

Strontium-90 is classified as high-level waste. The half life is long, around ¹⁵¹Sm 30 years. It can take hundreds of years to decay to negligible levels. Exposure from contaminated water and food may increase the risk of leukemia and bone cancer.^[7]

Remediation

Algae has shown selectivity for strontium in studies, where most plants used in bioremediation have not shown selectivity between calcium and strontium, often becoming saturated with calcium, which is greater in quantity and also present in nuclear waste.^[7]

Researchers have looked at the bioaccumulation of strontium by *Scenedesmus spinosus* (algae) in simulated wastewater. The study claims a highly selective biosorption capacity for strontium of *S. spinosus*, suggesting that it may be appropriate for use of nuclear wastewater.^[8]

A study of the pond alga *Closterium moniliferum* using non-radioactive strontium found that varying the ratio of barium to strontium in water improved strontium selectivity.^[7]

Biological effects

Biological activity

Strontium-90 is a "bone seeker" that exhibits biochemical behavior similar to calcium, the next lighter group 2 element.^{[3][9]} After entering the organism, most often by ingestion with contaminated food or water, about 70–80% of the dose gets excreted.^[2] Virtually all remaining strontium-90 is deposited in bones and bone marrow, with the remaining 1% remaining in blood and soft tissues.^[2] Its presence in bones can cause bone cancer, cancer of nearby tissues, and leukemia.^[10] Exposure to ⁹⁰Sr can be tested by a bioassay, most commonly by urinalysis.^[3]

The biological half-life of strontium-90 in humans has variously been reported as from 14 to 600 days,^{[11][12]} 1000 days,^[13] 18 years,^[14] 30 years^[15] and, at an upper limit, 49 years.^[16] The wide-ranging published biological half life figures are explained by strontium's complex metabolism within the body. However, by averaging all excretion paths, the overall biological half life is estimated to be about 18 years.^[17]

The elimination rate of strontium-90 is strongly affected by age and sex, due to differences in bone metabolism.^[18]

Together with the caesium isotopes ¹³⁴Cs, ¹³⁷Cs, and iodine isotope ¹³¹I, it was among the most important isotopes regarding health impacts after the Chernobyl disaster. As strontium has an affinity to the calcium-sensing receptor of parathyroid cells that is similar to that of calcium, the increased risk of liquidators of the Chernobyl power plant to suffer from primary hyperparathyroidism could be explained by binding of strontium-90.^[19]

Uses

Radioisotope thermoelectric generators (RTGs)

The radioactive decay of strontium-90 generates a significant amount of heat, 0.536 W/g in the form of pure strontium metal or approximately 0.256 W/g as strontium titanate^[20] and is cheaper than the alternative ²³⁸Pu. It is used as a heat source in many Russian/Soviet radioisotope thermoelectric generators, usually in the form of strontium titanate.^[21] It was also used in the US "Sentinel" series of RTGs.^[22]

Industrial applications

⁹⁰Sr finds use in industry as a radioactive source for thickness gauges.^[2]

Medical applications

⁹⁰Sr finds extensive use in medicine as a radioactive source for superficial radiotherapy of some cancers. Controlled amounts of ⁹⁰Sr and ⁸⁹Sr can be used in treatment of bone cancer, and to treat coronary restenosis via vascular brachytherapy. It is also used as a radioactive tracer in medicine and agriculture.^[2]

Aerospace applications

⁹⁰Sr is used as a blade inspection method in some helicopters with hollow blade spars to indicate if a crack has formed.^[23]

⁹⁰Sr contamination in the environment

Strontium-90 is not quite as likely as caesium-137 to be released as a part of a nuclear reactor accident because it is much less volatile, but is probably the most dangerous component of the radioactive fallout from a nuclear weapon.^[24]

A study of hundreds of thousands of deciduous teeth, collected by Dr. Louise Reiss and her colleagues as part of the Baby Tooth Survey, found a large increase in ⁹⁰Sr levels through the 1950s and early 1960s. The study's final results showed that children born in St. Louis, Missouri, in 1963 had levels of ⁹⁰Sr in their deciduous teeth that was 50 times higher than that found in children born in 1950, before the advent of large-scale atomic testing. Reviewers of the study predicted that the fallout would cause increased incidence of disease in those who absorbed strontium-90 into their bones.^[25] However, no follow up studies of the subjects have been performed, so the claim is untested.

An article with the study's initial findings was circulated to U.S. President John F. Kennedy in 1961, and helped convince him to sign the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty with the United Kingdom and Soviet Union, ending the above-ground nuclear weapons testing that placed the greatest amounts of nuclear fallout into the atmosphere.^[26]

The Chernobyl disaster released roughly 10 PBq, or about 5% of the core inventory, of strontium-90 into the environment.^[27] The Fukushima Daiichi disaster released 0.1 to 1 PBq of strontium-90 in the form of contaminated cooling water into the Pacific Ocean.^[28]

References

1. "Table of Isotopes decay data" (<http://nucleardata.nuclear.lu.se/toi/nuclide.asp?iZA=380090>). Lund University. Retrieved 2014-10-13.
2. "Strontium | Radiation Protection | US EPA" (<http://www.epa.gov/rpdweb00/radionuclides/strontium.html#environment>). EPA. 24 April 2012. Retrieved 18 June 2012.
3. *TOXICOLOGICAL PROFILE FOR STRONTIUM* (<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp159.pdf>) (PDF), Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, April 2004, retrieved 2014-10-13
4. Decay data from National Nuclear Data Center (<http://www.nndc.bnl.gov>) at the Brookhaven National Laboratory in the US.
5. Delacroix, D.; Guerre, J. P.; Leblanc, P.; Hickman, C. (2002). *Radionuclide and Radiation Protection Data Handbook 2002* (2nd ed.). Nuclear Technology Publishing. ISBN 978-1-870965-87-3.
6. "Livechart - Table of Nuclides - Nuclear structure and decay data" (<https://www-nds.iaea.org/relnsd/vcharthtml/VChartHTML.html>). IAEA. Retrieved 2014-10-13.
7. Potera, Carol (2011). "HAZARDOUS WASTE: Pond Algae Sequester Strontium-90" (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3114833/>). *Environ Health Perspect*. doi:10.1289/ehp.119-a244 (<https://doi.org/10.1289%2Fehp.119-a244>). PMID 21628117 (<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21628117>).
8. "Biosorption of Strontium from Simulated Nuclear Wastewater by *Scenedesmus spinosus* under Culture Conditions: Adsorption and Bioaccumulation Processes and Models" (<https://doi.org/10.3390%2Fijerph110606099>). *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2014. doi:10.3390/ijerph110606099 (<https://doi.org/10.3390%2Fijerph110606099>).

9. "NRC: Glossary -- Bone seeker" (<https://www.nrc.gov/reading-rm/basic-ref/glossary/bone-seeker.html>). US Nuclear Regulatory Commission. 7 May 2014. Retrieved 2014-10-13.
10. <https://dhss.delaware.gov/dhss/dph/files/strontiumfaq.pdf>
11. Tiller, B. L. (2001), "4.5 Fish and Wildlife Surveillance" (https://hanford-site.pnnl.gov/envreport/2001/env01_45.pdf) (PDF), *Hanford Site 2001 Environmental Report*, DOE, retrieved 2014-01-14
12. Driver, C.J. (1994), *Ecotoxicity Literature Review of Selected Hanford Site Contaminants* (<https://www.osti.gov/bridge/servlets/purl/10136486-6sLptZ/native/10136486.pdf>) (PDF), DOE, doi:10.2172/10136486 (<https://doi.org/10.2172%2F10136486>), retrieved 2014-01-14
13. "Freshwater Ecology and Human Influence" (<http://www.areaenvirothon.org/freshwaterecology.htm>). Area IV Envirothon. Retrieved 2014-01-14.
14. "Radioisotopes That May Impact Food Resources" (<http://www.epi.alaska.gov/eh/radiation/RadioisotopesInFood.pdf>) (PDF). Epidemiology, Health and Social Services, State of Alaska. Retrieved 2014-01-14.
15. "Human Health Fact Sheet: Strontium" (<http://www.gsseser.com/FactSheet/Strontium.pdf>) (PDF). Argonne National Laboratory. October 2001. Retrieved 2014-01-14.
16. "Biological Half-life" (<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/nuclear/biohalf.html>). HyperPhysics. Retrieved 2014-01-14.
17. Glasstone, Samuel; Dolan, Philip J. (1977). "XII: Biological Effects" (http://www.fourmilab.ch/etexts/www/effects/eonw_12.pdf) (PDF). *The effects of Nuclear Weapons*. p. 605. Retrieved 2014-01-14.
18. Shagina, N B; Bougrov, N G; Degteva, M O; Kozheurov, V P; Tolstykh, E I (2006). "An application of in vivo whole body counting technique for studying strontium metabolism and internal dose reconstruction for the Techa River population" (<https://doi.org/10.1088%2F1742-6596%2F41%2F1%2F048>). *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*. **41**: 433–440. Bibcode:2006JPhCS..41..433S (<https://ui.adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2006JPhCS..41..433S>). doi:10.1088/1742-6596/41/1/048 (<https://doi.org/10.1088%2F1742-6596%2F41%2F1%2F048>). ISSN 1742-6588 (<https://www.worldcat.org/issn/1742-6588>).
19. Boehm BO, Rosinger S, Belyi D, Dietrich JW (August 2011). "The Parathyroid as a Target for Radiation Damage". *New England Journal of Medicine*. **365** (7): 676–678. doi:10.1056/NEJMc1104982 (<https://doi.org/10.1056%2FNEJMc1104982>). PMID 21848480 (<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21848480>).
20. Harris, Dale; Epstein, Joseph (1968), *Properties of Selected Radioisotopes* (https://ntrs.nasa.gov/archive/nasa/casi.ntrs.nasa.gov/19680020487_1968020487.pdf) (PDF), NASA
21. Standing, WJF; Selnaes, ØG; Sneve, M; Finne, IE; Hosseini, A; Amundsen, I; Strand, P (2005), *Assessment of environmental, health and safety consequences of decommissioning radioisotope thermal generators (RTGs) in Northwest Russia* (<http://www.nrpa.no/dav/c600d1d288.pdf>) (PDF), Østerås: Norwegian Radiation Protection Authority
22. "Power Sources for Remote Arctic Applications" (http://govinfo.library.unt.edu/ota/Ota_1/DATA/1994/9423.PDF) (PDF). Washington, DC: U.S. Congress, Office of Technology Assessment. June 1994. OTA-BP-ETI-129.
23. "Wireless blade monitoring system and process" (<https://patents.google.com/patent/US7176812B1/en>).
24. "Nuclear Fission Fragments" (<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/nucene/fisfrag.html#c5>). HyperPhysics. Retrieved 18 June 2012.
25. Schneir, Walter (April 25, 1959). "Strontium-90 in U.S. Children". *The Nation*. **188** (17): 355–357.
26. Hevesi, Dennis. "Dr. Louise Reiss, Who Helped Ban Atomic Testing, Dies at 90" (<https://www.nytimes.com/2011/01/10/science/10reiss.html>), *The New York Times*, January 10, 2011. Accessed January 10, 2011.
27. "II: The release, dispersion and deposition of radionuclides" (<https://www.oecd-nea.org/rp/chernobyl/c02.html>), *Chernobyl: Assessment of Radiological and Health Impacts* (<https://www.oecd-nea.org/rp/reports/2003/nea3508-chernobyl.pdf>) (PDF), NEA, 2002
28. Povinec, P. P.; Aoyama, M.; Biddulph, D.; et al. (2013). "Cesium, iodine and tritium in NW Pacific waters – a comparison of the Fukushima impact with global fallout" (<https://doi.org/10.5194%2Fbg-10-5481-2013>). *Biogeosciences*. **10** (8): 5481–5496. Bibcode:2013BGeo...10.5481P (<https://ui.adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/2013BGeo...10.5481P>). doi:10.5194/bg-10-5481-2013 (<https://doi.org/10.5194%2Fbg-10-5481-2013>). ISSN 1726-4189 (<https://www.worldcat.org/issn/1726-4189>).

External links

- NLM Hazardous Substances Databank – Strontium, Radioactive (<http://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/cgi-bin/sis/search/r?dbs+hsdb:@term+@na+@rel+strontium,+radioactive>)

This page was last edited on 1 April 2021, at 10:25 (UTC).

Text is available under the Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike License; additional terms may apply. By using this site, you agree to the Terms of Use and Privacy Policy. Wikipedia® is a registered trademark of the Wikimedia Foundation, Inc., a non-profit organization.