



Performance of Fast and Slow Phosphorus Release from Nano-Bone Char

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Abstract

The study investigates the release of phosphorus (P) from nano-bone char (Nano-BC), which could be a potential P-soil fertilizer. The study evaluated the performance of P releasing from Nano-BC compared to the originated bone char (BC) which was prepared under pyrolysis temperature 650°C. BC and Nano-BC were characterized by elemental composition, X-ray diffraction (XRD), surface areas, Fourier transform infrared (FTIR), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), showing the physicochemical properties differences. The P-fast release was determined after 24 hours under different conditions (pH, ionic strength, and coexisting of anion species), while the P-slow release was after 21 days. The performance of P-fast release from Nano-BC was higher than from BC, acidic conditions were more suitable with the privilege for Nano-BC. Higher ionic strength gave the lowest P-releasing amounts for both materials (0.47 to 0.51 mg.g⁻¹ for BC and 0.61 to 0.62 mg.g⁻¹ for Nano-BC). The coexisting SO₄⁻ anion encouraged the rapid release of P from Nano-BC (8.65 mg.g⁻¹) than those for Cl⁻ and NO₃⁻ anions. For the slow release experiments, Nano-BC gave higher P-release than BC with pH ranging from 4.25 to 9.39 for Nano-BC and 4.75 to 9.75 for BC. The pseudo-second-order kinetic model was correlated quite to the release of ortho-P (R² = 0.894, and 0.901 for BC, Nano-BC, respectively) and this indicated the chemical nature of the release process of ortho-P. The results could suggest the privilege of using Nano-BC as a soil P fertilizer.

Keywords: Nano-bone char; Phosphorous release; Kinetics

Introduction

Phosphorus (P) is an essential macronutrient that is critically needed for the normal functioning of ecosystems and has no substitute in food production. Agriculture soils face several challenges due to fast increases in food demand and limited resources. The availability of soil native P to plant growth and organisms' propagation is seldom covering their requirements and thus application of P fertilizers is recommended to increase soil productivity. According to the P fertilizer industry records, phosphate rock is a non-renewable raw material of P, which is going towards depletion (Koppelaar and Weikard, 2013). It is estimated that demand would outstrip the supply of rock phosphate within the next century (Smil, 2000; Cordell et al., 2009; Gilbert, 2009). Phosphorus scarcity challenge means that other sources of P have

to be recovered for reuse as fertilizers to substitute phosphate rock (Cordell et al., 2011). Phosphorus recovery from waste materials is considered one of the major solutions to overcome the current depletion of mined-P resources all over the world. Economically and technically, the recovery of P from animal wastes is the most suitable and tractable solution (Rittmann et al., 2011).

Recently, several studies have pointed out the role of bone char in water/wastewater treatment applications for removing organic such as surfactants and industrial wastes (Hashemi et al., 2013; Mesquita et al., 2018), inorganic pollutants such as fluoride (Medellin-Castillo et al., 2014; Brunson et al., 2014) and heavy metals (Cu, Cd, Ni, and Zn) (Wilson et al., 2003; Ko et al., 2004; Leyva-Ramos et al., 2010; Rocha et al., 2011; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2017)

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as well as an economic and alternative phosphorus fertilizer (Warren et al. 2009; Weber et al., 2014; El-Refaei et al., 2015; Zwetsloot et al., 2014 and 2016; Buss et al., 2016; Mahmoud et al., 2017). Bone char is composed of a mix of carbon and calcium phosphate (Bioapatite). Bioapatite is similar to hydroxyapatite, with more complex imperfect containing relatively abundant other cations like Mg, and Na (Elliott, 2002; Cazalbou et al., 2004; Pasteris et al., 2012). The apatite content, precariously crystallized in bone char could be effective as mineral P fertilizers besides low concentrations of heavy metal contents and is a more economical alternative (Deydier et al., 2005; Siebers and Leinweber, 2013; Weber et al., 2014; El-Refaei et al., 2015; Zwetsloot et al., 2014 and 2016; Buss et al., 2016; Mahmoud et al., 2017). Nanotechnology has been tremendous growth in the present decade, and it has improved and impacted a measurable effect on all the sectors in society, such as medical, food, engineering, polymer sector, electronics, etc. Nevertheless, in the agricultural sector, the agricultural diagnostic, the remediation of soil and water pollution monitoring, sustainable agriculture, nano pesticides, precision farming section, and fertilizers could be improved, but nanotechnology in the applications of the agricultural sector is still relatively under development, especially in the fertilization (DeRosa, 2010; Mastronardi et al., 2015; Mahmoud et al., 2020; Mahaletchumi, 2021; Ibrahim and Hegab, 2022).

Therefore, the main objective of this study is to evaluate the P- released from Nano-BC as a P- source compared to BC. The influence of different conditions (pH, ionic strength, and coexisting anions) on the fast P release (during 24 h) was studied. In addition, the slow P-releasing experiment (21 days) was conducted to study the behavior of orthophosphate release from Nano-BC to BC.

Material and Methods

Materials Preparation

The used bones in these experiments were collected from the local market in Alexandria, Egypt. Primary bones were cleaned several times with distilled water, then dried at 105 °C for 48 h, and screened and cut less than 5 cm for preparing bone char. To prepare bone char, prepared bone was pyrolyzed for 2 h at 650 °C with a heating rate increase of 25 °C.min⁻¹ in a muffle furnace according to El-Refaei et al. (2015). The obtained BC was ground and sieved through 0.5-mm plastic screen and part of the 0.5mm BC was ground for nano-scale by

mechanical ball mill RWTCH Planetary Ball mill type (RM400).

Materials characterization

BC and Nano-BC were characterized by chemical compositions, surface areas, X-ray diffraction (XRD), Fourier transform infrared (FTIR), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). For phosphorus and elemental contents of BC and Nano-BC, 2 g of the sample was added to 25 ml of Aqua regia (3:1 of Hydraulic acid (12N) to Nitric acid (15N)) in a 125-mL flask, the solution was heated on a hot plate and boiled until complete evaporation, without burning the residue. After cooling, 2.5 ml of Nitric acid (2 N) was added to the residue and the clear solution was transferred to 25-mL volumetric flasks and completed the volume with distilled water. Phosphorus was determined by the vanadomolybdic acid method (Chapmann and Pratt, 1961), compleximetric EDTA titration was employed for determining calcium and magnesium simultaneously and individually (Lanyon et al., 1982), and organic carbon contents were determined combustion method (Black et al., 1965).

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was conducted for Nano-BC and BC by X-ray Powder Diffraction -XRD-D2 PhaserBruker (Germany) using the Cu K α radiation ($\lambda=1.541 \text{ \AA}$) at 30 kV and 10 mA. The diffractogram was scanned from (2θ) 5 to 60 °.

BET-surface area was obtained from analysis of nitrogen adsorption isotherms at 77 °K using Beckman Coulter SA(TM) 3100 Surface Area and Pore Size Analyzer, Beckman Coulter, Nyon, Switzerland. Pore volume was determined by Barret-Joyner-Halender method from the N₂ desorption isotherms (Nader, 2015; El Refaey, 2021).

In order to identify the functional group composition, Fourier transform-infrared (FTIR) spectra at the range 400 – 4,000 cm⁻¹ by KBr pellet technique was conducted using Bruker Tensor (37) FTIR spectrometer.

The surface morphology of BC and Nano-BC were examined by Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a Jeol JSM-5300 scanning electron microscope and was operated at 15 - 20 kV. Samples were gold-coated in a sputter coating unit (JFC-1100 E) before SEM examines. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) for the Nano-BC sample was conducted using Jeol, TEM-1400Plus electron Microscope.

Phosphorus release experiments

Fast P release experiment

For fast P release experiments, 0.2 g each of Nano-BC, and BC (0.5 mm) were incubated into a plastic tube containing 50 mL of distilled water for 24 h at 30 rpm and 27°(room temperature). The initial pH was adapted to 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11 by 1.0 mM HCl or NaOH. Then, samples were centrifuged and filtered through a 0.45- μm filter for P measurements. The ionic strength effect on P release was conducted by the same proceeds under various KCl levels (0, 0.05, 0.1, and 0.2 mol·L⁻¹). For examining the effect of anion species in the solutions, three materials were tested under 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ KCl, KNO₃, and K₂SO₄, respectively.

Slow P release experiment

0.5g of BC or Nano-BC sample into 500 mL of distilled water was added into each Erlenmeyer flask without pH adjustment. The flasks were then stirred at room temperature for 21 days. The samples were withdrawn almost every time interval (2 days). The withdrawn samples were filtered and the ortho-P concentrations in the supernatant were determined and the pH was recorded. The orthophosphate concentration for fast and slow experiments was determined by the molybdate-ascorbic acid method (Olsen and Sommers, 1982) at wavelength 882 nm. The P release amount from tested sources q (mg·g⁻¹) was estimated from the following equation:

$$q = (C_i V) / m \quad (1)$$

Where C_i(mg/L) is the equilibrium P concentration at every interval time; V (L) is the water volume and m (g) is the added P-source materials amount.

Results and Discussion

Materials characterization

Some characteristics, including phosphorus, calcium, and carbon content composition and surface area and total pore volume, are shown in Table (1). The contents of phosphorus and calcium in nano-bone char (Nano-BC) were greater than the originated bone char (BC). So the ratio of Ca:P increased by converting BC to Nano-BC. Otherwise, organic carbon contents decreased as a result of converting BC to nano-BC from 4.84% to 2.05, respectively. Also, results indicated the increase of BET-surface area and total pore volume as results of turning the BC to nano scale (Kalia and Kaur, 2019; El-Ramady et al., 2021).

TABLE 1. Some characteristics of bone char (BC) compared to nano-bone char (Nano-BC)

	%				Surface area m ² g ⁻¹	Total pore volume cm ³ g ⁻¹
	P	Ca	Mg	C		
BC	7.72	0.94	0.64	4.84	94.66	0.317
Nano-BC	9.56	1.08	0.67	2.05	108.32	0.347

X-ray diffraction (XRD)

As shown in Fig. (1), the X-ray diffraction (XRD) for both bone char (BC) and nano-bone char (Nano-BC) presented an approximate similar degree of lattice between the structures (2 θ). Bone char mainly consists of calcium phosphate, calcium carbonate and carbon (El-Refaey et al. 2015; Younesi et al., 2011; Flores-Cano et al., 2016; Maeda et al., 2019). Also, XRD patterns confirmed an increase in the intensity of the nano-bone char peaks than the original bone char with peaks shifting corresponding to the crystal structure. A lower degree of crystallization of BC was shown than in nano-BC structure. This could be explained by the decrease of organic carbon associated with the structural composition of Nano-BC. Rojas-Mayorga et al. (2013) reported an increase in the Ca/P ratio correlates with a crystallinity index, especially with a decreased in the presence of carbonates.

Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

The BC and Nano-BC FTIR spectra are shown in Figure (2). Generally, bone char spectra had the following peaks 3426, 2200.06, 2012.76, 1633.85, 1461.07, 1415.36, 1033.36, 872.38, 604.45, 566.79, and 470.64 cm⁻¹, correspond to the BC structure which includes carbonate groups, phosphate groups, and organic phase. The band located at 3426.77 cm⁻¹ is attributed to O–H (hydroxyl) (Rojas-Mayorga et al., 2013; Manalu et al., 2015; Azzouia et al., 2017; Saleh et al., 2020). The peak at 2200.06 cm⁻¹ and 1633.85 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the bone organic phase vibration, Alkyne C \equiv C and C=C aromatic, respectively (Rojas-Mayorga et al., 2013; Saleh et al., 2016; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2017).

The stretching peaks at 2012.76, 1033.58, 604.45 and 566.79 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to PO₄³⁻ stretching vibrations (França et al., 2014; Azzouia et al., 2015; Manalu et al., 2015; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2017; Saleh et al., 2020) The peaks at 1461.08, 1415.36 and 872.38 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to CO₃²⁻ (Rojas-Mayorga et al., 2013; Manalu et al., 2015; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2017). Similar bands appeared with nano-BC spectra with little modification or shifts of bands with the emergence of some new peaks.

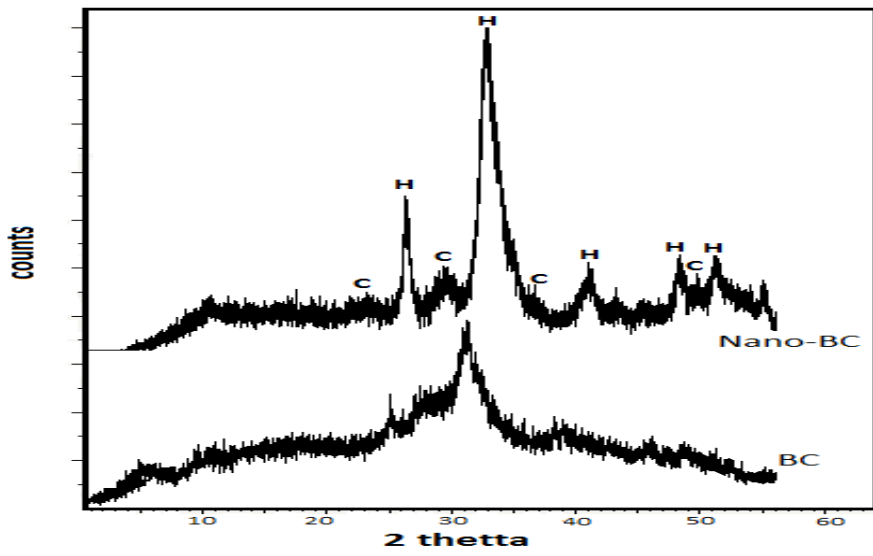


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of bone char (BC) and nano-bone char (Nano-BC) (C: Calcite; H: hydroxyapatite)

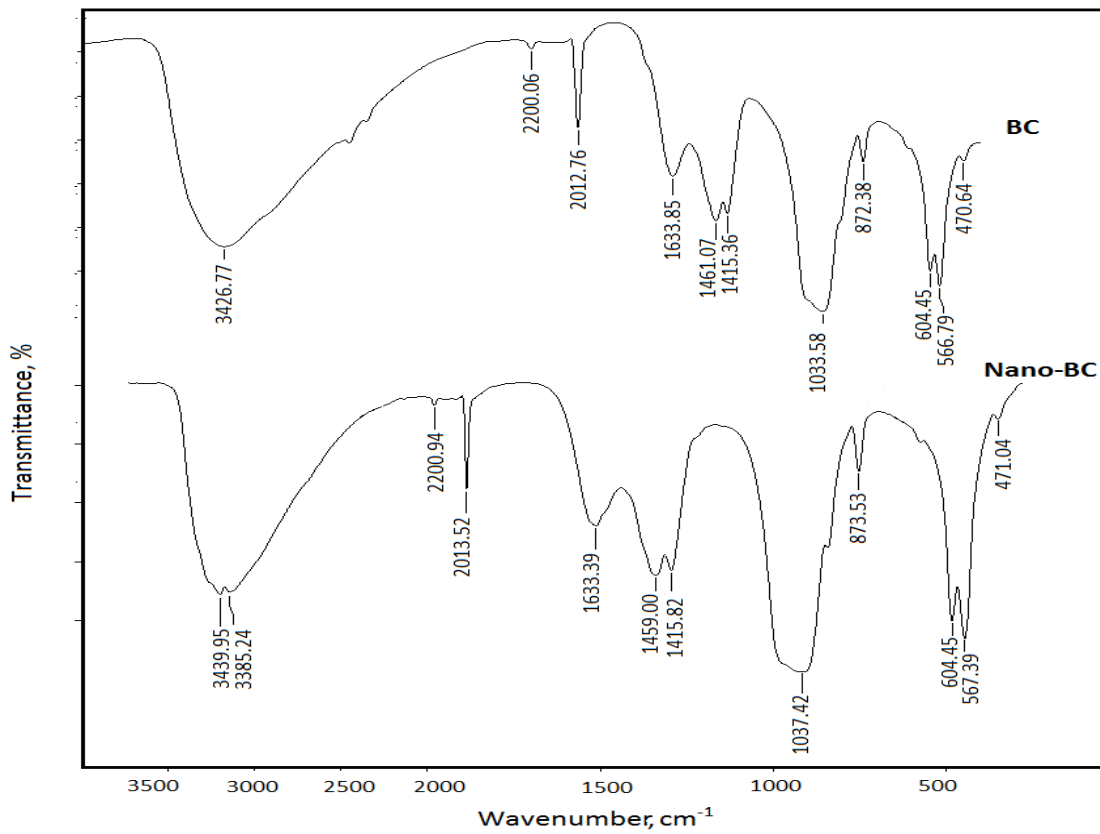


Fig. 2. FTIR spectra of bone char (BC) and nano-bone char (Nano-BC)

Morphological characterization

The results of SEM and TEM could indicate and help in data explanations. The morphological analyses are shown in Fig. (3). BC revealed porous and agglomerated structures as a result of pyrolysis temperature (Patel et al. 2015; Saleh et al., 2020). The SEM image of the nano-BC represented the nano-particles are mostly spherical with some re-aggregated particles and the typical single-particle sizes are in the range of 45 to about 49 nm as indicated by the TEM image (Fig.3).

Fast release of P

Influence of pH

The effect of different pH (3, 5, 7, 9, and 11) on P release from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC), and is shown in Fig.(4-A). The results demonstrated that the fast ortho-P release after 24 decreased with increasing the pH with noticeable privileges to bone char (BC), than nano-bone char (Nano-BC). This could be explained as the P release process as pH-dependent. And, the restraining of the P-release species of the bone char materials could give them sustainable P release performance under different soil conditions. In addition, Nano-BC at a low pH value of 3 the P- released gives the highest value (26.21 mgP g⁻¹). The high ortho-P release at low pH could be simply clarified by the metallic phosphate species dissolution at acidic circumstances. For bone char, some P- species (such as pyrophosphate) may be bonded to charred materials (BC and Nano-BC) surface, by H-bonding, so that could be pH sensitive and liable to water dissociation (Chen et al., 2015).

Influence of ionic strength and coexisting anion

The effect of different ionic strengths on ortho-P release from bone char (BC), and Nano-bone char (Nano-BC) is shown in Fig (4-B). As observed, the discharge of ortho-p decreased with increasing the KCl concentration for BC and Nano-BC and there were no significant differences between Nano-BC and BC and released about 0.47 to 0.51 mg.g⁻¹for BC and 0.61 to 0.62 mg.g⁻¹for Nano-BC. The completion between Cl⁻ ions and adsorptive site for PO₄³⁻ and HPO₄²⁻, could be difficult for BC and Nano-BC for their complex structure.

The effects of different coexisting anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻; as 0.1 M solution of KCl, KNO₃, and K₂SO₄, respectively) on P release from BC, and Nano-BC were represented in Figure (4-C). As shown in Fig. (4-C), for BC and Nano-BC, there was no significant difference between Cl⁻, and NO₃⁻ coexisting anions compared to blank water. The high ortho-P released was achieved by SO₄²⁻ with Nano-BC (8.65mgP g⁻¹).

That could be due to the occupation of SO₄²⁻ more active sites on Nano-BC than Cl⁻ and NO₃⁻ (Chouyyok et al., 2010; Qian et al, 2013; Liu et al., 2021) and also, the competition between sulfate and PO₄³⁻ and HPO₄²⁻ for bonding with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ could enhance the released P (Chouyyok et al. 2010; Liu et al., 2021).

Slow release of P

The orthophosphate (ortho-P) form is the most easily uptake than the other forms (Buss et al., 2020). The release of orthophosphate from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC) was determined in the slow P release experiments during the 21-day release cycle (Fig.5-A).The changes in pH in the solution during the slow release experiment were presented in Fig. (5-B). It can be seen that the released P increased from BC and Nano-BC with time with privileges for Nano-BC to reach 0.453 mg.g⁻¹ after 20 days. This increase in P-released value is accomplished by increasing the pH of the solution. The pH values of Nano-BC were lower than BC at the first week of the experiment, and gradually began to increase with time from 4.25 to 9.39 for Nano-BC and from 4.75 to 9.75 for BC during the 21 days.

Kinetic release studies

The P release was fitted with fractional power, Elovich, pseudo-first-order, pseudo-second-order, and intra-particle diffusion kinetic models, linear forms are reported in Table (2) (El-Refeay, 2021).

TABLE 2. The linear form of the used kinetics models

Model	linear form equation
fractional power:	$\ln q_t = \ln a + b \ln t$
Elovich:	$q_t = \frac{1}{\beta} \ln(\alpha\beta) + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln t$
pseudo-first-order:	$\log(q_e - q_t) = \log q_e - k_1 t / 2.303$
pseudo-second-order:	$\frac{t}{q_t} = 1/k_2 q_e^2 + t/q_e$
intra-particle diffusion:	$q_t = k_i t^{1/2} + C$

Where: q_e (mg/L) and q_t (mg/L) represent the P concentration in the solution at equilibrium and at a time t ; a and b are constants with $b < 1$; α equals primary coefficient (mg.g⁻¹day⁻¹); β equals desorption coefficient (g mg⁻¹); k_1 equals the pseudo-first rate constant (day⁻¹) and k_2 equals the pseudo-second-order model rate constant (g·mg⁻¹ day⁻¹), respectively; k_i (g mg⁻¹ day^{-1/2}) represent the intra-particle diffusion rate constant; C is constant (mg g⁻¹) related to the boundary layer thickness.

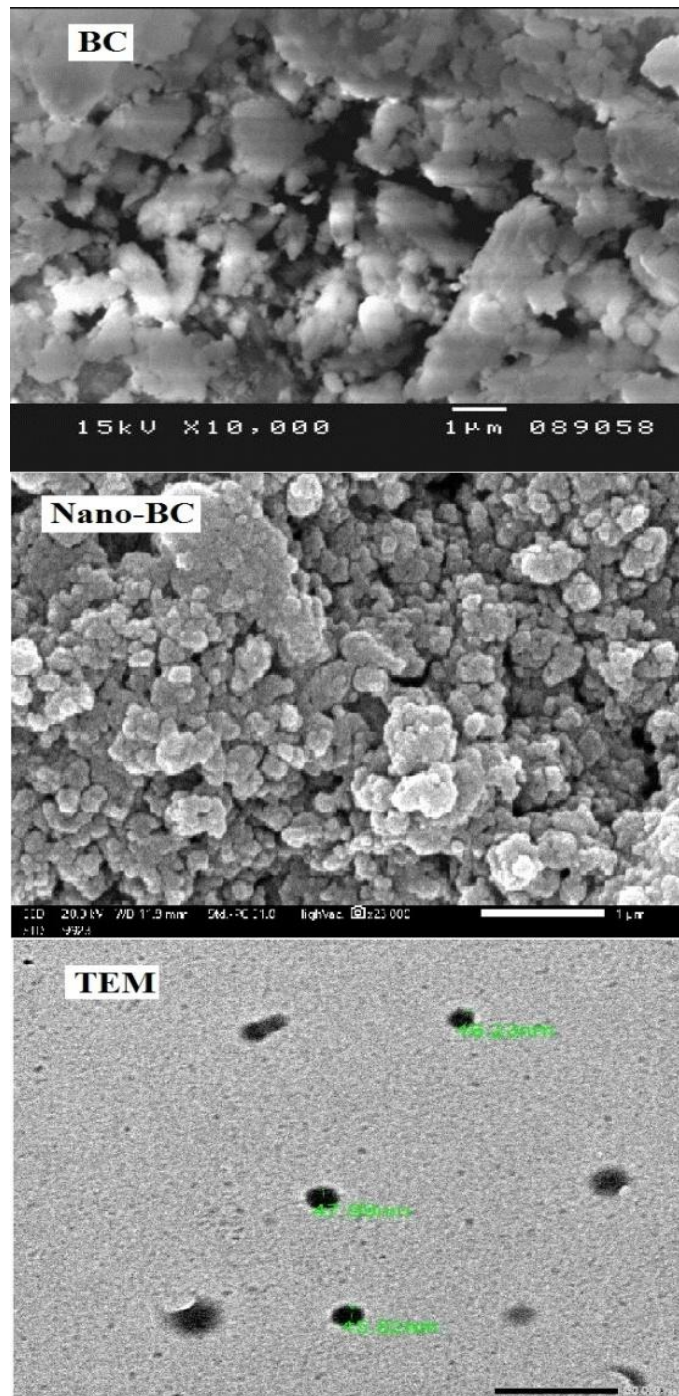


Fig. 3. SEM for bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC), and TEM micrographs for Nano-BC

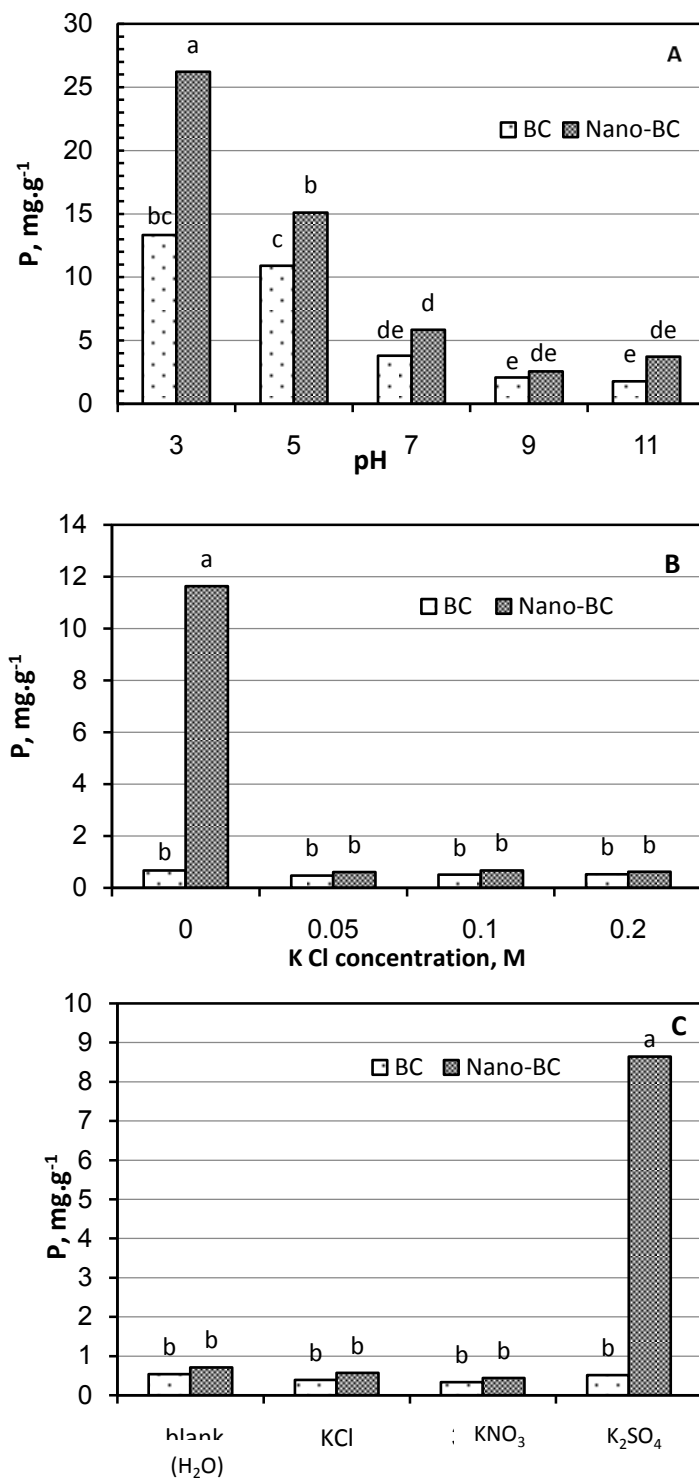


Fig. 4. Release of ortho-P (mg.g⁻¹) from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC) under different pH (A), different ionic strength (0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 M KCl concentrations)(B), and coexisting different anion (C) (Each column labeled by different letter (s) is statistically different at 0.05% level)

It is shown from Table (3) that the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was correlated well to the release ortho-P for all examined material. The regression coefficients (R^2) values were 0.894, and 0.901 for BC and Nano-BC (Fig.6 and Table.3). The agreement of the data with pseudo- second- order equation indicated the chemical nature of the release of ortho- P process, whereas the treatment temperature, during the pyrolysis process, of BC could change the mechanism towards diffusion (Qian et al. 2013; Xu et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2018). The pseudo-second-order constant rates (K_2) for Nano-BC (0.0007 d^{-1}) were higher than BC (0.0005 d^{-1}), suggesting the P formation in BC and Nano-BC is in stabilized formation. This could be attributed to type of P-speciation (non-orthophosphate) during the pyrolysis of bone (Huang and Tang 2015; Huang et al., 2018).

Conclusions

The performance of fast and slow P-releasing of Nano-BC was investigated compared to the originated BC. For fast P- release experiments, acidic pH was more suitable for the P-release from Nano-BC, while higher ionic strength conditions were not preferred and gave the lowest P-releasing amounts for BC and Nano-BC. Otherwise, the SO_4^{2-} coexisting anion enhanced the fast release of P from Nano-BC than those for Cl^- and NO_3^- . For the slow release tests, the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was governed model which indicated the chemical nature of the release of the ortho-P process from BC and Nano-BC. The results could support the potential of using Nano-BC as a P soil fertilizer.

TABLE 3 The obtained kinetic parameters of released ortho-P from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC)

Model	BC	Nano-BC
Fractional power		
a	205.99	694.59
b	0.446	0.0154
R^2	0.806	0.007
Elovich		
α	538.36	5.44×10^{33}
β	0.0056	0.1065
R^2	0.740	0.004
Pseudo-first-order		
q_e	648.11	2136.26
k_1	-0.1257	-0.0015
R^2	0.416	0.039
Pseudo-second-order		
q_e	990.10	840.34
K_2	0.0005	0.0007
R^2	0.894	0.901
Intra-particle diffusion		
k_i	13.20	6.13
C	431.51	655.71
R^2	0.348	0.161

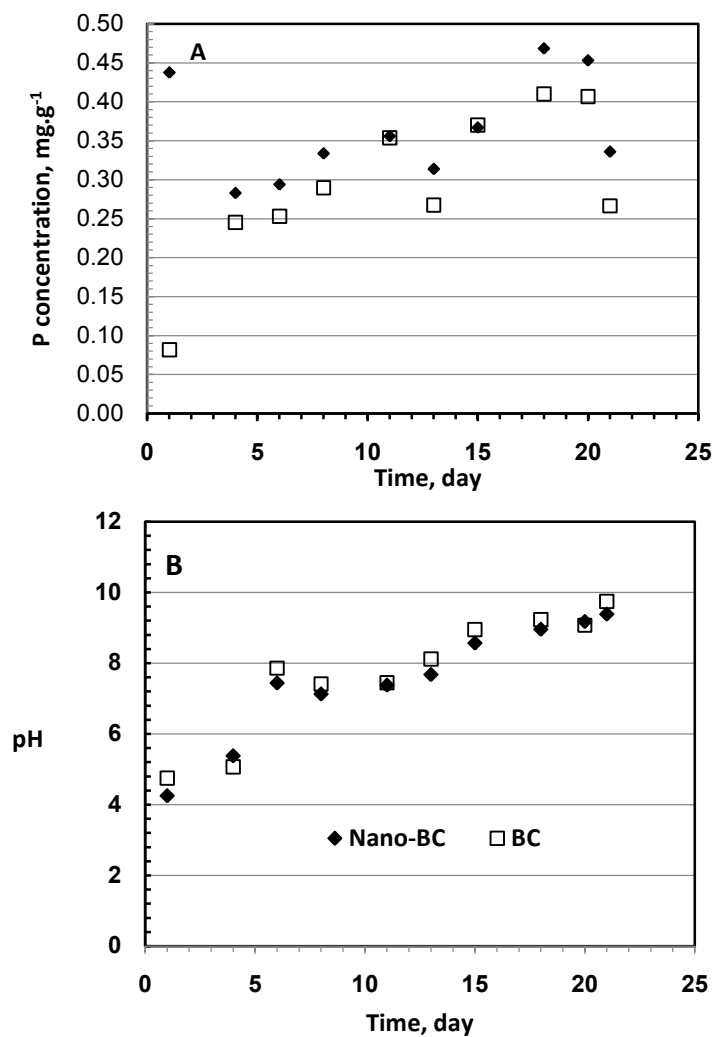


Fig. 5. P-released (orthophosphate) (A) from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC) and changes in the solution pH (B) during the 21-day release cycle

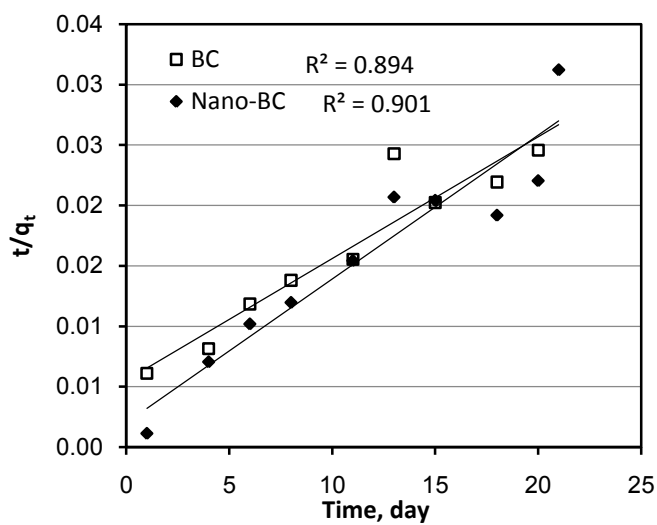


Fig. 6. Pseudo-second-order plots for ortho-P release kinetics from bone char (BC), and nano-bone char (Nano-BC)

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