Table 1). Polyphosphate species, derived from detergents and other sources, may also be present. This discussion will focus on the more dominant orthophosphate species. Under normal groundwater pH conditions, the dominant forms of  $PO_4^{3-}$  are  $HPO_4^{2-}$  and  $H_2PO_4^{-}$ , both of which are anions. The adsorption of these anions requires the presence of positively-charged mineral surfaces. The surface charge on minerals is typically pH-dependent, and is closely related to the zero-point of charge of the mineral (Stumm and Morgan, 1981; Table 2). For a clean mineral surface, on which no adsorption has occurred, the pH of the zero point of charge is the pH at which the mineral surface has equal positive and negatively charged sites. Above this pH, negative sites dominate and below this pH positive sites dominate. Because PO<sub>4</sub> occurs as an anion under normal groundwater pH conditions, solids that are positively charged in the intermediate pH range become the dominant candidates for PO<sub>4</sub> adsorption. The principal solids present in aquifers that meet these criteria include Al-, Mn(IV)- and Fe(III)-containing oxides and (oxy)hydroxides and some clay minerals.

Studies on the adsorption of  $PO_4$  onto mineral surfaces indicate that the adsorption process is pH-dependent and that  $PO_4$  is strongly adsorbed, referred to as 'specific' or 'inner sphere' adsorption (Hingston et al., 1967, 1972; Parfitt, 1978; Hingston, 1981; Goldberg and Sposito, 1985). The process leads to a tight bond between the  $PO_4$  species and the mineral, which, in some cases, is so strong that the surface charge is substantially altered as a result of the adsorption process. Under very low-pH conditions (pH < 2.2),  $H_3PO_4^{0}$ , a neutral species, is the dominant form of phosphate (Table 1), leading to a decrease in PO<sub>4</sub> adsorption under very acidic conditions. The result, therefore, is an adsorption envelope with the maximum dependent on the dissociation constants for PO<sub>4</sub> and the surface charge of the mineral.

In natural soils and sediments, oxides and (oxy)hydroxides of Al, Mn(IV), and Fe(III) are common, as are clay minerals. When partially oxidized septic-system leachates rich in organic carbon enter a soil or aquifer system, there is the potential for the reductive dissolution of oxidized solids, in particular, Mn(IV)- and Fe(III)-bearing solids. Reduction of Mn(IV)- and Fe(III)-bearing solids leads to increased concentrations of dissolved Fe(II) and Mn(II). If a large unsaturated zone is present, . this Fe(II) and Mn(II) may reoxidize, leading to the reprecipitation of Fe(III)- and Mn(IV)-bearing solids further along the flowpath. In the case of an oxygen-limited septic system, where reducing conditions are maintained to the water table, dissolved organic carbon and reduced Fe(II) and Mn(II) can enter the groundwater zone and migrate long distances in the groundwater zone (Robertson and Blowes, 1994). The release of these components from septic systems results in the migration of redox fronts, analogous to that observed in a landfill setting by Lingkilde and Christensen (1992) and Heren and Christensen (1994). As reductive dissolution reactions occur, some of the natural PO<sub>4</sub> attenuation capacity of the soil or aquifer solids may be depleted. To predict the rate of movement of the zones of stability for the mineral adsorbents, a complete understanding of the redox buffering capacity of the system is required. Various methods for assessing redox buffering capacity in aquifer materials are currently being developed (e.g. Heren and Christensen, 1994).

Other solids, including Al-containing solids and clays are expected to be more stable under reducing conditions. If present, these solids can contribute to the  $PO_4$  adsorption capacity, even if the system is highly reducing.

#### Precipitation/Dissolution Reactions

The second major process influencing the migration of  $PO_4$  in natural systems is the precipitation and dissolution of  $PO_4$ -containing solid phases. There are numerous  $PO_4$  phases that occur in nature (Nriagu, 1984), the most common being Al, Fe, and Ca solids (Table 3). Because of the protolytic nature of  $PO_4$ , and because many of these phases contain OH and  $CO_3$ , consideration of the groundwater pH conditions in the changing septic system environment is needed to determine their solubility. As well, because some of the low solubility phases contain cations in multiple oxidation states, information on the changing Eh conditions are also required.

Solids commonly proposed to be major controls on dissolved  $PO_4$  concentrations in natural systems include hydroxyapatite, fluorapatite, strengite, variscite and vivianite,

or closely related amorphous and hydrated solid phases (Table 2). The latter two phases contain Fe in the Fe(III) and Fe(II) forms, respectively. In lake sediments, supersaturated conditions with respect to hydroxyapatite have been documented (*e.g.*, Emerson, 1976; Wersin et al., 1991). Under reducing conditions, the formation of vivianite has been proposed to be an important control on PO<sub>4</sub> concentrations (Nriagu and Dell, 1974; Emerson, 1976; Wersin et al., 1991).

Attenuation of PO<sub>4</sub> can be through a combination of geochemical processes. There often is a rapid initial uptake through adsorption reactions, followed by a slower mineralization step. For example, initial adsorption of PO<sub>4</sub> by Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub> surfaces can be followed by recrystallization to FePO<sub>4</sub>  $\cdot$  nH<sub>2</sub>O, provided the conditions for its formation are favoured (Stumm and Morgan, 1981). A similar series of reactions is expected for .adsorption of PO<sub>4</sub> onto Al oxide and (oxy)hydroxide surfaces. Following the adsorption step, recrystallization to AlPO<sub>4</sub>  $\cdot$  2H<sub>2</sub>O (variscite) may also be expected. Similarly for the PO<sub>4</sub> carbonate phases, precipitation of a structurally less complex amorphous precursor, such as brushite (CaHPO<sub>4</sub>  $\cdot$  2H<sub>2</sub>O) or octacalcium phosphate (Ca<sub>8</sub>H<sub>2</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub> $\cdot$ 5H<sub>2</sub>O), is expected to occur, followed by the gradual conversion to stable hydroxyapatite (Posner et al., 1984).

Adsorption reactions are usually rapid. There is, however, a finite adsorption capacity for most aquifer materials, unless adsorbent surfaces are being freshly regenerated through other geochemical processes. Precipitation reactions that remove PO<sub>4</sub> through conversion of a preexisting phase in the aquifer solids also have a finite capacity. Geochemical conditions that initially favour the removal of PO<sub>4</sub> through precipitation and adsorption reactions, such as in the advancing front of a high PO<sub>4</sub> plume, may later change to conditions that favour the redissolution or desorption of PO<sub>4</sub>. Structural uptake of PO<sub>4</sub> in a highly insoluble solid phase will lead to the highest likelihood that release rates will be low over the long term. The exception is if the insoluble phase in not stable under changing Eh conditions and is oxidized, such as vivianite, or reductively dissolved, such as FePO<sub>4</sub>•2H<sub>2</sub>O. Predictions of PO<sub>4</sub> mobility, both short and long term, need to address the geochemical evolution of the complete solid and aqueous system at a given site.

# Case Studies

We here discuss two cases, one where septic leachate is almost completely oxidized in the unsaturated zone prior to its infiltration into the groundwater zone, and the second where the septic system leachate is only partially oxidized. In the case of nearly complete oxidation, the effluent contains primarily highly oxidized species (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and PO<sub>4</sub>) and recalcitrant organic matter. In the case of incomplete oxidation, the effluent contains a combination of reduced species (organic matter, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup>) and oxidized species (CO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and O<sub>2</sub>). Infiltration of this water type into an aquifer containing oxidized solids will lead to the continued oxidation of the septic leachate below the water table.

## Cambridge Site

At the Cambridge site, Cambridge, Ontario, domestic wastewater from a single household has been disposed of using a conventional septic system since 1977 (Robertson et al., 1991). The infiltration bed is positioned in a 2 m-thick unsaturated zone overlying an unconfined aquifer of carbonate-rich medium sand. Groundwater flow in the aquifer is primarily horizontal at a rate of about 20 m/yr. In 1987 (year 10 of operation), a detailed groundwater monitoring network revealed the presence of a long, narrow contaminant plume (> 130 m in length) that was little affected by dispersive dilution. During monitoring in year 10, a  $PO_4$  plume was delineated in the groundwater zone, but its distribution was limited to the area immediately underlying the infiltration bed (Figure 3).

Subsequent monitoring in year 14 (1991) and 17 (1994), however, revealed slow butprogressive advancement of the PO<sub>4</sub> plume. During the latter monitoring episode, the PO<sub>4</sub> plume (PO<sub>4</sub>-P > 1 mg/L) had advanced to a location 20 m downgradient from the infiltration bed (Figure 3). The apparent PO<sub>4</sub> plume migration velocity of about 1 m/yr represents retardation by a factor of 20, compared to the groundwater velocity. Phosphate concentrations in the plume reach a maximum of about 5 mg/L as P, representing a substantial fraction (70%) of the amount found in the raw wastewater (about 7 mg/L as P). Plume behaviour during long-term monitoring suggests that PO<sub>4</sub> mobility in the groundwater zone at this site is controlled primarily by sorption processes.

#### Pelee Site

A study was initiated to determine the fate of septic-system derived effluent in the shallow groundwater zone at Point Pelee National Park, near Learnington, Ontario. The Park is located on a narrow peninsula extending southward into Lake Erie. A groundwater sampling network was installed in the vicinity of a septic-system tile bed located at Camp Henry, to determine the groundwater flow-field in the vicinity of the bed and to obtain samples of groundwater for geochemical analysis. The tile bed at Camp Henry was installed in the 1930's and has been receiving wastewater from a washroom facility on a variable basis since then. Below the tile bed is a poorly graded coarse sand unit containing thin lenses of pebbly material (upper 7-8 m) which overlays a dense clay unit. The maximum population is estimated to be 50, and the maximum day water use is estimated to be 2500 L/day (MacLaren Engineers, 1989).

In winter, 1994, a series of groundwater samples were collected and analysed to determine concentrations of  $NO_3 + NO_2$ ,  $NH_4$ , o-PO<sub>4</sub>, DOC, SO<sub>4</sub>, Cl, and conductance. The water table below the tile bed was < 1 m below the ground surface at the time of sampling. A plume of contaminated groundwater, as delineated by elevated concentrations of one or more of the nutrients, has developed downgradient

in an easterly direction from the tile bed. Results from piezometer nest CH14, 1.5 m north of the northern edge of the tile-bed, and three piezometer nests along a cross-section approximately parallel to the groundwater flow direction, CH7, 3.7 m east, CH5, 18.3 m east, and CH22, 37.8 m east of the eastern edge of the tile-bed. The location of the septic system plume at these piezometer nests, as indicated by increased specific conductance measurements, is 1.5 - 6.0 m below the ground surface at location CH14 and along the cross-section. The distribution of dissolved constituents (DOC, Cl, NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>) derived from the septic system indicates water originating from the septic system has migrated beyond the location of piezometer nest CH22.

The highest concentrations of PO<sub>4</sub> are observed in the shallowest sampling points at piezometer nest CH14 (1 m) and at greater depth (1.5 m - 4.0 m) at CH7. Maximum PO<sub>4</sub> concentrations are on the order of 0.3 mg/L PO<sub>4</sub>-P. At greater distance (CH5 and CH22), PO<sub>4</sub> concentrations decrease to < 0.05 mg/L PO<sub>4</sub>-P, suggesting PO<sub>4</sub> is being attenuated along the flow path. Persistence of high concentrations of DOC and NH<sub>4</sub> suggest that the septic-system effluent at this site is not completely oxidized in the unsaturated zone.

The behaviour of  $PO_4$  at the Camp Henry site, and reduced condition of the septic system effluent in the groundwater zone, contrasts with the extensively oxidized effluent at the Cambridge site. The differences in geochemical environments at these two sites suggest that different  $PO_4$  attenuation mechanisms may be active. The low mobility of  $PO_4$  observed at the Pelee site is similar to observations made at other sites receiving  $PO_4$ -containing wastewaters. For example, at a site where secondary-treated sewage water was disposed of on surface sand beds in Cape Cod, MA,  $PO_4$  was attenuated to a much greater extent than other sewage related constituents, including detergents,  $NO_3$ ,  $NH_3$  and Cl and Na (LeBlanc, 1985).

#### In-situ Treatment of PO<sub>4</sub>-Contaminated Groundwater

At sites where there is little natural attenuation capacity in the aquifer materials, or where this capacity has been exceeded, release of  $PO_4$  to nearby streams and lakes can lead to the development of eutrophic conditions in these water bodies (Schindler, 1977; Pictcairn and Hawkes, 1973). Studies on the temporal behaviour of  $PO_4$ , such as at the Cambridge site, suggests that, if no action is taken, the distance of migration of  $PO_4$  from the source area will increase with time. There are a number of possible remedial measures that can be taken. Some options include the use of alternative septic system designs that maximize P removal from the septic system effluent prior to its release to the groundwater zone, relocation of the septic beds to maximize the use of the natural attenuation capacity of the local aquifer materials, and the use of aquifer amendments in the form of *in situ* porous reactive walls to increase the capacity of the aquifer materials to attenuate  $PO_4$ . The first two options do not address the problem of  $PO_4$  plumes that have already formed and are now migrating. The last option is particularly valuable at sites where large  $PO_4$  plumes already exist, or at sites where the natural attenuation capacity of local materials are inadequate for the attenuation of  $PO_4$ .

We have been conducting studies on the use of aquifer amendments to enhance the removal of inorganic contaminants from flowing groundwater (Blowes and Ptacek, 1992, 1994; Blowes et al., 1994). These amendments are added to the aquifer materials in the form of porous reactive walls that are installed in the path of the contaminant plumes (Figure 5). The contaminants are removed from the flowing groundwater as they pass through the reactive materials.

To be suitable candidates for use in a reactive wall, the solid phase must be sufficiently reactive to remove the contaminant within the residence time of the contaminant in the wall. The solid phase must also be sufficiently stable that it remains active and in place for a period of decades to make the technique economically viable. After the reactive capacity is exhausted, the material can be replaced if necessary.

For the treatment of  $PO_4$  using a porous reactive wall, two materials have been evaluated as potential candidates for use as the solid-phase mixture (Baker, 1993). These materials were a Fe(III) (oxy)hydroxide adsorbent, and calcium carbonate in the form of crushed agricultural limestone. These materials were evaluated separately, and in combination, for their ability to remove  $PO_4$  from water. Limestone was added to promote the precipitation of a mixed Ca-PO<sub>4</sub> carbonate solid. This precipitation reaction is favoured under intermediate- to basic-pH conditions. The Fe(III) (oxy)hydroxide was added to promote adsorption of  $PO_4$  on the solid surfaces. This adsorption reaction is favoured under slightly acidic to slightly basic pH conditions. The purpose of combining the ferric solid and the limestone was to enhance the removal process over a broader pH range than if either was used alone. Coarsegrained sand was added to the mixture to increase its permeability.

Laboratory batch experiments were conducted for a variety of mixtures of reactive solids. A run in which a combination of solids was used is presented here. For this run, 500 g of 10 mg/L PO<sub>4</sub> (as P) solution was agitated with 2.5 g of Fe(III) (oxy)hydroxide solid, 22.5 g of agricultural limestone and 25 g of quartz sand. A 10 mL aliquot of the water was removed from the reaction flask at selected time intervals and the solution was filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$ m filter and analyzed for PO<sub>4</sub> by Fe(III)-(oxy)hydroxide was rapid, with > 99.9 % removed within 0.5 hrs (Figure 6). A separate run indicated removal of PO<sub>4</sub> by limestone alone was less rapid, with 96 % removed within 45 hrs. Tests using only Fe(III)-(oxy)hydroxide with quartz sand

yielded results that were similar to those obtained for the mixture combining the Fe(III) solid and limestone.

Laboratory column experiments were conducted to assess the rate of removal of PO<sub>4</sub> under dynamic flow conditions. Columns 15 cm in length and 6.5 cm in diameter were packed with a mixture of the Fe(III) solid (15 wt%), limestone (45 wt%) and quartz sand (50 wt%). Solution containing 10 mg/L PO<sub>4</sub> was pumped through the column at an average linear velocity of approximately 25 cm/day, and the column effluent was sampled at regular time intervals. For the first 50 pore volumes (volume of displaceable water in the packed column) of solution that were displaced, > 99.9 % of the PO<sub>4</sub> was removed from the flowing water (Fig. 7). For the next 400 pore volumes, the removal was less complete, with a slow increase in PO<sub>4</sub> concentration in the column effluent to levels currently approaching 3-7 % of the input solution concentration (93-97 % removal).

Limitations to the application of this  $PO_4$  removal technique include potential clogging of the porous media due to the precipitation of  $PO_4$ -bearing minerals and other solid phases. At sites where highly reducing conditions have developed, the potential for the reductive dissolution of the Fe(III) solids exists. Hindrances to continued access to the reactive surfaces may also limit the long-term effectiveness of this technology. A field trial designed to assess the potential effectiveness of this technology for removing  $PO_4$ in an oxidized septic-system plume is currently underway. Materials suitable for use under reducing conditions also are being evaluated currently.

## Conclusions

The principal geochemical mechanisms controlling  $PO_4$  mobility in the subsurface environment include adsorption, precipitation and co-precipitation reactions. In many geochemical environments, interactions between  $PO_4$  and natural soil and aquifer materials can lead to a high degree of  $PO_4$  attenuation. In other geochemical environments, the attenuation of  $PO_4$  by aquifer materials is much less effective at limiting the migration of  $PO_4$ . Case studies demonstrate this variability in  $PO_4$ behaviour. A potential technique for remediating existing plumes of  $PO_4$ , the use of porous reactive walls, is currently being evaluated.

## Acknowledgements

We thank J. Voralek, C. Hanton-Fong, A. Crowe, R. McCrea, and J. Harman for their contributions and helpful discussions.

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Reaction	pK, 25°C
$H_3PO_4 = H_2PO_4^- + H^+$	2.2
$H_2PO_4^- = HPO_4^{2-} + H^+$	7.0
$HPO_4^{2} = PO_4^{3} + H^+$	12.0

-

Table 1: Acidity constants for phosphate species.

Table 2: Common PO<sub>4</sub> minerals.

Phase	Formula	
hydroxyl apatite	$Ca_{5}(OH)(PO_{4})_{3}$	
fluorapatite	Ca <sub>5</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> F	
carbonate fluorapatite	$(Ca,H_2O)_5(F,OH)(PO_4,CO_3)_3$	
strengite	FePO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	
variscite	AlPO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	
vivianite	Fe <sub>3</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ), 8H <sub>2</sub> O	

·	
Material	pH <sub>zpc</sub>
$\alpha$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.1
$\cdot \alpha$ -Al(OH) <sub>3</sub>	5.0
γ-ΑΙΟΟΗ	8.2
α-FeOOH	7.8
γ-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	6.7
Fe(OH), (am)	8.5
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	6.5
δ-MnO <sub>2</sub>	2.8
β-MnO <sub>2</sub>	7.2
SiO <sub>2</sub>	2.0
Feldspars	2-2,4
Kaolinite	4.6
Montmorillonite	2.5
Albite	2.0

Table 3: Zero point of charge for selected solid surfaces (after Stumm and Morgan, 1981).

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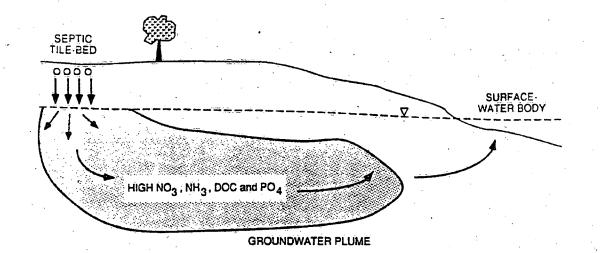
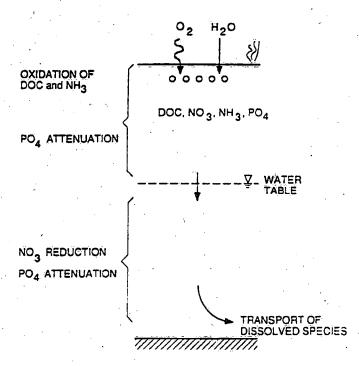


Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the development of a plume of dissolved constituents derived from a conventional septic system.



SUMMARY OF GEOCHEMICAL REACTIONS

Figure 2. Schematic diagram showing the sequence of reactions occurring in the vadose zone and groundwater zone in an unconfined aquifer underlying a conventional septic system.

CAMBRIDGE SITE YEAR 10 9 agagagag 8 WEEPING TILES 7 11/87 6 5 SAND 4 2. 3 TILL 2 -YEAR 14 9 8 ELEVATION (m) 7 6 5 .30. 4 з. 2 -YEAR 17 9 8 7 · 6 5 4 3 2. لد\_\_\_\_ 20 m ŏ 10

Figure 3.

Distribution of  $PO_4$ -P (mg/L) along the plume centreline at Cambridge during years 10, 14 and 17 of operation (dashed line represents plume boundary as defined by 40 mg/L Na contour).

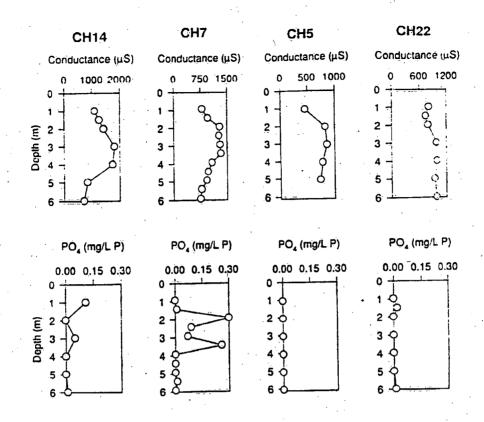


Figure 4. Specific conductance and concentrations of  $o-PO_4$  (mg/L as P) versus depth for groundwater samples collected at three sites downgradient from a highusage septic bed, Point Pelee National Park.

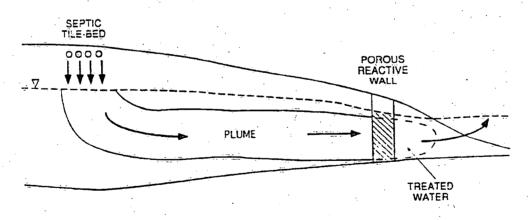


Figure 5.

Schematic diagram illustrating the use of a porous reactive wall to remove  $PO_4$  from a septic system plume.

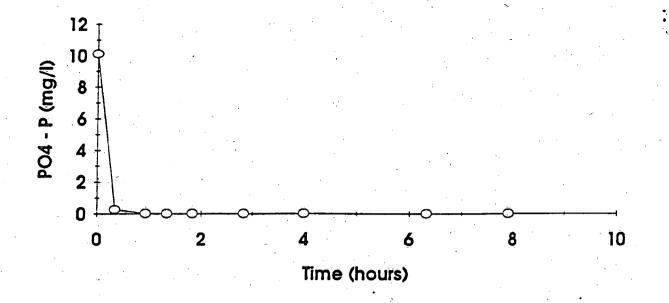


Figure 6. Removal of  $PO_4$  from solution versus time by reaction with a solid mixture containing Fe(III)(oxy)hydroxide, agricultural limestone, and quartz sand.

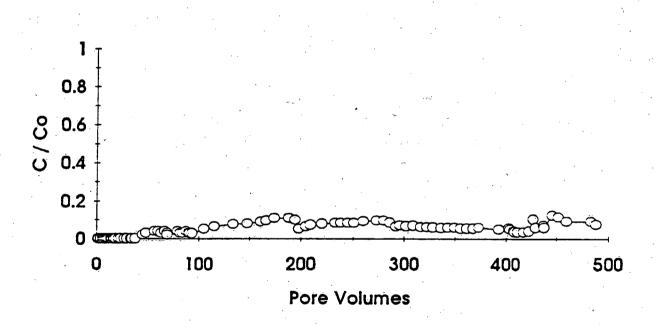


Figure 7.

Laboratory column test results showing normalized concentration of  $PO_4$  in the column effluent water versus normalized time (pore volumes).



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