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Importance of weak interactions in the formulation of organic phases for efficient L/L extraction of metals

Damien Bourgeois^a, Asmae El Maangar^a, Sandrine Dourdain^a

^a *Institut de Chimie Séparative de Marcoule, ICSM, CEA, CNRS, ENSCM,
Univ Montpellier, BP 17171, Marcoule, 30207 Bagnols-sur-Cèze, France.*

Corresponding authors:

damien.bourgeois@cea.fr and sandrine.dourdain@cea.fr

1 ABSTRACT:

2 Recent experimental studies demonstrate the need to take into account weak interactions
3 in the understanding of solvent extraction processes. This well-established industrial
4 technology now beneficiates of a supramolecular approach, complementary to the
5 traditional analysis based on coordination chemistry. In this article, we focus on the
6 integration of a colloidal approach in the analysis of solvent extraction systems: organic
7 phases employed are complex fluids, in which extracting molecules self-assemble into
8 reverse aggregates. We detail the available analytical tools employed towards
9 characterization of these organic phases, and emphasize the recent results in aggregation
10 driven extraction. All experimental data is discussed in light of theoretical approaches
11 which propose adequate thermodynamic models and shed light on the importance of
12 entropy on the phenomena. Diluent effects or synergism have been successfully
13 rationalized, efficient new formulations based on a physico-chemical analysis have been
14 proposed, and the door is now open for further development at industrial scale.

15

16 *Keywords:* Solvent extraction; separation; aggregation; metals

17

18 **1. Introduction**

19 Solvent extraction (also called liquid/liquid extraction, abbreviated into L/L extraction) is at
20 the heart of most separation processes in various hydrometallurgical applications,
21 especially in those dedicated to the recycling of metals.[1–4] The aim of this technique is
22 to separate target from non-target ions which are solubilized in an aqueous phase, through
23 liquid–liquid phase transfer of target ions into an organic phase. This is typically achieved
24 by means of extracting molecules, named extractants, designed with a chelating polar
25 group to ensure the metal coordination, and with an apolar part enabling solubility in the
26 organic phase. Historically, industrial processes have been implemented mostly from
27 empirical approaches. Effect of acids, diluents, competitive metals on extraction efficiency
28 were simply tabulated for direct application. For many processes, it appears today that
29 understanding the extraction properties is mandatory for their optimization, or ideally for
30 their prediction. More knowledge and predictive modelling would moreover allow greener
31 recycling process, e.g. which generate reduced effluents and/or with better selectivity.[5]
32 Traditional approaches based on macroscopic relationships established thanks to the so-
33 called “graphical slope analysis” (GSA, also called “slope method”) have regularly reached
34 their limitations. Based on analysis of extraction isotherms, GSA is employed to determine
35 the stoichiometry of the metallic species extracted in the organic phase. When the
36 extraction process can be described using a simple set of equilibria involving a limited
37 number of metallic species, log-log plots lead to lines with a slope corresponding to
38 stoichiometric coefficients, as long as the experimental conditions are chosen to simplify
39 the extraction behaviour. The validity domain of the method has been widely described,
40 and when taken into account, very satisfactory results are obtained in the case of simple
41 systems, which can be related to well-defined coordination complexes.[6] However, when

42 multiple equilibria need to be taken into account, slope analysis becomes cumbersome,
43 when not impossible to apply, and computer modelling needs to be employed in
44 conjunction with graphical analysis.[7] It was early noticed that slope analysis cannot
45 account for complex extraction mechanisms, especially in the case of mixtures of
46 extractants and synergism, as deviation from expected slope and non-straight lines are
47 observed.[8] Furthermore, application of slope analysis can lead to results of questionable
48 interpretation; mechanisms inconsistencies have been noticed and bias have been
49 reported. For instance, studies of the extraction mechanism of lanthanides(III) by
50 malonamides lead to different metal species according to various sources, with 2 to 3
51 extracting molecules involved in the metallic cation extraction.[9–11] In the same system,
52 inconsistencies with saturation experiments have been reported, with neodymium(III)[11]
53 as well as palladium(II).[12] Theoretically, the extractant to metal ratio in organic phase at
54 metal saturation corresponds to the ligand to metal ratio of the coordination complex
55 responsible for metal stabilization in the organic phase. However, such assumption is valid
56 only if extraction mechanism is same at low metal loading (employed for GSA) and at high
57 metal loading (for saturation experiments). Finally, diluent effects with the closely related
58 diglycolamides cannot be interpreted by changes in the coordination sphere of the cation
59 without further studies.[13] Recent results demonstrate that evolution of aggregation in the
60 organic phase is mostly responsible for these observations (vide infra, section 3.1), and
61 back the need for detailed analysis involving chemical as well as physicochemical
62 equilibria. The notion of “extended stoichiometry” is thus not adapted and misleading as it
63 suggests that extraction can be summarized in a fixed set of molecular equilibria.

64

65 Extractants are amphiphilic molecules, and tend to behave like surfactants, albeit with
66 peculiarities. Since the first hint from Osseo-Asare,[14] the number of annual published

67 papers considering aggregation of extractants has been multiplied by 10. This approach
68 describes organic phases as organized solutions by taking into account long-range
69 interactions as well as classical interactions between nearest neighbours. Indeed, self-
70 assembling properties of surfactants leads to formation of reverse micelles occurring in the
71 oil phase beyond a certain critical concentration. Weak aggregates formed by the
72 extractants need to be understood on different length scales: the atomic scale for metal
73 chelation, the nanoscale for micelle formation, and the micron scale dealing with
74 macroscopic phase behaviour. The nano and supra-molecular scales are perfectly
75 illustrated by the scheme of Guilbaud et al.,[15] showing that the same entity can be
76 studied at molecular scale, as a complex, and at supramolecular scale, as a nano-droplet
77 of polar entities solubilized in an organic phase, or as reverse-micelle like aggregates
78 (Figure 1). Complex, aggregate and micelle definitions are distinguished by considering
79 the water which is extracted in their polar core, and which gradually evolves from frozen to
80 free water states. In parallel, the quantity of water in the organic phase increases from
81 some molecules to mmol/L macroscopic concentrations.

82 High extractant concentrations can also bring the possibility of organic phase separations,
83 and occurrence of different complex phases such as the “third phase accident” which
84 leads to viscosity increase and stops mixer-settler operations. To avoid these and to
85 understand interactions one has to study phases, phase diagrams and phase transitions in
86 a systematic way knowing that the classical mass action laws cannot be used without
87 introducing many parameters to describe all simultaneous chemical equilibria involved.
88 Complete understanding of the extraction process requires the establishment of a
89 relationship between distribution law, initially introduced by Nernst, and thermodynamic
90 approach accounting for the different occurring chemical reactions (mass action law), and
91 encompassing thermodynamics of self-assembly.

92 This paper proposes an overview of the characterization techniques and methods
93 developed in the last decades to describe the organic extraction phases. In a second part,
94 we summarize the main experimental and theoretical approaches taking into account this
95 double scale description to unravel the extraction mechanisms, as well as the contributions
96 of these recent approaches in the understanding of the solvent extraction problems.

97 **2. Experimental approaches towards organic phase characterization**

98 2.1 Coordination at the molecular level

99 Metal ion coordination remains the basis employed in the description of liquid-liquid
100 extraction, and extracting molecules are usually classified according to their interaction
101 mode with metallic cations. The coordination chemistry principles which underpin the
102 sorting of extracting molecule polar heads have been well described in a recent review.[16]
103 Extracting molecules usually interact with metallic species through bonding in their inner
104 coordination sphere, forming what is generally named a “(coordination) complex”.
105 Interactions in the outer sphere have been described to intervene as well, for example
106 electrostatic or H-bonding interactions, which are favoured by the low polarity of the
107 organic extraction phase. Most of the studies available in the literature on liquid-liquid
108 extraction start with a molecular approach aiming at the description of the species involved
109 at the molecular scale. Parameters such as the amount of acid, extractant, counter ion,
110 etc... are thus studied in order to lead to a proposition of the composition of the molecular
111 complexes. Sometimes, the term “adduct” is employed, and refers to mixed complex,
112 when different nature of molecules (ions, ligands, water...) are necessary to complete the
113 coordination sphere(s) of the extracted cation.

114 Classical spectroscopic techniques, such as UV-vis, IR, NMR (^1H , ^{31}P , ^{13}C ...), enable the
115 identification of the different species involved in extraction of the metallic cation.

116 Stoichiometry of molecular complexes can then be determined using classical approaches
117 involving competition experiments, decay/increase of specific signals, etc... Recent
118 improvements include use of ESI-MS as a tool to identify the presence of specific species,
119 especially mixed adducts. This technique, based on soft ionization, allows the elucidation
120 of metal speciation in organic media through direct transfer into gas phase and generation
121 of charged species without major disruption of the metal-ligand bonds. Thorough analysis
122 and combination of several techniques enable the identification of well-defined species,
123 even in the case of synergistic extraction systems.[17] Structural elucidation of the metallic
124 cation coordination spheres is however more difficult to achieve. Classically, single crystal
125 X-ray diffraction studies bring appreciable data on the coordination environment of the
126 metallic cation extracted in the organic phase. However, this technique relies on physical
127 separation of unique species from a mixture, and the crystallization process may be a
128 thermodynamic sink for several chemical species in equilibrium in the solution. The
129 technique and its limitations have already been widely discussed in the frame of
130 homogeneous catalysis. As a consequence, EXAFS study are also performed – when
131 synchrotron X-ray beam is available - and they bring information such as number of
132 ligands and metal-ligand distances directly on the organic phase, albeit after modelling of
133 the experimental spectra. Such analysis leads to a static view of the coordination sphere.
134 Dynamics of the coordination sphere is also important to describe, as ligand exchanges
135 are sometimes rate determining steps in the overall transfer process. NMR is the most
136 often used technique to this purpose.[18] In our opinion, the key improvement of this
137 decade is the quasi-systematic combination of classical spectroscopic techniques with
138 computational modelling, especially DFT studies. DFT is largely employed in the
139 description of reactions mechanisms involving a metallic center, e.g. homogeneous
140 catalysis. It enables to suppose the occurrence of the most stable species, and to simulate

141 spectra of vibrational spectroscopies. In solvent extraction, DFT has been successfully
142 applied in order to elucidate complex modes of action of extracting molecules.[19,20]
143 Whatever the experimental technique applied, determination of the molecular structures
144 involved still entails some uncertainty.

145 All these techniques do not take into account the supramolecular ordering of the
146 organometallic complexes formed, nor the hydrophilic-hydrophobic interactions that can
147 lead to the formation of aggregates, especially of the reverse micelle type.

148

149 2.2 Experimental methods for weak aggregates characterization

150 Nowadays, solvent extraction mechanisms are more and more studied by taking into
151 account weak interaction between extracting molecules, involving their self-assembly in
152 amphiphilic aggregates. An aggregation number (N_{ag}) is defined as the number of
153 extracting molecules forming an aggregate. Aggregation phenomena were highlighted for
154 the first time in 1991 by Osseo-Asare, who considered the similarities between the
155 behaviours of surfactant and tributyl phosphate (TBP) used as extractant in the PUREX
156 process.[14] He suggested that the non-stoichiometric extraction of acid or metallic
157 species was due to the formation of reverse micelles, or microemulsion, in the organic
158 diluent due to the aggregation of TBP extractants.

159 Ben Azouz et al. proposed the first direct structural characterization of these aggregates in
160 1992, thanks to small angle X ray scattering.[21] Erlinger et al. further furnished a
161 modelling of these SAXS data, which allowed explaining the supramolecular origin of the
162 third phase formation.[22,23] Over recent years, the TBP-alkane system has been
163 reexamined,[24,25] and many organic phases have been studied taking into account the
164 formation of supramolecular species.[26–28] Complete analysis of coupled SAXS and
165 SANS experiments have further been investigated to determine the exact microstructure of

166 reverse aggregates made by extracting molecules. It leads to parameters like aggregation
167 number, polar core volume, attraction between cores, aggregate volume, and average
168 distance between aggregates, as well as diluent penetration in the apolar shells of the
169 aggregates.[29] A recent model derived by Motokawa et al. proposes a hierarchical
170 description of the organic phase which includes both molecular complexes and
171 supramolecular objects, resulting from aggregation of clusters of different sizes.[30]
172 However, these scattering experiments present in some cases some limitations for the
173 structural description of the solvent extraction organic phases. Being sensitive to electron
174 densities, SAXS scattering intensities are mainly due to the cores of the aggregates.
175 Having sizes in the sub-nanometer range, they produce signal in the high Q range (as the
176 solvent peak), and induce difficult solvent subtraction and fitting. SANS scattering, which
177 mainly depends on the deuterated/non-deuterated parts of the samples, provides full
178 aggregates scattering, which is usually easier to model. Full aggregates however present
179 the drawback to be possibly fitted with different core sizes. These limitations have been
180 exposed by Pecheur et al..[31] Simultaneous SAXS and SANS fitting is safer but tedious.
181 Coupling SAXS and SANS analysis with molecular dynamics appears today as an
182 innovative and efficient option to completely model and understand the structural aspects
183 of solvent extraction phases. This was initiated by Ferru et al. in 2014,[32] who showed
184 that SAXS data could be completely recalculated from molecular dynamics simulation. It
185 offered key insight into the complex fluid involving weak interactions without any long-
186 range ordering.

187 Following the approach of considering supramolecular aggregation in solvent extraction,
188 an important parameter that has been extensively characterized on solvent extraction
189 phases is the Critical Aggregation Concentration (CAC). This denomination is preferred to
190 Critical Micellar Concentration (CMC), in order to distinguish the poor ability of the

191 extracting molecules to self-assemble in oil in comparison with classical surfactants in
192 water (direct micelles) or in oil (reverse micelles). Indeed while surfactants form
193 spontaneously micelles of up to hundreds of molecules, extractants form aggregates of 2
194 to 40 molecules, with a gradual transition between monomeric to aggregated states.
195 Critical micellar and aggregation concentrations are thereby impacted, and lie respectively
196 in the order of 0.001M and 0.1M. CAC was shown to be a thermodynamic parameter of
197 high importance because it characterizes the free energy of aggregates formation. As
198 detailed in the second part of this paper, its determination has been confronted to many
199 solvent extractions problems and mechanistic studies.

200 As mentioned by Jonsson, Lindman, Homberg,[33] the physical methods for CMC
201 determination of surfactants in aqueous phases include conductivity, solubility, viscosity,
202 light scattering, surface tension (e.g. Wilhelmy slide method), measurement of ion activity,
203 dye incorporation method, gel filtration spectrophotometrically and counter ion magnetic
204 resonance. Concerning solvent extraction phases, the possible techniques to determine
205 CAC are more limited and involve bigger uncertainties due to the high CAC values.

206 Among the methods exploited in literature, Vapor Pressure Osmometry (VPO) was one of
207 the first method to be used.[31,34–36] VPO enables to determine the solution activity as a
208 function of its solutes concentration. In the case of ideal solutions, VPO signal is
209 proportional to the molality of the solution, and when the concentration of the solution
210 increases, VPO signals show a deviation from ideality at a molality that can be interpreted
211 at first approximation as the critical aggregation concentration.[35] CAC as well as
212 aggregation number can be derived after a cautious data analysis. VPO measurements
213 need to be performed on volatile solvent. Heavy alkanes such as dodecane are often
214 replaced with n-heptane without taking into account the eventual effect of this diluent
215 change on the extraction or aggregation properties. Moreover, vapour pressure

216 stabilization gives rise to extremely long experimental measurements.

217 As for surfactant, the most commonly applied technique to derive CAC is the surface
218 tension measurement. The drop-shape analysis method is usually applied. For solvent
219 extraction solutions, the interface tension between the organic phase and the aqueous
220 phase is measured by forming a pendant or a spinning drop of organic phase into the
221 aqueous phase. As the presence of extractants adsorbs at this interface and decreases
222 the water-oil interface tension, the CAC can be derived when the interface tension is no
223 more linear with extractant concentration since aggregates are formed (Figure 2a). This
224 method is quite robust, but requires large amount of aqueous phase, and experiments
225 need often to be repeated many times in order to limit the uncertainties.

226 Another simple and efficient approach to derive CAC consists in exploiting the evolution of
227 SAXS or SANS intensities at low Q for various extractant concentrations. Considering the
228 general expression of scattering, the formation of aggregates is here again characterized
229 by a break of linearity, since the intensity is proportional to the square of the volume of the
230 scatterers that are evolving from monomers to micelle like aggregates with extractant
231 concentration.[37] CAC values and uncertainties obtained with this approach and with
232 surface tension are compared in Figure 2b.

233 Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) is also used for the same purpose. Deriving the
234 hydrodynamical radius of the species from the self-diffusion coefficient of the scatterers as
235 a function of the extractant concentration was exploited to determine CAC.[38–40]

236 In addition to structural information at the molecular level, NMR experiments can give
237 information on supramolecular aggregation properties, principally from self-diffusion
238 coefficient determinations.[41–43] CAC and aggregation numbers can for example be
239 derived to compare and confirm the other techniques such as SAXS and SANS.

240 Furthermore, when a solute distributes between diluent and aggregates, the fraction of

241 solute embedded in the aggregates can be derived provided there is a significant
242 difference in the self-diffusion coefficients between diluent and aggregates.[42,44]

243 Thanks to these methods, organic phases employed in solvent extraction have been
244 described in details at both molecular and supra molecular scales, which enabled in
245 several studies a better understanding of the liquid-liquid extraction mechanisms. This
246 shows the necessity to estimate the interplay between the short-range interactions due to
247 the coordination process, and the long-range interactions responsible for self-organization.

248

249 **3. Thermodynamic link between weak aggregation and extraction**

250 3.1 Recent examples of aggregation driven extraction

251 Many papers concerning the study of the key parameters of extraction confirmed the
252 importance of taking into account the aggregation state of extractants in the extraction
253 mechanisms. We give here an overview of the studies exploiting such a supramolecular
254 approach with a special focus on the thermodynamic interpretations of these mechanisms.

255 The effect of acid that is known to play a consequent role on extraction efficiency, has
256 been investigated with a supramolecular approach. Acid nature usually depends on the
257 targeted application. Nitric media are used for the back end of nuclear cycle, while sulfuric
258 or phosphoric acids are more often applied for the front end. Change of acidity is also
259 commonly exploited in industrial processes to strip out the extracted metallic species. It
260 may appear obvious that acid content and nature acts on the chelation processes, but it
261 was also shown that they strongly impact aggregation properties of the extractants. In
262 1998, Erlinger et al. demonstrated that the third phase formation originates from the
263 supramolecular aggregation of extractants when high amount of acid is extracted.[45]

264 Several studies confirmed that the acid content influence the aggregation state of the

265 organic phases of extraction.[40,46] As illustrated in Figure 3, for low extractant
266 concentration, higher acid contents induce higher neutrons or X ray intensities at small
267 angles, characteristic of the formation of bigger or more aggregates in the organic phase.
268 Déjognat et al. further examined the acid effect on aggregation by modifying not only its
269 content but also its nature. He showed that counter ions of the acids play a role on the
270 aggregation and therefore on the third phase appearance according to the Hofmeister
271 series. The more polarizable anions are more inclined to provoke aggregation and
272 therefore the third phase formation.[47] Taking into account that extractants are organized
273 in reverse micelle-like aggregates, the same authors demonstrated that acid extraction can
274 be modelled with a Langmuir isotherm from which a free energy of adsorption was derived.
275 Again according to Hofmeister series, the more polarizable counter ion were revealed to
276 be less extracted.[48] In parallel, aggregation state was shown to be thermodynamically
277 nucleated by the acid, with a minimized aggregation energy in presence of acid.
278 Aggregation formation and properties (CAC, domain of stability, attractive potential
279 between micelles) does greatly depend on the acid content and on the nature of the
280 extracted counter anions of the acid.[40]

281 Another important parameter of solvent extraction is the diluent in which the extractant are
282 solubilized, or in a similar extent, the apolar chains of the extractant. Many studies aim at
283 limiting or even completely avoiding the use of organic diluents in extraction solvents,
284 because of their volatility, and potential flammability. However replacing a diluent with
285 another one implies strong alterations of extraction properties that cannot be explained
286 with a pure chelation approach. Understanding the diluent effect on liquid-liquid extraction
287 is therefore essential to propose a predictive approach towards greener diluent
288 substitution.

289 Effect of various aliphatic diluent chains or extractant alkyl chain lengths has been

290 investigated with the supramolecular approach. The most important parameter revealed in
291 this case is the penetration of the diluent in the shell of the aggregates.[29,49] It was
292 shown to provoke strong variation of the bending energy of the reverse micelle-like
293 aggregates, limiting consequently their swelling or perturbing the metal complexation
294 (Figure 4a).[29]

295 The modulation of weak interactions in the organic phase has also been studied in non-
296 usual systems, i.e. systems not based on a classical aliphatic or aromatic diluent.
297 Malonamides bearing a long perfluoroalkyl chain have been developed in order to
298 modulate independently the strength of both the coordination of the polar moiety and the
299 inter-molecular Van der Waals interactions.[43,50] The perfluoroalkyl chain is hydrophobic,
300 but also oleophobic, and it was observed that the oleophobicity prevails over the tendency
301 of hydrophilic moieties to self-assemble: in the organic phase, in a chlorinated diluent,
302 malonamides with a perfluoroalkyl chain lead to direct aggregates with a fluorous core,
303 whereas classical hydrocarbon malonamides lead to the previously described reverse
304 aggregates with a hydrophilic core (Figure 4b). This difference of supramolecular ordering
305 of the extracting molecules has a great impact on the extraction process: extraction is
306 inefficient with the perfluoroalkyl compounds in comparison with the hydrocarbon
307 compounds, all other parameters remaining equal.[43]

308 In some cases, the use of a fluorinated malonamide in a perfluorinated diluent led to better
309 extraction performance in comparison with the corresponding hydrocarbon system. It has
310 been recently reported that a fluorous phosphate in fluorinated diluent showed improved
311 extraction of Zr(IV) in comparison with extraction based on tributylphosphate (TBP) in n-
312 octane.[51] In this case, higher stability of the Zr(IV) complex in the fluorous phase is
313 supposed, but structuration of the fluorous phase remains to be determined in future work.
314 No major difference in the Zr(IV) coordination by the phosphate group was noticed.

315 Knowledge on the role of the diluent, especially its influence on metal coordination,
316 through e.g. precise description of the effect of its dielectric constant, has also to be
317 increased. It is then particularly striking to notice that so far no detailed determination of
318 the dielectric constant of the whole organic phase has been performed to our best
319 knowledge.

320 Understanding the effect of diluents on aggregation and extraction is also essential when
321 the diluent needs to be replaced by an unconventional diluent such as ionic liquid. ILs are
322 more and more considered as green diluents for solvent extraction, as they prevent
323 economic, ecological and safety problems thanks to higher flash points and lower volatility
324 than the conventional organic solvents.[52] In some cases, they also significantly improve
325 the extraction efficiency.[53] But, these higher performances cannot be fully exploited
326 because of their unpredictability. Understanding the peculiar mechanisms of ILs based
327 extraction systems is therefore essential to render the use of ILs more straightforward and
328 reliable in solvent extraction. Metal extraction in ILs occurs through extraction mechanisms
329 which can differ from those observed in molecular solvents. It was shown for example that
330 some ILs exchange their cation or anion with the metal to extract.[54] However, this
331 behavior is not systematic and not sufficient to explain the unpredictable extraction
332 efficiency in ILs. As for the conventional extraction systems, most of the mechanistic
333 studies rely on the definition of complexes stoichiometry derived from the macroscopic
334 distribution coefficients. More and more descriptions of the complexes microstructure are
335 also proposed in ILs, providing essential information on the extraction mechanisms.[55,56]
336 However, the structure and the role of extractant aggregation are usually completely
337 ignored in the extraction mechanisms. It was shown only recently that some aggregates
338 are actually also formed in ILs.[57] It appears therefore essential to pursue this approach
339 in order to elucidate aggregation influence on the extraction efficiency in ILs.

340 Taking into account aggregation is also very important when mixtures of extractants are
341 employed. Many processes use synergistic mixtures of extractants to ensure higher
342 separation efficiency and selectivity.[58,59] While broadly exploited and efficient, origin of
343 synergistic extraction is not always fully understood. Supramolecular origin of synergy
344 was investigated in 2012, to bring new insight on its mechanisms. Deriving free energy of
345 micellization thanks to critical aggregation concentration determination, it was shown that
346 aggregation is systematically favoured in case of synergistic extraction.[37,60] Looking
347 further into the origins of synergy, it was however demonstrated that synergistic
348 aggregation is not the prime origin of synergistic extraction, but occurs as a consequence
349 of extraction by a nucleation effect of the acid, and of the extracted metal cation.[31] A
350 thermodynamic approach showed that acid induces synergy through attractive interactions
351 between extracting molecules in the case of mixtures of DMDOHEMA and HDEHP
352 extractants.[60]

353 These enhanced extraction efficiencies due to aggregation, have further been exploited to
354 formulate an efficient synergistic mixture. The extractant DEHCNPB (butyl-1-[*N,N*-bis(2-
355 ethylhexyl)carbamoylethyl]nonyl phosphonic acid), known to selectively extract uranium in a
356 phosphoric medium and to poorly aggregate, was associated to a surfactant known to
357 aggregate at low concentration in the organic phases, AOT (sodium bis(2-ethylhexyl)
358 sulfosuccinate). This original synergistic mixture appeared powerful to extract rare earths
359 from phosphoric media.[61] This example suggests therefore that extraction can be
360 optimized by improving aggregation of an extracting system by the addition of a suitable
361 surfactant molecule.

362

363 3.2 Rationalization through thermodynamic description

364 The previous part presented some experimental studies demonstrating that aggregation is

365 essential to take into account to understand solvent extraction mechanisms. Some
366 theoretical approaches have also been proposed with the same objective.

367 In classical thermodynamics considering the extraction process as a whole, the standard
368 derivation by van't Hoff used for simple fluids can be used only when all aggregation
369 effects are negligible and when enthalpy itself has no temperature variation. In these two
370 restrictions, all entropy variations could be derived by derivatives of the free energy. This
371 van't Hoff approach, valid for ideal fluids, is known to be a crude approximation. It is not
372 numerically correct and no more valid when aggregation or electrostatic effects are more
373 than 2-5 kJ/mole. A statistical thermodynamic treatment separating electrostatic,
374 dispersion, self-assembly and solvent effect is necessary, such as in amphiphilic self-
375 assembly: each mechanism has its own entropy.[62]

376 The thermodynamic approach proposed by Zemb et al.,[63,64] consists in identifying the
377 molecular driving forces of ion transfer between the two immiscible phases.[65] In
378 hydrometallurgy, the molecular approach stipulates that the extraction free energy
379 corresponds only to the complexation of the cation by one or more extractants associated
380 to an entropy of mixing.[16] In the colloidal approach called "ienais" approach proposed
381 by Zemb et al.,[66] a more general view is possible that goes beyond supramolecular
382 complexation considerations. That is why we propose Figure 5 to illustrate this colloidal
383 approach which considers that the driving force for extraction is the reference free energy
384 differences of species exchanging between complex fluids i.e. organic and aqueous phase
385 instead of concentrations and activity coefficients.[64,66] The differences in reference free
386 energy are then directly decomposed in three main underlying mechanisms at colloidal
387 scale which take into account long range interactions[67] as well as the nearest
388 neighbours and thus allow the comprehension and description of the origin of
389 interactions.[68–71]

390 Figure 5 presents a schematic representation of the liquid-liquid extraction process seen
391 from the point of view of an extracted electrolyte. In this colloidal representation, potential
392 differences between electrolytes are represented as levels of chemical potential, by
393 analogy with classical electronics dealing with electron potential in conductors and semi-
394 conductors.[66] The left side in blue represents the aqueous phase containing multiple ion
395 species whereas the right side is the organic phase (solvent phase) made of monomeric
396 extractants and self-assembled aggregates. A thick green line represents the water-oil
397 interface. Considering the surfactant nature of the extractant, the interface is at least
398 partially covered by the extractants (not shown here) In the absence of extracted species,
399 [72,73] most extractant are present as “monomers” [74] that are represented schematically
400 as well solubilized species in the oil phase. Before extraction, the target as well as non-
401 target species, together with the nitric acid are present as a concentrated electrolyte
402 solution near a charged liquid-liquid interface. [75,76] The transfer process is represented
403 in the zoomed rectangle to the left showing the core of the aggregate with the lanthanide
404 cation, the nitrate anion, water molecules and the extractant head groups.

405 Figure 5 shows also the four “driving forces” [64,65] that control the partition of electrolytes
406 between the solvent and the aqueous phase. All these forces are derivatives of the free
407 energy and they contain an enthalpic and an entropic contribution. [77–79] Among the four
408 terms, complexation with the first neighbors and electric interactions between extracted
409 ions and the head-groups of the extractant which is well known in organometallic
410 chemistry of supramolecular self-assembly is a strong term typically with an enthalpy of 50
411 kJ/mol per extracted species that favours the transfer to the oil phase. [26,63,80] This term
412 is counter balanced by weaker quenching terms represented at the right and usually
413 hidden behind “activity coefficients” which are associated with the packing of extractants
414 chains i.e. curvature term, differences in ion concentrations between the two phases, the

415 activity of water etc... It has been shown that the forces quenching the water to oil transfer
416 can be decomposed into three terms that can be evaluated from first principles [64,79]:
417 - The “bulk” term $\Delta\mu_{\text{Bulk}}$, mainly related to the confinement of ions in the very small polar
418 volumes of the oil phase. It is the entropic energy associated with the packing of
419 electrolytes inside the polar core of aggregates. When volumes are ignored this bulk term
420 is sometimes taken into account as a “constant” in a mass action law.
421 - The “chain” terms $\Delta\mu_{\text{Chain}}$ concerns all effects linked to solvent nanostructure
422 reorganization around the extracted and co-extracted species.[81,82] It represents the free
423 energy of the chain whose arrangement is schematically shown in Figure 5b and
424 associated to the variation of the shape and number of the reverse micelles i.e. the
425 modification of the packing parameter of the extractant introduced by Israelachvili which
426 depends strongly on the composition of the micelle. In other words, this free energy is
427 related to the deviation of the actual packing parameter from the preferred one and is
428 expressed using a harmonic approximation. [83]
429 - Finally, the “droplet” term $\Delta\mu_{\text{Droplet}}$ is linked to the presence of a disordered condensed
430 globular aggregate made from the complexing head groups, extracted electrolytes and co-
431 extracted water.[68,69,73,75] It is the free energy of the polar core, which represents the
432 free energy of the water/ion mixture. It can be evaluated by considering that this term is
433 equivalent to the corresponding one in a bulk electrolyte solution of the same
434 concentration. Thus, osmotic measurement is able to give this polar effect.
435 Finally, the observed distribution coefficient is due to the “remaining” gap in electrolyte free
436 energy of transfer is represented as a green arrow. This term can be positive or negative,
437 respectively in extraction and stripping.
438 Once all the energetic contributions are defined, one can predict overall extraction
439 efficiency by using mesoscopic models. The pseudo-phase model proposed by Tanford is

440 one of the most widely used thermodynamic models in the case of surfactants self-
441 assembly. It assumes that individual aggregates constitute a distinct phase, which is in
442 thermodynamic equilibrium with the free extractants in the solvent. The key point of this
443 model is that it allows calculating the standard chemical potential of the aggregates.
444 Moreover, in combination with the mass action law as initially proposed by Leontidis and
445 Hatton, and exploited by Spadina et al., the prediction of extraction is possible for any
446 independent variable without fitting reactions constants.[68,69]

447 This colloidal approach was used to estimate quantitatively the driving forces responsible
448 for extraction. As shown by Zemb et al.,[63,64] considering the motor of complexation only
449 is not sufficient to explain the values of distribution coefficient conventionally obtained in
450 solvent extraction. The authors quantitatively showed that the other terms, which
451 intrinsically consider aggregation, act as more or less efficient inhibitors toward extraction,
452 and balance the thermodynamic equilibrium to produce the effective extraction efficiencies.
453 This thermodynamic approach was also applied to synergistic extraction.[60,84] The
454 different motors and inhibitors of extraction were evaluated to identify the significant
455 parameters of synergy. Among them, aggregation has a significant role via the free energy
456 of aggregation formation, characterized by the concentration of critical aggregation, but
457 also and to a greater extent by the energy of curvature of the aggregates. Synergistic
458 extraction was therefore shown to be mainly controlled by the potential aggregates
459 swelling (due to water or solutes extraction), but also by their compression (through the
460 penetration of the diluent molecules in the shell of the aggregates).[84]

461

462 3.3 (De)coupling coordination and aggregation

463 Experimental and theoretical approaches described before clearly show that both metal
464 coordination and organic phase aggregation play a role in liquid-liquid extraction of metallic

465 cations. Traditionally, the seek for optimized extracting molecules is performed via careful
466 design of the polar head of the molecule, with structure-activity relationship based on
467 detailed analysis of first and second coordination spheres.[16]

468 Still it is not clear whether both metal coordination and aggregation act as complementary
469 necessary motors for metal extraction, or if one is the consequence of the other, ie if
470 organic phase aggregation is the consequence of metal extraction or vice-versa. Recently,
471 it was established that metal extraction induces supramolecular organization of the organic
472 phase in the case of Eu(III) extraction with DMDOHEMA in n-heptane.[85] The metallic
473 cation was demonstrated to seed the formation of reverse micelles in the organic phase,
474 resulting in increasing distribution coefficients with increasing metal uptake by the organic
475 phase. This non-classical behavior was nicely related to an increasing water uptake in the
476 organic phase at higher metal loading. The metal-induced nano-hydrophilic domains
477 enable then more efficient coordination of the metallic cations, as revealed by the
478 detection of polynuclear Eu(III) aggregates with metal centers probably bridged by nitrate
479 anions. These experimental findings were rationalized through molecular dynamics, and it
480 was found that the supramolecular structural evolution driven by Eu(III) extraction leads to
481 an extraction favored by ca 10 kJ/mol, due to entropic gain (Figure 6a).[85] Another recent
482 study also illustrated that there is no aggregation, without prior metal coordination.[31]

483 In another experimental approach, also with the same malonamide (DMDOHEMA), but at
484 low metal loading, it was demonstrated that Nd(III) extraction requires supramolecular
485 ordering of the organic phase.[46] This result was obtained after the comparison of two
486 organic phases based on the same extracting molecule, but with different diluents, n-
487 heptane and toluene. The diluent effect was levelled via the comparison with another
488 metallic cation, Pd(II), which extraction was only moderately affected by the diluent: a ca
489 10-fold increase in Pd/Nd selectivity was observed switching from n-heptane to toluene,

490 when the distribution coefficient of Pd was only slightly lowered (from 4.2 to 2.7). The drop
491 in Nd extraction was linked to the difference in supramolecular ordering of the organic
492 phase, monitored by the X-ray scattering intensities at zero momentum (I_0): it was
493 evidenced that in toluene no ordering of the organic phase occurs. The supramolecular
494 ordering of the organic phase is induced by nitric acid which is also extracted from the
495 aqueous layer into the organic phase.[60] Altogether, these results show that metallic
496 cations are more or less sensitive to aggregation of the organic phase: Pd(II) seems much
497 less sensitive to long-range interaction than Nd(III), and stabilization of Nd(III) in an
498 organized organic phase is favoured by 5 kJ/mol in comparison with Pd(II) (Figure 6b).[86]
499 In other words, Pd(II) extraction seems piloted by coordination chemistry, whereas
500 Lanthanides(III) extraction seems to require further supramolecular ordering.

501 The different sensitivity of both metallic cations regarding the supramolecular ordering of
502 the organic phase was attributed to a different coordination behavior: Pd(II) leads to stable
503 1/1 complexes with the extracting molecule, whereas Nd(III) is the object of weaker
504 coordination, revealed by a dynamic exchange in the coordination sphere of the metal.[46]
505 Assuming that the coordination chemistry of Nd(III) and Eu(III) with malonamides is similar,
506 both works lead to the statement that efficient coordination of lanthanide cations in organic
507 phase requires supramolecular ordering of this phase.

508 The correlated effect of metal on aggregation and extraction has also been examined with
509 synergistic mixtures of extractant. As synergistic mixtures extract better when they
510 aggregate better, the question asked was to identify if the favoured aggregation (lower
511 CAC) were due to the metal extraction or if the metal was more extracted because of the
512 synergistic aggregation. For this reason, Pecheur et al. measured CAC values in absence
513 of metal, acid and water.[31] They showed that aggregates of 5 extractants were reduced
514 to dimers, but no decrease of CAC characteristic of a synergistic aggregation could be

515 obtained anymore. Another study tried to decorrelate the effect of water, acid and of the
516 metal on aggregation and extraction. J. Rey et al. gradually added these ingredients and
517 measured separately the aggregation state of the synergistic system. They showed that
518 while water has no effect, acid is the first ingredient to induce synergy of aggregation by
519 creating an attractive interaction between the two extractant at a ratio 50/50.[31,60] In
520 presence of metal the synergy remained present but was strongly shifted to the ratio of
521 synergistic extraction (25/75).

522 All these studies are fully consistent with the fact that it is impossible to de-couple metal
523 coordination and organic phase aggregation. Each system is parameter dependent, and
524 modification of one parameter cannot lead to modification of sole coordination or
525 aggregation, as both are completely intertwined. Trying to find the key parameter
526 responsible for efficient extraction of a given metal is similar to answering the chicken and
527 egg problem. It is of paramount importance to remember that each component of the
528 organic phase has its importance, including acid and water, and that the organic phase is
529 composed of a distribution of mixed supramolecular species (aggregates), in dynamic
530 equilibrium. According to the experimental conditions, different extraction regimes can be
531 evidenced, where one peculiar parameter has a higher weight on the result. Interestingly,
532 as illustrated in Figure 7, it has been recently evidenced that the most efficient
533 formulations correspond to those of higher CAC, as a too high organization in the organic
534 phase can either lead to third phase formation (metal driven aggregation) or strong H⁺
535 competition (H⁺ driven aggregation).[69]

536

537 **4. Conclusion and perspectives for efficient formulation of extracting system**

538 Recent results highlight the key role of weak interactions in the extraction of metallic ions

539 into an organic phase. Along with metal coordination, supramolecular ordering of the
540 organic phase has been demonstrated to be one the key driving forces of the process. As
541 a consequence, detailed understanding of extraction mechanism of a given metal is
542 nowadays performed using tools dedicated to the analysis of supramolecular organization
543 of the organic phase, especially SAXS and SANS. Such comprehensive analyses are
544 important in order to be able to propose efficient and selective formulations, as they may
545 be useful to direct future work dedicated to the optimization of molecular structure of
546 extracting systems. The use of branched aliphatic diluents is nowadays well established
547 when third phase formation has to be avoided, thanks to the understanding of diluent
548 effects in this frame achieved during last decade. More recently, practical applications and
549 set-up of new processes arose during this decade. For instance, the association of a
550 classical extractant with a classical surfactant (AOT) led to synergistic extraction of rare
551 earth from phosphoric media.[61] Processes in which selectivity is driven by controlling the
552 weak interactions have been developed in the frame of precious metals recycling from
553 waste.[87] In this case, the shift from an aliphatic to an aromatic diluent, the choice of the
554 extracting molecule (a malonamide), and the aqueous phase acid concentration in the
555 extraction, scrubbing and stripping steps are the key parameters employed to recover
556 palladium with an excellent selectivity over base metals such as copper and iron. Limits
557 arise as each system is different, and the weight of each parameter (water, acid, metal,
558 diluent...) has to be established in each case. As a general guideline, all the data gathered
559 suggest that water uptake by the organic phase is a good indicator of the importance of
560 aggregation for a given system. Water can only be stabilized in non-polar organic phase
561 through the formation of reverse aggregates. The simple Karl-Fischer titration of a given
562 organic phase can be seen as a pertinent starting analysis.

563 Another interesting perspective arises from this work. Molecular modeling appears as a

564 more and more useful tool, as well as for understanding and for prediction. DFT at the
565 molecular level and molecular dynamics at the supramolecular level are now sufficiently
566 accurate to account for observed data, and contribute to the interpretation of experimental
567 analyses such as SAXS, SANS, EXAFS. Curiously, the less described parameter is
568 maybe the most important: coordination free energy. DFT does not enable to reach the
569 absolute precision needed to account for the low differences responsible for the selective
570 transfer of a metallic cation. It is indeed very difficult to model the transfer from aqueous to
571 organic media at the molecular level with reasonable calculation durations. And molecular
572 dynamics rely on a set of parameters which have to be fixed beforehand, including the
573 coordination energy. Complementary experimental data is thus needed, and techniques
574 such as calorimetry remain underexploited. Regarding relative effects and comparisons –
575 between two metals or two extractants – there is no major difficulty to predict which system
576 will lead to the best result. And the picture given by computational modelling is of great
577 help, especially now that it is rather a movie which represents at best the fact that the
578 organic phase is a dynamic system, with aggregates of molecules of variable sizes and
579 compositions, only appreciated through a mean distribution thanks to the analyses. Having
580 this dynamics in mind – contrary to the static vision of a pure metal coordination complex
581 or pure reverse micelle of well-defined size – is of paramount importance in order to
582 propose performing systems.

583

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587 Rare Earth Element reCYCling with Low harmful Emissions.

Figure 1: Depletion of water-in-oil aggregates from poor solvents: Transition from weak aggregates towards reverse micelles (adapted from Guilbaud et al.[15])

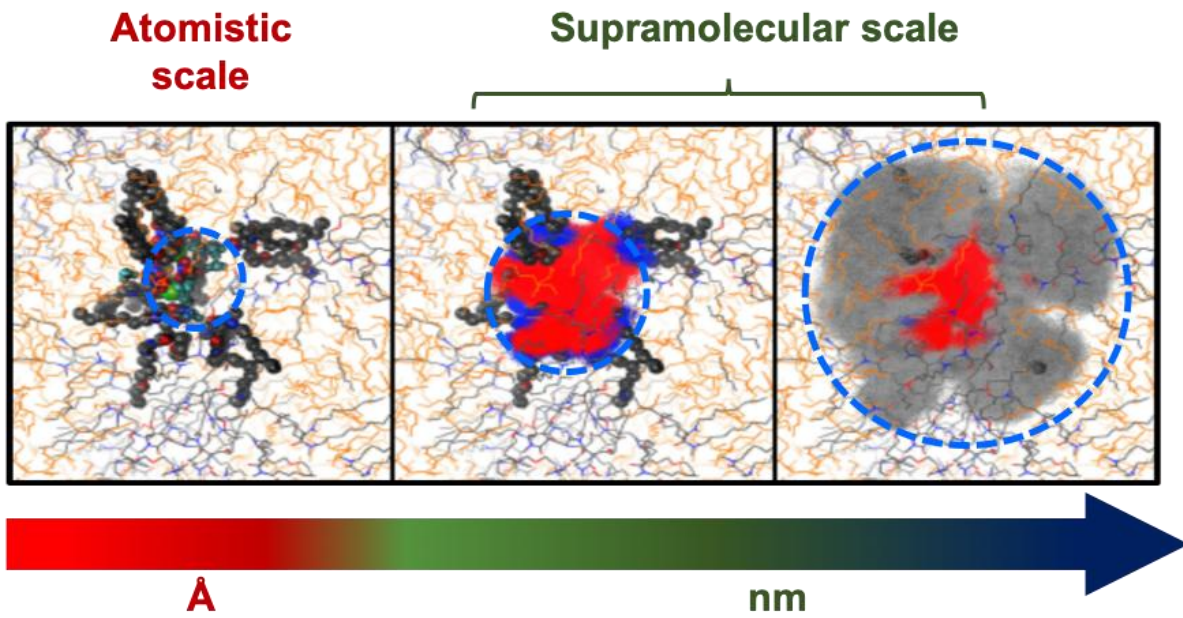


Figure 2: CAC determination from interfacial tension measurements between organic and aqueous phases of extraction (a) and comparison of CAC values and uncertainties obtained with tensiometry, SAXS and SANS (b).

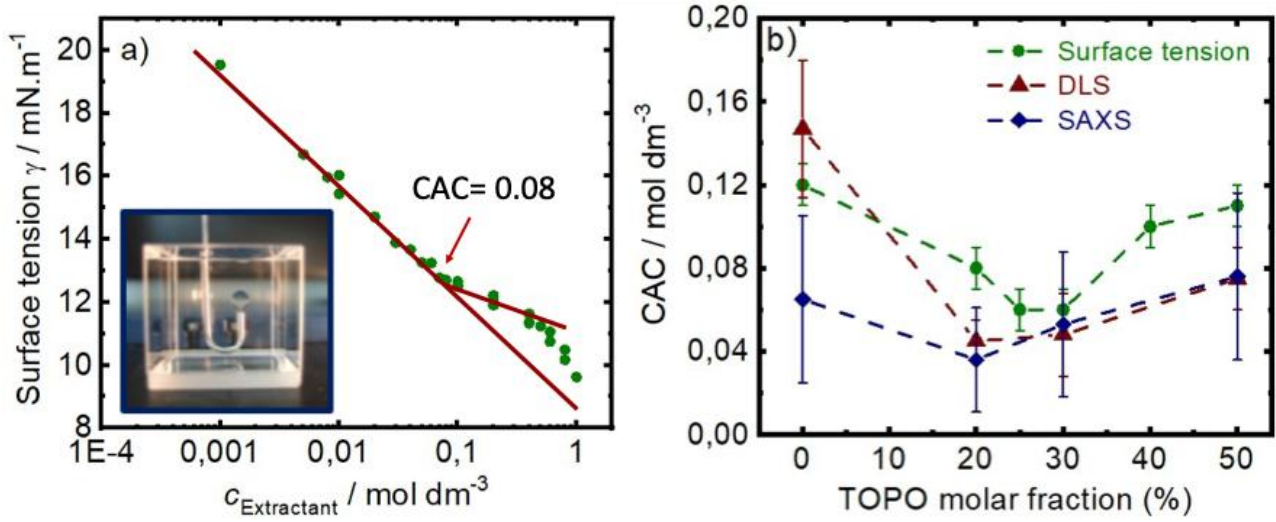


Figure 3: a) SAXS data of extractant DMDOHEMA for increasing HNO₃ concentrations; b) Schematic illustration of aggregation induced by acid concentration.

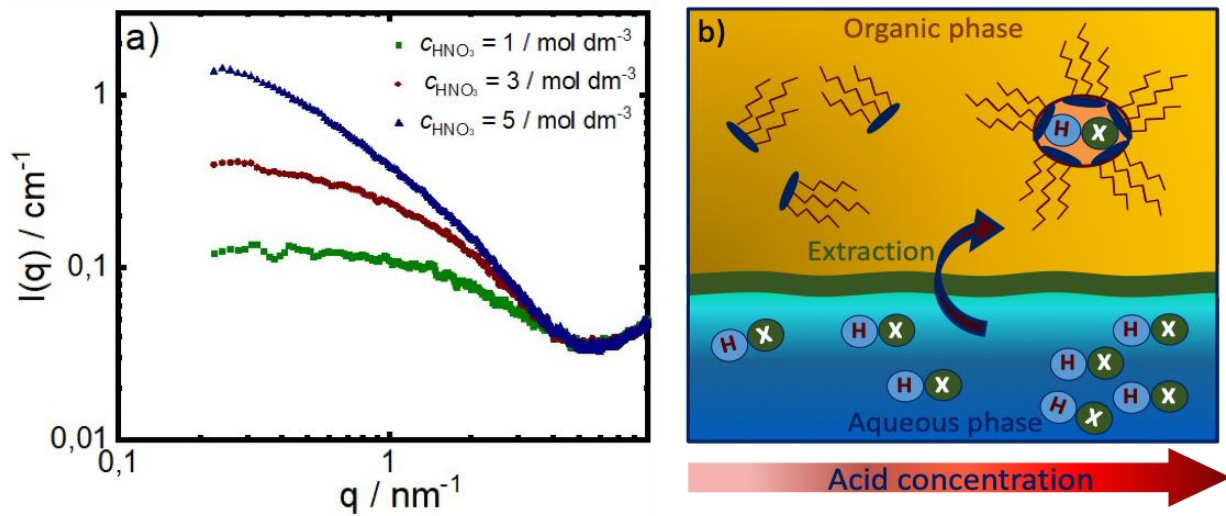


Figure 4: a) Diluent effect of various alkanes on aggregation and selective extraction of the synergistic system HDEHP/TOPO. Selective extraction is also expressed as a double difference of free energy of transfer between U and Fe;[29] b) Effect of hydrogenated and perfluorinated malonamide extractants on their aggregation and extraction yields of Nd and Pd [43].

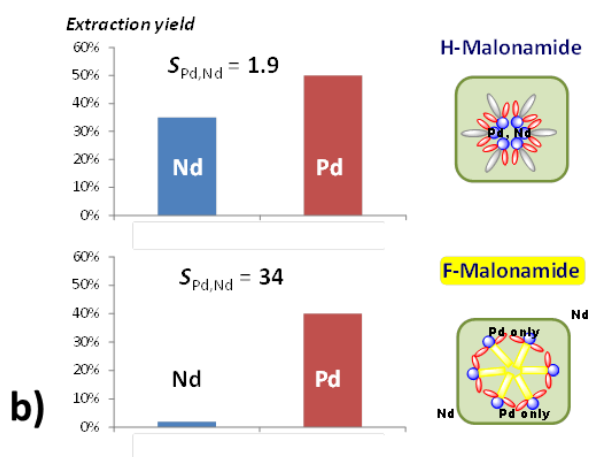
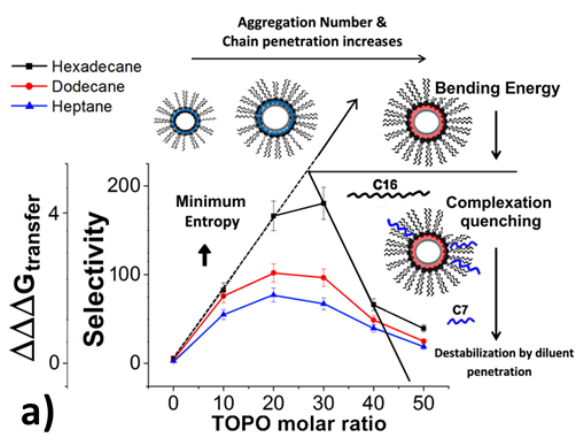


Figure 5: (Left side): Location of the relative chemical potentials of the electrolyte during liquid-liquid extraction: the reference chemical potentials μ_0 are indicated explicitly. The water rich phase is represented in blue and the solvent phase in orange, while the interface or rather the interphase is schematized by a thick green undulating line; (Right side): Graphical free energy balance schematizing the interplay between supramolecular complexation (red arrow), the bulk term associated to mass action law as well as the chain reconfiguration term and the internal energy of the polar cores.

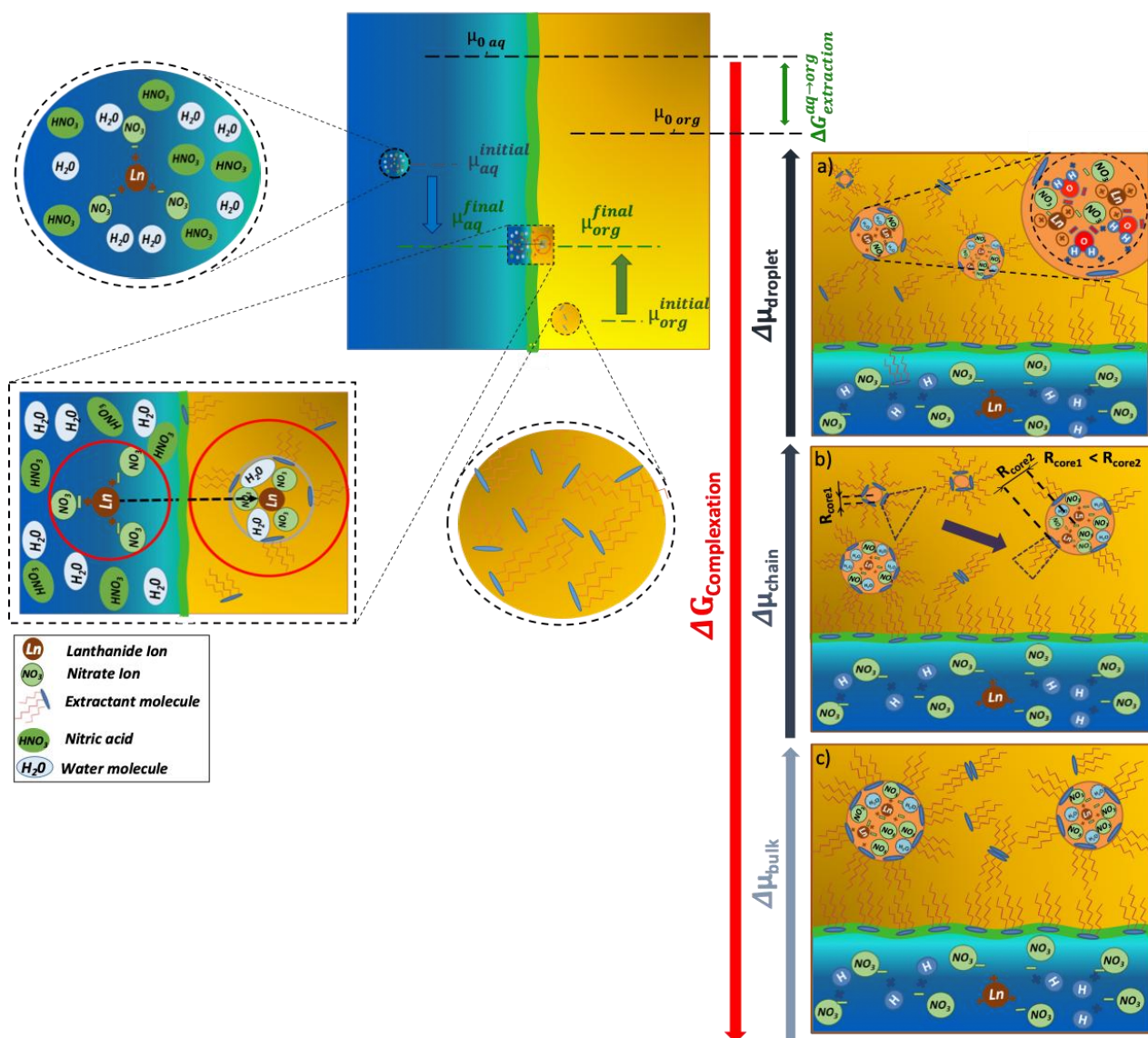


Figure 6: Relative importance of complexation and aggregation as extraction driving forces. a) Case of metallic cation concentration effect, highlighting free energy difference between concentrated (+) and diluted (-) media;[85] b) Case of aggregation state of the organic phase, highlighting free energy double difference between Nd(III) and Pd(II), and weak or high aggregation obtained at high or low aqueous acid concentration respectively.[46]

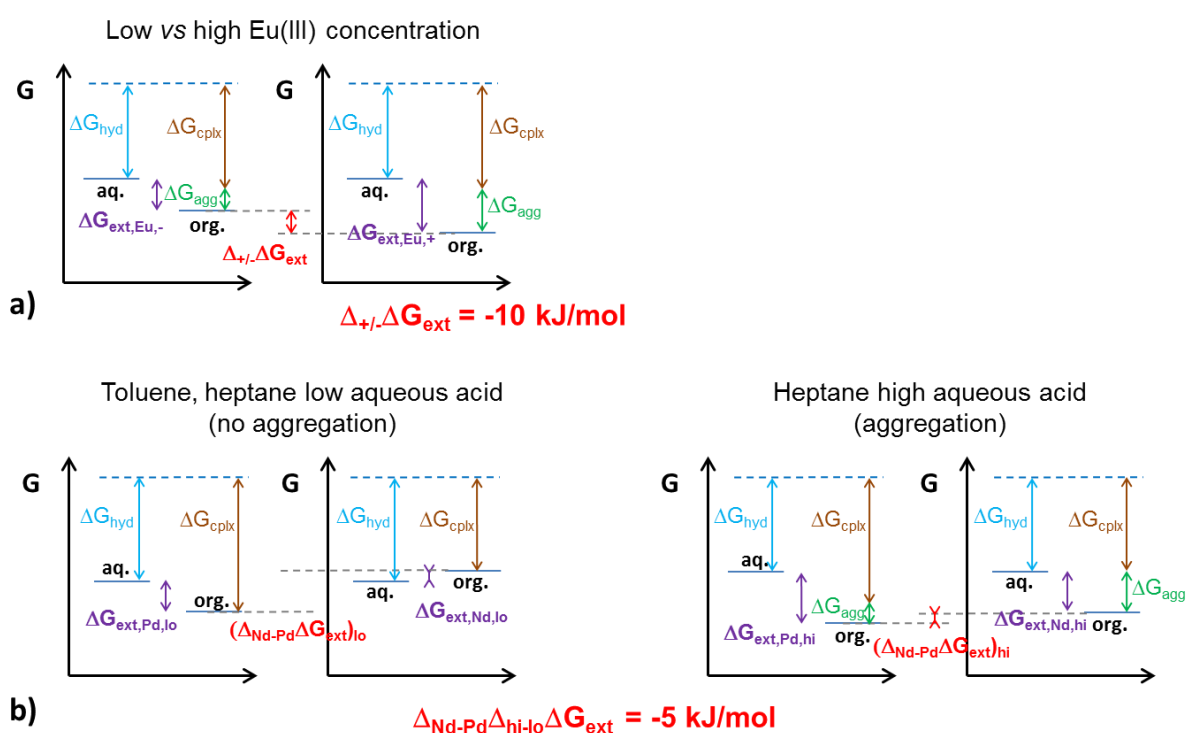
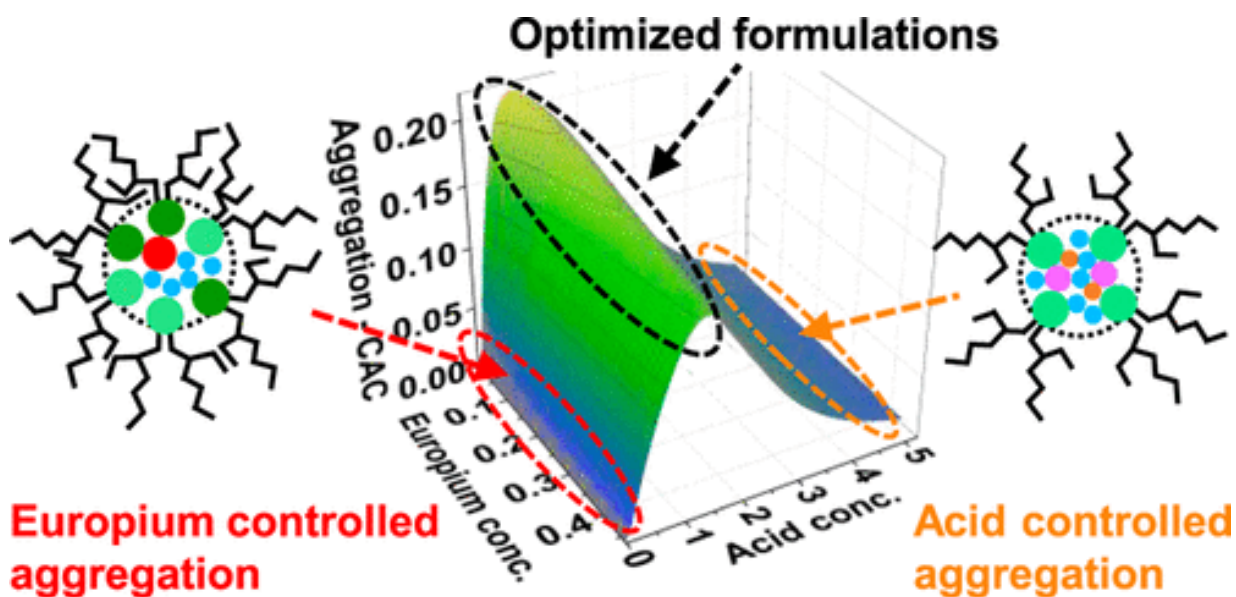


Figure 7: Optimized formulations for extraction of rare earth elements: intermediate between metal-controlled and acid-controlled organization of the organic phase as modelled by Spadina et al. (Figure taken from ref. [69], further permissions related to the material excerpted should be directed to the ACS)



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