Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Nuclear Materials

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jnucmat

Resource recovery of animal bones: Study on sorptive properties and mechanism for Sr^{2^+} ions

I. Smičiklas^{a,*}, S. Dimović^a, M. Šljivić^a, I. Plećaš^a, B. Lončar^b, M. Mitrić^a

^a The Institute of Nuclear Sciences "Vinča", University of Belgrade, P.O. Box 522, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia
^b The Faculty of Technology and Metallurgy, Karnegijeva 4, University of Belgrade, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 24 August 2009 Accepted 3 February 2010

ABSTRACT

The interaction between Sr²⁺ ions and variously treated animal bones was studied from the aspect of ⁹⁰Sr isotope immobilization from the contaminated effluents. As a source of biogenic, poorly-crystalline apatite, bone based materials, in general, were found to exhibit good retention properties towards Sr^{2+} cation. Furthermore, sorption capacities of H₂O₂ treated bone sample and sample annealed at 400 °C were found to be higher in respect to a commercial bone char and synthetic hydroxyapatite. Mentioned treatments induced partial organic phase removal from the pores of the skeletal material that caused the increase of the specific surface area. Higher temperatures provoked an increase of the apatite phase crystallinity, agglomeration of nano-crystals and a decrease of both the specific surface area and Sr²⁺ sorption. The immobilization was pH independent in the range 4–10, as a result of sorbents buffering properties. Kinetic data were well represented by the pseudo-second-order reaction model. Sorption isotherms were in better correlation with Freundlich than Langmuir theoretical model, whereas samples heated at 800 °C and 1000 °C showed S-type isotherms which were in a good agreement with sigmoidal Langmuir equation. The ion-exchange with Ca²⁺ cations and the specific cation sorption were two recognized mechanisms in the Sr²⁺ removal process, with relative contributions strongly dependent on the sorbents physicochemical properties. Sr²⁺-loaded products were the most stable in the neutral and alkaline environments, while Ca²⁺ containing and acidic leaching solutions caused increased Sr²⁺ desorption.

© 2010 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Interactions between radioactive strontium (⁹⁰Sr, beta emitter, $t_{1/2}$ 28 years) and calcium phosphate compounds are of interest not only from the aspect of strontium incorporation in human bones and teeth after nuclear explosions [1], but also due to phosphate applications in the precipitation and sorption technologies of nuclear waste water treatments [2]. Among numerous calcium and phosphorous containing compounds, hydroxyapatite, Ca₁₀-(PO₄)₆(OH)₂, (HAP), is the most commonly found in nature as a member of the apatite-group minerals, and with fluoroapatite and their carbonate-substituted varieties represent important mineral component of bones and teeth [3]. While geological hydroxyapatite may occur as large, single crystals, bone and tooth minerals consist of nano-sized particles.

Apatite compounds are generally extremely tolerant to chemical substitutions and structural distortions [4] which, with their low solubility and high geochemical stability, make them promising materials for toxic heavy metals and radionuclide immobilization. Substitution of Ca²⁺ ions with Sr²⁺ in the synthetic hydroxyapatite structure is well documented [5,6]. Hydroxyapatite lattice parameters and the unit cell volume increase linearly with Sr²⁺ addition, consistent with a larger ion entering the apatite lattice [7]. In nature, strontium is one of the most common substituents in mineral apatite [8]. Sr²⁺ can also be incorporated in the apatite phase of animal and human bones [9]. From the biological point of view, stable forms of strontium, at low doses, exhibit beneficial effects on bone formation, trabecular bone density and consequently may be of potential interest in the prevention of osteoporosis [10]. Quite the opposite, radioactive strontium may become a continuing source of ionizing radiation in the human body [1]. The energy of ⁹⁰Sr β -decays deposits within a small volume of surrounding tissue, and the damage to the cells may be irreversible, leading to leukemia and bone neoplasm.

The literature has shown that the good retention properties of bones towards ⁹⁰Sr ions represent a benefit in respect to ⁹⁰Sr removal from aqueous media by bone based sorbents. Apatite IITM is a sorbent specially processed from fish bones and residues [11], with general composition $Ca_{10-x}Na_x(PO_4)_{6-x}(CO_3)_x(OH)_2$ where (x < 1), along with 30–40% by weight of associated organic materials in the internal porosity of the inorganic structure. Besides excellent sorption properties in respect to heavy metal





^{*} Corresponding author. Fax: +381 11 2455 943.

E-mail address: ivanat@vinca.rs (I. Smičiklas).

^{0022-3115/\$ -} see front matter @ 2010 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.jnucmat.2010.02.004

cations such as Pb²⁺, Zn²⁺ and Cd²⁺ [12], this sorbent was also found to retain Sr²⁺ from solutions containing $10^{-9}-10^{-8}$ mol Sr²⁺/dm³ and moderate concentrations of common chelating agents and inorganic salts [13]. Equilibrium [14] and kinetic studies [15] of Sr²⁺ removal, conducted using a commercial bone char, also suggested that biogenic materials can be effectively used as a low cost substitute for expensive synthetic hydroxyapatite powders.

The main aim of this study was to investigate Sr^{2+} removal efficiency of powdered bovine bones, as well as the possibility of improving their sorption properties by different thermal and chemical treatments. The effectiveness of Sr^{2+} removal and the stability of Sr-loaded bone products were tested and compared at various experimental conditions.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bone based materials used as Sr^{2+} sorbents

The preparation and the characterization of bovine bone sorbents were explained in detail in our previous publication [16]. Briefly, sample B refers to crushed, boiled bones; abbreviations B400–B1000 represent samples prepared by annealing of sample B at different temperatures (400 °C, 600 °C, 800 °C and 1000 °C), whereas BH₂O₂ corresponds to chemically treated sample B (oxidation with H₂O₂). Prior to sorption experiments all samples were milled and sieved to obtain a fraction with particle diameters in the range 45–200 µm.

The morphology of the samples was studied using a JOEL JSM 5800 Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM), at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV.

2.2. Sr^{2+} sorption and desorption experiments

Reactions between aqueous Sr²⁺ ions and various bone sorbents were studied in the batch system, by varying initial pH, contact time and initial Sr^{2+} concentration. Considering the same chemical reactivity of radioactive and stable Sr²⁺ isotopes, in the following experiments bone based materials were exposed to solutions containing non radioactive strontium, for safety reasons. Solutions of different Sr²⁺ concentrations were prepared by dissolving calculated quantities of SrNO₃ (Merck) in distilled water. Desired initial pH values were adjusted adding minimum amounts of differently concentrated KOH or HNO₃ solutions. All sorption experiments were conducted at room temperature (20 ± 1 °C) using 0.1 g of sorbent and 20 ml of proper Sr²⁺ solution. Suspensions were agitated in 50 ml PVC flasks, for designed periods of time, on a horizontal shaker (120 rpm). Initial Sr²⁺ concentration of 6×10^{-3} mol/dm³, initial pH 5 and 24 h of equilibration were applied, unless otherwise stated. For these experimental conditions, structures of Sr²⁺-loaded sorbents were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD), using Bruker D8 Advance diffraction system, with Cu K $\alpha_{1,2}$ radiation in theta/theta reflection geometry. The patterns were registered in the 2θ range from $8^{\circ} < 2\theta < 60^{\circ}$ with a scanning step size of 0.05° and an acquisition time of 4 s/step.

The influence of process variables on the amount of Sr^{2+} retained and corresponding sorption mechanisms was investigated by varying the contact time in the range 15 min to 48 h, the initial Sr^{2+} concentration in the range 10^{-4} to 6×10^{-3} mol/dm³ and the initial pH in the range 4–12.

After filtration, the final solution pH values were measured. The exact initial and final concentrations of Sr^{2+} , as well as concentrations of Ca^{2+} ions discharged into the liquid phase, were determined by Perkin Elmer Analyst 200 Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (AAS). Analyses of blanks containing only Sr^{2+} solu-

tion $(10^{-4} \text{ mol/dm}^3 \text{ or } 8.76 \text{ ppm})$ equilibrated 24 h at initial pH values considered in this study, revealed that the retention of metal cations by the system components was in the range of AAS experimental error, therefore sorbed amounts of Sr²⁺ were calculated as a difference between initial and final Sr²⁺ concentrations. Due to a large number of sorbents and factors which influence was analyzed, a limited number of experiments were performed in duplicate and the differences between duplicate measurements were found to be <3%.

The reversibility of the process was tested using bone particles which were previously loaded with Sr^{2+} by equilibrating sorbents with a 6×10^{-3} mol/dm³ solution, at solid to liquid ratio 1:200, for 24 h. Solid residues were washed with distilled water, dried at 105 °C, transferred to PVC flasks and shaken with 20 ml of different leaching solutions, for another 24 h. Leaching solutions of pH 2, 5, 7 and 9, prepared using distilled water and appropriate amounts of 0.01 and 0.1 mol/dm³ HNO₃ or KOH, were applied, as well as 10^{-3} , 10^{-2} and 2.5×10^{-2} mol/dm³ Ca(NO₃)₂. From the quantities of Sr²⁺ ions initially sorbed and that released into the leaching solutions, percentages of desorbed metal ions were calculated.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characteristics of bone sorbents

Physicochemical properties of bone sorbents [16] are presented in Table 1. Characterization of obtained products revealed that heating at 400 °C and the chemical oxidation process caused partial removal of bone organic components (mainly collagen) with preservation of the poor apatite phase crystallinity. Heating at higher temperatures, especially T > 600 °C, caused a complete organic phase removal, sintering of HAP nanocrystals and a decrease of the specific surface area. Extremely high pH_{PZC} values of B800 and B1000 powders were related to CaO and MgO traces, observed in the XRD spectra [16].

SEM images (Fig. 1), obtained at lower magnification, revealed the irregular morphology of crushed bone particles. The microstructure of sample B was highly dense, due to the presence of organic components. Quite the opposite, SEM images of processed powders, BH_2O_2 and B400 in particular, showed a coarser structure, as a result of organic phase exclusion. Treatments at 800 °C and 1000 °C caused agglomeration of hydroxyapatite nanocrystals. The observed facts are in accordance with other physicochemical characteristics such as HAP phase crystallinity and Sp (Table 1), as well as with data published in the literature [17,18].

3.2. Effect of pH

In order to test the importance of solution pH in the reaction between bone samples and Sr²⁺ ions, the initial pH values were adjusted in the range 4-12. Changes of equilibrium (final) pH values, amounts of Sr²⁺ sorbed and amounts of Ca²⁺ ions released, against initial pH, are presented in Fig. 2. It can be concluded, that both the amphoteric nature of bone samples and the specific sorption of Sr²⁺ ions caused pH changes. Equilibrium pH values were relatively constant in the initial pH region \sim 4 – \sim 10. This buffering range was quite similar for all investigated samples, regardless of their different physicochemical properties. However, differences in the position of the plateaus were observed. In the solution of inert electrolyte (KNO₃) pH_{final} values at the plateaus were in the range 6.83–10.15 (pH_{PZC}, Table 1), whereas after Sr²⁺ sorption final pH values were in the range 6.1-8.8. In all cases, sorption was accompanied by a certain drop of solution pH in comparison with pH values where no specific cation sorption occurred. The differences between pH_{PZC} and final pH values for various bone sorbents,

Table 1 The fraction of crystalline phase, specific surface area and point of zero charge of bone samples (results taken from Ref. [16]).

Sample	В	BH ₂ O ₂	B400	B600	B800	B1000
Fraction of crystalline phase (Xc)	0.26	0.27	0.27	0.36	0.93	0.95
Specific surface area (m ²)	0.1	83.0	85.0	71.7	7.0	2.4
Point of zero charge (pH _{PZC})	7.22	6.83	7.37	7.50	10.15	10.00







B (bar=20µm)



BH₂O₂ (bar=200µm)

B400 (bar=200µm)





B800 (bar=20µm)

B1000 (bar=200µm)

Fig. 1. SEM micrographs of bone produced sorbents.

decreased in the following way: B800 (1.47) > B1000 (1.20) > BH_2O_2 (0.71) > B (0.62) > B400 (0.53) > B600 (0.47), sug-

gesting that participation of the specific cation sorption decreased in the same way.



Fig. 2. Effect of the initial pH on the: (a) final pH values; (b) amounts of Sr^{2*} sorbed; (c) amounts of Ca^{2*} released. Sorbents: ■ – B, ● – BH₂O₂, ▲ – B400, ▼ – B600, ◆ – B800, ◀ – B1000.

The rapid final pH increase was observed for initial pH > 10. In these highly alkaline solutions, buffering capacity of bone sorbents

was fully utilized, therefore accumulation of OH⁻ ions and net negative charge occurred at the surface of sorbent materials.

For each sample, sorbed amounts of Sr^{2+} (Fig. 2b) were constant in the initial pH range where final pH values were constant as well. On the other hand, for initial pH > 10, along with the rapid increase of final pH, a rapid increase of the amount of Sr^{2+} sorbed was detected, due to strong electrostatic attraction forces. A similar pH effect onto Sr^{2+} sorption by the synthetic HAP [19] and the commercial bone char [14], was observed.

The amounts of Ca²⁺ ions released from the surface of sorbents into the liquid phase (Fig. 2c) followed the general trend: values were relatively constant in the initial pH range 4–10, as a result of stable final pH, whereas decreased at pH > 10. Comparing the amounts of released Ca²⁺ ions between different sorbent materials a following trend was observed: BH₂O₂ > B400 > B600 \ge B > B800 \ge B1000, indicating that the participation of the ion-exchange mechanism decreased in the same way.

The presented results revealed that changes of pH in the wide range (4-10) caused no significant changes in the Sr²⁺ sorption efficiency, due to buffering properties of investigated bone sorbents.

3.3. Kinetics of Sr^{2+} removal

Changes of Sr²⁺ sorbed amounts with contact time are presented in Fig. 3a, together with consequent changes of released Ca²⁺ amounts (Fig. 3b), and aqueous pH changes (Fig. 3c). It can be observed, that all sorbents under applied experimental conditions, showed a rapid sorption at the beginning of the process, followed by a slower metal uptake and equilibrium at approximately 24 h. However, quantities of metal ion sorbed differed significantly between sorbents (from 0.181 to 0.383 mmol/g, at equilibrium). The affinity of sorbents towards Sr²⁺ ion decreased in the order: BH₂O₂ > B400 > B600 > B800 > B > B1000.

The amounts of Ca²⁺, released per gram of each sorbent, generally increased with time, but these quantities did not fully match the order of samples affinity towards Sr^{2+} : BH₂O₂ > B400 > B600 > B > B800 \ge B1000. The results suggested different participation of Ca²⁺/Sr²⁺ ion-exchange proces in the overal mechanism of sorption. Solution pH values also increased with time, from initial pH = 5 to equilibrium pH values between 6 and 8. The increase of pH was the most pronounced at the very beging of the process (first 15 min). On the other hand, all equilibrium pH values were lower than corresponding pH_{PZC} values [16].

The dynamics of the process in terms of the rate constant and the initial sorption rate can be evaluated using sorption kinetic data. The process of Sr^{2+} removal from an aqueous phase by different bone sorbents was analyzed using pseudo-second-order mathematical equation [20], which can be expressed in the following linear way:

$$t/q_t = 1/k_2 q_e^2 + 1/q_e \cdot t \tag{1}$$

where k_2 (g/mmol min) is the pseudo-second-order rate constant, q_e (mmol/g) the amount of Sr²⁺ sorbed at equilibrium and q_t (mmol/g) is the amount sorbed at any time t.

If the functionality t/q_t vs. t is linear, the values of rate constant and the amounts sorbed at equilibrium can be calculated from the slope $(1/q_e)$ and intercept $(1/k_2q_e^2)$ of the line. Furthermore, when $t \rightarrow 0$, the initial sorption rate h (mmol/g min) can be calculated:

$$h = k_2 q_e^2 \tag{2}$$

The results of Sr^{2+} kinetic data fitting are presented in Fig. 3 d, and Table 2.

The values of R^2 suggested a good correlation between pseudosecond-order equation and obtained experimental data. A good agreement between experimentally determined and calculated q_e



Fig. 3. Effect of contact time on the: (a) amounts of Sr^{2+} sorbed; (b) amounts of Ca^{2+} released; (c) final pH values, and (d) linear data fitting using the pseudo-second-order equation. Sorbents: $\blacksquare - B$, $\bullet - BH_2O_2$, $\blacktriangle - B400$, $\blacktriangledown - B600$, $\blacklozenge - B800$, $\blacktriangleleft - B1000$.

Table 2		
The parameters of	pseudo-second-order	kinetic model.

Sorbent	$q_{e,exp} \; (mmol/g)$	Pseudo-second-orde	Pseudo-second-order model					
		$q_e ({\rm mmol/g})$	k (g/mmol min)	$h \times 10^2 \text{ (mmol/g min)}$	R^2			
В	0.207	0.207	0.063	0.270	0.999			
BH ₂ O ₂	0.383	0.384	0.191	2.816	1.000			
B400	0.368	0.368	0.132	1.788	0.999			
B600	0.240	0.241	0.176	1.022	0.999			
B800	0.228	0.238	0.030	0.170	0.972			
B1000	0.181	0.191	0.033	0.120	0.985			

values was observed as well (Table 2). The highest values of pseudo-second-order rate constant and the initial sorption rate were calculated for sample BH₂O₂, signifying its highest efficiency. Powdered bones calcinated at 400 °C exhibited somewhat lower values of kinetic parameters, and comparable Sr^{2+} sorption capacity. In the previous study on Co^{2+} removal, ion-exchange and specific cation sorption mechanisms were also found to participate in the overall sorption mechanism of investigated bone materials, and the significant correlation of kinetic data with the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was observed [16]. Samples BH₂O₂ and B400 were the most efficient sorbents of Co^{2+} , as well as of Sr^{2+} , however, the absolute values of calculated parameters k_2 , h and q_e were found to be higher for Co^{2+} .

3.4. Sr²⁺ sorption isotherms

Equilibrium isotherms were determined by shaking a fixed mass of powdered bone sorbents with Sr^{2+} solutions of increasing concentration at fixed initial pH 5, for 24 h. Differently treated bone samples differ significantly when sorbed amounts of Sr^{2+} ions

as a function of equilibrium Sr^{2+} concentration are compared (Fig. 4a).

According to Giles et al. [21] the obtained Sr^{2+} sorption isotherms can be classified based on their initial slopes and curvatures as Langmuir type (L) for samples B, BH₂O₂, B400 and B600. The ratio between the concentration of the ions remaining in the solution and that sorbed on the solid phases decreased when the sorbate concentration increased, providing a concave curve and suggesting a progressive saturation of the solid. On the other hand, sigmoidal-shape (S) was characteristic for B800 and B1000 isotherms. The S-curve has a point of inflection which can be a result of at least two opposite mechanisms [22].

The amounts of Ca^{2+} ions released from the surface of sorbents B, BH_2O_2 , B400 and B600 increased along with the increase of Sr^{2+} sorbed amounts (Fig. 4b). In contrast, samples B800 and B1000 exhibited minor and rather constants values of Ca^{2+} released per gram of sorbent. The results also show (Fig. 4d) that, with an exception of sample BH_2O_2 , the Ca^{2+}/Sr^{2+} molar ratios were <1. This trend leads us to a conclusion that the ion-exchange mechanism is less apparent in the bone sorbents removal mechanism than in the mechanism characteristic for synthetic HAP-powders [16], which can be generally explained by: (i) Sr^{2+} bonding at the bone organic phase active centers, (ii) high final pH values leading to increased

apatite phase stability and (iii) presence of structural cations other than Ca^{2+} that can be substituted by Sr^{2+} ions. The final pH values generally decreased with the increase of Sr^{2+} sorbed amounts (Fig. 4c), signifying the specific Sr^{2+} sorption, in all investigated systems. Furthermore, this mechanism was the most obvious in the case of samples B800 and B1000. XRD analysis of solid residues obtained after Sr^{2+} fixation (Fig. 5) provided no evidence of any new solid phase formation. For the purpose of comparison, XRD spectra of pure, synthetic hydroxyapatite [23], is given in the same picture.

Extremely high pH values measured after equilibration of B800 and B1000 samples with Sr^{2+} solutions (Fig. 4c) may be a potential reason for sigmoidal-shaped Sr^{2+} sorption isotherms.

By definition, S-curve isotherms indicate a change of sorption mechanism in the point of inflection. Although the sorbed amounts of Sr^{2+} and final pH values, divided into two separate regions for lower and higher sorbate concentrations, support the concept of sorption mechanism alteration, clear evidence was found only for the specific cation sorption mechanism. The possibility of formation of new solid phases containing Sr^{2+} ions, as another sorption mechanism, cannot be excluded, due to the fact that amorphous phases and very low concentrations of crystalline phases cannot be detected by XRD analysis [24].



Fig. 4. Effect of equilibrium Sr^{2+} concentrations on the (a) amounts of Sr^{2+} sorbed and (b) amounts of Ca^{2+} released. Relationships between the amounts of Sr^{2+} sorbed and (c) final pH values; (d) amounts of Ca^{2+} released (solid lines represent linear fitting). Sorbents: $\blacksquare - B$, $\bullet - BH_2O_2$, $\blacktriangle - B400$, $\blacktriangledown - B800$, $\blacktriangleleft - B1000$.



Fig. 5. XRD patterns of Sr²⁺-loaded bone sorbents and synthetic HAP [23].

Obtained experimental data were analyzed in accordance with Freundlich (Eq. (3)) [25] and Langmuir (Eq. (4)) [26] isotherm equations, which are the most commonly used for description of L-type isotherms. In addition, sigmoidal Langmuir equation (Eq. (5)) [22] was applied for S-type isotherms.

$$\log Q_e = \log K + 1/n \cdot \log C_e \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{C_e}{Q_e} = \frac{1}{X_m \cdot K_L} + \frac{1}{X_m} \cdot C_e \tag{4}$$

$$Q_e = \frac{X_m \cdot K_L \cdot C_e}{1 + K_L \cdot C_e + \frac{S}{C_e}}$$
(5)

In the above presented equations Q_e (mmol/g) represents the quantity of metal ions sorbed per mass of bone sorbents; C_e (mmol/dm³) is the equilibrium Sr²⁺ concentration in solution; X_m (mmol/g) is the maximum sorption capacity of metal cation; K_L (dm³/mmol) is the Langmuir constant related to affinity; *S* (mmol/dm³) is the constant related to the limitation of sorption at low concentrations and *K* and *n* are Freundlich constants related to sorption capacity and intensity, respectively.

The results of equilibrium data fitting are summarized in Table 3, whereas the graphical representation of data fitting is shown in Fig. 6. Generally, Freundlich empirical model provided

better correlation with experimental data in comparison to Langmuir. Both previously described models did not correctly describe the results obtained for B800 and B1000 samples. The values of X_m , predicted by Langmuir model were 60–70% higher than experimentally derived values. However, reasonably good correlation, with more realistic X_m values, was obtained when sigmoidal Langmuir model was used (Table 3).

Sorption capacities of the investigated samples, decreased in the way: $BH_2O_2 > B400 > BC > B600 > B800 > B > B1000$, in accordance with the decrease of q_e values determined from the kinetic data. The amounts of Sr^{2+} sorbed at equilibrium increased from 0.176 to 0.357 mmol/g with the increase of the sorbents specific surface area. Sample B was the exception, showing the moderate capacity of 0.202 mmol/g and the lowest Sp. Its organic mater contains polar and negatively charged functional groups [16] that may serve as potential active centers for Sr^{2+} ions.

In Fig. 7 the relationships between heating temperature, sorbents Sp values and the experimentally determined X_m values ($X_{m,exp}$), are illustrated. Heating at 400 °C preserved the low apatite crystallinity, and provoked specific surface area increase due to a partial organic phase removal from the pores of skeletal material [16]. Although organic mater was completely removed at T > 600 °C, these high temperatures also lead to fusion of apatite nanocrystals, and a consequent Sp and sorption capacity drop. The effect of chemical oxidation (H₂O₂ treatment) on the bone

Table 3

Ec	uilibrium	parameters of	Sr ²	' removal	by variou	bone sorb	oents obtained	using L	angmuir.	sigmoidal	Langmuir a	nd Freundlich eau	uation.

Sorbent	$X_{m,exp}$ (mmol/g)	Langmuir model	muir model		Freundlich model		
		$X_m (\text{mmol/g})$	K_L (dm ³ /mmol)	R^2	K	Ν	R^2
В	0.202	0.209	1.509	0.943	0.107	0.383	0.993
BH ₂ O ₂	0.375	0.393	1.742	0.949	0.204	0.457	0.988
B400	0.357	0.376	1.876	0.947	0.201	0.422	0.989
B600	0.243	0.257	3.012	0.992	0.153	0.369	0.990
B800	0.229	0.398	0.318	0.682	0.086	0.696	0.950
B1000	0.176	0.288	0.130	0.242	0.044	0.692	0.821
Sigmoidal Langm	uir model						
Sorbent	S (mm	nol/dm ³)	$X_m (\mathrm{mmol/g})$		K_L (dm ³ /mmol)		R^2
B800	42.86		0.229		42.11		0.981
B1000	38.10		0.200		9.974		0.918



Fig. 6. Equilibrium data fitting. Experimental points (=), Langmuir model (-), Freundlich model (- - -) and sigmoidal Langmuir model (...).



Fig. 7. Correlation between treatment temperature, specific surface area of sorbent materials (\bullet) and Sr²⁺ sorption capacities (\blacksquare).

specific surface area and sorption properties was pretty much the same as heating at 400 °C. These two sorbent materials exhibited sorption capacities higher than those of commercial bone char [14] and of the range of synthetic hydroxyapatite powders [27].

3.5. Desorption

A strong dependence of the amounts of Sr^{2+} released on both the sorbent type and the leaching solution composition was observed (Fig. 8). Generally, investigated materials were more stable in neutral and alkaline solutions than in acidic and Ca^{2+} containing environments. This can be attributed to the low apatite stability in acidic pH region, leading to dissolution and release of previously sorbed metal cations, as well as to the ion-exchange of sorbed cations with Ca^{2+} . The major difference between desorption of Sr^{2+} and other divalent metals (such as Co^{2+} [16,28] or Cu^{2+} [29]) from apatite based sorbents was that more Sr^{2+} was released in Ca^{2+} solutions than in acidic media. These data suggested that the competition for active surface sites was more pronounced between



Fig. 8. Relative percentages of Sr²⁺ ions desorbed as a function of leaching solutions composition.

Table 4Solution pH values after Sr2+desorption.

No.	Composition	Initial pH	Final pH						
			В	BH ₂ O ₂	B400	B600	B800	B1000	
1	Distilled water	2.00	4.87	4.70	5.03	5.12	5.12	5.18	
2	Distilled water	5.00	7.12	6.83	7.25	7.36	8.09	8.35	
3	Distilled water	7.00	7.20	6.92	7.29	7.47	8.27	8.45	
4	Distilled water	9.00	7.27	6.90	7.36	7.53	8.33	8.55	
5	Ca ²⁺ 10 ⁻³ mol/dm ³	5.55	6.74	6.22	6.84	6.95	7.65	8.08	
6	$Ca^{2+} 10^{-2} mol/dm^{3}$	5.49	6.58	5.98	6.71	6.86	7.53	7.91	
7	$Ca^{2+}~2.5\times 10^{-2}mol/dm^3$	5.36	6.42	5.75	6.54	6.63	7.13	7.79	

chemically similar Ca^{2+} and Sr^{2+} ions than between Ca^{2+} and other investigated divalent metals. Similar conclusions were derived from the fact that Sr^{2+} sorption by synthetic hydroxyapatite, in comparison with the sorption of some other divalent metals, was the most affected by the presence of Ca^{2+} [19]. In the most acidic solution applied in this study (initial pH 2), sorbents BH_2O_2 and B released the highest amounts of Sr^{2+} ions, in comparison with the previously sorbed amounts, which can be related to the lowest final pH values (Table 4).

When the solutions of initial pH 5, 7 and 9 were compared as leaching media, no significant differences in the amounts of desorbed Sr^{2+} were observed for each sorbent, due to buffering properties of investigated materials, and relatively constant final pH values (Table 4).

Furthermore, it can be observed from Fig. 8, that the differences between desorbed amounts of Sr^{2+} from various bone sorbents are more obvious in Ca^{2+} solutions than in solutions of different initial pH. Sr^{2+} -loaded BH₂O₂ and B400 samples exhibited lowest stability in the presence of competing cation Ca^{2+} , which is in accordance with the previously observed highest participation of the ion-exchange mechanism (Fig. 4b and d).

The bonds between high temperature heated powders B800 and B1000 and Sr^{2+} ions, have shown the highest stability in all inves-

tigated leaching media, and this was probably the result of the highest final pH values (Table 4) which increased the stability of apatite phase.

4. Conclusion

Animal bones, which represent a rich source of low-crystalline hydroxyapatite, were examined as sorbent material for Sr²⁺ ions immobilization. Calcinations at different temperatures, as well as chemical oxidation, were compared as possible treatments for the improvement of their sorption capacity. Removal of organic bone components under conditions that secure low hydroxyapatite crystallinity (heating at 400 °C, and H₂O₂ oxidation) caused the significant increase of sorbents specific surface area and, consequently, the increase of the overall Sr²⁺ sorption capacity. At least ion-exchange and specific cation sorption mechanisms were responsible for Sr²⁺ removal by animal bones, with relative contributions dependent on the physicochemical properties of investigated sorbents. Desorption of Sr^{2+} ions was generally the most effective in Ca²⁺ containing solutions, where 55–95% of previously sorbed Sr²⁺ ions remained attached to bone sorbents. These results suggested that further immobilization of spent animal bones is more realistic than their regeneration.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by the Ministry of Science of the Republic of Serbia, under Project No. 142050.

References

- K.C. Stamoulis, P.A. Assimakopoulos, K.G. Ioannides, E. Johnson, P.N. Soucacos, Sci. Total Environ. 229 (1999) 165–182.
- [2] I.W. Donald, B.L. Metcalfe, S.K. Fong, L.A. Gerrard, D.M. Strachan, R.D. Scheele, J. Nucl. Mater. 361 (2007) 78–93.
- [3] T.S.B. Narasaraju, D.E. Phebe, J. Mater. Sci. 31 (1996) 1-21.
- [4] J.C. Elliott, Structure and Chemistry of the Apatites and Other Calcium Orthophosphates, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1994.
- [5] S. Lazić, Z. Vuković, J. Radioanal. Nucl. Chem. 149 (1991) 161-168.
- [6] A. Bigi, E. Boanini, C. Capuccini, M. Gazzano, Inorg. Chim. Acta 360 (2007) 1009–1016.
- [7] M.D. O'Donnell, Y. Fredholm, A. De Rouffignac, R.G. Hill, Acta Biomater. 4 (2008) 1455–1464.
- [8] J.F. Rakovan, J.M. Hughes, Can. Mineral. 38 (2000) 839-845.
- [9] S.P. Nielsen, Bone 35 (2004) 583–588.
- [10] S.G. Dahl, P. Allain, P.J. Marie, Y. Mauras, G. Boivin, P. Ammann, Y. Tsouderos, P.D. Delmas, C. Christiansen, Bone 28 (2001) 446–453.
- [11] J.L. Conca, J.V. Wright JV, Treatment of metal-contaminated leachates utilizing fish bones and fish hard parts. US Patent No. 6217,775. United States Patent Office, Washington, DC, 2000.

- [12] J.L. Conca, J. Wright, Appl. Geochem. 21 (2006) 1288-1300.
- [13] J. Krejzler, J. Narbutt, Nukleonika 48 (2003) 171–175.
- [14] I. Smičiklas, S. Dimović, M. Šljivić, I. Plećaš, J. Environ. Sci. Health. Part A Toxic/ Hazard. Subst. Environ. Eng. 48 (2008) 210-217.
- [15] S. Dimović, I. Smičiklas, I. Plećaš, D. Antonović, Sep. Sci. Technol. 44 (2009) 645–667.
- [16] S. Dimović, I. Smičiklas, I. Plećaš, D. Antonović, M. Mitrić, J. Hazard. Mater. 164 (2009) 279–287.
- [17] S.E. Etok, E. Valsami-Jones, T.J. Wess, J.C. Hiller, C.A. Maxwell, K.D. Rogers, D.A.C. Manning, M.L. White, E. Lopez-Capel, M.J. Collins, M. Buckley, K.E.H. Penkman, S.L. Woodgate, J. Mater. Sci. 42 (2007) 9807–9816.
- [18] M. Ozawa, S. Suzuki, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. 85 (2002) 1315-1317.
- [19] I. Smičiklas, A. Onjia, S. Raičević, D. Janaćković, M. Mitrić, J. Hazard. Mater. 152 (2008) 876–884.
- [20] Y.S. Ho, G. McKay, Process Biochem. 34 (1999) 451-465.
- [21] C.H. Giles, D. Smith, A. Huitson, J. Colloid Interf. Sci. 47 (1974) 755-765.
- [22] G. Limousin, J.-P. Gaudet, L. Charlet, S. Szenknect, Appl. Geochem. 22 (2007) 249–275.
- [23] I. Smičiklas, A. Onjia, S. Raičević, Sep. Purif. Technol. 44 (2005) 97-102.
- [24] G.M. Hettiarachchi, G.M. Pierzynski, M.D. Ransom, Environ. Qual. 30 (2001) 1214-1221.
- [25] H. Freundlich, Kapillarchemie, Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft, Leipzig, 1909.
- [26] I. Langmuir, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 40 (1918) 1361-1403.
- [27] I. Smičiklas, A. Onjia, J. Marković, S. Raičević, Mater. Sci. Forum 494 (2005) 405–410.
- [28] I. Smičiklas, S. Dimović, I. Plećaš, M. Mitrić, Water Res. 40 (2006) 2267-2274.
- [29] M. Šljivić, I. Smičiklas, I. Plećaš, M. Mitrić, Chem. Eng. J. 148 (2009) 80-88.