

Undergraduate Thesis Prospectus

Process Advancements for Lithium Extraction  
and Purification from Geothermal Brine

(technical research project in Chemical Engineering)

The Fight for Water: How Indigenous Chileans  
and Lithium Corporations Compete

(sociotechnical research project)

by

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On my honor as a University student, I have neither given nor received unauthorized aid on this assignment as defined by the Honor Guidelines for Thesis-Related Assignments.

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## **General Research Problem**

*How to transition toward recently developed energy technologies in North and South America?*

According to Walton (2020), “the energy sector is a key contributor to climate change, accounting for two-thirds of global greenhouse gas emissions.” The fight against climate change requires participation from citizens, policymakers, and industries. Current technological research and advancement is electing solutions to enable the green energy transition, but societal change must drive implementation. North and South America are home to vast natural resources and can support the life cycle for technologies to mitigate climate change.

## **Process Advancements for Lithium Extraction and Purification from Geothermal Brine**

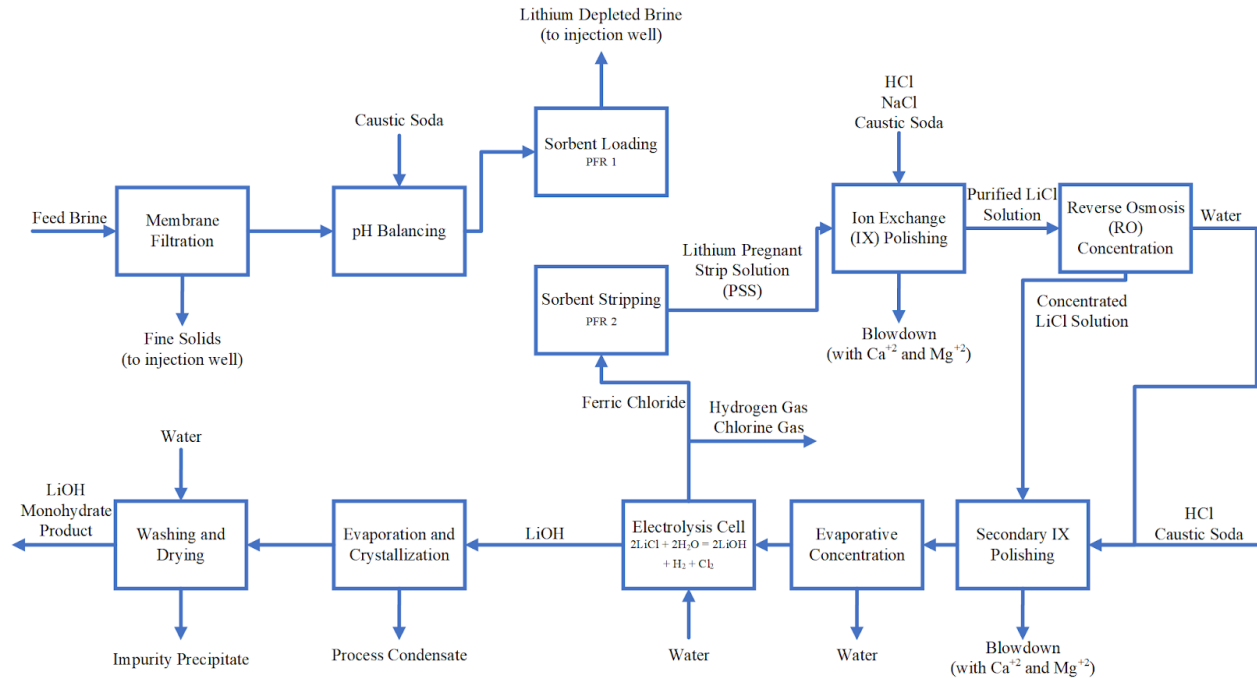
*How can Lithium Hydroxide be extracted from waste brine in geothermal energy plants?*

Rapid clean energy scale-up will generate increased demand for critical minerals; thus, new and diverse supply sources are necessary to counter supply strains (International Energy Agency, 2022, p. 14). These strains arise particularly from rapid scaling problems (Olivetti et al., 2017, p. 229), high geographic reserve location and refining capability concentration (Sun et al., 2021, p. 12180), mining asset exposure to climate risk (Delevingne et al., 2020, p. 2-5), and long project development time (International Energy Agency, 2022, p. 12). Lithium is classified as a critical mineral “hav[ing] a supply chain that is vulnerable to disruption and serv[ing] an essential function in the manufacturing of a product, the absence of which would have significant consequences for the economic or national security of the United States” (United States Geological Survey, 2022, p. 17). Current and pending mine projects have supply capability covering only half of projected 2030 lithium needs and “are not ready to support accelerated energy transitions” (International Energy Agency, 2022, p. 11). It is thus in the vested economic

and security interests of the United States to jointly propel lithium extraction research and extraction process impact assessment (Hailes, 2022; Parker et al., 2022).

Primary lithium extraction pathways currently include extraction from hard rock pegmatites, extraction from sedimentary rock such as clays, or evaporation from arid basin brines (Blair et al., 2022, p. 4). Arid basin brine lithium sourcing faces particular criticism for its heavy water requirements within the internationally recognized wetlands of Chile, Argentina, and Bolivia; for its ecological disruption to migratory and native species; and for its exploitation of indigineous and local people's land (Blair et al., 2022, p. 4). Geothermal brine extraction has historically been hindered by severe scaling and equipment corrosion (Hoffmann, 1975, pp. 9-13); however, operations now produce electricity from the geothermal fluid heat (*Imperial Valley Geothermal Area*). This work will further evolving research which aims to extract target minerals before stream reinjection back into their source geothermal reservoirs (Warren, 2021).

The project focuses on extracting and purifying a lithium product, lithium hydroxide (LiOH), following pretreatment from geothermal brines. Figure 1 displays a block flow diagram detailing the lithium extraction process beginning after solids have been removed from the raw brine and the power cycle has been run. A pH balancing and filtration step removes contaminants to avoid precipitation on equipment. The lithium loading and extraction processes use two reactors with opposite chemisorption directions that form a regenerative absorption network.



**Figure 1. Block flow diagram of lithium extraction process**

Two additional refining steps are executed to form a purer intermediate: Ion Exchange (IX) and Reverse Osmosis (RO). The IX process removes divalent ions such as calcium and magnesium. The reverse osmosis step pushes water through a membrane at high pressure to concentrate the mixture with the desired intermediate: lithium chloride (LiCl). The LiCl mixture then runs through secondary IX purification and evaporative concentration units to remove excess ions and water. The mixture is then processed in an electrochemical cell where lithium chloride is converted to lithium hydroxide. Once the LiOH is extracted from the cell, water is further evaporated and the LiOH is crystallized. Final processing steps include washing, drying, resizing and packaging to meet the high purity standards for use in batteries and other applications.

The team of four students will produce a design for a plant to produce LiOH from geothermal brines which will be carried out over two semesters. The team plans to model most of the process using Aspen Plus, a process modeling tool that predicts performances of specified

processes through an iterative method given a process design and thermodynamic models. For processes that are not modelable on Aspen like electrolysis, the team will utilize Excel spreadsheets and/or MATLAB software to compute the necessary calculations manually. Under the assumption that the brine has a lithium composition of 287 ppm, the feed enters the process at 110°C and at a pressure of 1 atm. Within the packed-bed reactor, an assumed lithium to sodium molar selectivity of 100 to 1 describes the catalyst efficacy. The additional data will be obtained through sponsors, Professors Giri, Koenig and Geise, as well as geothermal brine reports. The team will divide the work based around our 10+ process units by splitting the total number of process units in half and pairing up to work on the designated units. Regarding main operating units such as plug flow reactors and the electrolysis cell, the team will collaborate to perform the necessary calculations.

### **The Fight for Water: How Indigenous Chileans and Lithium Corporations Compete**

*How do proponents and critics of lithium extraction in Chile advance their agendas?*

Mining companies in Chile extract lithium by pumping brines from salt flats and separating water through evaporation (Greenfield, 2022). Evaporation is the most water-intensive extraction process and is disrupting scarce water allocation in the Atacama region. Local communities are confronting corporations but are met with promises of sustainability and economic growth.

Many Chileans are committed to preventing sacrifice zones in their country, an area where marginalized communities live in proximity to polluting industries (Lerner, 2011). This is an example of locally unwanted land use (LULU). Communities burdened with LULU are taken advantage of by corporations because they lack the economic and political power to avoid

exploitation. To prevent destructive lithium extraction, Chileans engage in protests, file lawsuits and publicize their cause on social media.

Observatorio Plurinacional de Salares Andinos (OPSAL), an Andean organization representing indigenous communities, countered a press conference with a Tweet “water is worth more than lithium.” They believe that extraction “is a threat to people who are denied their right to water and territory” (Ledger, 2022).

Atacama Indigenous Council, another group for native communities, filed a lawsuit blocking a multimillion-dollar extraction plan from mining company SQM. The Council won, but Chile’s Supreme Court overturned the decision. Sergio Cubillos, the Council president, announced they “will make every effort to see SQM’s [environmental permits] revoked.” He states that damages from lithium extraction are “immeasurable” (Sherwood, 2020).

SQM, one of two lithium mining corporations in Chile, cites jobs opportunities and use of sustainable solar energy. They operate 3,000 hectares of solar evaporation ponds with 91.3% of their energy coming from solar power (SQM, 2022). In its Risk Management plans, SQM states that restrictions on water use from “prioritization of human consumption” might cause economic stress from water outsourcing.

Iquique Industrial Association (AII) represents companies in the mining town of Iquique, Chile, including SQM. Transportation, construction, and chemicals companies fill AII’s director’s board. The group cautions that increasing mining taxes will lower global investment due to economic burdens. AII declares they are “defending the motor for development” and performs community outreach warning that mining opposition hurts everyone (AII, 2022).

Turley et al. (2022) investigated cultural and ecological effects of mining in the Southwest USA, a more prosperous area than the Atacama region. They emphasize that critical resource

geography must consider “power relations, values, and political economic dimensions of resource extraction and use.” Policy, political opinion, and perceived acceptability of extraction play a large role in how and which communities are affected. Neo-extractivism, when governments allow environmental damage to finance social reform, discourages lithium extraction in developed areas and moves the burden to areas trapped in neocolonialism like Chile (IGI Global). The “just energy transition” must be prioritized by those advantaged by established global systems. Without their support, communities without political and discursive power will carry the unequal hardship of the industrialization required for the green energy transition.

León, Negredo, and Erviti (2022) examined perceptions of climate change publications on Twitter. Like the dangers of climate change, the risks of lithium extraction have often been discounted or neglected. Meaningfulness and personification can increase public engagement with publicity about climate change. Since many citizens do not have personal experiences with climate change, a negative second-hand experience must be constructed through images. This is best achieved with media depicting “real people” (non-staged participants that show emotion), telling a story, including a local connection, or showing impacts and actions by people who are directly affected. Chilean activist groups are increasing recognition for their fight in areas with power using social media, especially Twitter. In a Twitter campaign (fig. 2), a banner portrays a dead flamingo under the words “No Seremos Zona de Sacrificio” (“We are not a Sacrifice Zone”) (OPSAL, 2022). This image tells the story of wetland destruction with a familiar animal. The strong language of “sacrifice” will resonate with those who are unaware of the group’s agenda. Social media campaigns have been essential in promoting the values of lithium extraction critics by highlighting the “real people” behind their messages.

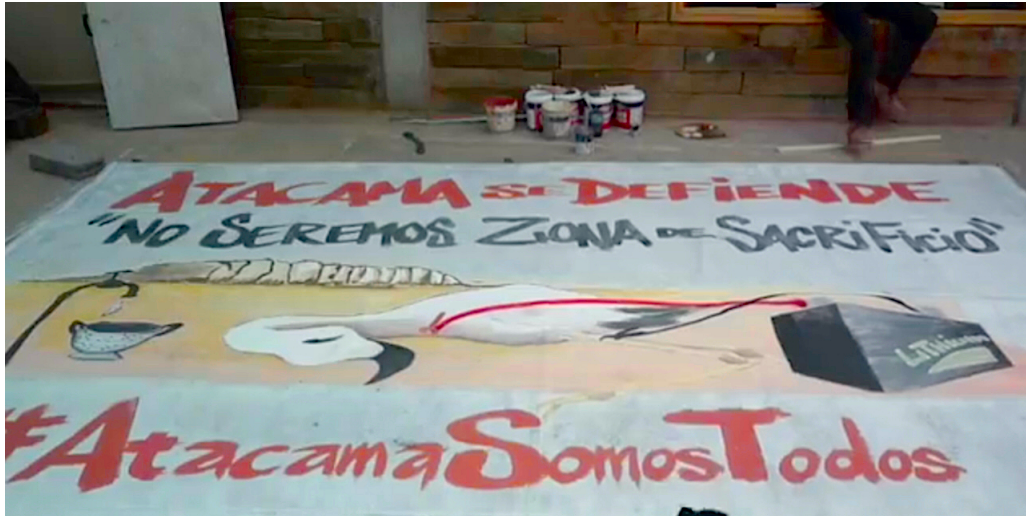


Figure 2. Banner from OPSAL's Twitter Profile (2022)

Political appearances of social movements between Latin American indigenous people and national governments have recently increased due to opportunities from the intersection of timing and allies. According to Puig (2010), “the presence and support of outsiders might be... an element of the social capital that was necessary for the empowerment of indigenous movements.” The global attention, pushed forward by the Catholic Church and non-governmental organizations, has provided critical pressure to support local groups and their agendas. Ethnodevelopment, a social policy to promote cultural development of marginalized groups, has become valued by international organizations and anthropologists, though their motivations may be considered self-serving by some (Broadfield, 2017). International support can promote local change, yet interest from outside supporters can wane if relationships are neglected. This perpetuates the burden on local groups in maintaining global attention to reach their goals. Successful international partnerships depend on shared commitments and mutual trust. Puig (2010) warns that “the permeability of Latin American polyarchies” may be reaching a limit of responsiveness and new strategies should be explored by activists and their supporters.



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