

3D-Printed Porous Supramolecular Sorbents for Cobalt Recycling

Keldy S. Mason,[†] Sheng-Yin Huang,[†] Samuel K. Emslie,[‡] Qian Zhang,[‡] Simon M. Humphrey,[‡] Jonathan L. Sessler,^{*} and Zachariah A. Page^{*}



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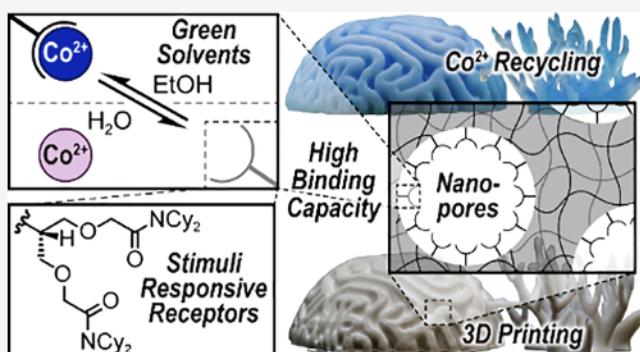
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ABSTRACT: Electronic waste recycling is a recognized global challenge that requires new strategies to bind and release critical materials selectively, such as cobalt present in lithium-ion batteries. To address this challenge, hierarchical 3D-printed porous polymer scaffolds bearing supramolecular receptors were prepared using vat photopolymerization and their cobalt binding profiles were examined as a function of matrix polarity. By combining high-resolution digital light processing (DLP) with polymerization-induced phase separation (PIPS), functional acrylic copolymer networks with micrometer-level precision of geometry and nanometer-level pores were generated. Covalent integration of a methacrylate-functionalized bisdicyclohexyl acetamide (BDCA-MA) receptor enabled binding and release of cobalt(II) chloride (CoCl_2) via a solvent polarity switch mechanism involving a change in solvent from ethanol to water. The present structures proved reusable as shown by sustained high binding efficiency over five bind and release cycles. This platform represents a “green” and energy conscious method for future electronic waste recycling.



INTRODUCTION

Cobalt is an essential element required for a range of technologies such as (e.g., electric vehicles).^{1–3} It is also a critical material that suffers from international supply chain instability. Exacerbating the availability problem is that over 70% of cobalt production occurs in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), where mining and refinement practices are detrimental to both human health and the environment.^{3,4} Recycling cobalt from end-of-life waste offers a possible self-sufficient and sustainable solution to these issues (Figure 1A).^{5,6} Conventional metallurgical recycling approaches rely primarily on liquid–liquid extraction (LLE) using phosphorus-containing ligands, such as Cyanex 272.^{7,8} Although effective, third phase formation (i.e., emulsion), secondary waste generation, and loss of extractant limits the widespread use of LLE for cobalt recycling (Figure 1B).⁹ Thus, alternatives to LLE that require fewer processing steps, minimize waste, and enhance extractant reuse are needed.

Immobilized receptors combine ease of reuse with tunable selectivity and affinity, making them an attractive platform for critical material recycling.¹⁰ Furthermore, noncovalent (e.g., ionic) interactions with supramolecular receptors are highly dependent on environmental factors, such as solvent polarity, which enables on-demand bind-and-release. Recently, such an approach has been investigated by our group for selective recovery of lithium from LiCl ¹¹ and LiPF_6 ¹² using acetonitrile-to-methanol solvent switching to promote uptake and release (Figure 1B). In these strategies, we synthesized receptor-laden

organo-gels¹¹ and polystyrene beads¹² via direct copolymerization and post-functionalization, respectively. However, these fabrication methods have geometric design constraints, and the resultant materials are either mechanically weak or have low surface area-to-volume ratios and thus poor ion capacity densities. As an alternative, nanoporous inclusions in granular separation systems (i.e., beads) have been used to maximize the surface area-to-volume ratio for capturing a wide range of analytes such as Li,¹³ Na,¹⁴ Ca,¹⁴ Co,¹⁵ Ni,¹⁵ Mo,¹⁶ V,¹⁶ and Eu.¹⁷ However, their operation is energy intensive owing to the high pressures required for sufficient fluid flow (i.e., flux). In contrast, nanoporous flat sheet membrane structures can facilitate high flux, but at the price of generally unfavorable surface area-to-volume ratios.¹⁸ Thus, there exists a trade-off between ion binding capacity per unit volume and fluid flow. Managing this dichotomy constitutes an all-but-unmet challenge.

To date, strategies to overcome the capacity-flux paradigm have relied on clever geometric designs across the nano- to macroscale continuum. This includes microstructuring (e.g., corrugating),^{19–22} combining multiple flat sheet membranes

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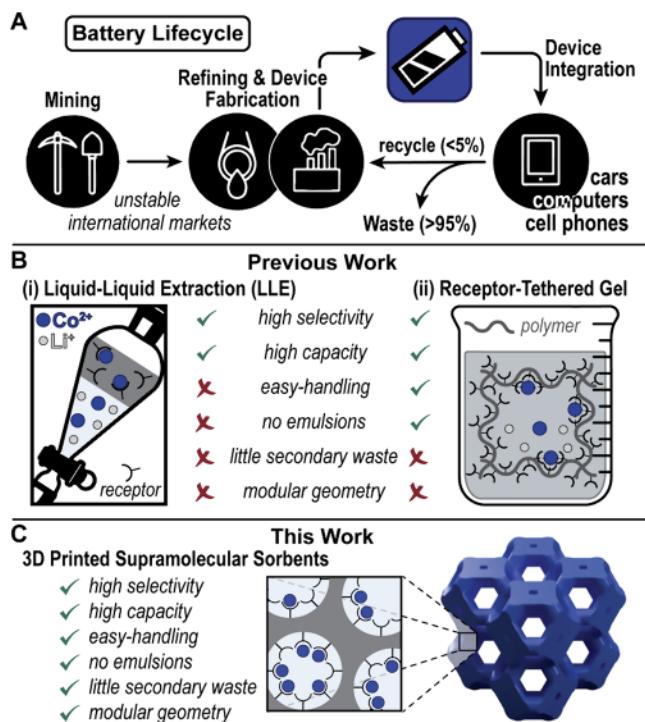


Figure 1. Life cycle of critical materials for batteries and methods for recycling. (A) Typical lifecycle of cobalt for batteries. (B) Contemporary strategies for critical material recovery by means of (i) liquid–liquid extraction with Cyanex-272 to recover CoCl_2 and (ii) using organogels containing tethered receptors to recover LiCl . (C) Present work where 3D-printed structured supramolecular sorbents selectively bind and release CoCl_2 .

into a single module (cartridge),^{23–25} and curling hollow-fiber membranes.^{26–29} The apparent importance of multiscale geometric control for high performance ion separations has put 3D printing in the spotlight as an attractive manufacturing tool for this application. In turn, recent studies have emerged where 3D-printed scaffolds have been used in gas separations,³⁰ nuclear wastewater treatment,³¹ Au, Pd, Pt, and Co electronic waste recycling,^{32,33} oil extractions from contaminated water,³⁴ and perchlorate remediation.³⁵ Despite these impressive advances, the combination of supramolecular receptors, nanoporous materials, and high-resolution 3D printing for separations, to our knowledge, has not been considered in the context of metal ion recognition. It is thus an open question whether such an approach can be used to produce sorbents for critical metal cation capture. As detailed below, we have now found that digital light processing (DLP)³⁶ 3D printing can be leveraged as a high resolution, scalable,³⁶ and low-waste tool to fabricate hierarchical sorbents for cobalt recycling (Figure 1C).

The present approach relies on polymerization-induced phase separation (PIPS) from a photocurable resin that serves to install nanopores during the DLP printing process. To allow for cobalt capture, a methacrylate functionalized tetradentate bisdicyclohexyl acetamide (BDCA) ligand was synthesized and directly incorporated into the 3D prints. Based upon our prior studies using glycolamide-based receptors, such as BDCA, for solvent-polarity-dependent binding of lithium,¹² we postulated that cobalt would also bind with BDCA due to the similarities in coordination preferences between the two ions. Indeed, binding and release of cobalt chloride was demonstrated using

ethanol and water as “green” solvents for polarity switching. Furthermore, the influence of nanopore size and microscopic lattice geometry were systematically examined with respect to binding capacity and rate of adsorption, showcasing the utility of structured sorbents in critical material recycling.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Receptor Synthesis. The porous sorbents described herein were prepared from a resin mixture containing a support monomer, receptor comonomer, and porogens (Figure 2A). A copolymerization approach was chosen to install the receptor in one step, ensuring incorporation with precise control over content via feed ratios, while mitigating the presence of unreacted functional groups that would occur if using a post-polymerization strategy.³⁷ The BDCA receptor was selected for Co^{2+} recycling given its precedent to bind and release LiPF_6 with high selectivity in acetonitrile,¹² along with the known affinity of glycolamides for transition metals.^{38,39} To start, a polymerizable methacrylate handle was installed on the BDCA receptor to enable copolymerization with commercially available acrylate monomers commonly employed as resins for 3D printing. This was accomplished by reacting *tert*-butoxycarbonyl (BOC) protected 2-aminopropane-1,3-diol (1) with 2-bromo-*N,N*-dicyclohexylacetamide (2) in the presence of sodium hydride to generate the corresponding BOC-protected BDCA (3) (Scheme 1). Subsequent BOC deprotection with trifluoroacetic acid followed immediately by amide formation with methacryloyloxyethyl succinate (MA-OSu) provided the desired BDCA-methacrylate (BDCA-MA) monomer (Scheme 1). Copolymerization between BDCA-MA and carbitol acrylate (model monomer) initiated by phenylbis-(2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl)phosphine oxide (BAPO) upon exposure to 405 nm light provided good receptor incorporation as desired (Figure S1). This proved true even though NMR spectroscopic analyses revealed that BDCA-MA reacted slightly faster than the carbitol acrylate.

Polymerization-Induced Phase Separation. Inspired by work from Levkin and co-workers⁴⁰ on 3D printing nanoporous structures via PIPS, we developed an analogous resin that incorporates BDCA-MA. Using tripropylene glycol diacrylate (TPGDA) as the support material, 1-decanol (dec) and cyclohexanol (cyc) as porogens, and BAPO as the photoinitiator, PIPS was evaluated for a range of monomer to porogen ratios, as well as the 1-decanol to cyclohexanol ratios (Figure 2A).

To correlate composition to phase separation, films were cast between glass slides with 75 μm spacers, irradiated with a 405 nm LED (5.0 mW/cm²) for 120 s, washed with acetone to remove porogens and residual monomer, and dried in a vacuum oven overnight. The transmittance of each film was then measured and used to construct a ternary phase separation diagram using poly(TPGDA) prepared without porogens as a baseline (Figure 2B and Figure S2). A reduction in transmittance was taken as an indication of phase separation due to light scattering arising from nanoscale features. Therefore, transmittance below \sim unity was deemed as evidence for effective PIPS. On this basis, it was concluded that resins containing 50 wt % TPGDA relative to porogen resulted in phase separation, while higher TPGDA contents (lower porogen concentrations) did not phase separate (Figure 2B). Qualitatively, varying the cyclohexanol to 1-decanol ratios while maintaining a constant TPGDA content of 50 wt % provided good control over the extent of PIPS, as indicated by

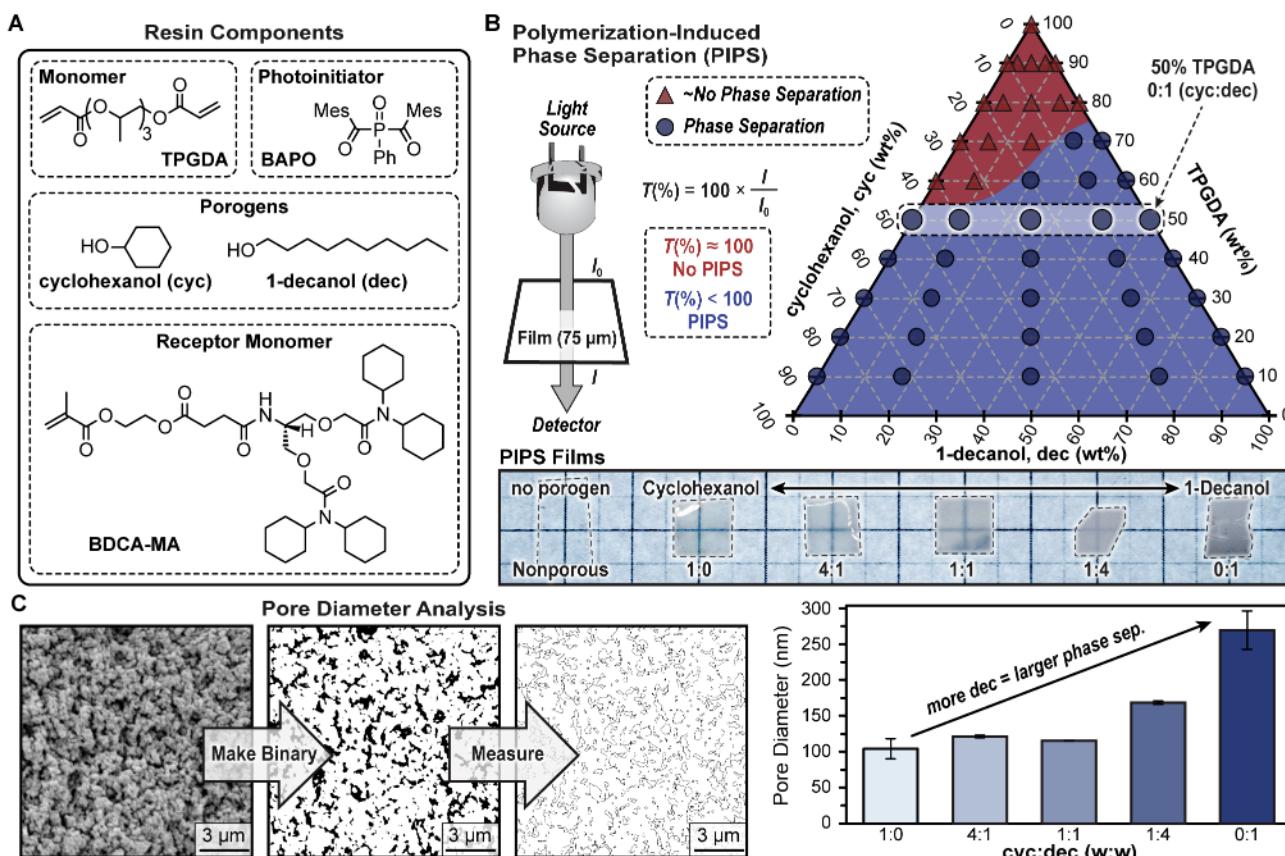
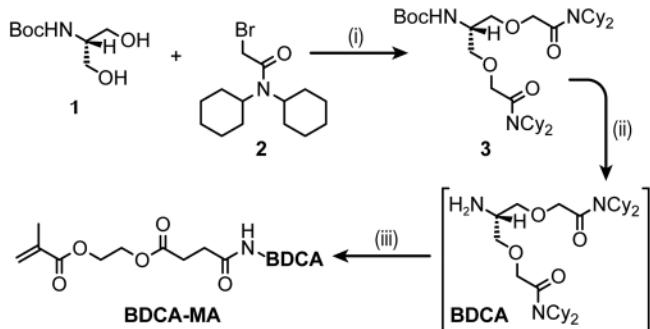


Figure 2. Resin formulation and corresponding polymerization-induced phase separation (PIPS). (A) Chemical structures of resin components. (B) Depiction of film transmittance measurements and ternary plot showing the resin formulations that either do or do not undergo PIPS. Selected resin formulations containing 1:1 porogens to TPGDA are indicated. Image of the films prepared with a range of cyclohexanol to 1-decanol ratios and the no-porogen control. (C) Representative image and analysis for a 0:1 cyclohexanol to 1-decanol sample using SEM and ImageJ. Bar chart with average pore diameters (nm) for resins prepared with 1:0 to 0:1 cyclohexanol/1-decanol ratios. Pore diameters are averages from three trials with error bars representing one standard deviation from the mean.

Scheme 1. Synthesis of bis-dicyclohexylacetamide methacrylate (BDCA-MA)²⁴



^aConditions: (i) NaH , THF , 85°C ; (ii) CF_3COOH , CH_2Cl_2 ; (iii) methacryloyloxyethyl succinate (MA-OSu), NEt_3 , CH_2Cl_2 , 80°C .

a decrease in transmittance (increase in opacity) as the ratio decreased (i.e., more 1-decanol; Figure 2B, images). Thus, going forward we chose to use 50 wt % porogen relative to TPGDA (Tables S1 and S2). The same samples were prepared using critical point drying (CPD) instead of vacuum oven drying to mitigate pore collapse. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed to determine pore sizes following a previously reported image analysis protocol.^{40–42} This analysis revealed pore diameters of 100 ± 10 , 122 ± 2 , 115 ± 1 , 168 ± 2 , and 270 ± 30 nm for cyclohexanol/1-decanol ratios of 1:0, 4:1, 1:1, 1:4, and 0:1, respectively (Figure 2C and Figures S3 and S4). These results served to corroborate the qualitative observation of opacity, where increasing the amount of 1-decanol relative to cyclohexanol was found to produce larger phase separated domains and bigger pores upon removal of the porogens. The incorporation of BDCA-MA into the polymer network using this method was next confirmed using elemental analysis and attenuated total reflectance (ATR) Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. By increasing the receptor feed from 0 to 5 mol % relative to TPGDA, the resultant polymers were found to contain nitrogen contents of $0.113 \pm 0.006\%$ to $0.57 \pm 0.02\%$, respectively (Table S3). This correlates well with the theoretical loading levels (nitrogen content = 0.13 and 0.60%, respectively). These findings were thus taken as evidence that receptor loading had been successfully achieved. ATR-FTIR spectroscopy of the polymers further confirmed the incorporation of BDCA-MA as inferred from the presence of secondary amine and amide signatures at 3270 cm^{-1} (N–H stretching) and 1639 cm^{-1} (C=O stretching), respectively (Figure S7). On this basis, we conclude that light-driven PIPS from resins containing BDCA-MA constitutes a viable strategy for the preparation of materials with tunable pore size and receptor content.

Digital Light Processing (DLP) 3D Printing. Polymeric objects were prepared using digital light processing (DLP) 3D

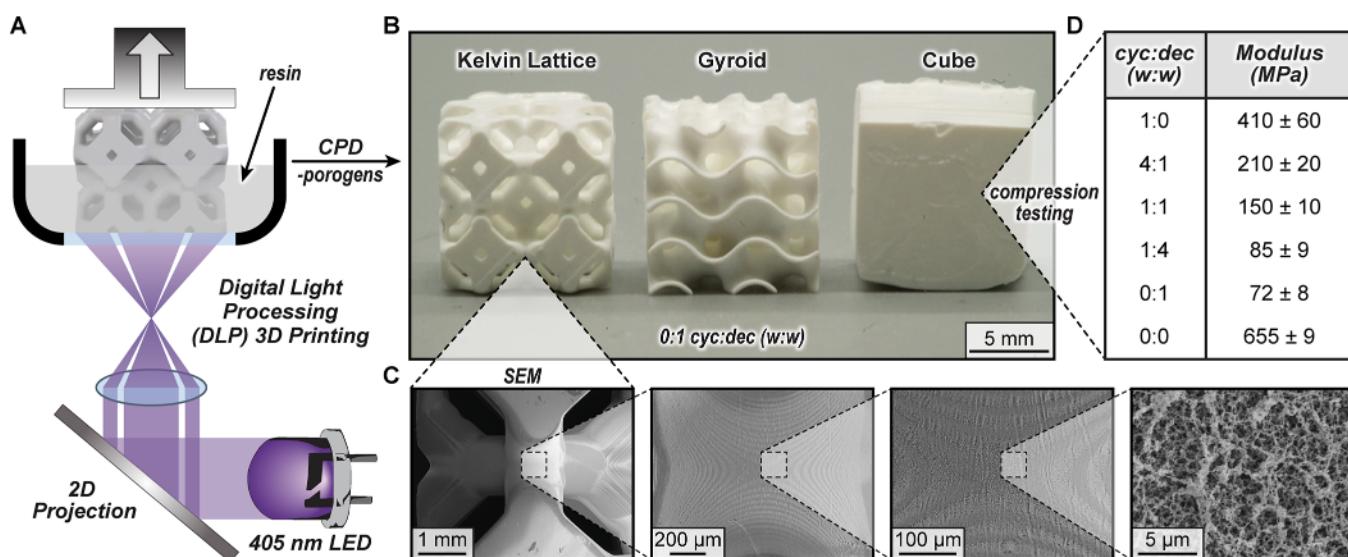


Figure 3. Digital light processing (DLP) 3D printing and analyses. (A) Schematic representation of DLP 3D printing that contains a light emitting diode (LED), digital mirror device (DMD), vat with liquid resin, and build platform. (B) Representative images of printed and critical point dried (CPD) kelvin lattice, gyroid, and cube ($10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm}$), prepared from resins containing a 0:1 cyclohexanol/1-decanol ratio. (C) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the kelvin lattice ($10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm}$) prepared with 0:1 cyclohexanol/1-decanol ratio. (D) Average compression testing elastic moduli of cubes ($5\text{ mm} \times 5\text{ mm} \times 5\text{ mm}$) prepared with different porogen ratios. Moduli values are averages from three trials with one standard deviation from the mean provided.

printing, which is a layer-by-layer stereolithography technique that provides an attractive combination of build speed, feature resolution,⁴³ and isotropic mechanical properties.⁴⁴ All objects were produced using the following print settings: bottom-up LED exposure with a central wavelength of 405 nm, intensity of 8.6 mW/cm^2 , and 1 s irradiation time per $25\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ layer (Figure 3A). Printed objects were soaked in ethanol to remove residual resin components. The resulting structures could be used directly for ion sorption experiments (i.e., without drying); however, CPD was employed to characterize structure and enable the gravimetric analyses used to quantify ion capacity (vide infra).⁴⁰ The accessible surface areas of dried samples prepared as printed cylinders ($3\text{ mm} \times 22\text{ mm}$) were estimated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) approach with N_2 as the probe gas. These studies revealed a general trend of increasing surface area from 20.3 ± 0.3 to $45.4 \pm 0.3\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ as the pore size decreased from $270 \pm 30\text{ nm}$ to $122 \pm 2\text{ nm}$ for samples prepared from resins containing cyclohexanol to 1-decanol ratios of 0:1 and 4:1, respectively (Table S4 and Figure S8). These surface area and pore size values are on the same order of magnitude as those previously reported for materials prepared by PIPS.⁴⁰ Notably, the samples with the smallest pores ($\sim 100\text{ nm}$ as measured on the films using SEM), had a lower measured surface area relative to those having the next smallest pores ($\sim 120\text{ nm}$). This finding is attributed to the presence of phase mixed regions or isolated pores (Figure S5).⁴⁵ Finally, density measurements of 3D-printed cubes revealed porosity values that increased from 24 ± 2 to $50.6 \pm 0.9\%$ upon increasing the pore size from ~ 100 to 300 nm (Table S5). To test whether the present additive manufacturing approach would allow access to complex microarchitectures, three structures were produced all having $10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm}$ outer dimensions, namely cube, kelvin lattice, and gyroid.⁴⁶ Such geometric control has the potential to enable production of mechanically robust sorbents with improved longevity and reuse, along with the ability to maximize capacity and flux.⁴⁷ The structures were produced

with high feature fidelity, as demonstrated by hole diameters of $\sim 500\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the kelvin lattice and wall thicknesses of $\sim 375\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in the gyroids (Figure 3B). This printing process thus provided hierarchical structures that span the nm to mm length scales as determined from SEM imaging that revealed nanoporous voids, micrometer-steps analogous to those in corrugated membranes,^{21,22} and millimeter lattices (Figure 3C). The influence of pore size on the mechanical integrity was also examined by carrying out uniaxial compression tests on $5\text{ mm} \times 5\text{ mm} \times 5\text{ mm}$ nanoporous cubes. These studies revealed elastic moduli (E) ranging from 410 ± 60 to $72 \pm 8\text{ MPa}$ for 100% cyclohexanol ($\sim 100\text{ nm}$ pores) to 100% 1-decanol ($\sim 300\text{ nm}$ pores), respectively (Figure 3D and Figure S9). Thus, we conclude that the stiffness of the present printed structures could be tuned by controlling porosity. This ability, in turn, provides a mechanism to design sorbents appropriate to meet the demands of a particular separations process (e.g., specific fluid pressures).

Cobalt(II) Chloride Binding. Although attempts to grow single crystals of BDCA- CoCl_2 were unsuccessful, a diffraction-grade BDCA- NiCl_2 crystal was obtained via vapor diffusion from diethyl ether into an ethyl acetate solution containing BDCA- NiCl_2 and served as a proxy. The resulting cluster-like structure revealed the presence of octahedral complexes, chloride-bridged bimetallic complexes, and a tetrachlorometallate (Figure S11). In solution, these coordination complexes can exist in equilibrium with multiple species.^{48–50} This complexity precluded the attainment of reliable binding constants for the free receptors. However, for the case of immobilized receptors, the relative affinities could be inferred from Freundlich constant and exponents (vide infra).

The Co^{2+} binding profiles of 3D-printed sorbents were measured in so-called “green” solvents, namely ethanol (EtOH), isopropyl alcohol (IPA), and water (H_2O), to determine the most selective analyte binding and release environments. Kelvin lattices ($10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm} \times 10\text{ mm}$) containing 5 mol % BDCA receptor and $\sim 120\text{ nm}$ pores (from

cyclohexanol/1-decanol 1:1) were placed in a container with a defined concentration (~mM) of cobalt chloride (CoCl_2) or lithium chloride (LiCl) (Figure 4A). After allowing to stand for

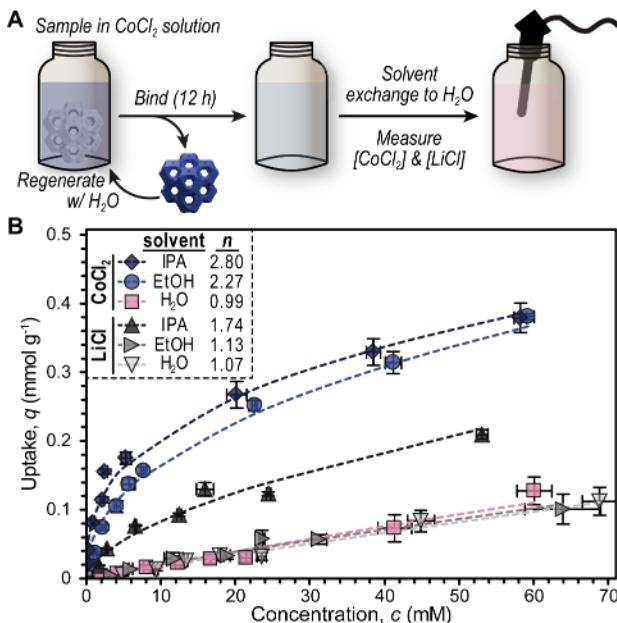


Figure 4. Ion binding and selectivity for 3D-printed kelvin lattices containing 5 mol \square BDCA and \sim 120 nm pores (from cyclohexanol/1-decanol 1:1). (A) Illustration of the process used to determine ion binding via conductivity measurements. (B) Binding isotherms for CoCl_2 and LiCl in various solvents, with uptake provided as millimoles of ions relative to grams of bulk sorbent. Dashed lines represent fits to a nonlinear Freundlich model. Symbols represent averages from three trials with error bars representing one standard deviation from the mean.

12 h to reach equilibrium, the 3D-printed structures were removed, the initial solvents were exchanged for water, and the conductivity values measured to determine ion concentrations by comparison to calibration curves (Figure S12). The experimental binding profiles were fit to nonlinear Freundlich isotherms with R^2 values exceeding 0.95. In these models, correction factors (n) provide insights into the ion binding interactions. Specifically, when $n^{-1} < 1$, binding is favorable, while $n^{-1} > 1$ indicates unfavorable binding.⁵¹ For CoCl_2 , strong binding in IPA and EtOH was observed, with n values of 2.80 and 2.27, respectively (Figure 4B). Conversely, weak binding of CoCl_2 in H_2O was observed, with an n value of 0.99. This difference allowed EtOH or IPA to be used as solvents for effective CoCl_2 binding, whereas treatment with H_2O could be used to effect Co^{2+} release. Ultimately, we think that this solvent polarity switching in combination with appropriately 3D-printed receptor-containing materials could be used for cobalt recycling.

The BDCA ligand has affinity for lithium salts. Given this propensity, and the presence of Li^+ in acid leachate from lithium-ion batteries⁵² (along with Co^{2+}), we next chose to examine the Li^+ binding capabilities of the present BDCA-MA based 3D-printed sorbents. These studies were further motivated by an appreciation of the difficulty in selectively separating these two ions (Co^{2+} vs Li^+) using contemporary strategies.^{53,54} The adsorption isotherms of LiCl in IPA and EtOH provided n values of 1.74 and 1.13, respectively, which were both lower than those for CoCl_2 (Figure 4B). The affinity

of the BDCA ligand for manganese- and nickel-salts was also examined given their increasing presence in lithium-ion battery cathodes. The Freundlich isotherms revealed that BDCA had a moderately higher affinity for CoCl_2 over NiCl_2 in EtOH ($n = 2.27$ vs 2.07), while a much lower affinity for MnCl_2 in EtOH was observed ($n = 1.14$, Figure S13). These results lead us to suggest that the 3D-printed sorbents can provide selectivity for Co^{2+} over Li^+ and Mn^{2+} in alcohol solvents. Based on the relatively large difference in binding affinity in EtOH, along with its reduced toxicity compared to IPA, further experiments were performed using EtOH as the solvent.

Next, the fundamental binding kinetics and capacities of the structured sorbents as a function of nanoporosity and microstructure were examined using the kelvin lattice. The blue appearance of tetrahedral cobalt complexes provides a distinct visual queue for adsorption and provides a colorimetric sensor for qualitatively assessing the extent of BDCA- CoCl_2 complex formation (Figure 5A). The colored sorbent was characterized using SEM and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy to determine the elemental composition. Mapping of cobalt and chlorine showed a similar homogeneous spatial distribution and provided a ratio of \sim 1:2 for Co/Cl. This elemental ratio is taken as evidence that the bound cobalt is in the 2+ oxidation state.

The influence of nanopore size on the rate of cobalt uptake was also determined. We hypothesized that increasing the pore size would lead to an increase in the rate of diffusive transport, and therefore uptake. To test this conjecture, kelvin lattices with pore sizes ranging from \sim 100 nm (cyclohexanol only) to \sim 300 nm (1-decanol only) were prepared with 5 mol \square BDCA, along with nonporous controls (Table S2). The rate of uptake was tracked by monitoring the change in absorption at 659 nm (tetrahedral cobalt complex) of the EtOH solution containing the printed object as a function of time. Changes in the CoCl_2 concentration were determined from a calibration curve (Figures S14 and S15). On this basis, we were able to confirm that the rate of uptake increased with pore size as predicted (Figure 5B). Specifically, samples with the largest pores (\sim 300 nm) exhibited a pseudo-first-order rate constant (k_1) of $8 \pm 1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$. Conversely, the samples containing the smallest pores (\sim 100 nm) displayed a k_1 of $4 \pm 2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$. This finding provides support for the suggestion that the CoCl_2 uptake in these samples is diffusion limited.

The influence of receptor loading on CoCl_2 equilibrium capacity was then examined for kelvin lattices containing nanopores of intermediate size (\sim 120 nm, from a 1:1 mixture of cyclohexanol/1-decanol). For these studies, samples were soaked in 25 mM CoCl_2 solutions (EtOH) and aliquots were removed after 48 h and the total uptake determined spectroscopically. As expected, increasing the BDCA receptor loading from 0 to 5 mol \square led to a corresponding increase in uptake, as noted by the visual increase in blue color (Figure 5C). Specifically, for 0, 1, 2.5, and 5 mol \square BDCA-MA uptake values of -0.7 ± 0.9 , 3.5 ± 0.8 , 9.5 ± 0.4 , and $12 \pm 2 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ were recorded, respectively. These uptake values correspond to $80 \pm 20 \square$, $89 \pm 5 \square$, and $60 \pm 8 \square$ of the theoretical maximum binding capacity. Analogous studies involving samples with the smallest nanopores (\sim 100 nm) and 2.5 mol \square BDCA-MA produced an uptake value of $5 \pm 1 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, which corresponds to a $50 \pm 10 \square$ binding capacity (Figure 5C). As expected, increasing the nanopore size to \sim 300 nm while maintaining 2.5

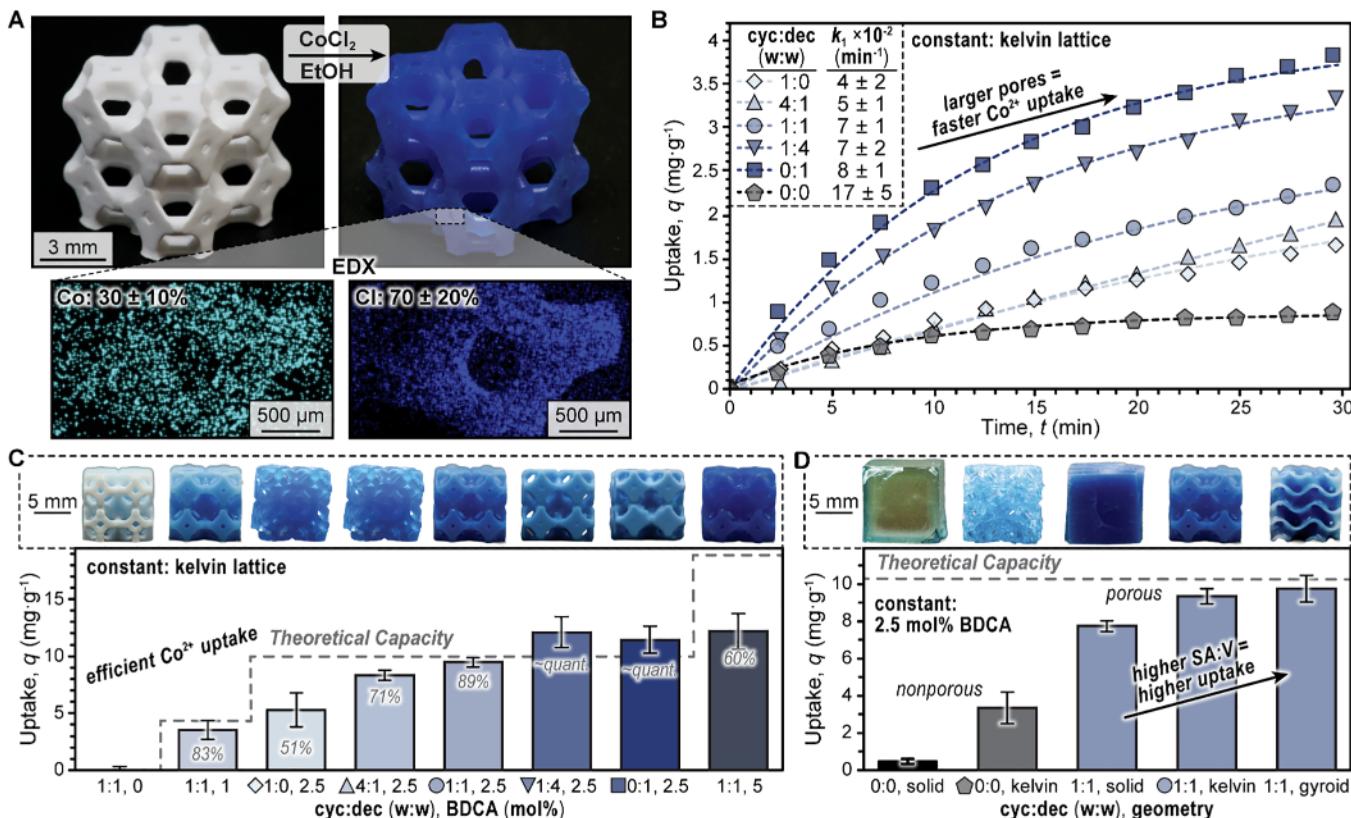


Figure 5. Adsorption of CoCl₂ to BDCA containing 3D-printed sorbents. (A) Digital camera images of a kelvin lattice comprising 5 mol \AA -BDCA before and after CoCl₂ binding in a 25 mM EtOH solution (top). SEM-EDX mapping images for Co and Cl on the sorbent surface (bottom). (B) Representative kinetic adsorption isotherms measured using UV-vis absorption spectroscopy. Symbols provided are indexed for clarity and the dashed lines represent a nonlinear pseudo-first order fit. Rate constants (k_1) were determined from an average of three trials with error representing one standard deviation from the mean. (C) Equilibrium uptake as a function of receptor loading and pore size for kelvin lattices. (D) Equilibrium uptake as a function of 3D microstructure. Data provided are averages from three trials with error bars representing one standard deviation from the mean. SA:V, surface area-to-volume ratio.

mol \AA BDCA led to nearly 100 \AA binding (Figure 5C and Figure S18).

Finally, the influence of microstructure on the CoCl₂ capacity and rate of uptake was examined (Figure 5D). Samples with cube, kelvin lattice, and gyroid geometries having nanopores of intermediate size (~ 120 nm, from a 1:1 mixture of cyclohexanol and 1-decanol) along with a nonporous cube control were tested following the same soaking and UV-vis absorption spectroscopy protocols used above. Geometries with larger surface-area-to-volume ratios (gyroid > kelvin lattice > cube > nonporous kelvin lattice > nonporous cube) were found to result in higher capacity and faster uptake rates (Figure 5D and Figure S16). Specifically, uptake values of $94 \pm 7\text{\AA}$, $91 \pm 4\text{\AA}$, $75 \pm 3\text{\AA}$, $32 \pm 8\text{\AA}$, and $5 \pm 1\text{\AA}$ relative to the theoretical maximum capacity were measured for the gyroid, kelvin lattice, cube, and nonporous kelvin lattice, respectively. These results demonstrate that the surface area-to-volume ratio influences the binding properties. Thus, performance can be related directly to both the nano- and microscale geometries that, in turn, are readily controllable via the present 3D printing approach.

To extend the present platform to real world critical material recycling requires both the ability to bind (“catch”) and release the desired ion, and to do so reproducibly over many cycles. We tested this capability via “green” solvent cycling between EtOH and H₂O with a 5 mol \AA BDCA-containing kelvin lattice having ~ 120 nm pores (prepared from a 1:1

cyclohexanol to 1-decanol porogen mixture) (Figure 6A). Samples were placed into a stock solution of CoCl₂ in EtOH (18.76 mM), allowed to bind for 12 h, and then removed. The conductivity of the stock solution was measured to determine the amount of bound CoCl₂ relative to a calibration curve (Figure S12). This revealed a $78 \pm 2\text{\AA}$ binding capacity, which was comparable to that obtained using UV-vis absorption spectroscopy on an analogous sample (5 mol \AA BDCA, 120 nm pores, kelvin lattice) after a 48 h soak to allow equilibrium to be reached ($60 \pm 8\text{\AA}$ binding, Figure 5C). Subsequently, the Co-laden sorbent was placed in pure H₂O for 12 h and the conductivity was measured to assess the amount of released CoCl₂ based on a calibration curve (Figure S12). Notably, $90 \pm 1\text{\AA}$ of the bound CoCl₂ was released after the first cycle, which was further supported by a visual loss in sorbent color (i.e., blue to white) (Figure 6A). The release of CoCl₂ is attributed to an increase in ion–solvent interaction strength that follows the spectrochemical series⁵⁵ for increasing polarity in going from ethanol to water. Repeating this process with the regenerated sorbent over a total of 5 cycles revealed no statistically significant change in binding or release capacity. Additionally, no change to the morphology (Figure S6) or elastic moduli of representative samples post cycling was observed (Figure S10). On this basis we conclude that the present system provides for good reproducibility when subject to repeated use.

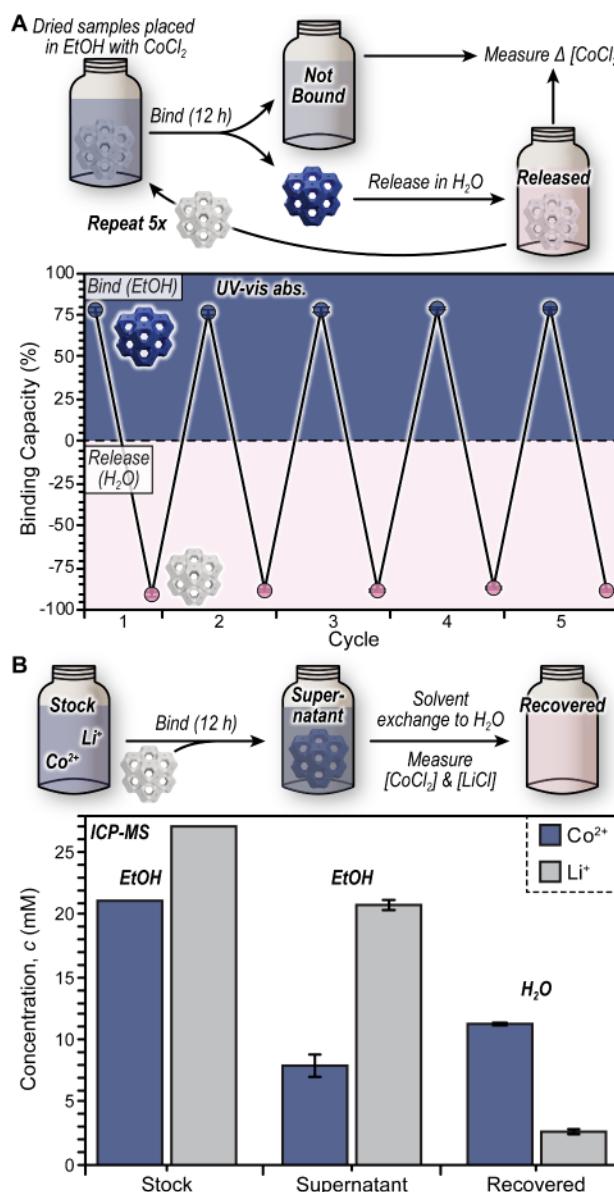


Figure 6. Reusability and selectivity of 5 mol % BDCA-containing 3D-printed kelvin lattice sorbents when tested for cobalt binding and release. (A) Illustration and experimental data for cyclic catch-and-release experiments. Release percentage is relative to the amount of CoCl_2 bound in that same cycle. (B) Illustration and experimental data for Co^{2+} over Li^+ selectivity. All data are the averages of three independent trials with error bars representing one standard deviation from the mean.

LiCoO_2 is currently the most common cathode material in portable batteries.⁵⁶ Recycling of these batteries includes an early stage acid (e.g., HCl) leaching step. This produces a mixture of Co^{2+} and Li^+ from which it is notoriously difficult to separate out the individual ions. We thus sought to determine the selectivity of the present sorbents for Co^{2+} over Li^+ . With this goal in mind, we prepared a simulated leachate solution containing LiCl and CoCl_2 in EtOH (2 mL) and placed three distinct 5 mol % BDCA-containing 3D-printed kelvin lattices (230 mg sample, ~120 nm pores) in the mixed ion solution (Figure 6B). Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis revealed initial concentrations of 27.0 and 21.1 mM for Li^+ and Co^{2+} , respectively. After soaking the

sorbents in the solution for 12 h, the now blue samples were removed, rinsed with EtOH, and then placed in pure H_2O (2 mL) for 12 h to release the bound ions. At the end of this procedure, the initial ethanol phase was found to contain a considerably higher ratio of Li^+ to Co^{2+} with concentrations of 20.7 ± 0.4 mM and 7.9 ± 0.9 mM being recorded for Li^+ and Co^{2+} , respectively (Figure 6B). Conversely, the final aqueous phase was found to contain 2.6 ± 0.2 mM of Li^+ and 11.2 ± 0.1 mM of Co^{2+} . This corresponds to a 5.6× reduction in the Li^+ to Co^{2+} ratio, from 1.28 to 0.23. The selectivity of the 3D-printed support for Co^{2+} over Li^+ corresponds to the binding isotherms in ethanol (see Figure 3B) and is taken as evidence that the BDCA-containing 3D-printed kelvin lattices bind Co^{2+} more strongly than Li^+ . More broadly, these findings lead us to suggest that 3D-printed nanoporous polymer sorbents, such as those described here, may enable effective lithium-ion battery recycling with minimal secondary waste generation.

CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

In this study, we detail the preparation and testing of a 3D-printed hierarchical nanoporous sorbent platform for cobalt recycling. A novel methacrylate-functionalized bisidicyclohexyl acetamide receptor was synthesized and copolymerized with a commercial diacrylate and porogens to form nanoporous materials via photoinitiated polymerization-induced phase separation. Digital light processing allowed the 3D printing of objects with defined microstructures. The influence of nano- and microscale features on the CoCl_2 uptake rate and binding capacity in ethanol was systematically examined. A direct positive correlation with higher surface area-to-volume ratios was found. Furthermore, efficient release of captured CoCl_2 in a benign aqueous environment was demonstrated, along with excellent sorbent reusability through five catch-and-release cycles with no apparent loss in performance being observed. Finally, selective binding of CoCl_2 over LiCl was achieved in simulated ethanolic battery leachates.

The present results demonstrate the potential of this platform in the context of cobalt recycling from spent lithium-ion batteries. Given its modularity, low cost, and minimal waste generation, we propose that the present strategy can be generalized to allow for the beneficiation and recycling of critical materials. Current efforts are devoted to exploring this possibility.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.3c12635>.

Experimental (materials, instrumentation, and synthesis) and characterization details (PDF)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2313514 contains the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

Zachariah A. Page — Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States;

orcid.org/0000-0002-1013-5422; Email: zpage@cm.utexas.edu

Jonathan L. Sessler – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States; orcid.org/0000-0002-9576-1325; Email: essler@cm.utexas.edu

Authors

Keldy S. Mason – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States; orcid.org/0000-0003-2481-4570

Sheng-Yin Huang – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States; orcid.org/0000-0002-3278-3826

Samuel K. Emslie – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States

Qian Zhang – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States

Simon M. Humphrey – Department of Chemistry, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, United States; orcid.org/0000-0001-5379-4623

Complete contact information is available at:

<https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/jacs.3c12635>

Author Contributions

[†]K.S.M. and S.-Y.H. contributed equally to this work.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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ABBREVIATIONS

DLP, digital light processing; PIPS, polymerization-induced phase separation; BDCA, bis-dicyclohexyl acetamide; BDCA-MA, methacrylate functionalized bisdicyclohexyl acetamide; DRC, Democratic Republic of Congo; LLE, liquid–liquid extraction; EtOH, ethanol; BOC, *tert*-butoxycarbonyl; BAPO, phenylbis(2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyl)phosine oxide; TPGDA, tri-propylene glycol diacrylate; dec, 1-decanol; cyc, cyclohexanol; CPD, critical point drying; SEM, scanning electron microscopy; ATR, attenuated total reflectance; FTIR, Fourier transform infrared; BET, Brunauer–Emmett–Teller; IPA, isopropanol; EDX, energy-dispersive X-ray; ICP-MS, inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy

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