1 Materials recovery from waste liquid crystal displays: a focus on indium

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7 ABSTRACT: In the present work the recovery of indium and of the polarizing film from waste 8 liquid crystal displays was experimentally investigated in the laboratory. First of all, the polarizing 9 film was removed by employing a number of different techniques, including thermal and chemical treatments. Leaching of indium was then performed with HCl 6 N, which allowed solubilisation of 10 approximately 90% In (i.e. 260 mg In per kg of glass) at room temperature, without shredding. 11 Indium recovery from the aqueous phase was then investigated through solvent extraction with 12 polyethylene glycol (PEG)-based aqueous biphasic systems. Indium extraction tests through the 13 PEG-ammonium sulphate-water system were conducted as a function of PEG concentration, salt 14 concentration and molecular weight of PEG, using 1,10 phenanthroline as a ligand. The 15 16 experimental results demonstrated that indium partitioning between the bottom (salt-rich) and the top (PEG-rich) phase is quite independent on the composition of the system, since 80-95% indium 17 18 is extracted in the bottom phase and 5-20% in the top phase; it was also found that when PEG concentration is increased, the ratio between the bottom and the upper phase volumes decreases, 19 resulting in an increase of indium concentration in the bottom phase (at [PEG]=25% w/w, indium 20 concentration in the bottom phase is ~30% higher than the initial concentration before the 21 extraction). 22

23 Keywords: waste LCDs, hydrometallurgy, indium, ABSs

24 1. INTRODUCTION

Liquid crystal displays (LCDs) are becoming more and more widespread in electronic applications and are definitely replacing the old cathode ray tube devices in TVs and monitors (Dodiba et al., 2012). Since the lifespan of an LCD is typically 3-5 years (Zhuang et al., 2012), the amount of waste LCDs is rapidly increasing, requiring the development of suitable treatment and recovery processes. The LCD module, i.e. the main part of an LCD display after primary dismantling (Figure 1), contains two polarizing films, two glass substrates coated with indium tin

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oxide (ITO) film and a liquid crystal layer (Wang et al., 2013; Dodson et al., 2012).

Over the front glass substrate is the colour filter layer, consisting of a black matrix, colorants and 32 binders, an overcoat layer and an ITO layer (Yen and Tso, 2004). Over the rear glass substrate is the 33 TFT (thin film transistor) layer, containing three terminals, a gate insulator, a semiconductor, an 34 ohmic contact, a passivation layer and the conductive electrode (Lee and Cooper, 2008). Indium tin 35 oxide is an optoelectronic material with the key features of transparency to visible light, electricity 36 conduction and thermal reflection (Li et al., 2011); it is composed of 80-90% In₂O₃ and 10-20% 37 SnO₂ (Virolainen et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2013). Polarizing films generally consist of a layer of 38 39 iodine doped-polyvinyl-alcohol (PVA) sandwiched between two protective layers of cellulose triacetate (TAC) (Dodson et al., 2012); they are assembled on the glass substrate using a pressure 40 sensitive adhesive (PSA) composed of acrylic polymers (Nam et al., 2012; Passamani, 2011). Liquid 41 crystals are a mixture of aromatic-based polymers with benzene, cyano-group, fluorine, bromine 42 43 and chlorine; this mixture typically contains 10 to 25 different compounds (Beker et al., 2003; Zhuang et al., 2012). 44





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The main driver for waste LCDs treatment is indium recovery. Indium is a rare and valuable 47 metal that has recently been included by the European Commission in a list of critical raw 48 materials, due to its economic importance and the high supply risk that it is subject to, especially 49 50 because production is concentrated in non-European countries (European Commission, 2014). More than 80% of indium is employed for the production of ITO coatings used in liquid crystal displays 51 52 (Park et al., 2009). In Europe, LCDs are fed into a separate recycling process after collection (Buchert et al., 2012). The treatment process generally consists of a dismantling step aimed at 53 54 removing hazardous components (such as the cold cathode fluorescent lamps employed for background illumination) and valuable components (printed circuit boards, cables, plastic and 55 56 metallic fractions) for further treatment and recovery. The LCD glass panels are currently stocked at the plant or incinerated, since no recycling process is yet available on an industrial scale; this 57

practice obviously leads to a loss of potentially recoverable resources, such as the critical metal indium. Considering the amount of LCD appliances put on the market in Europe 27 in 2011, 6.5 tons of indium will become available in the coming years as potential stock (ENEA elaborations from OCSE data, http://www.oecd.org/).

In the last decade a number of studies have focused on indium recovery from end-of-life LCDs. 62 In most cases thermal treatment at high temperature was employed to remove the polarizing film 63 (Li et al., 2009; Lee et al. 2013), which leads to energy consumption and potentially harmful 64 atmospheric emissions. According to Li et al. (2009), by heating the LCD in a furnace at T=230-65 66 240°C the polarizing film can be removed, but only through hard brushing. A shredding step followed by density-based separation was tested by Zhuang at al. (2012). Ruan et al. (2012) 67 68 employed liquid nitrogen to strip the polarizing film, but no information was provided about the amount of time required and the removal efficiency achieved. Indium recovery from the glass 69 70 substrate is generally performed using hydrometallurgical techniques, consisting of a leaching step aimed at dissolving the metals of interest, followed by a separation step. 71

Leaching is often carried out employing several acids and acid mixtures; however, the hydrogen
 concentration of such mixtures is not always kept constant so that comparison of lixiviants (in terms
 of leaching efficiency) is not straightforward.

Li et al. (2009) and Lee et al. (2013) tested several acid mixtures with acid concentrations ranging from ~6 N to ~10 N; the hydrogen concentration of the leaching agents employed by Ruan et al. (2012) ranges from ~6.5 N to ~18.5 N. Yang et al. (2013) and Virolainen et al. (2011) tested HCl, HNO₃ and H₂SO₄ as leaching agents, fixing the acid concentration in terms of molarity; in this case the comparison is possible only between HCl and HNO₃, since H₂SO₄ has a two-fold hydrogen concentration.

Moreover, a shredding step is often performed prior to leaching; in some cases it is carried out on the glass substrate obtained after the removal of the polarizing film (Li et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013), and in other cases on the entire LCD module (Yang et al., 2013).

Due to the low concentration of indium in the leachate, concentration techniques are strongly required; for this purpose, Rocchetti et al. (2015) applied six steps of leaching to increase indium concentration which was about 35 mg/L after the first step, almost 2-fold at the second step and about 3-fold at the fifth step.

Indium recovery from the aqueous phase is then generally performed through solvent extraction. Organic solvent extraction (or liquid-liquid extraction) has been widely used in the past as a concentration and separation technique due to its characteristics of high selectivity and high recovery efficiency. However, organic extractants such as D2EHPA (Yang et al., 2013), TBP 92 (Virolainen et al., 2011), Cyanex 272 and Cyanex 923 (Yang et al., 2013) diluted in organic
93 diluents (such as kerosene, toluene etc.) are often employed, which are potentially hazardous for
94 human health and the environment due to emissions of Volatile Organic Compounds (VOC) into
95 the atmosphere.

Recently, an electrochemical method followed by acid treatment was proposed by Choi et al.
(2014), aimed at recovering the indium tin oxide layer as well as the glass plate.

In the present work indium recovery from waste LCDs was investigated at laboratory scale. The 98 first step in the process proposed here aims to remove the polarizing film from the glass substrate 99 100 by thermal and chemical treatments. The product removed with such techniques was then analysed through stereomicroscope to determine its quality. Indium recovery from the solid residue was 101 102 investigated through leaching and solvent extraction. Preliminary leaching tests were carried out on synthetic indium tin oxide powder in order to define the best operative conditions; acid 103 104 concentration was fixed in terms of normality to permit comparison. Indium leaching from the glass substrate was then performed. 105

Differently from what is commonly found in the available literature, samples were not shredded before the leaching, since particle size is not supposed to have any influence on leaching efficiency (the ITO layer is only present on one side of the glass substrate),

109 Indium recovery from the aqueous phase was then investigated through solvent extraction with aqueous biphasic systems (ABSs): due to their characteristics of low cost, reduced flammability and 110 reduced toxicity, ABSs are gradually emerging as a more sustainable alternative to the traditional 111 oil-water extraction systems (Rogers et al., 2005). They are formed when a water-soluble polymer 112 (e.g. PEG, polyethylene glycol) is mixed with certain inorganic salts (such as (NH₄)₂SO₄, Na₂SO₄, 113 Na₂CO₃, K₂HPO₄, KCl) at a suitable concentration (da Silva et al., 1997; Mishima et al., 1998; Wu 114 et al., 1999). The formation of an aqueous two-phase system can be explained on the basis of 115 competition for hydration between the polymer and the salt phase (Cabezas, 1996); the addition of 116 an inorganic salt increases the dehydration of the polymer chains, due to the salting-out effect and 117 phase separation, and two immiscible aqueous phases are obtained. In such a system, metal ions are 118 119 partitioned between the phases according to a certain distribution coefficient, defined as the solute concentration in the upper phase divided by the solute concentration in the lower phase (Fontana 120 and Ricci, 2000). Several water-soluble polymers may be utilized to form aqueous two-phase 121 systems; polyethylene glycol (PEG) is often employed because it is non-toxic, non-flammable and 122 non-volatile (Visser et al., 2000). According to Roger et al. (2005), metal ion extraction in aqueous 123 two-phase PEG-based systems can be classified into three categories: extraction in the PEG-rich 124 125 phase alone, without an extracting agent (a); extraction of metal ions as chelates using water-soluble

126 chelating extractants (b); extraction of metal ions as complexes with inorganic anions, such as Cl⁻, 127 Br⁻, I⁻ (c). A number of parameters affect metal ion partitioning in an ABS, such as the features of 128 the system (nature and concentration of the inorganic salt, molecular mass and concentration of the 129 polymer), the hydration properties of the solute (Roger et al., 1996), the temperature (Fontana and 130 Ricci, 2000) and the type of extracting agent (Ammar et al., 2013).

In recent years an increasing amount of research has focused on metal extraction by means of 131 aqueous biphasic systems. Ammar et al. (2013) investigated the extraction behaviour of Cd(II), 132 Cu(II), Fe(II) and Zn(II) in an aqueous biphasic system composed of PEG and sodium sulphate in 133 the presence of KI and KSCN as extractants; Cd(II) extraction was investigated by Bulgariu and 134 Bulgariu (2008) in a PEG 1550-(NH₄)₂SO₄ system. Dzherayan (2006) studied the extraction of 135 gallium from alkaline carbonate solutions with phenylfluorone in the PEG-sodium carbonate-water 136 system; copper extraction with a PEG 3,350-ammonium sulphate-water system was studied by 137 138 Fontana and Ricci (2000) in the presence of 1,10 phenanthroline as complexing agent.

In this work, indium recovery from the aqueous phase is investigated through PEG-based ABSs. The system consists of PEG-(NH₄)₂SO₄-water, since it has been often employed in the literature for the extraction of several metal ions (Fontana and Ricci, 2000; Bulgariu and Bulgariu, 2008). Indium partitioning in the selected ABS was investigated in the presence of 1,10 phenanthroline, which is a traditional ligand employed in coordination chemistry (Bencini and Lippolis, 2010).

144 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The waste LCD panels were provided by an e-waste treatment plant located in northern Italy (STENA Technoworld srl, Castenedolo, BS); a number of LCD monitors (not dismantled) were also provided by an e-waste collecting platform. All chemicals were used as received and without any further purification: acetone, ethyl acetate, limonene, liquid nitrogen, HCl 37-38% w/w, HNO₃ 69.9% w/w, H₂SO₄ 96% w/w, indium tin oxide powder (ITO) (325 mesh, \geq 99.99% trace metals basis, 90% In₂O₃, 10% SnO₂ Sigma Aldrich), polyethylene-glycol (Sigma Aldrich, MW 3,350 and 10,000), ammonium sulphate and 1,10 phenanthroline.

152 **2.1 Removal of the polarizing film**

Infrared spectroscopy (Shimadzu IRAffinity-1) was employed to gather information about the chemical composition of the external side of the polarizing films. Thermal and chemical treatments were then compared in order to evaluate the best treatment option in terms of time required to remove the film from the glass substrate and the quality of the recovered product. Each test was repeated on two LCDs of different sizes and compositions, previously cut into small pieces (5cm x 5cm). Thermal treatments were performed by cooling the waste LCDs with liquid nitrogen (T=-

196°C); the amount of reagent required was ~25 L per kg of waste LCDs. Chemical treatments 159 were performed by soaking the waste LCDs in several organic solvents such as acetone, ethyl 160 acetate and limonene. The liquid/solid ratio was 3 mL/g. In order to maximize contact with the 161 solvent, small cracks were made in the glass (with a mortar) to allow the solvent to reach the inner 162 side of the polarizing film where the acrylic adhesive was present. The experiments were then 163 carried out in glass beakers on a mechanical shaker; the influence of ultrasound treatment (35 kHz) 164 was also tested to evaluate the possibility of reducing the contact time. The removed film was 165 analysed by stereomicroscope (Olympus SZX12) to determine its quality. Scanning electron 166 167 microscope (ZEISS EVO MA 15) was also employed to examine glass composition; both the thin 168 film transistor and the colour filter layer were analysed.

169 2.2 Leaching

In order to define the best operative conditions for indium leaching, preliminary tests were performed on ITO powder by varying the leaching agent (HCl, HNO₃, H₂SO₄, HCl-HNO₃ 3:1 v/v), the time (t=0-24 h) and the liquid/solid ratio (L/S= 20 mL/g, 100 mL/g, 500 mL/g); acid concentration was 6 N in all the experiments, since this value was suggested by some other authors (Li et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2013). Indium leaching efficiency (E%) was calculated according to Eq. (1):

$$E(\%) = \frac{M}{M_0} \cdot 100 \tag{1}$$

176 where:

- M is the amount of indium dissolved (g);

178 - M_0 is the amount of indium in the initial sample (g).

The best leaching conditions were then applied to leach the glass substrate remaining after the polarizing film removal process (Section 2.1). The leaching tests were carried out at room temperature in glass beakers on a mechanical shaker, with a liquid/solid ratio of 3 mL/g. Metal content was determined through MP-AES (Microwave Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometer) Agilent 4100. SEM analyses were also performed on the glass substrate (both TFT and colour filter layer).

185 **2.3 Indium extraction with aqueous biphasic systems (ABSs)**

Indium extraction from the aqueous phase was investigated through solvent extraction with aqueous biphasic systems. The system considered consists of polyethylene-glycol (PEG), ammonium sulphate, water and 1,10 phenanthroline (phen) as a ligand.

Indium $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ M solutions were prepared by dissolving indium (III) nitrate hydrate in distilled water. No information is available in the literature about indium extraction stoichiometry with this ligand. In this work we assumed that three moles of phenanthroline are required to complex one mole of In(III); in order to guarantee an excess reagent, a molar ratio (r) equal to 5 was employed,

as reported in Eq. (2):

$$r = \frac{\text{phen moles}}{\text{In moles}} = 5$$
(2)

From preliminary tests (not reported here) the optimal pH value which could suggest the formation of indium complexes was ~7.5; however, the operative pH was set at ~5.5 in order to avoid indium precipitation (which was observed after few hours of equilibration at pH=7.5). This value is, thus, the nearest to the optimal one which avoids indium precipitation.

Extraction tests were carried out by mixing weighed amounts of PEG and ammonium sulphate with the metal-rich solution in glass-capped tubes on a mechanical shaker; the extraction time was 200 2h. Samples were then put in a thermostatic bath (T=25°C) and were allowed to settle for 2h.

The extraction tests were carried out as a function of PEG and salt concentrations (PEG 201 concentration ranging from 9 to 25% w/w; (NH₄)₂SO₄ concentration ranging from 11 to 25% w/w) 202 in order to evaluate the influence of system composition on indium partitioning. It must be noted 203 that PEG and salt concentrations were varied according to the phase diagram of the system (Fontana 204 and Ricci, 2000), so as to guarantee the formation of two phases. Two types of PEG were employed 205 (PEG 3,350 and PEG 10,000) to check the possible influence of molecular weight. The two phases 206 were separated and analysed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS Shimadzu 6300). 207 Indium partitioning between the lower and upper phase was calculated according to Eq. (3) and Eq. 208 209 (4):

$$E(\%)_{bottom} = \frac{M_{bottom}}{M_0} \cdot 100$$
(3)

$$E(\%)_{top} = \frac{M_{top}}{M_0} \cdot 100 \tag{4}$$

210 where:

- $E(\%)_{bottom}$ is indium extraction efficiency in the bottom phase (% w/w);

- $E(\%)_{top}$ is indium extraction efficiency in the top phase (% w/w);

- M_{bottom} is the amount of indium extracted in the bottom phase (g);

214 - M_{top} is the amount of indium extracted in the top phase (g);

- M_0 is the amount of indium in the initial aqueous phase (g); $M_0 = M_{bottom} + M_{top}$.
- All the experiments were performed in duplicate, in order to check the experimental technique and its precision.

218 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

219 **3.1 Removal of the polarizing film**

FTIR analysis showed that the external side of the front polarizing film is composed of epoxy resins, while the rear one is composed of epoxy resins or acetyl cellulose or poly(butylene)terephthalate (PBT).

In Table 1 the time required to obtain complete removal of the polarizing film from the glass substrate is reported.

TREATMENT	OPERATIVE PARAMETERS		TIME
Thermal	Liquid nitrogen		10-20 min
Chemical	SOLVENT	ULTRASOUND	
		ASSISTED	
	Limonene	-	not effective within 8 h
		✓	8 h
	Acetone	-	8 h
		✓	4 h
	Ethyl acetate	-	5 h
		✓	2-3 h

Table 1. Polarizing film removal time from the glass substrate of the LCD

Thermal treatment with liquid nitrogen turned out to be the best option for the removal of the 226 polarizing film, since only 10-20 minutes were required, depending on the type of LCD. Among the 227 organic solvents tested, acetone and ethyl acetate are the most effective, since 8h and 5h, 228 229 respectively, were sufficient for removing the polarizing film in the absence of ultrasound treatment. This result could be probably linked to partial solubilisation of the pressure-sensitive 230 adhesive. Limonene treatment did not permit removal of the film within 8h. The ultrasound 231 treatment reduces the time required for complete removal of polarizing film in all chemical 232 treatments (Table 1); this improvement could be linked to the enhancement of solid/liquid mass 233 transfer and diffusivity due to cavitation. Limonene treatment required 8h, after which the film 234 could be removed with gentle brushing. 235

Stereomicroscope analyses of the polarizing films are reported in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Polarizing film removed after the thermal and chemical treatments - stereomicroscope analysis of the external side. The product obtained following ethyl acetate and acetone treatment results heavily damaged: both films are completely crumpled and grooves are visible, probably due to partial chemical degradation, while limonene treatment leads to some porosity. The polarizing film removed by means of liquid nitrogen does not show significant damage, since only few scratches resulting from sample preparation (manual dismantling, cutting, manual detachment of the polarizing film from the glass substrate) were observed.

It can be concluded that the best technique for removal of polarizing film is thermal treatment with liquid nitrogen, both in terms of time (10-20 minutes) and final product quality.

The polarizing film and the glass substrate were weighed, and it was found that they account for
14% and 86% of the weight of the LCD panel, respectively.

In Figures 3-4, SEM analyses performed on the glass substrate before and after the treatment with liquid nitrogen are reported. The circles (white coloured) identify the X-ray peaks corresponding to the indium element in the EDS^{*} spectrum (characteristic X-rays: Lα 3.286 keV):



Figure 3. EDS spectrum of the LCD glass substrate (colour filter layer) before (a) and after (b) treatment with liquid nitrogen.

^{*} EDS: Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy



Figure 4. EDS spectrum of the LCD glass substrate (TFT layer) before (a) and after (b) treatment with liquid nitrogen.

It was found that thermal treatment with liquid nitrogen did not remove the ITO layer from the glass substrate, since the EDS spectrum still reveals the presence of indium.

258 **3.2** Leaching

In Figures 5-8 indium leaching efficiency from indium tin oxide powder is reported as a function

260 of time, leaching agent and liquid/solid ratio.



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Figure 5. Indium leaching efficiency from indium tin oxide powder (HCl 6 N, T=25°C)





Figure 6. Indium leaching efficiency from indium tin oxide powder (HNO₃ 6 N, T=25°C)







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Figure 8. Indium leaching efficiency from indium tin oxide powder (HCl-HNO₃ 3:1 v/v 6 N, $T=25^{\circ}C$)

It was found that indium leaching efficiency is low if nitric acid and sulphuric acid are employed as leaching agents: as reported in Figures 6-7, only 40% of the indium could be extracted in 24h. Our results confirmed those found in the literature: Virolainen et al. (2011) stated that the rates of the leaching kinetics of ITO powder are in general quite slow, with that of nitric acid the slowest; this result could be explained by the strong oxidizing conditions of nitric acid, which could be responsible for indium precipitation.

A different behaviour was observed by employing a mixture of hydrochloric acid / nitric acid 278 and hydrochloric acid, since approximately 90% of indium was extracted in 6 h employing a 279 liquid/solid ratio of 500 mL/g. Thereafter, only a negligible increase in leaching efficiency is 280 achieved. Our results are comparable to those of Yang et al. (2013), which showed that the 281 dissolution kinetics of indium oxide is the fastest in chloride media. Indium leaching from the glass 282 substrate obtained after removal of the polarizing film with liquid nitrogen was then performed for 283 6h in HCl solution. It was found that approximately 260 mg In per kg of glass were dissolved with 284 HCl 6 N, which corresponds to a leaching efficiency of 90% w/w. This data is comparable with the 285 286 figures reported in the literature, where a shredding step is performed prior to leaching. By processing data provided by Li et al. (2009), they succeeded in dissolving less than 125 mg In per 287 288 kg of glass (which corresponds to a leaching efficiency of 92% w/w) at 60°C and with several acid mixtures, including HCl 6 N, but the leaching was carried out on samples previously shredded to 289 290 less than 5 mm. Lee et al. (2013) obtained approximately 220 mg In per kg of glass (which corresponds to a 86% recovery efficiency) in 30 minutes, but they crushed the samples down to 291

micrometric size with a high energy ball milling (HEBM). Yang et al. (2013) found that near-292 complete leaching of indium can be achieved by using 1 M HCl in less than 8h, on shredded 293 samples. In our case, after the removal of the two polarizing films with liquid nitrogen, two glass 294 substrates were obtained; on each substrate, the ITO layer is only present on one side. For this 295 reason, particle size is not supposed to have any influence on the leaching efficiency since the 296 specific surface area of ITO does not increase with reducing particle size. In Figures 9-10, SEM 297 analyses of the glass substrate before and after leaching with HCl 6 N are reported: no more indium 298 is detected in the EDS spectrum (dashed line), thus confirming the almost complete dissolution of 299 300 indium oxide.





Figure 9. EDS spectrum of the LCD glass substrate (colour filter layer) before (a) and after (b) treatment with HCl 6 N.



Figure 10. EDS spectrum of the LCD glass substrate (TFT layer) before (a) and after (b) treatment with HCl 6 N.



Table 2. Leachate composition (HCl 6 N leaching, T=25°C, t=6h, L/S=3 mL/g)

	LCD 1	LCD 2
	[ppm]	[ppm]
In	87.54	83.78
Sn	9.48	8.92
Al	7.85	4.92
Cr	2.34	-

Tin is of course present as a component of ITO. The presence of aluminium ions could be linked 308 to partial solubilisation of the gate electrode as well as the gate insulator on the TFT layer; 309 chromium traces may be due to the solubilisation of the black matrix on the colour filter layer. 310 Differently from Ruan et al. (2012) and Yang et al. (2013), no iron was found in the leachate. Ruan 311 et al. performed the leaching at high temperature (160 °C), which could have led to an enhancement 312 of the amount of iron dissolved. The presence of iron could be also linked to sample 313 preparation/pretreatment. In the case of Yang et al. (2013), the LCD samples used in the 314 experiments were industrially shredded LCD glass provided by a local recycling company; such 315 LCD glass might have been mixed with other parts of the display or other waste electrical and 316 317 electronic equipment when shredded, thus leading to contamination.

318 **3.3 Indium extraction with aqueous biphasic systems (ABSs)**

In Figures 11-12 indium extraction efficiency in the system $PEG-(NH_4)_2SO_4$ -water is reported as

a function of PEG concentration and ammonium sulfate concentration, respectively.



Figure 11. Indium extraction efficiency as a function of PEG concentration ($[(NH_4)_2SO_4]_{ABS}=12\%$ w/w; pH_{eq}~5.5).



Figure 12. Indium extraction efficiency as a function of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ concentration ([PEG]_{ABS}=10% w/w; pH_{eq}~5.5).It was found that indium partitioning between the bottom and the

top phase is quite independent from system composition, since 80-95% of indium is extracted in the 331 bottom phase and 5-20% in the top phase. According to Huddleston et al. (2003), in a PEG-based 332 ABS the bottom phase waste LCDs espond to the salt-rich and the PEG-rich phase, 333 (1.0 kg)respectively. The fact t y extracted in the bottom phase can be explained 334 by the high degree of hydration of indium complexes, which tend to remain in the salt-rich phase of 335 the extraction system, as also reported by Bulgariu and Bulgariu (2007). As shown in Figure 11, if 336 PEG concentration is increased the volume ratio between the bottom and the top phase decreases 337 but, as previously stated, the extraction efficiency of indium ions in both phases is not affected by 338 this variation. For this reason, by working with high PEG concentrations in the selected ABS, it is 339 possible to obtain a higher indium ion concentration in the bottom phase compared to the 340 341 concentration obtained if lower PEG concentrations are employed. The opposite effect was registered when salt concentration was increased: the volume ratio between the phases increases, 342 343 thus determining a decrease of indium concentration in the bottom phase. Experimental data demonstrate that indium extraction is quite similar when employing PEG 3,350 as well as PEG 344 345 10,000; however, the volume ratio decrease is more significant if PEG 3,350 is employed. It was found that if [PEG 3,350]=25% w/w and $[(NH_4)_2SO_4]=12\%$, then the volume ratio between the two 346 phases is equal to 0.8 and indium concentration in the bottom phase is ~30% higher than the initial 347 concentration (before the extraction). The increase is quite small; nevertheless such concentration 348 technique could be helpful to facilitate final recovery processes, in which high metal ions 349 concentrations are usually required. Figure 13 illustrates the entire process in a flow chart. The mass 350 balance is performed on 1 kg of waste LCDs. 351





Figure 13. Flow chart of the waste LCDs recovery process tested in the present work.

As one can see, only a small quantity of chemicals is required (liquid nitrogen, HCl, PEG, ammonium sulphate and a negligible amount of 1,10 phenanthroline). Energy consumption and dust emissions are avoided since no shredding is performed; moreover, leaching is carried out at room temperature, lowering potential hazardous emissions. Solvent extraction is performed through environmentally sound extraction media, since PEG-based ABSs are biodegradable and low-cost.

Two outputs are produced (a glass fraction and the polarizing film), which could be sent to existing treatment plants for material recovery. An indium-rich phase is also obtained, which needs further treatment in order to recover indium ions, for example through precipitation.

376

377 4. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, indium recovery from waste LCDs was experimentally investigated in the 378 laboratory using a sequence of different techniques. Thermal and chemical treatments aimed at 379 removing the polarizing film from the glass substrate were for the first time systematically 380 compared and discussed; the best results were obtained with liquid nitrogen, since only 20 minutes 381 382 were required; moreover, the obtained product did not show substantial degradation, suggesting a better recycling potential. The best operative leaching conditions performed on indium tin oxide 383 powder were then applied for leaching of the glass residue. It was found that, without shredding, 384 HCl 6 N (T=25°C, t=6h, L/S=3 mL/g) leaches approximately 260 mg In per kg of glass at room 385 temperature, with no energy consumption or dust emissions. An attempt was made to extract 386 indium ions through PEG-based aqueous biphasic systems, which are now receiving increasing 387 attention among the scientific community due to their characteristics of low toxicity and low 388 flammability, and which have not been tested for indium recovery yet. It was found that if [PEG 389 3,350]=25% w/w and [(NH₄)₂SO₄]=12%, indium concentration in the bottom phase is ~30% higher 390 391 than the initial concentration.

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