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Author(s)	Cusack, Patricia B.; Healy, Mark G.; Ryan, Paraic C.; Burke, Ian T.; O'Donoghue, Lisa M.T.; Ujaczki, Éva; Courtney, Ronan
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5	Enhancement of bauxite residue as a low-cost adsorbent for phosphorus in aqueous solution,
6	using seawater and gypsum treatments.
7	
8	Patricia B. Cusack <sup>a,b,c</sup> , Mark G. Healy <sup>b*</sup> , Paraic C. Ryan <sup>b</sup> , Ian T. Burke <sup>d</sup> , Lisa M. T. O'
9	Donoghue <sup>e</sup> , Éva Ujaczki <sup>c,e,f</sup> , Ronan Courtney <sup>a,c</sup>
10	
11	<sup>a</sup> Department of Biological Sciences, University of Limerick, Castletroy, Co. Limerick, Ireland.
12	<sup>b</sup> Civil Engineering, National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland.
13	<sup>c</sup> The Bernal Institute, University of Limerick, Castletroy, Co. Limerick, Ireland.
14	<sup>d</sup> School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, United Kingdom.
15	<sup>e</sup> Design and Manufacturing Technology, University of Limerick, Castletroy, Co. Limerick,
16	Ireland.
17	<sup>f</sup> Department of Applied Biotechnology and Food Science, Faculty of Chemical Technology
18	and Biotechnology, Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Műegyetem rkp. 3,
19	1111 Budapest, Hungary
20	
21	
22	*Corresponding Author. Tel: +353 91 495364; fax: +353 91 494507. E-mail address:
23	mark.healy@nuigalway.ie
24 25	Highlights
26	• Separate size fractions of bauxite residue were treated with gypsum and seawater.
27	• Alkalinity was reduced following treatment with the gypsum and seawater.

• The effect on composition and P adsorption of the treated samples were examined.

29

• Gypsum was found to be the most successful in enhancing the P adsorption capacity.

30

## 31 Abstract

32 Bauxite residue (red mud), the by-product produced in the alumina industry, is being 33 produced at an estimated global rate of approximately 150Mt per annum. Due to its highly 34 alkaline nature, many refineries use neutralisation techniques such as mud farming 35 (atmospheric carbonation), direct carbonation using carbon dioxide or reactions with 36 seawater, to treat the bauxite residue and reduce its alkalinity prior to disposal in the BRDA 37 (bauxite residue disposal area). Applying a treatment can render the bauxite residue non-38 hazardous and may also prepare the bauxite residue for reuse, particularly as an adsorbent. In 39 this study, gypsum and seawater treatments were applied to the various bauxite residue 40 samples obtained and the effects on its mineral, elemental and physiochemical properties 41 were examined, as well as the effect on its phosphorus (P) adsorption capacity. It was found 42 that in addition to reducing the alkalinity of all bauxite residue samples used, the P adsorption 43 capacity was also enhanced following amendment with seawater or gypsum, particularly with 44 gypsum. A positive correlation was detected between P adsorption and both Ca and CaO. A 45 negative correlation was detected between the P adsorption and pH of the media. Fitting the 46 data obtained from a batch adsorption experiment to the Langmuir adsorption isotherm, the 47 maximum adsorption capacity was estimated to range from 0.345 to 2.73 mg P per g bauxite 48 residue, highlighting the re-use potential for bauxite residue as an adsorbent for P.

49

*Keywords:* bauxite residue; adsorption; bauxite residue filter; aqueous solution; phosphate
removal

## 53 **1. Introduction**

54 During the extraction of alumina from bauxite ore using the Bayer process, a by-product 55 called bauxite residue (red mud) (Kirwan et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014) is produced. The 56 global inventory for bauxite residue is approximately 3 billion tonnes, with an estimated 57 annual production rate of 150 million tonnes (Evans, 2016; Mayes et al., 2016). Bauxite 58 residue is highly alkaline (pH > 10) (Goloran et al., 2013), with a high salinity and sodicity 59 (Gräfe et al., 2009). Current best practice within this industry includes careful planning and 60 management of highly engineered bauxite residue disposal areas (BRDAs), avoiding 61 contamination of the surrounding environment (Prajapati et al., 2016). In addition, some 62 refineries use neutralisation techniques for the bauxite residue before disposal into the 63 BRDAs (Klauber et al., 2011; IAI, 2015; Evans 2016). These techniques include (1) direct 64 carbonation, whereby the residue slurry is treated with either carbon dioxide, sulfur dioxide 65 gas, or undergoes intensive mud farming using amphirollers (atmospheric carbonation) 66 (Cooling, 2007; Fois et al. 2007; Dilmore et al., 2009; Evans, 2016) (2) addition of spent 67 acids and/or gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O) (Kirwan et al., 2013), or (3) reaction of residues with seawater (Hanahan et al., 2004; Palmer and Frost, 2009; Couperthwaite et al., 2014). 68

69

70 Bauxite residues typically comprise very fine particles, ranging from 0.01 µm to 200 µm 71 (Pradhan et al., 1996). Depending on the type of bauxite ore used, in some refineries the 72 bauxite residue undergoes a separation technique during processing (Evans, 2016), which 73 allows it to be separated into two main fractions: a fine fraction with a particle size <100 µm 74 and a coarse fraction with a particle size  $>150 \mu m$  (Eastham et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2012). 75 The coarse fraction mainly consists of quartz  $(SiO_2)$ , whereas the fine fraction is dominated 76 by iron (Fe) oxides (Snars and Gilkes, 2009). The ratio of the fine to coarse fraction produced 77 is dependent on the bauxite ore used and the Bayer process employed (Li, 2001). Refineries

which carry out the separation technique, have found use for the coarse fraction to create
roadways to the BRDA and/or storage embankments (Evans, 2016). However, finding
appropriate options for the re-use of the fine fraction bauxite residue remains elusive (Power
et al., 2011; IAI, 2015).

82

83 Fine fraction bauxite residue comprises Fe oxides (20-45%) and aluminium (Al) oxides (10-84 22%) (IAI 2015), which make it suitable as a medium to adsorb phosphorus (P). The 85 European Commission (EC) has identified waste management as an important aspect of the "circular economy" (EC, 2015), so in recent years, emphasis has been placed on investigating 86 87 alternative methods of P recovery from wastewater (Grace et al., 2015, 2016). A move from 88 the more conventional methods of P recovery such as biological removal and chemical 89 precipitation (Wang et al., 2008), to the use of low-cost adsorbents from industrial solid 90 wastes, such as bauxite residue, have been examined. In comparison to standard P removal 91 by sand, bauxite residue has a high P retention capacity (Vohla et al., 2007). However, its P 92 removal potential is enhanced following treatment by heat, acid or gypsum (Table 1). Of the 93 methods employed, acid and heat treatment have proved most successful in increasing the P 94 adsorption capacity of the bauxite residue, with maximum adsorption capacities of up to 203 mg P g<sup>-1</sup> bauxite being achieved (Liu et al., 2007) compared to untreated residue (0.20 mg P 95  $g^{-1}$ ; Grace et al., 2015) (Table 1). However, whilst acid and heat treatments have proven to be 96 97 very successful in increasing the adsorption capacity of bauxite residue, they are expensive, 98 energy consuming (using high temperatures up to 700°C) (Xue et al., 2016), and, without 99 further treatment, do not allow for the easy reuse of the bauxite residue (e.g. as a possible 100 media for plant growth) (Xue et al., 2016).

101

102 Treatments such as seawater or gypsum provide relatively inexpensive, alternative 103 treatments, which may not only enhance the P adsorption capacity of the bauxite residue 104 media, but may also help to improve its physicochemical characteristics. Seawater treatment 105 improves bauxite's physical structure, due to the addition of magnesium (Mg) and calcium (Ca) which behave as flocculating agents, allowing many of the fine particles in bauxite 106 107 residue to form more stable aggregates (Jones and Haynes, 2011), and a partial decrease in 108 sodium (Na) due to ion exchange with Mg, Ca and potassium (K) (Hanahan et al., 2004). 109 Seawater-treated bauxite residues also allow adsorbed P to become bio-available, unlike the 110 metal cations which are unavailable, highlighting the P and metal retention capabilities 111 (Fergusson, 2009). Revegetation of bauxite residue using gypsum has also improved plant 112 growth by reducing its alkalinity and salinity, and improving the structure of the residue 113 (Courtney et al., 2009; Courtney and Kirwan, 2012). In addition to this, modern alumina 114 refineries are often located close to deep water ports, to allow for the bulk shipment of 115 incoming bauxite (sometimes from multiple sources) to the refinery and/or for bulk shipment 116 of alumina to aluminium smelters situated elsewhere. Therefore, there is ample scope for the 117 increasing use of seawater neutralization technology for pre-treatment of residues in 118 refineries not already employing treatments previously mentioned, prior to their deposition in 119 the BRDA.

120

To the best of the authors' knowledge, no study has previously compared the use of raw seawater or gypsum treatments on the separate fractions of bauxite residue as a method of neutralisation and preparation for the re-use of bauxite residue in its separated and unseparated fractions as low-cost adsorbents and a potential source of P. The objectives of this study were to (1) characterise bauxite residue from two different sources, before and after treatment with seawater and gypsum, and to investigate their potential to release trace

127 elements (2) investigate the effect of the treated bauxite residue on P adsorption (3) assess the128 impact of particle size, mineral and elemental (particularly Ca and Mg) composition of the

129 bauxite residue on the adsorption of P.

130

### 131 **2. Materials and Methods**

132

133 2.1 Sample preparation

134 A one kilogram, sample of fresh bauxite residue was obtained from Alteo Gardanne

135 [Gardanne, France (43°27'9"N, 5°27'41" E)], who operate a co-disposal method for fine and

136 coarse fractions of bauxite. This sample will be referred to hereafter as UFR. One kilogram

137 of mud-farmed bauxite residue samples (treated by atmospheric carbonation and therefore

138 non-hazardous), were also obtained from Rusal Aughinish Alumina [Limerick, Ireland

139  $(52^{\circ}37'06''N, 9^{\circ}04'19''W)$ ], who separate the fine (particle sizes <100 µm) and coarse

140 (particle sizes  $>150 \mu$ m) fraction of bauxite residue before disposal (IAI 2015) in a ratio of

141 9:1 (fine: coarse). The fine and coarse fractions will be referred to hereafter as UF (untreated

142 fine) and UC (untreated coarse).

143

144 Before any analysis or experiments were conducted, all bauxite residue samples were dried at

145 105°C for 24 hr. Once dry, the samples were pulverised using a mortar and pestle and sieved

146 to a particle size <2 mm. 0.3 kg of each sample were then treated with either seawater (S) or

147 laboratory-grade gypsum (G) (Lennox, Ireland), so two treatments were applied to each

source of bauxite residue. S or G, placed after the above abbreviations, indicates the

treatment applied. Gypsum was applied to the 0.3 kg bauxite residue samples at a ratio of 8%

150 (w/w) (Lopez et al., 1998) and leached for 72 hr in accordance with standard methods (BSI,

151 2002). Seawater amendment involved mixing with 0.3 kg bauxite at a ratio of 5:1 (v/w)

(after Johnston et al., 2010), for 1 hr, followed by a 12 hr settlement period overnight. The
bauxite residue and seawater mixture was then filtered through a 0.45 μm membrane using a
vacuum pump. The treated bauxite residue samples were then oven dried for 24 hr,
pulverised with a mortar and pestle, and sieved to <2 mm in size.</li>

156

157 2.2 Characterisation Study

158 Untreated and treated bauxite samples were characterised (n=3) for their physical, chemical, 159 elemental and mineralogical properties. Soil pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were 160 measured in an aqueous extract, using 5 g of bauxite residue sample in a 1:5 ratio (solid: 161 liquid) (Courtney and Harrington, 2010). The bulk density ( $\rho_{\rm b}$ ) was determined after Blake 162 (1965) and the particle density ( $\rho_p$ ) after Blake and Hartge (1986) using 10 g of bauxite 163 residue samples. Total pore space (S<sub>t</sub>) was calculated using the values obtained for the bulk 164 and particle densities (Danielson and Sutherland, 1986). The effective particle size analysis 165 (PSA) was determined on particle sizes <53 µm using optical laser diffraction on the Malvern 166 Zetasizer 3000HS® (Malvern, United Kingdom) with online autotitrator and a Horiba LA-920, and reported at specific cumulative % (10, 50 and 90%). Mineralogical detection was 167 carried out using X-ray diffraction (XRD) on 1 g samples using a Philips X'Pert PRO MPD® 168 169 (California, USA), whilst surface morphology and elemental detection were carried out using 170 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) on a 171 Hitachi SU-70 (Berkshire, UK), using approximately 1 g samples. Quantification of the 172 elemental content was carried out on 1 g samples by Brookside Laboratories (OH, USA) after 173 digestion (EPA, 1996) using Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectroscopy 174 (ICP-AES) and elemental composition quantified using X-ray fluorescence (XRF). 175 Measurement of the point of zero charge (PZCpH) was after Vakros et al. (2002) using 1 g 176 samples, and cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined using the K saturation

177	technique (Thomas, 1982), using 5 g samples. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller specific surface area
178	(SSA) and pore volume analysis were conducted on 1 g samples, which were degassed at
179	120°C for 3 hr prior to analysis carried out by Glantreo Laboratories (Cork, Ireland).

181 2.3 Phosphorus Adsorption Batch Study

182 The P adsorption capacity of nine bauxite samples (untreated and gypsum/seawater treated samples) were examined in a bench-scale experiment. To conduct a P adsorption isotherm 183 test, ortho-phosphorus ( $PO_4^{3-}P$ ) solutions were made up to known concentrations using 184 potassium dihydrogen phosphate (K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>) in distilled water. One gram of each of the sieved 185 media was placed into a series of 50 ml-capacity containers and was overlain with 25 ml of 186 187 the solutions. Each sample was then shaken in a reciprocal shaker at 250 rpm for 24 hr. At t = 24 hr, the supernatant water from each sample container was filtered using  $0.45 \mu m$  filters 188 189 and analysed immediately using a nutrient analyser (Konelab 20, Thermo Clinical 190 Labsystems, Finland). The data obtained from the P adsorption batch studies were modelled 191 using the Langmuir adsorption isotherm (McBride, 2000), which assumes monolayer 192 adsorption on adsorption sites and allows for the estimation of the maximum P adsorption capacity  $(q_{max})$  of the media: 193

194

195 
$$q_i = q_{max} \left( \frac{k_a C_e}{1 + k_a C_e} \right)$$
(1)

196

197 where  $q_i$  is the quantity of the contaminant adsorbed per gram of media (g g<sup>-1</sup>), C<sub>e</sub> is the 198 equilibrium contaminant concentration in the water (g m<sup>-3</sup>), k<sub>a</sub> is a measure of the affinity of 199 the contaminant for the media (m<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), and q<sub>max</sub> is the maximum amount of the contaminant 200 that can be adsorbed onto the media (g g<sup>-1</sup>).

## 202 2.3.1. Mobilization of Metals

203	To determine whether the residue media released trace elements, 25 mL of water was mixed
204	with 1 g of media for 24 hr and the supernatant was analysed by ICP-MS. The elements
205	selected for detection were Al, arsenic (As), barium (Ba), beryllium (Be), boron (B),
206	cadmium (Cd), Ca, chromium (Cr), copper (Cu), Fe, gallium (Ga), K, lead (Pb), Mg,
207	manganese (Mn), mercury (Hg), molybdenum (Mo), Na, nickel (Ni), P, selenium (Se), silicon
208	(Si), titanium (Ti), vanadium (V), and zinc (Zn).
209	
210	2.4 Statistical analysis
211	Linear regression analysis was utilised to examine the extent of correlation between the
212	individual characteristic parameters of the bauxite residue samples and bauxite adsorption,
213	using Minitab. A Pearson correlation coefficient and a correlation p-value were determined to
214	quantify correlation. The p-value represents the probability that the correlation between the
215	bauxite residue characteristic in question and the response variable (adsorption) is zero i.e.
216	the probability that there is no relationship between the two.
217	
218	3. Results and Discussion
219	
220	3.1 Characterisation of bauxite residue
221	
222	3.1.1 Effect of treatments on elemental and mineralogical composition
223	The mineral and total elemental composition of the three untreated bauxite residues [UF
224	(untreated fine fraction), UC (untreated coarse fraction), and UFR (untreated co-disposed)]
225	are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Bauxite residues are typically high in Fe and Al oxides (Liu et

al., 2007), which was found to be the case in this study. The mineralogical composition

227 present for all untreated samples was dominated by Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub> and CaO. A decrease

in Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was noted following treatment with the gypsum and the seawater in all samples,

229 with an increase in CaO content noted in samples treated with gypsum.

230

231 XRD analysis showed that the main crystalline phases present in UF were haematite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>),

232 goethite (FeO(OH)), perovskite (CaTiO<sub>3</sub>), boehmite (AlO(OH)), rutile (TiO<sub>2</sub>), gibbsite

Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> and sodalite Na<sub>8</sub>(Al<sub>6</sub>Si<sub>6</sub>O<sub>24</sub>)Cl<sub>2</sub> (Figure S1 in the Supplementary Material).

234 Similarly, the main minerals in UFR were haematite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), goethite (FeO(OH)), boehmite

235 (AlO(OH)), rutile (TiO<sub>2</sub>), gibbsite Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> and sodalite Na<sub>8</sub>(Al<sub>6</sub>Si<sub>6</sub>O<sub>24</sub>)Cl<sub>2</sub> (Figure S2).

236 Boehmite (AlO(OH)), rutile (TiO<sub>2</sub>), gibbsite Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> haematite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) were the

237 predominant minerals present in UC (Figure S3). Following treatment with seawater and

gypsum, a change in mineral phase in UFG, UFS, UFRS and UFRG occurred (Figure S4, S5,

239 S6, S7). After treatment with gypsum, a higher presence of the calcium carbonate, calcite

240 (CaCO<sub>3</sub>), was detected in UFRG and UCG (Figure S7 and S8), and post seawater treatment,

small peaks representing brucite (Mg(OH)<sub>2</sub> were detected in UFS and UCS (S5 and S9).

242

243 These findings are similar to previous studies that examined various neutralization techniques 244 for bauxite residue (Gräfe et al., 2009). When seawater is added to bauxite residue, a reaction 245 occurs where the hydroxide, carbonate and aluminate ions are eliminated due to a reaction involving  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  (from the seawater) (Gräfe et al., 2009; Palmer and Frost, 2009). 246 247 This results in the formation of alkaline solids such as the calcium carbonates, calcite and 248 brucite, which cause a buffering effect, evidenced in a shift of pH to between 8 and 9 (Power 249 et al., 2011). The addition of gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>) results in a drop in the pH (approximately 8.6) 250 due to the precipitation of excess hydroxides (OH-), aluminium hydroxides (Al(OH) $_4$ ),

carbonates (CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) to form calcium hydroxide/lime (Ca(OH)), tri-calcium aluminate (TCA),
hydrocalumite and calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>), which behave as buffers and maintain pH
(Gräfe et al., 2009). The addition of Ca also flocculates and helps with the formation of more
stable aggregates (Jones and Haynes, 2011).

255

256 An analysis of water samples (Table S1) to examine mobilisation of metals showed that As, 257 Al and Cr were present in the leachate from the UFR sample, but decreased following gypsum and seawater treatments. Arsenic, Fe and Al were mobilised from the UF sample, 258 259 but these concentrations were reduced following treatment with gypsum and seawater. Aluminium was mobilised from the UC. The reduction in Fe and Al following treatment 260 with either gypsum or seawater is in line with previous studies, which have shown that water 261 262 soluble Fe and Al decrease following gypsum application (Courtney and Timpson, 2005). Overall, Al still remained above the maximum allowable concentration (MAC) of  $0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ 263  $(200 \ \mu g \ L^{-1})$  (EPA, 2014) for Al for drinking water. Sodium was still at a high level 264 following gypsum and seawater treatments, ranging from 139.3 $\pm$ 3.2 to 153 $\pm$ 24.8 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and 265  $241.3\pm 26$  to  $388.7\pm 18.6$  mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The MAC for Na in drinking water is 200 mg 266 L<sup>-1</sup> (EPA, 2014). 267

268

269 3.1.2 Effect of treatments on physicochemical properties

The untreated bauxite residues had high pH (10.8±0.12 to 11.9±0.06) and EC (704±90.8 to 1184±48.8 $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup>) (Table 4). Following treatment with gypsum and seawater, pH decreased and EC increased. Changes for pH after treatment with either seawater or gypsum are due to precipitation of calcium carbonates such calcite, brucite and aragonite, which behave as buffers and maintain a reduced pH (Menzies et al., 2004), while the increase in EC is attributed to the introduction of excess Na<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Gräfe et al., 2009). The pH of bauxite

residue is normally within the range of 11 to 13 (Newson et al., 2006), but varies due to the
type of bauxite ore, Bayer process, and neutralisation techniques used in the refinery. Both
seawater (Menzies et al., 2004; Johnston et al., 2010) and gypsum applications (Jones and
Haynes, 2011; Courtney and Kirwan, 2012; Lehoux et al., 2013) are recognised methods of
reducing the alkalinity of bauxite residues.

281

No change was observed in the particle size or particle size density following the addition of
the gypsum and seawater treatments to the various bauxite residue samples (Table 4).
Similarly, the addition of gypsum or seawater did not have any impact on bulk density (Table

285 4).

286

287 The surface morphology of bauxite residues typically comprises 30% amorphous and 70% 288 crystalline phase (Gräfe et al., 2009). However, in this study SEM imaging suggests that the 289 bauxite residue samples were not present in strong crystalline form (Figure 1), in particular 290 for samples UF and UFR, as no distinctive crystalline structure to the bauxite residue samples 291 was observed. Liu et al. (2007) examined the effect of age on stored bauxite residue, and 292 found that fresh bauxite residue particles are present in poorly formed crystallised or 293 amorphous form in comparison to older bauxite residue (10 years), which has a stronger 294 crystalline formation, indicating that crystallisation occurs in some of the minerals over time. 295 As the bauxite residue used in this study was fresh, this would explain why there was not a 296 strong distinction between amorphous or crystalline forms, similar to the findings of Liu et al. 297 (2007). The composition of fine particles and larger particles in the coarse fraction (UC) were 298 noticeable from the SEM (Figure 1).

299

300	Improved aggregate formation was noticeable in the gypsum and seawater-treated bauxite
301	residues (Figure 1), due to the addition of $Ca^{2+}$ , which results in flocculation (Zhu et al.,
302	2016). Changes in the surface morphology were also evident in the gypsum and seawater-
303	treated residues in comparison to the untreated residues, which appeared to have a much
304	smoother surface (Figure 1). This change in surface morphology following the treatments
305	was attributed to the changes in mineral phase (Huang et al., 2008).
306	
307	3.2 Phosphorus Adsorption Study
308	
309	3.2.1 Effect of seawater and gypsum treatment on P adsorption
310	All nine bauxite residue samples in this study were successful in removing P from aqueous
311	solution (Table 5). Bauxite residue has been shown in numerous P adsorption studies to have
312	a high P retention capacity, particularly following treatment or modification (Ye et al., 2014;
313	Grace et al., 2015). In this study, gypsum or seawater treatment had a positive impact on P
314	removal, with the gypsum-treated bauxite residue performing best (Table 5).
315	
316	Following seawater treatment, the P adsorption capacity of the bauxite residues increased to
317	$q_{max}$ values of 0.48, 0.66 and 1.92mg P g <sup>-1</sup> media for UFS, UCS and UFRS, respectively. In
318	previous studies, following treatment with seawater, bauxite residue had a higher adsorption
319	capacity for P. Akhurst et al. (2006) reported a maximum adsorption of 6.5 mg P $g^{-1}$ when
320	using a bauxite residue treated with brine (Bauxsol <sup>TM</sup> ). This relatively high adsorption may
321	be attributed to the higher concentrations of $Ca^{2+}$ and $Mg^{2+}$ in the brines (or products such as
322	Bauxsol <sup>TM</sup> , developed by Basecon <sup>TM</sup> ), in comparison to raw seawater (0.41, 1.29 and 10.77g
323	kg <sup>-1</sup> of Ca <sup>2+</sup> , Na and Mg <sup>2+</sup> , respectively) used in this study (Gräfe et al., 2009). The gypsum-

treated bauxite residues had the highest  $q_{max}$  values – 2.46, 1.39 and 2.73mg P g<sup>-1</sup> media for

UFG, UCG and UFRG, respectively. However, these values were lower than a P adsorption study carried out by Lopez et al. (1998), who used the same application rate of gypsum to the bauxite residue samples and reported a  $q_{max}$  of 7.03 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>. The lower rate observed in the current study may be attributed to the 72 hr leaching process that the gypsum-treated bauxite residue underwent before use in the adsorption study, which may have allowed for further exchange and removal of Ca<sup>2+</sup> following the leaching process.

331

Overall, the bauxite residue in the current study had a higher P adsorbency than in other studies for zeolite (0.01 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>, Grace et al., 2015) and granular ceramics (0.9 mg g<sup>-1</sup>; Chen et al., 2012), but lower than fly ash, granular blast furnace slag and pyritic fill (6.48, 3.61 and 0.88 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively; Grace et al., 2015), crushed concrete (19.6 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>; Egemose et al., 2012), untreated biochar (32 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>; Wang et al., 2015), and NaOH-modified coconut shell powder (200 mg P g<sup>-1</sup>; de Lima et al., 2012).

338

339 3.2.2 Factors affecting P adsorption

The adsorption of P onto media is influenced by many factors which include particle size, pH, 340 component and surface characteristics (Wang et al., 2016). Numerous studies have 341 investigated the effect of parameters such as kinetics of P adsorption (Akhurst et al., 2006; 342 Liu et al., 2007; Ye et al., 2014; Grace et al., 2015), ionic solution (Akhurst et al., 2006), pH 343 344 (Liu et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2008; Grace et al., 2015) on the adsorption of P from aqueous solution. While all bauxite residue samples in this study did remove P from aqueous solution, 345 it is clear that the application of treatments, such as gypsum or seawater, has an effect on the 346 347 adsorption capability, and that the rate of adsorption will vary as a result of the source of 348 bauxite residue and treatments used (Wang et al., 2008).

349

350 The parameters which showed a statistically significant positive correlation of medium strength with P adsorption in this study were Ca (correlation coefficient = 0.47, p = 0.01, 351 Degrees of Freedom (DoF) = 25) and CaO (correlation coefficient = 0.39, p = 0.04, DoF = 352 353 25). A statistically significant negative correlation of medium strength was also detected between pH and P adsorption (correlation coefficient = -0.38, p = 0.05, DoF = 25). pH was 354 355 a contributing factor to the adsorption process with the amount of phosphate adsorbed 356 increasing with a decrease in pH in the media following treatments, UFRG>UFRS>UFR, 357 UFG>UFS>UF, UCG>UCS>UC. This was a similar finding to several studies carried out 358 (Li et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2008; Grace et al., 2015). The Ca ions also influenced P adsorption. This is as a result of the high level of  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  present in the 359 bauxite residue, particularly after seawater and gypsum treatments, when the majority of 360  $PO_4^{3-}$  is removed from solution due to the formation of magnesium phosphate (Mg<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) 361 and calcium phosphate  $(Ca_3(PO_4)_2)$  (Akhurst et al., 2006). 362

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364 The pH at which net charges are neutral on the surface of the adsorbent - the point of zero 365 charge (PZC) - influences the rate of adsorption of P (Jacukowicz-Sobala et al., 2015). Where 366 the pH is higher than the PZCpH, the surface of the adsorbent media becomes more negative (attracting more cations), as a result of the adsorption of OH<sup>-</sup> from the surrounding solution 367 (Prajapati et al., 2016). The PZCpH ranged from 6.16±0.21 to 6.96±1.21 (Table 4) in the 368 369 three untreated samples. Following treatment with gypsum and seawater, there were notable 370 changes, but no statistical relevance was detected between the PZCpH and P adsorption in 371 this study. However, as bauxite residue is composed of numerous minerals, each with their 372 own individual PZCpH (which, as noted in the literature, can range from anywhere between 373 pH 2 to pH 9.8 (Gräfe et al., 2009)), this results in the bauxite residue being able to cater for a

wide range of pH (Gräfe et al., 2009) and also having the capability of removing both cations
and anions from solution.

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377 The SSA analysis carried out on the bauxite residues show an increase in specific surface 378 area in all samples following treatment with either the gypsum or the seawater (Table 4). 379 There was also an increase in pore volume following the addition of either gypsum or 380 seawater (Table 4). This is attributed to the formation of precipitates formed in the 381 neutralisation process of both gypsum and seawater and the effect of the Ca acting as a 382 flocculant with the finer particles present. This increase in surface area also contributes to the 383 increase in P adsorption following treatments. Although particle size affects adsorption onto 384 media, due to the availability of sites for P uptake, no significant correlation was observed in 385 the current study.

386

387 3.3 Implications of the findings of this study

388 The use of gypsum and seawater treatments on bauxite residue improved the overall P 389 adsorption capacity of the bauxite residue samples, but mixing the bauxite residue and 390 treatments with actual wastewater will be necessary to fully understand the total adsorption 391 behaviour of the bauxite residue. In addition to improving the P adsorption, alkalinity was 392 significantly reduced following both treatments; however, the EC was increased. This may 393 limit the growth of plants on the gypsum or seawater-treated bauxite residues; therefore, one 394 option may be to increase the rinsing period of the bauxite residue following treatment to remove the excess  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Na^{+}$  ions in solution. Lowering the alkalinity, increasing the P, 395 Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> content and improving the physical structure, provide the possible re-use 396 397 option of using the treated bauxite residue as a growth media.

399 For a refinery, the cost of neutralisation techniques is an obvious consideration when deciding which technique(s) to use. The use of seawater as a neutralisation technique would 400 401 be a cheap and feasible option for a refinery that is close to the sea. The establishment of a 402 pipeline (if not already in place) would be the dominant capital cost. The use of a Nano filtration system to concentrate the Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> ions in the seawater (Couperthwaite et 403 404 al., 2014) could allow for the reduction in volume of seawater necessary for the neutralisation 405 process, but may add to the cost. Gypsum however may be a more expensive option, 406 requiring machinery such as amphirolls for the mixing and spreading of the gypsum. 407 However, depending on the refinery's location, waste gypsum from construction sites or 408 fossil fuel powered power stations may be used (Jones and Haynes, 2011). 409 410 4. Conclusions 411 412 This study examined the impact of gypsum and seawater treatments on the mineral, elemental 413 and physiochemical properties of bauxite residue. The untreated bauxite residues were high in Fe and Al oxides and their mineralogical composition was dominated by Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 414 SiO<sub>2</sub> and CaO. Following treatment with gypsum and seawater, the pH decreased and EC 415 416 increased, but no change was observed in the particle size or density. The SSA and pore 417 volume of the bauxite increased following both treatments, which contributed to increased P 418 adsorbency. Although the P adsorbency measured in this study was not as high as measured 419 in other studies using different media, it still indicates that reuse in water or wastewater 420 treatment facilities may be an appropriate option for bauxite residue. 421

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**Table 1** Phosphorus (P) adsorption studies that have been carried out using bauxite residues, untreated

	P recovery technique	Factors investigated	Type of water	Initial P concentration of the water	P recovered	Reference
Untreated bauxite residue	Batch adsorption experiment	Kinetics, pH and temperature	Synthetic water	5-100 mg P L <sup>-</sup>	0.20 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Grace <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2015
Gypsum Treated	Batch adsorption experiment	Contact time (3, 6, 24, 48hr)	Synthetic water	20-400 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	7.03 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Lopez <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 1998
Brine treated bauxite residue (Bauxsol <sup>TM*</sup> )	Batch adsorption experiment	pH, ionic strength, time	Synthetic water	0.5-2 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	6.5-14.9 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Akhurst <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2006
Acid and brine treated bauxite residue (Bauxsol <sup>TM*</sup> )	Batch adsorption experiment	Kinetics and isotherms	Synthetic water	200 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	55.72 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Ye <i>et al.</i> 2014
Heat treated bauxite residue	Batch adsorption experiment	Time, pH and initial concentration	Synthetic water	155 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	155.2 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Liu <i>et al.</i> 2007
Acid and heat treated bauxite residue	Batch adsorption experiment	Time, pH and initial concentration	Synthetic water	155 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	202.9 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Liu <i>et al.</i> 2007
Acid treated bauxite residue	Batch adsorption	Acid type, pH	Synthetic water	1 mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	1.1 mg P g <sup>-1</sup>	Huang <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2008

694 and treated residues, and their recovery efficiencies.

 $\frac{experiment}{695}$   $\frac{experiment}{696}$   $\frac{experiment}{696}$ 

Parameter	Untreated Fine (UF)	Fine +gypsum (UFG)	Fine+ seawater (UFS)	Untreated Coarse (UC)	Coarse+ gypsum (UCG)	Coarse +seawater (UCS)	Untreated French (UFR)	French+ gypsum (UFRG)	French +seawater (UFRS)
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (%)	43.9±1.1	40.6±0.6	41.8±1.2	64.0±5.1	61.4±3.0	69.9±3.8	43.9±0.6	47.9±0.5	53.3±5.8
$Al_2O_3(\%)$	12.7±0.6	$11.3 \pm 1.0$	11.1±2.5	19.4±1.8	11.1±0.6	7.4±0.7	14.0±1.0	11.2±0.3	11.4±2.2
CaO (%)	5.9±0.2	8.2±0.5	4.4±0.3	1.1±0.2	7.6±0.4	$1.2\pm0.1$	5.6±0.1	7.7±0.3	3.2±0.5
MgO (%)	3.6±1.3	3.5±0.8	3.1±1.0	4.7±1.8	3.6±0.8	2.6±0.6	4.1±0.6	3.8±0.9	3.2±1.6
SiO <sub>2</sub> (%)	8.6±0.7	8.5±0.9	8.6±1.7	2.6±0.3	1.3±0.2	$1.4\pm0.2$	9.4±0.5	5.1±0.4	4.3±0.3
TiO <sub>2</sub> (%)	2.4±0.3	2.1±0.6	2.7±0.1	0.9±0.1	$1.0\pm0.1$	2.1±0.6	2.5±0.02	2.3±0.1	2.3±0.5
$P_2O_5(\%)$	$0.6\pm0.04$	$0.4 \pm 0.02$	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.3±0.02	$0.2 \pm 0.02$	$0.2 \pm 0.06$	0.5±0.01	0.5±0.02	0.5±0.01

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 Table 2 Mineralogical composition of the bauxite residues, untreated and treated.

 Table 3 Elemental composition of the bauxite residues, untreated and treated.

Parameter	Untreated Fine (UF)	Fine +gypsum (UFG)	Fine+ seawater (UFS)	Untreated Coarse (UC)	Coarse+ gypsum (UCG)	Coarse +seawater (UCS)	Untreated French (UFR)	French+ gypsum (UFRG)	French +seawater (UFRS)
B (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Al (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	470±8.81 72538±139 0	425±29 81095±1219	448±13 80608±3090	615±13.3 45854±2769	622±29 48851±2336	722±32.1 45917±2080	566±18.9 67295±3343	539±25 65389±1326	483.8±31 64189±595
As (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Ba (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Cd (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Cr (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	21.9±1.73 43.8±1.19 8.033±0.16 1698±37.2	9.7±0.4 29.4±5 7.02±0.3 933±44	<lod<sup>1 33.3±0.7 7.33±0.19 1170±12.9</lod<sup>	<lod<sup>1 13.9±1.01 10.7±0.18 880±3.8</lod<sup>	<lod<sup>1 18.3±3.4 10.8±0.5 817±13</lod<sup>	<lod<sup>1 12.7±2.8 11.8±0.59 803±21.3</lod<sup>	8.1±0.2 45.7±1.5 9.31±0.2 1184±15.9	9.75±0.6 41.4±1.4 8.87±0.3 1090±9	6.51±0.43 49.4±3.8 8.21±0.3 1159±31.2
Fe (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	338571±30 57	289459±1859	298282±4937	434739±9980	460078±23043	471204±2575	353392±10003	328114±4498	332251±3435
Pb (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Mg (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	34.88±0.54 122.28±4.9 6	27.8±2.8 163±37	36.9±0.8 1047±25.6	29.56±3.03 18.32±4.78	24.6±3 8.5±2.21	22.06±2.47 511.6±25.4	34.5±0.9 109±3.9	32.3±0.8 150±9	37.4±2.1 2203.8±134
Mn(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Ni (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) K (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Si (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Na (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	163±2.63 18.6±0.89 391±13.68 223.5±46.1 28347±553	$140\pm6.1$ <lod<sup>1 <math>454\pm29</math> <math>256\pm92</math> <math>38180\pm352</math></lod<sup>	167±6.8 2.25±0.2 1108±41 245.7±35 41864±2012	187±15.5 3.54±0.27 255±38 213±6.6 8804±666	223±99 3.15±0.5 195±23 234±34 5935±114	185±31.1 4.18±0.22 556.99±67.38 194.46±10.58 11101.55±11 21.8	134±0.9 1.1±0.1 399±13 276±20 25514±317	139±1.9 1.24±0.2 359±11 285±34 23703±499	142.9±4.2 1.23±0.3 1048±63.2 258.5±11.7 31974±1087
Ti (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) V(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Zn (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Ga(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Ca(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1395±196 1050±21.6 50.7±0.71 78.9±2.02 46657±8 32	$1309\pm100781\pm2940.6\pm1.281.2\pm0.5351641\pm485$	1265±22 777±8 42.6±1.3 73.9±0.6 17159±413	<lod<sup>1 786±23.6 86.7±1.7 71.8±1.03 4152±490</lod<sup>	<lod<sup>1 731±20 82±5.4 69.3±2.3 12771±823</lod<sup>	<LOD <sup>1</sup> 731.04±23 84.68±4.2 73.5±1.6 4089.42±588. 32	1382±38 1036±12 55.8±0.5 86.8±1.3 15084±358	1288±120 920±7 55.6±1.17 78.6±2 42703±2383	1233±46 983±21 57.3±0.9 78.8±0.9 14820±926
P(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Be(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Cu (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Hg (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Mo(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) Se (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$955\pm0.57$ $$	962 $\pm$ 99 <lod<sup>l <lod<sup>l <lod<sup>l <lod<sup>l <lod<sup>l</lod<sup></lod<sup></lod<sup></lod<sup></lod<sup>	$1018\pm15$ $    $	$1040\pm23$ $    $	$1011\pm59$ $    $	$1039.6\pm23$ $    $	$1298\pm26$ $    $	$1220\pm10$ $    $	$1320\pm53.8$ $     $

 $\frac{1}{\text{LOD}}$  = below the limits of detection.

709 Table 4 Physical and chemical characterisation of the bauxite residues, untreated and treated.

Parameter	Untreated	Fine	Fine+	Untreated	Coarse+	Coarse	Untreated	French+	French
	Fine (UF)	+gypsum	seawater	Coarse (UC)	gypsum	+seawater	French (UFR)	gypsum	+seawater
		(UFG)	(UFS)		(UCG)	(UCS)		(UFRG)	(UFRS)
									<u> </u>
pН	10.8±0.12	8.7±0.04	9.02±0.07	11.4±0.29	6.79±0.08	7.95±0.16	11.9±0.06	9.17±0.02	9.49±0.01
$EC (\mu S \text{ cm}^{-1})$	704±90.8	1338±3.5	3080±17.3	856±1.53	909±2	916±1.53	$1184 \pm 48.8$	1219±7.21	5323±172
% Water	23.5±0.65	28.9±0.6	32.1±1.72	0.39±0.2	$0.82 \pm 0.18$	3.13±0.72	28±0.54	35.3±1.32	36.5±0.16
$d_{10} (\mu m)^{a}$	$0.6 \pm 0.09$	1.37±0.23	$1.26 \pm 0.06$	1.27±0.47	1.11±0.23	$1.66 \pm 0.83$	1.3±0.04	$1.49 \pm 0.06$	$1.08 \pm 0.74$
$d_{50} (\mu m)^{b}$	2.43±0.29	3.56±0.59	$3.52 \pm 0.11$	5.13±0.63	3.69±0.49	3.68±0.4	3.7±0.12	4.11±0.39	$3.47 \pm 0.98$
$d_{90} (\mu m)^{c}$	$6.02 \pm 0.86$	7.12±1.98	7.69±1.97	12.04±1.27	9.51±0.25	7.0±0.13	10.11±2.37	9.81±2.68	7.17±3.25
Total Pore									
Space (%) <sup>d</sup>	50.03±2.25	50.73±9.04	50.03±1.75	9.63±6.46	$10.82 \pm 1.09$	7.65±5.26	61.77±1.16	53.6±1.95	53.87±0.78
Bulk Density	$1.5 \pm 0.02$	$1.5 \pm 0.01$	$1.49 \pm 0.01$	2.53±0.01	2.48±0.03	2.55±0.01	1.31±0.03	$1.32 \pm 0.03$	1.31±0.02
$(g \text{ cm}^{-3})^{e}$									
Particle Size	2.99±0.1	3.11±0.5	2.94±0.12	2.81±0.21	2.65±0.4	2.7±0.14	3.41±0.07	$2.85 \pm 0.08$	$2.85 \pm 0.07$
Density (g cm <sup>-</sup>									
$^{3})^{f}$									
PZCpH <sup>g</sup>	6.96±1.21	$3.43 \pm 0.73$	6.28±0.98	6.89±0.09	3.11±0.12	6.39±0.51	6.16±0.21	6.32±0.51	4.43±0.09
CEC (K)(cmol									
$kg^{-1})^h$	63.3±2.56	64.1±3.41	60.1±2.96	$N/A^k$	$N/A^k$	N/A <sup>k</sup>	57.5±2.13	56.4±3.49	48.9±13.7
Total Pore	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.03
Volume (cm <sup>-3</sup>									
$(g^{-1})^{i}$									
BET SSA (m <sup>2</sup>	11.73	12.77	13.82	12.58	13.19	15.37	15.24	17.57	17.57
-1\i									

 $\frac{g^{-1}}{g^{-1}}^{j}$  = the size of particles at 10% of the total particle distribution, expressed in  $\mu$ m.

 ${}^{b}d_{50}$  (µm) = the median; the size of particles at 50% of the total particle distribution, expressed in µm. 712

713  $^{c}d_{90}$  (µm) = the size of particles at 90% of the total particle distribution, expressed in µm.

714 <sup>d</sup>Total Pore Space = the total pore space which may be calculated from particle density and bulk density.

715 <sup>e</sup>Bulk density = the mass of soil per unit volume, expressed as  $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .

716 <sup>f</sup>Particle size density = the density of the solid particles, excluding pore spaces between them, expressed as  $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .

717  $^{g}PZCpH$  = the pH at which the point of zero charge is occurring.

718  $^{h}CEC =$  the cation exchange capacity, expressed as cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>.

719 <sup>i</sup>BET SSA = specific surface area analysed using Brunauer-Emmett-Teller isotherm and expressed as  $m^2 g^{-1}$ .

720 <sup>j</sup>Total Pore Volume = measurement of total pore volume expressed as  $cm^{-3} g^{-1}$ .

721 kN/A = not available

**Table 5** Maximum adsorbency (mg P g<sup>-1</sup> media) of P using each of the bauxite residue samples,

723 untreated and treated (level of fit of the data,  $R^2$ , to Langmuir isotherm is included in brackets).

Media		Treatment method employed				
	Untreated	Gypsum	Seawater			
	mg P g <sup>-1</sup> media					
		-				
UFR	1 (0.99)	2.73 (0.99)	1.92 (0.99)			
UF	0.38 (0.99)	2.46 (0.97)	0.48 (0.99)			
UC	0.35(0.98)	1.39 (0.99)	0.66 (0.99)			



Untreated

**Gypsum Treated** 

Seawater Treated

Figure 1. SEM (10kV; magnification x2,000; working distance 16.8mm) imaging for the three untreated bauxite residue pre and post treatment with either

gypsum or seawater.