



# Sorptive Removal of $^{133}\text{Ba}$ from Aqueous Solution Using a Novel Cellulose Hydroxyapatite Composite Derived from Cigarette Waste

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**Abstract**  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  is a hazardous radionuclide generated during the operation of nuclear power plants.  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  needs to be removed from waste solutions because its half-life (10.55 years) and gamma energy pose a significant threat to human health. Cigarette butt (CB) is a waste that causes serious environmental problems. Various types of adsorbent materials are prepared based on the cellulose in its structure. The focus of the present study is to synthesize a novel composite material derived from CBs and to investigate its  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  removal capability. Microfibrillated cellulose (MFC) obtained from CBs was modified with hydroxyapatite (HAp) via the co-precipitation method and converted into a composite adsorbent for the removal of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  ions. Response surface methodology (RSM) based on Box-Behnken Design (BBD) was employed for the examination of process variables

such as initial pH, metal concentration, and adsorbent amount on  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  sorption. XRD and FTIR data confirmed the successful isolation of cellulose and the modification of the cellulose surface with HAp. The model F-value (100.04) and  $R^2$  (0.99) suggested that the proposed model was significant. Optimum conditions were determined as initial pH of 8, contact time of 134 min, and concentration of 0.01 mol/L, and the barium sorption capacity of MFC-HAp was found to be 0.75 mmol/g under these conditions. The maximum monolayer barium sorption capacity was determined to be 2.92 mmol/g. Combining cellulose and HAp to be a novel composite adsorbent is useful for reusing CB waste and promising for removing  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  ions from aqueous solutions.

**Keywords**  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  · Cigarette waste · Cellulose · Hydroxyapatite · Box-Behnken design · Sorption

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## 1 Introduction

Nuclear waste is generated and released into the environment during activities such as nuclear reactor operation, mining, nuclear weapon production, and using radionuclides in medicine and research (Hu et al., 2010; Salbu et al., 2015).  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  is a hazardous radionuclide produced during nuclear power generation and spent fuel reprocessing. It poses a significant threat to human health due to its half-life (10.55 y), gamma energy, and carcinogenic effects. In addition,

barium compounds are easily soluble in water and therefore can be transported over long distances. Therefore, the removal of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  from waste solutions and the safe management of barium-containing waste is of great importance (Inan et al., 2022).

Various approaches have been employed to eliminate radioactive pollutants from wastewater, including precipitation (Osmanlioglu, 2018), evaporation (Zaki et al., 2016), solvent extraction (McDowell et al., 1986; Xu et al., 2012), membrane separation (Combernoux et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2020), ion exchange (Möller et al., 2011; Roy et al., 2002), and adsorption (Celebi et al., 2009; Li et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). In this regard, adsorption is garnering significant attention due to its high efficacy and ease of operation.

Global, daily consumption of cigarettes by smokers accounted for 967 million per day and almost 6.25 trillion cigarettes were burned throughout 2012 (Ng et al., 2014). The waste generated from cigarettes reached approximately 340–680 million kg/year, other than that 2,000,000 tons of paper, ink, cellophane, foil, and paste that are utilized for packaging purposes. Over 40% of all things gathered during metropolitan clean-ups and eliminated from public zones, for example, seashores, and stops are CBs and related products (Ariza et al., 2008; Bonanomi et al., 2015). The recycling of CBs is accomplished by physical, chemical, and physico-chemical processes. The recycled CBs give rise to secondary materials which can find application in many areas such as carbon dots (Anmei et al., 2018), bituminous mixtures (Toraldo et al., 2015), pesticides (Murugan et al., 2018) precast concrete bricks for paving (Wadalkar et al., 2018), hydrophobic adsorbent for oil-spill (Xiong et al., 2018), supercapacitors (Xiong et al., 2019), hydrogen storage materials (Blankenship & Mokaya, 2017), activated carbon for dye adsorption (Hamzah & Umar, 2017), asphalt concrete (Mohajerani et al., 2016), fired clay bricks (Sarani and Binti Abdul Kadir, 2013), and corrosion inhibitor extracts (Zhao et al., 2010).

A cigarette filter is a component of a cigarette and is typically made from cellulose acetate (CA). While CA is a biodegradable polymer, its degradation process is slow. According to Joly and Coulis (2018), it takes approximately 7.5 to 14 years for CA to completely decompose when present in compost and soil environments. CA can be converted into different forms of cellulose such as

nanocellulose, cellulose nanocrystals (CNC), and microfibrillated cellulose (MFC). Cellulose has diverse applications in fields of research and technology, including but not limited to supercapacitors (Pérez-Madrigal et al., 2016) medical devices (Petersen & Gatenholm, 2011), drug delivery (Sun et al., 2019), wound healing (Kanikireddy et al., 2020), and adsorbents (Yue et al., 2019). For these reasons, cigarette waste is a viable source of cellulose material and the extraction of cellulose from cigarette waste has been carried out in many studies (De Fenzo et al., 2020; Ogundare et al., 2017).

The functional groups in the structure of cellulose have enabled them to be used in adsorption applications for various metal ions. However, numerous techniques for modifying and functionalizing cellulose have been proposed to enhance its adsorption capabilities. Some of these methods involve magnetic modification through a dipping process, acid, or alkali treatment, and incorporating other adsorbents onto the cellulose material.

Many studies have been reported in which modified cellulose was used for heavy metal removal. Saravanan and Ravikumar (2016) prepared Schiff base and carboxylic acid pendant cellulose for the removal of Cu(II) and Pb(II) ions. In another study, the bleached softwood Kraft pulp fibers were modified in carboxymethylated cellulose for the adsorption of Cu(II) and Ni(II) from an aqueous solution (Wang et al., 2019). Kim et al. (2017) prepared potassium copper hexacyanoferrate immobilized cellulose-based hydrogel for the adsorption of cesium ions from aqueous solution. To recover uranium ions from seawater, cellulose in sisal fiber has been modified by hydrothermal reaction in dilute phosphonate solutions (Tellería-Narvaez et al., 2020).

The approach of modifying material surfaces by incorporating other minerals or adsorbents has gained attention due to its several advantages, including easy synthesis, multifunctionality, and substantial enhancements. The use of cellulose as a sorbent for the removal of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  from radioactive waste comes with an intrinsic challenge because it is susceptible to radiolysis-induced decomposition, which results in the formation of isosaccharide species. The performance and stability of cellulose-based materials in radiochemistry uses are significantly influenced by this phenomenon, which has been well-documented in the literature (Diesen et al., 2017).

Hydroxyapatite (HAp) is a mineral that belongs to the apatite family, and it has gained significant attention from the scientific community as an optimal adsorbent material for capturing and recovering pollutants from water (Feng et al., 2010). High chemical stability is another benefit of using hydroxyapatite as a substance to immobilize nuclear waste. Even in harsh settings like nuclear waste repositories, this mineral is resistant to chemical deterioration (Zhou et al., 2021). Due to its exceptional surface characteristics, HAp has been widely and effectively employed for eliminating diverse types of contaminants from wastewater. Considering the properties of MFC and HAp, combining the two in a novel structure with superior properties may be a promising approach.

In this study, cellulose obtained from CBs was modified via HAp co-precipitation and a novel composite adsorbent was prepared. Characterization studies of materials were performed to enlighten the structural and textural differences. In addition, the effect of process variables, initial pH, metal concentration, and contact time on the removal of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  was analyzed by BBD. With this research, a new perspective is presented for the reusing of cigarette butt waste and the preparation of new composite materials for the removal of hazardous metal ions.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Materials

CBs were collected from public places near the Faculty of Science at Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia. Sodium hydroxide pellets ( $\text{NaOH}$ ,  $\geq 99\%$ , M: 40.00 g/mol), sulfuric acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 98%, M: 98.08 g/mol), ethanol ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ , 96%, M: 46.07 g/mol), sodium chlorite ( $\text{NaClO}_2$ , 25%, M: 90.44 g/mol), di-ammonium hydrogen phosphate  $[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4]$ , 99%, M: 132.06 g/mol], calcium nitrate tetrahydrate  $[\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ , 99%, M: 236.15 g/mol], barium chloride ( $\text{BaCl}_2$ , 99.90%, M: 208.23 g/mol), ammonia solution ( $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$ , 25%, M: 35.05 g/mol), acetic acid ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ , 100%, M: 60.05 g/mol), and phosphoric acid ( $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ , 85%, M: 98.00 g/mol) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). All chemicals were of analytical grade and were used without any further purification.

Radiotracer concentration was as follows:  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  in the form of  $[\text{}^{133}\text{Ba}] \text{BaCl}_2$  (Eurostandard CZ s.r.o., Czech Republic) with a volume activity of 2 MBq/mL.

### 2.2 Instrumentation

X-Ray Powder Diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed by Miniflex600 (Rigaku, Tokyo, Japan). The applied voltage was equal to 40 kV with a current of 15 mA. The lower limit of the angle range was set to  $2\theta = 3^\circ$  because of the organic content in samples. The upper limit is  $2\theta = 80^\circ$ . The angular velocity of the detector was chosen to be  $3^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ . The FTIR-ATR instrument was used to acquire spectra in the range of 400–4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  using Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR).

### 2.3 Preparation of Microfibrillated Cellulose (MFC)

#### 2.3.1 Conditioning of CBs

The collected CBs were thoroughly washed several times with water to remove ash and tobacco. The washed CBs were soaked in water to remove the paper from the filter of the CB. In the next step, the burnt tips of the CBs were chopped using a scissor and washed with water. These cleaned CBs were kept in an oven at  $30^\circ \text{C}$  for drying. Dried CBs (10 g) were washed with ethanol using a magnetic stirrer at 800 rpm for 8 h. Following this, ethanol removal was achieved by washing the filters several times with deionized water. Then, filters were kept in the oven at  $30^\circ \text{C}$  for 4 h. In the next step, the conditioned filters were sorted and used.

#### 2.3.2 Cleaving of Acetyl Group and Bleaching of CBs

Cigarette filters are made from cellulose acetate. The cleavage of the acetyl group is important to obtain cellulose. In this procedure, obtained cigarette strands were treated with 5%  $\text{NaOH}$  at  $60^\circ \text{C}$  for 6 h. Then, they were neutralized with deionized water and dried at  $30^\circ \text{C}$  in an oven. In the bleaching step, CBs were bleached using 15 g  $\text{NaOH}$ , 40 mL of acetic, and 1.7%  $\text{NaClO}_2$  in 500 ml water for 6 h at 800 rpm on a magnetic stirrer.

### 2.3.3 Acid hydrolysis

In this step, acid hydrolysis of CBs was performed using sulfuric acid. The CBs were treated with 10 mol/L 100 mL sulfuric acid for 60 min at 40 °C on a magnetic stirrer. The diagram in Fig. 1a illustrates the preparation steps of MFC starting from CB waste.

### 2.4 Preparation of MFC-HAp Composite

The first step involved a phosphorylation reaction, as depicted in Fig. 1b. Initially, 3 g of the filtered sample was treated with 75% weight of phosphoric acid at 70 °C for 5 h. To terminate the reaction, distilled water was added, and the unreacted chemicals were eliminated by washing with a mixture of water and ethanol. The resulting MFC was then dried in an oven for 24 h at 30 °C (Bonanomi et al., 2015).

In the following step, 10% of phosphorylated MFC (P-MFC) was mixed with water, and 5.7 g of  $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was added. Then, the solution pH was adjusted to around 10, and 1.6 g  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$  was added dropwise into the solution. The temperature of the mixture was increased to 80 °C and stirred for 5 h at 800 rpm in a magnetic stirrer. The prepared precipitate was washed several times until the pH of the filtrate was neutral. Finally, the composite was dried and used for further studies (Ariza et al., 2008).

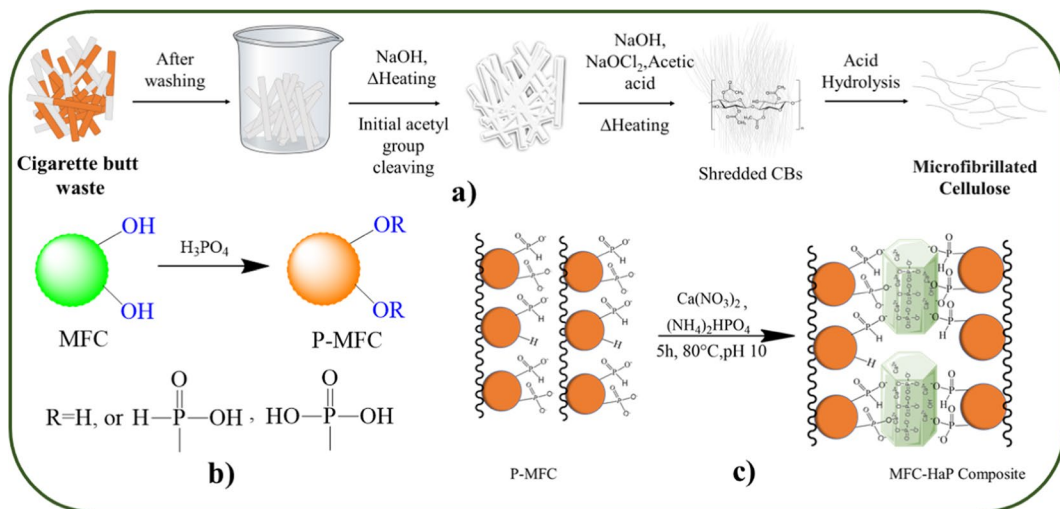
A schematic representation of MFC-HAp synthesis is given in Fig. 1c.

### 2.5 Batch Sorption Experiments

Sorption studies of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  on MFC-HAp composite were performed by radioisotope indication method using radioisotope of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$ . The sorption experiments were conducted using the batch method, with aerobic conditions maintained at laboratory temperature. The influence of various parameters on sorption was evaluated by introducing 5 mL of the aqueous phase into a plastic tube containing 0.05 g of MFC-HAp. MFC-HAp and the aqueous phase were mixed in a laboratory extractor with a constant speed of mixing. Following  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  sorption, centrifugation was applied at a speed of 8000 rot/min for 15 min. Subsequently, a portion of each resulting supernatant was collected and subjected to analysis using a Modumatic model gamma spectrometer equipped with a NaI(Tl) detector. The area of the 356 keV photopeak for  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  was analyzed. The measurement's statistical error was less than 5%. The following equations were used to calculate the  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  sorption properties of MFC-HAp:

Equilibrium concentration ( $C_{eq}$ )

$$C_{eq} = \frac{C_0 \times a}{a_0} (\text{mol/L}) \quad (1)$$



**Fig. 1** a The preparation steps of MFC from cigarette butt waste, b Phosphorylation of MFC, c Schematic representation of MFC-HAp synthesis

Distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ )

$$K_d = \frac{(a_0 - a)}{a} \times \frac{V}{m} (\text{mL/g}) \tag{2}$$

Sorption capacity ( $q$ )

$$q = K_d \times C_{eq} (\text{mmol/g}) \tag{3}$$

In the above Eqs,  $C_0$  is the initial concentration of the solute in aqueous phase (mol/L),  $C_{eq}$  is the equilibrium concentration of the solute in aqueous phase (mol/L),  $V$  is the volume of the aqueous phase (mL),  $m$  is the mass of sorbent (g),  $a_0$  is the initial volume activity of solution (Bq/mL),  $a$  is the equilibrium volume activity of solution (Bq/mL), and  $K_d$  is the distribution coefficient (mL/g).

### 2.6 Experimental Design

The operational parameters on the sorptive removal of  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  were optimized using BBD based on RSM. The influence of process variables namely initial pH (A), contact time (B), and metal concentration (C) on  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  sorption was examined by conducting 17 experimental runs at 3 levels (low, center, high). Table 1 summarizes the variables, levels, and ranges employed in the design. Equation (4) shows the model equation which includes both linear and quadratic terms for estimating the optimal response.

$$y = b_0 + b_1A + b_2B + b_3C + b_{11}A^2 + b_{22}B^2 + b_{33}C^2 + b_{12}AB + b_{13}AC + b_{23}BC \tag{4}$$

In Eq. (4),  $y$  represents the response ( $^{133}\text{Ba}$  sorption capacity),  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are the coded variables. The coefficients associated with intercept term, linear, quadratic, and dual interaction effects are denoted as  $b_0$ ,  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$ ,  $b_3$ ,  $b_{11}$ ,  $b_{22}$ ,  $b_{33}$ , and  $b_{12}$ ,  $b_{13}$ ,

$b_{23}$ , respectively. The data was subjected to statistical, regression, and graphical analysis using Design-Expert 13 software, developed by State Ease Inc. (USA).

## 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Characterization Studies

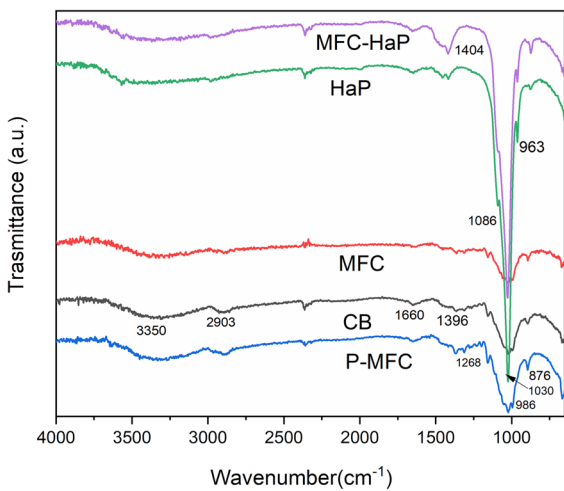
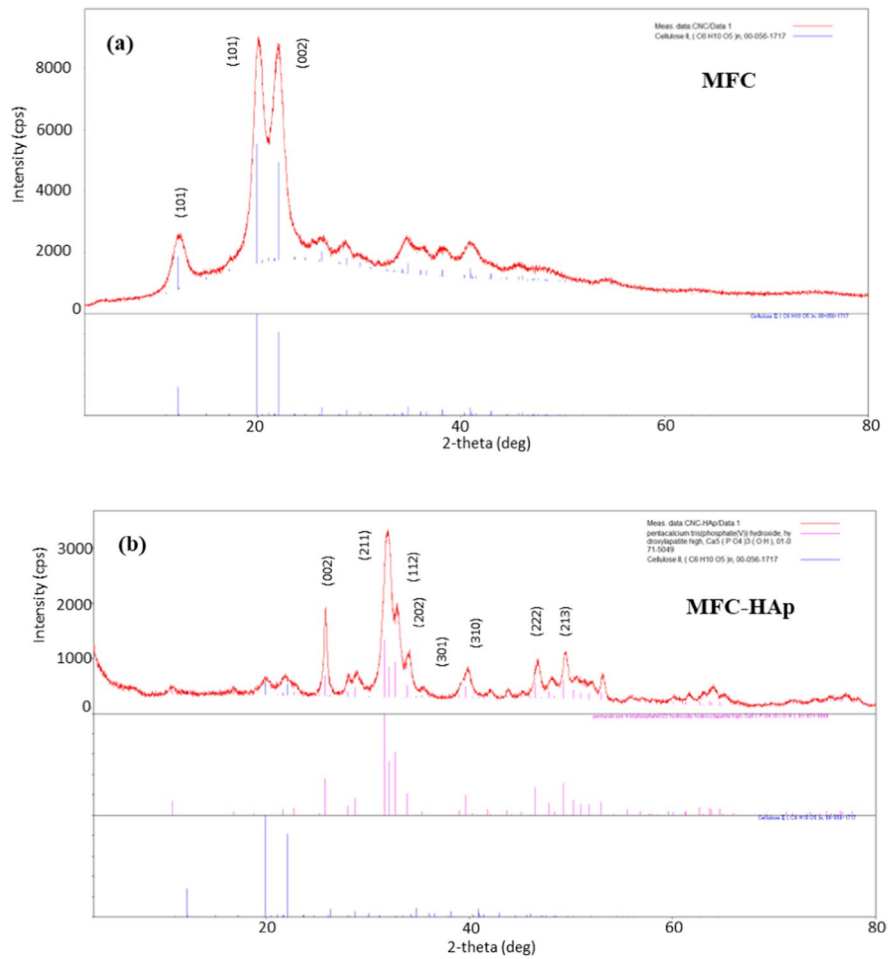
The XRD pattern of MFC (Fig. 2a) showed intense peaks at around  $2\theta = 12^\circ$  (101),  $20^\circ$  (101), and  $22^\circ$  (002). The data was attributed to cellulose II-type structure and identified by the Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) standard PDF card 00–056-1717. The XRD pattern of the MFC-HAp composite in Fig. 2b illustrates that the obtained crystalline phase is assigned to hydroxyapatite. Hydroxyapatite peaks at crystal planes (002), (211), (112), (301), (310), (222), and (213) correspond to the JCPDS standard PDF card No. 01–071-5049 for hydroxyapatite (Fu et al., 2016; Miskovic-Stankovic et al., 2015).

FT-IR method was used for the identification of change in surface functional groups of the CBs and derived products. In Fig. 3, we compared the transmittance of CBs, MFC, P-MFC, MFC-HAp, and commercial hydroxyapatite. In CB, MFC, P-MFC, and MFC-HAp, typical cellulose bonds are observed at  $3350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the -OH groups,  $2903 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $-\text{CH}_2$ ,  $1639 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the H-O-H due to moisture present in the sample,  $1380 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the -CH,  $1160 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for -C-O-C stretching,  $1054 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the -C-O-C- bending vibrations of glycosidic units or from  $\beta$ -(1 → 4)-glycosidic bonds (Fan et al., 2012). MFC formation can be confirmed by reduced area of transmittance around  $3300$  to  $3380 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  of hydroxy groups due to acid hydrolysis. To confirm the phosphorylation of MFCs, a band at  $1268 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates P=O stretching mode, while the bands at  $986 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $876 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are attributed to the presence of P-OH in P-MFC (Anmei et al., 2018). Poralan et al. (2015) reported that the strong peaks typically seen in the  $900$ – $1200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  range were associated with the stretching vibrations of the  $\text{PO}_4$  tetrahedra. In Fig. 3, it can be observed that the sharp peak for the phosphate group was obtained at around  $1030 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

**Table 1** Variables, levels, and ranges used in BBD

Variable	Unit	Code	Level		
			−1 (low)	0 (center)	+1 (high)
Initial pH	-	A	3	5.5	8
Contact time	min	B	5	92.5	180
Concentration	mol/L	C	0.00001	0.005005	0.01

**Fig. 2** XRD curves of synthesized materials. **(a)** MFC, **(b)** MFC-HAp composite



**Fig. 3** FT-IR spectra of CB, MFC, P-MFC, HAp, and MFC-HAp

for MFC-HAp and commercial HAp. However, in MFC-HAp, the intensity of the  $PO_4^{3-}$  peak is lower than that of HAp.

### 3.2 Optimization by BBD

BBD matrix consists of 12 factorial and 5 replicate runs. Table 2 presents the experimental variables as well as the predicted and experimental responses. The relationship between the independent variables and response was modeled using a second-order polynomial equation. To predict the sorption capacity of  $^{133}Ba$ , the empirical model specified in Eq. (5) was utilized.

$$y = 0.39 + 0.01A + 0.02B + 0.34C + 0.01AB + 0.02AC + 0.03BC - 0.01A^2 - 0.06B^2 - 0.01C^2 \quad (5)$$

**Table 2** BBD matrix, experimental and predicted responses

Run	A: Initial pH	B: Contact time (min)	C: Concentration (mol/L)	Experimental Response Sorption Capacity (mmol/g)	Predicted Response Sorption Capacity (mmol/g)
1	5.5	92.5	0.005005	0.3787	0.3887
2	3	5	0.005005	0.3283	0.3134
3	5.5	180	0.01	0.6875	0.7027
4	5.5	5	0.01	0.5893	0.6229
5	3	92.5	0.00001	0.0008	0.0310
6	5.5	92.5	0.005005	0.3943	0.3887
7	5.5	180	0.00001	0.0010	-0.0327
8	5.5	92.5	0.005005	0.4089	0.3887
9	8	92.5	0.00001	0.0008	0.0196
10	3	180	0.005005	0.3148	0.3183
11	3	92.5	0.01	0.7031	0.6844
12	5.5	5	0.00001	0.0009	-0.0143
13	5.5	92.5	0.005005	0.4045	0.3887
14	5.5	92.5	0.005005	0.3573	0.3887
15	8	92.5	0.01	0.7689	0.7388
16	8	180	0.005005	0.3506	0.3655
17	8	5	0.005005	0.3126	0.3091

ANOVA is a statistical method commonly used to assess the significance of a regression model, including the quadratic model. Table 3 contains the ANOVA results for the regression parameters of the quadratic model. In general, larger F-values and smaller P-values indicate that the corresponding parameter is more significant. The present regression

model was determined statistically significant with a F-value of 100.04 and a P-value of <0.0001. The P-value indicates that there is only a 0.01% chance that the F-value was the result of random variation or noise.

The lack-of-fit analysis is used to assess the validity of a model. In this case, the fact that the P-value

**Table 3** ANOVA for quadratic model

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-value	p-value	R <sup>2</sup>
Model	0.9636	9	0.1071	100.04	<0.0001	0.99
A-Initial pH	0.0009	1	0.0009			
B-Contact time	0.0019	1	0.0019			
C-Concentration	0.9420	1	0.9420			
AB	0.0007	1	0.0007			
AC	0.0011	1	0.0011			
BC	0.0024	1	0.0024			
A <sup>2</sup>	0.0002	1	0.0002			
B <sup>2</sup>	0.0130	1	0.0130			
C <sup>2</sup>	0.0008	1	0.0008			
Residual	0.0075	7	0.0011			
Lack of Fit	0.0057	3	0.0019	4.30	0.0964	
Pure Error	0.0018	4	0.0004			
Cor Total	0.9711	16				





**Table 4** Coefficients and P-values of parameters

	Coefficient	df	Standard Error	P-value
Intercept	0.39	1	0.0146	
A-Initial pH	0.01	1	0.0116	0.3843
B-Contact time	0.02	1	0.0116	0.2263
C-Concentration	0.34	1	0.0116	<0.0001
AB	0.01	1	0.0164	0.4571
AC	0.02	1	0.0164	0.3482
BC	0.03	1	0.0164	0.1773
A <sup>2</sup>	-0.01	1	0.0159	0.6872
B <sup>2</sup>	-0.06	1	0.0159	0.0103
C <sup>2</sup>	-0.01	1	0.0159	0.4212

capacity depending on the main effects is given in Fig. 5a-c.

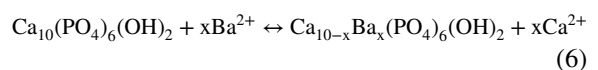
A slight increase in the sorption capacity could be observed with the increase in pH. Capacity values were found to be 0.371 and 0.392 mmol/g at pH 3 and pH 8, respectively, and reached a maximum of 0.393 mmol/g at pH 7.5 (Fig. 5a). In Fig. 5b, the effect of contact time can be examined in two parts. Over the 5-105 min range, the <sup>133</sup>Ba uptake capacity increased from 0.318 to 0.389 mmol/g. A slight decrease in uptake capacity was observed after 105 min and it was obtained as 0.349 mmol/g at 180 min. Unlike other variables, concentration has a strong influence on the sorption capacity (Fig. 5c). With the increase in barium concentration, the barium uptake capacity increased significantly. By increasing the concentration from 0.00001 to 0.01 mol/L, the capacity increased from 0.032 to 0.72 mmol/g.

The binary interactions of process variables are represented by 3D surface plots. The variation of sorption capacity depending on pH-contact time, pH-concentration, and contact time-concentration binary interactions is shown in Fig. 6a-c. In each surface graph, two variables are changed while the value of the other variable is kept at the center level. Figure 6a shows the variation of sorption capacity depending on initial pH (A) and contact time (B). Maximum q was found to be 0.396 mmol/g at initial pH 8 and contact time of 115 min by fixing the concentration at 0.005005 mol/L. Figure 6b demonstrates the interaction between initial pH (A) and metal concentration (C). Maximum q was obtained as 0.739 mmol/g at initial pH 8 and concentration of 0.01 mol/L by holding

the contact time at 92.5 min. Figure 6c presents the dependency of sorption on contact time (B) and metal concentration (C). Maximum q of 0.725 mmol/g was obtained at contact time 124 min and concentration of 0.01 mol/L by fixing initial pH at 5.5.

### 3.3 Sorption Mechanisms of Ba<sup>2+</sup> Ions on MFC-HAp Composite

The sorption of the Ba<sup>2+</sup> ion on the MFC-HAp composite can be explained in two different pathways via ion exchange and surface complexation. The ion exchange phenomenon in hydroxyapatite generally hinges on the size of the metal cation. According to prevailing theories, successful ion exchange is likely when the size of the cation does not deviate by more than 15% from that of the Ca<sup>2+</sup> ion, which has a radius of 0.099 nm (Saleeb & De Bruyn, 1972). The size of the Ba<sup>2+</sup> ion, at 0.149 nm, significantly differs from the requisite size for effective exchange. However, Reichert and Binner (1996) have contended that ions with a radius exceeding this limit can still participate in the exchange process within the hydroxyapatite lattice, challenging the earlier stipulation. Importantly, it is noteworthy that ion exchange does not solely occur on the surface of hydroxyapatite; it also takes place within the natural channels, specifically Ca (II) and Ca (I), within the hydroxyapatite lattice (Monteil-Rivera & Fedoroff, 2015). The following equation depicts the possible ion exchange (Skwarek & Janusz, 2019).



The synergistic interaction of hydroxyl groups and phosphate groups on the composite's surface enables the surface complex phenomenon for Ba<sup>2+</sup> ion removal in MFC-HAp composites, providing multiple binding sites for Ba<sup>2+</sup> ions. Hydroxyl groups from cellulose microfibers and hydroxyapatite participate in surface reactions with Ba<sup>2+</sup> ions, while phosphate groups from hydroxyapatite improve complexation by providing additional anchoring points (Ferri et al., 2019). The complementary binding properties of these functional groups cause this synergistic effect. The hydroxyl groups and phosphate groups provide multidentate coordination sites, allowing for stronger binding interactions with Ba<sup>2+</sup> ions.

**Fig. 5** The relationship between main effects and <sup>133</sup>Ba sorption capacity. **(a)** effect of initial pH, **(b)** effect of contact time, **(c)** effect of concentration

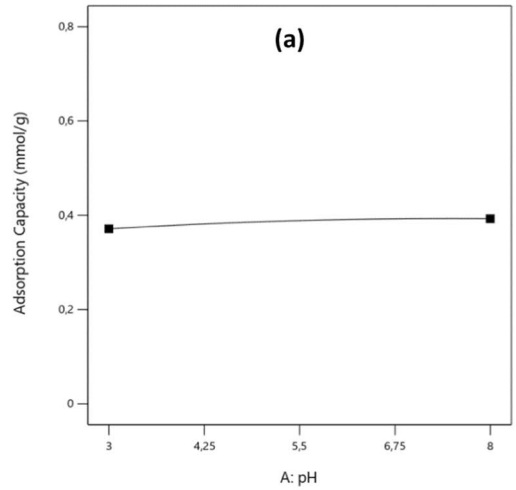
Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)

X1 = A

Actual Factors

B = 92,5

C = 0,005005



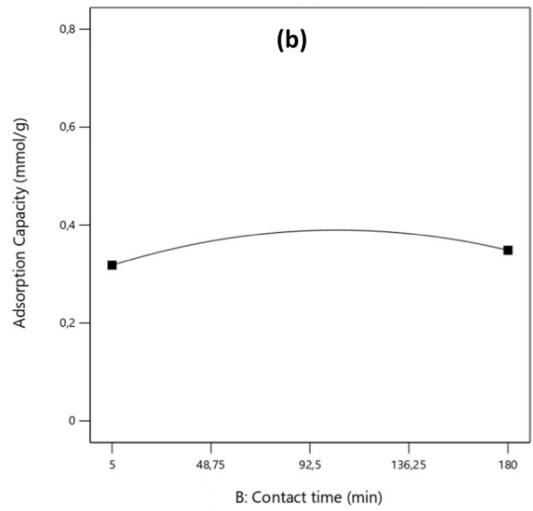
Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)

X1 = B

Actual Factors

A = 5,5

C = 0,005005



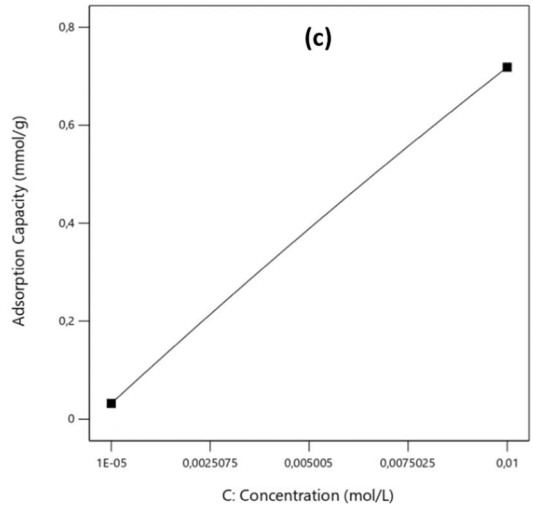
Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)

X1 = C


Actual Factors

A = 5,5

B = 92,5

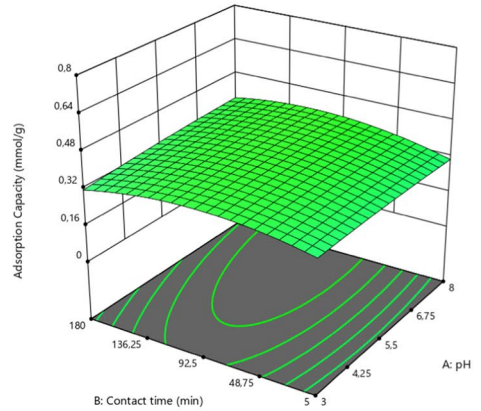


**Fig. 6** 3D response surface plots for binary interactions of process variables. **(a)** initial pH and contact time, **(b)** initial pH and concentration, **(c)** contact time and concentration


**Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)**  
 0,000835854  0,76892

X1 = A  
 X2 = B

**Actual Factor**  
 C = 0,005005

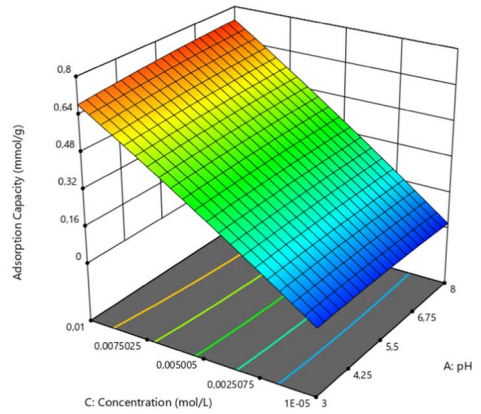


**(a)**


**Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)**  
 0,000835854  0,76892

X1 = A  
 X2 = C

**Actual Factor**  
 B = 92,5

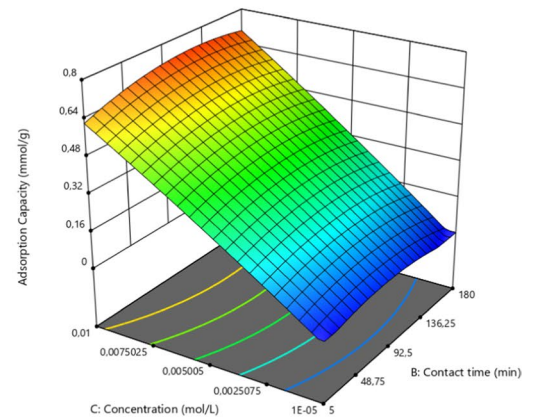


**(b)**

**Adsorption Capacity (mmol/g)**  
 0,000835854  0,76892

X1 = B  
 X2 = C

**Actual Factor**  
 A = 5,5



**(c)**

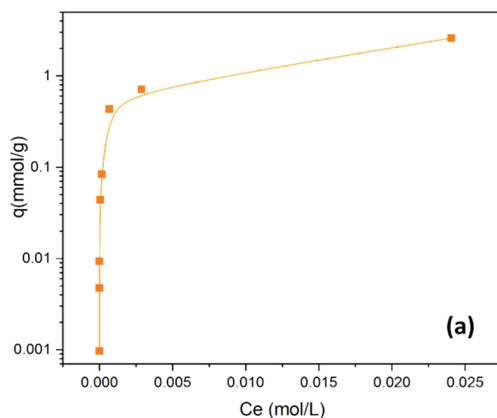
### 3.4 Effect of Metal Concentration and Isotherm Study

An adsorption isotherm describes the correlation between the degree of adsorption and the concentration of the adsorbed species while keeping the temperature constant. Giles et al. (1974) categorized adsorption isotherms into four primary groups: L (Langmuir-type), H (high affinity), S (cooperative), and C (constant partition). The sorption isotherm curve for  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  in Fig. 7a exhibits a closer resemblance to the H-type, indicating a remarkably high affinity between the adsorbate and adsorbent. Consequently, in dilute solutions, the adsorbate is nearly entirely adsorbed.

The relationship between the concentration of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ions and the uptake capacity of the sorbent was investigated over a concentration range of  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $5 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L. The results showed that as the concentration of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ions in the solution increased, the sorbent's uptake capacity also increased. When the concentration was  $5 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L, the rate of increase in capacity slowed down, and uptake capacity was calculated as 2.59 mmol/g.

The Langmuir model assumes that the adsorption of a species onto a surface occurs at specific homogeneous sites and is limited to the formation of a single adsorbate layer. The linearized form of the Langmuir equation can be written as follows (Langmuir, 1918):

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{q_m} + \frac{1}{q_m \times b} \quad (7)$$



In Eq. (7),  $q_e$  is the amount of metal ions adsorbed at equilibrium (mol/g),  $C_e$  is the concentration of metal ions in the solution at equilibrium (mol/L),  $q_m$  is the monolayer adsorption capacity (mol/g), and  $b$  is the constant related to the free energy of adsorption. Langmuir parameters and  $R^2$  value are presented in Table 5. The Langmuir model was used to fit the experimental data, and a reasonably good fit was observed based on the  $R^2$  value. This indicates that the sorption on the surface might occur as a monolayer coverage. The maximum monolayer barium sorption capacity was determined to be 2.92 mmol/g.

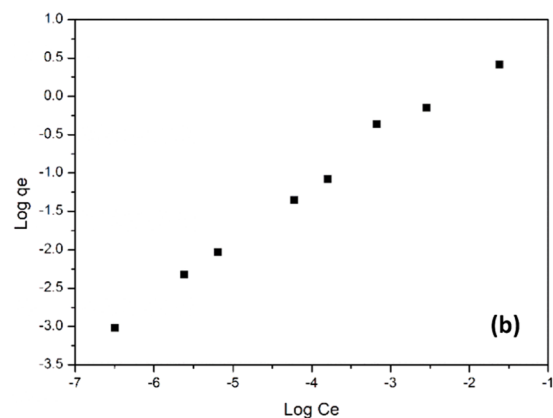
Multilayer sorption on heterogeneous surfaces can be described by the Freundlich model (Freundlich, 1907). It is written in its linear form as,

$$\log q_e = \log K_f + \frac{1}{n} \times \log C_e \quad (8)$$

In Eq. (8), a constant  $K_f$  (mol/g) is associated with the adsorption capacity, and a parameter  $1/n$  is dependent on the adsorption intensity. Based on the

**Table 5** Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm model parameters

Model	Parameter	Value
Langmuir	$q_m$ (mol/g)	$2.92 \times 10^{-3}$
	$b$	263
	$R^2$	0.915
Freundlich	$1/n$	0.72
	$K_f$	48.24
	$R^2$	0.993



**Fig. 7** (a) Influence of metal concentration on  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  uptake capacity, (b) Freundlich isotherm (Initial pH: 6.4; contact time: 180 min; dosage: 10 g/L; temperature: ambient conditions)

**Table 6** Comparison of some adsorbents used in Ba<sup>2+</sup> sorption

Sorbent material	Initial pH	Concentration	q (mmol/g)	Reference
Copper ferrite/reduced graphene oxide (CG)	7	N/A	1.18	Mary et al., 2022
CS-HMF	6	10–300 mg/L	0.47	Liakos et al., 2021
Alk-Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> T <sub>x</sub>	7	50–500 mg/L	0.34	Mu et al., 2018
Synthetic Allophane-1	8.5	1–100 mg/L	0.28	Baldermann et al., 2018
Synthetic hydroxyapatite	7.5	1 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> –1 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> mol/L	0.038	Skwarek & Janusz, 2019
Ash based sorbent (Z 90–15)	4	10–1000 mg/L	0.87	Noli et al., 2016
Iranian expanded perlite	6	3.6 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> –3.6 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> mol/L	0.018	Torab-Mostaedi et al., 2011
Greek bentonite	4	50–1000 mg/L	0.41	Noli et al., 2021
Ferrihydrite	8	5 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> –5 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> mol/L	~0.1	Sajih et al., 2014
Goethite	10	5 × 10 <sup>-6</sup> –5 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> mol/L	~0.01	
Granitic rock-Biotite	8.6	1 × 10 <sup>-9</sup> –1 × 10 <sup>-3</sup> mol/L	2.86 × 10 <sup>-5</sup>	Muuri et al., 2018
MFC-HAp	8	1 × 10 <sup>-5</sup> –5 × 10 <sup>-2</sup> mol/L	2.92	Present work

information presented in Fig. 7b and Table 5, it can be concluded that the data for Ba<sup>2+</sup> sorption conforms well to the Freundlich model. The calculated values for the constant  $K_f$  and the parameter  $1/n$  were 48.24 and 0.72, respectively. The obtained value for  $1/n$ , which was between 0 and 1, suggests that the sorption of Ba<sup>2+</sup> onto the MFC-HAp composite was favorable under the given working conditions.

Table 6 provides an overview of the Ba<sup>2+</sup> sorption capacities of different sorbent types used for the treatment of aqueous solutions and radioactive wastes in acidic to alkaline media. The MFC-HAp composite has a high affinity for Ba<sup>2+</sup> compared to other materials reported in the literature.

#### 4 Conclusion

In this study, we report the synthesis of novel cigarette waste-derived microfibrillated cellulose (MFC)-hydroxyapatite (HAp) composite and its use for the removal of radiobarium from aqueous solution. The successful isolation of MFC from cigarette waste and the preparation of the MFC-HAp composite was confirmed by XRD and FTIR analyses. The experimental tests for <sup>133</sup>Ba sorption were designed and executed by RSM based on BBD. As a result of the experiments carried out using the BBD, the proposed regression model with a F-value of 100.04 explained the sorption successfully. Since the P-value was very low ( $P < 0.05$ ), the effect of the concentration

parameter on the sorption was found to be significant. The positive value of the coefficient related to the concentration ( $b_c = 0.34$ ) indicates that the barium uptake capacity increases with the increase in the concentration. The uptake capacity of MFC-HAp was found to be 0.75 mmol/g under optimum conditions as initial pH of 8, contact time of 134 min, and concentration of 0.01 mol/L. The experimental sorption data showed better agreement with the Freundlich model and the monolayer sorption capacity from Langmuir isotherm was found to be 2.92 mmol/g.

In conclusion, an already abundant waste has been converted into a composite material that can be used to remove a hazardous pollutant. This new material has shown an effective performance in removing <sup>133</sup>Ba from aqueous solutions.

**Author Contribution** Conceptualization: Vipul Vilas Kusumkar, Süleyman İnan, Michal Galamboš, Eva Viglašová; material preparation, experiments, and analysis: Vipul Vilas Kusumkar; material characterization: Vipul Vilas Kusumkar, Martin Daňo; data analysis: Süleyman İnan; writing-original draft: Vipul Vilas Kusumkar, Süleyman İnan; writing-draft and editing: Michal Galamboš, Eva Viglašová, Martin Daňo.

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**Data Availability** The manuscript has no associated data.

#### Declarations

**Ethical Approval** Ethical approval is not applicable for this article.

**Consent to Participate** As part of this study, no human or animal participants were involved at any stage.

**Consent to Publish** All authors have approved the manuscript before submission and agree to publication.

**Competing Interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

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