



# Cobalt recovery and microspherical cobalt tetroxide preparation from ammonia leaching solution of spent lithium-ion batteries

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**Abstract:** A process for recovering Co and preparing microspherical  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  through  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation and phase transformation from ammoniacal solution was investigated. As the basis of thermodynamics, the solubility of Co at different  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  concentrations was studied, and then the effects of different  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation conditions on Co recovery rate were discussed. Over 94% Co and 96%  $\text{NH}_3$  were recovered through  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation, and the cobalt was precipitated in form of cobalt carbonate ammonium compound salt. Through the analysis of the formation mechanism of the precursor, the precipitation process of cobalt could be divided into two stages, and the cobalt precipitation rate was significantly accelerated in the second stage. In phase transformation, the effect of temperature on the roasted product was investigated. The microspherical  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  with a microporous structure was prepared at 300 °C, and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  with a mesoporous structure and high-spin state was obtained at 750 °C.

**Key words:** spent lithium-ion batteries;  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation; Co recovery; mechanism analysis;  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  preparation

## 1 Introduction

In recent years, with the rapid development of the new energy automobile industry, the demand for lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) has exploded. It is estimated that the battery demand for electric vehicles will be 0.78–2.2 TW·h/a in 2030 [1], which will generate a large number of spent LIBs inevitably. Hence, comprehensive utilization of spent LIBs can not only reduce their harm to the environment but also recover valuable metals, such as Li, Ni, and Co [2–4]. The traditional hydrometallurgical recycling process is widely used in industrial production due to low energy

consumption and high metal recovery rate. However, there are still some shortcomings in the actual application, for example, the pre-sorting technology is immature, and the expensive reducing agent is needed during the leaching process [5,6]. Therefore, it is very necessary to develop a cleaner and more efficient process. Based on the previous research [7,8], a breakthrough method of comprehensive recycling  $\text{LiNi}_x\text{Co}_y\text{Mn}_z\text{O}_2$  LIBs was proposed by our research team.

Firstly, the spent LIBs do not need to be pre-sorted, which avoids the loss of valuable metals during the sorting process. After simple discharge and crushing, the spent LIBs are roasted directly with the reducing agent. Then, Li can be extracted

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preferentially through carbonated water leaching. Ni, Co, and Cu exist in the leaching residue. Compared with the traditional ammonia or acid leaching process, the loss of Li is lower and the obtained  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  products are purer [9–11]. Secondly, Ni, Co, and Cu are selectively leached into the solution by  $\text{NH}_3$ – $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$  leaching, while Al, Mn, and Fe are not leached, which simplifies the purification process. In the  $\text{NH}_3$  leaching solution, Ni and Cu can be recovered in the form of sulfate after solvent extraction [12,13]. However, Co exists in form of  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ , which has a higher complexing constant ( $K[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}] = 10^{35.2}$ ) and is not easily recovered [14–16]. As the last part of the whole process, the recovery of Co from the  $\text{NH}_3$  leaching solution can not only avoid the waste of resources but also has important significance for the circulation of ammonia and water.

At present, the method for recovering Co from the ammoniacal system is to add  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  or  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{S}$  to form the  $\text{CoS}$  precipitate,  $\text{CoS}$  is dissolved by acid and then the  $\text{CoSO}_4$  product is obtained by solvent extraction [13]. In addition, Co can also be recovered by adding a reducing agent and alkali to obtain  $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2$  [17]. Unfortunately, these methods produce a large amount of wastewater containing acid or alkali, which is not conducive to the sustainability of the whole process.

Therefore, the focus of this work is to recover Co from the  $\text{NH}_3$  leaching solution efficiently and economically. The  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation and phase transformation were proposed to recover Co from the ammoniacal solution. Firstly, the  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation process was studied systematically, especially the effects of initial Co concentration, evaporation volume, and evaporation velocity on Co recovery rate. Then, the influences of phase transformation temperature on the properties of the product were discussed. During the entire process, Co can be recovered efficiently.  $\text{NH}_3$  and residual liquid can be returned to the leaching stage and no wastewater is produced. This research suggested a promising and reliable method for Co recovery from the ammoniacal solution. It can also provide a reference for  $\text{NH}_3$  leaching of other Co-containing resources, such as the reduction roasting– $\text{NH}_3$  leaching of laterite nickel ore, and  $\text{NH}_3$  leaching of zinc plant purification residue, etc.

## 2 Experimental

### 2.1 Reagents and procedures

Reagents include  $\text{CoCO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution, and  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$ , which were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. All the reagents used in the experiments were of analytical grade. For each test, an appropriate amount of the solution was placed into a three-necked flask for heating. The stirring speed was 600 r/min, and the evaporation velocity was controlled by the changes in temperature. When the evaporation volume is fixed, at different temperatures, the time to reach the end of  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation is different. Given that the evaporation velocity is a more common indicator in industry, hence, Eq. (1) was used to calculate the evaporation velocity ( $v_{\text{ev}}$ ):

$$v_{\text{ev}} = \frac{V_0 - V_f}{t} \quad (1)$$

where  $V_0$  is the initial solution volume, mL;  $V_f$  is the residual solution volume, mL;  $t$  is the evaporation time, h.

After the  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation process was completed, the precursor was roasted in a muffle furnace, and Co concentration in the residual liquor was measured.

### 2.2 Analysis methods

Co concentration in the solution before and after  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation was analyzed with an ICP-OES system (Optima 7000DV, PerkinElmer) after dilution with deionized water, and  $\text{NH}_3$ –N was analyzed with a multiparameter water quality detector (5B–3B [V8], Lianhua Tech). The surface morphology and elemental distribution of the precursor were analyzed with a scanning electron microscopy (SEM) system (JSM–7001F) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) system (BRUKER XFlash5010), respectively. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) system (AXIS Ultra) and an iN10MX FTIR spectrometer were used in characterizing the valence states of elements and functional groups of the precursor. Mass loss and heat change in the precursor were analyzed using a thermogravimetric analyzer (STA409C) under an air atmosphere at a heating rate of  $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . The composition and morphology of the roasted product were analyzed through SEM and

X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a Rigaku Ultima IV diffractometer (Cu  $K_{\alpha}$ ). The textural characteristics of the roasted products were obtained from  $N_2$  adsorption–desorption isotherms, and isotherms were measured using an ASAP 2020 micrometric instrument at  $-196\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The specific surface areas of the roasted products were estimated with the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method, and pore size distributions were estimated using the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda method.

### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Thermodynamic fundamentals

In the ammonia–ammonium carbonate (AAC) system, the concentration of each ion is related to pH value. When total carbon concentration ( $c_C$ ) and total ammonia concentration ( $c_N$ ) are assumed to be

constant, the relationship between total cobalt concentration ( $c_{Co}$ ) and pH can be obtained according to the equilibrium of chemical reactions shown in Table 1 and mass balance equations of phase transformation (Table 2) [18,19]. The results are shown in Fig. 1. The conditions of Fig. 1(a) are fixed,  $c_C=1.5\text{ mol/L}$ , and  $c_N$  values vary.  $c_{Co}$  increases with the increase of  $c_N$  because of the stability of  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_i^{2+}$  ( $i=1-6$ ), which gradually increases when  $i$  increases from 1 to 6 [20]. The conditions of Fig. 1(b) are fixed,  $c_N=6\text{ mol/L}$ , and  $c_C$  values vary. As shown in Fig. 1(b), because  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_i^{2+}$  ( $i=1-3$ ), which has a lower complexing constant, reacts with  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  to form  $\text{CoCO}_3$ ,  $c_{Co}$  decreases with increasing  $c_C$  [21].

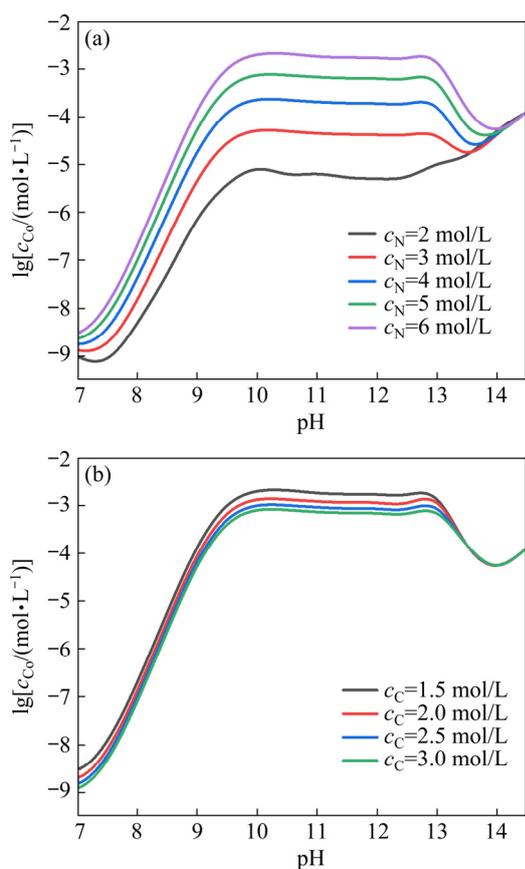
From the perspective of the influence of pH value on the Co concentration, as shown in Fig. 1, when the pH value increases to 10.0,  $c_{Co}$  reaches a

**Table 1** Equilibrium reactions and constants for AAC system at 298 K

No.	Equilibrium reaction	Equilibrium constant equation	lg $K$
1	$\text{Co}^{2+} + \text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)^{2+}$	$K_1 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]$	2.11
2	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 2\text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_2^{2+}$	$K_2 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_2^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]^2$	3.74
3	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 3\text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_3^{2+}$	$K_3 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_3^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]^3$	4.79
4	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 4\text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}$	$K_4 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]^4$	5.55
5	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 5\text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5^{2+}$	$K_5 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]^5$	5.73
6	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 6\text{NH}_3 = \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}$	$K_6 = [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{NH}_3]^6$	5.11
7	$\text{Co}^{2+} + \text{CO}_3^{2-} = \text{CoCO}_3(\text{s})$	$K_7 = 1 / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$	12.8
8	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 2\text{OH}^- = \text{Co}(\text{OH})_2(\text{s})$	$K_8 = 1 / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{OH}^-]^2$	14.9
9	$\text{Co}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{CoOH}^+ + \text{H}^+$	$K_9 = [\text{CoOH}^+][\text{H}^+] / [\text{Co}^{2+}]$	-9.75
10	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 2\text{OH}^- = \text{Co}(\text{OH})_2$	$K_{10} = [\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{OH}^-]^2$	9.20
11	$\text{Co}^{2+} + 3\text{OH}^- = \text{Co}(\text{OH})_3^-$	$K_{11} = [\text{Co}(\text{OH})_3^-] / [\text{Co}^{2+}][\text{OH}^-]^3$	10.50
12	$\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2(\text{s}) + 2\text{OH}^- = \text{Co}(\text{OH})_4^{2-}$	$K_{12} = [\text{Co}(\text{OH})_4^{2-}] / [\text{OH}^-]^2$	-5.10
13	$\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^-$	$K_{13} = [\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-]$	-14.0
14	$\text{HCO}_3^- = \text{H}^+ + \text{CO}_3^{2-}$	$K_{14} = [\text{H}^+][\text{CO}_3^{2-}] / [\text{HCO}_3^-]$	-10.4
15	$\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 = \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$	$K_{15} = [\text{H}^+][\text{HCO}_3^-]$	-6.35
16	$\text{NH}_3 + \text{H}^+ = \text{NH}_4^+$	$K_{16} = [\text{NH}_4^+] / [\text{H}^+][\text{NH}_3]$	9.27

**Table 2** Mass balance equations of phase transformation for AAC system at 298 K

Parameter	Mass balance equations of phase transformation
$c_C$	$c_C = [\text{CO}_3^{2-}] + [\text{HCO}_3^-] + [\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3]$
$c_N$	$c_N = [\text{NH}_3] + [\text{NH}_4^+] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)^{2+}] + 2[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_2^{2+}] + 3[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_3^{2+}] + 4[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}] + 5[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5^{2+}] + 6[\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}]$
$c_{Co}$	$c_{Co} = [\text{Co}^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_2^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_3^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_5^{2+}] + [\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}]$ , $[\text{Co}^{2+}] = \min\{10^{-12.8} / [\text{CO}_3^{2-}], 10^{13.1-2\text{pH}}\}$



**Fig. 1**  $\lg c_{Co}$ -pH of AAC system at 298 K: (a)  $c_C=1.5$  mol/L; (b)  $c_N=6$  mol/L

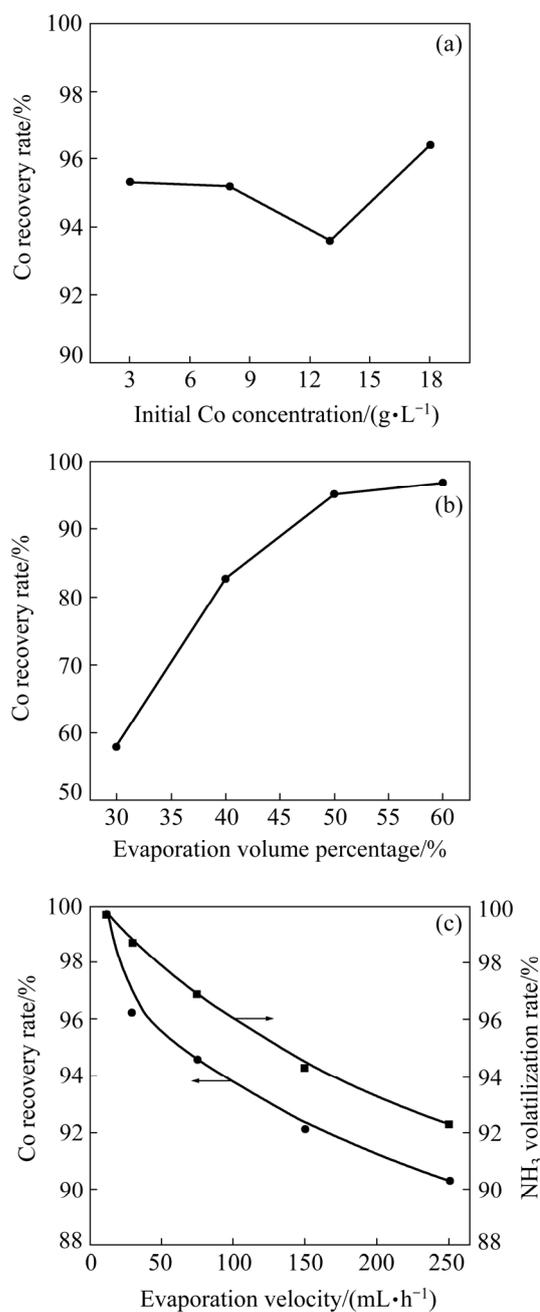
maximum value. This is also the optimal pH value for  $NH_3$  leaching, which is consistent with many studies on controlling  $pH \approx 10$  during the  $NH_3$  leaching process of spent LIBs [22,23]. Although the theoretical solubility of Co remains high when the pH value increases, a high pH value causes the  $NH_3$  concentration to increase significantly. When  $13 < pH < 14$ , the structure of cobalt-ammonia complex ( $Co(NH_3)_n^{2+}$ ) is destroyed, and  $Co(OH)_2$  precipitates out of the solution. Therefore, the Co concentration starts to decrease at  $pH=13$ . However, under strong alkaline conditions ( $pH > 14$ ), Co mainly exists in the form of hydroxyl complex ions ( $Co(OH)_i^{2-i}$ ), and the Co concentration increases with the increase of pH value in this range [19].

According to the above analysis, the decrease in  $c_C$  and increase in  $c_N$  are beneficial to the dissolution of Co in AAC solutions, which provides a thermodynamic basis for the  $NH_3$  distillation process. The increase of the solution temperature makes a large amount of  $NH_3$  volatilize, which will facilitate the decomposition of the  $Co(NH_3)_6^{3+}$ . Besides, the volatilization of ammonia also reduces

the pH of the solution, and the decrease in the solution volume increases the probability of the combination of  $CO_3^{2-}$  and Co ions, which will also facilitate the precipitation of Co.

### 3.2 Effect of parameters on Co recovery

When the temperature of the solution reaches  $94^\circ C$ , the solution starts to boil, the balance of cobalt-ammonia complex is broken,  $NH_3$  starts to volatilize, and Co precipitates from the solution gradually. Figure 2(a) shows the effect of initial Co



**Fig. 2** Effect of initial Co concentration (a), evaporation volume percentage (b), and evaporation velocity (c) on Co recovery rate

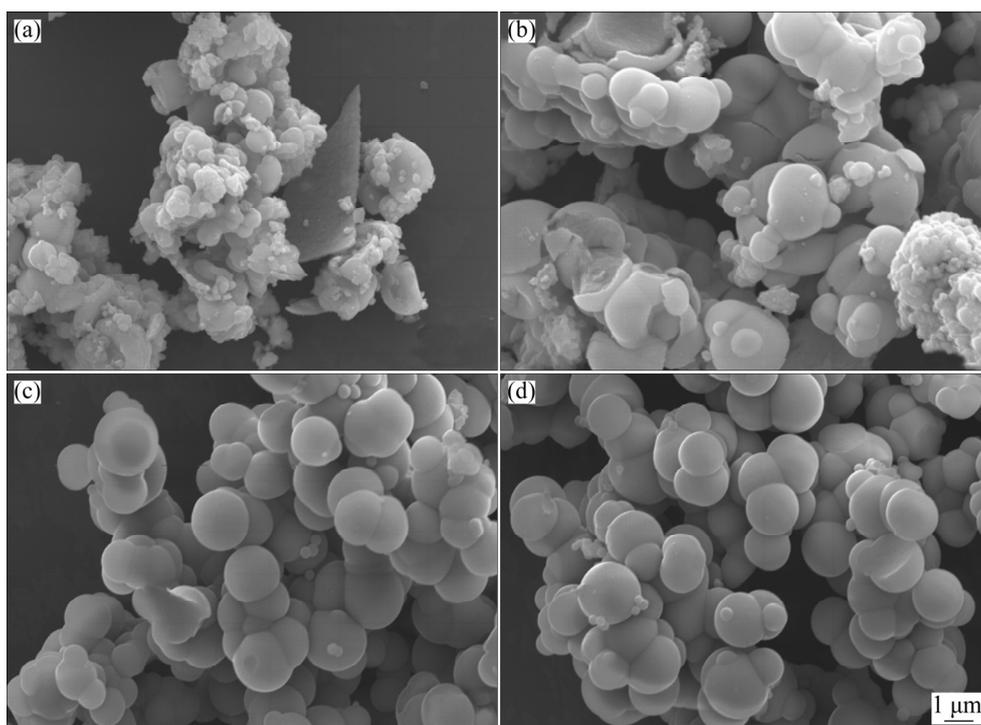
concentration in the AAC solution on the Co recovery rate under constant conditions of 50% evaporation volume percentage and 75 mL/h evaporation velocity. At different initial Co concentrations, the Co recovery rate is over 93%, that is, the NH<sub>3</sub> distillation process has a wide range of applicability to the initial Co concentration in the AAC solution. Figure 2(b) shows the effect of evaporation volume percentage on Co recovery under the conditions of 17 g/L initial Co concentration and 75 mL/h evaporation velocity. When the evaporation volume percentage is 50% of the initial solution volume, the Co recovery rate reaches 94.6%. Although the Co recovery rate still increases with the increase of evaporation volume, given that the residual liquor needs to be returned for leaching, 50% of the evaporation volume percentage is appropriate.

Figure 2(c) shows the effect of the evaporation velocity on Co recovery rate and NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization rate under the conditions of 50% evaporation volume percentage and 17 g/L initial Co concentration. The results show that the Co recovery and NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization rate decrease to a certain extent after evaporation velocity increases. Because of the increase in the evaporation rate of H<sub>2</sub>O, a part of NH<sub>3</sub> is not evaporated, and the volume of the solution decreases rapidly. Although

a low evaporation velocity leads to a high Co recovery rate, NH<sub>3</sub> distillation time greatly increases when the evaporation velocity is lower than 75 mL/h. Evaporation velocity also influences the morphology of the precursor. When evaporation velocities are 15 and 30 mL/h, the precursors show irregular and aggregated morphologies, as shown in Figs. 3(a) and (b), respectively. When evaporation velocity reaches at least 75 mL/h, the precursors grow into microspheres with particle sizes of 1–2 μm (Figs. 3(c) and (d)). Therefore, an evaporation velocity of 75 mL/h is appropriate for NH<sub>3</sub> distillation, and 96.3% NH<sub>3</sub> and 94.6% Co can be recovered under the conditions.

### 3.3 Precursor composition

In NH<sub>3</sub> distillation, many particles aggregate into amorphous precipitates because the formation rate of crystal nuclei is higher than the directional growth rate of the precursor [24]. Figure 4 shows the SEM image and EDS mapping of the precursor. The precursor is mainly composed of Co, O, C, and N, which are evenly distributed in the precursor. Figure 5(a) displays the FT-IR spectrum of the precursor. The broad peaks at 3110.17 and 1453.42 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the stretching vibration peaks of N—H [25]. This result indicates that ammonium still exists in the precursor. The



**Fig. 3** Effect of evaporation velocity on morphology of precursor: (a) 15 mL/h; (b) 30 mL/h; (c) 75 mL/h; (d) 150 mL/h

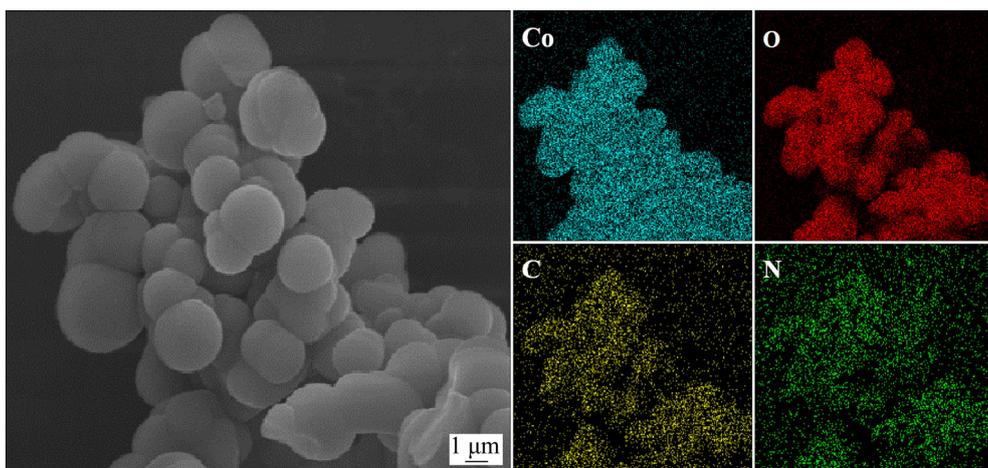


Fig. 4 SEM image and EDS mapping of precursor

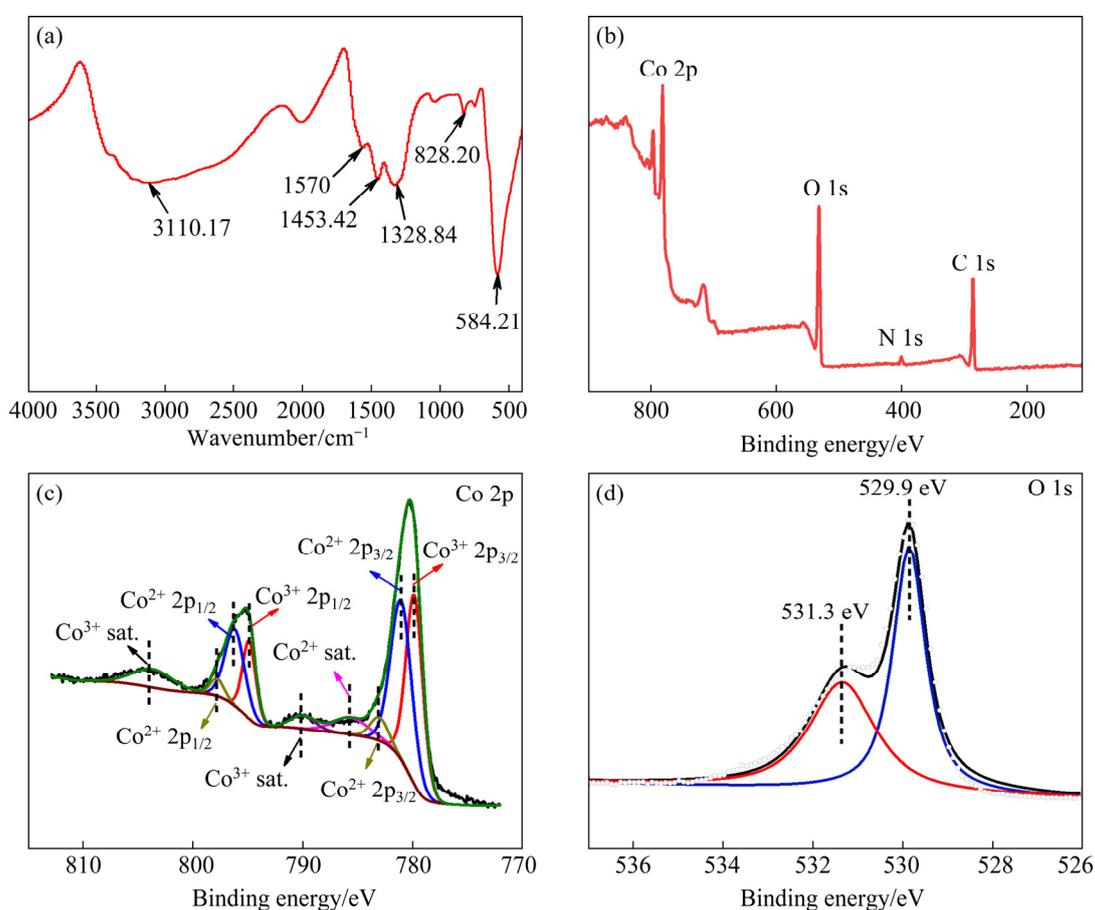


Fig. 5 FT-IR (a) and XPS (b–d) spectra of precursor: (b) Full spectrum; (c) Co 2p; (d) O 1s

peaks at 1570 and 1328.84  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  stretching vibrations, the peak at 828.20  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  bending vibration [26,27], and the peak at 584.21  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is the  $\text{Co}-\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  lattice vibration absorption.

Figure 5(b) shows the XPS full spectrum of the precursor, the peaks of Co 2p, O 1s, N 1s, and C 1s can be seen, which are consistent with the results of the EDS mapping. Figure 5(c) displays

the peaks of Co 2p. 779.8, 794.8, 790, and 803 eV are the characteristic peaks of Co(III), and 781.1, 796.2, 783.1, 797.7, and 785.7 eV are the characteristic peaks of Co(II) [28]. Given that Co exists in the initial solution in the form of  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{3+}$ ,  $\text{O}_2$  is found by detecting the generated gas according to Fig. 6. Reaction (2) may occur during the  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation process. Furthermore,

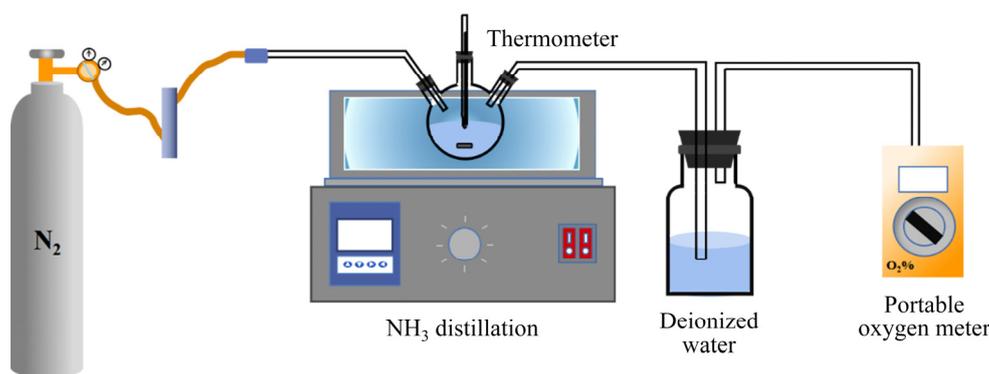
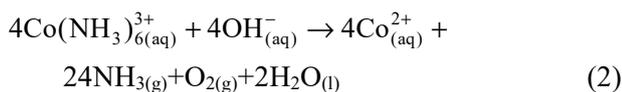


Fig. 6 Device of O<sub>2</sub> detection

the Gibbs free energy change ( $\Delta G$ ) of Reaction (2) ( $\Delta G=1353.097-3.98T$ ) is less than 0 when the temperature is higher than 67 °C, and the actual solution temperature is higher than 94 °C in the experiment. Therefore, Co(II) is present in the precursor because of the process described in Reaction (2). The O 1s spectra are shown in Fig. 5(d). The peak at 529.9 eV corresponds to oxygen in water adsorbed on the precursor surface, which can be attributed to the adsorption of H<sub>2</sub>O in the air by the sample during the test [29]. The peak at 531.3 eV corresponds to the oxygen in CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> [30]. By combining the reaction system and above analysis, it can be inferred that the precursor is cobalt carbonate ammonium compound salt ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>x</sub>Co<sub>y</sub><sup>(III)</sup>Co<sub>(1-y)</sub><sup>(II)</sup>(CO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>z</sub>).



### 3.4 Formation mechanism of precursor

In the NH<sub>3</sub> distillation process, changes of Co concentration and NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization rate in the solution at different time were recorded under optimal conditions. Evaporated cobalt ammonia complex is different from the crystallization of generally saturated compounds. Firstly, the balance between Co and NH<sub>3</sub> is broken, NH<sub>3</sub> overflows, and the stability of the cobalt–ammonia complex changes with increasing solution temperature. Then, a large number of ions in the supersaturated solution form crystal nuclei and gradually grow into particles. As shown in Fig. 7, a large amount of NH<sub>3</sub> overflows and Co concentration slightly changes within 0–27 min. At this stage, the number of crystal nuclei that form in the solution is limited, and the formation speed of the precursor is slow.

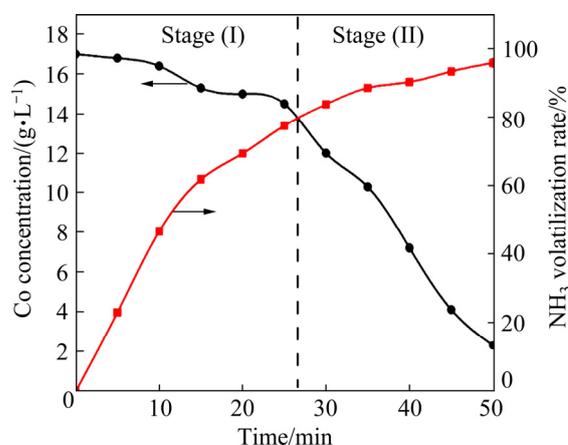
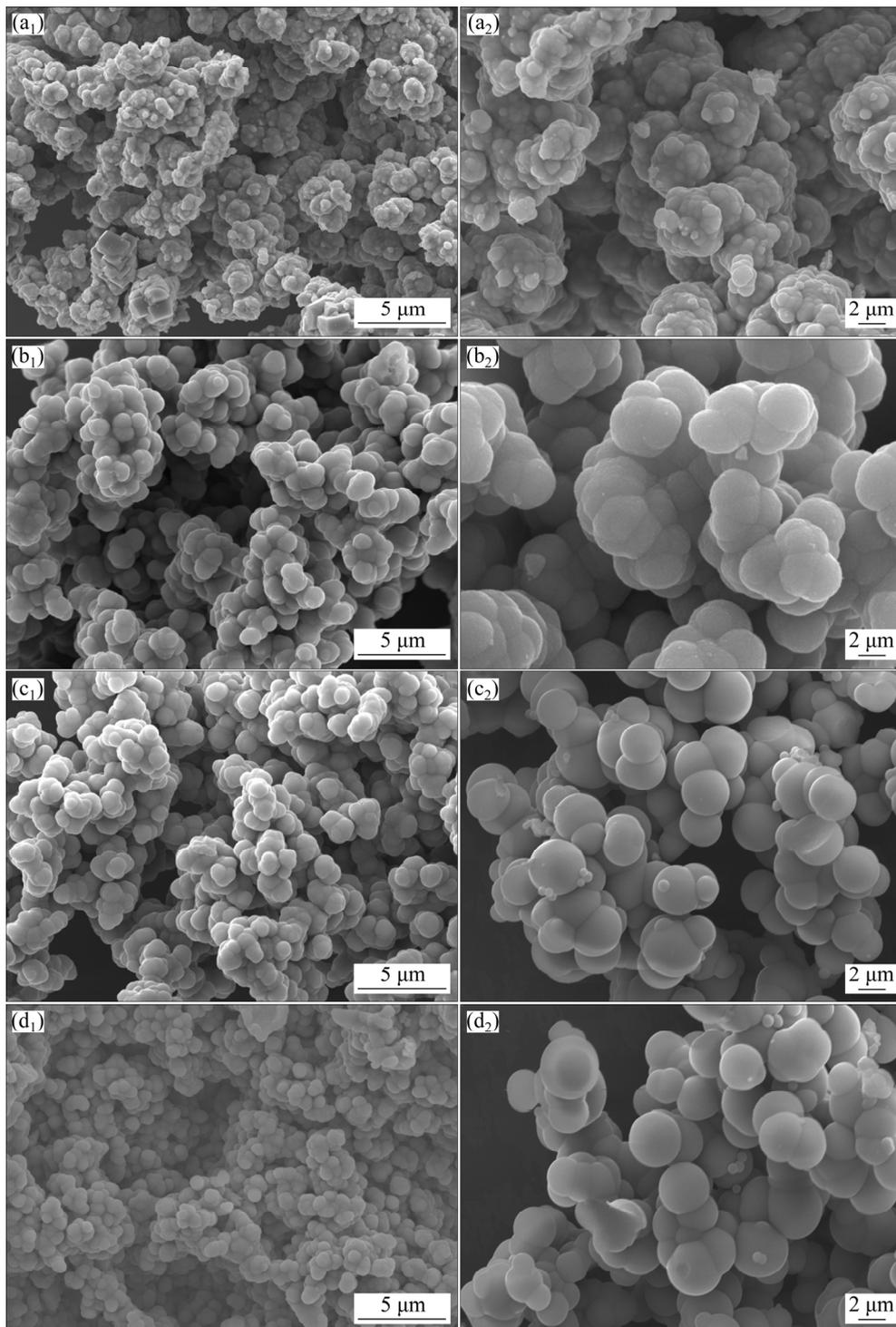


Fig. 7 Changes of Co concentration and NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization rate during entire NH<sub>3</sub> distillation process

After 27 min, the solution is supersaturated, a large number of ions accumulate on the surface of the crystal nucleus and finally form a black precursor, and Co concentration decreases rapidly during this process.

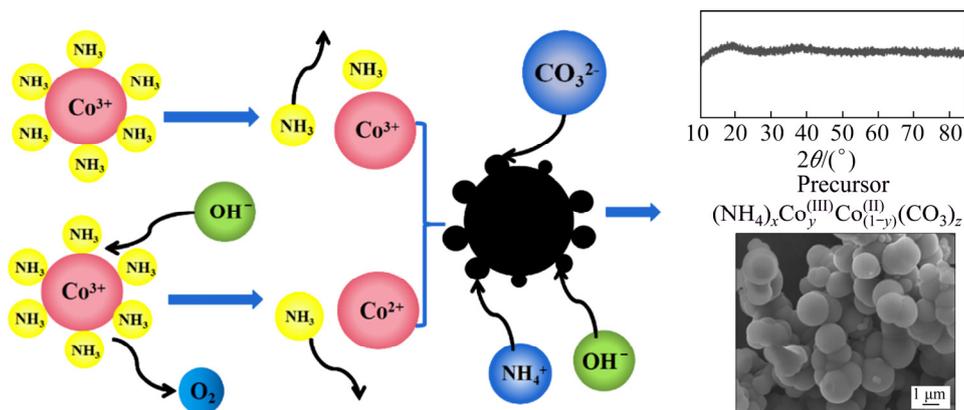
Therefore, the precursor precipitation process consists of two stages: the first stage is the breaking of the chemical bond between cobalt–ammonia complexes and volatilization of NH<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, as shown in Reactions (3) and (4). Moreover, part of the Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub><sup>3+</sup> is reduced to Co<sup>2+</sup> according to Reaction (2). Through Reactions (2)–(4), the solution is gradually supersaturated, and some ions collide, are adsorbed, and fuse to form crystal nucleus during stirring. In the second stage, a large number of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>3+</sup>, and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> gather on the surface of the crystal nucleus, and a dynamic exchange and substitution process between a part of the ions and defects on the surface of the crystal nucleus and gradually precipitate out of the solution. The reaction can be described in Reaction (5). Figure 8 shows the SEM images of the precipitates



**Fig. 8** Morphologies of precipitates at different time: (a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>) 20 min; (b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>) 30 min; (c<sub>1</sub>, c<sub>2</sub>) 40 min; (d<sub>1</sub>, d<sub>2</sub>) 50 min

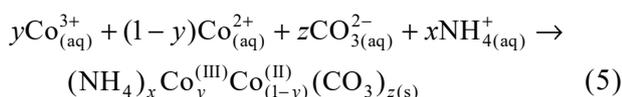
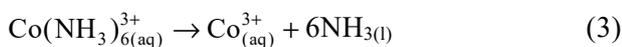
obtained at different  $\text{NH}_3$  distillation time under the fixed conditions of evaporation temperature and initial cobalt concentration. In the initial stage, the nucleation rate is faster than the crystal growth rate, and the precipitates have not fully grown, presenting large clump shapes (Figs. 8(a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>)). However, the clear microsphere-like outline is observed at 30 min, but there are still obvious

agglomerations (Figs. 8(b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>)). At 40 min, the microspheres gradually become fuller, and the morphology does not change significantly at 40–50 min, which means the growth process has been completed basically at 40 min, as shown in Figs. 8(c<sub>1</sub>, c<sub>2</sub>) and (d<sub>1</sub>, d<sub>2</sub>). Therefore, the changes of the precipitate morphologies are not obvious at 40 and 50 min. Figure 9 displays the schematic



**Fig. 9** Schematic representation of precursor precipitation

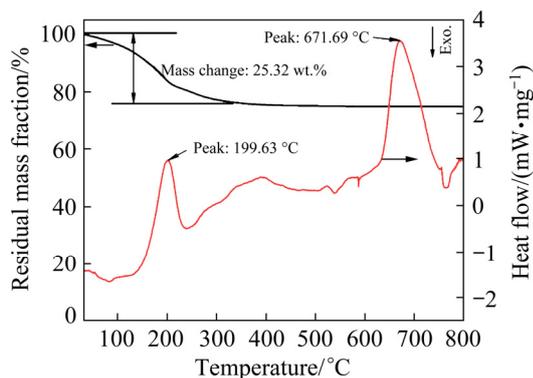
representation of precursor precipitation.



### 3.5 Transformation of $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ from precursor

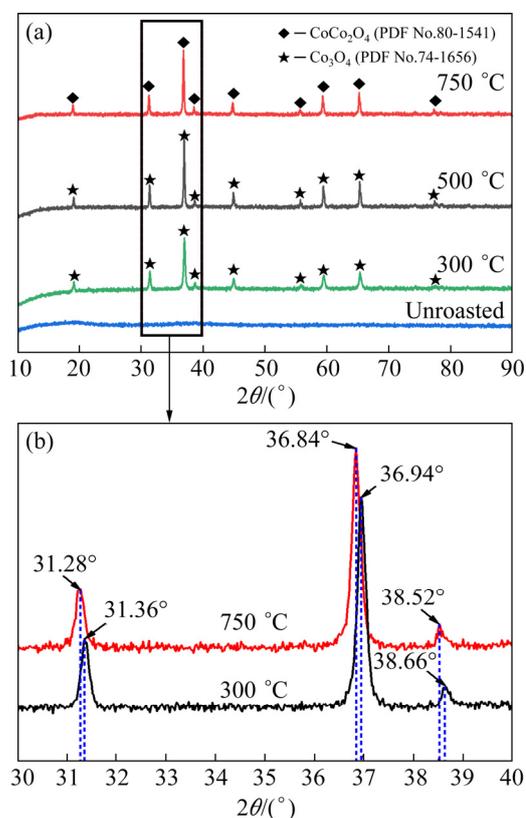
The thermochemical characteristics of the precursor are examined through TG–DSC. The DSC curve in Fig. 10 shows no evident endothermic or exothermic peak at 0–100 °C. The first endothermic peak appears at 199.63 °C. At 316 °C, the precursor completely loses mass because of precursor decomposition for  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  production, and the mass loss rate is 25.32%. When the temperature reaches 671.69 °C, the second endothermic peak appears, but no change in mass occurs, indicating that only a physical state transition occurs.

The effect of roasting temperature on roasting products was studied according to the TG–DSC results. The precursor was roasted in a muffle



**Fig. 10** TG–DSC curves of precursor

furnace at 300, 500, and 750 °C for 3 h, and the XRD patterns of the roasted products are shown in Fig. 11(a). The diffraction peaks of the  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  appear at 300 °C. When the roasting temperature is 500 and 750 °C, respectively, the intensity of diffraction peaks of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  slightly increases. Figure 11(b) displays the enlarged view of the roasted products at 300 and 750 °C ( $2\theta=30^\circ\text{--}40^\circ$ ). The diffraction peaks of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  at 750 °C shift. Although the roasted products at both temperatures are  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{CoCo}_2\text{O}_4$  corresponding to the PDF



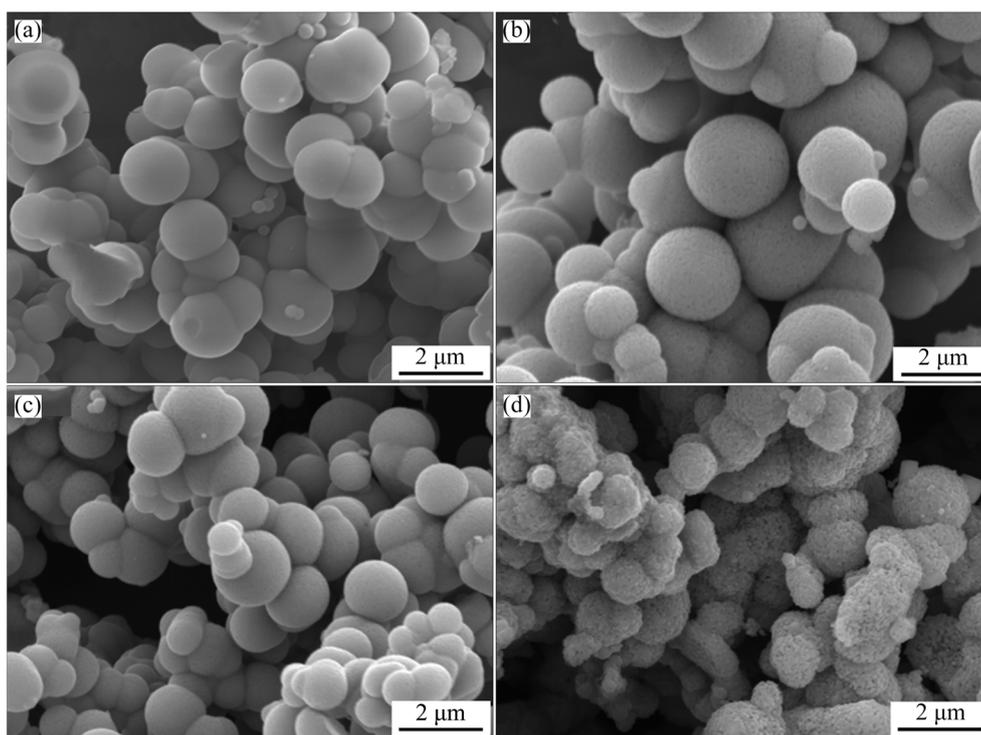
**Fig. 11** XRD patterns of precursor roasted at different temperatures

No. 80-1541 card is a high-spin spinel structure  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ , which belongs to the high-temperature phase [31,32]. Meanwhile, the common spinel structure  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  (PDF No. 74-1656) is in a low-spin state. The temperature at which  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  changes from a low-spin ground state to a high-spin state is  $627^\circ\text{C}$  according to previous research [33]. Therefore, the existence of a broad endothermic peak in the DSC curve between  $600$  and  $750^\circ\text{C}$  may be related to the physical transition of the spin state.

Figure 12 shows the SEM images of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  at different roasting temperatures. Compared with the morphology of the precursor (Fig. 12(a)), the morphologies of roasted products at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 12(b)) and  $500^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 12(c)) show no substantial change, and  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  remains microspherical, with a particle size of  $1\text{--}2\ \mu\text{m}$ . The reason is that the thermal decomposition reaction usually occurs at crystal defects, such as

dislocations, impurities, and crystal surfaces. Moreover, the newly formed crystal nucleus has an inheritance to the precursors [34], and thus the morphology of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  remains similar to that of the precursors. In phase transformation,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  disintegrate from the lattice of the reactants and rapidly release  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ . The release of these gases causes micropores and cracks on the surface of the precursor. When the roasting temperature is  $750^\circ\text{C}$ , particle agglomeration is obvious (Fig. 12(d)), the average particle size significantly increases, and the specific surface area decreases sharply from  $100.485$  to  $4.523\ \text{m}^2/\text{g}$ . Moreover, as shown in Table 3, the pore diameter increases with the roasting temperature increasing from  $300$  to  $750^\circ\text{C}$ . However, the surface area and pore volume of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  decrease with the increase of roasting temperature owing to the particle agglomeration and pore structure collapse [35].

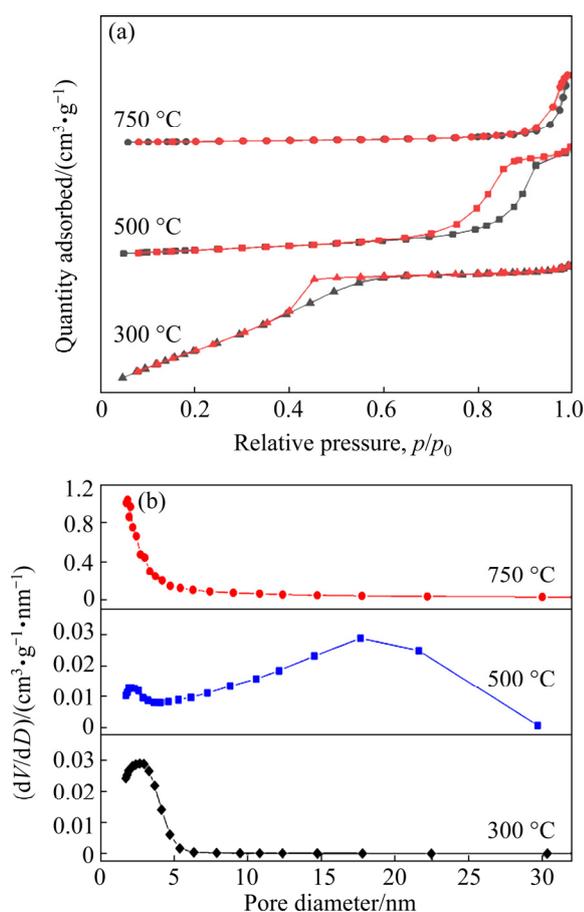
Figure 13(b) displays the pore size distribution



**Fig. 12** SEM images of  $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$  roasted at different temperatures: (a) Unroasted; (b)  $300^\circ\text{C}$ ; (c)  $500^\circ\text{C}$ ; (d)  $750^\circ\text{C}$

**Table 3** Average particle sizes, BET surface areas, pore diameters, and pore volumes of roasted products at different temperatures

Temperature/ $^\circ\text{C}$	Average particle size/nm	Surface area/ $(\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	Pore diameter/nm	Pore volume/ $(\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$
300	59.710	100.485	3.062	0.0769
500	387.976	15.465	14.115	0.0542
750	1326.550	4.523	28.300	0.032



**Fig. 13** N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherms (a) and pore size distribution (b) of roasted products at different temperatures

of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at different roasting temperatures. Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> presents a porous structure, and the pore diameter is less than 5 nm at 300 °C. When the roasting temperature increases, the pore diameter also increases significantly, and it can reach 28.3 nm at the roasting temperature of 750 °C. Figure 13(a) shows the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherms of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at different roasting temperatures. The isotherm of 300 °C is classified as Type I according to the IUPAC classification and is a typical adsorption feature of a microporous solid. The isotherms of 500 and 750 °C are classified as Type IV and are the typical adsorption features of a mesoporous structure [35,36]. The results are consistent with those of pore diameters in Table 3 and morphology changes in Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in Fig. 12. According to the above analysis, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with different physical states and properties can be obtained at different temperatures.

In this work, a process of using NH<sub>3</sub> distillation and phase transformation for recovering

Co and obtaining microspherical Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> from AAC solutions was proposed. NH<sub>3</sub> and the residual liquid were recycled, and the microspherical Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was obtained at a low temperature. The microspherical Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can be used in LiCoO<sub>2</sub> production or as an energy storage electrode. Compared with the traditional process of adding Na<sub>2</sub>S or (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>S to generate CoS or adding reducing agent and NaOH to generate Co(OH)<sub>2</sub>, the proposed method does not need the addition of chemical reagents and no wastewater is produced, and is thus suitable for industrial production.

## 4 Conclusions

(1) Thermodynamic analysis shows that the increase in  $c_N$  and the decrease in  $c_C$  are conducive to the dissolution of Co. The theoretical solubility of Co is maximized when pH is increased to 10. Co was efficiently recovered from the AAC solution through NH<sub>3</sub> distillation. 94.6% Co and 96.3% NH<sub>3</sub> were recovered under optimal conditions of evaporation velocity of 75 mL/h and evaporation volume percentage of 50%.

(2) Mechanism analysis shows that the process can be divided into two stages: (1) Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub><sup>3+</sup> decomposes and releases NH<sub>3</sub>, and a fraction of Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub><sup>3+</sup> is reduced to Co<sup>2+</sup>. Some ions collide with each other, are adsorbed, and fuse to form crystal nuclei during stirring; (2) a large number of ions accumulate on the surface of the formed crystal nuclei and gradually grow into microspherical particles. Finally, cobalt carbonate ammonium compound salt ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>x</sub>Co<sub>y</sub><sup>(III)</sup>Co<sub>(1-y)</sub><sup>(II)</sup>(CO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>z</sub>) precursor forms.

(3) The precursor was roasted at 300 °C for 3 h. Microspherical Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with a BET surface area of 100.485 m<sup>2</sup>/g, pore diameter of 3.062 nm, and average particle size of 59.710 nm was successfully prepared. At a roasting temperature of 750 °C, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with a mesoporous structure and high-spin state was obtained.

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## 从废旧锂离子电池氨浸液中回收钴并制备微球状四氧化三钴

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**摘要:** 提出一种通过蒸氨和相变从氨性溶液中回收钴并制备微球状  $Co_3O_4$  的工艺。作为热力学基础, 首先分析钴在不同  $NH_3$  和  $CO_3^{2-}$  浓度中的溶解度; 然后讨论不同的蒸氨条件对钴回收率的影响。通过蒸氨, 可以回收超过 94% 的钴和 96% 的氨, 钴以碳酸钴铵复盐形式沉淀。先驱体沉淀机理的分析结果表明, 钴的析出过程有两个阶段, 并且在第二阶段的沉淀速度明显加快。在相变过程中, 研究温度对焙烧产物的影响, 在 300 °C 时可获得具有微孔结构的微球状  $Co_3O_4$ ; 而在 750 °C 时可获得具有介孔结构和高自旋状态的  $Co_3O_4$ 。

**关键词:** 废旧锂离子电池; 蒸氨; 钴回收; 机理分析;  $Co_3O_4$  制备

(Edited by Wei-ping CHEN)