METAL AND INORGANIC WASTE RECLAIMING ENCYCLOPEDIA

by
Marshall Sittig

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by Marshall Sittig

NOYES DATA CORPORATION

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1980

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FOREWORD

This book describes 328 recent processes for reclaiming metal and inorganic wastes, and is arranged in encyclopedic form, alphabetically by the product recovered.

The recovery and recycling of these industrial wastes is assuming ever-increasing importance due to the need for ore and mineral conservation, and the requirements of pollution regulations. The technology of each specific recovery and recycling process is outlined, as well as background as to the origin of the waste material, some of the problems posed by the specific waste, and possible alternative processes for reclaiming, recovery, and recycling.

There is also an index listing the sources of waste feed materials, and each entry lists the product that may be reclaimed from the waste source.

Contents and Subject Index

THE OCCUPATION OF THE PROPERTY
Abrasive Material from Scarfer Spittings5
Abrasive Material from Spent Catalyst
Alumina from Aluminum Reduction Plant Wastes
Alumina from Red Mud from Bayer Process
Aluminum from Acetylene Scrubbing Solutions
Aluminum from Aluminum-Glass Cloth Residues
Aluminum from Electrical Conductor Scrap
Aluminum from Fly Ash
Aluminum from Furnace Skim or Dross
Aluminum from Municipal Waste
Aluminum from Nonferrous Sludges
Aluminum from Scrap Aluminum
Aluminum from Solid Propellant Waste45
Aluminum Fluoride from Aluminum Reduction Plant Wastes
Aluminum Foil from Paper/Foil Laminates
Ammonia from Ammonia-Soda Plant Effluents
Ammonia from Ammonoxidation Process Wastes
Ammonia from Textile Treating Effluents
Ammonia from Urea Plant Wastewater
Ammonia-Base Pulping Liquor from Spent Pulping Liquor
Ammonium Nitrate from Nuclear Fuel Processing Waste
Ammonium Perchlorate from Solid Propellant Waste
Ammonium Sulfate from Acrylonitrile Process Effluents
Ammonium Sulfate from Caprolactam Manufacture
Ammonium Sulfate from Storage Battery Plate Wash Water
Antimony from Polyester Still Bottoms
Antimony from Scrap Antimony
Antimony Pentachloride from Spent Catalysts
Arsenic from Copper Smelter Flue Dusts
Asbestos from Waste Asbestos Slurries
- moneton in the transfer of the first of th

Barite from Drilling Muds
Cadmium from Battery Scrap
Cadmium from Zinc Refinery Flue Dusts
Calcium Fluoride from Phosphate Pond Waters
Calcium Fluoride from UO ₂ Process Wastewaters
Cast Iron from Scrap Automobiles
Caustic from Caustic Sludges
Cement from Cement Kiln Dust
Cement from Ready Mix Concrete Residues102
Chlorided Alumina Catalyst from Spent Catalyst
Chlorine from Aluminum Chloride Electrolysis
Chlorine from Ilmenite Chlorinator Dust
Chlorine from Wastewaters
Chromic Acid from Spent Etching Solutions
Chromic Acid from Waste Chromic Acid Solutions111
Chromium from Chromic Anhydride Production
Chromium from Cooling Tower Blowdown Water
Chromium from Electroplating Rinse Waters114
Chromium from Nonferrous Sludges
Chromium from Scrap Chromium121
Chromium from Tannery Wastes121
Chromoxyfluoride Catalysts from Spent Catalysts
Cobalt from Scrap Cobalt
Cobalt from Sintered Metal Carbides
Cobalt from Spent Catalysts
Colored Glass from Mixed Glass Waste
Columbium from Scrap Columbium
Columbium from Spent Catalysts
Copper from Acetylene Scrubbing Solutions
Copper from Brass Mill Dusts
Copper from Copper Refinery Anode Slimes
Copper from Electrical Scrap142
Copper from Mixed Scrap
Copper from Nonferrous Sludges
Copper from Scrap Automobiles
Copper from Smelter Flue Dust
Copper from Smelter Slags
Copper from Spent Catalysts
Copper from Spent Etching Solutions
Copper Catalyst from Adipic Acid Manufacture Wastes
Cryolite from Pot Line Recovered Particulates
Dicalcium Phosphate from Phosphate Pond Waters
Dicalcium Phosphate from Phosphate Pond Waters

Ferric Chloride from Spent Pickle Liquor
Ferroalloys from Plating Sludges
Ferronickel from Spent Catalysts
Ferrous Metals from Municipal Waste
Ferrous Sulfate from Spent Pickle Liquor
Ferrovanadium from Pig Iron
Fertilizer from Flue Gas Scrubber Sludge
Fertilizer from Municipal Wastes
Fertilizer from Spent Sulfuric Acid
Flocculating Agent from Red Mud from Bayer Process
Fluorosulfuric Acid from Spent Catalysts
Fluosilicic Acid from Phosphoric Acid Manufacture
Foundry Sand from Used Foundry Sand
211
Gadolinium from Bubble Memory Unit Scrap
Gallium from Alumina Plant Liquors
Gallium from Bubble Memory Unit Scrap
Gallium from Phosphorus Furnace Flue Dust
Germanium from Zinc Smelter Flue Dusts
Glass from Glass Container Waste
Glass from Laminated Glass Scrap
Glass from Municipal Waste
Glass from Scrap Automobiles
Glass from Television Picture Tubes
Glass Fibers from Glass Fiber Scrap
Gold from Mine Waste Dumps
Gold from Plating Waste Solutions
Gold from Scrap Gold
Gold from Silver Refinery Muds
Gold from Wastewaters
Hydrofluoric Acid from Spent Pickle Liquors
Hydrogen Chloride from Chlorination of Organics
Hydrogen Chloride from Dilute HCI Solutions
Hydrogen Chloride from Incineration Gases
Hydrogen Chloride from Oxychlorination Process Exit Gases263
Hydrogen Chloride from Spent Pickle Liquor267
Hydrogen Fluoride from Alkylation Process
Hydrogen Fluoride from Furnace Pot Linings
Try at o got it its office it of the its office its off
Iodine from Acetoxylation Process Wastes
Iodine from Dehydrogenation Process Wastes
Iridium from Spent Catalysts
Iron from Oxygen Converter Slags
Iron from Red Mud from Bayer Process
Iron from Rolling Mill Scale
Iron from Scrap Iron
Iron from Scrap Tires
Iron from Spent Pickle Liquor
Iron from Steel Mill Furnace Dusts
Iron Oxide from Ilmenite Chlorinator Dust
Iron Oxide from Rolling Mill Sludge
Iron Powder from Machining Scrap

Lead from Gun Club Soils. 323 Lead from Lead Refinery Dross 325 Lead from Lead Scrap. 326 Lead from Solder Skimmings 327 Lead from Storage Battery Scrap 329 Lead from TEL Manufacturing Wastes 347 Lead from Zinc Refinery Flue Dusts 348 Lead Carbonate from Storage Battery Manufacture 349 Lead Oxide from Flue Dusts 349 Lime from Sewage Sludge Incineration Residues 351
Magnesia from Scrap Furnace Lining Brick.355Magnesium from Cell Sludges.356Magnesium from Scrap Magnesium.356Magnesium from Tracer Ammunition.360Mercury from Brine in Chlor-Alkali Plants.362Mercury from Caustic/Chlorine Process Sludges.365Mercury from Scrap Mercury.370Mercury from Spent Catalysts.370Metals from Mixed Metal Slimes.374Metals from Oily Scrap Metals.377Metals from Plastic/Metal Composite Parts.378Molybdenum from Copper Sulfide Ores.379Molybdenum from Scrap Molybdenum.381Molybdenum from Smelter Flue Dust.381Molybdenum from Spent Catalysts.381Molybdenum from Tungsten Lamp Manufacture.384
Nickel from Battery Scrap. Nickel from Bright Nickel Plating Baths Nickel from Nonferrous Sludges Nickel from Plating Rinse Waters Nickel from Scrap Nickel Nickel from Spent Catalysts Nickel from Superalloy Scrap Nickel from Superalloy Scrap Nickel from Used Acrylic Fiber Spinning Solutions Nitrogen Tetroxide from Cellulose Spin Bath Nonferrous Metals from Municipal Waste Nonferrous Metals from Scrap Automobiles A04
Palladium from Plating Waste Solutions

Pozzolan from Fly Ash
Rhenium from Molybdenum Sulfide Roaster Gases
Rhenium from Wastewaters
Rhodium from Plating Waste Solutions
Rhodium from Spent Catalysts
Ruthenium from Spent Catalysts and/or Scrap Electrodes
Additional from Spent Satalysis and Social Electrodes
Salt Cake from Aluminum Refining
Scandium from Uranium Process Sludges
Selenium from Copper Refinery Anode Slimes
Selenium from Urethana Reaction Products
Selenium from Xerographic Equipment Discards
Silver from Copper Refinery Anode Slimes
Silver from Electroplating Wastes
Silver from Mine Waste Dumps
Silver from Scrap Photographic Film
Silver from Scrap Silver
Silver from Silver-Brazed Stainless Steel Scrap
Silver from Spent Photoprocessing Solutions
Silver from Wastewaters
Sodium Ferrocyanide from Halogen Tin Electroplating Sludges
Sodium Hydroxide from Spent Pulping Liquor470
Sodium Nitrate from Heat Treating Operations
Sodium Nitrate from Absorber Liquor
Sodium Sulfite from Spent Pulping Liquor
Sodium Sulfite from TNT Process Wastes
Sodium Thiocyanate from Used Acrylic Fiber Spinning Solutions
Soil Modifiers from Titanium Dioxide Process Waste
Stainless Steel from Stainless Steel Scrap
Steel from Machining Scrap
Steel from Scrap Automobiles
Steel from Scrap Steel
Steel from Whole Scrap Tires
Strontium Nitrate from Tracer Ammunition
Sulfate Cooking Liquor from Spent Pulping Liquor
Sulfur from Hydrocracking Process Effluents
Sulfur Dioxide from Spent Sulfuric Acid
Sulfuric Acid from Spent Pickle Liquor
Sulfuric Acid from Spent Sulfuric Acid
Sulfuric Acid from Titanium Dioxide Process Waste
Surfaire Acid from Hildiffulli Dioxide Process Waste
Tantalum from Spent Catalysts
Tellurium from Copper Refinery Anode Slimes
Thallium from Zinc Smelter Flue Dusts
Tin from Dross from Hot Dip Coating
Tin from Halogen Tin Electroplating Wastes
Tin from Scrap Tin
Tin from Slags
Tin/Aluminum Alloy from Multilayer Bearings
Titanium from Scrap Titanium
Trisodium Phosphate from Aluminum Bright Dipping Effluent530
Tungeten from Sintered Metal Carbidge 534

Tungsten from Spent Catalysts .535 Tungsten from Tungsten Scrap .537 Tungsten Carbide from Scrap Mining Bits .538
Uranium from UO ₂ Process Wastewaters
Vanadia-Titania Catalyst from Spent Denitration Catalyst
Water Treating Agent from Spent Cracking Catalyst
Yttrium Oxysulfide from Color TV Tube Manufacture555
Zinc from Brass Mill Dusts 559 Zinc from Brass Skimmings 559 Zinc from Electroplating Wastes 563 Zinc from Galvanizing Wastes 566 Zinc from Nonferrous Sludges 567 Zinc from Scrap Automobiles 567 Zinc from Steel Mill Furnace Dusts 567 Zinc from Zinc Scrap 572 Zinc Chloride from Spent Catalysts 573 Zinc Chloride from Used Acrylic Fiber Spinning Solutions 576 Zirconium from Spent Pickle Liquor 576
Organic and Polymer Waste Reclaiming
Sources of Waste Feed Materials
References 590

Introduction

The recovery and recycling of industrial wastes are assuming ever-increasing importance in the 1980s due to a combination of the following factors.

- Increasing world scarcity of economically viable deposits of some ores.
- (2) Increasing national and international efforts to conserve and control mineral prices along the lines of OPEC and petroleum.
- (3) Increasing pressure in a somewhat unfriendly world for major nations in particular to be reasonably self-dependent as regards supplies of strategic commodities.
- (4) Increased emphasis on pollution control and toxic materials control making dumping of waste slags and the like much less desirable.
- (5) Rapidly increasing energy prices which accentuate in many cases the virtues of using recycled rather than virgin raw materials.

Due to the amount of material available, it was necessary to divide the material in order to make a volume of reasonable size and hence this book has a companion volume entitled *Organic and Polymer Waste Reclaiming Encyclopedia* (1).

These volumes will focus only on the technology available for the recycling of industrial wastes. Process economics will not be considered because of the tollowings

- (a) Rapidly fluctuating prices of some ores and commodities.
- (b) Rapidly increasing energy costs which make economics meaningless unless carefully dated and/or adjusted.
- (c) Rapid monetary inflation in most countries which again makes costs very difficult to state accurately in terms of today's situation, or worse, of future projections.

In each case, an attempt will be made, not only to outline the technology of a specific recovery and recycling process, but to give some background as to:

- · The origin of the waste material;
- Some of the problems posed by the waste; and
- Some possible alternative processes for recovery and recycling.

Emphasis is placed in this volume and in the companion volume on the recycling of industrial wastes, often within the factory fence, rather than on postconsumer wastes such as waste newspapers, discarded beverage bottles and the like. However, it will be appreciated that there is no clear line of demarcation between these areas. Thus, some industrial wastes may quickly end up as municipal wastes and must of necessity be recycled from that point.

U.S. Import reliance of selected minerals and metals are shown in Figure 1. These data emphasize the need for the U.S. to develop effective techniques for the recovery and recycling of many materials.

This volume is arranged like any dictionary or encyclopedia in alphabetical manner. Every effort is made to cross-index entries within this volume and frequent cross-references are also made to the companion volume, *Organic and Polymer Waste Reclaiming Encyclopedia* (1).

As the reader will observe, an index to the sources of waste feed for the various recycling processes is provided at the end of this volume. Together with the alphabetical arrangement by recovered material, this index of waste sources should make access to useful information both rapid and easy.

The majority of references in this volume are to U.S. Patents. A secondary source is the published work of the U.S. Bureau of Mines. A bibliography at the end of this volume lists the general publications cited in the text.

This volume, together with its companion volume, Organic and Polymer Waste Reclaiming Encyclopedia, represents an updating of an earlier work by the publisher of this volume entitled Resource Recovery and Recycling Handbook of Industrial Wastes (3) published in 1975.

The reader's attention is also called to a number of other published works including a summary volume by Barton (4), monthly materials surveys by the U.S. Bureau of Mines (2), a volume of forecasts for resource recovery to the year 1990, made in 1975 (5), a discussion of energy use patterns for metal recycling (6), an Office of Technology Assessment review of technical options for the conservation of metals (7) and a series of bibliographies on solid waste reclamation and recycling prepared by the National Technical Information Service covering the period 1964 to July 1979 (8)-(13) and dealing with:

Packaging and Containers (8) Plastics (9) Metals (10) Glass (11) Paper (12) Tires (13)

Detailed discussions of various metal scrap recycling processes and their environmental impacts have been reviewed by Nack et al (15).

Figure 1: U.S. Net Import Reliance of Selected Minerals and Metals as a Percent of Consumption in 1978

MINERALS AND			PORT RE	IT CONS	COTTON OF THE PARTY.		MAJOR FOREIGN SOURCES (1974-1977)
WELDE		0% L	25%	50%	75%	100%	(13/4-13//)
COLUMBIUM	100		164				BRAZIL, THAILAND, CANADA
MICA (sheet)	100						INDIA, BRAZIL, MALAGASY REPUBLIC
STRONTIUM	100						MEXICO, SPAIN
MANGANESE	98						GABON, BRAZIL, SOUTH AFRICA
TANTALUM	97						THAILAND, CANADA, MALAYSIA, BRAZIL
COBALT	97			325			ZAIRE, BELGLUX., ZAMBIA, FINLAND
BAUXITE & ALUMINA	93				23.0		JAMAICA, AUSTRALIA, SURINUM
CHROMIUM	92						SOUTH AFRICA, U.S.S.R., SOUTHERN RHODESIA, TURKEY
PLATINUM - GROUP METALS	91						SOUTH AFRICA, U.S.S.R., UNITED KINGDOM
ASBESTOS	84						CANADA, SOUTH AFRICA
FLUORINE	82						MEXICO, SPAIN, SOUTH AFRICA
TIN	81						MALAYSIA, BOLIVIA, THAILAND, INDONESIA
NICKEL	77						CANADA, NORWAY, NEW CALEDONIA, DOMIN. REP.
CADMIUM	56						CANADA, AUSTRALIA, BELGLUX., MEXICO
ZINC	62						CANADA, MEXICO, AUSTRALIA, BELGLUX.
POTASSIUM	61						CANADA, ISRAEL, W. GERMANY
SELENIUM	61						CANADA, JAPAN, YUGOSLAVIA, MEXICO
MERCURY	57						ALGERIA, CANADA, SPAIN, MEXICO, YUGOSLAVIA
GOLD	54						CANADA, SWITZERLAND, U.S.S.R.
TUNGSTEN	50						CANADA, BOLIVIA, PERU, THAILAND
ANTIMONY	48						SOUTH AFRICA, BOLIVIA, CHINA
SILVER	41						CANADA, MEXICO, PERU, UNITED KINGDOM
BARIUM	40						PERU, IRELAND, MEXICO
TITANIUM (ilmenite)	39						CANADA. AUSTRALIA
GYPSUM	34						CANADA, MEXICO, JAMAICA, DOMIN. REP.
IRON ORE	29						CANADA, VENEZUELA, BRAZIL, LIBERIA
VANADIUM	27						SOUTH AFRICA, CHILE, U.S.S.R.
COPPER	19						CANADA, CHILE, PERU, ZAMBIA
IRON & STEEL SCRAP	(17)		NET	EXPORTS	S		
IRON & STEEL PRODUCTS	13						JAPAN, EUROPE, CANADA
LEAD	11						CANADA, MEXICO, PERU, AUSTRALIA
ALUMINUM	10						CANADA
SULFUR	10						CANADA, MEXICO
SALT	9						CANADA, BAHAMAS, MEXICO
CEMENT	7						CANADA, NORWAY, BAHAMAS, MEXICO, UNITED KINGDON
PUMICE & VOLCANIC CINDER	5						GREECE, ITALY
				-	-		and the second s

^{*}Net Import Reliance = Imports - Exports + Adjustments for Government and Industry Stock Changes

Source: Bureau of Mines, U.S. Department of the Interior (Import-Export Data from Bureau of the Census) Reference (2).

^{**}Apparent consumption = U.S. Primary + Secondary Production + Net Import Reliance

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ABRASIVE MATERIAL FROM SCARFER SPITTINGS

Scarfer spittings are a steel mill waste material produced by scarfing steel ingots, blooms, slabs, billets and bars prior to or during processing to remove surface defects. Scarfing consists of rapidly removing the surface of steel by the use of a fuel containing oxygen applied to the surface by means of a torch or torches. The oxygen oxidizes a portion of the steel thereby generating heat and increasing the temperature to cause the steel to become molten. The partially oxidized generally globular product is referred to as scarfer spittings.

The scarfer spittings are cooled and flushed from the surface of the steel by high pressure water and are collected in a water bath. The scarfer spittings range in size from less than a No. 100 sieve size, that is, less than 0.149 mm to larger than 50.8 mm in diameter. The spittings are comprised of an outer shell of iron oxides surrounding an inner metallic core which has a chemical composition similar to that of the scarfed steel.

Scarfer spittings have no specific use. In recent years efforts have been directed to recycling the spittings in the steel mill to recover the iron which they contain. A portion of the spittings are mixed with mill scale, steel borings and the like and are used as part of the charge to a sinter strand to recover the iron. However, only the larger sized particles or spittings can be so used. Hence, most of the spittings must be removed from the mill and stored. In recent years, increased emphasis on the surface cleanliness of steel has resulted in an increase in the use of automatic scarfing machines to scarf *he steel surfaces. As a result, the volume of scarfer spittings produced in a steel mill has increased, thereby increasing the time required to transport the spittings and the amount of storage space required for the spittings.

A process developed by *H.W. Hitzrot, Jr.; U.S. Patent 4,190,422; February 26, 1980; assigned to Bethlehem Steel Corporation* has as its object the use of scarfer spittings comprised of inner metallic cores and outer brittle shells of iron oxides for use in machine or manual blast cleaning equipment to blast clean metallic and nonmetallic surfaces. This process yields a product having a hardness of about R_c 20 to 35 and a lathlike martensitic matrix which can be used as a size-graded metallic abrasive having good toughness, extended service life and improved cleaning efficiency when compared with commercially available size-graded steel shot and grit abrasives.

The waste material is screened to simultaneously separate it from all the foreign matter collected therewith and also to separate it into a fraction containing particles larger than about 6.35 mm and a fraction containing particles smaller than about 6.35 mm. The fraction containing the larger particles is recycled in the steel mill. The fraction containing the smaller particles is charged into a grinding mill containing appropriate grinding media. The smaller fraction remains in

the mill for a time so that the outer shells are broken into small pieces substantially all of which are removed from the surfaces of the inner cores. The pieces of the shells and the metallic cores are separated from each other by screening. The metallic cores are graded into a plurality of sizes by screening. The pieces of shells are recycled in the plant.

The metallic cores have a microstructure of untempered lathlike martensite substantially free from intergranular and intragranular cracking, a hardness of about $R_{\rm c}$ 20 to 35, and a grain size of between about 3 and 4 and are characterized by having good impact toughness and extended service life.

ABRASIVE MATERIAL FROM SPENT CATALYST

The last few decades have seen a steep rise in the use of heterogenous catalytic reactions. The ever increasing use of crude oil and its distillation products, which must be desulfurized to protect the environment, has led to a considerable increase in the use of catalysts useful in such reactions. In one widely used catalytic desulfurization process, the hydrocarbon starting materials are contacted with an MoCo catalyst on an alumina (Al_2O_3) carrier and the developing hydrogen sulfide is removed. In some instances, MoNi- and WNi-type catalysts or other metallic catalyst combinations are used.

During the catalytic reaction, the catalyst absorbs or adsorbs various chemical elements or compounds from the reactants and eventually becomes inactive. While the catalyst may be regenerated, it will eventually be spent and must be replaced. It is of considerable economic importance to utilize at least portions of such spent catalytic materials.

Various processes have been proposed for working up hydrodesulfurization catalytic materials of the indicated types. One process involves roasting the catalytic material with sodium chloride (NaCl) after calcining and then extracting vanadium, molybdenum, alumina, nickel and/or cobalt, the ammonium salts of molybdenum and vanadium as well as aluminum hydroxide (Al(OH)₃) being obtained after several process steps. Cobalt and nickel remaining in the extraction residue must be extracted in a further step if they are to be recovered.

Other processes work with soda (sodium carbonate) instead of sodium chloride. All the known processes are chemically complex and technically expensive, thus making them commercially unattractive. Furthermore, it is quite difficult to separate molybdenum from vanadium and cobalt from nickel.

It is the primary object of the following process to provide for preparing an abrasive material from spent catalytic materials of the indicated type, the alumina carrier component of the starting material providing the abrasive material and the metallic catalyst component providing valuable alloys which may be used directly or after refining in the steel and alloying industry, or which may be readily separated chemically into their chemical elements after having been stripped of the carrier.

This process has been described in some detail by H. Zeiringer; U.S. Patent 4,142,871; March 6, 1979; assigned to Treibacher Chemische Werke AG, Austria.

It is one in which an abrasive material is prepared from a starting material comprised of a spent metallic catalyst on an alumina carrier by melting the starting material with a reducing agent to obtain a melt consisting of a melt component including the alumina on an alloy residue, cooling the melt at a speed correlated with a desired crystallite size of the abrasive material to be obtained, and mechanically separating the melt component from the alloy residue before or after solidification, the melt component constituting the abrasive material.

The size of the corundum crystallites obtained in the process may be influenced within wide limits by the rate of cooling of the melt, the crystallite size of the abrasive determining its usefulness for various fields of utilization. Considerable differences in the crystallite sizes and the corresponding utility of the abrasive can be obtained by solidifying the melt very slowly in a block, on the one hand, and rapidly cooling by casting it over steel balls, on the other hand. The resultant sizes of the corundum crystallites may accordingly vary, depending on the method of cooling, from 1 mm to 0.001 mm.

The solid alumina product of the process is an excellent abrasive after comminution and classification into various grain sizes, with or without heat treatment. Depending on the type and amount of additives as well as the crystallite size, these abrasives may be used for polishing steel, precision polishing under very light pressures or polishing wood.

The catalyst component accumulating as an alloy at the bottom of the melting furnace vessel is either cast or tapped with the alumina melt component, or it is permitted to solidify therewith in a block. Depending on the type of catalyst, the alloy is comprised primarily of MoCo, WNi, MoCoVNi and various impurities, such as sulfur, carbon, silicon, iron, titanium or chromium. After the alloy has been mechanically separated from the abrasive component, it may be used directly in the steel or alloying industry. If impurities, such as silicon, sulfur or carbon, are present in undesirable amounts, the alloy may be refined in any conventional manner.

ALUMINA FROM ALUMINUM REDUCTION PLANT WASTES

In the production of metallic aluminum by electrolysis of reduction grade Al_2O_3 , the electrolysis is generally carried out in reduction cells or pot lines which are lined with a carbonaceous material. During the life of the cells, this carbon lining is gradually destroyed by penetration of bath materials into the lining, for example, metallic aluminum, cryolite and alumina. Also, due to the high temperatures employed in the electrolytic reduction process, gradual aging of the carbonaceous lining takes place.

The combined result of penetration and aging can reach a stage where the further operation of the cell or cells reaches an economically prohibitive point and replacement of the carbonaceous lining becomes a must. The unusable or spent pot lining is then removed and in most instances stockpiled. In large aluminum reduction facilities, this lining replacement is a continuous process and, consequently, the quantity of spent lining stockpiled increases from day to day.