



Electrochemical dissolution of smelted low-grade electronic scraps in acid sulfate-chloride solutions



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ABSTRACT

The paper reports hydrometallurgical method for recovery of bronze (80–92% Cu) from smelted low-grade waste electronic parts. Detailed analysis of five phases in Cu–Zn–Sn–Ag–Pb alloy was presented. Anodic dissolution of the alloy in acid sulfate and sulfate-chloride solutions resulted in distinct metal separation with copper and tin codeposited on the cathode, lead and silver accumulation in the slimes, while zinc, iron and nickel were transferred to the electrolyte. Phase and chemical analyses of slimes and cathodic deposits were performed. The most favorable conditions for the alloy dissolution were obtained in 2 M H₂SO₄ with 0.1 M NaCl at the temperature of 60 °C, where the highest anodic current efficiency and the lowest energy consumption were found. At lower temperatures periodical inhibition of the alloy dissolution was observed in sulfate-chloride solutions.

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1. Introduction

Discarded and obsolete electric and electronic equipment is one of the fastest growing waste streams in the world (Baldé et al., 2015a,b). It was estimated that annual consumption of new electrical and electronic goods reaches about 58 Mt (in 2012), while solely last year (2014) almost 42 Mt of e-waste were generated globally (Baldé et al., 2015a). The latter is seriously affected by launching innovative and miniaturized products, mainly for communication and information branches. Many companies practice also the so-called “planned obsolescence” of the products resulting in their shortened lifespan (Keeble, 2013; Victor and Kumar, 2012) thus forcing consumers to buy new models of cell phones, laptops, printers, wash machines etc. Producers would rather pay a fee for collection and recycling of spent products than remanufacture and reduce waste generation (Bartl, 2014; Victor and Kumar, 2012; King et al., 2006).

E-waste represents currently a serious resource of valuable materials (Baldé et al., 2015a; Cui and Zhang, 2008), but also a source of toxins, health and environmental problems (Perkins et al., 2014; Ongondo et al., 2011; Robinson, 2009). Every year about 16.5 Mt of iron and steel, 2–4.5 Mt of copper, 90 kt of tin, 1–6 kt of silver, 0.3 kt of gold are “hibernated” in the worldwide WEEE as potential metal supply (Baldé et al., 2015b; Ongondo et al., 2011) leading to the development of novel trend called “urban mining”. For comparison, annual global production

of the particular materials reaches 2.75 Gt of iron pig and raw steel, 17.9 Mt of copper, 230 kt of tin, 26 kt of silver, 2.7 kt of gold (US Geological Survey, 2014). Simultaneously, it was estimated that only 25% of used electronic and electric products are treated in formal recycling centers with adequate worker protection (Perkins et al., 2014). Majority of WEEE are recycled in the unregulated sector, mainly in developing countries in Africa and Asia, where rich countries of European Union, US, Australia, Japan export own e-wastes (Perkins et al., 2014; EEA, 2012; Ongondo et al., 2011). Primitive techniques used for metals recovery (e.g. burning of plastics from cables, PCB etc. at low temperatures, manual dismantling, using of open-pit acid baths) expose the people to hazardous substances like heavy metals, toxic fumes of inorganic and organic compounds (Perkins et al., 2014; Robinson, 2009; Puckett and Smith, 2002). Although some destination regions banned importation of e-waste, this illegal trade is still continued due to a lack of control by local governments (EEA, 2012; Ongondo et al., 2011; Puckett and Smith, 2002).

Consciousness of the world public on WEEE as a potential source of profits and law regulations gradually increases development of the professional recycling business. Currently, most of the waste is recycled pyrometallurgically in the copper smelters (Khalig et al., 2014; Cui and Zhang, 2008; Hagelüken, 2005), where scraps are a part of copper concentrate batch. Hydrometallurgical treatment of waste materials is proposed as an alternative low-cost and more environmental friendly technology (Khalig et al., 2014; Tuncuk et al., 2012; Cui and Zhang, 2008). Biological leaching of metals using bacteria or fungi as a cost effective method was also studied recently in a laboratory scale (Pant et al., 2012).

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