

APPLYING OF ALUMINIUM SCRAP RECYCLING WASTE (NON-METAL PRODUCT, NMP) FOR PRODUCTION ENVIRONMENTAL FRIENDLY BUILDING MATERIALS

Diana Bajare¹, Aleksandrs Korjakins², Mareks Zakutajevs³, Filip Voroneko⁴

¹ Riga Technical University, Kalku str. 1 LV-1658, Riga, Latvia. E-mail diana.bajare@rtu.lv

² Riga Technical University, Kalku str. 1 LV-1658, Riga, Latvia. E-mail aleks@latnet.lv

³ Riga Technical University, Azenes str. 16/20 LV-1048 Riga, Latvia. E-mail mareks.zakutajevs@gmail.com

⁴ Riga Technical University, Azenes str. 16/20 LV-1048 Riga, Latvia. E-mail philip.voronenko@gmail.com

Abstract. An aluminium scrap recycling waste called non-metal product (NMP) was tested as raw material for production of expanded clay aggregates. Processing of NMP created in the aluminium scrap recycling companies is one of the most challenging tasks due to its toxic nature - in accordance with the Basel Convention, Annex III, marking of this waste is H 4.3 (reaction with water results in highly inflammable substances) and H 10 (reaction with water results in increased concentration of toxic gases, for instance, ammonia). The main phases of the starting waste are spinel (FeAl_2O_4) or (MgAl_2O_4) and aluminium nitride (AlN). The main task of the present research is to investigate the possibility of non-waste utilization of NMP and reprocessing it into environmental friendly material. The heat treatment in the temperature higher than 1100 °C was selected as appropriated method in order to eliminate impurities of NMP, like ammonia and others. It is approved by results obtained from chemical and mineralogical investigations of expanded clay aggregates. The phenomenon of gasses emission during the heat treatment of NMP is used as initiator for creation of extra porous structure of sintered ceramic bodies. Physical, mechanical and microstructural properties of sintered aggregates were determined as well as chemical and mineralogical composition of raw materials and end product were fixed.

Keywords: Lightweight expanded clay aggregates, aluminium scrap, recycling waste, non-metal product (NMP), environment.

1. Introduction

Recycling aluminium currently makes up a third of the total aluminium used in the world. Recycling is an essential of the aluminium industry, given that this process makes economic, technological and ecological sense (Gil 2005). From one side the aluminium recycling waste has a toxic nature and land filing is not suggested, from other side these waste should be used as raw material for production of new building materials. In many countries the utilization and recycling of secondary raw materials is subsidized by the state. In this way the natural resources are saved, environmental pollution decreased, more resources for safe storage and management of waste allotted and cost-efficiency of enterprise increased.

The consumption of aluminium recycling waste has been rising continuously worldwide, which is great stimulus for developing non-waste technology (Shinzato and Hypolito 2005; Samuel 2005; Shen and Forsberg 2003; Lucheva *et al.* 2005). Aluminium dross represents a residue from primary and secondary aluminium production. Drosses are classified according to aluminium metal

content into white and black dross. White dross has higher metal aluminium content and it is produced from primary and secondary aluminium smelters, whereas black dross has a lower metal content and is generated during aluminium recycling (secondary industry sector). Black dross typically contains a mixture of aluminium oxides and slag with recoverable aluminium content ranging between 12–18% (Gil 2005; Shen and Forsberg 2003; Lucheva *et al.* 2005). The conventional rotary furnaces heated with a fuel or a gas burner is used to recover the extra aluminium from black or white dross. This treatment process produces the non-metal product called aluminium recycling waste containing alumina, salts, impurities and a little amount (3–5%) of metallic aluminium (Gil 2005; Tzonev and Lucheva 2007). This case study investigates the use of aluminium recycling waste (non-metal product NMP) generated from dross processing. The terms aluminium recycling waste and non-metal product (NMP) are used interchangeably in this case study.

The composition of NMP is highly variable and usually unique to the plant generating the waste, hence find-

gibbsite ($\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$), spinel (FeAl_2O_4) or (MgAl_2O_4) and aluminium nitride (AlN).

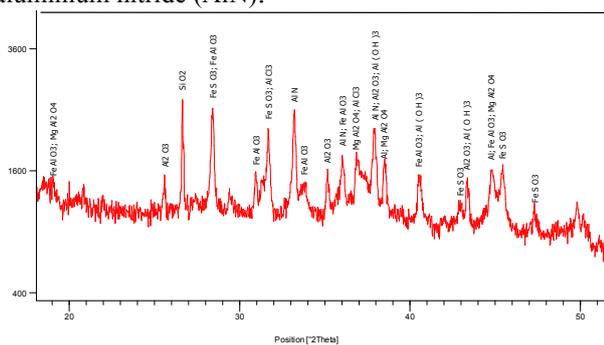


Fig 2. The mineralogical compositions of ground aluminium scrap recycling waste (non-metal product, NMP)

2.2 Preparation and synthesis of lightweight expanded clay aggregates (ECA)

Clay was mixed with NMP in different ratio ranging from 9.1, 16.7 to 23.1%. The raw materials were ground and mixed together in the planetary ball mill. The average particle size of mixes was 54 μm . Plastic mass was prepared by adding 20–25% water and rounded by shaping operation. Prepared aggregates were dried in an oven at 105 °C to avoid reaction between aluminium recycling waste and water used for preparation of plastic mass.

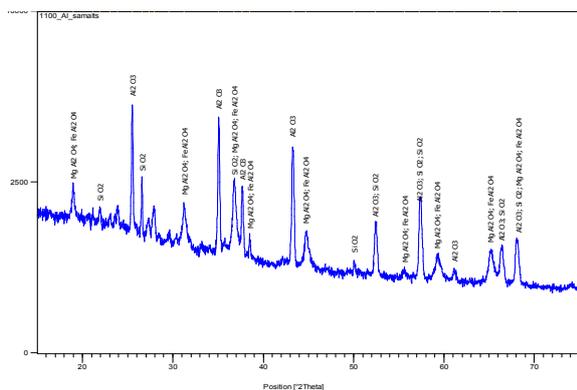


Fig 3. The mineralogical composition of the ground aluminium scrap recycling waste (non-metal product, NMP) treated at the temperature of 1100 °C.

Green aggregates were treated at sintering temperatures from 1170 to 1210 °C in electrically furnace. The rate of temperature increase in furnace was kept constant as 15 °C/min.

The RXD analysis was used for determination of changes in the mineralogical composition of NMP after the heat treatment. NMP was treated separately at temperatures from 1100 to 1500 °C.

Aluminium nitride (AlN), ferric sulphide (FeSO_3) and metallic aluminium (Al) were not determined any more, but the amount of ferric oxide (Fe_2O_3) is considerably reduced, in the composition of NMP treated at temperature 1200 °C. Whereas, the amount of corundum

(Al_2O_3) and spinel (FeAl_2O_4) is considerably increased (Figure 3).

The gasiform substances and new minerals like spinel and alumina are originated during the heat treatment process of NMP. The phenomena of origination of gasiform substances during the heat treatment of NMP should be use as pore creator for obtaining porous structure of lightweight ceramic aggregates (ECA). As hazardous compounds of NMP are transformed in to new ones, non-hazardous compounds, NMP don not have toxic nature any more and it is become environmental friendly and it can be a constituent part of new, environmental friendly material.

This is approved by RXD analyses of expanded clay aggregates (ECA), which is made by using NMP in the different proportions. The mineralogical composition of clay aggregates with NMP additions no depends of proportion and without it is almost same from the qualitative point of view. According to quantitative analyse of mineralogical composition ECA has higher amount of minerals such as spinel and corundum compare with aggregates made from pure clay.

2.3 Characterization of lightweight expanded clay aggregates (ECA)

2.3.1 Particle density

The density of ECA made by using NMP from 9.1 to 23.1% sintered at temperature 1170 °C is in the range from 0.5 to 0.7 g/m^3 (Table 2). The composition and sintering temperature of ECA has fundamental relationships with the particle density, which is also function of the pore structure and physical – mechanical properties.

ECA made by using NMP in the amount of 9.1 and sintered at temperature 1170 °C has density 0.59 g/m^3 . The lower density (0.4 g/m^3) of aggregates (16.7% of added NMP) was reached then they were sintered at temperature 1190 °C, but lower density (0.45 g/m^3) of aggregates (23.1% of added NMP) was reached then sintered temperature was increased to 1210 °C.

The evaluation of aggregate expansion due to increasing of sintering temperature was determined by measurement of single particle density and volume. Density of ECA noticeable depends from two factors: amount of added aluminium recycling waste and sintering temperature. Density of green, un-sintering aggregates is in the average 1.85 g/cm^3 , but it can decrease to 0.45 g/cm^3 by modification of composition and production temperature of ECA.

2.3.2 Water absorption capacity

The water absorption capacity increases with increasing sintering temperature of ECA due to increases of volume and porosity of aggregates. The maximum water absorption (after 30 min. immersion in water) of ECA sintered at the optimal expansion temperature is in the average 6-12%. The water absorption of ECA increases of 1-3% then immersion in the water was prolonged to 24 h. The highest water absorption after 30 min. (10.2%) was measured on ECA produced from clay mass with

addition of 23.1% aluminium waste and sintered at temperature 1210 °C.

2.3.4. Mechanical properties of the ECA

Strength of the ECA is very important property of obtained material from point of view of application this one in the civil engineering.

Specimens of the ECA have been prepared with different proportion – 9.1, 16.7 and 23.1% of NMP, which were added to clay and treated at the temperature 1170 °C. Since the produced expanded clay pieces have round form, the specimens have been prepared in cubic form for evaluation compression strength (Figure 4).

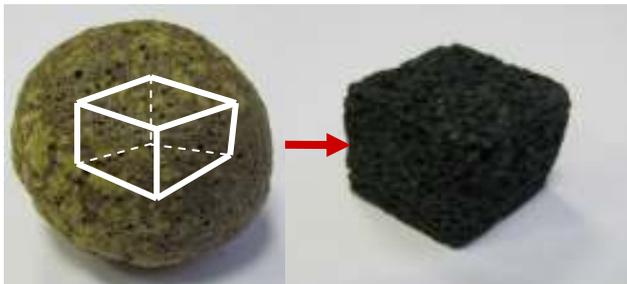


Fig 4. Cat specimen with size ~ 25 x 25 mm

The specimens have been tested by universal testing system Zwick Z100. The obtained results are presented in the Table 2.

Table 2. Physical-mechanical properties of ECA sintered at the temperature 1170 °C.

Added amount of NMP, %	Density, g/cm ³	Compression strength, MPa
9.1	0.59	15
16.70	0.54	6
23.1	0.67	5

The strength of the material is not linearly proportional to density of these one. It may be explained by non-regular forms of the pores in the obtained specimens. The second reason is the occurrence NMP in the ECA isn't reacted with clay.

2.3.3 Microstructure of ECA

Microstructures of the lightweight aggregates (ECA) produced at different temperatures were observed by an optical microscope. The pore structures of ECA are illustrated in Figure 5. It is clear that the pore structure of ECA significantly affected by the amount of added aluminium recycling waste and sintering temperature.

Two types of pores were observed due to microstructural studies of ECA. One type of pores, which can be called macropores have a diameter larger than 1 mm and are interconnected through smaller porous. The macropores have rounded morphology and mainly are closed. They are typical of aggregates sintering at the maximal expansion temperature, which depends from

amount of added aluminium waste (Figure 5 a). These pores are typical also of aggregates made from pure clay and sintering in the maximum expansion temperature (1160 °C) where decomposition process of carbonates (calcite and dolomite) is completed

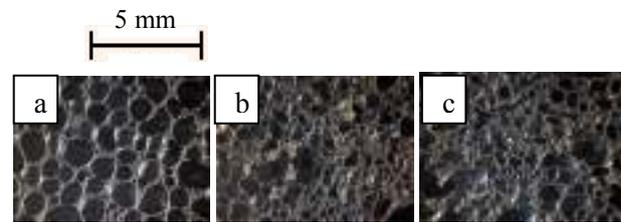


Fig 5. Microstructure of ECA made by adding: a) 9.1% of NMP; b) 16,7% of NMP; c) 23,1% NMP – sintered at temperature 1160 °C.

The second type of pores (micropores) measures smaller than 1 mm. Decomposition of aluminium recycling waste at the temperature, which is maximal expansion temperature of ECA, is the main reason for appearing of interconnected small size (<0,2 μm) pores. Micropores are not observed in the microstructure of aggregates made from pure clay and sintered at the maximal expansion temperature (1160 °C). Micropores also are not clearly detected for ECA, which are not sintered at the maximal expansion temperature (Figure 5b and 5c). In that case pore structure of ECA is not completely developed and pores, which become larger than 1 mm at the maximal expansion temperature, still is ranged from 10 to 1000 μm (pore size distribution was detected by Hg-porosimeter Pore Master 33 Quanta-chrome).

Mechanical properties mainly depend from the pore structure of aggregates. ECA (made by using 9.1% of NMP and sintered at temperature 1170 °C) with completely developed structure (Figure 5a) has three times higher compression strength (Table 2) compare with ECA, which have un-developed pore structure (Figures 5b, 5c).

Conclusively it was found that the amount of aluminium scrap recycling waste (non-metal product, NMP) and the sintering temperature were very important for the properties of lightweight expanded clay aggregates (ECA). The test results show that utilization of NMP as pore forming agent may influence the pores structure of ECA and reduce the production costs as well as promote possibilities to produce lightweight aggregates with different physical and mechanical properties. Since the clay is locally available material the production of ECA is perspective in the countries, where natural lightweight aggregates sources are unavailable.

3. Conclusions

The elimination of toxic nature of NMP was realized by heat treatment at the temperature higher than 1100 °C. The hazardous compounds of NMP are transforming in to new ones, non-hazardous compounds and NMP don not have toxic nature any more.

NMP without previous heat treatment should be used as raw material for production of new, environmental friendly building material in the case then the new product must be sintered at temperature higher than 1100 °C according to technology.

NMP is suitable for production of expanded clay aggregates (ECA) with density from 0.4 to 0.7 g/m³. Density of ECA noticeable depends from two factors: amount of added aluminium recycling waste and sintering temperature.

ECA with different amount of NMP has unique optimal sintering temperature where the pore structure becomes completely developed.

Mechanical properties of ECA depend from the proportion of NMP and sintering temperature. Compression strength is larger for ECA with fully developed pore structure. The best compression strength may be reached by optimisation of technological process of expanding.

List of references

- Bajare, D.; Berzina-Cimdina, L.; Stunda, A.; Rozenstrauha, I.; Krage, L.; Korjakins, A. 2008. Characterisation and application of the mix of oxides from secondary aluminium industry. *2nd International congress on ceramics (ICC2)*, Verona, Italy, 2008. CD, 7 p.
- Bajare, D.; Rozenshtauha, I.; Krage, L.; Korjakins, A. 2007. Investigation of aluminium scrap recovery waste on purpose to produce building materials. *In Scientific Proceedings of Riga Technical University*, Vol. 8, series 2: 17–24.
- Breault, R.; Tremblay, S.P.; Huard, Y.; Mathieu, G. 1995 04 18. *Process for the preparation of calcium aluminates from aluminium dross residues*. US Patent 5407459.
- Brisson, C.; Chauyette, G.; Kimmerle, F. M.; Roussel, R. 1992 07 21. *Process for using dross residues to produce refractory products*. US Patent 5132246.
- Dal Maschio, R. 1988. Refractory products obtained using, aluminium rich recovered raw materials. *Ceramic Development*, Vol. 34–36: 735–739.
- De Aza, A. H.; Pena, P.; Rodriguez, M. A.; Torrecillas, R.; De Aza, S. 2003. New spinel – containing refractory cements. *Journal of European Ceramic Society*, 23: 737–744.
- Diaz, L. A.; Torrecillas, R.; De Aza, A. H.; Pena, P.; De Aza, S. 2005. Alumina rich refractory concretes with added spinel, periclase and dolomite: A comparative study of their microstructural evaluation with temperature. *Journal of European Ceramic Society*, 25: 1499–1506.
- Dube, F.; Chauyette, G. 1991 09 03. *Process for producing mineral fibres incorporating an alumina-containing residue from a metal melting operation and fibres so produced*. US Patent 5045506.
- Feige, R.; Merker G.; Steyer, J. 2006 03 21. *Raw material with a high content of aluminium oxide, and method of manufacturing the raw material*. US Patent 7015167.
- Garcia-Valles, M.; Avials, G.; Martinez, S.; Terradas, R.; Nogues, J. M. 2008. Acoustic Barriers Obtained from industrial Waste. *Chemosphere*, 72: 1098–1102.
- Gil, A. 2005. Management of the salt cake from Aluminium Fusion process. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res*, Vol. 44: 8852–8857.
- Huckabay, D. A.; Skiathas, A.D. 1981 02 24. *Aluminium dross processing*. US Patent 4252776.
- Huckabay, J. A. 1984 02 28. *Method for treatment of aluminium dross oxides*. US Patent 4434142.
- Lucheva, B.; Tsonev, Ts.; Petkov, R. 2005. Non-waste Aluminium Dross Recycling. *Journal of the University of Chemical Technology and Metallurgy*, 40, 4: 335–338.
- Proposal to regulate salt slag under the Hazardous waste (Regulation of Exports and Imports)*. Australian Government, Department of the Environment and Water Resources, Melbourne, 1996. 9 p.
- Samuel, M. 2003. A new technique for recycling aluminium scra. *Journal of Materials processing Technology*, 135(1): 117–124.
- Shen, H.; Forssberg, E. 2003. An overview of recovery of metals from slags. *Waste Management*, 23: 933–949.
- Shinzato, M. C.; Hypolito, R. 2005. Solid Waste from Aluminium Resycling Process: Characterization and reuse of its Economically valuable Constituents. *Waste Management*, 25: 37–46.
- Tzonev, Tz.; Lucheva, B. 2007. Recovering aluminium from aluminium dross in a DC Electric-Atc rotary furnace. *Aluminium*, JOM November: 64–67.
- Yerushalmi, D.; Sarko, L. 1995 06 13. *Method of recycling aluminium dross*. US Patent 5424260.
- Yoshimure, H. N.; Abreu, A. P.; Molisani, A. L.; de Camargo, A. C.; Portela, J. C. S.; Narita, N. E. 2008. Evaluation of aluminium dross waste as raw material from refractory. *Ceramic International*, 34: 581–591.