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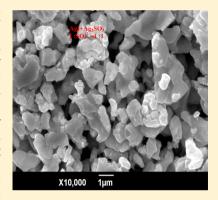


Speciation Analysis of 129 in Seawater by Carrier-Free Agl-AgCl Coprecipitation and Accelerator Mass Spectrometric Measurement

Maoyi Luo, †,‡,|| Xiaolin Hou,*,‡,§ Chaohui He,† Qi Liu,§ and Yukun Fan§

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: A rapid and simple method was developed for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I in seawater by selective coprecipitation of carrier-free iodide and accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) measurement of 129I. Iodide was separated from seawater and other species of iodine by coprecipitation of AgI with Ag₂SO₃, AgCl, and AgBr by addition of only 100 mg/L Ag⁺ and 0.3 mmol/L NaHSO₃ at pH 4.2-5.5. The separation efficiency of iodide was more than 95%, and crossover between ¹²⁹IO₃⁻ and ¹²⁹I⁻ fractions is less than 3%. Iodate and total inorganic iodine were converted to iodide by use of NaHSO₃ at pH 1-2 and then separated by the same method as for iodide. Ag₂SO₃ in the coprecipitate was removed by washing with 3 mol/L HNO₃ and the excess AgCl and AgBr was removed by use of diluted NH₃, and finally a 1-3 mg precipitate was obtained for AMS measurement of 129 I. The recovery of iodine species in the entire procedure is higher than 70%. Six seawater samples collected from the Norwegian Sea were analyzed by this method as well as a conventional anion-exchange



chromatographic method; the results from the two methods show no significant difference (p = 0.05). Because only one separation step and fewer chemicals are involved in the procedure, this method is suitable for operation on board sampling vessels, as it avoids the transport of samples to the laboratory and storage for a longer time before analysis, therefore significantly improving the analytical capacity and reliability of speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I. This improvement can stimulate oceanographic tracer studies of 129 I.

hemical species of iodine play a key role in the geochemical cycle of iodine, which is related to the interaction of iodine between seawater and atmosphere and transfer of iodine among different environmental media. Meanwhile, iodine species are also related to climate changes and Earth's radiation budget, linking to the formation of primary particles in the marine boundary layer^{1,2} and depletion of ozone in the troposphere through reaction between active iodine species and ozone.3 Due to the multiple sources of iodine and conversion among iodine species in the environment, chemical speciation analysis of stable iodine cannot provide sufficient information for the investigation of geochemical cycle of iodine, which needs a new approach to identify and monitor the conversion of iodine species in the environment.

¹²⁹I is a naturally occurring long-lived radioisotope of iodine $(15.7 \times 10^6 \text{ years})$ with a natural ratio of $^{129}\text{I}/^{127}\text{I}$ less than 1.5 \times 10^{-12} in marine system. $^{4-6}$ ^{129}I in the current earth surface environment mainly originates from nuclear activities, including nuclear weapons testing, nuclear accidents, and discharges from nuclear facilities, and the $^{129}\mathrm{I}/^{127}\mathrm{I}$ ratios have elevated to $10^{-10}{\sim}10^{-4}$ in the present environment. $^{7-10}$ Of all anthropogenic sources, marine discharges of 129I from reprocessing plants at Sellafield (U.K.) and La Hague (France) account for more than 90% of the total inventory of environmental 129 I.7

Due to long residence time $(4 \times 10^5 \text{ years})$ of iodine in the ocean, relatively long half-life, and continuous releases of 129I from two European reprocessing plants, 129I provides a unique tracer to study the circulation of seawater masses. 11-19 The specific species of 129I from the source make the anthropogenic ¹²⁹I an ideal field tracer to investigate the conversion of chemical species of iodine, fluxes, and release mechanism of marine iodine to atmosphere. 20,21 Combined with knowledge obtained from stable iodine, comprehensive information on iodine biogeochemical behavior can be extracted from the information provided by ¹²⁹I speciation analysis.

In open sea water, iodine predominantly exists as iodide (I⁻) and iodate (IO₃⁻) and minor organic iodine,²² while organic iodine can be an important species in estuarine and coastal water.²³ Differential pulse polarography^{24,25} and cathodic stripping voltammetry²⁶ are often used to measure iodate and iodide in seawater, respectively. Neutron activation analysis (NAA) combined with selective precipitation of iodide with silver and active charcoal trapping^{2†} and anion-exchange chromatography for separation of iodine species²⁸ have also

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been used for speciation analysis of stable iodine. Ion chromatography (IC) in combination with inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) has recently been used for the measurement of iodide, iodate, and total iodine. ^{29,30} However, due to 4–12 orders of magnitude lower ¹²⁹I concentration compared to stable iodine (¹²⁷I) in environmental samples, all these methods cannot be directly used for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I.

A method for speciation analysis of 129I in environmental water samples has been reported. In this method, iodide and iodate were separated from water and from each other by anion-exchange chromatography based on the different affinities of iodide and iodate on anion-exchange resin, The separated iodide and iodate in each fraction were purified by solvent extraction, and 129I was finally measured by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) or radiochemical neutron activation analysis (RNAA).31 This method is effective and has been successfully applied for the speciation analysis of 129I in seawater and rainwater samples. 11,18-21,23,32 However, the separation procedure of this method is time-consuming (4-20 h depending on the sample size) and not practically suitable for operation on board sampling vessels because of the complex and time-consuming procedures needed. Furthermore, purification and enrichment of iodine by solvent extraction requires adding 127I carrier, which might introduce a small amount of ¹²⁹I to the samples. This therefore raises the analytical uncertainty, especially for samples with low 129I concentration, such as those collected in the deep sea and from the southern hemisphere with $^{129}I/^{127}I$ close to or lower than 1×10^{-12} . A method that uses derivation of iodide and gas chromatography/ mass spectrometry (GC-MS) measurement has recently been reported for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I in groundwater, but the method is only for samples with high ¹²⁹I levels (¹²⁹I/¹²⁷I ratios as high as 10^{-2}) and small volumes (<50 mL), and it is also time-consuming.³³ To our knowledge, no simple method has been reported for rapid separation of carrier-free ¹²⁹I species in environmental water samples with low 129 I levels for 129 I measurement that is suitable and convenient to be used on board sampling vessel. This work aims to develop a single-step procedure to separate carrier-free iodine species for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I in seawater.

■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Samples and Chemicals. Seawater samples (100 L) were collected from the Kattegat (56°10′ N, 11°50′ E) on 10th December 2011 for method development. Six seawater samples were collected from the Norwegian Sea in May 2011 (Table S-1, Supporting Information) and analyzed for species of ¹²⁹I for method validation. The collected seawater samples were filtered through a 0.45 μ m membrane and stored in polyethylene containers in the dark under normal laboratory conditions until analysis. Strongly basic anion-exchange resin (AG1-X4, 50-100 mesh, converted to NO₃⁻ form by use of NaNO₃ before use) was purchased from Bio-Rad Laboratories (Richmond, CA). ¹²⁷I carriers in NaI and KIO₃ forms were from Merck KGaA (Germany); these two iodine reagents have been analyzed for $^{129}\mathrm{I}$ via AMS, and the measured $^{129}\mathrm{I}/^{127}\mathrm{I}$ atomic ratios were lower than 2×10^{-13} . Another ¹²⁷I carrier was prepared by dissolving iodine crystal (I2) (Woodward Company) in 0.4 mol/L NaOH solution. All other chemical reagents used were of analytical reagent grade, and all solutions were prepared with deionized water (18.2 M Ω ·cm).

Separation of lodide from Seawater by Coprecipitation. Seawater (100–1500 mL) was transferred to a beaker, and 0.01–30 mL of 1.0 mol/L NaHSO₃, 0–1000 μ g of [127 I]iodide carrier (NaI), and 200 Bq of 125 I $^-$ and/or 131 IO $_3$ $^-$ (for checking separation efficiency of iodide or iodate) were added. HNO $_3$ (0.5 mol/L) was added to adjust the pH to 1.2–8. AgNO $_3$ (46 mmol/L, 10–150 mg of Ag $^+$) was slowly added under stirring to coprecipitate iodide as AgI. After the mixture was stirred for 0.1–2 h, the precipitate was separated by centrifugation or left to settle overnight in the dark, followed by decanting of the supernatant and centrifuge of the remaining slurry. The precipitate was rinsed with H₂O and the wash was combined with supernatant for iodate separation. The precipitate was sequentially washed with HNO $_3$, H₂O, and 7.5%, 2.5%, and 1% NH $_3$ ·H₂O to remove Ag₂SO $_3$ and most AgCl and AgBr until 1–3 mg of precipitate remained.

Separation of lodate and Total Inorganic lodine by Coprecipitation. To the supernatant and water washes from the iodide separation described in the previous section, or to 100–1000 mL of original seawater (for total inorganic iodine separation), 0–1000 μg of [¹²⁷I]iodate carrier (KIO₃), 200 Bq of ¹³¹IO₃⁻, and 0.01–20 mL of 1.0 mol/L NaHSO₃ were added. HNO₃ (6 mol/L) was added to pH 1–1.5 to convert iodate to iodide. A certain volume of 46 mmol/L AgNO₃ (10–150 mg Ag⁺) was slowly added under stirring to coprecipitate iodide as AgI, and then the same procedure as for iodide separation was followed to remove Ag₂SO₃ and most AgCl and AgBr in the precipitate to reduce the final coprecipitate to 1–3 mg. Figure S-1 (Supporting Information) shows a schematic diagram of the procedure for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I.

Measurement of ¹²⁵I and ¹³¹I by γ Spectrometry. ¹²⁵I and ¹³¹I in <20 mL of solution and precipitate were measured by NaI γ spectrometry (Canberra Industries Inc.) against the corresponding ¹²⁵I or ¹³¹I standard prepared in the same geometry and sample medium. The NaI γ spectrometer consists of a 3 × 3 in. well-type NaI(Tl) detector, a multichannel analyzer, and Genie 2000 software. The resolution of this system is about 55 keV for 662 keV γ ray of ¹³⁷Cs, and a absolution counting efficiency of 30% for ¹²⁵I (all X- ray and γ peaks together from 26 to 36 keV).

AMS Measurement of ¹²⁹I. The separated iodine species as AgI or AgI–AgCl in the coprecipitate form were dried at 60–70 °C, ground to fine powder, and mixed with Nb powder (325 mesh) at a mass ratio of 1:3, which were then pressed into a copper holder for AMS measurement of ¹²⁹I/¹²⁷I in a 3 MV AMS system (HVEE) in the Xi'an AMS Center. A detailed description of the AMS system and measurement method for ¹²⁹I/¹²⁷I ratio has been reported elsewhere. ^{34,35}

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A coprecipitation method has been reported to separate carrier-free iodine from trap solution from combustion of solid sample and fresh water. 34,35 In this case, iodine was converted to iodide and coprecipitated as AgI–AgCl after addition of a suitable amount of chloride and an excess amount of AgNO₃. For seawater, due to high concentrations of chloride and bromide (up to 19.9 g/L and 68.9 mg/L, respectively), a huge amount of precipitate will be formed when AgNO₃ was added. For 1 L of seawater, more than 95 g of AgNO₃ has to be added to completely precipitate I⁻ with Cl⁻ and Br⁻, and up to 81 g of coprecipitate will be formed. This makes it impossible to effective separate a tiny amount of AgI from the huge amount of AgCl to prepare a few milligrams of coprecipitate of AgI with

AgCl for AMS measurement of ¹²⁹I. Meanwhile, this method is also not practically useful for separation of iodine from seawater for radioiodine (e.g., ¹³¹I, ¹³³I) measurement, because of the high cost of large amounts of AgNO₃.

Due to much lower $K_{\rm sp}$ of AgI compared to AgBr and AgCl, a prior precipitation of AgI compared to AgCl and AgBr might occur when AgNO₃ was added to seawater. The experiment showed that less than 50% of iodide was precipitated when 50 mg of Ag⁺ was added to 500 mL of seawater, and increasing Ag⁺ to 100 mg and reducing the pH of the solution from 6 to 1 could not significantly increase the recovery of iodide in the precipitate (Table 1). The major reactions involving in the

Table 1. Effects of Concentrations of NaHSO₃ and Ag⁺ on the Separation of Iodine by Coprecipitation of AgI-AgCl-AgBr^a

	$\begin{array}{c} NaHSO_3 \\ (mmol/L) \end{array}$	I $^-$ added (μg)	Ag+ added (mg)	pН	recovery ^b (%)
1	0	0	50	6.0-7.0	37.29 ± 4.16
2	0	0	50	1.0 - 2.0	43.00 ± 3.79
3	0	0	100	1.0 - 2.0	39.09 ± 4.96
4	0	20	50	1.0 - 2.0	42.73 ± 3.15
5	0	100	50	1.0 - 2.0	55.45 ± 4.88
6	0	500	50	1.0 - 2.0	78.93 ± 2.86
7	0	1000	50	1.0 - 2.0	84.99 ± 3.41
8	0.30	0	10	1.0-2.0	18.90 ± 2.12
9	0.30	0	30	1.0 - 2.0	92.45 ± 2.33
10	0.30	0	50	1.0 - 2.0	97.23 ± 2.92
					1

"Values are average \pm SD, n=3, 500 mL of seawater. $^{b_{125}}I^{-}$ was spiked to the seawater, and the recoveries were obtained by measurement of ^{125}I in the supernatant and seawater before precipitation.

coprecipitation processes when Ag^+ is added to seawater and their corresponding solubility products $(K_{\rm sp})$ are listed in eqs 1-6:

$$Ag^{+} + I^{-} = AgI$$
 $K_{sp}(AgI) = 8.5 \times 10^{-17}$ (1)

$$2Ag^{+} + SO_{3}^{2-} = Ag_{2}SO_{3}$$

$$K_{\rm sp}({\rm Ag_2SO_3}) = 1.5 \times 10^{-14}$$
 (2)

$$Ag^{+} + Br^{-} = AgBr$$
 $K_{sp}(AgBr) = 3.3 \times 10^{-13}$ (3)

$$Ag^{+} + Cl^{-} = AgCl$$
 $K_{sp}(AgCl) = 1.8 \times 10^{-10}$ (4)

$$Ag^{+} + IO_{3}^{-} = AgIO_{3}$$
 $K_{sp}(AgIO_{3}) = 3.2 \times 10^{-8}$ (5)

$$2Ag^{+} + SO_{4}^{2-} = Ag_{2}SO_{4}$$
 $K_{sp}(Ag_{2}SO_{4}) = 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$

A simulation using Visual MINTEQ (an equilibrium speciation model, http://www2.lwr.kth.se/english/OurSoftware/vminteq/index.html) also showed that less than 50% of iodide can be precipitated from seawater when Ag+concentration is lower than 1000 mg/L (Figure S-2, Supporting Information). With the addition of iodide carrier (^{127}I) to the seawater, the recovery of iodide in the precipitate increased, and up to 85% of iodide could be precipitated when 1000 μg of iodide was added to 500 mL of seawater (Table 1). However, for analysis of seawater with ultralow levels of ^{129}I , such as deep seawater or seawater from the southern hemisphere and

equator, addition of ^{127}I carrier is not expected, because it will increase the analytical uncertainty by introducing external ^{129}I from the ^{127}I carrier to the sample.

Due to the relatively high $K_{\rm sp}$ of AgIO₃ compared to AgI, AgCl, and AgBr, AgIO₃ could not be completely coprecipitated with AgCl and AgCl, and so iodate has to be reduced to iodide before precipitation for determination of ¹²⁹I in iodate and total inorganic iodine forms. NaHSO3 is a commonly used reductant for reducing iodate to iodide in acidic media. Surprisingly, when NaHSO₃ was added to seawater (to 0.3 mmol/L), the recovery of iodine in the precipitate significantly increased up to 97% after addition of 50 mg of Ag⁺ even without ¹²⁷I carrier (Table 1). Although the increase in Ag⁺ amount from 10 to 50 mg added to 500 mL of seawater could increase the recovery of iodide from 19% to 97% (Table 1), it is clear that NaHSO3 is the key factor for coprecipitation of AgI, because without addition of NaHSO3, only a maximum of 50% of iodide could be coprecipitated even when 200 mg/L Ag+ was added and pH was reduced to 1. In acidic media, both iodide and iodate will be coprecipitated due to reduction of iodate to iodide. It is interesting that when the pH value of seawater is higher than 5, carrier-free iodide can still be coprecipitated, while iodate remains in the water phase without reduction to iodide and coprecipitation with AgI. These results reveal that iodide can be selectively coprecipitated under suitable conditions. Concentration of NaHSO₃, pH value of solution, and amount of Ag⁺ are key parameters for separation of carrier-free iodide and iodate in seawater by coprecipitation.

Influence of NaHSO $_3$ on Coprecipitation of Carrier-Free lodide and lodate from Seawater. The results (Figure 1) show that, at pH 4.7 and with addition of 100 mg/L Ag^+ to

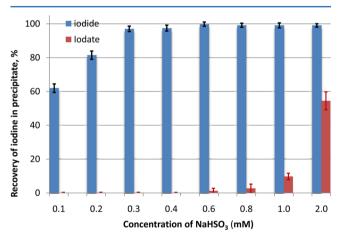


Figure 1. Effect of NaHSO $_3$ concentration added to the solution on the precipitation of iodide and iodate (solution: 500 mL of seawater no. 7 spiked with 200 Bq of $^{125}I^-$ and 200 Bq of $^{131}IO_3^-$, 50 mg Ag $^+$, pH 4.7).

seawater, the recovery of iodide in the precipitate increased from 62% to 97% when the concentration of NaHSO $_3$ was increased from 0.10 to 0.30 mmol/L, and to more than 99% when the concentration of NaHSO $_3$ was \geq 0.60 mmol/L. However, when the concentration of NaHSO $_3$ was increased to \geq 0.60 mmol/L, some iodate was also precipitated, and the iodate in the precipitate increases with increasing concentration of NaHSO $_3$. Fifty-five percent of iodate could be coprecipitated when NaHSO $_3$ concentration increased to 2.0 mmol/L. Therefore, the optimal concentrations of NaHSO $_3$ for speciation analysis of 129 I in seawater are 0.3–0.60 mmol/L.

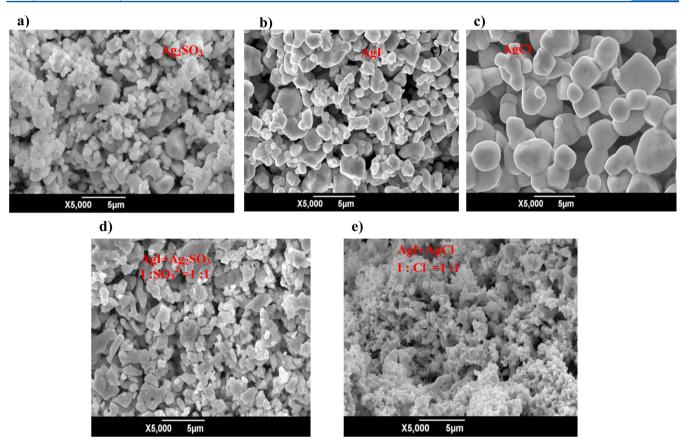


Figure 2. Images of scanning electron microscope for precipitates of (a) Ag_2SO_3 , (b) AgI, (c) AgCl, (d) $AgI-Ag_2SO_3$ (I^-/SO_3^{2-} mol ratio 1:1), and (e) AgI-AgCl (I^-/Cl^- mol ratio 1:1).

Under this condition, more than 97% of iodide can be precipitated from seawater while crossover of iodate to the coprecipitate is less than 3%.

Although chloride and bromide are chemically similar to iodide, sulfite shows a strong influence on coprecipitation of iodide, which might be related to the formation of crystals of AgI, Ag₂SO₃, AgCl, and AgBr. From scanning electron microscopic images of the precipitates of Ag₂SO₃, AgI, and AgCl (Figure 2) and counting of the size distribution of AgCl, AgI, and Ag₂SO₃ crystals in individual precipitates (Figure S3, Supporting Information), it was observed that the size of Ag_2SO_3 crystals (mainly 0.5–1.5 μ m) is similar to that of AgI (mainly $0.5-2.0 \mu m$), but much smaller than that of AgCl (mainly 1.5-4.5 μ m). In addition, the image of a mixture of AgI-Ag₂SO₃ (with molecular ratio of 1:1, Figure 2d) shows a much more homogeneous distribution of the crystals compared to AgI-AgCl mixture (Figure 2e). In seawater, iodine concentration is normally <0.50 µmol/L and the AgI could not form a sufficient amount of particles to be precipitated from the solution. It is therefore important to determine if it can form a coprecipitate with other compounds or be adsorbed and carried by other precipitate (formed particles) to be able to separate it from the seawater. The similar size distribution of AgI crystal (particles) and Ag₂SO₃ might favor the formation of mixed crystals of AgI and Ag₂SO₃ and coprecipitation of iodide from seawater when a sufficient amount of Ag₂SO₃ is formed. The larger size of the crystals of AgCl and AgBr (not shown) precipitates might prevent them from forming a homogeneous mixture of crystals with AgI. This might explain why a low

recovery of AgI was obtained in the coprecipitate of AgI when $NaHSO_3$ was not added.

The lower recovery of iodide at lower NaHSO $_3$ concentrations might be attributed to insufficient Ag_2SO_3 precipitate formed during coprecipitation and to the competition of chloride and bromide with sulfite during the formation of precipitate. When the concentration of NaHSO $_3$ is <0.20 mmol/L, which is more than 3 orders of magnitude lower than that of chloride and about 5 times lower than that of bromide, the excess amount of chloride and bromide will compete with sulfite to form precipitate with insufficient amount of Ag^+ , causing insufficient Ag_2SO_3 formed in the seawater to carry AgI into precipitate.

The $K_{\rm sp}$ of AgIO₃ (3.2 × 10⁻⁸) is much higher than that of Ag₂SO₃, AgBr, and AgCl, and therefore AgIO₃ should not be precipitated prior to AgCl and AgBr. However, it was observed that when the NaHSO3 concentration increases, a significant amount of iodate (up to 53%) enters the precipitate. This might be attributed to the reduction of iodate to iodide when NaHSO₃ concentration was increased. Sulfite is a strong reductant that can reduce iodate to iodide in acidic solution. This reduction reaction is concentration-dependent; the increased NaHSO3 concentration can therefore reduce iodate to iodide in slightly acidic solution of pH 4-5. This assumption was confirmed by anion-exchange separation of species of iodine in the treated seawater. NaHSO3 was added to a seawater sample spiked with ¹²⁵IO₃⁻ to a concentration of 2.0 mmol/L, the solution was loaded on an anion-exchange column, and the column was washed with 0.2 mol/L NaNO₃. Only about 50% of the total 125I spiked to the seawater was

observed in the effluent and wash, indicating reduction of about 50% of iodate in the seawater.

During reduction of iodate to iodide, sulfite will be oxidized to sulfate ($\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$). Although sulfate can also form a precipitate with $\mathrm{Ag^+}$, the high solubility product of $\mathrm{Ag_2SO_4}$ ($K_\mathrm{sp}=1.5\times10^{-5}$) compared to those of AgCl and $\mathrm{Ag_2SO_3}$ prevents the formation of $\mathrm{Ag_2SO_4}$ in the seawater when $\mathrm{Ag^+}$ and $\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$ concentrations are low. Our experimental results have shown that addition of $\mathrm{Na_2SO_4}$ to seawater instead of $\mathrm{NaHSO_3}$ did not improve the recovery of iodide in the precipitate; this confirmed insignificant influence of sulfate on the coprecipitation of AgI .

Influence of pH Values on Coprecipitate Separation of Carrier-Free Iodide and Iodate. Figure 3 shows the

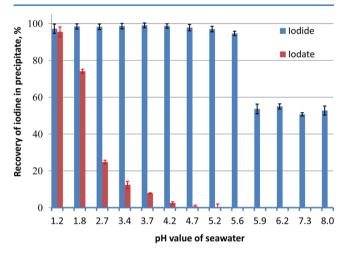


Figure 3. Effect of pH value of the solution on the precipitation of iodide and iodate. (solution: 500 mL of seawater no. 7 spiked with 200 Bq of 125 I and 200 Bq of 131 IO $_3$, 50 mg Ag $^+$, 0.30 mmol/L NaHSO $_3$).

variation of recovery of iodide in the coprecipitate with pH value of the seawater. At NaHSO $_3$ concentration of 0.30 mmol/L and addition of 50 mg of Ag $^+$ to 500 mL of seawater, more than 95% of iodide was coprecipitated when the pH value of the seawater was lower than 5.6. The recoveries of iodide in the coprecipitate decrease significantly to about 50% when the pH value of seawater increased to more than 5.9. Iodate was also coprecipitated when pH value of the seawater was lower than 4.2, and iodate in the precipitate increases with decreasing pH value. When the seawater was acidified to pH < 1.2, more than 95% of iodate in the seawater was coprecipitated. For speciation analysis of 129 I, the pH value of the seawater should be adjusted to 4.2–5.5 with an optimal value of 5.0.

The increased amount of iodate observed in the coprecipitate with deceased pH of seawater can be attributed to the reduction of iodate to iodide in the acidic medium because of addition of sulfite. The reduction capacity of sulfite increased with decreasing pH of solution. It has been found that, in a solution of pH < 2, sulfite can rapidly reduce iodate to iodide. This was also confirmed by anion-exchange chromatography. Seawater sample spiked with $^{125}\mathrm{IO_3}^-$ was adjusted to pH 1.0 after addition of NaHSO3 to 0.4 mmol/L and loaded on a strong anion-exchange column. No $^{125}\mathrm{I}$ was measured in the effluent, indicating all iodate was reduced to iodide, which was adsorbed on the column.

The significantly reduced recoveries of iodide in the precipitate at higher pH values of seawater might be attributed

to the difficulties in formation of Ag_2SO_3 at higher pH. In the solution, sulfite shows a weak acid, which can hydrolyze to HSO_3^- and H_2SO_3 , and the different species of sulfite and its hydrolysis products will reach equilibrium at a given pH. The sulfite and its hydrolysis product in solution were not measured in this work, Based on the formation constants³⁶ of these hydrolysis products $(\beta_1^H = [HSO_3^-]/[H^+][SO_3^{2-}])$, the distributions of different species of sulfite with pH were calculated by use of Visual MINTEQ software (Figure S-4, Supporting Information).

$$H^+ + SO_3^{2-} = HSO_3^- \qquad \beta_1^{H} = 10^{7.20}$$
 (7)

$$2H^+ + SO_3^{2-} = H_2SO_3 \qquad \beta_2^{H} = 10^{9.10}$$
 (8)

At pH > 4, only SO_3^{2-} and HSO_3^{-} exist, while at pH < 4, only H_2SO_3 and HSO_3^{-} exist. Therefore, high pH should favor the formation of Ag_2SO_3 . However, with increasing concentration of SO_3^{2-} , Ag^+ can form soluble complexes with SO_3^{2-} , such as $AgSO_3^{-}$, $Ag(SO_3)_2^{3-}$, and $Ag(SO_3)_3^{5-}$, These formation reactions and their formation constants³⁷ (e.g., β_1 = $[AgSO_3^{-}]/[Ag^+]$ $[SO_3^{2-}]$) are shown in eqs 9–11.

$$Ag^{+} + SO_{3}^{2-} = AgSO_{3}^{-} \qquad \beta_{1} = 10^{5.60}$$
 (9)

$$Ag^{+} + 2SO_{3}^{2-} = Ag(SO_{3})_{2}^{3-}$$
 $\beta_{1} = 10^{8.68}$ (10)

$$Ag^{+} + 3SO_{3}^{2-} = Ag(SO_{3})_{3}^{5-}$$
 $\beta_{1} = 10^{9.00}$ (11)

On the basis of the above theoretical calculation, it can be proposed that the significantly reduced recovery of iodide in precipitate for pH > 5.8 might be attributed to the increased fraction of soluble complex of Ag^+ and SO_3^{2-} ; consequently Ag_2SO_3 precipitate decreased in the seawater, causing less AgI to be carried to the precipitate. It should be mentioned that $NaHSO_3$ is not stable in acidic solution, and decomposed to sulfate. Therefore the solution should be adjusted to pH 1–2 when inorganic iodine (both iodide and iodate) is separated by coprecipitation to prevent the decomposition of most sulfite and formation of less Ag_2SO_3 in high acidic solution.

Influence of Amount of Ag⁺ and Coprecipitation Process. The recoveries of iodide in the coprecipitate increased with increasing amount of Ag⁺ added to seawater up to 80 mg/L. (Figure 4). To seawater containing 0.30 mmol/

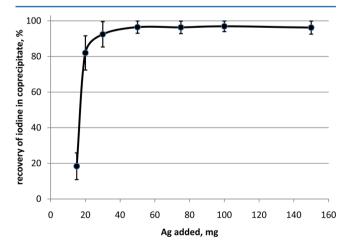


Figure 4. Influence of the amount of Ag^+ added on the coprecipitation of iodide (solution: 1000 mL of seawater no. 7 spiked with 200 Bq of $^{125}I^-$, 0.30 mmol/L NaHSO₃, pH 5.0).

Table 2. Comparison of Analytical Results for ¹²⁹I Species in Seawater from Norwegian Sea by Coprecipitation (Method 1) and Ion-Exchange Chromatography (Method 2)^a

	total inorganic 129 I, \times 10^6 atoms/L		$^{129}I^-$, × 10^6 atoms/L		$^{129}{\rm IO_3}^-$, $\times~10^6~{\rm atoms/L}$		sum of $^{129}\text{I}^-$ and $^{129}\text{IO}_3^-$, \times 10^6 atoms/L	
sample	method 1	method 2	method 1	method 2	method 1	method 2	method 1	method 2
SW-1	76.2 ± 2.4	74.1 ± 2.2	7.7 ± 1.5	8.2 ± 1.6	66.5 ± 2.1	65.2 ± 2.8	74.2 ± 2.6	73.4 ± 2.5
SW-2	102.1 ± 3.4	99.9 ± 3.1	23.1 ± 0.9	24.1 ± 0.9	78.9 ± 3.1	78.2 ± 2.6	102.0 ± 3.2	102.3 ± 2.8
SW-3	123.1 ± 3.7	119.5 ± 3.4	35.0 ± 4.4	35.2 ± 5.5	89.1 ± 6.9	90.2 ± 5.3	124.1 ± 5.3	125.4 ± 6.2
SW-4	142.3 ± 4.5	138.5 ± 3.8	23.1 ± 3.7	29.5 ± 4.6	117.2 ± 8.8	110.2 ± 4.9	143.3 ± 5.3	139.7 ± 5.7
SW-5	251.3 ± 7.7	248.7 ± 6.7	66.8 ± 14.7	73.8 ± 18.5	184.3 ± 8.6	174.2 ± 9.0	251.1 ± 15.7	248.0 ± 19.1
SW-6	249.2 ± 7.6	247.4 ± 6.7	67.9 ± 10.1	69.8 ± 13.5	179.6 ± 7.9	180.4 ± 7.1	247.5 ± 12.8	250.2 ± 15.1

"All data are presented as average \pm 1 SD of six measurements. t-Test of the pairs of results by two methods shows no significant difference between two methods at p = 0.05 (t < 2).

L NaHSO $_3$ and at pH 5.0, about 96% of iodide was coprecipitated when 100 mg/L Ag $^+$ was added. Due to the high excess of Cl $^-$ and Br $^-$ in seawater compared to Ag $^+$ added, the amount of precipitate is proportional to the amount of Ag $^+$ added to the sample. The small quantity of precipitate in a large volume of seawater (>500 mL) will cause a significant loss of AgI during separation of precipitate due to adsorption of precipitate on the wall of the centrifuge tube as well as plastic pipet. Therefore 100 mg/L Ag $^+$ is chosen for separation of iodine species from less than 1 L of seawater.

It was observed that the concentration of AgNO₃ added to seawater has a strong influence on the composition of the coprecipitate and recovery of iodide. When a relatively higher concentration of AgNO₃ (>0.5 mol/L) was used, the corresponding small volume of AgNO3 solution (<2 mL of AgNO₃ to 500 mL of seawater) added to the seawater will cause formation of a large fraction of AgCl in the coprecipitate and a significantly low recovery of iodide, down to less than 30%. This is because Ag+ added to the seawater will immediately be consumed by excess Cl- in the local area to form AgCl before it is completely mixed in the seawater, and iodide homogeneously distributed in seawater could not contact well with Ag+ ion to form AgI. Therefore a diluted AgNO₃ solution of 46 mmol/L (5 mg/mL Ag⁺) was applied in this work. In this case, 20 mL of diluted AgNO3 should be added to 1.0 L of seawater under stirring, which significantly improved the coprecipitation of AgI with Ag₂SO₃ and ensured a high recovery of iodide in the coprecipitate.

It was observed that only 60% of iodide was recovered when the precipitate was separated 10 min after addition of $AgNO_3$, and the recovery of iodide increases with extended time of stirring after addition of $AgNO_3$. When the stirring time was extended to 45 min, the recovery of iodide increased to more than 95%. This might be attributed to the slow process of adsorption of a tiny amount of AgI (<120 μg) onto Ag_2SO_3 and AgCI precipitates. When the seawater was stirred for more than 3 h, a decreased recovery of iodide in precipitate was obtained; this might be attributed to the decomposition of AgI and Ag_2SO_3 during long time stirring and exposure to light.

Direct centrifuge and settling overnight (10–15 h) were tested for separation of the precipitate from supernatant and the results show that both methods can be used, although a slightly higher recovery of iodide was obtained by direct centrifugation (>95%) compared to the settling method (>93%). In the settling method, after stirring, the solution was kept in the dark overnight, the supernatant was decanted, and the slurry was then centrifuged to separate the precipitate. The slightly higher loss of iodide in the settling method can be

attributed to the decanting step; a small amount of precipitate might be lost during decanting of the supernatant. Settling and decanting followed by centrifugation might be a suitable method for handling large numbers of samples, especially to treat a large volume of seawater (>1 L). However, the direct centrifugation method is suitable for handling samples less than 250 mL with a large centrifuge.

On the basis of the results and discussion presented above, it is therefore recommended that diluted AgNO₃ (25–75 mmol/L) should be slowly added to seawater that has been spiked with $^{125}I^-$ and NaHSO₃ to 0.2–0.4 μ mol/L and adjusted to pH 4.2–5.5 during stirring, and the solution should be stirred for 45–60 min before centrifugation or settling.

Preparation of Target for AMS Measurement of 1291. For AMS measurement of 129I, AgI or coprecipitate of AgI-AgCl-AgBr is mixed with niobium or silver powder in a mass ratio of 1:3 and pressed into a target holder. 34 Due to the fact that only 1-2 mg of precipitate is required to be pressed in the target holder for AMS measurement, the AgI in the obtained coprecipitate of more than 130 mg has to be separated from other precipitates, especially Ag₂SO₃ and AgCl. Otherwise only a very small percentage of AgI in the coprecipitate can be directly used for AMS measurement, consequently resulting in reduced signal intensity for ¹²⁷I current and ¹²⁹I counts. Because Ag₂SO₃ is not stable in acidic solution, it can be easily decomposed and removed by washing the coprecipitate with HNO₃. Our experiment showed that Ag₂SO₃ can be completely dissolved in HNO₃ solution of >1 mol/L, while precipitates of AgI, AgCl, and AgBr are stable and remained in the precipitate after acid wash. It is well-known that precipitates of AgCl and AgBr are soluble in ammonium solution, while AgI cannot be dissolved, even in concentrated ammonium. However if concentrated ammonium is used, AgCl and AgBr are rapidly dissolved, which will cause an invisible amount of AgI to be obtained. This might be attributed to the very small amount of iodine ($<65 \mu g/L$) in seawater compared to Cl and Br. To obtain a suitable amount of coprecipitate (1-3 mg) for AMS measurement, sequential washing of the coprecipitate was employed with 7.5%, 2.5%, and 1% ammonium. By this process, the amount of coprecipitate can be reduced to 1-3 mg without significant loss of AgI. The overall recovery of 70-85% for iodide has been obtained with 125I tracer. This indicates AgI remained during washing with different concentrations of ammonium, while most AgCl and AgBr was removed. The composition of the final obtained coprecipitate depends on the amount of the coprecipitate but should be a mixture of AgI, AgBr, and AgCl.

Speciation Analysis of ¹²⁹I in Seawater by the Developed Method. Because certified reference material of seawater for chemical species of ¹²⁹I is not available, the developed method was validated by analysis of six seawater samples collected from the Norwegian Sea by both the developed method and the conventional anion-exchange chromatography method (see Supporting Information for detailed separation procedure). ^{20,31} ¹²⁹I in the iodide, iodate, and total inorganic forms separated by two methods as AgI—AgCl or AgI were measured by AMS.

The concentrations of total inorganic ¹²⁹I, ¹²⁹I⁻, ¹²⁹IO₃⁻, and the sum of ¹²⁹I⁻ and ¹²⁹IO₃⁻ obtained by the two methods are presented in Table 2, which shows excellent agreement between the analytical results for ¹²⁹I species obtained by the developed coprecipitation method and those obtained by the conventional anion-exchange chromatographic method (p < 0.05 for t test). This confirms that the method presented here is reliable and suitable for speciation analysis of carrier-free ¹²⁹I in seawater.

In comparison with the previous reported method for 129I speciation analysis using anion-exchange chromatography, the major advantages of the method presented here are as follows: (1) ability to separate carrier-free 129I in iodide and iodate forms from seawater, which avoids introduction of external 129 I to samples from 127 carrier and reduces the analytical uncertainty for analysis of ultralow levels of ¹²⁹I; (2) singlestep separation, which makes the separation easy to operate and requires less chemicals; (3) addition of less chemicals, which reduces the possible contamination of external 129I from chemicals and thus improves the reliability of analytical results for low-level 129I samples; (4) easy operation and short procedure, which make the method suitable for in situ separation of 129I species on board sampling vessels during expedition, therefore reducing the risk of iodine species change during storage and transport of samples, as well as the risk of contamination by high ¹²⁹I levels, especially in Europe. In the meantime, this also reduced the cost of transportation of largevolume seawater samples.

It should be mentioned that in some seawater, such as estuarine and coastal seawater, organic iodine might be an important species of iodine. ^{23,33} The method discussed above can only measure iodide, iodate, and total inorganic iodine. To measure organic ¹²⁹I, a modified procedure has to be applied. Evaporation/freeze-drying followed by combustion has been applied to convert organic iodine to inorganic form for measurement of total ¹²⁹I and organic ¹²⁹I. However, this method is only suitable for fresh water with low salt content such as precipitation, lake, river, and groundwater. 33,37 For seawater, an ultrasonic-assisted dehydrohalogenation method using NaOH and ethanol under heating has been reported to decompose organic matter and convert organic iodine to inorganic forms. But this procedure is complicated and timeconsuming. A simple digestion procedure using K₂S₂O₈ at pH 1-2 has been developed in our laboratory to convert organic iodine in environmental water samples, including seawater, to inorganic forms.³⁸ By this procedure, organic iodine can be quantitatively converted to inorganic form, which can be then separated from water matrix by the coprecipitation method presented in this article for measurement of organic 129I.

The presented method also might be useful for preconcentration of iodine from seawater for the measurement of short-lived radioactive iodine (e.g., ¹³¹I, ¹³²I, ¹³³I), which is a very important issue for monitoring radioactive iodine contami-

nation in the seawater, especially during possible nuclear accidents. By this method, iodine can be easily concentrated from a large volume of seawater (e.g., 10 L) to a small size (1–2 g) to be measured by γ spectrometry, therefore improving the detection limit of these radionuclides by a factor of more than 100.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Additional text describing separation of iodine species by anion-exchange chromatography and solvent extraction; one table listing sampling information for seawater; and four figures showing schematic diagram of procedure for speciation analysis of ¹²⁹I by coprecipitation; distribution of iodide, chloride, and bromide precipitated as AgI, AgCl, and AgBr from seawater with Ag⁺ concentration simulated by use of Visual MINTEQ software; size distribution in precipitates of Ag₂SO₃, AgI, and AgCl; and distribution of species of SO₃²⁻, HSO₃⁻, and H₂SO₃ with pH value in solution. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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