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Recovering nutrients from wastewater is an emerging field of interest due to the impact modern agriculture has on aquatic ecosystems. This work presents the impact of transition metals (Cu and Zn which are common contaminants in municipal and industrial wastewater) being present at the heterogeneous interface of struvite crystallization ( $\text{MgNH}_4\text{PO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) on magnesite ( $\text{MgCO}_3$ ).

## Low concentrations of $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ in synthetic nutrient containing wastewater inhibit $\text{MgCO}_3$ -to-struvite transformation

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### Abstract

Simultaneous major nutrient nitrogen (N) and phosphorous (P) recovery from wastewater is key in achieving food-energy-water sustainable development. In this work, we elucidate the reaction kinetics, crystalline structure and chemical composition of the resulting solid precipitate obtained from simulated N and P containing wastewater solution using widely abundant low solubility magnesite ( $\text{MgCO}_3$ ) particles in the presence of the common transition metal ions, such as zinc ( $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ) or copper ( $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ). We show that up to 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  from the simulated wastewater can be incorporated into the struvite lattice as isolated distorted  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  while even at very low concentrations of  $\sim 5$  ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions almost completely inhibit struvite crystal formation. The resulting solid precipitate distinctly affects soil microbial biomass carbon and soil dehydrogenase enzyme activity. These results show a cautionary case where abundant natural mineral  $\text{MgCO}_3$  exhibits very different chemistry in  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  containing simulated wastewater and does not readily adsorb or retain  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  ions, unlike less sustainable but more water-soluble magnesium source, such as  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , at the equivalent molar  $[\text{Mg}^{2+}]:[\text{NH}_4^+]:[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$  ratio of [1.4:1:1].

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**Introduction.** Modern agricultural practices and increasing use of mineral fertilizers have significantly perturbed the global nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) cycles.(1) Due to soil bacteria activity, a loss of up to 90% of the applied N can take place.(1–3) Concomitantly, ammonia synthesis using air  $N_2$  requires 4% of the world's annual natural gas supply as well as 1% of the annual global energy production.(4) P, on the other hand, is mined from rock and it is dwindling without replenishment.(5,6) P fertilizers are much less water-soluble and enter the watershed via runoff.(7) Therefore, producing green fertilizer materials more stable in the environment becomes important in promoting sustainable agricultural practices.(8–11) Specifically, producing fertilizer containing both N and P from wastewater streams is an important aspect of sustainable development.

Struvite ( $MgNH_4PO_4 \cdot 6H_2O$ ) synthesis is a unique opportunity that allows for the simultaneous removal of both  $N-NH_4^+$  and  $P-PO_4^{3-}$  from wastewater streams. It is a low solubility fertilizer that is a more environmentally-sustainable, compared to the conventional N fertilizers which have the propensity to volatilize and emit greenhouse gases.(12–15) Struvite precipitation from the wastewater so far chiefly utilized soluble magnesium precursors, such as magnesium chloride ( $MgCl_2$ ), which also require wastewater pH adjustment with external chemicals, such as NaOH. Earth-abundant low solubility magnesium sources, such as periclase ( $MgO$ ),(10,16–18) magnesite ( $MgCO_3$ ),(19,20) brucite ( $Mg(OH)_2$ ),(21) and dolomite ( $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ )(13,22,23) have also been reported to form struvite from model wastewater containing  $NH_4^+$  and  $PO_4^{3-}$  albeit under distinctly different reaction kinetics. Due to their alkaline nature, upon partial dissolution, they result in the solution pH increase and do not require added NaOH. However, anthropogenic wastewater has a complex chemical composition and contains transition metal ions originating from industrial, municipal and agricultural activities.(24) Copper (Cu) and zinc (Zn) are of particular interest given their presence in sewage sludge from domestic and industrial wastewaters, which is often a feedstock of interest for nutrient capture since it is rich in N and P.(25) Studies have reported  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  concentration in municipal wastewater from 10-90 ppb to 49-498 ppb respectively.(26) However, sewage sludge obtained from mixed domestic and industrial wastewater averaged 1700 ppm of Zn and 500 ppm of  $Cu^{2+}$ ,(27) while the sewage sludge of a municipal stormwater treatment plant contained up to 500 ppm of  $Zn^{2+}$  and 50 ppm of  $Cu^{2+}$ .(28) These relatively low concentrations of  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  were shown to not result in significant struvite morphological changes when using  $MgCl_2$ , despite the kinetic hindering effects.(29) Structurally,  $Zn^{2+}$  can be

incorporated into the solid precipitate crystal lattice or sorbed on the surface during struvite precipitation from separated sewage sludge anaerobic digester effluent using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  reducing the purity of the solid precipitate.(30–34) Previous studies on struvite synthesis using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  in the presence of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  aqueous ions have also shown that these metals are incorporated into the struvite as phosphate and hydroxide phases.(32–34) For example, Peng *et al.* demonstrated that in the presence of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  concentrations from 200 ppm to 800 ppm  $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$  was formed in addition to struvite.(35) Rouff *et al.* investigated the structure of these metals in synthesized struvite using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  and found polymeric Zn-units even at low concentrations.(32) Further studies by the same authors showed that  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  also is incorporated into the struvite structure, but was affected by the organic matter content in the wastewater.(33) Notably, water-soluble  $\text{MgCl}_2$  was predominantly used and the effects of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  on struvite formation kinetics and the resulting crystal structure using low solubility Mg minerals were largely not studied. While some reports have claimed that struvite formed from wastewater does not contain significant heavy metal concentrations,(36) it is now evident that the concentration of metals in the wastewater plays an important role and can result in significant adsorption into the solid struvite(33,34) which can have detrimental effects on soil biota.

The accumulation and bioavailability of heavy metals in the food chain depend on various environmental factors such as temperature and physicochemical properties of the soil such as organic matter content, pH, cationic exchange capacity.(37) This work aims to investigate the effects of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  on struvite formation kinetics from simulated wastewater and product distribution using low solubility magnesium-containing minerals, such as  $\text{MgCO}_3$ , rather than water-soluble salts, such as  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , as well as on such struvite effects on soil biome. In particular, studies were performed to assess the impact of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  incorporated struvite synthesized using  $\text{MgCO}_3$  on dehydrogenase activity (DHA) and soil microbial biomass carbon (SMBC) in soil. The unexpected soil biota testing results were further elucidated by interrogating the struvite formation reaction kinetics using ion chromatography to assess  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  ion removal from simulated wastewater solution while the resulting  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  concentration in the solid precipitate were measured using inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS). The resulting struvite crystalline structure was analyzed using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD), the particle morphology and elemental analysis using electron microscopy (SEM/EDS) while the

atomic information on the structure of the metals was probed using X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS).

### Experimental Methods

**Reagents and solutions.** Magnesium carbonate ( $\text{MgCO}_3$ ) (magnesite), magnesium as  $\text{MgO} \geq 40$  % and monoammonium phosphate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_3$ )  $\geq 98$  % were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Copper (II) nitrate trihydrate ( $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ )  $\geq 99.5$  % and nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ) 65 % were obtained from Merck. Zinc nitrate hexahydrate ( $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) 98 % was obtained from Acros Organics.

**Struvite synthesis.** The synthesis procedure is shown in **Figure 1**. In particular, struvite synthesis from simulated wastewater was performed using low solubility abundant magnesite mineral. Cu- and Zn-containing struvites were synthesized using copper (II) nitrate trihydrate and zinc (II) nitrate hexahydrate. Stock solution containing  $1000 \pm 1$  ppm of monoammonium phosphate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$ ) was used. The weighed solid  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  amounts were added into the prepared 1000 ppm MAP solution to result in the final concentration of  $2 \pm 0.02$ ,  $5 \pm 0.05$ ,  $10 \pm 0.1$  or  $20 \pm 0.2$  ppm for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $100 \pm 0.5$  ppm for  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  with constant stirring at 400 rpm. 1000 ppm MAP represents  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  values found in municipal, animal and industrial wastewater(38) while maintaining above the molar 1:1 ratio needed for struvite formation. Finally,  $\text{MgCO}_3$  powder was added at 1000 ppm concentration to the simulated wastewater and stirred for up to 120 minutes. The total volume of the reactive solution was 750 mL. 1.5 mL of solution was sampled periodically and filtered through a 25 mm nylon filter ( $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  size) to remove solid precipitate. The filtrate was diluted 5 times with 2 %  $\text{HNO}_3$  and analyzed by ICP-MS for Zn and Cu content and residual  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ions using IC.

**Ion chromatography.** The Shimadzu HIC-20A Super ion chromatography system (Kyoto, Japan) was used in all experiments to measure  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  ions. Separation columns used were Shim-pack IC-SC1 ( $4.6 \times 150\text{mm}$ ) with Guard column Shim-pack IC-SC1 (G) ( $4.6 \times 10\text{mm}$ ) for cation analysis and Shim-pack IC-SA2 ( $4.0 \times 250\text{mm}$ ) with Guard column Shim-pack SA2 (G) ( $4.6 \times 10\text{mm}$ ) for anion analysis. The sample-loop volume was 1000  $\mu\text{L}$  in cation and anion systems and eluted species were measured using electric conductivity detector CDD-10ASP.  $1.8 \text{ nM Na}_2\text{CO}_3/1.7 \text{ mM NaHCO}_3$  was used as eluent for anion analysis while 0.7 mM methanesulfonic acid for cation analysis. All samples were measured at room temperature. The system was

computer-controlled through LabSolution software. Error bars represent uncertainty from three independent measurements.

**Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) analysis.** Solid precipitate samples were digested using microwave-assisted extraction (MAE) by means CEM MARS 6<sup>®</sup> (Matthews, NC, USA) digestion system equipped with a 100 mL Teflon vessel. Approximately, 0.1 g of solid struvite sample was accurately weighed into a Teflon vessel and digested using 10 mL of analytical grade concentrated nitric acid ( $\geq 65\%$ ) (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany). Before digestion, the samples were soaked in acid for 30 min at room temperature. Digestion was performed under the following conditions: temperature – 200°C; pressure – 800 psi; ramp time – 15 min; hold time – 20 min; microwave power – 1600W. The digested samples were cooled down and thoroughly transferred into 100 mL volumetric flask and diluted using bidistilled water till the mark. The blank sample was included in each digestion run. To measure concentrations of Mg, P, Cu and Zn inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) was operated at standard mode. Samples were introduced from an autosampler incorporating an ASXpress<sup>™</sup> rapid uptake module (Cetac ASX-520, Teledyne Technologies Inc., USA) through a PEEK nebulizer (Burgener Mira Mist, Mississauga, Burgener Research Inc., Canada). Analyzed elements were estimated using an external multi-element six-point calibration curve in the range 50–2000 ppb (50, 100, 200, 500, 1000, 2000 ppb). The standard mixture solution of multiple microelements (Mg, P, Cu, Zn) in 2 % nitric acid was obtained from CPAchem (Bulgaria). Double distilled water was obtained using the distillation apparatus Thermo Scientific (USA) and used for dilution in all cases.

**Powder X-ray diffraction.** The crystal structure of samples was analyzed via X-ray diffraction (XRD) method using a Bruker D8 diffractometer (40 kV, 40 mA) operated in the  $\theta$ – $\theta$  configuration. The measurements were performed at  $2\theta$  angle in the scan range of 20 – 70° using Cu cathode K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.15406$  nm) in steps of 0.01° and Lynx eye position-sensitive detector.

**Scanning electron microscopy.** The morphology of the struvite surface was examined with a scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-3400N) using a secondary electron detector at an accelerating voltage of 3 kV. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS, Bruker Quad 5040) was used for the analysis of the elemental mapping of samples.

**X-ray Absorption Near Edge Spectroscopy (XANES) and Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS)** measurements were performed at the Advanced X-ray Absorption

Spectroscopy Beamline P64 (PETRA III ring, DESY, Hamburg).(39) Samples were mixed with microcrystalline cellulose and pressed into powder pellets. Spectra were measured at room temperature in continuous acquisition mode when the undulator and the monochromator movements were synchronized on the fly. Three ionization chambers were filled with pure nitrogen to reduce sensitivity to higher harmonics of the undulator. For each set of samples, the corresponding metal foil (Cu or Zn) was used as a standard between the second and the third ionization chambers. The monochromatic beam flux on the sample was ca.  $5 \times 10^{12}$  photons/s. The time for each spectrum was set to 5 minutes; an average of 3-4 scans was used for the analysis.

Experimental EXAFS spectra were fitted using IFEFFIT and LARCH packages.(40,41) In the fitting procedure *ab initio* photoelectron backscattering amplitudes and phases were calculated self-consistently using FEFF8.5 code.(42) EXAFS functions were  $k^2$  and  $k^3$  – weighted and fitted in 1.0-3.0 Å interval of R-space. The range of photoelectron wave vectors used in the fit was 3.0–15.0 Å<sup>-1</sup>. The amplitude reduction factor  $S_0^2$  was obtained from the fit of the first shell of the corresponding standard (0.87 for Cu, 0.85 for Zn). Coordination numbers were fixed, different models with different coordination numbers were tested, the best model and fit were taken. Debye-Waller factors,  $\sigma^2$ , distances, R, and the total energy shift,  $\Delta E_0$ , were varied during the fit.

**Soil microbial biomass activity measurements.** The soil was collected from the experimental field site at the Institute of Agriculture, Lithuania Research Centre for Agriculture and Forestry (55°40' N, 23°87' E). The soil was Endocalcari-Epihypogleyic Cambisol characterized by a homogeneous texture. Soil samples (0-20 cm) were collected and visible plant debris, soil animals and stones were manually removed from the field moist soil samples. The remaining soil was thoroughly mixed, air-dried at room temperature, passed through a 2-mm sieve and adjusted to 40% water holding capacity (WHC) by adding deionized water.

The soil was introduced into polyvinyl chloride trapezoidal-section containers (chemically inert and opaque to light), of approximately 1 L capacity and the soil layer was separated from the container using a paper mesh. To evaluate struvite effect on soil microorganism activity and microbial biomass content, pots with soil and struvite synthesized using various precursors were stored under controlled climate conditions in laboratory incubators (CLIMACELL 707, MMM Medcenter Einrichtungen GmbH, Munich, Germany). Laboratory incubator parameters were set for a day and night mode as follows: temperature  $23 \pm 0.5$  °C during the day and  $18 \pm 0.5$  °C during

the night, RH  $68 \pm 2$  %, fan mode on 100 %, light on during the day and light off during the night. Deionized water was regularly added to the pots to maintain the water content at 40% WHC. Soil samples for soil dehydrogenase enzyme activity and soil microbial biomass carbon determination were taken after 0, 5, 28 and 48 days. The measured organic carbon content was  $1.30 \pm 0.15$  %, total N  $0.14 \pm 0.02$  %,  $P_2O_5$  and  $K_2O$  concentrations were  $134.00 \pm 6.56$  mg  $kg^{-1}$  and  $142.67$  mg  $kg^{-1}$ , respectively. The measured pH was  $7.03 \pm 0.15$ . The soil contained  $4139 \pm 955$  mg  $kg^{-1}$  of Ca and  $947 \pm 258$  mg  $kg^{-1}$  of Mg. Approximately 1000 g of soil was mixed with struvite and struvite synthesized using  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  precursors. The amount of struvite was calculated according to nitrate directive 91/676/EEC to obtain 170 kg of N per one hectare. The pot experiments were in triplicates with four amendments namely, control (soil without struvite), soil + struvite, soil + struvite which contains  $Zn^{2+}$  ions and soil + struvite which contains  $Cu^{2+}$  ions. The overview of testing procedures is shown in **Figure 2**.

**Soil dehydrogenase enzyme activity (DHA) measurements.** Dehydrogenase activity was determined according to the slightly modified method described earlier.(43) The collected soil samples were air-dried, homogenized and analyzed the same day. 20 g of air-dried soil and 0.2 g of  $CaCO_3$  were thoroughly mixed. 6 g each of this mixture was dispensed into the three test tubes (three replicates of each sample). To each tube, 1 ml of 3 % 2,3,5-triphenyl tetrazolium chloride (TTC) aqueous solution and 2.5 ml distilled water were added. The contents of each tube were mixed with a glass rod then the tube was stoppered and incubated at  $37$  °C for 24 hours. After 24 hr, the stopper was removed, 10 ml methanol was added and the tube was shaken for 1 min using vortex (IKA, Germany). The filtrate was transferred into a glass funnel and filtered to a 50 ml volumetric flask. The filtrate was diluted through the funnel to a 50 ml volume into the volumetric flask using methanol. The intensity of the red color was measured using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Japan) using a wavelength of 485 nm in a 1 cm cuvette with methanol as a blank reference. The amount of triphenyl formazan (TPF) produced by soil samples was estimated using the calibration curve prepared using 5 to 50  $\mu g$   $ml^{-1}$  of TPF.

**Soil microbial biomass carbon (SMBC) determination using fumigation extraction method.** SMBC was determined using the fumigation-extraction method.(44)-(45) 20 g of soil was fumigated via exposing the soil to the alcohol-free  $CHCl_3$  vapor in a sealed vacuum desiccator for 24 hr. The fumigated soil was evacuated repeatedly in a clean empty desiccator until the odor of

CHCl<sub>3</sub> was no more detected and then extracted with 80 ml of 0.5M K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (soil:K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> = 1:4) for 30 min by oscillating shaking at 200 rpm and then filtered through a Whatman No. 42 filter paper. Organic carbon content in the extracts was measured using the dichromate digestion method. 2 ml of K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> (66.7mM) and 15 ml of the digestion mixture (2:1 conc. H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>:H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (v/v)) was added to 8 ml of extract in a 250 ml conical flask. The mixture was gently refluxed for 30 min, allowed to cool and diluted with 20 ml distilled water. The excess K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> was measured by titration with ferrous ammonium sulfate (40.0mM) using a 1.10-phenanthroline-ferrous sulfate complex (25mM) solution as an indicator. The extraction of non-fumigated soil was the same as that of the fumigated soil. SMBC was calculated from the differences in extractable organic carbon (OC) between the fumigated and non-fumigated soil sample with a conversion factor (KEC) of 0.38.(44) SMBC was calculated as

$$\text{SMBC} = E_c / \text{KEC} \quad (1),$$

where  $E_c = (\text{OC extracted from fumigated soil}) - (\text{OC extracted from non-fumigated soil})$  and  $\text{KEC} = 0.38(44)$  (2).

**Statistical analysis.** Pairwise differences, analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Turkey's studentized range tests were calculated using the SAS program suite (SAS Institute Inc., USA). Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to investigate relationships between selected variables. Mean  $\pm$  SE (standard error of the mean) was used to describe the variability of measurements.

## Results and Discussion

### Struvite synthesis and characterization.

**Kinetics of PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> adsorption on MgCO<sub>3</sub> in the presence of Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Zn<sup>2+</sup>.** Struvite synthesis was performed using 1000 ppm MgCO<sub>3</sub> and 1000 ppm MAP with and without 5 and 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> and 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup> at otherwise identical conditions with no external pH adjustment. The concentrations of both metals were chosen to represent nutrient-containing wastewater to represent moderately contaminated sewage sludge.(27,28) The synthesized materials were dried under room temperature. The solid precipitate formed was analyzed for the crystalline structure, heavy metal content and local atomic coordination structure.

First, ion chromatography was used to monitor the time-dependent anion ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) and cation ( $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) concentration change taking place in the liquid phase during the formation of solid precipitate. **Figure 3a** shows the concentration profile of residual  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  ions with initial  $\text{MgCO}_3$  concentration of 1000 ppm and 1000 ppm  $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$  corresponding to molar  $[\text{Mg}^{2+}]:[\text{NH}_4^+]:[\text{PO}_4^{3-}]$  ratio of [1.4:1:1]. This was chosen after testing a wide range of the initial  $\text{MgCO}_3$  concentrations to efficiently supersaturate the solution to form struvite.(19) The concentration profile of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  showed a steep decrease in the presence of  $\text{MgCO}_3$  alone and the presence of 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ . Notably, reaction kinetics was completely inhibited for 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  case for at least 25 min after the reaction started, as evidence via plateau in the curve. Somewhat unexpectedly, virtually no change in the initial  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  concentration was observed when 20 or 5 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  was present. Only notable decrease to  $\sim 600$  ppm  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  was measured after 100 min in the presence of 5 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  suggesting very slow reaction kinetics.  $\text{MgCO}_3$  alone exhibited the fastest rate of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  removal from solution, with the  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  concentration of 150 ppm at the equilibrium, after 2 hours. The time-resolved plot of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  adsorption/reaction is shown in **Figure 3b**.  $\text{NH}_4^+$  adsorption and reaction with  $\text{MgCO}_3$  followed a very similar behavior of that of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  with 5 and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  precursor solutions not removing any  $\text{NH}_4^+$  while  $\text{MgCO}_3$  alone led to its complete removal. This suggests a facile removal of both nutrient ions in the presence of 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  is possible albeit exhibiting a delayed formation reaction for  $\sim 25$  minutes. Important data is shown in the concentration profiles of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  in solution as a function of reaction time in **Figure 3c** which showed that there was an immediate dissolution (mobilization) of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ions from solid  $\text{MgCO}_3$  within 5 min of the reaction. The initial fast dissolution was strongly inhibited in 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  case for 25 min and the same equilibrium concentration of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ions was achieved. An increase in the  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ion concentration agreed well with the increasing pH of the solution shown in **Figure 3d**. Here the initial 1000 ppm  $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$  solution pH was  $\sim 4.4$  and the first measurement with  $\text{MgCO}_3$  added was taken 1-2 min after the addition. A quite remarkable was almost complete inhibition of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ion release into solution when 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  was present. Results show that while pH increased in all the cases of  $\text{MgCO}_3$ , pH reached a steady-state value of  $\sim 7$ . While struvite formation typically required a pH of 8.5,(12) present experiments and literature data suggest that bulk solution pH is not representative of the struvite formation conditions as the local pH on the  $\text{MgCO}_3$  surface is likely higher.(19) Instead, low pH values of the solution should result in more  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  dissolved, the phenomenon not observed for the 20 ppm

$\text{Cu}^{2+}$  case. This suggests that low concentration of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions inhibits the initial transformation, likely dissolution of  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ion, from  $\text{MgCO}_3$  surface necessary to form struvite, as opposed to the bulk solution pH driven transformations typically referred to in the literature. As supported by XRD data (*vide infra*), 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  containing  $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$  solution precipitates as zinc phosphate solid since its concentration is higher than that of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and supersaturation can be achieved for phosphate to be the most favorable solid phase, especially in the initial stage of the reaction.  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  concentrations used in these experiments do not lead to any detectable solid phases due to the absence of the supersaturation but rather  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions adsorb on  $\text{MgCO}_3$  surface as  $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$  blocking  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  from being released into solution, a condition needed to form struvite, as shown in **Figure 3c**. Importantly, a wide range of supporting experiments were performed using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  as magnesium source at the molar amount equivalent to that of  $\text{MgCO}_3$  in the presence of 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and in all cases struvite formation was observed.

The kinetics of phosphate adsorption were analyzed using the pseudo-first order (PFO) and the pseudo-second order (PSO) models as shown in **Figure 4a** and **b**, respectively. PSO is typically applicable when the absorbing species represents one reactant and the surface site is the second reactant while in the PFO model surface site is not part of the kinetic expression.(46–48) Hence, literature reports which utilized  $\text{MgCl}_2$  as the magnesium source reported that first-order kinetics can be used for struvite crystallization with no transition metal ions present.(49,50) Conceptually, however, phosphate adsorption on solid  $\text{MgCO}_3$  should follow PSO kinetics. However, previous reports that utilized  $\text{MgCO}_3$  for struvite synthesis have shown that the PFO model shows higher  $R^2$  fits (with no transition metals present in aqueous solution), e.g. mathematically it is also correct even though lacking physical meaning.(19) In this work, the  $\text{MgCO}_3$  alone (no  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  present in the simulated wastewater solution) showed a higher  $R^2$  value of 0.992 for the PFO model that 0.905 for PSO. One possible explanation for the PFO model showing high  $R^2$  values compared to PSO in the case of phosphate adsorption on  $\text{MgCO}_3$  could be that  $\text{MgCO}_3$  has a higher solubility and thus, the surface restructuring steps required to adsorb phosphate may occur faster compared to adsorbents, such as  $\text{MgO}$ ,(10,13,16,51) that exhibit true PSO type kinetic behavior. This is consistent with the data in **Figure 4a** and kinetics data observed in **Figure 3c** where  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  is released into the bulk solution without but at increasingly slower rates when 5 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  are present. The addition of 5 ppm and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  did not result in high  $R^2$  values, but due to the low phosphate adsorption in **Figure 3a**, this can be proposed due to the lack of struvite

formation. 100 ppm of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  resulted in a satisfactory  $R^2$  value of 0.958 using both PFO as well as PSO kinetics. Hence, 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  modified the reaction kinetics but did not inhibit struvite formation. Completely different was measured reaction kinetics in the presence of either 20 or 5 ppm of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  which resulted in poor either PFO or PSO fits. This suggested a significant inhibition effect of ppm concentrations of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  when  $\text{MgCO}_3$  is used as a magnesium source. On contrary, literature reports showed that struvite crystallized in the presence of 5 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  with the reported first-order rate constant of  $3.58 \text{ h}^{-1}$ , which showed that  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  even at low concentrations inhibited struvite crystallization kinetics and an appreciable amount of solid struvite formed.(29) Interestingly, the same study(29) reported on struvite crystallization from  $\text{MgCl}_2$  in the presence of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ , which showed similar results to  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  where at low concentrations of 5 ppm, the reaction rates were similarly inhibited.

The  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  concentrations were measured as a function of time to understand the kinetics of metal adsorption on the solid phase and are shown in **Figure 5a**. Typically, metal ion adsorption from wastewater follows PSO kinetics.(52–54) Therefore, the concentration data for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  was fitted to the PSO model as shown in **Figure 5b**. 5 and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  experiments all fit the PSO model with  $R^2$  values above 0.99, indicating that the PSO model is the correct approach to modeling the metal adsorption regardless the concentration or metal nature. This suggests metal ions adsorb on the heterogeneous  $\text{MgCO}_3$  (even though they also were recently shown to be efficiently adsorbed by struvite(34)) surface with  $\sim 80\%$  within the first 20 min of the reaction, suggesting the observed plateau in **Figure 3a** and **b** for both  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  case is an initial reaction phase, likely through a solid zinc-containing intermediate. Similarly, fast initial adsorption of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  suggests not the gradual incorporation into the lattice but rather fast interaction with the  $\text{MgCO}_3$  surface, potentially leading to its passivation against  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  dissolution.

**Figure 6** presents the elemental composition of the main metals, Mg, Cu, Zn, and nonmetal P in the recovered filtered and dried solid precipitate as well as in the filtrate obtained from 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  containing wastewater transformation into struvite. Quite remarkably, all of the  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and most of the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions were incorporated into the resulting solid precipitate. Mg and P, on the other hand, partitioned between the solid and liquid phases quite differently. In the 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  case almost all of the Mg accumulated in the solid phase while P was not absorbed,

consistent with ion chromatography measurements. In 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  case, Mg partitioned between both solid and liquid phase where P was mostly retained in the solid. Collectively, these data show that small amounts of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions can profoundly affect not only the formation kinetics of the struvite product but also completely inhibit  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  (and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) adsorption/reaction on  $\text{MgCO}_3$ , a phenomenon not routinely observed when  $\text{MgCl}_2$  was used even at relatively high metal ion concentrations.(29,35,55,56)

**Solid-phase crystalline characterization of struvite formation products formed using  $\text{MgCO}_3$ .** Motivated by the slow adsorption of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  ions in the presence of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  observed, a range of struvite synthesis experiments was performed with 2, 5, 10 or 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  to analyze the resulting crystalline nature of the precipitate. XRD results for Cu-struvite in **Figure 7** show that moderate concentrations of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  (10 and 20 ppm) in the wastewater precursor solution suppress struvite formation, while low concentrations of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  (5 ppm) lead to the onset of the struvite crystallization. In particular, the resulting XRD patterns when 10 and 20 ppm of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  were used are effectively very similar to those of the  $\text{MgCO}_3$ , as shown in **Figure 7a**. 100 ppm of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  also showed struvite phase formed after 2 hours but a distinct hopeite ( $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) crystalline phase after the 20 minutes of reaction as shown in **Figure 7b**. This is in a good agreement with pseudo 2<sup>nd</sup> order kinetics observed for  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  removal from simulated wastewater solution. The supporting EDS measurements are shown in **Figure 8** confirm the presence of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  in the solid phase after 20 min with less P incorporated than after 2-hour synthesis. It can also be seen that no P is incorporated into the reaction product when 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  was used while in 5 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  case elongated struvite crystals started appearing with dispersed copper.

The nature of copper sites in the solid precipitate is critical in this work as it can suggest potential green struvite fertilizer product biotoxicity. To understand the molecular arrangement of these sites, ambient XANES K-edge studies were conducted to elucidate the coordination for the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  atomic centers incorporated into the synthesized solid precipitate. **Figure 9a** shows the 5 ppm and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  near-edge spectra with the references  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CuO}$ , and  $\text{CuSO}_4$  (aq). The pre-edge feature of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  which contains linearly coordinated  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  is absent in both the 5 and 20 ppm samples. The minor feature at 8977 eV for  $\text{CuSO}_4$  is observed on both 5 and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ . This feature has been previously reported in the literature as the  $1s \rightarrow 3d$  transition.(57) The lack of a pre-edge feature indicates  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  to be in symmetric coordination, similar to  $\text{CuO}$  (square

planar)  $\text{CuSO}_4(\text{aq})$  (elongated octahedral). The white line of both 5 and 20 ppm samples align with  $\text{CuO}$  and  $\text{CuSO}_4$ , indicating the majority of Cu sites are in the 2+ oxidation state (but not in oxide form). **Figure 9b** shows the XANES for Zn-struvite and the reference ZnO spectrum. The shift in the main edge feature which is attributed to  $1s \rightarrow 4p$ (58) indicates distortion from the ZnO structure. The smaller peak following the main edge is attributed to multiple scattering resonance.(59) The ZnO reference and 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  spectra show significant differences, indicating that  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  exists in a disordered phosphate-hydrate phase.(60–62) The XANES spectra bear similarity to hopeite (as discussed earlier in XRD findings), while EXAFS shows that Zn has a distorted octahedral local coordination.

The ambient K-edge EXAFS studies were conducted to elucidate the nearest neighbor information. Table 1 shows the bond length (R), coordination number (N), mean square variation in path length ( $\sigma^2$ ), and R factor for the fit. In all three cases, only a single shell is observed, which indicates that the metal centers only have short-range order and show no long-range order given the lack of Me-O-Me bridging bonds. The 5 ppm and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  EXAFS spectra were fitted with  $N = 4$  for equatorial O and  $N = 2$  for axial O bonds. The longer equatorial bond distances were calculated with higher error in fit compared to the equatorial O bond lengths. XANES analysis indicates that  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  is coordinated to O in symmetrical coordination and given the elongated Cu-O axial bond it is difficult to determine whether the exact coordination is square planar or elongated octahedral. In the case of 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ , three models were evaluated. The lowest R factor was found to be  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  coordinated to 4 equatorial O and 2 axial O atoms. Between the  $N = 4$  model and the  $N = 4$  and 2 model the R factor variation is minor and thus, it is difficult to discriminate between the models without further experimental evidence to prove the exact  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  coordination. However, EXAFS analysis conclusively proves that all transition metal centers are highly isolated in the struvite structure, which contrasts from work done using  $\text{MgCl}_2$  where polymeric  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  was detected.(32)

Table 1. EXAFS fitting parameters for reaction products of 1000 ppm  $\text{MgCO}_3$  and 1000 ppm MAP in the presence of 5 and 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ .

Sample	Path	N	R (Å)	$\sigma^2$ (Å <sup>2</sup> )	R Factor (%)
5 ppm $\text{Cu}^{2+}$	Cu-O (eq.)	4	1.940 (0.009)	0.0050 (0.0006)	1.8

	Cu-O (ax.)	2	2.5 (0.1)	0.037 (0.022)	
20 ppm Cu <sup>2+</sup>	Cu-O (eq.)	4	1.939 (0.090)	0.0058 (.0005)	1.9
	Cu-O (ax.)	2	2.5 (0.1)	0.035 (0.025)	
100 ppm Zn <sup>2+</sup>	Zn-O	6	1.967 (0.021)	0.0179 (0.0014)	5.8
	Zn-O	4	1.972 (0.010)	0.0113 (0.0007)	2.1
	Zn-O	4	1.993 (0.010)	0.0098 (0.0006)	1.7
		2	2.27 (0.02)	0.017 (0.004)	

Furthermore, EXAFS analysis showed that copper metal centers exist in disordered form, which agrees with previous reports.(33) A previous study demonstrated that particle size effects exist (micro vs nano) for Cu<sup>2+</sup> uptake in plants. The study concluded that microparticles inhibited root growth at a higher level compared to nanoparticles.(63) Cu-struvite has been characterized as a potential slow-release fertilizer for micronutrient delivery in a previous report(64) with copper precipitation occurring as both phosphate and hydroxide phases. It was shown that organic acids secreted by root systems assisted in forming soluble Cu<sup>2+</sup> species in soil that can be readily taken up by the plants. The data shown in **Figure 10** suggest that Cu<sup>2+</sup> species are coordinated differently from those of bulk corresponding oxides (Cu<sub>2</sub>O and CuO) and exhibit octahedral coordination.(65)

The Zn-struvite showed minor additional peaks for the 2-hour product in XRD data in **Figure 7**, notably at 9.76° which may be attributed to a Zn<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O (hopeite) minor product formation along with the struvite major product. As shown by EXAFS analysis, the Zn<sup>2+</sup> metal centers exist without long-range order, indicating an amorphous (or disordered) phase.(61) Struvite formed using MgCl<sub>2</sub> has also been shown to have similar Zn<sup>2+</sup> centers at low zinc concentrations.(32)

### **Struvite effects on biomass**

#### **Soil microbial biomass carbon (SMBC) response to struvite synthesis solid precipitate.**

Preceding discussion suggests that synthesized precipitate contains both Zn and Cu when using solid MgCO<sub>3</sub> as a magnesium source. Soil microbial biomass is often used as an early indicator of soil quality changes and is susceptible to changes in the soil environment and soil environmental practices.(66,67) The rapid increase in biomass over the first 12 days (**Figure 11a**) of incubation in the struvite treatment indicates that it is a suitable N source for aerobic microbial growth and

the release of CO<sub>2</sub>.(68) The initial increase observed in both the struvite and struvite obtained from simulated wastewater solutions containing Zn<sup>2+</sup> 100 ppm biomass is consistent with N-fertilization in a nitrogen-limited environment. The lack of increased biomass in the struvite from 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> containing wastewater indicates an overall growth-limiting effect that can be associated with copper toxicity and is consistent with previous studies that have shown copper inhibition of soil microbial biomass C.(69,70) After 12 days of incubation the struvite treatment resulted in an overall reduction of the biomass compared to the control. This reduction could be due to the rapid depletion of O<sub>2</sub> caused by increased respiration resulting from N-fertilization and a transition from consortia dominated by aerobic organisms to anaerobic. However, biomass continued to increase in the control and struvite made from 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup> containing wastewater treatments until 28 days followed by a reduction in biomass to the same level as the struvite synthesized from simulated wastewater containing 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup> at 48 days. The presence of the zinc may have slowed the growth of the microbial biomass compared to struvite and simply resulted in a delay in the onset of anaerobic conditions. Alternatively, the presence of the zinc may have led to increased alcohol dehydrogenase activity as the consortia became more anaerobic resulting in increased growth in facultative anaerobic organisms. The control treatment was already at a steady-state with regards to N content so there was no increased respiration resulting in a much longer lag time until the onset of anaerobic conditions and the commensurate reduction in anaerobic biomass.

Dehydrogenase activity helps to access the enzymatic activity in the soil and serves as an indicator of microbiological redox systems and is closely correlated with respiratory (aerobic) activity in the soil.(71) Soil dehydrogenase activity was greatly influenced by the addition of N as shown in **Figure 11b**. This was evidenced by the significant decrease in DHA through the incubation period. DHA reduction in the struvite and struvite synthesized using 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup> containing model wastewater are indicative of a transition from aerobic to anaerobic conditions over the first 12 days of incubation and are consistent with the biomass data. The TTC method used to measure DHA is not suited to measure anaerobic dehydrogenase so the level indicated is probably representative of the equilibrium redox state reached after 12 days. Metal concentrations tend to directly affect enzyme activity rather than microbial biomass reduction. The rapid reduction in DHA observed in the struvite synthesized using 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> containing wastewater would indicate that there is an overall negative or toxic effect due to the copper. This confirmed studies

by(72,73) stating inhibition of enzymatic activity in soils by changing the microflora composition and activity of individual enzymes which decreases organic matter decomposition. One possible explanation for the slight increase in DHA in struvite on day 28 may be a result of an increase in pH based on the application of struvite which confirms previous reports that changes in pH of the soil are a frequent effect of struvite application.(14,74) The increased pH has a direct effect on dehydrogenase activity as also reported by other authors.(75)

The activity of soil microorganisms strongly depends on the presence of available organic C and N. The lower microbial activity observed in the amendments compared to control may partly be attributed to the quality and as well as the complex interaction of the amendments with the soil.(76) The alkaline state of the soil makes initial solubility lower in struvite and other amendments hence did not stimulate quicker mineralization of available soil nutrients (phosphorus forms) and a faster growth rate of the soil microorganisms. The lower solubility can be assumed to result in a greater immobilization of P compared to the mineralization of the available organic compounds. This resulted in the moderate to low soil microbial-mediated mineralization in struvite, and that obtained using 100 ppm  $Zn^{2+}$  and 20 ppm  $Cu^{2+}$  containing model wastewater as evidenced by the positive correlation between the DHA and SMB-C shown in **Figure 11c**.

**Conclusions and Environmental Implications.** Struvite synthesis using N and P available in wastewater requires a magnesium source which can be either water-soluble  $MgCl_2$  or very low water solubility but more available magnesium minerals, including  $MgCO_3$ .  $MgCl_2$  is produced via energy-demanding processes while  $MgCO_3$  is an abundant mined mineral(10) suggesting its use can be beneficial for low environmental impact nutrient recovery process. However, the data presented in this work show that the nature of the complex wastewater needs to be carefully considered before  $MgCO_3$  can be used to substitute for  $MgCl_2$ . In particular, while solid struvite formed from the simulated wastewater with and without 100 ppm  $Zn^{2+}$ , already ppm-level concentrations of  $Cu^{2+}$  inhibited the formation of crystalline struvite. The likely mechanism for this phenomenon was surface adsorption of  $Cu^{2+}$  ions on  $MgCO_3$  which inhibited  $Mg^{2+}$  ion release from the surface. This is an interesting observation and the exact mechanism is a subject of a detailed surface science study. Notably, this negative effect of the  $Cu^{2+}$  ions on the formation of struvite was not observed when  $MgCl_2$  was used as magnesium source for a wide range of  $Cu^{2+}$

ion concentrations.(29,33,55,56) These surface adsorbed  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  sites exhibited a strong effect on soil biota, likely due to being more mobile or soluble. This phenomenon was not observed when 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  was present in the simulated wastewater. The Zn-struvite formation proceeded via a formation of  $\text{Zn}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  intermediate in the first ~25 minutes of the reaction which led to disordered or amorphous Zn local structure in the final product. Notably, in either case, the parent  $\text{MgCO}_3$  was a very efficient metal ion adsorbent with both transition metals very efficiently adsorbed and concentrated in the resulting solid under the reaction conditions considered. This suggests that when a more sustainable  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  source based on low solubility Mg minerals is considered, due attention needs to be given to the abundance of the particular transition metals in the wastewater.

**CRedit author statements.** **Karolina Barčauskaitė:** Investigation and writing the original draft. **Donata Drapanauskaitė:** Investigation. **Manoj Silva:** Visualization, data curation and writing the original draft. **Vadim Murzin:** Investigation. **Modupe Doyeni:** Investigation. **Marius Urbonavicius:** Investigation. **Clinton F. Williams:** Data curation. **Skaidrė Supronienė:** Investigation. **Jonas Baltrusaitis:** Conceptualization, supervision, writing review & editing.

**Conflicts of interest.** There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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**Figures:**

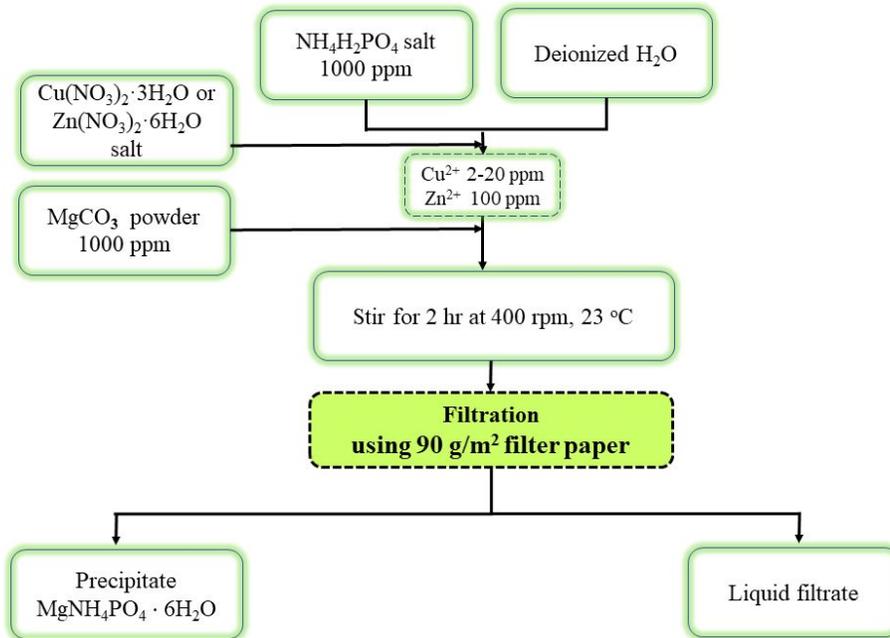


Figure 1. Experimental procedure for struvite synthesis with and without  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  in simulated wastewater.

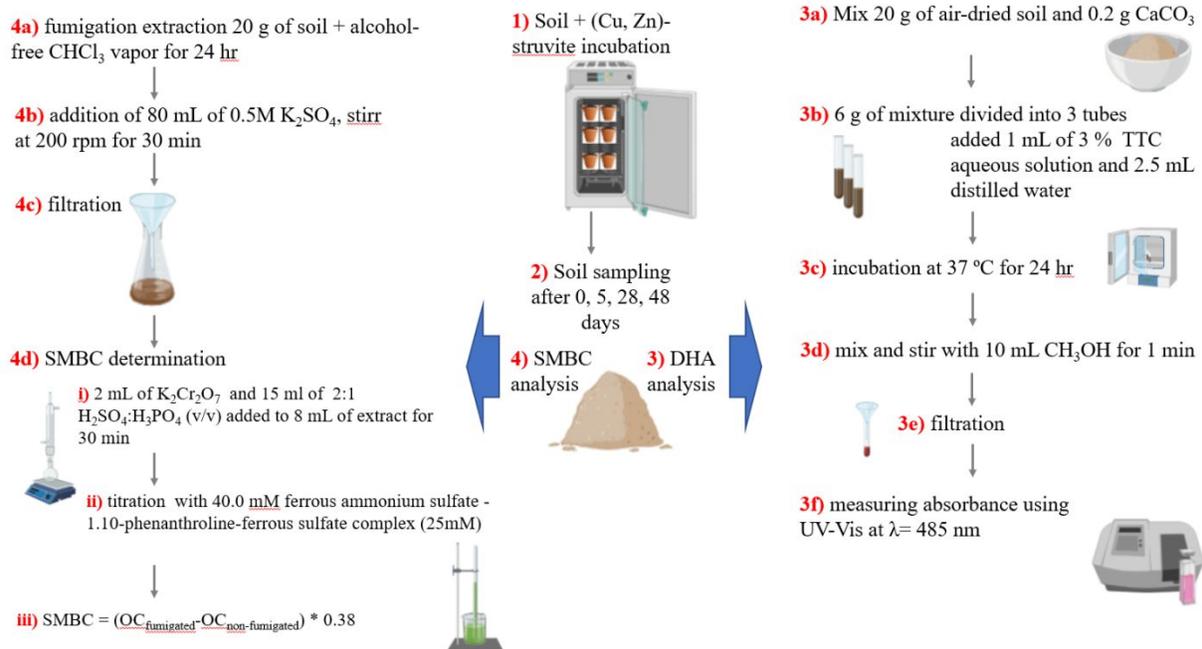


Figure 2. Experimental procedure for SMBC and DHA analysis.

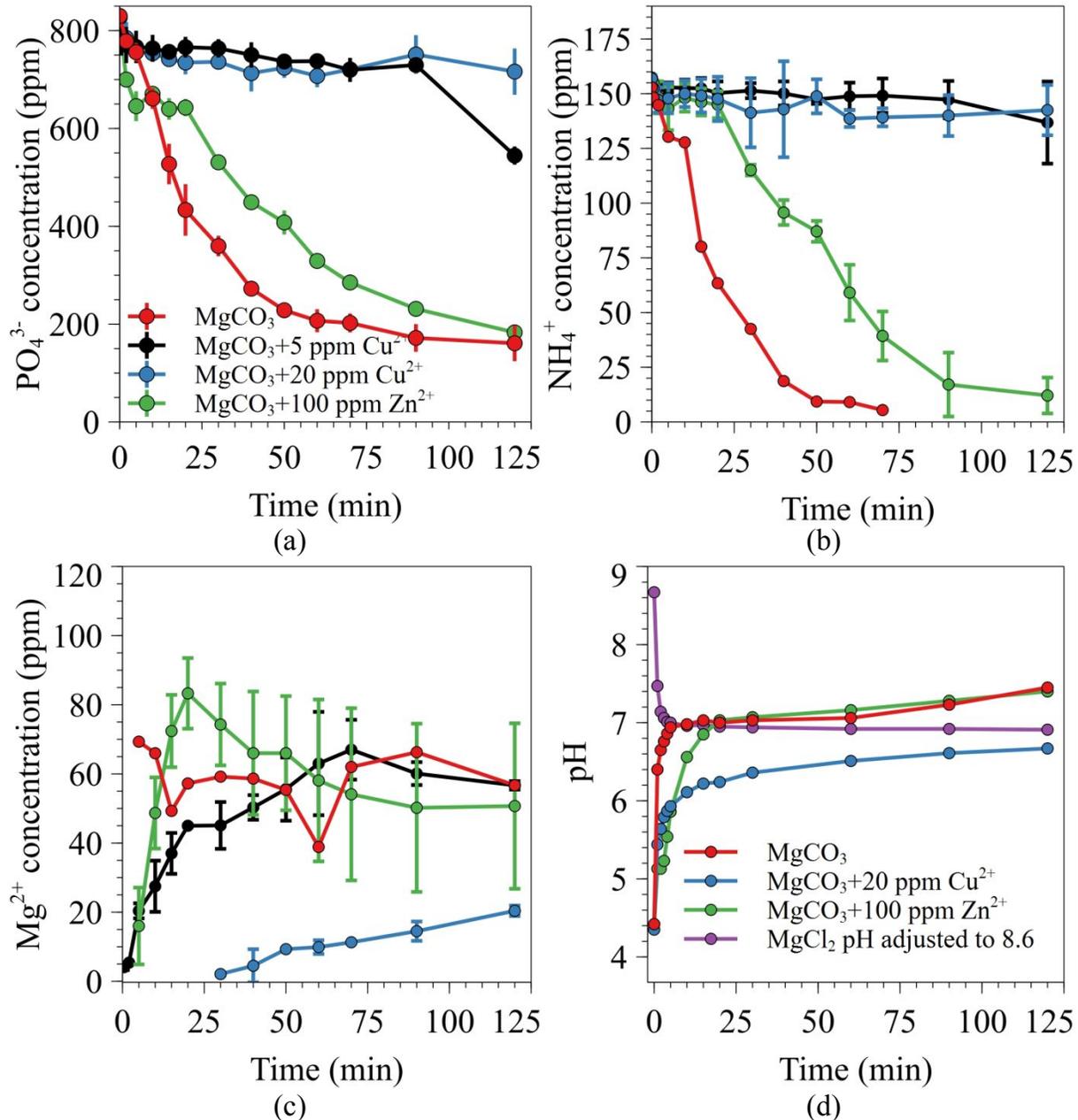
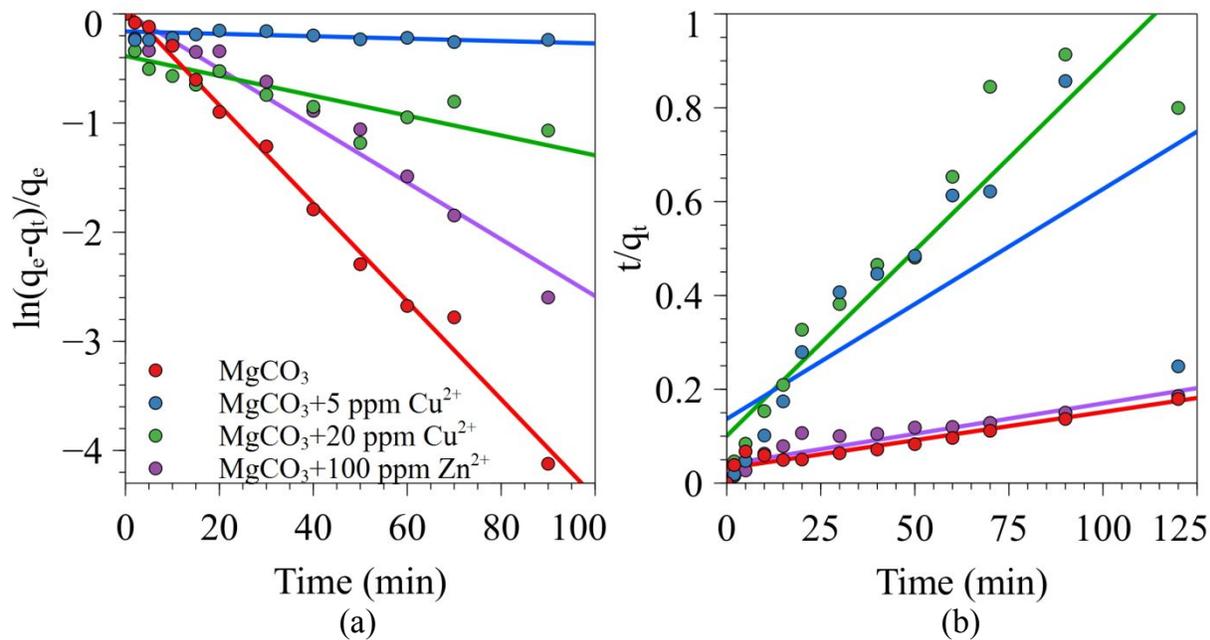


Figure 3. Measured temporal profiles of (a)  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ , (b)  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , (c)  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  during struvite formation using 1000 ppm  $\text{MgCO}_3$  and 1000 ppm MAP. (d) pH change as a function of reaction time, after addition of 1000 ppm  $\text{MgCO}_3$  with 1000 ppm MAP. 5, 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  were also used in simulated wastewater. In (d) temporal pH profile of  $\text{MgCl}_2$  with the initial pH adjusted to 8.6 is also shown for comparison. Error bars in (a), (b) and (c) represent three independent measurements.



Sample	$R^2$	
	PFO	PSO
$\text{MgCO}_3$	0.992	0.905
$\text{MgCO}_3 + \text{Cu}^{2+} 5 \text{ ppm}$	0.201	0.470
$\text{MgCO}_3 + \text{Cu}^{2+} 20 \text{ ppm}$	0.671	0.879
$\text{MgCO}_3 + \text{Zn}^{2+} 100 \text{ ppm}$	0.958	0.834

Figure 4. Kinetic modeling of total  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  experimental data using (a) pseudo 1<sup>st</sup> order and (b) pseudo 2<sup>nd</sup> order kinetics model for 1000 ppm  $\text{MgCO}_3$  and 1000 ppm MAP with and without 5, 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ .

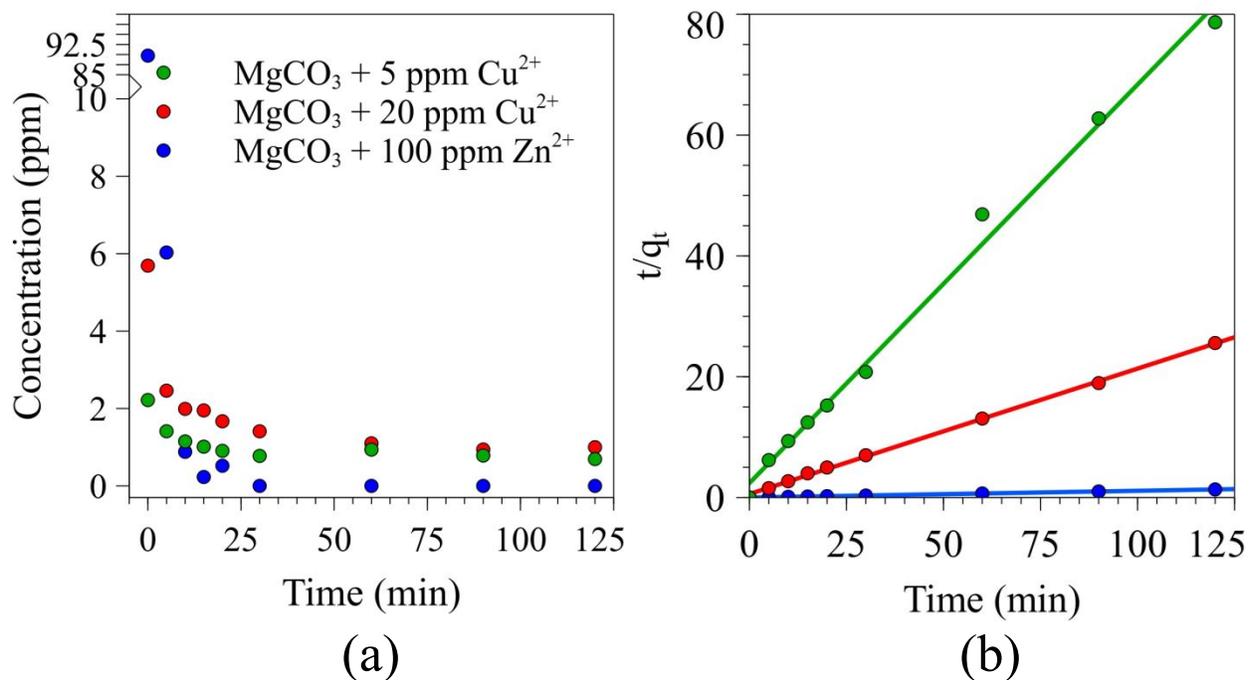


Figure 5. (a) Measured temporal profiles of Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Zn<sup>2+</sup> during struvite formation using 1000 ppm MgCO<sub>3</sub> and 1000 ppm MAP with 5, 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> or 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup> added in the simulated wastewater solution. (b) Kinetic modeling of experimental data using pseudo 2<sup>nd</sup> order kinetics model for 5, 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> or 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup>.

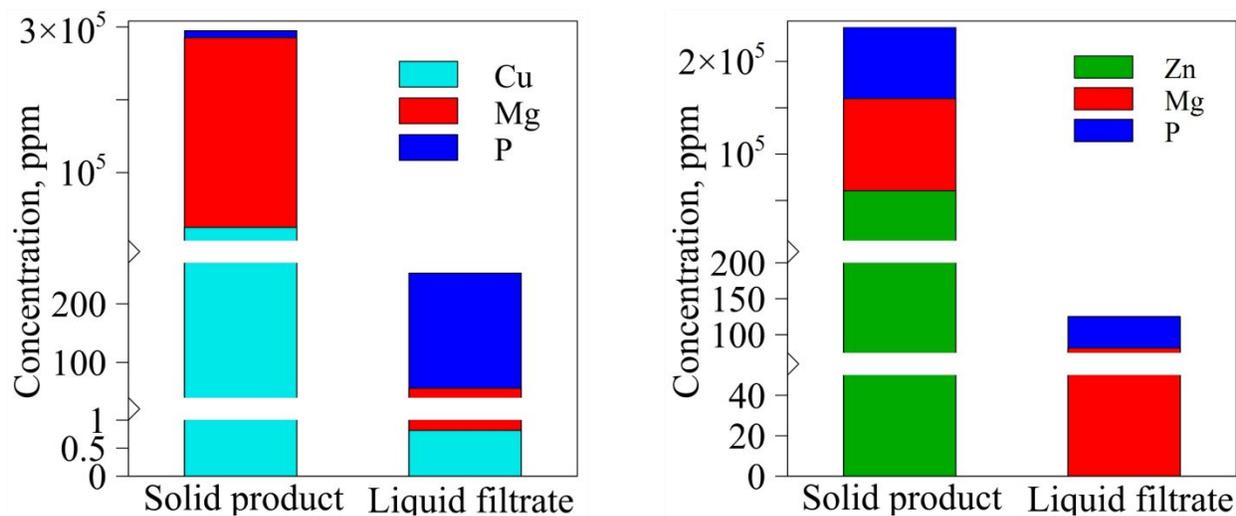


Figure 6. (a) ICP measured Cu(Zn), Mg and P concentrations in solid precipitate and the liquid filtrate for 20 ppm Cu<sup>2+</sup> and 100 ppm Zn<sup>2+</sup>.

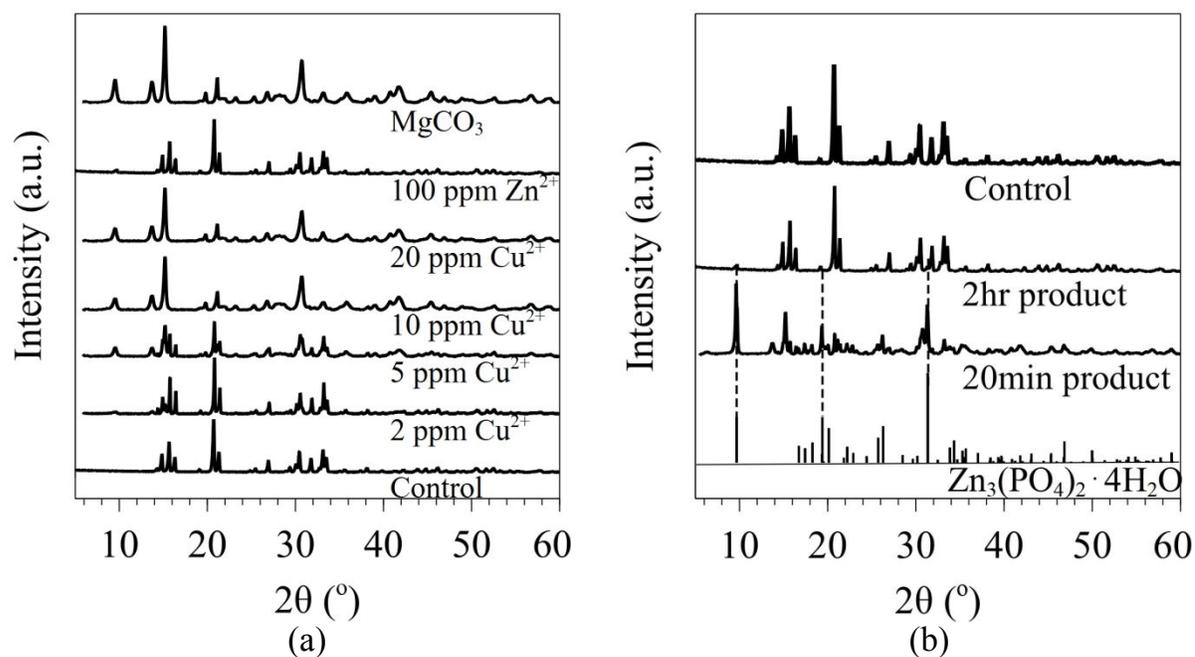


Figure 7. XRD patterns measured of various struvite formation solid precipitate using MgCO<sub>3</sub> with and without Cu<sup>2+</sup> or Zn<sup>2+</sup> in the simulated wastewater solution. Control represent struvite formed with no metals added.

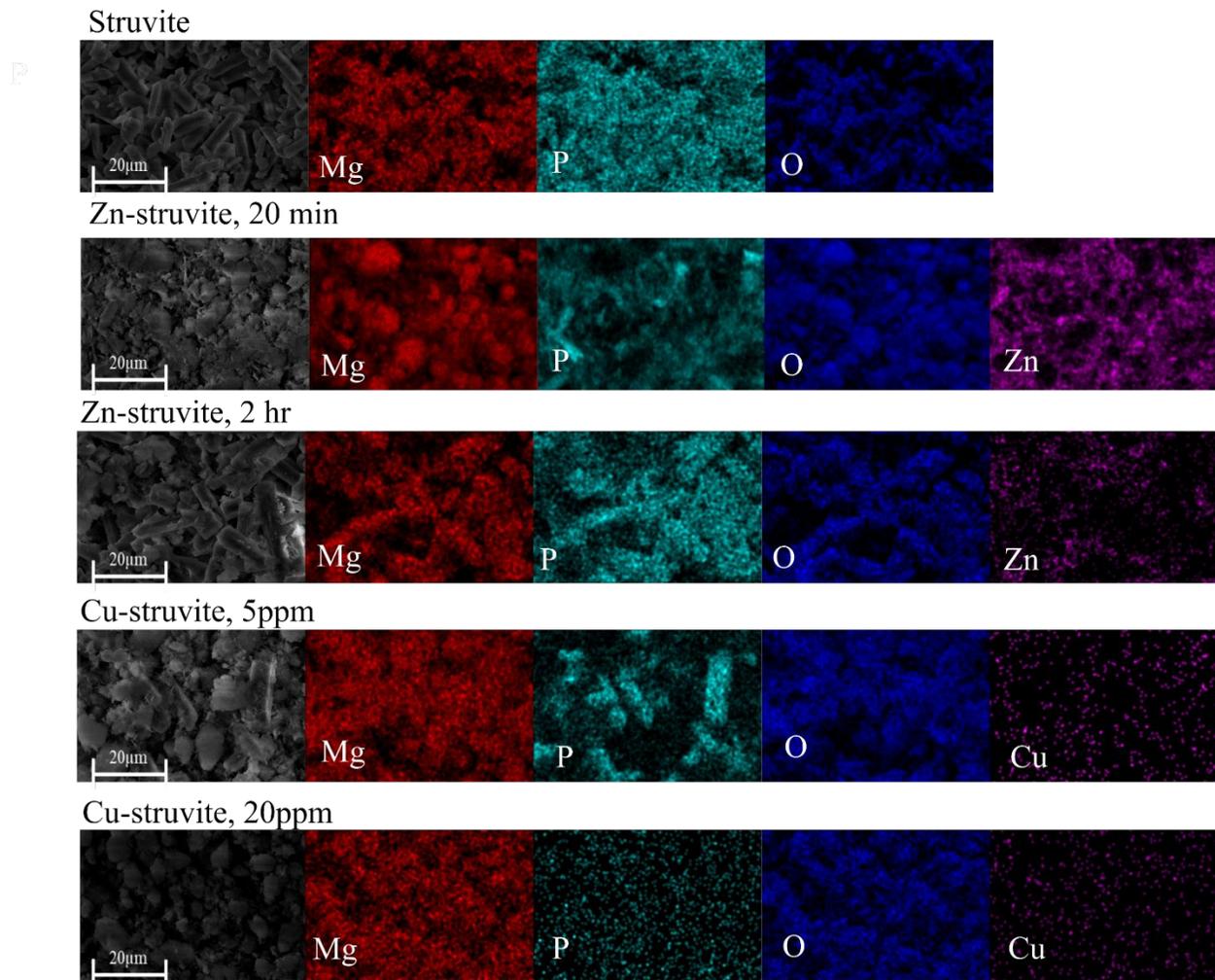


Figure 8. SEM images together with the elemental EDS maps of various struvite formation solid precipitate using  $\text{MgCO}_3$  with and without  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  or  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  in the simulated wastewater solution.

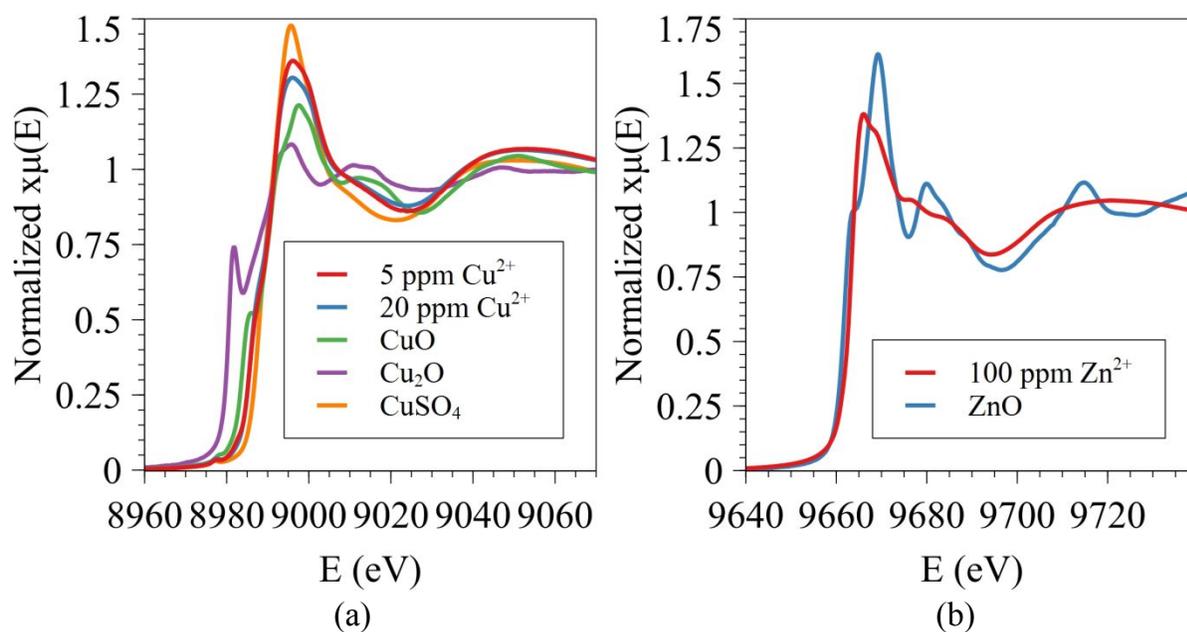


Figure 9. (a) Cu K-edge XANES for Cu 5 ppm and Cu 20 ppm samples with  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CuO}$ , and  $\text{CuSO}_4$  reference spectra (b) Zn K-edge XANES for Zn sample with  $\text{ZnO}$  reference spectrum.

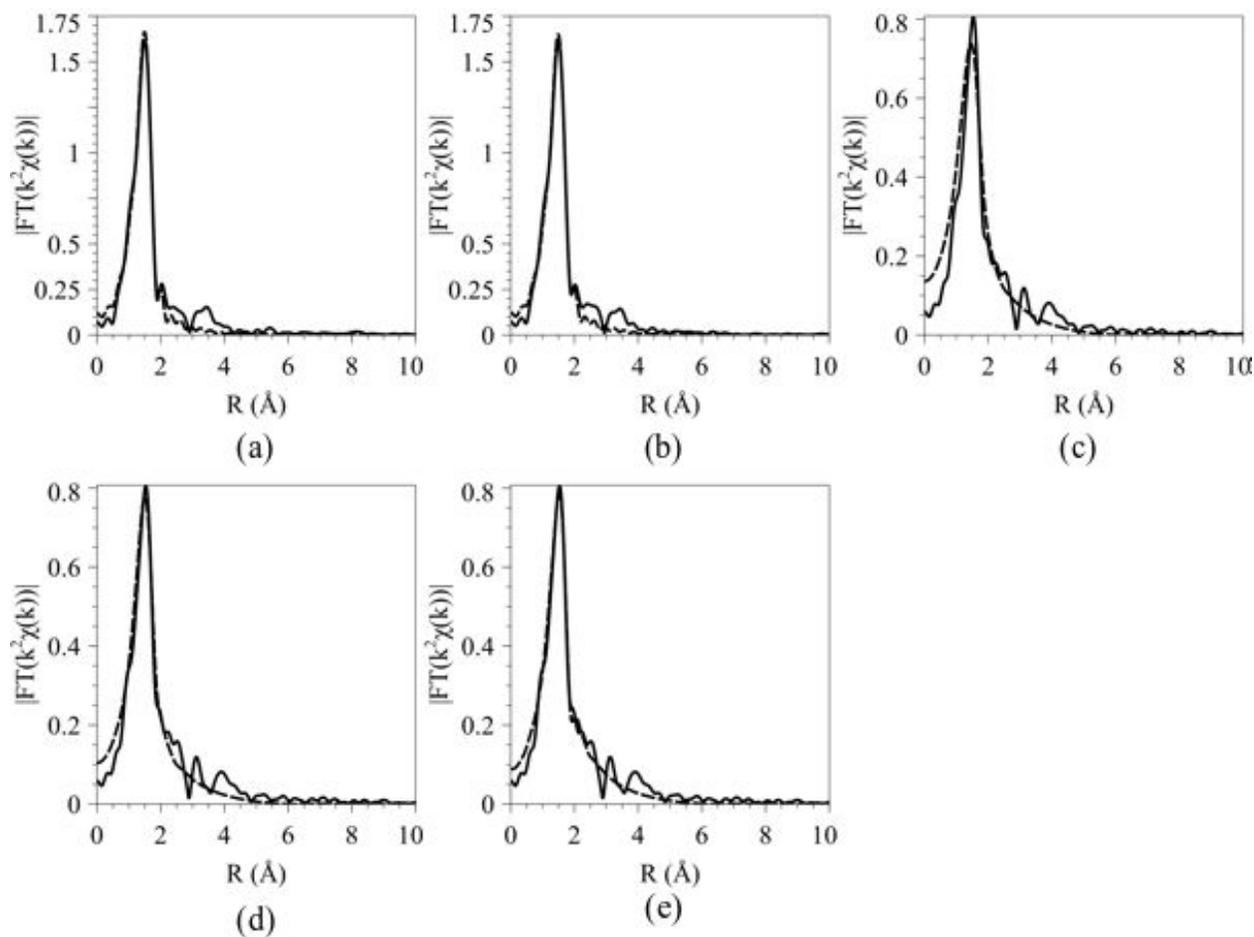


Figure 10. (a) Cu-K-edge EXAFS for Cu 5 ppm (b) Cu K-edge EXAFS for 20 ppm  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  (c) Zn K-edge EXAFS for 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  (fit N = 6) (d) Zn K-edge EXAFS for 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  (fit N = 4) (e) Zn K-edge EXAFS for 100 ppm  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  (fit N = 4 and 2). The solid line denotes experimental spectrum, and the dashed line denotes the fitted model.

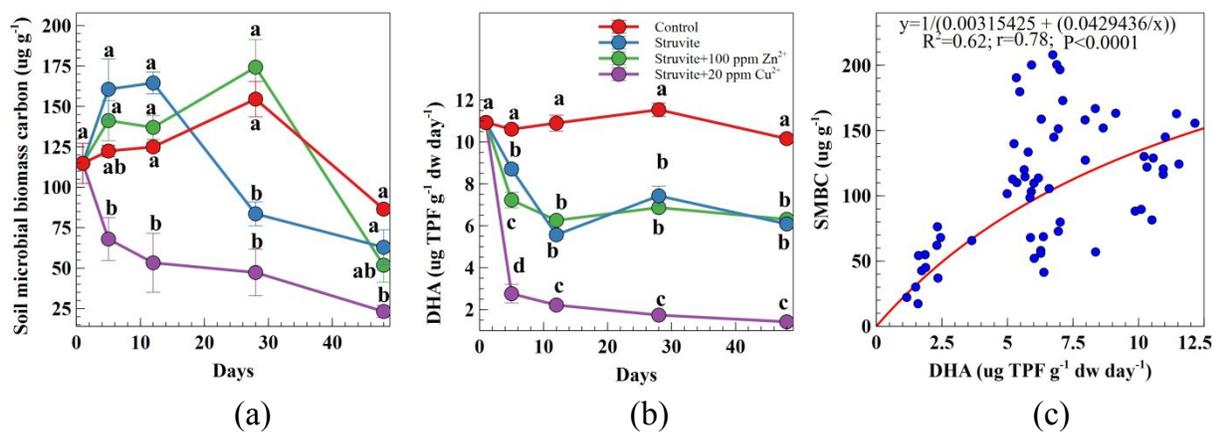


Figure 11. (a) Soil microbial biomass carbon (SMBC) content and (b) soil DHA activity and (c) the correlation between SMBC and DHA. The best fit is a double reciprocal correlation curve which explains 61.59 % of the obtained results. The correlation coefficient ( $r=0.78$ ) indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between SMBC and DHA values.

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Magnesite has been used to produce struvite from nutrient rich wastewater in the presence of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ , and the effects of this fertilizer material on soil microflora has been reported.