### Report

on

## UGC Major Research Project

Recovery and utilization of metal values from waste streams using precipitation-stripping technique.

Dr. Bina Sengupta
Principal Investigator
Chemical Engineering Department
Faculty of Technology and Engineering
The M.S. University of Baroda
Vadodara

1. NAME AND ADDRESS OF THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Bina Sengupta

Chemical Engineering Department Faculty of Technology and Engineering The M.S. University of Baroda Vadodara

2. NAME AND ADDRESS OF THE INSTITUTION: The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda

Faculty of Technology and Engineering

3. UGC APPROVAL NO. AND DATE:

F.No. 41-367/2012(SR) dtd. 17 July 2012

4. DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION

1/7/12

5. TENURE OF THE PROJECT :6. TOTAL GRANT ALLOCATED

Three Years 15,89,900/-

7. TOTAL GRANT RECEIVED

11,90,800/-

8. FINAL EXPENDITURE

12.45.769/

9. TITLE OF THE PROJECT

12,45,768/-

Recovery and utilization of metal values from waste streams using precipitationstripping technique.

### 10. OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT

- The objective of the work is to recover heavy metals like nickel, cadmium, zinc, cobalt, copper etc from their waste streams using suitable extractants (chelating, organophosphorous acids etc.) and precipitate them using oxalic acid, sodium oxalate, ammonium oxalate so as to convert the metals to their respective oxalates using the precipitation- stripping technique.
- To determine the induction periods for precipitation using different precipitating agents and study their effect on the size and morphology of the different metal oxalates synthesized.
- To study the effect of various parameters like extractant concentration, initial metal
  concentration in the feed, stripping acid/oxalate concentration and mole ratio (M)
  of metal to oxalic acid on the yield, morphology, and the size of metal oxalates
  obtained.
- To compare the morphology, size and size distribution of metal oxalates prepared by simple precipitation with those prepared by the precipitation stripping technique.
- To optimize the conditions so as to obtain a unimodal narrow particle size distribution of the oxalate particles.
- Carry out controlled calcinations of the metal oxalates to yield the commercially valuable metal oxides.
- Prepare mixed metal oxides.
- · Use the prepared oxides for specific applications.

### 11. WHETHER OBJECTIVES WERE ACHIEVED

All the defined objectives were achieved.

- Heavy metals like copper, zinc, nickel, cadmium were extracted using Chelating (LIX 84IC) and organophosphorous extractant (D2EHPA) from (i) spent and rinse brass pickling liquors in chloride media, (ii)copper from ammoniacal spent Printed Circuit Board (PCB) etch solutions, (iii) Nickel from spectacle plating wastes and recovered as their respective oxalates using the precipitation- stripping technique.
- The effect of extractant concentration, initial metal concentration in the feed, stripping acid/oxalate concentration and mole ratio (M) of metal to oxalic acid on the yield, morphology, size and size distribution of metal oxalates obtained was studied.
- Unimodal narrow particle size distribution of the oxalate particles was achieved when precipitation-stripping was carried out using oxalic acid in presence of alcohol.
- Controlled calcinations of the metal oxalates yielded commercially valuable metal oxides.
- Mixed metal oxides of copper and zinc were also obtained.
- Copper oxide was used as catalyst for reduction of nitrobenzene to aniline. Copper and zinc oxide were tested for antibacterial activity.

### 12. ACHIEVEMENTS FROM THE PROJECT

- 1. Development of processes for metal recovery from waste streams
- 2. Creation of new knowledge
- 3. Academic development of research workers and students

### 13. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

Heavy metals in aqueous streams and water bodies from the effluents of metal plating industries, hydrometallurgical applications, battery manufacturing units, spent catalyst units etc. poses considerable health hazard to humankind and it is imperative to treat the wastes to mitigate the hazard. An ever increasing demand of metals is leading to the fast depletion of their resources. Environmental and economic considerations make it imperative to recover these metals from waste waters.

In the present investigation, process for metal recovery from (i) spent and rinse brass pickling liquors in chloride media, (ii) copper from ammoniacal spent Printed Circuit Board (PCB)

etch solutions, (iii) Nickel from spectacle plating wastes is developed. Almost 99% + metal recovery was achieved in all the cases thereby releasing the aqueous streams free of metals from the brass units or recirculating the spent /rinse liquors for pickling. The ammoniacal etch solution after copper recovery could be reused again for the etching process in PCB units.

Metals were extracted using LIX 84IC and D2EHPA as extractants. Precipitation-stripping (PS) of the extracted metals was carried out using oxalic acid and metals were recovered as their oxalates. Effect of stripping time, oxalic acid concentration, agitation speed, addition of ethanol in the stripping media on the yield of oxalates obtained was investigated. After extraction and stripping in a single stage the extractants were further stripped with sulfuric acid to strip off any residual metal in the organic phase for reuse. The extractants could be used for ten cycles without any substantial decline in their extraction ability.

Theoretical background for the precipitation stripping technique was developed. Solubility diagrams were developed to determine the soluble oxalate species. Modelling of the PS process, validation of the prediction of recoveries experimentally and theoretically was also performed.

PS resulted in a bimodal and wide particle size distribution. However, unimodal particle size distribution was obtained when the process was carried out in presence of ethanol. Calcination of the metal oxalate particles under controlled conditions resulted in the formation of oxides. The oxalates on transformation to the oxide did not lose its ordered structure.

The particles obtained were characterised using XRD, FTIR, EDX and XRF analysis. FESEM was used to study the morphology of the particles obtained. Morphology of the copper oxalate particles were cushion shaped whereas zinc oxalate particles had sharp edges which were built layer by layer whereas nickel oxalate exhibited a cubic morphology. Size distribution of the particles was determined using a laser diffraction Particle size analyser.

Copper oxide obtained was used as a catalyst for the reduction of nitrobenzene to aniline. The performance of the oxide was the same as that observed when the reaction was carried out using copper oxide procured from Sigma Aldrich. The antibacterial activity of copper oxide and zinc oxide were evaluated against four gram negative and one gram positive bacteria. Both the oxides exhibited

antibacterial activity. The diameter of the inhibition zone which reflects the susceptibility of the microorganism was higher for copper oxide.

Developing appropriate technologies to process such metal containing effluent streams gives us an opportunity to fulfil the twin goals of environmental sustainability and economic gain in terms of the recovered metals for reuse.

### 14. CONTRIBUTION TO THE SOCIETY

The complete project has been formulated keeping in view societal needs of developing alternative technologies on a commercial scale with low capital investment to recover heavy metals. The process developed could find application in recovering heavy metals from waste waters from plating industries, PCB manufacturing units, metal pickling industries etc.

Brass on exposure to atmosphere undergoes surface discolouration, called tarnish, due to formation of a thin oxide layer that needs to be removed to impart its lustrous look. Cleaning and finishing process to remove tarnish and oxide layer formed on industrial brass components subjected to heat treatment process involves stages of acid wash (pickling)and water rinse. The pickling bath is used till the acid concentration declines to such a low value that the time required for tarnish removal becomes large and uneconomical for operation, resulting in a substantial metal build up in the pickle liquor.

The metal loaded pickle liquor and rinse waters are often discharged to sewers without any treatment. Most of the industrial brass component manufacturers are small scale producers and the decorative artefacts and articles are mostly produced in cottage industries. Such producers are handicapped by ignorance, lack of awareness and lack of resources to effectively treat the wastes. The process developed in this project is user friendly and can be implemented at low capital investment to recover main components of brass in pickle liquor, copper and zinc.

Electronic devices are built on the foundation of Printed Circuit Boards (PCBs) which carries the electronic architecture of the device with copper as the main conducting material. Etching is one of the major steps in the chemical processing of subtractive PCB process. Almost 1.5–3.5 L of waste etchant is generated per square meter of PCB produced. More than 70 thousand tons of copper goes in waste etching solution each year. In PCB manufacturing there are a very large number of small scale producers, who need appropriate technologies to

be able to process their streams and recover the metal values from them. Hence, recovery of copper from PCB etch solutions using this technique is very relevant to local business for environmental sustenance and could yield commercial benefit as well by recovering copper as copper oxide and regenerating the etchant for reuse.

15. WHETHER ANY PH.D. ENROLLED/PRODUCED OUT OF THE PROJECT

One PhD and two Masters Projects completed

16. NO. OF PUBLICATIONS OUT OF THE PROJECT

Two papers from this investigation are published in Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering, Elsevier Publications.

- Khyati Shah, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta, Reclamation of copper from spent ammoniacal Printed Circuit Board (PCB) etch solutions *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, 6, 2018, 2874-2880.
- Khyati Shah, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta, Selective separation of copper and zinc from spent chloride brass pickle liquors using solvent extraction and metal recovery by precipitation-stripping, *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, 5, 2017, 5260-5
- Very recently one paper titled "Role of ethanol on particle size and morphology during copper oxalate synthesis by Precipitation-Stripping" is accepted in *Powder Technology* Journal, Elsevier Publications.

One paper presented at international conference and in proceedings published by Elsevier Publications

 Himanshu Kohli, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta, Zinc Recovery from Smelter Waste Waters as Zinc Oxide Particles using Precipitation-Stripping Technique, Proceedings of the International Conference on "Advances in Chemical Engineering & Technology" October 2014, Page No. 45-49, Elsevier Publications. ISBN: 9789351072843.

> Principal Investigator UGC Major Research Project

( Principal Investigator) and infization of metal values....Precipitation-Stripping Engineering Department, The M.S. University of Barida

Head.

Chemical Engineering Department

HEAD CHEMICAL ENGG. DEPT. FACULTY OF TECH. & ENGG. M. S. UNIVERSITY, BARODA Dean

Faculty of Technology and Engineering

Dean Faculty of Tech. & Engg.

M. S. University of Baroda,

The Maharaja Sakajing Iniversity of Baroda

Regustrar (o.16)
The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda
Vadodara. - (Guj) INDIA

FISEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering

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



Research Paper

### Selective separation of copper and zinc from spent chloride brass pickle liquors using solvent extraction and metal recovery by precipitationstripping



Khyati Shah, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta\*

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Technology and Engineering, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara, India

### ARTICLE INFO

# Keywords: Brass pickling solution Copper and zinc solvent extraction Metal ions recovery by precipitation-stripping Copper oxalate/zinc oxalate recovery

### ABSTRACT

Copper and zinc were recovered from spent chloride brass pickle liquor using solvent extraction and precipitation-stripping. Speciation diagrams reveal that bivalent copper and zinc and their monovalent chlorocomplexes were present in the liquor. Copper was extracted by hydroxyoxime LIX84IC in kerosene while zinc was extracted using D2EHPA. 98.8% copper was extracted at an equilibrium pH of 2.5 using 30% v/v LIX 84IC whereas 98.3% zinc was extracted at an equilibrium pH of 2 using 15% v/v D2EHPA. Precipitation-stripping of loaded organic phase using oxalic acid resulted in recovery of copper and zinc as water insoluble oxalates. Solubility plots developed on theoretical considerations for copper-oxalic acid and zinc-oxalic acid system predicted the yield of precipitates in close agreement with experimental values. 97.3% of both copper and zinc present in the pickle liquor were recovered as their oxalates. The organic phase could be used for multiple cycles. Calcinations of the oxalates to their oxides did not induce any change in the ordered structure observed in oxalates. Morphology of the precipitates revealed highly agglomerated particles. Copper oxide 100% pure and zinc oxide with 99.1% purity were obtained as value added products. A process flow diagram of the proposed scheme is presented that could be implemented to generate wealth from waste.

### 1. Introduction

Brass, an alloy of copper and zinc finds wide application due to its unique combination of properties such as strength, malleability, and good thermal conductivity. It can be easily cast to shape and used for costume jewellery, decorative trims and other similar applications because of its bright gold like appearance. India is well known for its brass jewellery, artefacts and industrial components. Brass on exposure to atmosphere undergoes surface discolouration, called tarnish, due to formation of a thin oxide layer that needs to be removed to impart its lustrous look. Cleaning and finishing process to remove tarnish and oxide layer formed on industrial brass components subjected to heat treatment process involves stages of acid wash and water rinse [1]. Acid wash with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> is more common but many processors prefer to use HCl since it reacts quickly, preferentially attacks the oxide layer, prevents pitting and the pickling baths can be operated at ambient temperatures. The pickling bath is used till the acid concentration declines to such a low value that the time required for tarnish removal becomes large and uneconomical for operation, resulting in a substantial metal build up in the pickle liquor.

The metal loaded pickle liquor and rinse waters are often discharged to sewers without any treatment. Heavy metals in discharge waters pose considerable threat as they enter the aquatic ecosystem where they bio-accumulate and bio-magnify in the food chain and become toxic for living organisms at higher tropic levels in nature [2]. Although copper and zinc are essential nutrients for various enzymatic reactions, but at high concentrations both aquatic as well as human life are adversely affected. Hence, recovery of these metals is not only important from the point of view of pollution abatement but also results in profit by recycling of the metals.

A continuous research effort is focussed on developing options for the recovery of metals from aqueous waste streams and a number of processes are also available [3]. Around 30% of zinc and 40% of copper produced in the world arises from recycling of secondary sources. Recovery of copper and zinc from brass ash, brass dross and slag, brass flue dust, soil contaminated from brass industry and brass pickle liquors using different techniques is reported in Table 1 [4–15].

Solvent extraction (SX) is the dominant hydrometallurgical process to recover copper from ores as well as secondary sources. Selective extraction of copper using chelating extractants is well known from

E-mail address: bina\_msu@yahoo.co.in (B. Sengupta).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

Table 1
Recovery of copper and zinc from brass components/pickle liquors.

Sr. No.	Brass component	Treatment technique	Recovered as	Reference
1.	Brass ash	Leaching with Ionic liquid	Copper and zinc solution in Ionic liquid	[4]
		Carbothermal recovery by graphite treatment of ash in temperature controlled tube furnace	Metallic zinc and zinc oxide	[5]
		Beneficiation by acidic or/and alkaline leachant	Cement copper and zinc sulphate solution	[6]
		Solvent extraction using 20% LIX84 and 0.25 M NH <sub>4</sub> D2EHPA in kerosene	Copper and zinc pregnant electrolyte	[7]
2.	Industrial brass dross	Ionic liquid oxidative leaching	Copper and zinc	[8]
3.	Brass Slag	Leaching with sulfuric acid	Spongy copper powder, zinc sulphate crystals	[9]
		Hydrometallurgical treatment using acid or alkali leachant	Copper salts and zinc salts	[10]
4.	Brass flue dust	Briquetting with coke and reduction in tube furnace to recover zinc using vaporization and condensation	Zinc and zinc oxide	[11]
5.	Industrial brass wastes, brass ash and flue dust	Combined pyro-hydrometallurgical treatment	Copper master alloy, metallic zinc	[12]
6.	Brass filings	Acid leaching with an oxidizing agent	Copper oxychloride and zinc hydroxide	[13]
7.	Brass pickle liquor	Solvent extraction using 30% LIX 984N in kerosene	Copper and zinc oxide powder	[14]
		Solvent extraction using 30% Versatic acid and 20% CYANEX 272 in kerosene	Copper sulphate solution, zinc sulphate solution	[15]

sulphate, chloride and nitrate media [16]. Copper hydrometallurgy and extraction from chloride media is discussed in detail by Szymanowski [17]. Chelating extractants LIX64N [18], LIX 65NHS [19], and LIX 860N IC and LIX84 IC [20,21] have been reported for copper extraction from chloride media.

SX techniques are widely used for upgrading and purification of zinc streams. Zincex and the modified Zincex process used for the extraction of zinc from sulphate media are also suited for recovery of zinc from secondary sources such as zinc ash and brass ash [22]. Extraction of zinc using acidic, basic, solvating and mixed extractants from chloride solutions is reviewed by Jha et al. [23]. Zinclor process for zinc recovery from chloride media is used for the treatment of pickle liquors and effluents from surface treatment plants [24]. Both copper and zinc have also been extracted from chloride media using alkyl-8-hydroxyquinoline [25], Kelex 100 [26,27] and mixed extractants [28].

In conventional SX, metal reclamation from organic phase is by stripping with a strong acid followed by electrowinning. However, if loaded metal ions are stripped from the organic phase using oxalic acid, it results in precipitating the metal as a water insoluble metal oxalate. The metal gets stripped by hydrogen ions and is subsequently precipitated by oxalate anions. A combination of precipitation-stripping stages achieves complete stripping of metal ions at lower acidity than conventional stripping [29]. This method has been used for preparation of rare earth oxalates [30,31], nickel oxalate [32] and zinc oxalate [33]. Oxalates are often used as precursors for oxides in the synthesis of nanomaterials and high temperature superconductive ceramic materials as they can retain the nanostructure, particle shape and crystalline arrangement after thermal decomposition [34].

The present investigation is focused on recovery of copper and zinc from spent chloride pickle liquors generated from brass artefacts manufacturing units using solvent extraction and precipitation-stripping. The extracted metal values were precipitated as their oxalates and subsequently calcined and converted to their respective oxides. The optimum conditions for the maximum recovery of the metals as their oxalates were also determined. Metal oxalates and oxides were characterized for their morphology and purity. Flow sheet of the process for the recovery of copper and zinc as their respective oxides is proposed.

### 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

Brass pickle liquor was collected from an industry in Rajkot, India.

LIX 84 IC (Cognis, Ireland) and D2EHPA (Merck Specialties Private Limited, Germany) were used as metal extractants. Commercial kerosene (B.P- 152–271 °C) used as the solvent was supplied by Indian Oil Corporation Limited. Other reagents, sodium hydroxide, oxalic acid and sulphuric acid used were of AR grade.

### 2.2. Methods

The metal composition of the pickle liquor was determined using Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) (Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV). The chloride, sulphate and nitrate concentrations were determined by chemical analysis based on the APHA standard methods for examination of water and waste water. Argentometric method was used for chloride determination as per APHA: (4500 Cl<sup>-</sup> B) [35], Turbidimetric method was used for sulphate determination as per APHA (4500 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> E) [35] and Chromotropic acid method was used for nitrate determination as per APHA: (418-D) [36]. The values of the chloride, sulphate and nitrate concentrations determined are reported in Table 2. Extraction was carried out in shake flasks at equal organic and aqueous volumes (100 ml each) on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at 150 rpm and 30 °C. The organic phase for copper extraction consisted of LIX 84IC (7.5-30% v/v) in kerosene as diluent while for zinc extraction the organic phase was D2EHPA (5-15% v/v) in kerosene. Sodium hydroxide was added for pH adjustment before each equilibrium condition. The concentration of the metals was determined using Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (Chemito AA203) for copper at 324.7 nm, zinc at 213.86 nm and iron at

Table 2
Composition of brass pickle liquor.

Component	Concentration (g/L)
Cu	20
Zn	12.6
Fe	0.131
Ni	0.1
Na	7.4
Ca	0.226
Mg	0.099
Al	0.118
Sn	0.124
Chlorides	10.968
Sulphates	0.009
Nitrates	< 0.1 mg/L
рН	0.25

248.3 nm.

After extraction the organic phase was separated, scrubbed with water and contacted with an equal volume of oxalic acid at concentrations ranging from 0.3 M to 1.0 M. Precipitation-stripping was carried out in shake flasks with equal volume of organic and aqueous phase (100 ml each) on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at 30 °C and 150 rpm. After stripping, the organic phase and aqueous phase containing the metal oxalate was separated. The metal oxalate precipitate was separated from the aqueous phase by centrifugation, washed with 2-propanol and dried in an air oven at 60°C. The organic phase was further stripped with sulphuric acid to recover any residual metal present and contacted with fresh pickle liquor a number of times to evaluate the efficacy of extraction in different cycles. The oxalate precipitates were calcined under controlled conditions in a tube furnace (Ants Ceramics) to obtain the respective metal oxides. The heating rate was 5 °C/min. After attaining the desired temperature the material was soaked for three hours. Copper oxalate calcinations were carried out at 400 °C while zinc oxalate calcinations were at 440 °C.

### 2.3. Analytical techniques

Precipitated metal oxalates and their respective oxides were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a PAN Analytical Xpert Pro diffractometer using Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation at  $\lambda$  value of 1.54°A. Infrared spectroscopic analysis of the metal oxalate and oxide and the organic phase before and after extraction was performed over a frequency range of 400–4000 cm $^{-1}$  with 32 scans using Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS5 spectrophotometer with iD1 transmission. Thermogravimetric analysis of the oxalates was performed at a heating rate of 20 °C/min in an oxygen atmosphere on a Shimadzu thermal analyser (50 GA). EDX (Oxford Instruments) analysis was performed to detect the metals present in the precipitates formed. The morphology of the oxalate and oxide particles was determined using Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) (Zeiss Supra 40).

### 3. Results and discussion

Metal extraction in multi-solute systems depends on the physicochemical properties and the nature of the metal species present in the solution; these factors influence the selection of metal extractants and design of the processing scheme. The spent pickle liquor obtained from industrial sources had an initial pH value of 0.25 with a chloride content of 10.968 g/L, sulphate content 0.009 g/L and nitrate content less than 0.1 mg/L. The initial metal composition determined by ICP analysis is shown in Table 2.

### 3.1. Metal ions in chloride media

Extraction of metals from solutions containing chloride ions is complex. Most of the transition metals form chlorocomplexes with metal ions; the chlorocomplexes formed depends on the chloride concentration. The presence of chlorocomplexes increases the  $pH_{0.5}$  and the equilibrium shifts towards higher chlorocomplexes as the chloride concentration increases [17]. Eq. (1) is the general expression for the formation of chlorocomplexes based on the chloride concentration in the aqueous phase [26].

$$M^{2+} + nCl^{-} \to MCl_n^{2-n} \tag{1}$$

The stability constant  $(\beta_n)$  of the chlorocomplex is given by Eq. (2)

$$\beta_n = \frac{[MCl_n^{2-n}]}{[M^{2+}][Cl^{-}]^n}, n = 1 - 4$$
(2)

Fig. 1 shows the chlorocomplexes of copper and zinc present in the pickle liquor. Theoretically it is possible to determine the percentage of species present in the aqueous solution based on the formation

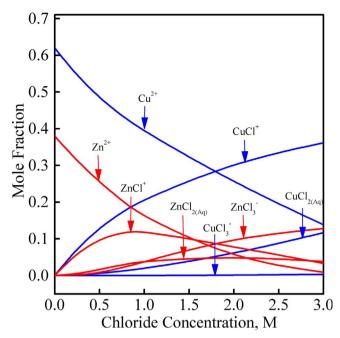


Fig. 1. Speciation diagram of copper and zinc in pickle liquor.

constants. The speciation of the pickle liquor having copper concentration 20 g/L (0.314 M) and zinc concentration 12.6 g/L (0.192 M) at varying chloride concentrations was evaluated using *Visual MINTEQ 3.1* operating platform. At initial chloride concentration of 10.968 g/L both copper and zinc exist largely as the bivalent cationic species  $(Cu^{2+}, Zn^{2+})$  followed by the monovalent specie  $(CuCl^{+} \text{ and } ZnCl^{+})$  and a very small fraction as the neutral specie  $(CuCl^{2} \text{ and } ZnCl_{2})$ . The monovalent specie  $(CuCl^{+})$  is the first chlorocomplex formed in solutions containing low chloride concentrations ( $\sim 1$  M) and is capable of cation exchange [37], higher chloride concentrations in solutions lead to formation of trivalent and higher chlorocomplexes of the metals. Zinc chlorocomplexes are more stable than copper as observed from their higher stability constants [26].

### 3.2. Extraction of copper using LIX 84 IC

LIX 84I a moderately strong chelating copper extractant selectively extracts copper over other metal ions with maximum extraction at pH 2-2.5 [38]. Extraction by chelation is an acid-base reaction wherein the oxime molecules donate protons in exchange for copper ions and the reaction takes place at the oil — water interface. The unpaired d orbital of copper is primarily responsible for complexation through electron pair of O and N atoms of the extractant molecules. The extraction of copper using hydroxyoximes is represented as

$$Cu^{2+} + 2RH \leftrightarrow CuR_2 + 2H^+ \tag{3}$$

The formation of chlorocomplexes can affect the extraction of copper with hydroxyoximes in two ways; by reducing the concentration of the divalent Cu<sup>2+</sup> cationic species and by the possibility of extracting the monovalent cationic complex, CuCl <sup>+</sup>, or even the neutral CuCl<sub>2</sub> complex [20]. Zhou et al. [19] in their study on extraction of copper using LIX 65NHS explained the extraction of CuCl<sup>+</sup> by two possible mechanisms both leading to the formation of *CuR*<sub>2</sub> complex.

$$Mechanism (1) CuCl_i^+ + RH_{ad} \leftrightarrow CuRCl_{ad} + H_i^+ (4)$$

$$CuRCl_{ad} + RH_i \leftrightarrow CuR_{2ad} + H_i^+ + Cl_i^-$$
(5)

Mechanism (2) 
$$CuCl_i^+ + RH_{ad} \leftrightarrow CuR_{ad}^+ + H_i^+ + Cl_i^-$$
 (6)

$$CuR_{ad}^{+} + RH_{i} \leftrightarrow CuR_{2ad} + H_{i}^{+} \tag{7}$$

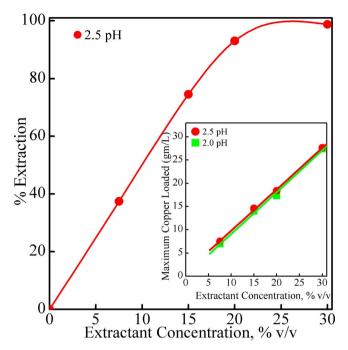


Fig. 2. Effect of LIX 84 IC concentration on copper extraction. (Inset: Maximum copper loading for LIX84IC in kerosene).

Most of the investigations on extraction of metals have been performed under experimental conditions that are deemed to be ideal, for single metal species at dilute concentration and extractant concentration in far excess than stoichiometric requirements. However, in reality situation is quite different. The extraction behaviour, the stoichiometric requirement and the presence of other metals all influence the extraction of metals. In the present study the industrial pickle liquor was used and metal extraction equilibria was determined under prevailing conditions.

Copper extraction was carried out using LIX 84IC at concentrations ranging from 7.5% v/v to 30% v/v. An increase in the extractant concentration resulted in an increase in copper extraction (Fig. 2) and at 30% v/v extractant concentration, 98.8% of initial copper present was extracted at an equilibrium pH of 2.5. The maximum loading capacity of LIX 84IC at an equilibrium pH value of 2 is found to be 0.9 g/L per 1% v/v of extractant as observed from the slope of the linear plot, maximum copper extracted vs extractant concentration (v/v), shown in Fig. 2 (inset). This is higher than the value of 0.7 reported for copper extraction from hydrochloride solutions at 2 pH using LIX 84IC [20] and 0.74 for copper removal from electroplating rinse bath solutions with high chloride concentrations in the equilibrium pH range of 1.7-2.1 using LIX 984NC [39].

The effect of pH on extraction for LIX84IC concentration from 15% v/v to 30%v/v is shown in Fig. 3. An increase in the extractant concentration, results in an increase in the percentage extraction and a decrease in pH<sub>0.5</sub> value. The plots of distribution coefficient vs equilibrium pH (Fig. 3, inset) is linear at all extractant concentrations, but the slope values are considerably lower than the theoretical value of 2, that is expected if the mechanism of extraction is exclusively by Eq. (3). Slope value of 2 in the plot of log D vs pH indicates binding of two oxime molecules with a single Cu<sup>2+</sup> ion. Slope value of two is observed under ideal conditions when the concentration of extractant is in considerable excess to that of the metal ion [40]. Reduction in slope values could also occur due to the transfer of the monovalent ions (CuCl<sup>+</sup>) along with the bivalent ions (Cu<sup>2+</sup>). At low pH values CuCl<sup>+</sup> competes with Cu<sup>2+</sup> whereas at higher pH values only Cu<sup>2+</sup> is extracted [20].

Navarro and Ruiz [20] showed that LIX860NIC and to a lesser extent LIX84IC, extract CuCl<sup>+</sup>. Earlier, LIX 63 was shown to transfer chlorocomplexes to organic phase [41]. Lakshmanan and Lawson [40]

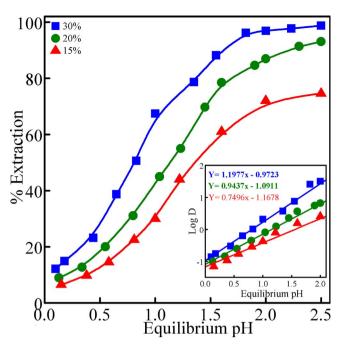


Fig. 3. Copper extraction using LIX84IC vs equilibrium pH at varying extractant concentrations. (Inset: Log D vs. equilibrium pH).

reported that LIX 64N and LIX 70 do not transfer CuCl<sup>+</sup> to the organic phase. The slope of log D vs pH obtained in this investigation points to the plausibility that the mechanism of extraction is perhaps not governed exclusively by Eq. (3), leaving scope for the transfer of CuCl<sup>+</sup> to the oil phase or being adsorbed at the interface after bonding as per Eq. (4) resulting in slope value markedly less than 2.

In such a situation less than two hydroxyoxime molecules bind with the copper ions, and consequently would lead to considerably greater extent of copper extraction. However, there is no convincing evidence to suggest that the decline in slope values is due to the transfer of CuCl<sup>+</sup> except that fairly large amount of copper was extracted. It is worthwhile noting that chloride uptake during extraction of metals has a deleterious effect during metal recovery by electrowinning, hence alternative recovery techniques must be considered for such cases.

Due to intermolecular hydrogen bonding hydroxyoximes have tendency to form dimers [42]. In the extraction environment hydroxyoxime molecules as well as their dimers could bind with copper. Hydroxyoxime dimerization can be ignored in solutions of aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons in hydroxyoxime concentration range of 0.01 and 0.1  $\text{mol/dm}^3$  [42]. In the current investigation the hydroxyoxime concentration was much higher than this range.

Szymanowski [42] reported that in the IR spectra of 2- hydroxyl 5-alkylbenzaldehyde oxime the monomeric N–OH group manifests at 3580 cm<sup>-1</sup> and the band at 3420 cm<sup>-1</sup> is for the associated species and similar values were observed for other oximes. This finding was corroborated by Albrecht et al. [43] in their study on oximes and clusters by supersonic jet spectroscopy using IR direct absorption and Raman Scattering techniques and reported that for oxime the monomer peaks were at 3657 cm<sup>-1</sup> and monomer/dimer peaks at 3364 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

In the present investigation the infrared spectra for oxime in kerosene (organic phase), as well as the maximum copper loaded organic phase with extractant concentrations ranging from 7.5% to 30% v/v are shown in Fig. 4. The band due to N–OH monomeric group and the monomer/dimer were observed  $\sim 3593~{\rm cm}^{-1}$  and  $\sim 3375~{\rm cm}^{-1}$  respectively. The bands associated with stretching vibrations of the C–H bonds in CH $_2$  and CH $_3$  groups are in the range of 2960–2850 cm $^{-1}$ . The absorption bands at 1585.53 cm $^{-1}$  and 1620.25 cm $^{-1}$  are assigned to C=N stretching vibrations and at 1494.8 and 1460.1 cm $^{-1}$  assigned to –C=C– stretching vibrations. The absorption band of C–O–H

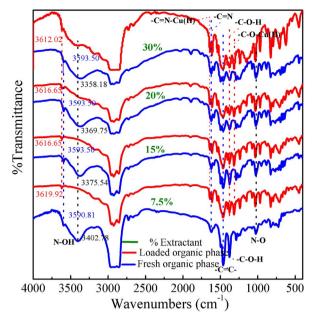


Fig. 4. FTIR spectra of fresh and copper loaded organic phase at varying LIX 84IC concentrations

attached to the phenolic structure is at 1383 cm $^{-1}$  and that assigned to nitrogen-oxygen stretching vibrations is observed at 1024 cm $^{-1}$ . The IR spectrum of LIX84-IC loaded with copper shows absorption band at 1610.61 cm $^{-1}$  assigned to C=N-Cu (II) stretching vibrations and at 1402.96 cm $^{-1}$  assigned to the Cu(II) complex [44]. A shift in absorption band at 1377.2 cm $^{-1}$  indicates C-O-H whereas stretching vibrations C-O-Cu (II) coordination bond is at 1317.42 cm $^{-1}$ .The absorption band at 1030.02 cm $^{-1}$  is assigned to N-O stretching vibrations.

The maximum copper loaded organic phase at all oxime concentrations studied, show absence of the monomer/dimer peak and peak shift from  $\sim 3593~{\rm cm}^{-1}$  to  $\sim 3616~{\rm cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to the monomeric group of the oxime, thereby indicating that both monomeric and dimeric groups are involved in the complexation process. This unfolds a very complex picture of molecular association and bonding in chloride media between hydroxyoxime and the copper ions with adsorbed complexes and the two ionic species of copper binding with monomeric, dimeric oximes.

### 3.3. Precipitation – stripping of copper from loaded organic phase

Precipitation – stripping of copper from the organic phase involves a reaction between the loaded organic phase with an aqueous solution of oxalic acid. The acid dissociates into hydrogen ions and oxalate anions in the aqueous phase and acts both as a stripping and precipitating agent. Copper ion is released from the copper-oxime complex at the organic - aqueous interface by exchange with H+ ions. The Cu2+ cation transfers to the aqueous phase where it undergoes a second reaction with the oxalate anion in the vicinity of the interface to form copper oxalate precipitate. Overall rate of stripping is controlled by the diffusion of the metal complex from the bulk of the organic to the liquid-liquid interface [45]. The driving force for mass transfer is high when the organic phase metal concentration is high. Stripping is much faster at high concentration of metal complex in organic phase. The faster rate at which metal ions are supplied to the aqueous solution combined with high stirring, results in production of finer oxalate particles. This is caused by the fast nucleation under the conditions where the aqueous phase copper concentration rises more rapidly to the threshold concentration at which nucleation can occur [29].

### 3.3.1. Theoretical aspects

The stripping and precipitation of copper with oxalic acid can be represented by Eq. (8)

$$CuR_2 + H_2C_2O_4 \rightarrow CuC_2O_4 + 2RH$$
 (8)

Oxalic acid in solution dissociates into hydrogen ions and oxalate anions depending on the solution pH.

$$H_2C_2O_4 = H^+ + HC_2O_4^- (9)$$

$$HC_2O_4 = H^+ + C_2O_4^{2-} (10)$$

In a solution of oxalic acid, molecules of oxalic acid and its ions  $HC_2O_4^-$  and  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  co-exist in equilibrium. In strong acidic solutions pH < 2,  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  concentration is negligible and the dominant species is  $C_2O_4^-$ . At pH values > 3 complete ionisation is there and both  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  and  $HC_2O_4^-$  are formed.  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  concentration is high in alkaline solutions and low in acidic solutions [46].

The equilibrium constant for Eqs. (9) and (10) are represented as  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  respectively. The oxalate species can be expressed as

$$[C_2 O_4^{-}] = \alpha_{C_2 O_4} A_T \tag{11}$$

$$[C_2 O_4^{2-}] = \left[1 + \frac{H^+}{K_1} + \frac{[H^+]^2}{K_1 K_2}\right] A_T \tag{12}$$

Where,  $A_T = H_2C_2O_4 + HC_2O_4 + C_2O_4^2$  the total concentration of the oxalates and  $\alpha_{C_2O_4}$  is the ionisation fraction of oxalate anion  $C_2O_4^2$ . Introducing the equilibrium constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  (Table 3) and total concentration  $A_T$ , gives the concentration of oxalate species  $(C_2O_4^2)$  at different pH values.

The solubility equilibrium for copper- oxalic acid system can be expressed as,

$$CuC_2O_{4(s)} = Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-} (13)$$

Taking logarithm and rearranging gives

$$\log [Cu^{2+}] = \log K_{SP} - \log C_2 O_4^{2-}$$
(14)

Substituting the value of  $C_2O_4{}^{2-}$  and  $K_{SP}$  results in  $Cu^{2+}$  concentration equilibrated with  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$  Fig. 5a shows the solubility curve,  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$  as a function of pH. Besides the solubility equilibrium,  $Cu^{2+}$  complexes with oxalate anion forming various soluble species  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$ ,  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$ ,  $Cu(C_2O_4)^2_2^-$ . Since the domain in the current investigation is acidic the hydroxide species are neglected. Copper oxalate has appreciable solubility in the presence of excess oxalate ions due to the formation of increasing quantities of  $Cu(C_2O_4)^{2^{2-}}$  [47].

Oxalate anion reacts with  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  cation in aqueous solution to form successively two soluble complexes represented by the Eqs. (15) and (16). The complexes are characterized by their stability constants  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  respectively.

Table 3
Equilibrium constants of formation reactions of copper oxalate and zinc oxalate complexes.

Equilibrium reactions	Log of constant	Reference
$HC_2O_4 = H^+ + C_2O_4^-$	$K_1 = -4.266$	[48]
$H_2C_2O_4 = H^+ + HC_2O_4^-$	$K_2 = -1.252$	[48]
$CuC_2O_{4(s)} = Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-}$	$K_{SP} = -9.35$	[49]
$Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-} = CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$	$\beta_1 = 6.23$	[48]
$Cu^{2+} + 2C_2O_4^{2-} = Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$	$\beta_2 = 10.27$	[48]
$Cu^{2+} + HC_2O_4^{2-} = Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$	$\beta_3 = 7.32$	[48]
$ZnC_2O_{4(s)} = Zn^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-}$	$K_{SP} = -8.86$	[49]
$Zn^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-} = ZnC_2O_{4(aq)}$	$\beta_1 = 4.87$	[48]
$Zn^{2+} + 2C_2O_4^{2-} = Zn(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$	$\beta_2 = 7.65$	[48]
$Zn^{2+} + HC_2O_4^{2-} = Zn(HC_2O_4)^+$	$\beta_3 = 6.44$	[48]
$Zn^{2+} + 2HC_2O_4^{2-} = Zn(HC_2O_4)_2$	$\beta_4 = 12.32$	[48]

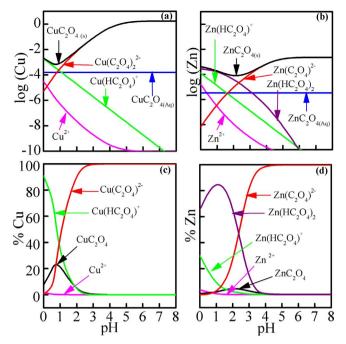


Fig. 5. Solubility diagram: (a) Copper-oxalic acid system, (b) Zinc-oxalic acid system. Soluble specie distribution curves: (c) Copper oxalate, (d) Zinc oxalate.

Table 4
Stage wise recovery of copper and zinc.

Stage No.	Copper	loaded (19	9.76 gm)		Zinc loa	ded (12.3	8 gm)	
	S (gm)	P (gm)	% Yield	1	S (gm)	P (gm)	% Yield	1
			E	Т			E	Т
1	13.26	13.17	99.32	99.68	9.78	9.72	99.38	99.83
2	4.15	4.06	97.83	98.96	2.59	2.55	98.45	99.82
3	2.31	2.25	97.4	98.14	-	-		
Total	19.72	19.48			12.37	12.27		

S: Stripped, P: Precipitated, E: Experimental, T: Theoretical.

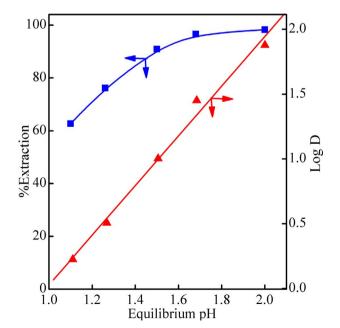


Fig. 6. Zinc extraction isotherm using D2EHPA. (Inset: log D vs. equilibrium pH).

$$Cu^{2+} + C_2 O_4^{2-} = CuC_2 O_{4(aq)}$$
(15)

$$Cu^{2+} + 2C_2O_4^{2-} = Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$$
(16)

$$\beta_1 = \frac{[CuC_2O_4]}{[Cu^{2+}][C_2O_4^{2-}]} \quad \beta_2 = \frac{[Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}]}{[Cu^{2+}][C_2O_4^{2-}]^2}$$

Rearranging and taking logarithm of Eqs. (15) and (16) results in

$$logCuC_2O_{4(aq)} = logCu^{2+} + log\beta_1 + logC_2O_4^{2-}$$
(17)

$$\log Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-} = \log Cu^{2+} + \log \beta_2 + 2\log C_2O_4^{2-}$$
(18)

Introducing the values of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ , the concentration of  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$  and  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$  species are obtained. In addition, the 1:1 oxalate complex can also be protonated to form  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$  specie in acidic media. The resulting acid — base equilibrium is characterized by its ionisation constant  $\beta_3$ .

$$Cu^{2+} + HC_2O_4^{-} = Cu(HC_2O_4)^{+}$$
(19)

Rearranging and taking logarithm of Eq. (19)

$$logCu(HC_2O_4)^+ = logCu^{2+} + log\beta_3 + logHC_2O_4^-$$
(20)

Where.

$$logHC_2O_4^- = logH^+ + logC_2O_4^-$$
 (21)

Introducing the values from Table 3 [48,49] enables the  $logCuC_2O_{4(aq)}$  concentration equilibrated with solid  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$  to be plotted vs. pH (Fig. 5a). The solubility minima corresponding to the maximum precipitation of copper oxalate occurs in the pH range 0.6–0.7.

The solubility of oxalates of Cu, Ba, Ca, Bi etc. was investigated by Marta et al. [50] at varying oxalic acid concentrations ranging from 0.05M-1~M. They reported the optimum pH for copper oxalate precipitation to be 0.7-0.8, further except for Bi all other solubility curves showed a minima which was attributed to two opposing factors, protonation of the oxalate ions in strong acidic media and formation of complex oxalates at high pH values when the available oxalate concentration increases. Zielinski et al. [51] reported maximum precipitation of metal oxalates at oxalic acid pH < 1.

### 3.3.2. Experimental results

It is a common practice in extraction from chloride media to scrub the oil phase prior to stripping of metal values to remove chloride ions adsorbed at interface. When hydroxyoxime is used as a chelating agent, water can be used for scrubbing without any pH adjustment [28]. In this study the organic phase was scrubbed with distilled water to remove the adhering chloride ions. Precipitation-stripping was carried out using oxalic acid concentrations ranging from 0.3 to 1 M, at equal oil to aqueous volumes for three hours at 150 rpm and 30 °C. Increasing the concentration of oxalic acid resulted in an increase in amount of precipitates obtained. Oxalic acid strengths beyond 1 M were not attempted due to solubility constraints at the operating temperature. Stripping was performed using 1 M acid in three stages with fresh acid at each stage. The total copper stripped at each stage is the sum of copper present in the precipitate and the copper remaining dissolved in the oxalic acid solution.

Experimental data presented in Table 4 shows that of the 19.76 gm copper loaded in the organic phase, the amount of copper precipitated as oxalate was 13.17 gm in stage 1,4.06 gm and 2.25 gm in stage 2 and stage 3 respectively accounting for a cumulative yield of 98.6%. Copper remaining soluble in oxalic acid after precipitation in each stage was also determined experimentally. The solubility of copper oxalate at the precipitation pH value of 0.67 was determined from the solubility diagram Fig. 5(a). The experimental yield and the predicted yield considering dissolved copper obtained from solubility diagram are in close agreement as shown in Table 4.

Fig. 5(c) shows the distribution of soluble copper species present in

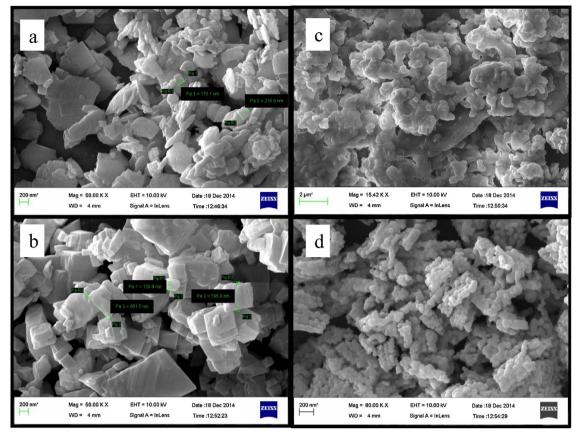


Fig. 7. FESEM (a) copper oxalate (b) zinc oxalate (c) copper oxide (d) zinc oxide.

the solution at pH 0.67 based on theoretical consideration. Analysis of the pickle liquor after copper extraction revealed that 77% of the 131 mg/L iron initially present was also extracted but none of the other metals present in the liquor were extracted under the operating conditions. It is well known that Fe  $^{3+}$  is moderately extracted by LIX 84IC at pH range 2 to 2.5 [38]. During stripping the ferric ions extracted were stripped as soluble ferric oxalate in the aqueous phase. Quantitative stripping of loaded iron was observed after three stages of stripping.

### 3.4. Extraction of zinc using D2EHPA

Selection of an extractant for zinc extraction from chloride media depends largely on the zinc specie formed in solution as well as the physicochemical properties of the solution. Below 1 M concentration the cationic specie  $\mathrm{Zn^{2+}}$  is dominant which is extractable by LIX 84 and acidic extractants D2EHPA, and CYANEX 302. Above 1 M chloride concentration  $\mathrm{ZnCl_4}^{2-}$  and  $\mathrm{ZnCl_3}^{-}$  are formed that are extractable by secondary or tertiary amines [52]. The speciation diagram (Fig. 1) shows that dominant zinc specie present in the pickle liquor was  $\mathrm{Zn^{2+}}$  and  $\mathrm{ZnCl^{+}}$ . While LIX 84IC could be used for extraction but it would require pH balancing since  $\mathrm{Zn^{2+}}$  is significantly extracted only above pH 5, moreover maintaining same extractant in the process has the possibility of impurity carryover from zinc to copper stream and viceversa. Hence, it is prudent to use different extractants for copper and zinc recovery and keep both the streams separate. This strategy has been adopted by investigators for metal recovery from sulphate media (15).

Extraction of zinc with D2EHPA requires very little pH adjustment and a single stage zinc transfer can be achieved by using a high extractant concentration [52]. Increasing the extractant concentration can shift the extraction curves to lower pH values. Zinc extraction from chloride media using D2EHPA is well investigated by Li et al. [53].

They postulated the equilibria in the organic phase as follows:

$$2HR \leftrightarrow H_2R_2$$
 (22)

$$Zn^{2+} + (1 + x/2)H_2R_2 \leftrightarrow ZnR_2 \cdot xHR + 2H^+$$
 (23)

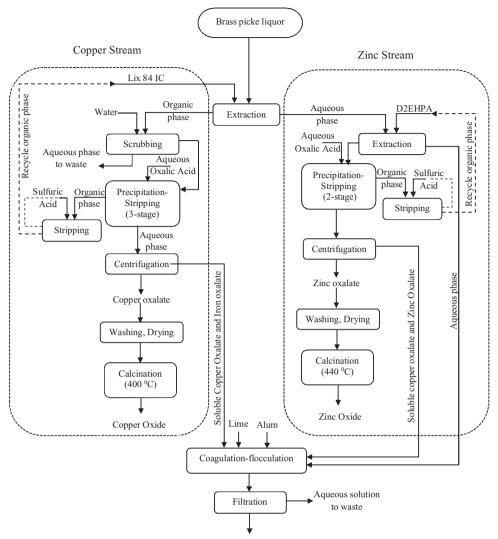
D2EHPA has a strong tendency to form a dimer in organic solutions and subsequent reaction with zinc leads to the formation of Zn complex where x is the number of HR molecules complexed with ZnR $_2$ , these investigators reported the value of x = 1. The effect of dimerization of D2EHPA is apparent only at low metal ion concentration, dimerization effects are eliminated at high metal concentration leading to formation of ZnR $_2$  as extractable species [54].

After copper removal, the pickle liquor was contacted with an oil phase containing 15% v/v D2EHPA at equal oil to aqueous ratio. Fig. 6 shows the extraction isotherm. It is observed that at pH 2 using 15% v/v D2EHPA almost 98.25% of the zinc present was extracted. The plot of Log D vs pH (Fig. 6) has a slope of 1.8 indicating two extractant molecules participating in the complexation process. The maximum loading capacity of zinc using 15% v/v D2EHPA at an equilibrium pH of 2 was 14.38 g/L.

### 3.4.1. Precipitation-stripping of zinc from oil phase

The metal loaded D2EHPA solution was stripped in two stages with 1 M oxalic acid at equal oil to aqueous ratio at 30 °C and 150 rpm. The solubility diagram developed theoretically for zinc-oxalic acid system, using appropriate values of constants (Table 3) is shown in Fig. 5(b). Zinc has one ionic species more than that observed for copper. The additional species  $Zn(HC_2O_4)_2^2$ -forms due to protonation of  $Zn(HC_2O_4)^+$  in acidic medium which is not observed in the case of copper because copper oxalate protonates to form the highly stable  $(Cu(HC_2O_4)^+)$  complex whereas when zinc oxalate gets protonated, it forms an unstable complex  $(Zn(HC_2O_4)^+)$  that has the capacity of getting protonated again to go to [Ar]3d<sup>10</sup>4s<sup>2</sup> state to stabilize its energy level.

Fig. 8. Process flow diagram.



Precipitates after copper and zinc recovery

Fig. 5(d) shows the distribution of soluble Zn species in the strip solution. The solubility of zinc oxalate at the precipitation pH value of 0.97 was determined from solubility diagram Fig. 5(b). The percentage zinc stripped and precipitated in each stage is given in Table 4. The experimental and the predicted yield are in good agreement.

### 3.5. Recyclability of solvent

After precipitation-stripping process it was observed that the organic phase containing LIX84IC contained residual traces of copper while D2EHPA containing phase contained traces of zinc which were not stripped by oxalic acid. Both organic phases were treated separately with 1.5 M sulfuric acid to strip the residual copper and zinc prior to its reuse in the process. It was found that the organic phase could be reused without any significant decline in the extractability of the metal ion, and even after 5 cycles 98.3% of the copper could be extracted by LIX84IC at pH 2.5 and 97.7% zinc was extracted by D2EHPA after 5 cycles at pH 2.

### 3.6. Characterization of copper oxalate and zinc oxalate

The precipitates of copper oxalate and zinc oxalate obtained were characterized by XRD, FTIR and their morphology was determined using FESEM analysis. The sharp diffraction peaks of copper oxalate were indexed as monoclinic phase and matched with standard data

JCPDS 21-297 (Fig. S1) and that for zinc oxalate were indexed on the basis of monoclinic cell reported for zinc oxalate dihydrate (JCPDS 25-1029) (Fig. S1). The IR spectra (Fig. S2) showed a broad band at frequency 3462.06 cm $^{-1}$  corresponding to the OH stretching vibration, peak at 1679.3 cm $^{-1}$  is attributed to the main anti-symmetric carbonyl stretching band  $\nu_{as}(C=O)$  specific to the oxalate family. Vibration band at 1362.7 cm $^{-1}$  are attributed to  $\sigma_s(C-O)+\sigma(C-C)$  while band at 1319.4 cm $^{-1}$  corresponds to  $\sigma_s(C-O)+\delta(O-C=O)$ . Bands at 823.1 cm $^{-1}$  and 504.89 cm $^{-1}$  are due to  $\delta(O-C=O)$  and  $\sigma(Cu-O)$  frequencies of the oxalate moiety. Similar peaks were also observed in the IR spectra for zinc oxalate (Fig. S2). FESEM image of the oxalates (Fig. 7a,b) show that zinc oxalate particles were more defined layered structures with sharp edges. In comparison, the copper oxalate particles were disc shaped, smaller in size and lacked sharp edges. In both cases highly agglomerated particles are observed.

### 3.7. Preparation and characterization of copper oxide and zinc oxide

Thermogravimetric analysis of copper oxalate and zinc oxalate samples was performed to determine the calcination temperature to convert the oxalates to their respective oxides. Copper oxalate was calcined at 400 °C and zinc oxalate at 440 °C for three hours to obtain their respective oxides. XRD of copper oxide and zinc oxide matched the standard data (JCPDS 5-611) and (JCPDS 36-1451) respectively (Fig. S1). No oxalate impurities were found in either sample. The IR

spectra of both the oxides show a broad band  $\sim 3450~{\rm cm}^{-1}$  indicating the presence of surface hydroxyl groups. The sharp peak observed in Fig. S1(c) at around at 531.75 cm $^{-1}$  is due to Cu-O while the peak at 461 cm $^{-1}$  in Fig. S1(d) is due to Zn-O lattice vibrations. FESEM images of the oxides (Fig. 7c,d) show that on calcination oxalates were transformed to their respective oxides without losing their ordered structure.

The EDX analysis of copper oxide (Fig. S3a) confirmed pure CuO phase with Cu and O in stoichiometric proportions. The chemical analysis of CuO also confirmed absence of impurity indicating formation of pure copper oxide. The EDX analysis of zinc oxide (Fig. S3b) reveals presence of Zn, O and Cu. After copper extraction, 240 mg/L of copper remained unextracted in the pickle liquor. This residual copper got extracted by D2EHPA during zinc extraction and was precipitated as copper oxalate along with zinc oxalate. Thus copper ends up as an impurity in zinc oxalate product. The chemical analysis showed that zinc oxide was 99.1% pure and contained 0.9% of copper oxide as impurity. However, this did not manifest in the XRD analysis of zinc oxide as copper oxide percentage was very low.

Post stripping the organic phase contained traces of copper (40 mg/L) in the copper stream and zinc (10 mg/L) in the zinc stream. Both the organic phases were stripped using 1.5 M sulphuric acid to recover the metals prior to recycle of the organic phase. Since the amount of the metal present was low the same acid could be reused. The aqueous phase after extraction of zinc contained the other metals present in the pickle liquor. This aqueous stream was mixed with the streams containing soluble oxalates. The combined stream was subjected to coagulation and flocculation to remove the metals present and filtered to separate the solids before disposal of the liquor.

EDX analysis (Fig. S3c) of the sludge generated after processing indicates the presence of the metals originally present in the pickle liquor after copper and zinc extraction. The additional peaks for sulphur in the EDX spectrum are due to the addition of alum during the coagulation and flocculation process. Fig. 8 shows the process flow diagram for the recovery of copper and zinc from pickle liquors.

### 4. Conclusions

Solvent extraction and precipitation-stripping was used to recover copper and zinc from spent chloride brass pickle liquors satisfying the dual goal of environmental sustainability and economic gain in terms of the reclaimed metals. Copper was selectively extracted from the pickle liquor using LIX 84IC as an extractant and subsequently zinc was extracted using D2EHPA. High copper loading in the organic phase was observed. The oxime extractant in organic phase was present both as a monomer and dimer at the extractant concentrations investigated and both were involved in the complexation process.

Precipitation-stripping of the loaded metal using oxalic acid resulted in formation of water insoluble metal oxalates. Solubility diagrams developed in this investigation could predict the yield of Cu and Zn precipitated as oxalates with high degree of accuracy. Calcination of the oxalates under controlled conditions converted the oxalates to corresponding oxides. 97.3% copper and zinc present in the pickle liquor were recovered as copper and zinc oxalate. Morphology of the precipitates reveal that zinc oxalate particles were layered structures with sharp edges while copper oxalate particles were disc shaped and lacked sharp edges. In both the cases highly agglomerated particles were observed. Calcinations did not induce any change in the ordered structure observed in oxalates. Pure copper oxide and zinc oxide of 99.1% purity were obtained as value added products.

### Acknowledgement

This work was supported by University Grants Commission vide UGC MRP File No. 41-367/2012 (SR).

### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2017.09.061.

#### References

- J.R. Davis, ASM specialty handbook, copper and copper alloys, Surface Engineering, ASM, International, Materials Park, 2001, pp. 320–321.
- [2] M.P. Singh, Status of Trace and Toxic Metals in Indian Rivers, River Data Directorate Planning and Development Organization, Government of India: Ministry of Water Resources, Central Water Commission, New Delhi, 2014 May 2014.
- [3] F. Fu, Q. Wang, Removal of heavy metal ions from waste water: a review, J. Environ. Manage. 92 (3) (2011) 407–418.
- [4] A. Kilicarslan, M.N. Saridede, S. Stopic, B. Friedrich, Use of ionic liquid in leaching process of brass wastes for copper and zinc recovery, Int. J. Miner. Metall. Mater. 21 (2) (2014) 138–143.
- [5] O. Kahvecioglu, B. Derin, O. Yucel, Carbothermal recovery of zinc from brass ash, Miner. Process. Extr. Metall. 112 (2) (2003) 95–101.
- [6] S. Timur, S. Gurmen, G. Orhan, C. Arslan, I. Duman, Beneficiation of brass ashes, Dev. Miner. Process. 13 (2000) C12a-27–C12a-33.
- [7] K.C. Nathsarma, Recovery of copper and zinc from brass- ash leach liquor using solvent extraction, in: V.N. Misra, S.C. Das, K.S. Rao (Eds.), Proceedings of International Symposium on Solvent Extraction (ISSE), Allied Publishers Pvt. Ltd. CSIR, Bhubaneshwar, India. September (2002), 2002, pp. 52–64.
- [8] A. Kiliçarslan, M.N. Saridede, Application of 1-methylimidazolium hydrogen sulfate ionic liquid to the oxidative leaching of copper and zinc in industrial brass dross, in: A. Jha, C. Wang, N.R. Neelameggham, D.P. Guillen, L. Li, C.K. Belt, R. Kirchain, J.S. Spangenberger, F. Johnson, A.J. Gomes, A. Pandey, P. Hosemann (Eds.), Energy Technology 2015: Carbon Dioxide Management and Other Technologies, John Wiley & Sons, Inc Hoboken, New Jersey, USA, 2015, pp. 209–215.
- [9] I.M. Ahmed, A.A. Nayal, J.A. Daoud, Leaching and recovery of zinc and copper from brass slag by sulfuric acid, J. Saudi Chem. Soc. 20 (2016) S280–S285.
- [10] S.M. Abdel Basir, M.A. Rabah, Hydrometallurgical recovery of metal values from brass melting slag, Hydrometallurgy 53 (1) (1999) 31–44.
- [11] M.N. Saridede, S. Altuner, Zinc recovery from brass flue dust, Trans. Ind. Inst. Met. 60 (6) (2007) 571–576.
- [12] A. Kiliçarslan, M.N. Saridede, Treatment of industrial brass wastes for recovery of copper and zinc, Separ. Sci. Technol. 50 (2) (2015) 286–291.
- [13] D.M. Oliveira, L. Sobral, C.E.G. Souza, Copper and zinc recovery from brass filings of metal mechanics industry for producing micronutrients bearing chemicals to agriculture, VIII Meeting of the Southern Hemisphere on Mineral Technology, Goiania, Brazil, October, 2013, pp. 365–370.
- [14] M.K. Sinha, S.K. Sahu, S. Pramanik, L.B. Prasad, B. Pandey, Recovery of high value copper and zinc oxide powder from waste brass pickle liquor by solvent extraction, Hydrometallurgy 165 (1) (2016) 182–190.
- [15] M.K. Sinha, S.K. Sahu, P. Meshram, B.D. Pandey, V. Kumar, Solvent extraction and separation of copper and zinc from a pickling solution, Int. J. Metall. Eng. 1 (2) (2012) 28–34.
- [16] Z. Lazarova, M. Lazarova, Solvent extraction of copper from nitrate media with chelating LIX- reagents: comparative equilibrium study, Solvent Extr. Ion Exch. 23 (2005) 695–711.
- [17] J. Szymanowski, Copper hydrometallurgy and extraction from chloride media, J. Radioanal. Nucl. Chem. 208 (1) (1996) 183–194.
- [18] M.C. Cognet, G. Vaissiere, H. Renon, Copper extraction by LIX 64N: comparison of chloride and sulfate solutions according to pH and acid concentration, Hydrometallurgy 2 (1977) 265–274.
- [19] L. Zhou, W. Furst, H. Renon, Chloride effect on the extraction rate of Cu with 2-hydroxy-5-nonylbenzophenone oxime, Hydrometallurgy 21 (1988) 213–221.
- [20] C. Navaroo, M. Ruiz, Solvent extraction of copper from chloride solutions with LIX 860N-IC and LIX 84-IC, Rev. Metal. Madrid 37 (2001) 483–491.
- [21] M.C. Ruiz, I. Gonzalez, J. Salgado, R. Padilla, Extraction of copper from sulfate-chloride solutions by using hydroxyoxime extractants, in: S. Wang, M.L. Free, S. Alam, M. Zhang, P.R. Taylor (Eds.), Applications of Process Engineering Principles in Materials Processing Energy and Environmental Technologies, Springer International Publishing, 2017, pp. 161–168.
- [22] K.S. Koppiker, Solvent extraction of zinc, copper, nickel and cobalt—the status of current technology, in: V.N. Misra, S.C. Das, K.S. Rao (Eds.), Proceedings of International Symposium on Solvent Extraction (ISSE), Allied Publishers Pvt. Ltd. CSIR, Bhubaneshwar, India. September 26–27, 2003, 2002, pp. 3–17.
- [23] M. Jha, V. Kumar, R. Singh, Solvent extraction of zinc from chloride solutions, Solvent Extr. Ion Exch. 20 (3) (2002) 389–405.
- [24] C. Frias, A. Raychaudhuri, J. Palma, G. Diaz, Development of new-concept clean technologies to extract metals from primary and secondary sources, in: A. Bandopadhyay, P. Rakesh Kumar, G. Ramachandrarao (Eds.), Environmental & Waste Management, 2002, pp. 165–173.
- [25] Kyuchoukov, S. Zhivkova, A. Borowiak-Resterna, J. Szymanowski, Separation of copper (II) and zinc (II) from chloride solutions with alkyl-8-hydroxyquinoline in various stages of extraction: stripping process, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 39 (10) (2000) 3896–3900.
- [26] M.B. Bogacki, S. Zhivkova, G. Kyuchoukov, J. Szymanowski, Modeling of Cu(II) and Zn(II) extraction from chloride media with KELEX 100, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 39 (2000) 740–745.

- [27] S. Zhivkova, Extraction and separation of copper, zinc and iron by means of bifunctional extractant KELEX 100, J. Chem. Technol. Metall. 52 (1) (2017) 105–112.
- [28] G. Kyuchoukov, J. Szymanowski, Extraction of copper and zinc from chloride media with mixed extractants, J. Radioanal. Nucl. Chem. 246 (3) (2000) 675–682.
- [29] Y. Konishi, Y. Noda, S. Asai, Precipitation stripping of yttrium oxalate powders from yttrium-loaded carboxylate solutions with aqueous oxalic acid solutions, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 37 (1998) 2093–2098.
- [30] V. Innocenzi, F. Ferella, I.D. Michelis, F. Veglio, Treatment of fluid catalytic cracking spent catalysts to recover lanthanum and cerium: comparison between selective precipitation and solvent extraction, J. Ind. Eng. Chem. 24 (2015) 92–97.
- [31] P.M. Smith, High purity rare earth oxides via precipitation stripping, Metall. Mater. Trans. B. 38 (2007) 763–768.
- [32] B. Sengupta, C.A. Tamboli, R. Sengupta, Synthesis of nickel oxalate particles in the confined internal droplets of w/o emulsions and in systems without space confinement, Chem. Eng. J. 169 (2011) 379–389.
- [33] M. Sinha, S. Pramanik, S. Sahu, L. Prasad, M. Jha, B. Pandey, Development of an efficient process for the recovery of zinc and iron as value added products from the waste chloride solution, Sep. Purif. Technol. 167 (2016) 37–44.
- [34] P. Bowen, O. Pujol, N. Jongen, J. Lemaitre, A. Fink, P. Stadleman, Control of morphology and nanostructure of copper and cobalt oxalates: effect of complexing ions, polymeric additives and molecular weight, Nanoscale 2 (2010) 2470–2477.
- [35] Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater, 22nd ed., APHA, AWWA, WEF, Washington, DC, USA, 2012, pp. 4-72-4-190.
- [36] Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater, 16th ed., APHA, AWWA, WEF, Washington, DC, USA, 1985, pp. 397–398.
- [37] G.J. Lawson, Solvent extraction of metals from chloride solutions, J. Appl. Chem. Biotechnol. 25 (1975) 949–957.
- [38] MCT Red Book Solvent Extraction Reagents and Applications, Cognis Corporation, 2007.
- [39] M. Kul, U. Çetinkaya, Recovery of copper by LIX 984 NC from electroplating rinse bath solution, Hydrometallurgy 98 (2009) 86–91.
- [40] V.I. Lakshmanan, G.J. Lawson, The extraction of copper from aqueous chloride solutions with LIX 70 in kerosene, J. Inorg. Nucl. Chem. 37 (1) (1975) 207–209.
- [41] P.G. Christie, V.I. Lakshmanan, G.J. Lawson, The behaviour of LIX 63 in the

- extraction of Cu(II) and Fe(III) from chloride media, Hydrometallurgy 2 (2) (1976) 105–115.
- [42] J. Szymanowski, Hydroxyoximes and Copper Hydrometallurgy, CRC Press, Boca Raton USA, 1993, pp. 137–138.
- [43] M. Albrecht, P. Zielke, C.A. Rice, M.A. Suhm, Variations of bite angle and coupling patterns in double hydrogen bonds: the case of oxime dimers, J. Mol. Struct. 880 (2008) 2–13.
- [44] N.I. Inda, M. Fukumaru, T. Sana, S. Kiyoyama, T. Takei, M. Yoshida, A. Nakajima, K. Shiomor, Characteristics and mechanism of Cu(II) extraction with polymeric particles with interconnected spherical pores impregnated with LIX84 I, J. Chem. Eng. Jpn. 50 (2017) 102–110.
- [45] Y. Konishi, S. Asai, T. Murai, Precipitation stripping of neodymium from carboxylate extractant with aqueous oxalic acid solutions, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 32 (5) (1993) 937–942.
- [46] A. Zouaoui, O. Stephan, M. Carrier, J. Moutet, Electrodeposition of copper into functionalized polypyrrole films, J. Electroanal. Chem. 474 (1999) 113–122.
- [47] A. McAuley, G.H. Nancollas, Complex formation in solutions of copper oxalate, Trans. Faraday Soc. 56 (1960) 1165–1171.
- [48] G. Martell, R.M. Smith, Critical Stability Constants of Metal Ion Complexes, Part B, Organic Ligands, Pergamon Press, 1977.
- [49] D.R. Lide, CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 84th ed., CRC Press LLC, 2004, pp. 127–129.
- [50] L. Marta, O. Horovitz, M. Zaharescu, Analytical study of oxalates co-precipitation, Leonardo J. Sci. (2) (2003) 72–82.
- [51] S. Zielinski, M. Buca, M. Famulski, Precipitation-stripping processes for heavy metals, Hydrometallurgy 48 (3) (1998) 253–263.
- [52] P.H. Cole, K.C. Sole, Zinc solvent extraction in process industries, Miner. Process. Extr. Metall. Rev. 24 (2003) 91–137.
- [53] Z.C. Li, W. Furst, H. Renon, Extraction of zinc(II) from chloride and perchlorate aqueous solutions by di(2-ethylhexyl) phosphoric acid in Escaid 100: experimental equilibrium study, Hydrometallurgy 16 (1986) 231–241.
- [54] G.M. Ritcey, A.W. Ashbrook, Solvent Extraction: Principles and Applications to Process Metallurgy, Elsevier Scientific Pub Co., Amsterdam, New York, 1979.



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering

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



## Reclamation of copper from spent ammoniacal Printed Circuit Board (PCB) etch solutions



Khyati Shah, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta\*

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Technology and Engineering, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara, India

#### ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
PCB
Etch solutions
Ammoniacal copper
LIX84I
Precipitation-stripping

#### ABSTRACT

Ammoniacal spent etch liquors is a potential source for copper recovery. In the present investigation copper was extracted from spent ammoniacal PCB etch solutions using hydroxyoxime LIX 84I. Maximum extraction was observed at equilibrium pH of 8.9. Three counter-current stages were required for quantitative extraction of 51.8 g/L copper from the spent liquor using 50%v/v extractant at an O/A ratio of 1.5. It was also possible to achieve quantitative extraction with 20% v/v extractant concentration at an equilibrium pH of 8.9 and O/A ratio 4.5:1. Precipitation – stripping of the loaded organic phase using oxalic acid led to reclamation of copper as copper oxalate. Contacting the oil phase fully loaded with copper in 50% v/v extractant, with 1 M oxalic acid at equal O/A resulted in 77.4% copper getting stripped in first contact, quantitative stripping was achieved in the second contact with fresh acid. There was a close agreement between the experimental and predicted yields based on solubility plots developed for copper-oxalic acid system. Co-extracted ammonia to the organic phase was stripped as soluble ammonium oxalate offering an inherent advantage over the conventional stripping process where build-up of ammonium sulphate is observed during electrowinning process. Calcinations for three hours formed copper oxide, XRD and chemical analysis confirmed the formation of pure copper oxide. The copper present in waste etchant could thus be appropriately converted to value added product.

### 1. Introduction

Electronic devices encompass every aspect of human life and are built on the foundation of Printed Circuit Boards (PCBs), which carries the electronic architecture of the device with copper as the main conducting material. The copper concentration in PCB varies depending on the number of layers and the capacity of conductor current [1] and is usually about 15–35% by weight [2] of PCB. This copper content is far greater in comparison to the 3% copper in most of the newly mined ores [3]. According to Institute of Printed Circuits (IPC) the world PCB market reached an estimated \$58.2 billion in 2016. The worldwide output of PCBs has increased by an average of 8.7% each year and will continue to increase [4] resulting in an increased use of copper. International Copper Study Group (ICSG) projections indicate a copper deficit of 150,000T for 2017 and 105,000T in 2018. Therefore, it is imperative to recover and recycle copper to the fullest extent from wastes and discards.

Production of PCB involves drilling, scrubbing, chemical cleaning, electroless deposition, photo imaging, pattern plating, resist stripping, and etching as the major steps [5]. Chemical etching process is used to develop the circuit pattern in PCB's by removing the excess portion of

copper from the copper clad laminate. The copper dissolved away by etching process is about 50–70% of that originally present on the board [6]. PCB etching using acidic or alkaline cupric chloride is well established process. However, both function differently and have their own relative merits and demerits. Ammoniacal etching has the advantage that it does not remove the tin/lead solder that protects the portions of the copper circuit [7] but fine line etching is not achieved, which some products require. While acidic cupric chloride has a longer solution service life and can retain more copper in solution before it is spent and is used for boards with close traces.

Almost 1.5–3.5 L of waste etchant is generated per square meter of PCB produced [8]. This account's for one billion cubic meter of waste etchant being generated annually from the PCB industry with an increase in 15–18% [9]. The copper concentration in the spent ammoniacal etching solution depends on the composition of the bath. Maximum etching efficiency is obtained when the copper concentration is 50–70 g/L and decreases as the concentration increases. Copper build up in the etch solution is accompanied with corresponding depletion of the free ammonia content in the etch solution necessitating regeneration of the spent etch liquor. Ammoniacal etchant can be regenerated on site by recovering copper and recycling the etchant, simultaneously

E-mail address: bina.sengupta-chemengg@msubaroda.ac.in (B. Sengupta).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

1

Table 1

Processes for recovery of copper from ammoniacal and acidic PCB etch solutions.	ammoniacal and acidic PCB	setch solutions.		
Source	Recovery method	Composition of etchant	Operating Parameters	Reference
Synthetic spent copper (II) chloride etchant	Electrolytic	$1.7\mathrm{M}\;\mathrm{GuCl_{2,}}$ $0.1\mathrm{M}\;\mathrm{GuCl},2\mathrm{M}\;\mathrm{HCl}$ and $2\mathrm{M}\;\mathrm{NaCl}$	Voltage 1.63V, Power 1.54kWh/kg (on-site regeneration and recovery)	[11]
Ammonical spent copper etchant	Electrolytic	$30.8\mathrm{g/L}$ Cu, $2.09\mathrm{M}$ NH <sub>3</sub> , $38.5\mathrm{g/L}$ chloride	pH 8.5 to 9.5, Agitation rates 255 to 123 min $^{-1}$ , Current density1100 Am $^{-1}$ , Cu recovery 99.8–99.9%	[9]
Spent nitric etching solutions	Electrowinning	3.5 N HNO <sub>3</sub> , 30 g/L Cu, 40 g/L Sn, 40 g/L Pb, 20 g/L Fe	pH 2.1, Current 3A, Depostion time 20 h, Cu recovery 98%	[12]
Spent etchant	Membrane electro-winning	Cu 167.8 g/L, Cl 158.6 g/L, carbonate 3.9 g/L, phosphate 5.3 g/L, thiourea 0.5 g/L	Temp. 40–50 °C, current density 500–1500 $\mathrm{Am}^{-1}$ , cell voltage 2–2.5 V, Cu recovery 90%	[13]
PCB spent etching solution	Ultrasonic	114.1 g/L Cu	Power 300W, Stirring rate 300 rpm, Cu recovery 93.76%	[14]
Acid Cu-PCB waste etchant	Liquid chemical reduction	95 g/L Cu	Time 12 h, pH 3, CuCl recovery 85%	[15]
Ammonical spent copper etchant	Cementation	135 g/L copper	Temp. 25 C, Time 20 min, pH 2, Purity of Cu > 99%	[16]
Synthetic ammonium chloride etchant	Solvent extraction	Cu 0.01 M, ammonium chloride 5 M	Extractant-Pyridineketoximes (0.01–0.2 M), pH 9 Stripping agent- water, Cu recovery 80–90%	[17]
Synthetic ammonium chloride etchant	Solvent extraction	Cu 112.98 g, 6 M NH <sub>3</sub>	Extractant: 40% hindered \(\beta\)-diketone, O/A- 5:4, H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> stripping O/A-1:2, Cu recovery 98.27%	[18]
PCB spent etchant	Solvent extraction	Cu 152.1 g/L	Extractant- 40% LIX54,0/A-5:1, H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> stripping, O/A- 2.5:1, Cu recovery 54%	[19]

reducing the fresh etchant requirement as well as water discharge.

The MECER process uses solvent extraction and electrowinning to recover the etchant and reclaim high purity copper. After copper removal, the etchant is regenerated by adding makeup solvent and ammonia is directly recirculated to the process. Keskitalo et al. [10] have presented a comprehensive review on the different methods, electrowinning, cementation, solvent extraction, precipitation and membrane technology for the regeneration of acidic cupric chloride etchant waste along with their advantages and disadvantages. Table 1 lists the different processes available to recover copper from both acidic and ammoniacal PCB etch solutions.

Recovery of copper from ammoniacal solutions is important in various hydrometallurgical processes. Current status and the future perspective of recycling by hydrometallurgy are detailed by Xu et al. [20]. Solvent extraction is by far the most widely used method to recover copper from ammoniacal solutions due to its inherent advantages; ease of operation; low energy requirement and can handle a wide range of feed concentration [21].  $\beta$  diketones and hydroxyoximes are the most widely used extractants to recover copper from ammoniacal solutions. Copper is extracted from ammoniacal solutions using  $\beta$  diketone, LIX 54 [22–24] sterically hindered  $\beta$  diketone [18], hydroxyoxime, LIX84I [25–27], LIX 84I, LIX 984N, LIX 54-100 [28], and aliphatic carboxylic acids [29].

The last decade has witnessed a number of research publications on recovery of copper and other precious metals from used PCBs using different techniques such as pyrometallurgy, hydrometallurgy, physical methods and their combinations [30]. Most of the research is focused on metal reclamation from discarded PCBs. There is considerable potential of copper recovery from spent etch solutions during the PCB fabrication process. In the present investigation copper is recovered from spent ammoniacal PCB etch solution using solvent extraction with LIX 84I as the extractant. Instead of attempting to strip the loaded copper from the extractant using a mineral acid followed by metal recovery by electrowinning, the loaded copper in the organic phase was stripped with oxalic acid to precipitate copper as an oxalate. The oxalate was subsequently converted to oxide by controlled calcinations.

### 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

Spent printed circuit board etch solution was collected from a small scale PCB manufacturing industry in Vadodara, India. LIX 84I (BASF) was used as the copper extractant. Commercial kerosene (B.P-152–271 °C) used as the organic diluent was supplied by Indian Oil Corporation Limited. Other reagents, oxalic acid, sulfuric acid used were of AR grade.

### 2.2. Methods

The metal composition of the PCB etch solution was determined using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICPOES) (Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV) (Table 2). The ammoniacal nitrogen, chloride and the sulfate concentration in the etch solution was determined using the standard methods for analysis of water and waste water, APHA–4500N, APHA 4500-Cl-B and APHA 4500–SO $_4$ -2E respectively [31].

Copper extraction was carried out in shake flasks at equal organic and aqueous volumes (100 mL each) on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at 150 rpm and 30 °C. The effect of equilibrium pH was studied using 20% v/v extractant for pH values ranging from 8.5 to 10. To study the effect of extractant concentration, the etch solution was contacted with organic phase containing 10%v/v to 50%v/v LIX 84I in kerosene. To determine the number of stages required for extraction, the etch solution was equilibrated with 20% v/v and 50% v/v of LIX 84I at varying organic to aqueous ratios keeping the total volume of organic and

 Table 2

 Composition of spent printed circuit board etchant.

Component <sup>a</sup>	Concentration (mg/L)
Copper	51800
Nickel	3.375
Lead	33.535
Zinc	14.05
Tin	1.856
Ammoniacal Nitrogen	48675
Chloride	53853
Sulphate	395
% of Ammonia	5.9%
pH	8.5
Specific gravity	1.307

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Composition of metals in spent PCB etchant determined by ICP analyses to get an idea of all trace metals present.

aqueous phase constant. The aqueous phase was analyzed for copper on an Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (AAS) (Chemito AA203) at 321 nm.

After extraction the organic phase was separated and scrubbed with water. Stripping was carried out by contacting the loaded organic phase with an equal volume of  $1.0\,\mathrm{M}$  oxalic acid solution for time intervals ranging from  $15\,\mathrm{min}$  to  $3\,\mathrm{h}$  on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at  $30\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  and  $150\,\mathrm{rpm}$ . After the stipulated stripping time the aqueous and organic phase were separated. Copper oxalate precipitate in the aqueous phase was centrifugally separated, washed and dried. The oxalate precipitate was calcined in a tube furnace (Ants Ceramics) at  $400\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  for  $3\,\mathrm{h}$  to obtain copper oxide.

### 2.3. Analytical techniques

Precipitated copper oxalate and copper oxide were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a PAN Analytical Xpert Pro diffractometer using Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation at  $\lambda$  value of 1.54°A in Bragg-Brentano geometry. Thermogravimetric analysis was performed at a heating rate of 10 °C/min in air atmosphere on a Shimadzu TGA-50 analyser. The elemental composition was determined using EDX analysis (Oxford Instruments). Infrared spectroscopic analysis of copper oxalate and oxide was conducted over a frequency range of 400–4000 cm $^{-1}$  with 32 scans using Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS5 spectrophotometer with iD1 transmission.

### 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Extraction of copper

The spent etchant collected from printed circuit board manufacturing unit had an initial pH value of 8.5. It contained 51.8 g/L copper with other metals present in trace amounts (Table 2). In ammoniacal solutions hydrated copper reacts with ammonia to form various copper ammine species. The coordination number of hydrated copper (II) species decreases when the coordinated water is replaced by ammonia. The geometry of the specie changes from octahedraon to distorted planar square when the water of hydrated copper is replaced by two or more ammonia molecules. Similarly, with an increase in the aqueous phase pH the copper (II) species changes from axially elongated octahedron to distorted planar square [32]. Copper extraction is sensitive to the presence of copper ammine species in the aqueous phase [21]. The speciation diagram of ammoniacal copper complexes for the spent etch solution at different pH values was plotted using Visual MINTEQ 3.1 (Fig. 1). At a pH value of 8.5, copper was present predominantly as Cu(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup> Rosinda et al. [24] reported that Cu complex with four NH3 is the dominant form present in ammoniacal solutions having excess of NH3 to Cu. Such predominance of Cu (NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup> species is expected due to its high formation equilibrium constant over other ammine complexes.

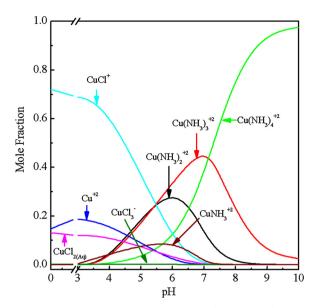


Fig. 1. Speciation diagram of copper in spent printed circuit board etchant as a function of pH.

The mechanism of copper extraction from ammoniacal solutions using  $\beta$  diketones and hydroxyoximes based on existence of Cu  $\left(NH_3\right)_4^{2^+}$  species in the feed can be described by Eq. (1) [22]

$$Cu(NH_3)_4^{2+} + 2HR \leftrightarrow CuR_2 + 2NH_4^{+} + 2NH_3$$
 (1)

where HR represents the extractant and  $CuR_2$  the copper-extractant complex. During extraction the ammonia ligands are pushed out and a chelate with hydroxyoxime is formed in the organic phase [28].

Copper extraction was carried out using hydroxyoxime extractant LIX 84 I at equilibrium pH values ranging from 8.5 to 10 using 20% v/v LIX84I at equal organic to aqueous (O/A) ratios. It was observed that percentage extraction increased from 20.66% at pH 8.5 to 22.01% at pH 8.9 and thereafter decreased to 20.27% at pH 10 (Fig. 2, inset). Eq. (1) shows that there is an increase in ammonia concentration due to release of ammonia leading to an increase in the pH. Nathsharma and Bhaskarsharma [33] reported that in actual practice there is no increase in pH, rather there is a small decrease due to uptake of ammonia in the

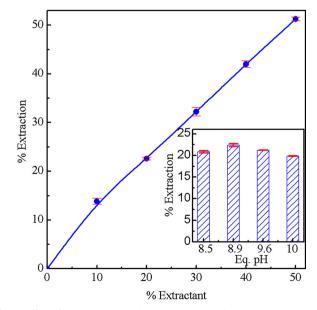
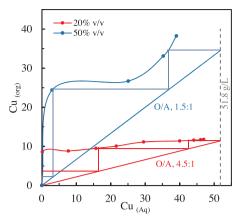


Fig. 2. Effect of LIX84I concentration on% extraction (pH-8.9, O/A = 1). Inset: Effect of Equilibrium pH on% extraction (20% (v/v) LIX84I, O/A = 1).



**Fig. 3.** McCabe – Thiele plot for the extraction of copper with 20% (v/v) LIX84I and 50% (v/v) LIX84I (pH-8.9).

organic phase. Though hydroxyoximes have a high affinity for copper they also have a tendency to co-extract ammonia. Hydroxyoximes transfer ammonia especially at higher pH (> 9) due to the presence of nonyl phenol in the extractant [22] resulting in decrease in the extraction. The increased stability of the ammine complexes also inhibits extraction. Copper extraction also decreases as the copper (II) species with distorted configuration increase due to an increase in pH [32].

### 3.2. Extraction isotherm and counter current simulation

The extractant concentration in the organic phase was varied from 10% v/v to 50%v/v at equal O/A ratio that led to an increase in percentage extraction in a single stage from 13.38% to 51.54% (Fig. 2). Maximum copper extracted for a given O/A ratio is obtained from the extraction isotherm. To determine the phase ratio and the number of stages required for extraction the spent solution was equilibrated using 20% v/v LIX84I at O/A phase ratio ranging from 1:6 to 6:1 and 50% v/v LIX 84I extractant concentration at O/A phase ratio ranging from 1:3 to 2:1. The extraction isotherms indicate that three stages are required for complete extraction of copper at a phase ratio of 4.5:1 using 20% v/v extractant and 1.5:1 at an extractant concentration of 50% v/v (Fig. 3). Based on the McCabe-Thiele plots, a three-stage counter-current simulation study was carried out at phase ratio (O/A) 4.5:1 for 20%v/v LIX 84I and at 1.5:1 for 50% v/v LIX 84I. The results indicate loading of 51.79 g/l copper in the organic phase corresponding to total copper extraction of 99.9% with 3 mg/L and 5 mg/L of copper in the raffinate from the third stage respectively (Fig. 4).

### 3.3. Precipitation-stripping of copper from loaded organic phase

Precipitation – stripping of copper from the loaded organic phase was carried out by contacting organic phase with aqueous oxalic acid solution (1 M). Oxalic acid dissociates into hydrogen ions and oxalate anions in the aqueous phase. An ion exchange reaction at the organic-aqueous interface between  $\operatorname{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\operatorname{H}^+$  ions leads to the release of copper from the copper-oxime complex. The  $\operatorname{Cu}^{2+}$  cation thus released in the aqueous phase undergoes a second reaction with the oxalate ion to form the copper oxalate precipitate and acts both as a stripping and precipitating agent (Eq. (2)).

$$CuR_2 + H_2C_2O_4 \rightarrow CuC_2O_4 \downarrow + 2RH \tag{2}$$

After copper extraction the organic phase was washed to remove the adhering ammonia. Stripping behavior was investigated at equal (O/A) ratios by contacting the loaded organic phase with 50% v/v of extractant with 1 M oxalic acid in a single stage contact. Previous studies on precipitation stripping from copper loaded solutions showed that 1 M oxalic acid was optimal for stripping [34]. Using higher

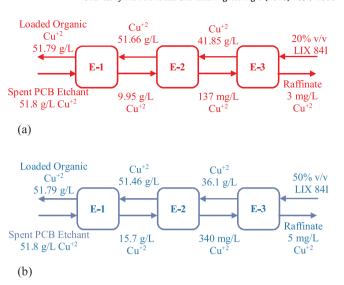
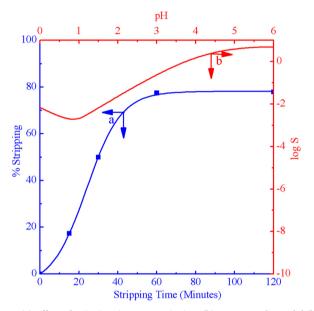


Fig. 4. Counter-current simulation for the extraction of copper (a) 20% (v/v) LIX84I, O/A = 4.5:1, (b) 50% (v/v) LIX84I, O/A = 1.5:1.



**Fig. 5.** (a) Effect of stripping time on% stripping. (b) Copper oxalate solubility curve.

concentrations of oxalic acid was not feasible due to limited solubility of oxalic acid in water at the stripping temperature. Fig. 5 shows the percent copper precipitated-stripped as copper oxalate with time. The percentage precipitation increased with an increase in contact time and after 1 h of stripping time 77.4% of the loaded copper was stripped as copper oxalate in the first contact. Stripping was performed using 1 M acid in two contacts using fresh acid each time. The total copper stripped after each contact is the sum of copper present in the precipitate and the copper remaining dissolved in the oxalic acid solution.

Experimental data shows that out of the 26.7 g copper loaded in the organic phase, the amount of copper precipitated as oxalate was 20.55 g in first contact and 5.77 g in the second contact accounting for a cumulative yield of 98.57%. Copper remaining soluble in oxalic acid after precipitation was experimentally determined. The soluble copper after the first and second contact was  $0.12\,\mathrm{g}$  and  $0.07\,\mathrm{g}$  respectively. Thus, net copper stripped from organic phase in first contact is  $20.67\,\mathrm{g}$  which accounts for 99.42% and  $5.7\,\mathrm{g}$  in the second contact accounting for 98.8% of copper precipitated.

Soluble copper oxalato species were also determined based on

theoretical considerations from the solubility diagram. Oxalic acid in solution dissociates into hydrogen ions and oxalate anions depending on the solution pH with equilibrium constants represented as  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  respectively [35].

$$H_2C_2O_4 = H^+ + HC_2O_4^-, logK_1 = -4.266$$
 (3)

$$HC_2O_4 = H^+ + C_2O_4^{2-}, logK_2 = -1.252$$
 (4)

Based on mass law, the oxalate species can be expressed as,

$$[C_2 O_4^{2-}] = \alpha_{C_2 O_4} A_T = \left[1 + \frac{H^+}{K_1} + \frac{[H^+]^2}{K_1 K_2}\right] A_T$$
(5)

Where,  $A_T = H_2C_2O_4 + HC_2O_4 + C_2{O_4}^2$ , the total concentration of the oxalates and  $\alpha_{C_2O_4}$ the ionization fraction of oxalate anion  $C_2O_4^2$ . Introducing the equilibrium constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  and total concentration  $A_T$  gives the concentration of oxalate species  $(C_2O_4^{2-})$  at different pH values.

The solubility equilibrium for copper- oxalic acid system can be expressed by Eq. (6) [36].

$$CuC_2O_{4(s)} = Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-}, \log K_{SP} - 9.14$$
 (6)

Taking logarithm of Eq. (6) and substituting the value of  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  and  $K_{SP}$  gives the soluble  $Cu^{2+}$  species.

Oxalate anions react with  $Cu^{2+}$  cations in aqueous solution to form successively two soluble complexes  $CuC_2O_4(aq)$ ,  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$ , characterized by their stability constants  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  respectively. The 1:1 oxalate complex can also be protonated to form  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$  specie in acidic media characterized by its ionization constant  $\beta_3$ . The formation of oxalate complexes can be represented by Eqs. (7)–(9) [35]

$$Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-} = CuC_2O_{4(aq)}, \log \beta_1 = 6.1$$
 (7)

$$Cu^{2+} + 2C_2O_4^{2-} = Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-} \log \beta_2 = 10.23$$
 (8)

$$Cu^{2+} + HC_2O_4^- = Cu(HC_2O_4)^+, \log\beta_3 = 7.32$$
 (9)

Taking logarithm of Eqs. (7)–(9) and introducing the constant values  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$  enables to calculate soluble species  $CuC_2O_4(aq)$ ,  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$ ,  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$ .

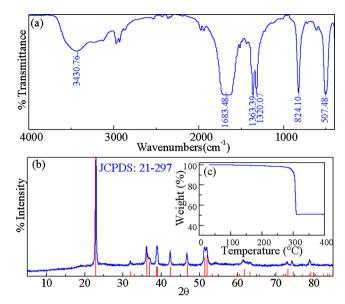
Summation of all the copper soluble complexes  $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$ ,  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$ ,  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$ 

 $Cu^{2+}$ ,  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$ ,  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$ ,  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$  represented as  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$  when plotted vs. pH results in the solubility diagram (Fig. 5). The solubility of copper oxalate at the precipitation pH value of 0.85 corresponding to minima in the solubility curve was determined from the solubility diagram. Based on theoretical considerations, copper solubilized in first and second contact turns out to be 0.075 g and 0.034 g respectively. Thus, theoretically copper precipitated in first contact was 99.64% and in the second contact it was 99.41%. These values are in close agreement with the experimental values indicating the robustness of the prediction method.

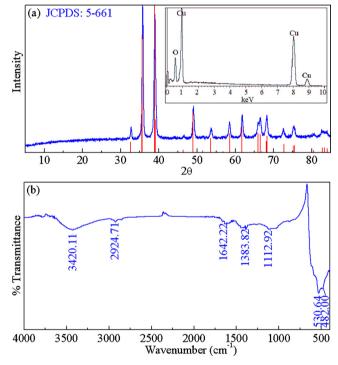
### 3.4. Ammonia transport to organic phase

It is well known that LIX84I when involved in copper extraction from ammoniacal media co-extracts ammonia in the oil phase. Lee and Chan [37] reported that only free ammonia is transported to the oil phase since ammonium ion is insoluble in the oil phase. The type of hydroxyoxime and its concentration, pH of the aqueous phase, diluent used and the metal content, all have a bearing on the transfer of ammonia [28]. With excess of copper in the feed phase, with an increase in LIX 84I concentration in the organic phase, the loading of copper in organic phase increases with a simultaneous decrease in the amount of ammonia co-extracted, indicating that the metal extracted replaces ammonia from the organic phase [28].

The co-extraction of ammonia was determined by contacting the spent etchant with an organic phase containing 20% v/v and 50% v/v



**Fig. 6.** Characterization of copper oxalate: (a) FTIR spectra (b) XRD pattern (c) TGA analysis.



**Fig. 7.** Characterization of copper oxide (a) XRD pattern, Inset: EDX analysis (b) FTIR spectra.

LIX 84I at equal (O/A) ratios. The difference between the initial ammonia concentration in the aqueous phase and the final ammonia concentration after copper extraction gave a measure of ammonia transferred to the organic phase. The ammonia transferred in the organic phase containing 50% v/v extractant was 420 mg/L while with 20% v/v extractant it was 560 mg/L. At both the extractant concentrations investigated the system operates at maximum copper loading thereby restricting the transport of ammonia in organic phase. Maximum loading of copper minimizes the accumulation of ammonia in the organic phase, which reduces the need for ammonia scrubbing [38].

The ammonia transferred in the organic phase also reacts with oxalic acid forming ammonium oxalate. However, due to the high

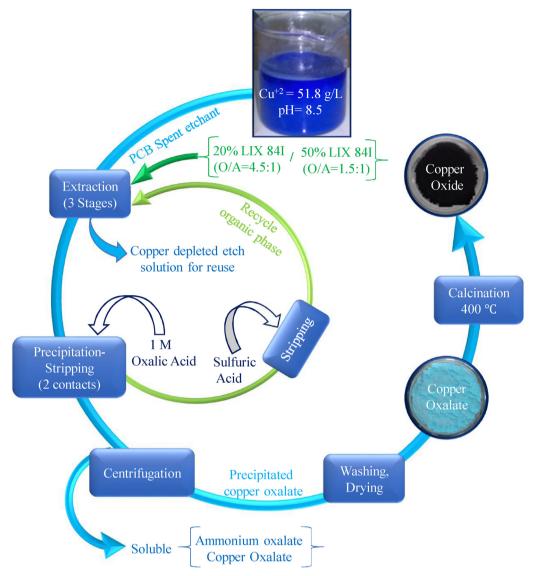


Fig. 8. Process scheme.

solubility of ammonium oxalate in water it dissolves in the aqueous phase.

### 3.5. Characterization of copper oxalate and oxide

IR spectra (Fig. 6a) of copper oxalate show a broad band at  $3430.76\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to the OH stretching vibration and the hydrogen bonds between the water molecules and the carboxylate group. The band at  $1683.48\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the main antisymmetric carbonyl stretching band specific to the oxalate family. Bands at  $1363.4\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  and  $1320.07\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  correspond to  $\sigma_s(C-O)+\sigma(C-C)$  and  $\sigma_s(C-O)+\delta(O-C=O)$  respectively. Bands at  $824.1\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  are due to  $\delta(O-C=O)$  and  $507.48\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  are for the  $\delta(Cu-O)$  for the oxalate moiety. Fig. 6b shows the XRD pattern of copper (II) oxalate. The diffraction peaks correspond to the orthorhombic phase of copper oxalate and matched with reported data JCPDS 021-0297.

TGA for copper oxalate in air is shown in Fig. 6c. The weight loss of 1.02% before 225 °C is attributed to the emission of surface water. The weight loss of 48% from 225 °C to 312 °C is due to the decomposition of the oxalate that matches closely with the theoretical value of 47.57%. Based on the information obtained from TGA analysis copper oxalate was calcined at 350 °C for three hours. However, XRD of the oxide formed revealed the presence of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ . Increasing the calcination

temperature to 400 °C for the same time span resulted in the formation of only CuO. All the peaks in the XRD pattern could be indexed to monoclinic phase (JCPDS 5-661) for CuO (Fig. 7a). No other crystalline impurities were found in the sample indicating a high purity product obtained. The EDX analysis of copper oxide (Fig. 7a, inset) confirmed pure CuO phase with Cu and O in stoichiometric proportions. The weight compositions for copper (Cu) and oxygen (O) were 80.58% and 19.42%, respectively and no other metals were detected. The chemical analysis of CuO also confirmed absence of any impurity indicating formation of pure copper oxide. The IR spectra (Fig. 7b) for copper oxide showed a broad band at 3420.11 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicating the presence of surface hydroxyl groups and peaks observed at 530.64 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 482 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to Cu-O bonds. Broad band at ~1642 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to OH bending vibrations combined with copper atom. Band at  $\sim 1112 \, \text{cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the OH bending vibrations of Cu-OH, band at 1383 cm<sup>-1</sup> is due to CuO stretching, While the band at 2924 cm<sup>-1</sup> is due to the asymmetrical CH<sub>3</sub> groups adsorbed on the surface of oxide particles.

Post stripping, the organic phase containing traces of copper was stripped using 1 M sulfuric acid to recover copper prior to recycle of the organic phase. The organic phase was tested to be used up to five cycles with 0.2% decline in the extraction ability. Since the amount of the metal present was low the same acid can be reused again. Fig. 8 shows

the scheme for extraction/stripping and recovery of copper as copper oxide from the spent etchant. The etchant solution after copper recovery and ammonia make up can be recycled back and reused. Copper oxide finds wide application in various fields such as pigments, catalysts, antibacterial agents, sensors, semiconductors, magnetic storage media etc. hence, reclamation of copper as copper oxide from spent etch solutions is an attractive proposition [39,40].

### 4. Conclusions

Copper was extracted from spent ammoniacal PCB etch solutions using LIX 84I as the extractant. Effect of pH was investigated and a maximum in extraction was obtained at a pH value of 8.9. Increase in extraction concentration from 10% v/v to 50% v/v was a monotonically increasing function. Extraction using 20% and 50% were investigated at varying organic to aqueous ratios. In both the cases three equilibrium stages were required at O/A ratio of 4.5:1 and 1.5:1 as indicated by Mc Cabe Thiele plots. Stripping of the fully loaded organic phase with 50% extractant using 1 M oxalic acid was achieved in two contacts with fresh acid each time.

Copper extraction from ammoniacal solutions into hydroxyoximes is accompanied with ammonia transfer. However, maximum loading of copper minimizes the transfer of ammonia in the organic phase. In such a situation of extraction from ammoniacal solutions, precipitation stripping offers an inherent advantage during the reclamiation of copper where in conventional stripping process buildup of ammonium sulfate is observed after recycle of spent electrolyte over a period of time during electrowinning process. In precipitation stripping copper is reclaimed as copper oxalate and there is separation of the solid from the aqueous phase in which ammonium oxalate is soluble.

This work makes an attempt to recover copper from an potential waste stream of PCB etch liquors that is projected to grow significantly in the years to come in view of the great demand of PCBs for electronic devices. The reclaimed copper can be utilized effectively for various applications.

### Acknowledgement

This work was supported by University Grants Commission, New Delhi, India vide UGC MRP File No. 41-367/2012 (SR).

### References

- P. Hadi, M. Xu, C.S.K. Lin, C.W. Hui, G. McKay, Waste printed circuit board recycling techniques and product utilization, J. Hazard. Mater. 283 (2015) 234–243.
- [2] A. Isildar, E.R. Rene, E.D. van Hullebusch, P.N.L. Lens, Electronic waste as a secondary source of critical metals: management and recovery technologies, Resour. Conserv. Recycl. (2017) Article in press.
- [3] A. Shokri, F. Pahlevani, K. Levick, I. Cole, V. Sahajwalla, Synthesis of copper-tin nanoparticles from old computer printed circuit boards, J. Clean. Prod. 142 (2017) 2586–2592.
- [4] H. Wang, S. Zhang, B. Li, D. Pan, Y. Wu, T. Zuo, Recovery of waste printed circuit boards through pyrometallurgical processing: a review, Resour. Conserv. Recycl. 126 (2017) 209–218.
- [5] F.E. Stone, Electroless copper in printed wiring board fabrication, in: G. Mallory, J. Hajdu (Eds.), Electroless Plating: Fundamentals and Applications, AESF, New York, NY, 1990, pp. 331–375.
- [6] D.I. Giannopoulou, L.D. Panias, P.I. Paspaliaris, Copper recovery from spent ammoniacal etching solutions, Hannover, Germany, European Metallurgical Conference EMC, Vol. 3 2003, pp. 1035–1046.
- [7] B. Fries, Source Reduction Technologies in California Printed Circuit Board Manufacture, Doc. No. 539, California Environmental Protection Agency, Department of Toxic Substances Control, 1999, pp. 1–30.
- [8] S. Liu, H. Hou, X. Liu, J. Duan, Y. Yao, Q. Liao, J. Li, Y. Yang, Recycled hierarchical tripod-like CuCl from Cu-PCB waste etchant for lithium ion battery anode, J. Hazard. Mater. 324 (2017) 357–364.
- [9] M. Yu, X. Zeng, Q. Song, L. Liu, J. Li, Examining regeneration technologies for etching solutions: a critical analysis of the characteristics and potentials, J. Clean. Prod. 113 (2016) 973–980.
- [10] T. Keskitalo, J. Tanskanen, T. Kuokkanen, Analysis of key patents of the regeneration of acidic cupric chloride etchant waste and tin stripping waste, Resour. Conserv. Recycl. 49 (2007) 217–243.

- [11] Z. Yang, C. Huang, X. Ji, Y. Wang, A new electrolytic method for on-site regeneration of acidic copper (II) chloride etchant in printed circuit board production, Int. J. Electrochem. Sci. 8 (2013) 6258–6268.
- [12] M.S. Lee, J.G. Ahn, J.W. Ahn, Recovery of copper, tin and lead from the spent nitric etching solutions of printed circuit board and regeneration of the etching solution, Hydrometallurgy 70 (2003) 23–29.
- [13] De-liang Li, Ren-hua Chen, Selective separation of copper by membrane- electrowinning and its application in etchant recycling, J. Cent. South Univ. Technol. 12 (2005) 10–13.
- [14] Z. Huang, F. Xie, Y. Ma, Ultrasonic recovery of copper and iron through the simultaneous utilization of Printed Circuit Boards (PCB) spent acid etching solution and PCB waste sludge, J. Hazard. Mater. 185 (2011) 155–161.
- [15] S. Liu, H. Hou, X. Liu, J. Duan, Y. Yao, Q. Liao, J. Li, Y. Yang, Recycled hierarchical tripod-like CuCl from Cu-PCB waste etchant for lithium ion battery anode, J. Hazard, Mater. 324 (2017) 357–364.
- [16] O.A. Fouad, S.M. Abdel Basir, Cementation-induced recovery of self-assembled ultrafine copper powders from spent etching solutions of printed circuit boards, Powder Technol. 159 (2005) 127–134.
- [17] K. Wieszczycka, M. Kaczerewska, M. Krupa, A. Parus, A. Olszanowski, Solvent extraction of copper (II) from ammonium chloride and hydrochloric acid solutions with hydrophobic pyridine ketoximes, Sep. Purif. Technol. 95 (2012) 157–164.
- [18] Q.W. Liang, H.P. Hu, W. Fu, T. Ye, Q.Y. Chen, Recovery of copper from simulated ammoniacal spent etchant using sterically hindered beta-diketone, Trans. Nonferrous Met. Soc. China 21 (2011) 1840–1846.
- [19] Y.K.P. Sze, J.C. Wong, A study of a solvent extraction method for the regeneration of ammoniacal etching solutions of copper, Environ. Technol. 15 (1994) 785–793.
- [20] Y. Xu, J. Li, L. Liu, Current status and future perspective of recycling copper by hydrometallurgy from waste printed circuit boards, Procedia Environ. Sci. 31 (2016) 162–170.
- [21] J. Hu, Q. Chen, H. Hu, X. Chen, Q. Ma, Z. Yin, Extraction behavior and mechanism of Cu(II) in ammoniacal sulfate solution with  $\beta$ -diketone, Hydrometallurgy 127–128 (2012) 54–61.
- [22] G. Kyuchoukov, M.B. Bogacki, J. Szymanowski, Copper extraction from ammoniacal solutions with LIX 84 and LIX 54, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 37 (1998) 4084–4089.
- [23] F.J. Alguacil, M. Alonso, Recovery of copper from ammoniacal/ammonium sulfate medium by LIX 54, J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol. 74 (1999) 1171–1175.
- [24] M. Rosinda, C. Ismael, M. Lurdes, F. Gameiro, J.M.R. Carvalho, Extraction equilibrium of copper from ammoniacal media with LIX 54, Sep. Sci. Technol. 39 (2004) 3859–3877.
- [25] S. Wang, J. Li, H. Narita, M. Tanaka, Modeling of equilibria for the solvent extraction of ammonia with LIX84I, Solvent Extr. Res. Dev. 24 (2017) 71–76.
- [26] M. Rosinda, C. Ismael, J.M.R. Carvalho, Copper recovery from spent ammoniacal etching solutions, in: K.C. Sole, P.M. Cole, J.S. Preston, D.J. Robison (Eds.), In Proceedings of International Solvent Extraction Conference (ISEC'2002), Chris Van Rensburg Publications Ltd., South Africa, 2002, pp. 781–786.
- [27] M. Lurdes, F. Gameiro, R.M. Machado, M. Rosinda, C. Ismael, M. Teresa, J.M.R. Carvalho, Copper extraction from ammoniacal medium in a pulsed sieveplate column with LIX 84-I, J. Hazard. Mater. 183 (2010) 165–175.
- [28] K. Ochromowicz, M. Jeziorek, K. Wejman, Copper (II) extraction from ammonia leach solution, Physicochem. Probl. Miner. Process. 50 (2014) 327–335.
- [29] T.D. Batueva, A.V. Radushev, V.Y. Gusev, Extraction of copper ({II}) from weakly acid and ammonia media with N', N'-dialkylhydrazides of aliphatic carboxylic acids, Russ. J. Appl. Chem. 82 (2009) 1997–2001.
- [30] L. Meng, Y. Zhong, Z. Wang, K. Chen, X. Qiu, H. Cheng, Z. Guo, Supergravity separation for Cu recovery and precious metal concentration from waste printed circuit boards, ACS Sustain. Chem. Eng. 6 (2018) 186–192.
- [31] L. Meng, Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater, 22nd ed., APHA, AWWA, WEF, Washington, DC, USA, 2012, pp. 4-72-4-190.
- [32] J. Hu, Q. Chen, H. Hu, Z. Jiang, D. Wang, S. Wang, Y. Li, Microscopic insights into extraction mechanism of Copper(II) in ammoniacal solutions studied by X-ray absorption spectroscopy and density functional theory calculation, J. Phys. Chem. A 117 (2013) 12280–12287.
- [33] K.C. Nathsarma, P.V.R. Bhaskara Sarma, Processing of ammoniacal solutions containing copper, nickel and cobalt for metal separation, Hydrometallurgy 33 (1993) 197–210.
- [34] K. Shah, K. Gupta, B. Sengupta, Selective separation of copper and zinc from spent chloride brass pickle liquors using solvent extraction and metal recovery by precipitation-stripping, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 5 (2017) 5260–5269.
- [35] G. Martell, R.M. Smith, Critical Stability Constants of Metal Ion Complexes, Part B, Organic Ligands, Pergamon Press, 1977.
- [36] D.R. Lide, CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, Eighty fourth ed., CRC Press LLC, 2004, pp. 127–129.
- [37] C.J. Lee, C.C. Chan, Extraction of ammonia from a dilute aqueous solution by emulsion liquid membrane: experimental studies in batch system, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 29 (1990) 96–100.
- [38] S. Wang, J. Li, H. Narita, M. Tanaka, Equilibrium modeling of the extraction of copper and ammonia from alkaline media with the extractant LIX84I, Mater. Trans. 58 (2017) 1427–1433.
- [39] E.D. Milliken, T.J. Detrie, G.E. Sakoske, Copper oxide infrared pigment, in: US Patent 9683107 B2, 2017.
- [40] M. Yang, J. He, X. Hu, C. Yan, Z. Cheng, Synthesis of nanostructured copper oxide via oxalate precursors and their sensing properties for hydrogen cyanide gas, Analyst 138 (2013) 1758–1763.

FISHVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### **Powder Technology**

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



## Role of ethanol on particle size and morphology during copper oxalate synthesis by Precipitation-Stripping



Khyati Shah, Kamalesh Gupta, Bina Sengupta\*

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Technology and Engineering, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara, India

#### ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 12 October 2019 Received in revised form 13 January 2020 Accepted 14 February 2020 Available online 19 February 2020

Keywords: Precipitation-Stripping Copper oxalate Ethanol-oxalic acid Extraction Solubility Particle size

#### ABSTRACT

Copper oxalate particles were synthesized from a copper loaded oil phase using the precipitation-stripping (PS) technique with oxalic acid as the stripping and precipitating agent. The copper source was a spent ammoniacal printed circuit board etch solution and LIX 84I was the metal extractant. The role of ethanol in stripping solution on stripping rates, particle morphology and size was investigated. An increase in ethanol concentration enhanced both rate and extent of stripping. PS with aqueous oxalic acid resulted in cushion shaped particles with a wide size distribution which changed to flat discs with an increase in precipitation time. Changes in the polarity, dielectric strength, coupled with significant reduction in the interfacial tension between oil and aqueous phases due to the presence of ethanol in the stripping solution resulted in spherical submicron particles with a narrow size distribution. This investigation paves way for a process to synthesize submicron oxalate particles.

© 2020 Published by Elsevier B.V.

### 1. Introduction

There is a resurgence of interest in understanding precipitation processes in the last few decades. Significant amount of research is carried with the objective to control size, shape and other properties of precipitated materials. Production of particles having unimodal and narrow size distribution has been of considerable interest because of their applications in diverse fields such as catalysis, ceramics, electronics and medicine. Metal oxalate particles are particularly in focus because they can be synthesized easily by precipitation from aqueous solutions and transformed to their respective metal oxides by calcinations without losing their ordered structure.

In the precipitation process initially nanosized particles are formed, which cluster together to form micron sized aggregates of definite shape. Investigations related to precipitation behaviour have often used copper oxalate as a test case since copper oxalate does not precipitate in the form of a single crystal but as spherical polycrystalline particles with nanosized crystallites [1]. It also differs from the oxalates of other divalent metals because water plays a negligible role in its structure and composition unlike the other oxalates that utilize oxygen from the interlayer water molecules to complete coordination [2].

Different aspects of precipitation of copper oxalate on particle morphology are fairly well investigated viz. role of copper source and precipitating agents [1,3–8], effect of temperature and reactant concentration [9,10], effect of additives [11–13] synthesis technique, such as

E-mail address: bina.sengupta-chemengg@msubaroda.ac.in (B. Sengupta).

ionic liquid assisted [14], reverse micelles [15], stripping-precipitation [16], emulsion liquid membranes [17], ether water bilayer refluxing [18] electrosynthesis [19] and one pot synthesis [20].

Precipitation stripping (PS) is a combination of stripping and precipitation steps in conventional metal solvent extraction (SX) process. The extracted metal ions are stripped from the metal loaded oil phase using oxalic acid as a sparing soluble metal oxalate. Oxalic acid acts both as a stripping agent as well as the precipitating agent. The metal gets stripped by hydrogen ions and is subsequently precipitated by oxalate anions [21] forming a sparingly soluble metal oxalate in aqueous media. H<sup>+</sup> ion is the driving force in stripping rather than the oxalate [22]. Precipitation takes place at the interface between two immiscible liquids (oil-aqueous). The process is visualized as involving three steps (i) Diffusion of the complexed metal from the bulk oil phase to the oil-aqueous interface, (ii) Stripping of the metal ions, (iii) Diffusion and reaction of the metal ions with the oxalate ions in the aqueous phase.

Equimolar amount of oxalate and metal does not result in complete precipitation and almost 50% excess of oxalate ions is required to achieve complete precipitation [22]. Mixtures of oxalic acid with ammonium oxalate or sodium oxalate are also used as precipitating agents [23]. Oxalic acid with sodium oxalate allows effective recovery of metals [24]. However, addition of ammonium oxalate to the oxalic acid solution does not improve stripping and precipitating properties. Stripping is not achieved by potassium oxalate; the hydrogen ion in oxalic acid is a greater driving force in the stripping mechanism at the molecular level than the oxalate ion [22]. PS method has been used for preparation of rare earth oxalates [21], metal oxalates [25], copper oxalate [16,26],

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

zinc oxalate [27] and recovery of metal values from waste streams [28–31].

Particles obtained by PS show a wide size distribution and high degree of agglomeration. Shear generated due to stirring during the PS process increases the collisions between the particles having surface charges, this leads to enhanced particle agglomeration. The agglomeration of particles during precipitation processes substantially decreases in presence of alcohol [32,33]. Alcohol mixed solvents are used to synthesize nanopowders [34,35], rare earth oxalates [36–38], control size [39] and morphology of the particles [32,33,35,36,39]. Although the effect of alcohol during precipitation process is well reported however, the role of ethanol in particle formation during PS is unexplored.

In the present investigation copper was extracted from spent ammoniacal Printed Circuit Board (PCB) etch solution using 50% v/v LIX84I in kerosene. Precipitation-Stripping with aqueous oxalic acid and ethanoloxalic acid mixtures was used to recover copper from the extract as copper oxalate particles. Effect of ethanol concentration in the stripping media on the rate of stripping, particle size, size distribution, morphology and the yield of the oxalate particles obtained is discussed.

### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Materials

Ammoniacal spent etchant solution was collected from a small scale PCB manufacturing unit (having capacity of 500  $\text{m}^2/\text{month}$ ) in Baroda, India. LIX 84I (BASF) was used as the copper extractant. Commercial kerosene (B·P-152–271 °C) used as a diluent was supplied by Indian Oil Corporation Limited. Other reagents, oxalic acid, sulfuric acid used were of AR grade.

### 2.2. Methods

### 2.2.1. Extraction

The metals present in the PCB etch solution was determined using Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICPOES) (Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV). The ammoniacal nitrogen, chloride and the sulphate concentration in the etch solution was determined using the standard methods for analysis of water and waste water, APHA–4500 N, APHA 4500–Cl-B and APHA 4500–SO<sub>4</sub>-2E respectively. The pH of the solution was measured using digital pH meter (Systronics).

Copper extraction from etch solution was carried out using 50% (v/v) LIX 84I in kerosene (oil phase) by contacting equal volumes (100 mL each) of the oil and aqueous phases in shake flasks on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at 150 rpm and  $30\pm2$  °C. After extraction the oil and aqueous phases were separated. Copper concentration before and after extraction was determined using an Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (AAS) (Chemito AA203) at 321 nm. The oil phase was scrubbed with water prior to stripping.

### 2.2.2. Precipitation-stripping

Stripping was carried out by contacting the loaded oil phase with 1.0 M oxalic acid and ethanol-oxalic acid solutions on a rotary shaker (Remi-RS 24BL) at  $30\pm2$  °C and 150 rpm. After the stipulated stripping time the aqueous phase containing the precipitate and oil phase were separated. Copper oxalate precipitate in the aqueous phase was separated by centrifugation, subsequently washed and dried.

### 2.3. Analytical techniques

Powder X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) patterns of the copper oxalate were recorded on a Bruker, D2 Phaser X-Ray Diffraction meter with CuKα radiation at 1.54 Å wave length in the 2θ range from 10 to 80 degrees. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) spectra were recorded on a Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS5 spectrometer with iD1 transmission over a frequency range of 400–4000 cm $^{-1}$ . All measurements consisted of 32 scans. The morphology of the particles was examined by Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) Ziess Supra 40. Size distribution of the oxalate particles was determined using a laser diffraction particle size analyser (Malvern Mastersizer 2000MU). Surface tension and Interfacial tension measurements were carried out on a Tensiometer (Kruss K9).

### 3. Results and discussion

Ammoniacal spent etchant solution had a pH value of 8.5. The metal composition of the spent etchant determined by ICP analysis was 51.8 g/l of copper, 3.375 mg/L nickel, 33.5 mg/L lead, 14.05 mg/L zinc and 1.856 mg/L tin. The chloride, sulfate and ammoniacal nitrogen content were 53.85 g/L, 0.395 g/L, and 48.67 g/L respectively. In ammoniacal solutions hydrated copper reacts with ammonia to form various copper ammine species. The number of ammonia molecules coordinated to the metal varies depending upon the conditions, with four being the favoured one [40]. At a pH

Fig. 1. Mechanism of copper extraction using LIX 84-I at oil-aqueous interface.

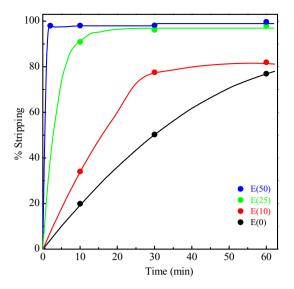


Fig. 2. Stripping of copper using oxalic acid and ethanol-oxalic acid solutions.

value of 8.5 and copper concentration of 51.8 g/L,  $Cu(NH_3)_4^{2+}$  was the dominant species present in the etch solution [31].

### 3.1. Copper extraction

Copper extraction was carried out using an oil phase containing 50% (v/v) LIX 84I at an equilibrium pH of 8.9 and oil/aqueous (O/A) ratio of 1. In a single stage 26.7 g/L of copper was loaded in the oil phase, which accounts for 51.5% of the total copper present in the etch solution. For complete extraction of copper, three stages at O/A ratio of 1.5:1 were required using 50% (v/v) extractant concentration. Details of the

extraction methodology are discussed elsewhere [31]. Fig. 1 shows the mechanism of copper extraction at the oil-aqueous interface. It involves the formation of an interfacial complex ( $CuR_2$ ) between the molecules of the extractant (HR) and the copper ion ( $Cu^{2+}$ ) at the interface (Eq. (1)) followed by the transfer of this complex formed at the interface to the bulk of oil phase and simultaneous replacement of the interfacial vacancy with the extractant molecules.

$$Cu(NH_3)_4^{2+} + 2HR \leftrightarrow CuR_2 + 2NH_4^+ + 2NH_3$$
 (1)

### 3.2. Precipitation-stripping of copper in ethanol-oxalic acid solutions

The oil phase after extraction was washed several times with water to remove the adhering aqueous phase and ammonia prior to stripping. Precipitation stripping of copper was performed using 1 M oxalic acid (E0) and ethanol-oxalic acid solutions. The amount of ethanol in the aqueous solution was 10% (v/v) (E10), 25% (v/v) (E25) and 50% (v/v) (E50) and oxalic acid concentration was 1 M in all samples. The total copper stripped from oil phase is the sum of copper present in the precipitate and the copper remaining dissolved in the aqueous solution. The stripping and precipitation percentage were calculated as.

$$\%(Stripping) = \frac{(A-B)}{A} \times 100 \tag{2}$$

$$\%(Precipitation) = \frac{(A - B - C)}{A} \times 100$$
 (3)

where A is copper present in the oil phase, B is the copper remaining in the oil phase after stripping and C is the soluble copper in the aqueous/stripping phase.

Fig. 2 shows the stripping of copper using oxalic acid and ethanoloxalic acid solutions from oil phase containing the 26.7 g/L loaded

### Copper-extractant complex.

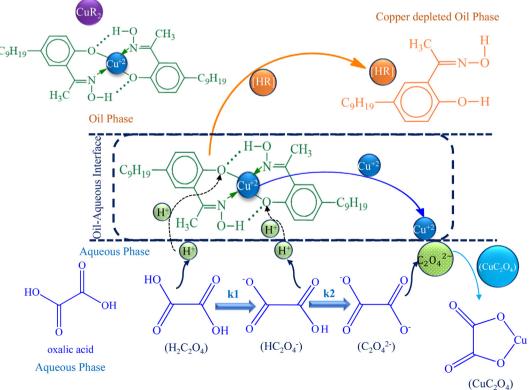


Fig. 3. Mechanism of precipitation-stripping of copper from loaded oil phase at oil-aqueous interface.

 Table 1

 Solution properties, Equilibrium constants and solubility of copper oxalate in oxalic acid and ethanol-oxalic acid solutions.

Sample	pН	Surface tension (mN/m)	Interfacial tension (mN/m)	Dielectric constant [45]	Log consta	ant [41-43]		Copper so	luble (gm)
					$K_1$	K <sub>2</sub>	$K_{SP}$	Е	С
E(0)	0.84	51.5	15.7	76.75	-4.266	-1.252	-9.14	0.12	0.075
E(10)	0.9	45	11.6	72.15	-4.6	-1.5	-9.099	0.1	0.06
E(25)	0.94	34.9	5.8	65.22	-5.15	-1.8	-9.048	0.084	0.049
E(50)	1.3	29.4	2.3	51.91	-6.05	-2.35	-9.032	0.072	0.036

E = Experimental, C = Calculated.

Interfacial tension between oil (kerosene containing 50%(v/v) LIX84-I) and aqueous phase.

copper. The amount of copper stripped with aqueous solution of oxalic acid (E0) after stripping time (t) of 60 min was 77.8% of the initial copper loaded. Continuing the contact of the oil phase with the aqueous phase for further two hours did not increase the extent of stripping. Hence, a second stage with fresh oxalic acid was required for stripping the remaining copper. Addition of 10% ethanol (E10) to the acid during stripping resulted in an increase in the rate of stripping compared to E (0) (Fig. 2). However, the extent of stripping remained same in both the cases at the end of 60 min. At the end of second stripping stage the extent of stripping was 99.2% for E(0) and 99.4% for E(10) respectively. Addition of 25% ethanol in the stripping solution enhanced the rates tremendously and in a single stage 98.7% stripping was achieved. Further increasing the ethanol content to 50% resulted in 98.9% stripping in just two minutes time.

Fig. 3 shows the mechanism of precipitation-stripping of copper from the loaded oil phase at the oil-aqueous interface. LIX 84 I is insoluble in aqueous solutions [40] therefore the mechanism of PS of copper is visualized to be carried out in two stages. Oxalic acid in solution

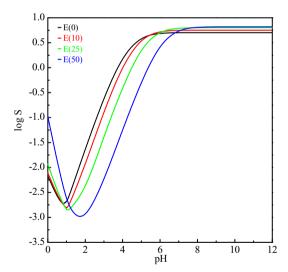


Fig. 4. Solubility diagram.

dissociates into hydrogen ions and oxalate anions depending on the solution pH according to Eqs. (4) and (5) with equilibrium constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  respectively (Table 1).

$$H_2C_2O_4 = H^+ + HC_2O_4^- \tag{4}$$

$$HC_2O_4^- = H^+ + C_2O_4^{2-} (5)$$

Copper ion is released from the copper-oxime complex at the oil -aqueous interface by exchange with  $\mathrm{H^+}$  ions thereby releasing the extractant (HR)<sub>2</sub> (Eq. (6)). In the vicinity of the interface in the aqueous film there is an excess of oxalate ions. The  $\mathrm{Cu^{2+}}$  cation transfers to the aqueous phase where it undergoes a second reaction with the oxalate anion in the vicinity of the interface to form copper oxalate precipitate (Eq. (7)).

$$CuR_{2(org)} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} \leftrightarrow Cu^{2+}_{(aq)} + 2(HR)_{(org)}$$
 (6)

$$Cu^{2+}_{(aa)} + C_2O_4^{2-}_{(aa)} \to CuC_2O_{4(5)}$$
 (7)

The oxalate species can be expressed as

$$\left\lceil C_2 O_4^{2-} \right\rceil = \alpha_{C_2 O_4} A_T \tag{8}$$

where,  $A_T = H_2C_2O_4 + HC_2O_4 + C_2O_4^{2-}$  the total concentration of the oxalates and  $\alpha_{C_2O_4}$  is the ionization fraction of oxalate anion  $C_2O_4^{2-}$ . The concentration of the complexing  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  ions can be determined as a function of pH.

$$\left[C_2 O_4^{2-}\right] = \left[1 + \frac{\left[H^+\right]}{K_1} + \frac{\left[H^+\right]^2}{K_1 K_2}\right] A_T \tag{9}$$

Introducing the equilibrium constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  (Table 1) and total concentration  $A_{T_1}$  in Eq. (9), gives the concentration of oxalate species  $(C_2O_4^{2-})$  at varying pH values.

The solubility equilibrium for copper- oxalic acid system can be expressed as,

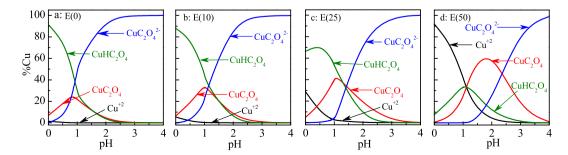


Fig. 5. Soluble specie distribution curves.

$$CuC_2O_{4(s)} \to Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-}$$
 (10)

Taking logarithm and rearranging gives

$$log\left[Cu^{2+}\right] = log K_{SP} - log\left[C_2O_4^{2-}\right]$$
 (11)

Substituting the values of the oxalate species  $(C_2O_4^{2-})$  obtained from Eq. (9) and the  $K_{SP}$  value (Table 1) in Eq. (11), results in  $Cu^{2+}$  concentration equilibrated with solid  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$ . Besides the solubility equilibrium,  $Cu^{2+}$  complexes with oxalate anion forming soluble species,  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$  and,  $Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}$  characterized by their stability constants  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  respectively (Eqs. (12) and (13)).

$$Cu^{2+} + C_2O_4^{2-} = CuC_2O_{4(aq)}, \ \beta_1 = \frac{[CuC_2O_4]}{[Cu^{2+}][C_2O_4^{2-}]} = 6.1$$
 (12)

$$Cu^{2+} + 2C_2{O_4}^{2-} = Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}, \ \beta_2 = \frac{\left[Cu(C_2O_4)_2^{2-}\right]}{\left[Cu^{2+}\right]\left[C_2{O_4}^{2-}\right]^2} = 10.23 \ \ (13)$$

Copper oxalate has appreciable solubility in oxalic acid in the presence of excess oxalate ions due to the formation of increasing quantities of  $(Cu(C_2O_4)_2)^{2-}$  [44]. In addition, the 1:1 oxalate complex can also be protonated to form  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$  specie in acidic media characterized by its ionization constant  $\beta_3$ 

$$Cu^{2+} + HC_2O_4^- = Cu(HC_2O_4)^+, \ \beta_3 = \frac{\left[Cu(HC_2O_4)^+\right]}{\left[Cu^{2+}\right][HC_2O_4^-]} = 7.32$$
 (14)

Taking logarithm of Eqs. (12), (13) and (14), rearranging and introducing the values of equilibrium constants and ionization constants from Table 1 enables plotting the solubility curves Log s vs pH where s is  $CuC_2O_{4(aq)}$  concentration equilibrated with solid  $CuC_2O_{4(s)}$  (Fig. 4).

Fig. 4 (solubility diagram) shows the total soluble copper oxalato species at different pH values based on the amount stripped after one hour using 1Moxalic acid (Fig. 2) from 26.7 g/L copper loaded in oil phase for the four samples. The solubility minima correspond to the maxima in precipitation of the oxalate. Solubility diagram was used to determine the soluble copper in the aqueous solution at the precipitation pH. These values were compared with the experimental values obtained after stripping and separation of the oxalate precipitates (Table 1)

The distribution of the soluble copper species in the aqueous phase for all the four samples were also predicted from the solubility calculations (Fig. 5). With an increase in the ethanol content in the stripping solution, equilibrium pH values after stripping also increased (Table 1), as less  $H^+$  ions were available in solution because of low ionization constants in ethanolic solutions. The  $H^+$  ions bind with soluble

**Table 2**Statistical parameters obtained at varying ethanol concentrations.

Sample	d <sub>32</sub>	d <sub>43</sub>	<u>d<sub>v10</sub></u> (μm)	d <sub>v50</sub>	d <sub>v90</sub>
E(0) E(10)	0.904 0.303	1.53 0.787	0.482 0.151	1.012 0.305	2.28 1.32
E(10) E(25)	0.303	0.787	0.135	0.303	0.275
E(50)	0.158	0.168	0.11	0.153	0.215

copper to form  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$ . Hence, percentage of  $Cu(HC_2O_4)^+$  soluble species is more in solutions stripped with aqueous solutions of oxalic acid (Fig. 5a). On increasing the ethanol concentration free  $H^+$  ions produced from oxalic acid are not available to bind with copper and hence soluble  $Cu^{2+}$  species increases as the concentration of ethanol increases (Fig. 5b, c, d).

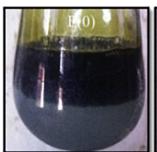
The dissolved oxalate in (E10), (E25) and (E50) was lower than that obtained while stripping with aqueous oxalic acid. This is attributed to the lowering of the solubility product of the copper oxalate in ethanolic solution (Table 1). Metal oxalates are almost insoluble in pure alcohol and the solubility of the oxalate in a mixed alcohol/water solvent will be lower than in pure water. The decrease in the dielectric constant with increasing nonpolar solvent concentration causes the solubility to decrease.

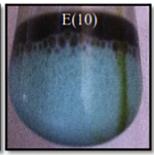
In ethanol solutions the ionization of oxalic acid is reduced because of lower dielectric constant [45] compared to that of water (Table 1). The reduction in ionization of oxalic acid in presence of ethanol causes a corresponding reduction in  $H^+$  ions in the system, thus the ionization reaction of  $H_2C_2O_4$  to form  $H^+$  and  $HC_2O_4^-$  (Eq. (4)) will be slow. This would result in a decline in stripping rate and the rate of precipitation of the copper oxalate. However, it was observed that rates of precipitation increased significantly in the presence of alcohol (Fig. 2).

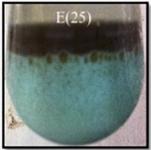
Precipitation – stripping environment in ethanol-oxalic acid solution is complex involving multiple interactions and effects. Ethanol reduces the dielectric constant and solubility product. At the same time presence of ethanol results in lowering of interfacial tension between oil and the aqueous phase (Table 1) leading to formation of fine dispersions on agitation, thereby increasing the interfacial area leading to increase in stripping rates. Fig. 6 shows the dispersions formed during stripping at 30 min time for the four samples.

Solubilisation of oil in alcohol further leads to the stability of the dispersion since alcohol (ethanol) molecule has both polar and nonpolar parts, while, water is highly polar and oil (kerosene) is completely nonpolar. Hence, in absence of any form of charge on them to cause repulsion, oil gets solubilized in ethanol. The amount of oil that will dissolve depends on whether there is more water or alcohol in the mixture. When ethanol solution fails to dissolve oil, it forms a dispersion of oil globules. Precipitation of the oxalate particles and their presence at the interface leads to further stabilization of the dispersion.

The combined effects of all these factors override the decline in precipitation rates expected due to the reduction of ionization of oxalic acid







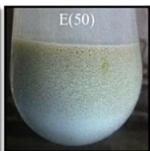


Fig. 6. Dispersions formed during agitation.

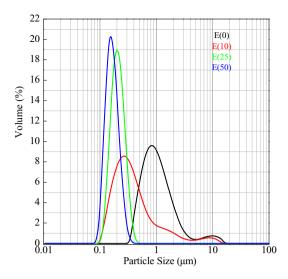


Fig. 7. Particle size distribution of copper oxalate.

and leads to rapid stripping of copper from oil phase because of the enormous increase in the surface area caused by the formation of oil-water dispersion in comparison with the area generated on a shaker where the stripping experiments were carried out. Hence, the stripping process gets over in a single stage contact and in lesser time. However, the complexity of the situation inhibits us from identifying effects of individual factors at this juncture.

### 3.3. Particle size distribution

Precipitation in aqueous solutions, E(0) lead to a particle size distribution that is bimodal, the primary particle size ranges from 0.3  $\mu$ m to 3.5  $\mu$ m with mode at 0.8  $\mu$ m, agglomeration of particles lead to a secondary size distribution with maximum particle size of 20  $\mu$ m. The significant statistical parameters observed for this PSD are presented in Table 2.

Precipitation in the presence of ethanol leads to a significant shift in the particle sizes to smaller size range. Precipitation in 10% ethanol-oxalic acid solutions, E(10), shows a particle size distribution starting from 100 nm with 50% of particles ( $d_{v50}$ ) less than

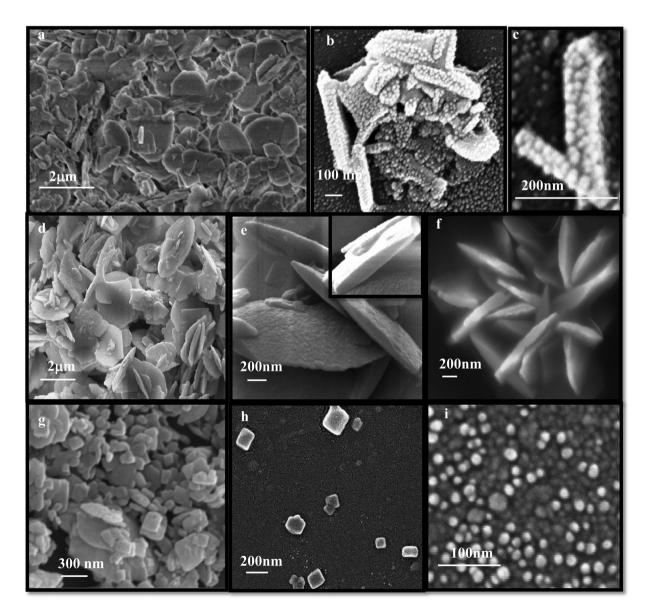


Fig. 8. FESEM of copper oxalate: (a) Sample E(0), t - 30 min (b) and (c) higher magnification image of 'a' (d) PS from 4.7 g/l loaded oil phase, t - 3 h (e) higher magnification image of d, (f) PS from 0.5 g/l loaded oil phase, t - 3 h (g) Sample E(10). (h) Sample E(25), (i) Sample E(50).

0.305  $\mu m$  which indicates that almost 50% particles obtained by precipitation in E(10) solutions are smaller than the smallest particle obtained in aqueous solution E(0).  $d_{v50}$  in E(0) was found to be 1.01  $\mu m$  while  $d_{v50}$  in E(10) is three fold smaller at 0.305  $\mu m$  similarly,  $d_{32}$  of particles precipitated in E(10) is also one third of the value obtained for particles precipitated in E(0) as shown in Table 2. However, precipitation in 10% ethanol –oxalic acid solutions, E(10) also yielded a bimodal particle size distribution due to clustering of particles and the maximum particle size observed was ~15  $\mu m$ .

Submicron size particles with narrow size distribution were obtained when PS was carried out with 25% E(25) and 50% E(50) ethanol in the stripping phase. 90% of particles precipitated in E(25) were smaller than the smallest particles precipitated in aqueous solutions, while in the case of precipitation in E(50) solutions almost all the particles precipitated were substantially smaller than the smallest particle formed during precipitation in aqueous solutions E(0) as evident from Table 2 and Fig. 7.

The addition of ethanol results in a decrease in the dielectric constant (Table 1) of the aqueous solution, the low value of the dielectric constant increases the supersaturation resulting in formation of high number of homogeneous nuclei leading to smaller average particle sizes. Similar results were reported by Hu et al. [46] who obtained submicrometer ZrO<sub>2</sub> powders in alcohol/water mixed solutions. They found that the dielectric property of the mixed alcohol/water solvent affected the nucleation and growth of zirconia particles. Crystal growth is inhibited in pure ethanol solutions and particle size can be controlled by varying ethanol concentration [47].

The clustering and agglomeration of the particles was also substantially reduced and free flowing powders were obtained when PS was carried out in the presence of ethanol. Reduction in aggregation and agglomeration of particles precipitated in ethanol- oxalic acid solutions is also attributed to the lower surface tension of ethanolic solutions (Table 1) which causes low particle packing during drying [34]. Uniformity of size distribution is achieved through a short nucleation period that generates all the particles seen at the end of the precipitation process followed by self-sharpening growth process where smaller particles grow more rapidly than larger ones and narrow particle size distribution is observed [48]. Polarity of the solvent dissolving the precipitating agent also influences the characteristics of the particles. A polar solvent such as water leads to a formation of few nuclei which grow rapidly while non-polar solvents such as ethanol result in formation of large number of small nuclei whose growth is strongly inhibited leading to smaller size particles [49].

### 3.4. Particle morphology

Fig. 8 shows FESEM images of the oxalate particles formed during PS using oxalic acid and ethanol-oxalic acid solutions. PS after 30 min precipitation time from oil phase containing 26.7 g/L copper and stripping with oxalic acid solution resulted in formation of cushion shaped particles with wide distribution in size (Fig. 8a).

The precipitated cushion shaped copper oxalate particles have square base and six distinct faces. The two opposite square base faces ( $\alpha$  faces) were quite different from the four others ( $\epsilon$  faces). Romann et al. [3] reported that in cushion shaped particles the  $\alpha$  faces show rough surface and radial curvature while the four  $\epsilon$  faces exhibit a flat profile and are much smoother than the  $\alpha$  faces.

Jongen et al. [1] had an interesting observation that made them suspect that the  $\epsilon$  faces are likely to be hydrophobic in nature while the  $\alpha$  faces are hydrophilic in nature, as a result, when the crystallites aggregate to form a particle, the hydrophobic faces minimize the interaction with the surrounding aqueous solution, leading to  $\epsilon$  faces much smaller than the  $\alpha$  faces. Such hydrophobic-hydrophilic interaction eventually results in formation of discs by a self- assembly process.

These investigators also studied the effect of additives hydroxyl propyl methyl cellulose (HPMC) on precipitated copper oxalate particle

shape and size. They observed that copper oxalate without HPMC, precipitates with cushion like shape and axial ratio smaller than one. With increasing HPMC concentration copper oxalate precipitates as cubes, square rods and finally as rods. Bowen et al. [50] investigated nanostructured copper oxalate systems and observed that self-assembly of copper oxalate is influenced by copper complexing acetate ions that significantly influence the particle morphology.

In order to get a deeper insight on the precipitation process, PS was carried out from copper loaded oil phase containing 4.6 g/L copper. Particles obtained after 3 h precipitation time from oil phase are shown in Fig. 8d wherein disks with bulge on  $\alpha$  faces are clearly observed. High resolution image of these cushion shaped particles in Fig. 8e show disk surfaces ( $\alpha$  faces) with considerable roughness. Inset to this figure show the contrast between rough ' $\alpha$ ' face and the smooth ' $\epsilon$ ' face. PS was also carried out with oil phase containing 500 mg/L of copper. Particles obtained after 3 h precipitation time is shown in Fig. 8f where the  $\alpha$  and  $\epsilon$  faces for the cushion shaped particles are clearly seen. The ' $\epsilon$ ' face is also seen in Fig. 8b and c, magnified image of Fig. 8a with the primary particles attached to these faces as the consolidation of the particles is not complete after 30 min precipitation time. In all these precipitations the molar ratio of acid to copper was between 2 and 2.5.

During PS process both the reactions that of copper stripping from the ligand as well as the precipitation of the oxalate take place at the oil-water interface. Since copper in the ligand is bound by clawing mechanism with the chelating extractant its release is relatively slow. During the initial time copper which is stripped gets precipitated and the primary particles agglomerate rapidly resulting in bulged cushion morphology. As precipitation progresses the  $\alpha$  faces grow due to the hydrophobic – hydrophilic interaction, as a result the particles formed in the initial stages become progressively flat resulting in disc morphology. Hence, the observation of both bulged cushion shaped particles and flat discs in FESEM images is attributed to the slow release of copper from the copper-oxime complex during PS.

Addition of 10% ethanol to the stripping media did not much alter the particle morphology and both disc shaped and cushion shaped morphology was observed (Fig. 8g). Addition of 25% ethanol to stripping solution resulted in cushion shaped particles with aspect ratio of around one (Fig. 8h). Increasing the ethanol concentration to 50% in the precipitation media resulted in uniform sized spherical shaped particles (Fig. 8i). Addition of ethanol resulted in the decrease in the dielectric constant as well as the interfacial tension between the oil and the aqueous phase (Table 1). On addition of 25% ethanol a fine dispersion formed

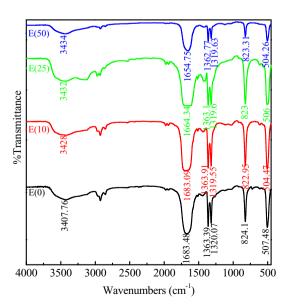


Fig. 9. FTIR spectra of copper oxalate.

during agitation due to the substantial reduction of interfacial tension (Fig. 6). Precipitation was complete within five minutes of time, cushion shaped morphology was observed in the particles which were mostly of submicron size having a narrow size distribution. With 50% ethanol in the precipitating media interfacial tension was 2.3 mN/m which was less than half the value obtained using 25% ethanol solutions (Table 1), this led to the formation of water in oil emulsion (Fig. 6) which resulted in formation of submicron spherical shaped particles with a narrow size distribution (Fig. 7) and the precipitation process was completed in just 2 min (Fig. 2).

Due to high ethanol content agglomeration and secondary nucleation tendencies were inhibited in 50% ethanol solutions, the energy barrier for the particles to aggregate was low due to the low dielectric constant and primary spherical particles of uniform particle size were obtained [51]. This behaviour could also be attributed to the fact that ethanol adsorbs more strongly than water on the surface, forms a layer and prevents agglomeration during crystallization [33].

### 3.5. Characterisation of particles

### 3.5.1. IR spectroscopy

IR spectra (Fig. 9) for all the four samples of copper oxalate E(0), E(10), E(25) and E(50) show a broad band at ~3430 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponding to the OH stretching vibration and the hydrogen bonds between the water molecules and the carboxylate group. A shift in the band attributed to the main antisymmetric carbonyl stretching band specific to the oxalate family from 1683 cm<sup>-1</sup> for sample E(0) to 1654.75 cm<sup>-1</sup> for sample E(50) is a pointer towards less amount of water in the particles precipitated in 50% ethanol-oxalic acid solution. Both these bands arise from the remaining water in the structure of the particles during precipitation [52]. Bands at 1363.48 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1320.07 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to  $\sigma_s(C-O) + \sigma(C-C)$  and  $\sigma_s(C-O) + \delta(O-C=O)$  respectively. Bands at ~824.1 cm<sup>-1</sup> are due to  $\delta(O-C=O)$  and 507.48 cm<sup>-1</sup> are for the  $\delta(Cu-O)$  for the oxalate moiety. Intensity of all the bands reduced as the alcohol concentration in the ethanol-oxalic acid solutions increased [36].

### 3.5.2. X-ray diffraction analysis

Fig. 10 shows the XRD patterns of copper oxalate for samples E(0), E(10) and E(50). The diffraction peaks of copper oxalate particles

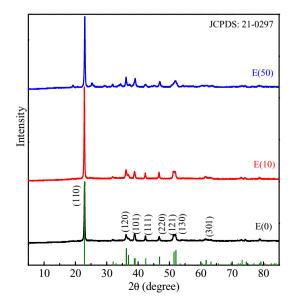


Fig. 10. XRD of copper oxalate.

precipitated using oxalic acid solutions and ethanolic solutions containing 10% and 50% ethanol could be assigned to the (110), (120), (011), (111), (120), (121) and (130) planes of orthorhombic copper oxalate that matched with standard data JCPDS 21–297 and those reported in literature for copper oxalate synthesized using oxalic acid [1]. No characteristic peaks of other materials were detected, indicating the high purity of the copper oxalate formed. The average crystallite size for the samples E(0), E(10) and E(50) determined using the Debye-Scherrer equation was 27.5, 23 and 16.6 nm respectively. Increasing the percentage of ethanol in the ethanol-oxalic acid solutions resulted in a decrease in the crystallite size.

### 4. Conclusions

Copper oxalate particles were prepared by extraction of copper from spent Printed Circuit Board etch solutions and Precipitation-Stripping at oil-aqueous interface using oxalic acid and ethanol-oxalic acid mixtures thereby cleaning up the targeted waste aqueous stream and generation of value added product. Extraction was carried out using 50% (v/v) LIX 84I followed by Precipitation-Stripping using 1 M oxalic acid. Stripping of copper loaded oil phase with oxalic acid and 10% ethanol-oxalic acid solutions required two stages at an oil:aqueous ratio of one. With 50% ethanol-oxalic acid solutions Precipitation-Stripping was completed in two minutes in a single stage. The mechanism of formation of copper oxalate particles by Precipitation-Stripping at oil-aqueous interface is discussed. Solubility diagrams for ethanol-oxalic acid systems were developed and the soluble copper oxalate was determined.

The particles formed in aqueous oxalic acid had a wide size distribution while particles formed in 50% ethanolic oxalic acid were submicron in size with a narrow size distribution. Both bulged cushion shaped particles and flat disc shaped particles were formed when PS was carried out in oxalic acid solutions due to the slow release of copper from the copper-oxime complex.  $\alpha$  faces of the cushion shaped particles grow due to the, hydrophobic - hydrophilic interaction as a result the particles formed in the initial stages become progressively flat resulting in disc morphology. Addition of 10% ethanol to the stripping media did not much alter the particle morphology. Addition of 25% ethanol to stripping solution resulted in cushion shaped particles with an aspect ratio of around one. With 50% ethanol in the precipitating media spherical shaped particles of submicron sizes with a narrow size distribution were obtained.

The major difficulty encountered during precipitation stripping is the wide size distribution and agglomeration of the particles obtained. This can be circumvented by carrying out PS in the presence of alcohol. Moreover, the yields of oxalates can be enhanced by precipitating in presence of alcohols as they reduce the solubility product of the oxalate in the solution.

### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

### Acknowledgement

This work was supported by University Grants Commission vide UGC MRP File No. 41-367/2012 (SR). We are thankful to Dr. Sandip Patil, IIT Kanpur for his help in getting the FE-SEM images.

### References

 N. Jongen, P. Bowen, J. Lematire, J.C. Valmalette, H. Hofmann, Precipitation of self-organized copper oxalate polycrystalline particles in the presence of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC): Control of morphology, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 226 (2) (2000) 189–198.

- [2] R.M. Clarke, I.R. Williams, Moolooite, a naturally occurring hydrated copper oxalate from Western Australia, Mineral. Mag. 50 (1986) 295–298.
- [3] L.C. Soare, Precipitation and Transformation of Nanostructured Copper Oxalate and Copper/Cobalt Composite Precursor Synthesis, 2004 Thesis No. 3083.
- [4] L.C. Soare, J. Lemaitre, P. Bowen, H. Hofmann, A thermodynamic model for the precipitation of nanostructured copper oxalates. J. Cryst. Growth 289 (2006) 278–285.
- [5] L.C. Soare, P. Bowen, J. Lemaitre, H. Hofmann, Precipitation of nanostructured copper oxalate: substructure and growth mechanism, J. Phys. Chem. B 110 (36) (2006) 17763–17771.
- [6] J. Romann, V. Chevallier, A. Merlen, J. Valmalette, Self-organized assembly of copper oxalate nanocrystals, J. Phys. Chem. C 113 (2009) 5068–5074.
- [7] A. Baker, A. Toth, D. Horva, J. Walkush, A.S. Ali, W. Morgan, A. Kukovecz, J.J. Pantaleone, J. Maselko, Precipitation pattern formation in the copper (II) oxalate system with gravity flow and axial symmetry, J. Phys. Chem. A 113 (2009) 8243–8248.
- [8] F. You-qi, Z. Chuan-fu, W.U. Jian-hui, Z. Jing, Y. Ping, Composition and morphology of complicated copper oxalate powder, Trans. Nonferrous Metals Soc. China 20 (2010) 165–170
- [9] I. Haq, F. Haider, Synthesis and characterization of uniform fine particles of copper oxalate, Mater. Lett. 63 (2009) 2355–2357.
- [10] A. Aimable, A.T. Puentes, P. Bowen, Synthesis of porous and nanostructured particles of CuO via a copper oxalate route, Powder Technol. 208 (2011) 467–471.
- [11] J.A. Dirksen, S. Benjelloun, T.A. Ring, Modelling the precipitation of copper oxalate aggregates, Colloid Polym. Sci. 268 (1990) 864–876.
- [12] H. Hofmann, P. Bowen, N. Jongen, J. Lemaitre, Nano-composite powders, a new concept for their synthesis, Scr. Mater. 44 (2001) 2197–2201.
- [13] X. Zhao, J. Yu, Morphology control of copper oxalate polycrystalline particles involving an etching process, J. Cryst. Growth 306 (2007) 366–372.
- [14] M.-Y. Li, W.-S. Dong, C.-L. Liu, Z. Liu, F.-Q. Lin, Ionic liquid-assisted synthesis of copper oxalate nanowires and their conversion to copper oxide nanowires, J. Cryst. Growth 310 (2008) 4628–4634.
- [15] A.K. Ganguli, T. Ahmad, P.R. Arya, P. Jha, Nanoparticles of complex metal oxides synthesized using the reverse-micellar and polymeric precursor routes, Pramana J. Phys. 65 (2005) 937–947.
- [16] D.X. Zhang, H. Xu, Y.Z. Liao, H.S. Li, X.J. Yang, Synthesis and characterization of nanocomposite copper oxalate powders by a surfactant-free stripping-precipitation process, Powder Technol. 189 (2009) 404–408.
- [17] T. Hirai, K. Nagaoka, N. Okamoto, I. Komasawa, Preparation of copper oxalate fine particles using emulsion liquid membrane system, J. Chem. Eng. Jpn 29 (1996) 842–850.
- [18] N. Liang, W. Lei, S. Bing, W. Yinjue, Z. Wenli, W. Chao, J. Yong, Synthesis of copper oxalate in ether – water bilayer refluxing system and their conversion to copper oxide nanowires, Mater. Lett. 63 (2009) 2560–2563.
- [19] S.M. Pourmortazavi, S.S. Hajimirsadeghi, M. Rahimi-nasrabadi, I. Kohsari, Electrosynthesis and Characterization of Copper Oxalate Nanoparticles, Synthesis and Reactivity in Inorganic, Metal-Organic, and Nano-Metal Chemistry, 42, 2012 746–751.
- [20] X. Chen, K. Huang, C. Wang, Facile synthesis of monodispersed copper oxalate flaky particles in the presence of EDTA, Int. J. Miner. Metall. Mater. 25 (2018) 762–769
- [21] Y. Konishi, Y. Noda, S. Asai, Precipitation stripping of yttrium oxalate powders from yttrium-loaded carboxylate solutions with aqueous oxalic acid solutions, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 5885 (1998) 2093–2098.
- [22] P.D. Campbell, Precipitation of Enriched Lutetium by Direct Oxalate Extraction, University of Tennessee Honors, 1999 Thesis Project.
- [23] S. Zielinski, M. Buca, M. Famulski, Precipitation stripping processes for heavy metals, Hydrometallurgy 48 (1998) 253–263.
- [24] A. Wojciechowska, K. Wieszczycka, I. Wojciechowska, Selective recovery of Zn(II) from multimetal acidic chloride solution with hydrophobic pyridine derivatives, 21st International Solvent Extraction Conference-ISEC 2017. Miyazaki, Japan 2017, pp. 146–152.
- [25] W. Zhi-jian, D. Feng-hua, Z. Jing, Z. Chuan-fu, Solvent extraction mechanism and precipitation stripping of bismuth (III) in hydrochloric acid medium by tributyl phosphate, J. Cent. South Univ. 23 (2016) 3085–3091.
- [26] P. Zhu, Y. Chen, Z.Y. Fen, G.R. Qian, Y.L. Chu, Y.R. Lei, M. Zhou, Preparation of ultrafine copper oxide using metal powders recovered from waste printed circuit boards, J. Hazard. Toxic Radioact. Waste 17 (2013) 175–180.
- [27] D. Zhang, H. Xu, M. Xue, W. Xu, V. Tarasov, Preparation and photocatalytic kinetics of nano-ZnO powders by precipitation stripping process, Front. Chem. Eng. China 2 (2008) 319–324.

- [28] M.K. Sinha, S. Pramanik, S.K. Sahu, L.B. Prasad, M.K. Jha, B.D. Pandey, Development of an efficient process for the recovery of zinc and Iron as value added products from the waste chloride solution, Sep. Purif. Technol. 167 (2016) 37–44.
- [29] K. Lee, J. Kim, J. Jang, Recovery of zinc in spent pickling solution with oxalic acid, Korean Chem. Eng. Res. 55 (2017) 785–790.
- [30] K. Shah, K. Gupta, B. Sengupta, Selective separation of copper and zinc from spent chloride brass pickle liquors using solvent extraction and metal recovery by precipitation- stripping, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 5 (2017) 5260–5269.
- [31] K. Shah, K. Gupta, B. Sengupta, Reclamation of copper from spent ammoniacal printed circuit board (PCB) etch solutions, J. Environ. Chem. Eng. 6 (2018) 2874–2880
- [32] Y. Shen, D. Ding, Y. Deng, Fabrication and characterization of  $WO_3$  flocky microspheres induced by ethanol, Powder Technol. 211 (2011) 114–119.
- [33] W. Cheng, C. Zhang, H. Cheng, Z. Chen, H. Liao, F. Cheng, Effect of ethanol on the crystallization and phase transformation of MgCO<sub>3</sub>.3H<sub>2</sub>O in a MgCl<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub>-NH<sub>3</sub>.H<sub>2</sub>O system, Powder Technol. 335 (2018) 164–170.
- [34] Y. Lv, X. Wu, D. Wu, D. Huo, S. Zhao, Synthesis of barium fluoride nanoparticles by precipitation in ethanol aqueous mixed solvents, Powder Technol. 173 (2007) 174–178
- [35] L. Winnubst, P.J. De Veen, S. Ran, D.H.A. Blank, Synthesis and characteristics of nanocrystalline 3Y-TZP and CuO powders for ceramic composites, Ceram. Int. 36 (2010) 847–853
- [36] E. Gennady, S.G. Gideon, YBCO Oxalate co-precipitation in alcoholic solution, J. Am. Ceram. Soc, 77 (1994) 1436–1440.
- [37] Y. Zhang, W. Zhu, H. He, A. Zheng, Synthesis of lanthanum oxalate hierarchical micro- particles and nano-tubes, J. Exp. Nanosci. 9 (2014) 851–859.
- [38] Z. Xiu, J. Li, X. Li, D. Huo, X. Sun, T. Ikegami, T. Ishigaki, Nanocrystalline Scandia powders via oxalate precipitation: the effects of solvent and solution pH, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. 91 (2008) 603–606.
- [39] P. Thakur, S.S. Joshi, Effect of alcohol and alcohol/water mixtures on crystalline structure of CdS nanoparticles, J. Exp. Nanosci. 7 (2012) 547–558.
- [40] MCT Red Book Solvent Extraction Reagents and Applications., Cognis Corporation, 2007
- [41] G. Martell, R.M. Smith, Critical Stability Constants of Metal Ion Complexes, Part B, Pergamon Press, Organic Ligands, 1977.
- [42] D.R. Lide, CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, Eighty fourth ed. CRC press LLC, 2004 127–129.
- [43] A.D. Cyrille, K. Edith, N.P. Marius, A. Bernadette, A. Henri, Experimental and theoretical studies of oxalic acid dissociation in water-ethanol solvents, IJSR 4 (2015) 280–286
- [44] G.H. McAuley, Nancollas, complex formation in solutions of copper oxalate, Trans. Faraday Soc. 56 (1960) 1165–1171.
- [45] J. Wyman, The dielectric constant of mixtures of ethyl alcohol and water from -5 to 40 °C, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 53 (1931) 3292–3301.
- [46] M.Z. Hu, E.A. Payzant, C.H. Byers, Sol gel and ultrafine particle formation via dielectric tuning of inorganic salt alcohol water solutions, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 222 (2000) 20–36.
- [47] U. Naofumi, K. Munenori, I. Syunsuke, K. Takashi, K. Kazuyuki, Low-temperature synthesis of ZnO nanoparticles by heating of Zn(OH)<sub>2</sub> in a neutral mixed solution of ethanol and H<sub>2</sub>O, J. Ceram. Soc. Jpn. 113 (2005) 439–441.
- [48] Z.L. Wang, Y. Liu, Z. Zhang (Eds.), Handbook of Nanophase and Nanostructured Materials- Synthesis, Plenum Publisher, 2003.
- [49] A. Lanculescu, C. Stanciu, Nanosized BaTiO3-based systems, in: B. Stojanovic, K. Ghenadii (Eds.), Metal oxide series: Magnetic, Ferroelectric, and Multiferroic Metal Oxides, Elsevier 2018, pp. 153–200.
- [50] P. Bowen, O. Pujol, N. Jongen, J. Lemaitre, A. Fink, P. Stadleman, H. Hofmann, Control of morphology and nanostructure of copper and cobalt oxalates: effect of complexing ions, polymeric additives and molecular weight, Nanoscale 2 (2010) 2470–2477.
- [51] S.J. Iyengar, M. Joy, A.P. Mohamed, S. Samanta, C.K. Ghosh, S. Ghosh, Fabrication of magnetite nanocrystals in alcohol/water mixed solvents: catalytic and colloid property evaluation, RSC Adv. 6 (2016) 60845–60855.
- [52] M. Rahimi-nasrabadi, S.M. Pourmortazavi, A.A. Davoudi-Dehaghani, S.S. Hajimirsadeghi, M.M. Zahedi, Synthesis and characterization of copper oxalate and copper oxide nanoparticles by statistically optimized controlled precipitation and calcination of precursor, CrystEngComm 15 (2013) 4077–4086.



## Zinc Recovery from Smelter Waste Waters as Zinc Oxide Particles using Precipitation-Stripping Technique

### Himanshu Kohli, Kamalesh Gupta and Bina Sengupta

\*Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Technology and Engineering, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadadura 390001. India

Abstract—The recovery and reclamation of zinc from stripper effluent waters of a zinc smelter using the precipitation-stripping technique was studied. Zinc was extracted from the aqueous stream by contacting it with an organic solvent containing organichosphorous acid extractants. Three different extractants, D2EHPA, PC88A\* and CYANEX 272\* were investigated and their performance in successive extraction cycles was evaluated. Recovery of zinc was 98% when extracted using D2EHPA whereas with PC88A and CYANEX 272 the recovery was quantitative. Zinc leaded solvents were stripped using oxalic acid solutions resulting in precipitation of zinc oxalate particles. Almost 84% of the loaded zinc was stripped from solvent containing D2EHPA, while greater than 90% zinc was stripped from solvents containing PC88A and CYANEX 272. The extractants could be reused for 10 cycles without any decline in efficiency. Zinc oxalate was converted to zinc oxide by calcinations at 430 °C for five hours. Zinc oxalate and the resulting oxide were characterized using XRD and FTIR, which since the pure plants of containing PC88A is a stripped from solvents containing processing XRD and FTIR, which since the pure plants of containing processing the pure plants of containing processing the processing processing the pure plants of containing processing the processing the processing the processing the processing the processing processing the processing the processing the processing processing the processing that the processing the

Keywords: Zinc reclamation: Stripper streams: Extraction, Precipitation-Stripping; Zinc axide.

### 1. Introduction

Zinc is an important base metal that finds extensive application in a variety of industries; its major consumer is the iron and steel industry. Zinc is primarily obtained from sulfide concentrates-sphalerite (ZnS); secondary resources of zinc include zinc ash, zinc dross, flue dusts of electric arc furnace, brass melting, automobile thredder scrap, rayon industry sludge etc. Ma et al. [1] using substance flow analsis systematically examined the distribution of zinc in ar. economic system thereby facilitating production and waste management by minimizing zinc losses. Recently Daigo et al. [2] reported a time series analysis of global zinc demand associated with steel industry and showed that the cumulative demand for galvanized steel up to 2050 would consume a very large portion of the current zinc reserves making it imperative to recover and reuse zinc from the secondary sources. Currently around 30% of the worlds need for zinc is met by recycling and due to the rapid usage and dwindling resource of the metal, in coming years it would be an attractive proposition to reclaim and reuse the metal as much as possible.

Zinc enters the atmosphere, water and soil due to natural processes as well as human activities. Steel production and coal burning increase zinc levels in the atmosphere. Zinc finds its way in water bodies via mining, water effluents from industries using zinc such as galvanization, rayon, plastics.

cosmetics, paper, printing inks and rubber industry. Table 1 lists the concentration of zinc in some typical waste streams containing this metal [3–9].

Table 1: Concentration of zinc in waste streams

Waste Stream	Zinc Concentration range	Reference
Mining effluent waste	1 g/1	[3]
Synthetic zine- carbon battery leach solution	22 g/l	[4]
Oil shidge	359 mg/l:	[5]
Wastewater from cadmium electro- pluting	280 ± 33 mg/1	[6]
Crude oil	0.692 mg/kg	[7]
Industrial spent. pickling liquor	0.8 g/l	[8]
Rayon effluent, Geothermal brine	0.1 to 1 g/l, 5.5 to 6 g/l	[9]

Zinc is an important micronutrient required by humans, animals and plants, but when present in excess, in humans interferes with the absorption of other minerals. When zinc concentration in soil is greater than 500 mg/L, it disrupts the

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author, bina msu@yahoo.co.in

ability of plants to absorb other essential merals. Concentration of zine in rivers flowing near mining areas, steel plants etc. can be as high as 20 mg/L [10]. In mining areas where zine concentration is abundant, most of the land is arid and plant qu'liwith is sunnt at. Therefore, it is an environmental as well as economic necessity to remove zine present in waste waters. There are a number of efficient technologies available for the removal of heavy metals from waste waters [11]. Recently, flakwisiri et al. [12] reviewed the technological aspects of zine removal from industrial and domestic waste waters.

Zinc can also be removed from waste waters by precipitationstripting. This process involves extraction of the allie species from aqueous phase using a metal extractant in the oil solvent. In confinencial solvent extraction processes, the metals are stripped from the loaded solvent using aqueous solution of mineral acids, while in precipitation-stripping the loaded metallic solute is stripped from the solvent by contacting it with a weak acid, like oxalic acid and precipitating the solute as a water insoluble oxalate. This technique has mostly been used for the preparation of rare earth oxalates [13–15], nickel oxalate [16] and separation of heavy metals [17].

This investigation discusses the use of precipitation-stripping technique to recover zine from a zine smelter stripper water mean in the form of zine exclusive precipitates. Reuse of the stripped solvent in numerous extraction-stripping cycles justified the overall economy of the process and the efficacy of the processing scheme. Controlled calcinations converted the precipitated zine exalter particles to the commercially appartunit zine exide. The purity and morphology of the met exide particles were characterized by XRD, FTIR and FESEM.

### 2. Experimental

### 2.1 Materials

Organophosphorous acid extractants, D2EHPA [Bis (2-ethylhexyl phosphoric acid)] supplied by Merck Specialties Divate Limited, CYANEX 272 [Bis (2, 1, 4-trimethyl pentyl acid)] supplied by CYTEC, Canada and PC 88A (2-ethylhexyl phosphonic acid mono-2 ethylhexyl ester) gifted by Rubamin Ltd, were used as supplied by the manufacturers. Ketosene (boiling range, 152-271 °C), the solvent phase, was supplied by Indian Oil Corporation Limited, Vadodara, India. Oxalic acid dihydrate, the precipitating agent was procured from Merck Specialties Private Limited. All other reagents used were of AR grade.

### 2.2 Precipitation-Stripping for Recovery of Zinc From Waste Streams

Smelter stripper water stream containing zinc in the range of 0.88-2.6 g/L, having acid content of 6.8-9 g/L and a pH value ranging from 1.5-2.6 was targeted for zinc removal. The initial analysis of the stream showed that the zinc content was 1.1g/L and the pH of the stream was 1.54.

Zinc extraction was carried out in shake flasks with equal organic to aqueous ratio using a solvent containing 10% v/v of D2EHPA, PC 88A and CYANEX 272 as extractants and

90%, v/v kerosene as the diluent at  $30 \pm 1$  °C. The pH of the aqueous phase was adjusted by adding sodium hydroxide. After extraction, the solvent was separated from the aqueous phase, washed with water to remove traces of feed and contacted with equal volume of aqueous oxalic acid solution to strip zinc from the organic solvent and precipitate zinc as zinc oxalate from the organic phase. Effect of concentration of oxalic acid and time of contact on extent of zinc stripping was investigated. Experiments were also corried out with simulated wastewaters to check the efficacy of the process in comparison with actual industrial waste waters.

Zinc concentration in the waste stream was determined using AAS (Chemito AA 203) at 213.9 nm. The concentration of zinc in the organic phase was evaluated by mass balance. After precipitation, the zinc oxalate particles obtained were separated by centrifugation, washed and dried at 50 °C. Calcinations of these particles at 430 °C for five hours in a vacuum tube furnace at 10 °2 torr yielded zinc oxide particles.

### 2.3 Characterization Techniques

Zinc oxalate and the zinc oxide were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction on a Bruker D2 diffractometer using Cu-Ke radiation at 2 value of 1.54A°. FTIR analysis was carried out over a frequency range of 400 400 cm with 32 scans using Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS5 spectrometer with iD1 transmission. Morphology was observed using Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (Ziess Supra 40). Thermo gravimetric analysis of zinc oxalate was performed at a heating rate of 20 °C/min in an oxygen atmosphere on a Perkin Elmer Thermal Analyzer (TAC7/DX).

### 3. Results and Discussion

D2EHPA is widely used organophosphorous acid for aine extraction from sulfate media [9, 18]. This extraction can be carried out with little to no pit adjustment, the extraction curves can also be shifted to lower pH values by increasing the extractant concentration in the organic phase. Hence, using a high concentration of D2EHPA, zinc extraction can be maximized.

### 3.1 Zinc Recovery from Waste Stream

With D2EHPA as the extractant, 98.88% zinc got extracted from the feed. The precipitation of zinc oxalate from D2EHPA loaded solvent was carried out at metal to oxalic acid mole ratios ranging from 0.5 to 2.0 and contact times from 5 to 60 minutes. Zinc gets stripped from the solvent as zinc oxalate according to Equation 1, liberating the extractant for reuse.

 $Zn^{2*}R_{2(0)} + (COOH)_{2(A)} \rightarrow ZnC_1O_{2(A)} + 2(RH)_{(0)}$  (1) Zinc did not precipitate as oxalate for M=1 and 2. Precipitates were obtained when the molar concentration of oxalic acid was double than that of zinc (M=0.5). The, percentage precipitation increased from 14.08% after 10 minutes contact to 40.18% after 20 minutes. Increasing the stripping time to 30 minutes resulted in an increase in the percentage stripping to 71.09%. At 60 minutes 84.13% yield of particles was obtained. There was no further increase in the yield after 60 minutes.

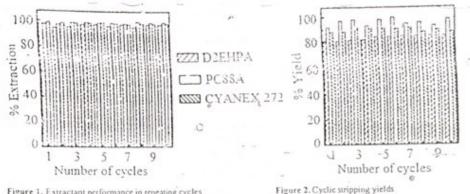


Figure 1. Extractant performance in repeating cycles

### 3.2 Recyclability and Reuse of Extractant

The recyclability and reuse of the solvent containing the organophosphorous acid extractants was established by reusing the solvent stripped of zine content by exalic in second cycle and the process was continued repeatedly. Figure 1 shows the variation of percentage extraction of zinc with repetitive cycles of operation, using all the three organophosphorous acids. There was no decline in the extraction stripping patterns of the extraction The performance of the solvent system was sufficiently stable even after the tenth cycle for all the three extractants and the extractant retained its capability for further use. Usually 2-3% of zinc remained in the organic phase after every stripping cycle. With D2EHPA as the extractant, the maximum loading capacity determined by subsequent loadings was 7.64 g/L.

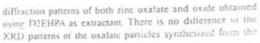
Stripping yields for each cycle at zinc to oxalic molar ratio 0.5 using the three extractants is shown in the Figure 2. The extent of stripping from solvents containing CYANEX 272 and PC 88A was greater than 90% while from D2EHPA it ranged from 75-80%. Lower extent of zinc stripping from D2EHPA is attributed to the fact that D2EHPA extracts zinc at a p11 value of -1 while the other two extractants extract zinc above pH 2.5 heuce, complete stripping of zinc from D2EHPA would require pH values less than 1. When M was 0.5, the pH of stripping acid was ~ 1.15 at this pH there is a small amount of solubility of zinc in the aqueous phase.

As the pH of aqueous phase decreases there is an increase in the solubility of zinc ions in the aqueous phase. Although using a stronger acid to strip the metal from loaded D2EHFA solutions resulted in greater extent of stripping of zinc from the organic solvent phase, but it lowered the yield of particles formed. Small difference observed in metal recovery in the different stages is attributed to the loss of particles during the washing and recovery process.

### 3.3 Characterization of Zinc Oxalate and Zinc Oxide Particles

### 3.3. Powder X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) of zinc Oxalate and Zinc Oxide Particles

Powder X-ray diffraction was used to characterize the zinc oxalate and oxide particles. Figure 3 shows the X-ray



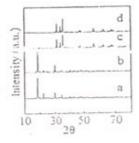


Figure 3. XRD patterns of material synthesized (a, b) zinc octalate, (c, d) zinc oxide

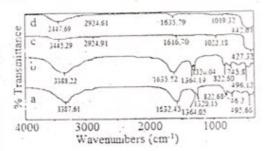


Figure 4. FTIR patterns of material synthesized (a, b) zinc oxalate, (c, d) zinc oxide

stripper waters (Figure 3-a) as well as from dissolved zinc sulfate solution of matching concentration (Figure 3-b). The XRD patterns could be indexed on the basis of a monoclinic cell reported for zinc oxalate dihydrate (JCPDS card No. 25-1029). The three main peaks of zinc oxalate particles synthesized corresponded to the planes (-2 0 2), (0 0 2) and (-4 0 2) respectively. Similar patterns were also observed by Ni et al. [19]. The XRD pattern of zinc oxide samples were

indexed to the hexagonal warrzite phase zine oxide (JCPDS card no. 36-1451) (Figure 3-c, 3-di. The three main peaks observed in the zine oxide powders obtained corresponded to the planes (1 0 0), (0 0 2) and (1 0 1) respectively.

### 3.3.2 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy of Zinc Oxulate and Zinc Oxide Particles

The FTIR spectra of zinc oxalate prepared by precipitation stripping using D2EHPA from stripper waters and from dissolved zinc sulfate solution of similar concentration are shown in Figure 4-a and 4-b respectively. The O-H stretching vibration peak was observed at ~ 3387 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The peak at ~1633 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to the main antisy:nmetric carboxyl stretching band u (C=O) specific to the oxalate family. The peak at ~1364 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to v (CO) + v(CC) while the band at -1320 cm corresponds to v (CO) + 5(O-C=O). The band at  $\sim 822$  cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to  $v_1(C-O) + \delta(O-C=O)$ ,  $\sim 7.45$ crust is due to o(O-C=O) - v(Zn-O), - 496 cms for v(Zn-O) + v(CC) and at ~ 460 due to v(Zn-O)+ ring deformation. Similar patterns for zinc oxalate are also reported in literature [19, 20]. FTIR spectra for the zinc oxide particles obtained after calcinations of zinc oxalate particles at 430 °C is shown in Figure 4-c and Figure 4-d. The broad band around 3450 and the small must be 1430 and indicates the programs of surface hydroxyl groups. The sharp peak at around 445 cm4 is due to the Zn-O lattice vibrations.

### 3.3.3 Thermo Gravimetric Analysis of Zinc Oxalate Particles

Figure 5 shows the thermogram for the zine oxalate particles precipitated from solvent with D2EHPA as extractant. Two stages of weight loss between 100 °C to 430 °C are observed. In the first stage, the weight loss of about 19.55% between 100 °C to 150 °C reflects the removal of water from zine oxalate dihydrate crystal lattice, i.e. the loss of two water molecules. The weight loss of 38.05% in the second stage at 430 °C is due to the decomposition of carboxylic groups from the oxalate precursor to oxide. This suggests that zine oxalate powders decompose into zine oxide powders at 430 °C in air.

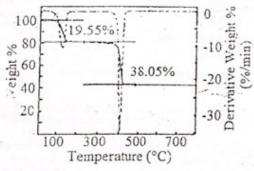


Figure 5. Thermo gravimetric analysis zinc oxalate particles





Figure 6. Morphology of synthesized (a) Xinc oxalate (b) zinc oxide

### 3.4 Morphology of Zinc Oxalate and Zinc Oxide Particles

The morphology of the zine oxalate and zine oxide particles obtained by precipitation stripping and calcinations of the oxalate are shown in Figure 6, these particles were obtained by recovering zine from stripper water stream containing 1.1 gA of zine. Figure 6-a shows the SEM image of zine oxalate particles obtained by stripping the zine loaded solvent cortaining 10 % v/v D2EHPA as the metal extractant using

having well defined rhombus architecture formed from rod like structures, the borders of the rhombus are made up of aggregated rods.

While the border of the rhombus is well defined the interior is not yet fully formed i.e. the rods are not fully embodied in the thombus, indicating that the peripheral structure is likely to be formed prior to the filling of the structure. Figure 6-b shows the SEM image of the zinc oxide particles after calcinations of their oxalate precursors. It can be observed that the boundaries and the rhombohedra structure are retained even after calcinations for five hours. The structures have become porous on account of release of CO<sub>2</sub> from the oxalate structure.

### Conclusions

Zinc was recovered from stripper waste waters by extraction into an organic solvent containing different organic phosphorous acid extractants namely D2EHPA, PC88A and CYANEX 272. Precipitation - stripping of the loaded solvent using aqueous oxalic acid solutions recovered zinc as zinc oxalate particles. The recyclability and reuse of the extractants over multiple cycles of extraction of zinc from waste streams followed by precipitation - stripping was assessed. It was found that even after 10 cycles there was no decline in the performance of both extraction and stripping.

X- Ray diffraction and FTIR analysis showed that the zinc oxalate particles were free from impurities. Calcinations at 430 °C converted the zinc oxalate to zinc oxide. XRD and FTIR analysis confirmed pure zinc oxide was obtained. SEM images showed that particle morphology was rhombus shaped for the oxalate as well as the oxide, Calcinations did

Zine Recuvery From Smelter Waste Waters As Zine Oside Particles Using Precipitation-Stripping Technique

not after the particle morphology but made it porous due to escape of CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, we conclude that precipitation-stripping technique is an attractive tool that extends the domain of solvent extraction and converges with fine particle production thereby satisfying the dual goal of environmental sustainability and enonomic gain.

### Acknowledgement

The authors thankfully acknowledge UGC New Delhi for supporting this work vide UGC major project F, No. 41-367/2012 (SR).

### References

- [1] Ma, H. W; Matsubae, K. K; Nakajima, Tsai, M. S; Shao, K. H; Chen, P. C; Lee, C. H; Nagasaka, T. Resour. Conserv. Recycl. 56 (2011) 134–140.
- [2] Daigo, I; Osako, S; Adachi, Y; Matsuno, Y. Rescur. Conserv. Recycl. 82 (2014) 35-40.
- [3] Avila, M; Perez, G; Valiente, M. Solven: Extr. Ion Exch. 29 (2011) 384-397.
- [4] Lee, J. Y; Pranolo, Y; Zhang, W; Cheng, C. Y. Solvent Extr. Ion Exch. 28 (2010) 73–84.
- 151 Flevrowicz, M. Muslat, Z. Emiron, Technol. 29 (2008) 393-399.
- [6] Islamoglu, S; Yilmaz, L; Ozbetge, H. O. asp. acs. Inciami, 12 (2006) 3367–3385.

- [7] Hardaway, C. Sneddon, J. Beck, J. N. Anal. Lett. 37(44) (2004) 2881–2899.
- [8] Miesiac, I; Szymanowski, J. Solvent Extr. Inn. Exch. 22(2) (2004) 243–265.
- [2] Tole, P. M. Sole, K. C. Miner Process Extr. Metall. Rev. 24 (2003) 91-137.
- [10] Pistelok, F.; Galas, W. Pul. J. Environ. Stud. 3(1) (1999) 47-53.
- [11] Fu. F. Wang, Q. J. Environ. Manag. 92(3) (2011) 407-418.
- [12] Gakwisiri, C. Raut, N. Al-Saudi, A. Al-Aisri, S. Al-Aisri, A. Proceedings of the World Congress on Engineering Vol 1 London, U. K. (2012).
- [13] Zielinski, S.; Buca, M.; Szczepanik, A. *Hydrometallioge* 26 (1991) 243-254.
- [14] Konishi, Y. Asai, S. Murai, T. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 32(3) (1993) 937-942.
- [15] Smith, P. M. Metall. Mater. Trans. B 38B (2007) 763-768.
- [16] Sengupta, B; Tamboli, C. A; Sengupta, R Chem. Eng. J. 169 (2011) 379-389.
- [17] Zielinski, S; Buca, M; Famulski, M. Hydrometallurge 48 (1998) 253-263.
- [18] Deep, A; Carvalho, J. M. R. Solvent Extr. Ion Exch. 26 (2008) 375-404.
- [19] Ni, L; Wang, L; Shao, B; Wang, Y; Zhang, W; Jiung, Y. J. Mater. Sci. Technol. 27(6) (2011) 563-569.
- [20] Nakamoio, K. Infrared and Raman spectra of inorganic and coordination compounds Part B, sixth ed., New Jersey, John Willey and Sons (2009).