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# UV/visible spectroscopic analysis of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> during the dissolution of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores

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**Abstract:** The leaching of cobalt from four-mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores containing cobalt at levels ranging from 0.5wt% to 34wt% was studied and the results has been reported. Conventional dissolution of these oxidized Co-Cu ores with diluted  $H_2SO_4$  and  $SO_2$  as a reducing agent resulted in a substantial improvement in the solution based recovery of cobalt. UV/visible spectroscopic analysis of the leached solutions indicated that the increased cobalt content in the solution was a result of flushing the acidified cobalt leaching solution with  $SO_2$ . Furthermore, UV/visible spectroscopy confirmed that as  $SO_2$  was flushed into the acidified leaching solution,  $Co^{3+}$  bearing minerals were reduced to the readily soluble  $Co^{2+}$  bearing minerals, and this resulted in the increase of total cobalt in the collected solution. The mechanism of the reduction of  $Co^{3+}$  to  $Co^{2+}$  bearing minerals when  $SO_2$  is flushed during the leaching of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores, including the stability trends of  $Co^{3+}$ ,  $Co^{2+}$ , and  $Cu^{2+}$  complexes, as shown by their UV/visible spectra, are also discussed.

Keywords: cobalt metallurgy; dissolution; leaching; reaction kinetics; spectroscopic analysis

#### 1. Introduction

World-wide production of cobalt derives mainly as a by product from the extraction of other metals. Commercially important ores that contain cobalt include cobaltite (CoAsS), smaltite (CoAs<sub>2</sub>), and linnaeite (Co<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). These ores always occur together with nickel ores, often with copper ores and sometimes with lead ores. The pretreatment of these ores involves roasting, which converts the ore into a mixture of oxides called "Speisses". These oxides usually contain cobalt as  $\text{Co}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  bearing minerals, and  $\text{SO}_2$  is released as a valuable byproduct. Upon preconcentration, these oxides are treated with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , which dissolves cobalt and nickel, thereby separating them from copper [1].

Mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores that originate from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) contain cobalt (mainly as Co<sup>3+</sup>) at variable levels [2]. A detailed study of heterogenite samples from the southern Katanga region by Deliens and Goethals [3] revealed the existence of a heterogenite possessing a polytypic relation. This heterogenite, which

was named "heterogenite-2H", was found to possess the same properties (except X-ray powder diffraction patterns) and chemical composition as the "normal" heterogenite. In order to distinguish it from the 2H polytype, the "normal" heterogenite was named the heterogenite-3R. In addition to being the most commonly found heterogenite in southern Katanga, the heterogenite-3R occurs with the widest range of appearances. The chemical formula of the "normal" heterogenite (CoO(OH)-3R) is identical to that of the heterogenite-2H (CoO(OH)-3H). The clearest distinction between the two polytypes is the 2H polytype rarity in comparison to the 3R, which is almost always present in the oxidation zones of the Cu-Co deposits in southern Katanga [3].

It has been reported that challenges are encountered during the dissolution of cobalt from these types of ores. Literature survey indicates that various reagents including copper powder (Cu), sodium metabisulphite (Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), and ferrous ions (Fe<sup>2+</sup>) have been used as reducing agents in plant situations to improve the solubility of cobalt from such ores. However, it was also indicated that the use of these



reagents resulted in an unbearable increase in total plant operation costs, where the consumption of these reagents averaged 0.8 t of Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and 1.2 t of Cu powder per ton of dissolved cobalt, representing approximately 47% of the total operating cost per ton of Co metal produced [4].

Other studies have reported the use of sulphur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) as a reducing agent in improving the dissolution efficiency of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores [5-9]. These studies showed that a substantial improvement in the cobalt yield was achieved when the ores were leached in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. This paper, therefore, reports on the mechanistic pathways of cobalt dissolution from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores when SO<sub>2</sub> was used as a reducing agent. More emphasis has been placed on using UV/visible spectroscopy in trying to understand the solubility of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> bearing minerals from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. In conjunction to this, the dissolution kinetics of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores in admixtures of SO<sub>2</sub> is reported in this paper.

The important oxidation states of cobalt in aqueous solutions are  $\mathrm{Co^{3+}}(d^6)$  and  $\mathrm{Co^{2+}}(d^7)$  [10]. The fact that  $\mathrm{Co^{3+}}$  forms an enormous number of octahedral complexes having the  $\mathrm{t_{2g}^6}$  configuration has resulted in these being used extensively for rate and mechanistic studies on octahedral substitution reactions.  $\mathrm{Co^{2+}}$  forms more tetrahedral complexes than any other transition metal ions. The nature of the ligand bonded to cobalt has a dramatic effect on the stability of these two oxidation states [11].  $\mathrm{Co^{3+}}$  has a great affinity for nitrogen donors especially ammonia, amines, nitro  $(\mathrm{NO_{2}^{-}})$ , and  $-\mathrm{NCS}$  groups. Unlike cobalt, copper exist mainly as  $\mathrm{Cu^{2+}}(\mathrm{d^9})$  in aqueous solution. Its  $\mathrm{d^9}$  configuration gives rise to Jahn-Teller distortions both in its simple compounds and complexes.

The valence-bond approach to bonding in complexes was first proposed by Lewis in 1902. It was not until 1927, however, that Walter Heitler and Fritz London showed how the sharing of electrons holds a covalent molecule together [12]. The last major step in the evolution of this theory was the suggestion by Linus Pauling that atomic orbitals mix to form hybrid orbitals, such as the sp, sp<sup>2</sup>, sp<sup>3</sup>, dsp<sup>3</sup>, and d<sup>2</sup>sp<sup>3</sup> orbitals. At almost the same time that these chemists were developing the valence-bond model for coordination complexes, while physicists, such as Hans Bethe, John Van Vleck, and Leslie Orgel, were developing an alternative theory known as the crystal field theory [13-16]. This theory tried to describe the effect of the electrical field of neighboring ions on the energies of the valence orbitals of an ion in a crystal. Both theories have been used in this

study to explain the UV/visible absorption trends observed for Co<sup>3+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, and Cu<sup>2+</sup> complexes.

#### 2. Experimental procedure

#### 2.1. Materials

The hand-picked preconcentrated mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores used in this study were obtained from DRC. These are high cobalt ore, high copper ore, low cobalt ore (with mica), and low cobalt ore (without mica), which were processed as received. The cobalt content in these ores ranged from 0.5wt% to 34wt% with the major constituents among other things being copper and iron. The cobalt phases in these ores were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD). Unless otherwise stated, all experiments were carried out at room temperature using reagent grade chemicals that were obtained at high purity from the suppliers.

#### 2.2. Characterization by XRD

The powder sample (10 g) was finely ground in an agate mortar prior to XRD analysis. The sample for XRD analysis was prepared by packing the finely ground powder into a steel holder backed by a stainless steel slide, and this powder was then smoothed off by sliding a flat steel over the surface. The holder was slightly overfilled with the powder which was then compressed so that it could pack adequately onto the steel holder. The powder samples were analyzed with a computer-controlled Phillips diffractometer, type PW3710, with an automatic divergence slit and a copper anode producing X-rays of  $\lambda_1$ =0.1.5406 and  $\lambda_2$ =0.154443 nm. The diffractometer was operated at 40 kV and 40 mA, and automatic routines allowed absolute scanning for values of  $2\theta$  from 3 to  $80^{\circ}$ , using a step-size of  $0.0170^{\circ}$  and a scan step time of 49.2601 s. Identification and attribution of mineral phases in the ores was achieved with the aid of the Xpert computerized database.

### 2.3. Dissolution of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores

The main apparatus for the experiment consisted of a glass beaker (500 cm³), a magnetic stirrer, and a pH/Eh meter. Buffer solutions of pH 4 and pH 7 were used to calibrate the pH probe. The ore sample (20 g) with a particle size distribution of less than 75  $\mu m$  was poured into a glass beaker (500 cm³) and charged with  $H_2SO_4$  (400 cm³, 0.5 M).  $H_2SO_3$  was produced, when necessary, by purging a glass beaker (500 cm³) charged with deionized water (400 cm³) with  $SO_2$  at a flow rate of 50 cm³/min. The residence time for all experiments was 2 h. The magnetic stirrer was set at 300

r/min, and the flow rate of  $SO_2$  gas was monitored with the help of calibrated bubble flow meters. Samples were collected at 30-min time intervals and analyzed for cobalt by flame-AAS.

# 2.4. Analysis of $Co^{3+}$ , $Co^{2+}$ , and $Cu^{2+}$ by UV/visible spectroscopy

All ultraviolet (UV/visible) experiments were performed using a Varian UV/visible Carry 50 spectrophotometer and a 10-mm quartz cuvette cell. The UV/visible experiments were carried out to monitor the levels of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> in the ore prior to leaching and in residues after the leaching of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores. In a typical experiment, a finely ground ore or residue sample (0.2 g) with a particle size of less than 75 µm was dissolved in aqua-regia (40 mL) and heated on a hot plate for 10 min. The resulting solution was cooled and transferred to 250-mL volumetric flask. A solution of 2 M ammonium thiocyanate (NH<sub>4</sub>SCN) was then added as a diluent, together with a chromogenic (color forming) reagent in order to convert the cobalt species to absorbing complex forms. Qualitative analysis was immediately carried out by scanning aliquots of this solution on a Varian UV/Visible Carry 50 spectrophotometer. The absorbance spectra of both Co3+ and Co2+ complexes were collected from 190 to 900 nm. Furthermore, a synthetic solution containing Co3+, Co2+, and Cu2+ was prepared at similar concentration levels as in the sample and analyzed in the same manner.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Analysis of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores by XRD

The XRD diffraction patterns shown in Fig. 1 indicate the chemical composition of cobalt in three different cobalt-bearing ores, namely, high cobalt ore—CoOOH-3R (Fig. 1(a)), high copper ore—CoOOH-3R (Fig. 1(b)), and low cobalt ore (without mica)—CoOOH-3R and CoOOH-2H (Fig. 1(c)). Since the sulphur content in these ores was not analyzed, it was assumed that the mixed Co-Cu ores were completely oxidized. The attribution of mineral phases, as shown in Fig. 1, was achieved by comparing the principal peak intensities to reference XRD cards.

Heterogenite (CoOOH), malachite ( $Cu_2(CO_3)(OH)_2$  and limonite ( $Fe_2O_3$ .  $3H_2O$ ) were identified as common phases in all four mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores. Nimite- $1M_{11b}$  [(Ni, Mg, Al)<sub>6</sub>(Si, Al)<sub>6</sub>O<sub>10</sub>(OH)<sub>8</sub>] and willemseite [(Ni, Mg)<sub>3</sub>Si<sub>4</sub>O<sub>10</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>] were also identified as commonly occurring minerals which contain nickel. In addition, two

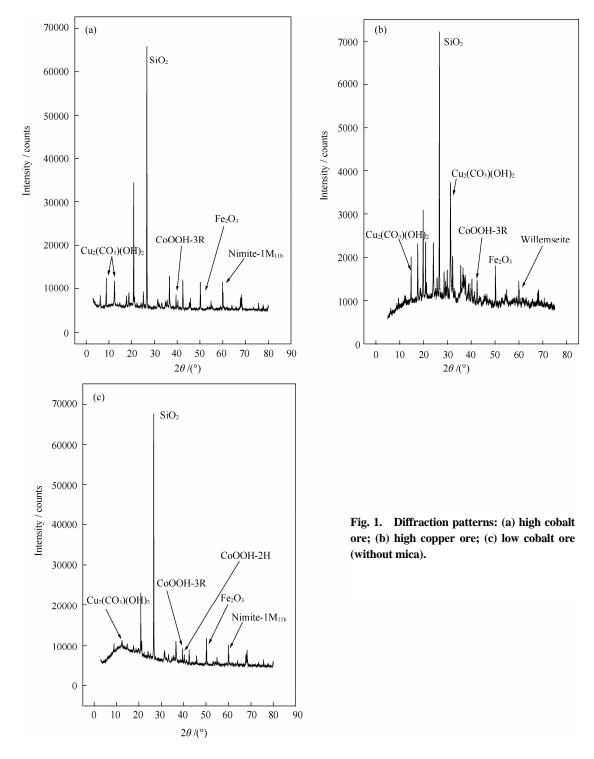
forms of heterogenite minerals were identified in the low cobalt ores, that is, heterogenite-2H (CoOOH-2H) and heterogenite-3R (CoOOH-3R). As a general comment, it was noted that XRD failed to detect any Co<sup>2+</sup>-bearing minerals in all of the four mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores being investigated. It was suspected that this was caused by the low detection limit (3%) of the XRD instrument used in this study. Further experiments still need to be conducted to clarify this matter.

The XRD analysis provided evidence that the mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores contained both the Co<sup>3+</sup> bearing mineral (heterogenite) and the Cu<sup>2+</sup> bearing mineral (malachite). This facilitated the investigation and understanding of the aqueous chemistry of cobalt and copper before and after dissolution experiments.

The results shown in Table 1 summarizes the mineral phases derived from the mineralogical studies of all four mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores by XRD. The percentage (%) match score or percentage modal in Table 1 refers to the relative match factor with the data given in the XRD mineral powder diffraction data base. As can be noted in Table 1, the ratio of silica (SiO<sub>2</sub>) to iron (Fe) content is high in all four ores. Willemseite was identified as a nickel containing mineral in the high copper ore instead of nimite, which appears to be common in the other three ores. It can also be noted that the minerals identified for the low cobalt ores with and without mica are identical in all proportions. This implies that the presence of mica in the low cobalt ore does not affect the crystal structure of minerals in the ore. It has yet to be ascertained whether the presence of mica had any effect on the leaching efficiency of cobalt from the low cobalt bearing ores.

### 3.2. Dissolution of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores

Fig. 2(a) shows that the rate of cobalt dissolution from the high cobalt ore initially accelerates and reaches a plateau after leaching for 30 min. After 30 min, the leaching rate becomes progressively slower until the reaction reaches completion. This trend is observed for all the leaching reagents investigated. Leaching with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>+SO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>+H<sub>2</sub>O achieves cobalt dissolutions as high as 80% to 98%. When aqueous H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> is used as the leaching reagent, only 10% Co dissolution is achieved. In general, it can be inferred from Fig. 2 that the extent of Co dissolution is high when admixtures of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>+SO<sub>2</sub> are used as the leaching media, instead of aqueous H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> alone.



The extent of Co dissolution with respect to the high copper ore, as shown in Fig. 2(b), is found to be relatively lower than that in Fig. 2(a), reaching a maximum of 80%. In comparison, it is observed that the leaching behavior of cobalt from the high copper ore (0.499wt% Co) follows similar leaching trends as observed in the high cobalt ore (34.2wt% Co) but at a slower leaching rate. That is, more

time is required to leach cobalt from a low cobalt bearing ore (*i.e.*, high copper ore) than from a high cobalt bearing ore (*i.e.*, high cobalt ore).

The kinetic curves shown in Figs. 2(c) and 2(d) also show an elevated initial rate of cobalt leaching within the first 30 min, which levels out beyond 30 min. It is also noted that a maximum of Co dissolutions from the low cobalt ore

Table 1. Identification of mineral phases in mixed Co-Cu ores by XRD

	High cobalt ore			
se	Match score / %			
	64			
,	22			

willierar phase	Triaten Score / /o
SiO <sub>2</sub>	64
CoOOH-3R	22
$Cu_2(CO_3)(OH)_2$	17
$Fe_2O_3$	13
Nimite-1M <sub>11b</sub>	10

Mineral phas

Low cobalt ore with mica			
Mineral phase	Match score / %		
$SiO_2$	56		
CoOOH-2H	5		
CoOOH-3R	11		
$Cu_2(CO_3)$ (OH) <sub>2</sub>	19		
$Fe_2O_3$	12		
Nimite-1M <sub>11b</sub>	11		

with mica (3.963wt% Co) and the low cobalt ore without mica (2.806wt% Co) are achieved by leaching with admixtures of the two acids. The results obtained for leaching cobalt from both the low cobalt bearing ores are similar, indicating that the presence of mica does not affect the leaching efficiency of Co, since the dissolution efficiency remains the same in both cases. In general, high cobalt yields are achieved when admixtures of SO2 and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> are used as the leaching reagent.

According to the trends in Fig. 2, there was a need to elucidate and understand the role of SO2 in leaching cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidised ores, where SO<sub>2</sub> was obtained as the anhydride of sulphurous acid.

$$SO_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(l)} \Leftrightarrow H_2SO_{3(ag)}$$
 (1)

The sulphurous acid produced by reaction (1) is unstable with the reverse reaction being favored. The corresponding anions are bisulphite (HSO $\frac{1}{3}$ ) and sulphite (SO $\frac{2}{3}$ ). Sulphur dioxide can serve as either a reducing agent or as an oxidizing agent, although the former is its more usual role.

The role of SO<sub>2</sub> as a reducing agent was applied during the leaching of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores that bear cobalt mainly as Co<sup>3+</sup> (CoOOH) as evidenced by the mineralogical studies. SO<sub>2</sub> in this case reduces Co<sup>3+</sup> to Co<sup>2+</sup>, as shown in reaction (2):

$$SO_{3(aq)}^{2-} + 2Co_{(aq)}^{3+} + H_2O \rightarrow SO_{4(aq)}^{2-} + 2Co_{(aq)}^{2+} + 2H_{(aq)}^{+}$$
 (2)

In contrast, sulphuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4(aq)</sub>) is diprotic; the first

High copper ore

Mineral phase	Match score / %
SiO <sub>2</sub>	76
CoOOH-3R	11
$Cu_2(CO_3)(OH)_2$	41
$Fe_2O_3$	23
Willemseite	10

			mica

Mineral phase	Match score / %		
$SiO_2$	59		
CoOOH-2H	4		
CoOOH-3R	8		
$Cu_2(CO_3)(OH)_2$	16		
$Fe_2O_3$	11		
Nimite-1M <sub>11b</sub>	10		

dissociation is strong, and the second is moderately strong  $(K_2=1.1\times10^{-2})$ . The sulphate anion (SO  $^{2-}_4$ ) has a tetrahedral geometry. The S-O bond length is 0.151 nm, which is quite small compared with the value predicted from the sum of the sulphur and oxygen single-bonded radii (0.170 nm). This indicates that the bond in SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> has a substantial double bond character. Double bonds can form by the overlapping of the 2p orbitals on the oxygen atoms with the 3d orbitals on the sulphur atom. Therefore, not only is sulphuric acid a powerful dehydrating agent but also a very strong leaching

The role of sulphuric acid as a strong leaching agent is illustrated below:

$$CuO_{(s)} + H_2SO_{4(aq)} \rightarrow CuSO_{4(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
 (3)

$$CoO_{(s)} + H_2SO_{4(aq)} \rightarrow CoSO_{4(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

In view of the above, the leaching pathways in reactions (5) to (7) show the dissolution behavior of cobalt from mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores from a chemistry perspective. These mechanistic pathways elucidate the role of SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> during the leaching process. As indicated in the mineralogical studies of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores, the mineral Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> can also be written as CoO·Co<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which clearly denotes Co<sup>2+</sup> and Co<sup>3+</sup> forms, that is, CoO bears Co<sup>2+</sup> and Co<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> bears Co<sup>3+</sup>. Since it was observed that Co<sup>3+</sup> bearing minerals are not directly soluble in acid, the dissolution of cobalt from Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> mineral is shown in the reaction schemes below:

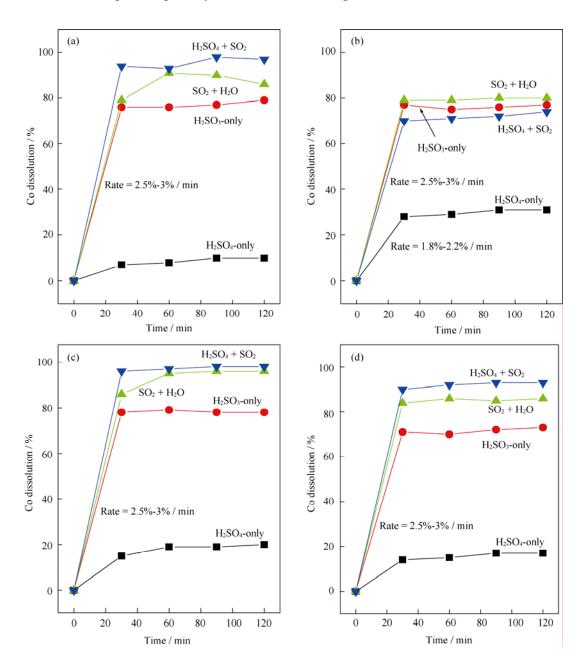


Fig. 2. Leaching behaviour of cobalt: (a) high cobalt ore; (b) high copper ore; (c) low cobalt ore with mica; (d) low cobalt ore without mica.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{CoO·Co}_2\text{O}_{3(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow &\text{CoSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{Co}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(s)} \\ &\text{SO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)} \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

$$Co_2O_3 \cdot H_2O_{(s)} + H_2SO_{3(aq)} \rightarrow CoO_{(s)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
 (6)

$$CoO_{(s)} + H_2SO_{4(aq)} \rightarrow CoSO_{4(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$

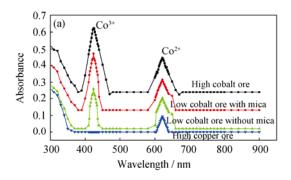
$$(7)$$

Reaction (5) illustrates the dissolution of Co from  $CoO \cdot Co_2O_3$ , and one of the products is  $Co_2O_3 \cdot H_2O$ , which is simply a hydrated form of  $Co_2O_3$ . It can be noted that  $Co_2O_3 \cdot H_2O$  bears Co as  $Co^{3+}$  in reaction (5), and thus, most

of the cobalt recovered as CoSO<sub>4</sub> in reaction (6) comes from CoO. Reaction (6) illustrates a situation whereby SO<sub>2</sub> also forms part of the leaching solution, that is, reaction (6) is a continuation of reaction (6). Here, SO<sub>2</sub> is flushed into the acidified cobalt leaching solution. As seen in reaction (6), H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> reduces Co<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O (product from reaction (5)) to CoO, which is directly soluble in H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. Reaction (7) illustrates how easily the dissolution of Co from CoO can be and how crucial it is to incorporate a reduction step (using SO<sub>2</sub>) during the leaching of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores.

#### 3.3. Analysis of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> by UV/visible spectroscopy

In order to evaluate and confirm the reduction of  $Co^{3+}$  to  $Co^{2+}$  minerals by flushing  $SO_2$  into the acidified leaching medium during the leaching process, the concentrations of  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$  in ores before  $SO_2$  treatment were determined by UV/visible spectroscopy. The absorbances of both  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$  were plotted against the respective absorption wavelengths of  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$ . The results for the levels of  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$  before  $SO_2$  treatment are shown in Fig. 3(a).



The mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores were then leached in aqueous  $H_2SO_4$ , while  $SO_2$  was flushed into the leaching system. The leaching process was allowed to take place for 30 min and then stopped. The solution was filtered off, and the residue was analyzed for the concentrations of  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$  by UV/visible spectroscopy. The absorbances of both  $Co^{3+}$  and  $Co^{2+}$  were again plotted against their respective absorption wavelengths, and this plot is labeled as "After  $SO_2$  treatment" in Fig. 3(b).

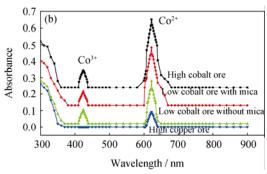


Fig. 3. UV/visible spectra of samples: (a) before SO<sub>2</sub> treatment; (b) after SO<sub>2</sub> treatment.

It can be seen from Fig. 3(a) that before  $SO_2$  treatment, the concentration of  $Co^{3+}$  is greater than that of  $Co^{2+}$  in ores. After  $SO_2$  treatment, in Fig. 3(b), the concentration of  $Co^{2+}$  in residue is greater than that of  $Co^{3+}$  in all the ores, with the exception of the high Cu bearing ore. Therefore, the role of  $SO_2$  in reducing  $Co^{3+}$  to  $Co^{2+}$  minerals with subsequent improvement in the solution-based recovery of Co was clarified. The reason behind the stable trend in the  $Co^{2+}$  concentration observed with the high copper ore is not understood.

Fig. 4 illustrates the individual behavior of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> in the individual ores before and after SO<sub>2</sub> treatment. It can also be noted in Fig. 4(a) that the absorbance of Co<sup>3+</sup> before SO<sub>2</sub> treatment in the high cobalt ore is high compared with the absorbance of Co<sup>2+</sup> before SO<sub>2</sub> treatment. The reverse trend is observed after leaching the high cobalt ore in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. Here, the absorbance of Co<sup>3+</sup> is smaller than that of Co<sup>2+</sup>. Similar trends are observed in the case of low cobalt ores, with and without mica, in Figs. 4(b) and 4(c), respectively. This trend in the behavior of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> shows a reduction in the concentration of Co<sup>3+</sup> with an increase in Co<sup>2+</sup> concentration as the mixed Co-Cu ores were leached in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. The reasons for the behavior observed in Fig. 4(d) could not be explained. Further experiments still need to be carried out.

In general, higher yields of cobalt were achieved when

leaching the mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. During the 2 h of leaching, it was noted that the maximum solution-based recovery of cobalt from these ores was achievable even within the first 30 min (Fig. 2) of leaching in admixtures of SO<sub>2</sub>. It was therefore of interest to focus on the reduction of Co<sup>3+</sup> to Co<sup>2+</sup> within the first 30 min of leaching and determine the rate at which this was happening.

# 3.4. Analysis of $Co^{3+}$ , $Co^{2+}$ , and $Cu^{2+}$ solution by UV/visible spectroscopy

The spectra shown in Fig. 5 illustrate the changes in absorption behavior of Co3+, Co2+, and Cu2+ before SO2 treatment (Fig. 5(a)) and after SO<sub>2</sub> treatment ((Fig. 5(b)). The electron configuration of a neutral cobalt atom is Co: [Ar] 4s<sup>2</sup>3d<sup>7</sup>. The electron configurations for Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> complexes are Co<sup>3+</sup>:[Ar] 3d<sup>6</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup>:[Ar] 3d<sup>7</sup>. In general, the electrons are removed from the valence-shell s orbitals before they are removed from valence d orbitals when cobalt is ionized. The electron configuration of Cu<sup>2+</sup> is Cu<sup>2+</sup>:[Ar] 3d<sup>9</sup>. The valence bond theory with respect to Co<sup>3+</sup>  $(d^6)$ , in this case, suggests that having the six electrons in  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{xz}$ , and  $d_{yz}$  orbitals leaves,  $3d_{x-y}^{2}$ ,  $3d_{z}^{2}$ , 4s,  $4p_{x}$ ,  $4p_{y}$ , and 4pz unoccupied. These vacant orbitals mix to form a set of empty d<sup>2</sup>sp<sup>3</sup> orbitals that point toward the corners of an octahedron. Each of these hybrid orbitals accepts a pair of electrons from a SCN<sup>-</sup> ligand to form a complex in which the cobalt atom has a filled shell of valence electrons.

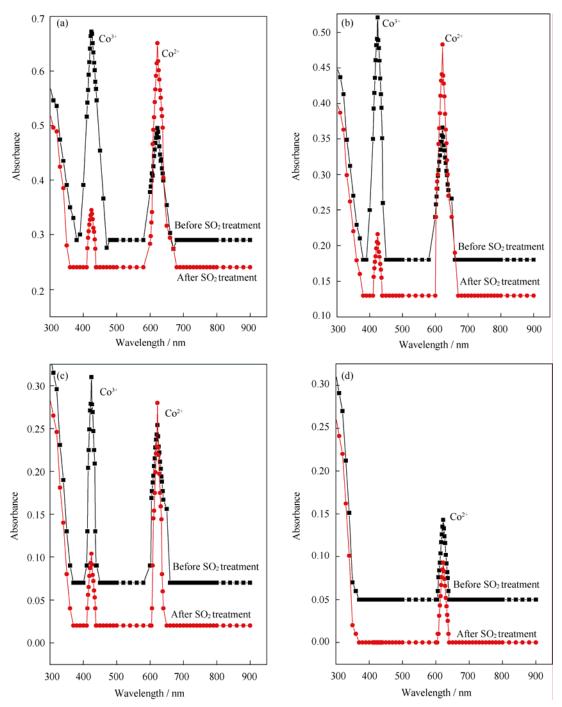
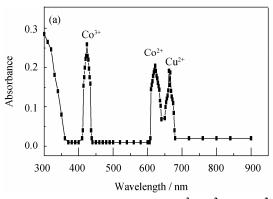


Fig. 4. UV/visible spectra for high cobalt ore (a), low cobalt with mica (b), low cobalt without mica (c), and high copper ore (d).

 $\mathrm{Co^{2+}}$  ( $\mathrm{d^6}$ ) forms more tetrahedral complexes than any transition metal ions. The  $\mathrm{d}_z^2$  and  $\mathrm{d}_{x^2-y^2}^2$  orbitals in this case do not point in the direction of the ligand charges and hence are at a lower energy than the  $\mathrm{d}_{xy}$ ,  $\mathrm{d}_{xz}$ , and  $\mathrm{d}_{yz}$  sets, which point more closely to the ligand positions. Unlike the situation in the octahedral case, in the tetrahedral field, none of the d orbitals points exactly at the ligands. The energy separation between two sets of orbitals is thus less than it was in the octahedral case ( $\mathrm{Co^{3+}}$ ). The splitting in the  $\mathrm{Co^{2+}}$ 

tetrahedral case  $(e^4t_{2g}^3)$  is therefore inverted compared with that in the  $Co^{3+}$  octahedral case  $(t_{2g}^6e^0)$ . Therefore,  $Co^{2+}$  complexes are expected to absorb UV light at higher wavelengths (less energy) than  $Co^{3+}$  complexes with the same ligand. This is found experimentally to be the case (Fig. 5). This explains the electronic effects that contribute toward the stability of octahedral  $Co^{3+}$  as opposed to tetrahedral  $Co^{2+}$  ions.



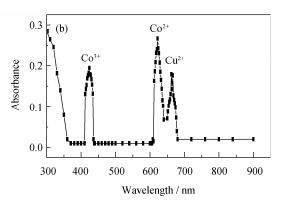


Fig. 5. UV/visible spectra for Co<sup>3+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, and Cu<sup>2+</sup>: (a) before SO<sub>2</sub> treatment; (b) before SO<sub>2</sub> treatment.

A very important electronic effect of Cu<sup>2+</sup> shows that, in many cases, these pure stereochemistries are distorted. This effect was first formulated by Jahn and Teller in 1937 (Jahn-Teller distortion). The Cu<sup>2+</sup> (d<sup>9</sup>) is the most stable oxidation state of copper in aqueous solution. Its d<sup>9</sup> configuration gives rise to Jahn-Teller distortions in complexes. In an octahedral field,  $Cu^{2+}$  has the electronic structure  $t_{2g}^{\,6}\,e^3$ . Since the  $e_g$  levels are degenerate, either the  $d_z^2$  or  $d_{x-y}^2$  orbital can be doubly filled. If the  $d_z^2$  orbital is doubly filled and the  $d_{x-y}^{2-2}$  singly filled, the result of this orbital occupancy is that the ligands along the x and y axes are drawn closer to the copper ion. This is because electrons in the d<sub>2</sub> orbital experience the electrostatic attraction of the Cu<sup>2+</sup> ion more than the ligands do along the z axis, which are shielded from the Cu<sup>2+</sup> ion by an extra electron in the  $d_{x-y}^{2-2}$  subshell. The resulting structure has four short bonds (contraction along the x and the y axes) and two longer bonds (z axes) resulting in a tetragonal distortion. Because of this distortion the Cu2+ complex with an electron configuration of  $t_{2g}^6$  e<sup>3</sup> (d<sup>9</sup>) is energetically less stable than the tetrahedral Co<sup>2+</sup> (d<sup>7</sup>) complex and therefore absorbs UV light at a higher wavelength than  $Co^{2+}$ , as can be seen in Fig. 5.

#### 4. Conclusion

XRD analysis successfully explored and confirmed the presence of cobalt, copper, and iron bearing minerals in all of the four mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores investigated. Although not much information pertaining to Co<sup>2+</sup> bearing minerals in mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores was derived from the XRD results, heterogenite minerals (CoOOH-2H and CoOOH-3R) that bear cobalt as Co<sup>3+</sup> were noted. Exceptional cobalt yields (*i.e.*, 85%-95% dissolutions) in the solution were achieved when the dissolution of mixed Co-Cu oxidized ores was carried out in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. UV/Visible spectroscopic analysis of Co<sup>3+</sup> and Co<sup>2+</sup> before and after the dissolution experiments confirmed that

improved cobalt yields using  $SO_2$  as a reducing agent were due to the reduction of  $Co^{3+}$  to  $Co^{2+}$ .

Furthermore, the uncertainty around  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  absorbing UV light at different wavelengths has been explained using the crystal field theory. In addition, one of Hund's rules states that the most stable oxidation state is the one with maximum multiplicity (n+1), where n is the number of unpaired electrons. It is therefore found that  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  ( $\text{d}^7$ ) has three unpaired electrons in its  $\text{t}_{2g}$  subshell and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ( $\text{d}^9$ ) has only one unpaired in its  $\text{e}_{g}$  subshell. This gives  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  a total multiplicity of 4 and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  a multiplicity of 2. This further suggested that  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  is energetically more stable than  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ .

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