

EverBatt: A Closed-loop Battery Recycling Cost and Environmental Impacts Model

Energy Systems Division

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by

Qiang Dai¹, Jeffrey Spangenberg², Shabbir Ahmed³,
Linda Gaines¹, Jarod C. Kelly¹, and Michael Wang¹

¹Energy Systems Division, Argonne National Laboratory

²Applied Materials Division, Argonne National Laboratory

³Chemical Sciences and Engineering Division, Argonne National Laboratory

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ACRONYMS

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Argonne | Argonne National Laboratory |
| BatPaC | Battery Performance and Cost |
| BC | black carbon |
| BEV | battery electric vehicle |
| BMS | battery management system |
| BOM | bill-of-materials |
| CEPCI | chemical engineering plant cost index |
| CO | carbon monoxide |
| CO ₂ | carbon dioxide |
| CSTR | continuous stirred tank reactor |
| DMC | dimethyl carbonate |
| EC | ethylene carbonate |
| EIA | Energy Information Administration |
| EOL | end-of-life |
| EPA | Environmental Protection Agency |
| EV | electric vehicle |
| REET | Greenhouse gases, Regulated Emissions, and Energy use in Transportation |
| GHG | greenhouse gas |
| GSA | general, sales, administration |
| IEA | International Energy Agency |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| LCA | life cycle analysis |
| LCI | life cycle inventory |
| LCO | lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO ₂) |
| LFP | lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO ₄) |
| LIB | lithium-ion battery |
| LME | London Metal Exchange |
| LMO | lithium manganese oxide (LiMn ₂ O ₄) |
| NCA | lithium nickel cobalt aluminum oxide (LiNi _{0.8} Co _{0.15} Al _{0.05} O ₂) |
| NMC | lithium nickel manganese cobalt oxide (LiNi _{x/x+y+z} Mn _{y/x+y+z} Co _{z/x+y+z} O ₂) |
| NMC111 | LiNi _{1/3} Mn _{1/3} Co _{1/3} O ₂ |
| NMC622 | LiNi _{0.6} Mn _{0.2} Co _{0.2} O ₂ |
| NMC811 | LiNi _{0.8} Mn _{0.1} Co _{0.1} O ₂ |
| NMP | N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone |
| NO _x | nitrogen oxides |
| OC | organic carbon |
| PE | polyethylene |
| PET | polyethylene terephthalate |
| PHEV | plug-in hybrid electric vehicle |
| PM10 | particulate matter with diameters of 10 micrometers and smaller |
| PM2.5 | particulate matter with diameters of 2.5 micrometers and smaller |
| PP | polypropylene |
| PVDF | polyvinylidene difluoride |
| R&D | research and development |

| | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| SO _x | sulfur oxides |
| T&D | transmission and distribution |
| tonne | metric ton |
| USGS | United States Geological Survey |
| VOC | volatile organic compound |

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1 INTRODUCTION

The cumulative global electric vehicle (EV) sales surpassed 3.1 million units in 2017, with 1.9 million units of battery electric vehicles (BEVs), and 1.2 million units of plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (PHEVs). Of the cumulative global EV sales, The U.S. accounted for 0.40 million BEV sales, and 0.36 million PHEV sales (IEA 2018). Assuming a lifespan of 10 years for EVs, an average battery pack weight of 300 kg for BEVs, and an average battery pack weight of 200 kg for PHEVs, by 2027, 0.2 million metric tons of EV batteries would reach their end-of-life (EOL) in the U.S. Globally, the volume of spent automotive batteries would amount to 0.8 million metric tons by 2027. As the annual global EV sales are expected to grow from 1.4 million in 2017 to 21.5 million in 2030 (IEA 2018), the volume of spent automotive batteries would increase markedly beyond 2027.

The retired batteries from EV applications could be reused (that is, batteries are refurbished and then used again in EVs) and/or repurposed (that is, batteries are tested, oftentimes repacked, and then used in less demanding applications such as stationary energy storage). Ultimately, the foreseeable avalanche of spent automotive batteries underscores the need for infrastructure and technologies that will be able to responsibly and sustainably handle and dispose of the spent batteries even if they are used multiple times beforehand. Recycling is one of the most promising EOL management options, because it has the potential to considerably reduce the environmental impacts of batteries, while simultaneously helping guard against possible price surges and supply disruptions of battery materials, especially when the recovered cobalt, nickel, and lithium from the spent batteries are incorporated back into the battery supply chain (i.e., closed-loop recycled). On the other hand, since lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) are classified as hazardous materials, proper disposal of spent automotive batteries incurs substantial costs and poses significant challenges to the LIB industry.

Aiming to enhance stakeholders' understanding of the cost and environmental performance of battery recycling, and to inform the planning and development of battery recycling towards an environmentally friendly and economically feasible future, we at Argonne

National Laboratory (Argonne) developed EverBatt, the first publicly available closed-loop battery recycling cost and environmental impacts model, with the support of the Department of Energy, to help evaluate the performance of different battery recycling technologies, and identify R&D opportunities and challenges.

2 EVERBATT MODEL OVERVIEW

2.1 GOAL AND SCOPE

The overarching goal of the EverBatt model is to help inform battery recycling decisions and accelerate the development of a more sustainable supply chain for batteries. Specifically, EverBatt allows users to (1) benchmark production with recycled materials against production with virgin materials to provide a holistic picture of the benefits and tradeoffs of battery recycling, (2) estimate the cost and environmental impacts of existing industrial practices along the battery supply chain, identify cost and environmental hotspots, and evaluate potential consequences of business decisions and market dynamics, and (3) benchmark new technology/processes against existing practices of the battery industry, and analyze how the cost and environmental impacts could change as the new technology/process scales up.

The schematic of the EverBatt model is depicted in Figure 1. The model consists of six modules: battery manufacturing with virgin materials, battery collection and transportation, battery recycling, materials conversion, cathode powder production, and battery manufacturing with recycled materials, among which battery manufacturing with virgin materials is a stand-alone module and serves as the benchmark, whereas the remaining five modules comprise the closed-loop recycling. The battery collection and transportation module, together with the recycling module can also be used independently to evaluate open-loop recycling, or in combination with the materials conversion module and the cathode material production module to evaluate closed-loop recycling at the materials level. Depending on the battery recycling process under analysis, the material conversion module and cathode powder production module can be bypassed. It should be noted that the battery use-phase is not included in EverBatt, because unlike the other life-cycle stages of a battery, the use-phase cannot be modeled independently of the product the battery powers and/or the service the battery provides. For instance, modeling the use-phase of an automotive battery necessitates modeling of the EV use-phase, which is beyond the scope of EverBatt.

For battery recycling processes, EverBatt considers pyrometallurgical, hydrometallurgical, and direct cathode recycling routes, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 5. For battery cathode chemistries, EverBatt covers LiCoO_2 (LCO), LiMn_2O_4 (LMO), LiFePO_4 (LFP), $\text{LiNi}_{1/3}\text{Mn}_{1/3}\text{Co}_{1/3}\text{O}_2$ (NMC111), $\text{LiNi}_{0.6}\text{Mn}_{0.2}\text{Co}_{0.2}\text{O}_2$ (NMC622), $\text{LiNi}_{0.8}\text{Mn}_{0.1}\text{Co}_{0.1}\text{O}_2$ (NMC811), and $\text{LiNi}_{0.85}\text{Co}_{0.1}\text{Al}_{0.05}\text{O}_2$ (NCA). For geographic regions, EverBatt currently includes California, U.S. national average, China, and Korea.

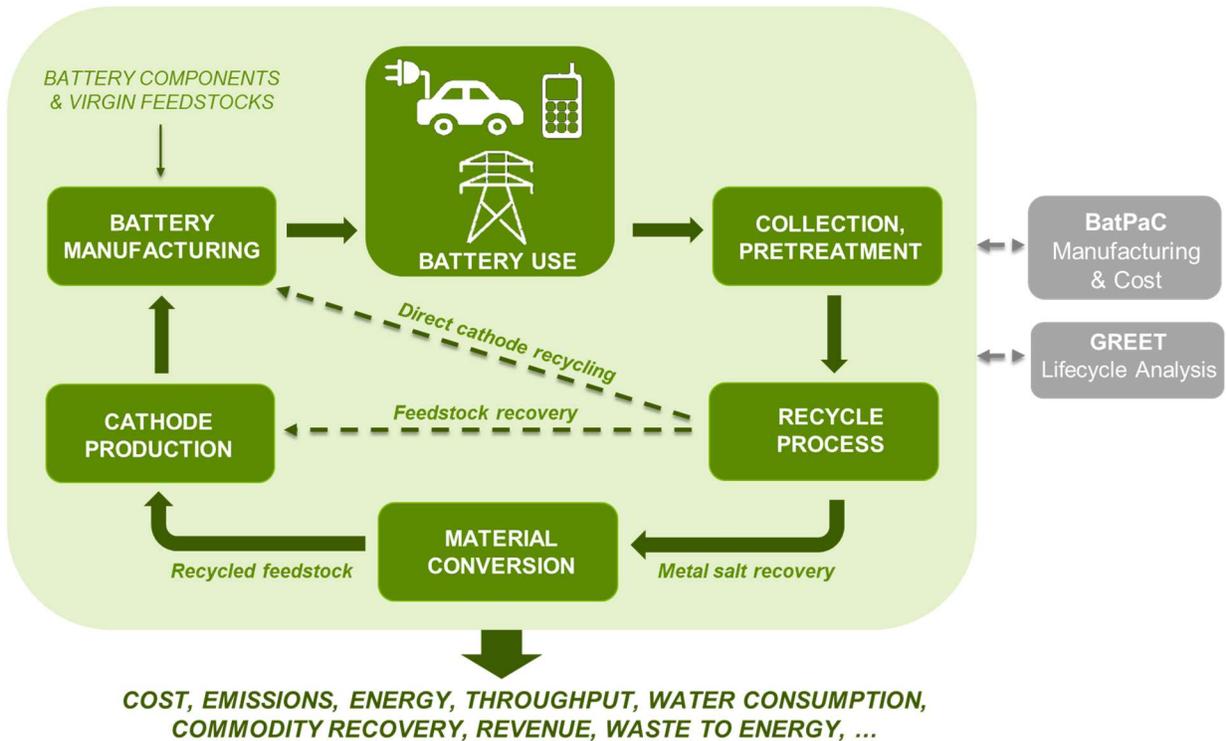


Figure 1. Schematic of the EverBatt Model.

In general, the inputs for each module include the materials and energy flows through the processes, the equipment used for the processes, and the throughput and geographic location of the processes. With these inputs, EverBatt then estimates (1) the cost of the processes based on Argonne’s Battery Performance and Cost (BatPaC) model (Argonne 2019a, version BatPaC 3.1 – 28June2018) and a cost model for general chemical plants proposed by Peters *et al.* (Peters *et al.* 2003), and (2) the environmental impacts of the processes based on background data from Argonne’s Greenhouse gases, Regulated Emissions, and Energy use in Transportation (GREET) model (Argonne 2019b, version GREET 2018). The methodology used for the cost and

environmental impacts calculation is further discussed in Section 2.2, and the nuances of the calculations specific to each module are discussed in Chapters 3-8, respectively.

It should be noted that the current version of EverBatt models batteries at the cell level, because information on recycling of battery pack components, particularly the battery management system (BMS), is still lacking. We will bridge this gap in future versions of EverBatt. It should also be noted that the current version of EverBatt focuses on LIBs, because they are the predominant battery type for traction applications. Future versions of EverBatt, however, will be expanded to cover other battery types beyond traction applications.

2.2 METHODOLOGY

2.2.1 Cost Analysis

The cost analysis for battery manufacturing, with both virgin materials and recycled materials, is based on Argonne’s BatPaC model. The price of the battery includes the costs of materials, direct labor, depreciation of capital investment, variable overhead, general, sales, administration (GSA), research and development (R&D), profit, and warranty. Details of the battery manufacturing cost model are discussed in Chapter 3.

The cost analysis for recycling and cathode material production is based on a production cost model for generic chemical plants developed by Peters *et al.* (Peters *et al.* 2003), which is summarized in Table 1, with a few modifications.

Table 1. Production cost model for generic chemical plants (adapted from Peters *et al.* 2003)

| |
|--|
| I. Direct Costs = material and labor involved in actual installation of complete facility (70-85% of fixed capital investment) |
| A. Equipment + installation + instrumentation + piping + electrical + insulation + painting (50-60% of fixed capital investment) |
| 1. Purchased equipment (15-40% of fixed capital investment) |
| 2. Installation, including insulation and painting (25-55% of purchased equipment) |
| 3. Instrumentation and controls, installed (6-30% of purchased equipment) |
| 4. Piping, installed (10-80% of purchased equipment) |

| |
|--|
| 5. Electrical, installed (10-40% of purchased equipment) |
| B. Buildings, process and auxiliary (10-70% of purchased equipment) |
| C. Service facilities and yard improvements (40-100% of purchased equipment) |
| D. Land (1-2% of fixed capital investment or 4-8% of purchased equipment) |
| II. Indirect Costs = expenses which are not directly involved with material and labor of actual installation of complete facility (15-30% of fixed capital investment) |
| A. Engineering and supervision (5-30% of direct costs) |
| B. Construction expense and contractor's fee (6-30% of direct costs) |
| C. Contingency (5-15% of fixed capital investment) |
| III. Fixed Capital Investment = direct costs + indirect costs |
| IV. Working Capital (10-20% of Total Capital Investment) |
| V. Total Capital Investment = Fixed Capital Investment + Working Capital |
| VI. Manufacturing Costs |
| A. Direct product costs |
| 1. Raw materials (10-50% of total product cost) |
| 2. Operating labor (10-20% of total product cost) |
| 3. Direct supervisory and clerical labor (10-25% of operating labor) |
| 4. Utilities (10-20% of total product cost) |
| 5. Maintenance and repairs (2-10% of fixed capital investment) |
| 6. Operating supplies (10-20% of cost of maintenance and repairs, or 0.5-1% of fixed capital investment) |
| 7. Laboratory charges (10-20% of operating labor) |
| 8. Patents and royalties (0-6% of total product cost) |
| B. Fixed charges (10-20% of total product cost) |
| 1. Depreciation (10% of fixed capital investment and 2-3% of building value) |
| 2. Local taxes (1-4% of fixed capital investment) |
| 3. Insurance (0.4-1% of fixed capital investment) |
| 4. Rent (8-12% of value of rented land and buildings) |
| 5. Financing (interest) (0-10% of total capital investment) |
| C. Plant overhead costs (50-70% of operating labor, supervision and maintenance or 5-15% of total product cost) |
| VII. General Expenses |
| A. Administrative costs (15% of operating labor, supervision, and maintenance or 2-6% of total product cost) |
| B. Distribution and selling costs (2-20% of total product cost) |
| C. R&D costs (2-5% of every sales dollar or 5% of total product cost) |
| VIII. Total Product Cost = Manufacturing Costs + General Expenses |

Modifications to the cost model as shown in Table 1 include (1) modeling purchased equipment cost (item I.A.1) as the sum of the costs for individual equipment items used in the process, instead of as a percentage of fixed capital investment; (2) modeling raw materials cost

(item VI.A.1) as the sum of the costs for each raw material consumed in the process, instead of as a percentage of total product cost; (3) modeling operating labor (item VI.A.2) as the product of total operating labor requirement for the process in person hours and the hourly labor rate, instead of as a percentage of total product cost; and (4) modeling utility (item VI.A.4) cost as the sum of electricity cost, fuel cost, water cost, and waste disposal cost, instead of as a percentage of total product cost. In addition, a profit component, estimated to be 5% of the total capital investment, is added to the total product cost (item VIII) to determine the cost of the product to the recipient. Users can choose whether or not to include this profit component in the cost calculation. Specific input parameters (i.e. cost percentages) used in the cost calculation for recycling and cathode materials production are discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 7, respectively.

The costs for individual equipment items are list in Appendix A. These costs are obtained from vendor price quotes, public database, expert opinions, and literature. Bulk pricing data for each raw material are obtained in a similar fashion, and are summarized in Appendix B. A direct labor rate of \$18/hr, based on the BatPaC model, is assumed for battery manufacturing in the U.S., and a rate of \$20/hr is assumed for recycling and cathode production. The unit cost for utilities and waste disposals as shown in Table 2 are based on U.S. national averages, and used for all cost calculations for activities occurring in the U.S.

Table 2. U.S. national average utilities and waste disposal costs

| | Unit Cost | Reference Year | Data Source |
|--|-----------|----------------|---------------------|
| Electricity (\$/kWh) | \$0.0688 | 2017 | EIA 2019a |
| Natural gas (\$/1000 ft ³) | \$4.10 | 2017 | EIA 2019b |
| Water (\$/gal) | \$0.0036 | 2012-2013 | Black & Veatch 2013 |
| Wastewater discharge (\$/gal) | \$0.0053 | 2012-2013 | Black & Veatch 2013 |
| Landfill/tip fee (\$/ton) | \$45 | 2012 | EPA 2014 |

2.2.2 Life Cycle Analysis (LCA)

The life-cycle environmental impact and emission categories evaluated in EverBatt include total energy use, water consumption, air pollutant emissions, and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. The total energy use can be broken down into fossil fuel use and non-fossil fuel use, and the fossil fuel use can be further broken down into coal, natural gas, and petroleum. Air pollutant emissions modeled in EverBatt include volatile organic compound (VOC), carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur oxides (SO_x), particulate matter with diameters of 10 micrometers and smaller (PM10), particulate matter with diameters of 2.5 micrometers and smaller (PM2.5), black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC). GHGs include carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). These environmental impact and emission categories are output attributes of the GREET LCA model.

The life-cycle environmental impacts of each process in EverBatt are calculated based on the materials and energy flows through the process, and the environmental impacts intensities of each raw material and energy input obtained from the GREET model, by the following equation:

$$EI_k = \sum_i m_i \times ei_{i,k} + \sum_j q_j \times ei_{j,k} + P_k$$

Eq.1

Where EI_k denotes the life-cycle environmental impact/emission category k for the process (for clarity's sake, let's assume the environmental impact/emission category k is GHG emissions hereinafter, but it could be any of the environmental impact/emission categories listed above);

m_i denotes the mass (in kg) of material i consumed in the process;

$ei_{i,k}$ denotes the GHG emissions for 1kg of material i in GREET;

q_j denotes the quantity (in MJ) of energy type j consumed in the process;

$ei_{j,k}$ denotes the GHG emissions for 1 MJ of energy type j in GREET;

and P_k denotes GHG emissions from the process as a result of combustion or thermal decomposition of the raw materials (e.g., combustion of graphite in the pyrometallurgical

recycling process, thermal decomposition of Li_2CO_3 in the NMC cathode powder production process).

It should be noted that the material combustion and decomposition process emission term P_k in Equation 1 only applies to CO_2 emissions, and is estimated in EverBatt based on stoichiometric calculations.

2.2.3 Process Scaling-Up/Down

As mentioned previously, the EverBatt model can analyze how the cost and environmental impacts will change as the technology or process scales up or down. Particularly, this version of EverBatt can estimate how the production cost will change with plant throughput for battery manufacturing, recycling, and cathode material production, with few inputs from the user. The analyses of changes in environmental impacts in response to changes in plant throughput, however, are limited in scope in this version of EverBatt, and will be improved in future versions.

For the cost modeling of battery manufacturing, the cost of active cathode material, the cost of active anode material, the direct labor requirement, the capital equipment, and the plant area for a plant are determined as follows

$$C = C_0 \left(\frac{R}{R_0} \right)^p$$

Eq. 2

Where C is a cost attribute (e.g., material cost, direct labor, capital equipment) of the plant under analysis;

C_0 is the corresponding cost attribute of the reference battery manufacturing plant in BatPaC;

R is the processing rate (throughput) of the plant under analysis;

R_0 is the processing rate of the reference plant in BatPaC;

p is the power factor for the cost attribute in BatPaC.

The reference battery manufacturing plant in BatPaC produces 100,000 battery packs per year, which amounts to a production capacity of 6 GWh/yr, and the production cost modeling in BatPaC is suitable for battery manufacturing plants with a throughput between 20,000-500,000 battery packs per year. Since the cost modeling for battery manufacturing in EverBatt is based on BatPaC, EverBatt supports cost modeling for battery manufacturing plants with the same throughput range, which is roughly 1,000 -100,000 metric tons (hereinafter tonnes) of battery cells per year. In contrast, the environmental impacts for battery manufacturing will not change automatically with plant throughput in this version of EverBatt, unless the user provides different materials and energy inputs for battery manufacturing plants of different throughputs.

For the modeling of battery recycling and cathode material production, EverBatt accounts for changes in equipment cost and plant energy consumption with plant throughput. Cost data for different equipment of various sizes are collected from vendor price quotes, public database, expert opinions, and literature, and then used to derive equipment cost curves (i.e., equipment costs as functions of equipment sizes). Equipment energy rating curves (i.e., equipment energy ratings as functions of equipment sizes) are developed in a similar fashion. The cost and energy rating curves for all equipment included in EverBatt are listed in Appendix C. For each type of equipment used in a process, EverBatt assumes that two pieces of the equipment are needed, each with a design capacity that can meet 75% of the desired plant throughput. Once the equipment size is determined, EverBatt will look up the corresponding cost and energy rating of the equipment, which will be used subsequently for the production cost and environmental impacts calculation.

2.2.4 Geographical Variation

In light of the global battery supply chain, EverBatt also evaluates how the cost and environmental impacts associated with different life-cycle stages of batteries change across geographic locations. EverBatt currently covers four geographical locations: California, U.S.

national average, China, and Korea, while also allowing users to define their own geographic location.

For cost modeling, EverBatt considers geographical variations in utilities cost, waste disposal cost, direct labor cost, equipment cost, building cost, and transportation cost. The same material costs, however, are assumed for all geographical locations, because the materials consumed by the battery industry are typically global commodities. The cost parameters for the four built-in geographic locations are summarized in Appendix D. It should be noted that this version of EverBatt aims to provide a framework to examine the geographical variations. Some of the cost parameters listed in Appendix D, especially those for China and Korea, are based on our conjectures rather than actual data, and should be improved in future versions of EverBatt.

For environmental modeling, again, EverBatt does not consider geographical variations for materials, neither does EverBatt consider geographical variations for natural gas, as natural gas production is not expected to vary substantially across geographic locations. EverBatt does, however, take into account the geographical variations in electricity generation mix, because they are often conspicuous and can affect the environmental impacts of electricity to a large degree. The environmental impacts for the electricity in California and the 2017 U.S. national average are taken directly from GREET 2018, while the environmental impacts for the electricity in China and Korea are calculated in GREET 2018 based on their 2016 electricity mixes and transmission and distribution (T&D) losses as shown in Table 3, which are obtained from the International Energy Agency (IEA).

Table 3. 2016 national average electricity mix and T&D loss for China and Korea

| | T&D loss | Electricity mix | | | | | | |
|--------------------|----------|-----------------|------|-------------|---------|-------|---------|-------|
| | | Coal | Oil | Natural gas | Nuclear | Hydro | Biomass | Other |
| China ^a | 5% | 68.2% | 0.2% | 2.7% | 3.4% | 19.2% | 1.0% | 5.2% |
| Korea ^b | 3% | 41.7% | 3.2% | 22.5% | 28.8% | 1.2% | 1.0% | 1.7% |

a. IEA 2019a

b. IEA 2019b

3 BATTERY MANUFACTURING WITH VIRGIN MATERIALS

The battery manufacturing with virgin materials module in EverBatt evaluates the cost and environmental impacts for the production of LCO, LMO, LFP, NMC111, NMC622, NMC811, and NCA cells. Users interested in the cost and environmental impacts for the production of battery packs should refer to BatPaC and GREET, respectively. The current version of EverBatt only considers the prismatic cell type, because it is the one modeled in BatPaC. Future versions of EverBatt will be expanded to include other cell types such as cylindrical and pouch cells. Again, EverBatt supports cost modeling for battery manufacturing plants with an annual production capacity of 1,000 – 100,000 tonnes of battery cells.

3.1 MODULE INPUTS

For battery manufacturing with virgin materials, the required inputs include the cathode chemistry of the battery, the throughput (tonnes of cells per year) of the battery plant, the location of the battery plant, and the material and energy demands for cell manufacturing. The first three need to be specified by the users, while for the material and energy demands the users can choose to define their own or use the default values built into the module.

The materials demands for cell manufacturing are determined based on the bill-of-materials (BOM) of the cell (i.e., the mass percentage of each material in the cell), the material yields of the cell manufacturing process, and the cell acceptance rate, by the following equation:

$$Demand_i = \frac{\frac{Mass\ percentage_i}{Yield_i}}{Cell\ acceptance\ rate}$$

Eq.3

Where i denotes material i among all battery constituents.

The default cell BOMs for different cathode chemistries in EverBatt are derived from EV battery 5 in BatPaC, to be consistent with GREET. The methodology used to compile the cell BOM based on the cell design parameters in BatPaC is described in two GREET documentations (Dunn *et al.* 2014, Dai *et al.* 2018a). EV battery 5 in BatPaC is for EVs with an all-electric range of 100 miles, and consists of 140 cells, each with an energy capacity of 0.168 kWh. The derived cell BOMs, together with the cell mass, which is also obtained from BatPaC, are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. EverBatt default cell BOM and mass

| | NMC(111) | NMC(622) | NMC(811) | LCO | NCA | LMO | LFP |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Cell BOM | | | | | | | |
| Active cathode material | 34.7% | 32.4% | 31.1% | 35.3% | 30.6% | 40.8% | 32.7% |
| Graphite | 19.4% | 21.0% | 20.6% | 18.5% | 22.1% | 14.1% | 16.8% |
| Carbon black | 2.3% | 2.2% | 1.7% | 2.4% | 2.1% | 2.7% | 2.2% |
| Binder: PVDF | 3.0% | 2.9% | 3.6% | 3.0% | 2.9% | 3.0% | 2.7% |
| Copper | 15.7% | 16.1% | 15.7% | 16.1% | 16.7% | 15.0% | 13.9% |
| Aluminum | 8.2% | 8.4% | 8.2% | 8.1% | 8.6% | 7.8% | 7.5% |
| Electrolyte: LiPF ₆ | 2.2% | 2.2% | 2.6% | 2.2% | 2.3% | 2.2% | 3.4% |
| Electrolyte: EC | 6.2% | 6.3% | 7.2% | 6.0% | 6.3% | 6.1% | 9.4% |
| Electrolyte: DMC | 6.2% | 6.3% | 7.2% | 6.0% | 6.3% | 6.1% | 9.4% |
| Plastic: PP | 1.5% | 1.5% | 1.5% | 1.8% | 1.6% | 1.5% | 1.3% |
| Plastic: PE | 0.3% | 0.4% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.4% | 0.3% | 0.3% |
| Plastic: PET | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.3% | 0.3% |
| Cell mass (kg) | 0.856 | 0.772 | 0.803 | 0.866 | 0.750 | 1.045 | 1.054 |

PVDF: polyvinylidene difluoride; EC: ethylene carbonate; DMC: dimethyl carbonate; PP: polypropylene; PE: polyethylene; PET: polyethylene terephthalate

In addition to the materials contained in the battery, EverBatt also accounts for the solvents consumed for cell manufacturing. It is assumed that N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) is the solvent used for cathode slurry preparation, and water for the anode slurry. Based on BatPaC, the quantity of the solvent needed is determined as 24 times that of the binder in the cell. It is

also assumed that 99.5% of the NMP is recovered and reused for cell manufacturing, while water is not recovered.

The default material yields are from BatPaC, as listed in Table 5. The yield of active cathode material also applies to NMP, and active anode material also to water. The yield of separator applies to PP and PE, and the yield of electrolyte applies to its all three components: LiPF₆, EC and DMC. The cell acceptance rate is also from BatPaC, and is assumed to be 95%, which means that 95% of the manufactured cells can pass the quality tests and are deemed acceptable for their intended applications. Cells that fail to pass the tests are rejected, and can be used for some less demanding applications (e.g. rejected cells intended for traction applications can be used for stationary energy storage), or sent to battery recyclers, together with the manufacturing scrap generated during the manufacturing process.

Table 5. EverBatt default material yields for cell manufacturing

| | Material yield (%) |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| Active cathode material | 92.2% |
| Active anode material | 92.2% |
| Aluminum foil | 90.2% |
| Copper foil | 90.2% |
| Separator | 98.0% |
| Electrolyte | 94.0% |

The default energy demand for cell manufacturing in EverBatt is based on the value in GREET, which is 170 MJ/kWh cell produced, of which 82.4% is natural gas, and 17.6% is electricity (Dai *et al.* 2017). This per-kWh cell manufacturing energy demand is converted into per-kg cell manufacturing energy demand based on the specific energy (kWh/kg) of cells calculated by the cell energy capacity (0.168 kWh) and the cell mass as shown in Table 4.

3.2 COST CALCULATION

The cost calculation for battery manufacturing in EverBatt is based on BatPaC, with several simplifications. First, BatPaC calculates cell materials cost based on detailed cell design parameters, which include the dimensions of each cell component. This allows the user to determine the quantity of a material embodied in different components, and apply different unit prices to the material accordingly. In contrast, in the absence of cell dimension information, EverBatt calculates cell material cost based on the cell material composition without further differentiation of the same type of material. For instance, aluminum content in the positive current collector, the positive terminal assembly, and the cell container are considered the same in EverBatt, and the unit price of aluminum foil is applied to them all. Similarly, the unit price of copper foil is applied to copper contained in the negative current collector and the negative terminal assembly. In addition, EverBatt does not adjust for hardware (positive terminal assembly, negative terminal assembly, and cell container) costs based on production capacity, as done in BatPaC, because such adjustment requires information on the dimensions of these components. These simplifications, however, are not expected to cause considerable differences in cell material cost between BatPaC and EverBatt.

For direct labor cost, capital equipment cost, and building cost, the differences between BatPaC and EverBatt may be more pronounced. These three cost attributes for seven cell manufacturing processes, including positive electrode coating, negative electrode coating, positive electrode calendaring, negative electrode calendaring, materials handling, electrode slitting, and electrode drying, change with the annual electrode area processed in the battery plant based on Equation 2. In the absence of cell dimension information, EverBatt adopts the electrode area of battery 5 in BatPaC and applies it to all cells of the same cathode chemistry. As a result, for cells with considerably different electrode area from battery 5 in BatPaC as shown in Table 6, the direct labor cost, capital equipment cost, and building cost can vary substantially between EverBatt and BatPaC.

Table 6. Default cell (0.168kWh) electrode area in EverBatt

| | NMC(111) | NMC(622) | NMC(811) | LCO | NCA | LMO | LFP |
|--|----------|----------|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Cell electrode area (cm ²) | 19,986 | 18,159 | 18,363 | 19,422 | 18,347 | 23,925 | 21,416 |

Except for these differences, the cost model of the battery manufacturing module in EverBatt is the same as BatPaC, as summarized in Table 7. Simply put, EverBatt can provide cost estimates for cell manufacturing with information on the battery plant that is often publicly available, while users who have access to cell design parameters can use BatPaC to derive more refined and detailed cost estimates.

Table 7. Cost model for battery manufacturing

| Cost Item | Estimated as |
|------------------------|---|
| I. Total Variable Cost | I.1 + I.2 + I.3 |
| 1. Materials Cost | Sum of all materials costs |
| 2. Direct Labor Cost | Total direct labor-hour requirement × hourly labor rate |
| 3. Variable Overhead | 40% of I.2 + 20% of III.1 |
| II. Total Investment | II.1 + II.2 + II.3 + II.4 |
| 1. Launch Cost | 5% of I.1 + 10% of I.2 + 10% of I.3 |
| 2. Working Capital | 15% of I.2 + 15% of I.3 |
| 3. Capital Equipment | Sum of all capital equipment costs |
| 4. Building Cost | Total building area × per-m ² building cost |
| III. Fixed Expenses | III.1 + III.2 + III.3 |
| 1. Depreciation | 16.7% of II.3 + 5% of II.4 |
| 2. GSA Cost | 25% of I.2 + 25% of I.3 + 25% of III.1 |
| 3. R&D Cost | 40% of III.1 |
| IV. Profit | 5% of II |
| V. Warranty | 5.6% of I + 5.6% of III + 5.6% of IV |
| VI. Total Cost | I + III + IV + V |

3.3 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS CALCULATION

The environmental impacts for battery manufacturing are calculated based on Equation 1. No material combustion or decomposition process emissions are considered for battery manufacturing.

4 TRANSPORTATION AND COLLECTION

The transportation and collection module in EverBatt considers (1) transportation of the spent batteries from their last user to the collection site, (2) transportation of the spent batteries from the collection site to the recycler, (3) transportation of recovered materials from the recycler to the cathode producer, (4) transportation of cathode material produced from recycled materials from the cathode producer to the battery manufacturer, and (5) transportation of battery manufacturing scrap and rejected cells from the battery manufacturer to the recycler if the user chooses to include them.

For each of the five transportation segments, EverBatt considers five transportation modes: medium-duty truck, heavy-duty truck, rail, barge, and ocean tanker. LIBs are currently characterized as Class 9 hazardous materials for transportation (Huo *et al.* 2017), but it is possible that they will be exempt from the hazardous materials transportation requirements, following the precedent set by lead-acid batteries. Therefore, for each of the five transportation segments, EverBatt also considers two scenarios: (1) the cargo is subject to hazardous materials transportation requirements; and (2) the cargo is exempt from hazardous materials transportation requirements. It should be noted that packaging the battery for safe storage and transportation is not included in this version of EverBatt, and will be added in future model expansions.

Users are required to determine whether or not to include transportation of manufacturing scrap and rejected cells in the analysis, and specify the distance for each of the five transportation segments. Users can then specify the transportation distance for each transportation mode. If the users choose not to do so, for transportation over distances greater than 70 miles, EverBatt assumes that it is done by heavy-duty trucks; and for transportation over shorter distances, EverBatt assumes that it is done by medium-duty trucks. The default payload is 25 ton for heavy-duty trucks, and 8 ton for medium-duty trucks. Users can specify the truck payload, which affects the environmental impacts calculation. Users can also specify if the cargo is classified as hazardous material. Again, should the users choose not to do so, EverBatt assumes that transportation segments 1, 2, and 5 are subject to hazardous materials transportation requirements, while transportation segments 3 and 4 are not.

The transportation cost is then calculated as follows:

$$Transportation\ cost = \sum_i \sum_j Distance_{i,j} \times unit\ cost_j$$

Eq. 4

Where $Distance_{i,j}$ represents the distance transported by mode j for segment i , and $unit\ cost_j$ is the unit transportation cost for mode j .

The unit cost for different transportation modes under different transportation scenarios are based on U.S. national average data, and are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8. Default unit cost (\$/ton-mile) for different transportation modes

| | Class 9 Hazardous (\$/ton-mile) | Non-hazardous (\$/ton-mile) |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Rail | 0.97 ^a | 0.05 ^c |
| Heavy heavy-duty truck | 6.28 ^a | 0.14 ^c |
| Medium heavy-duty truck | 9.4 ^a | 0.15 ^c |
| Ocean tanker | 0.5 ^b | 0.02 ^d |
| Barge | 0.5 ^b | 0.02 ^e |

- a. 2012 U.S. national average, United States Census Bureau 2015
- b. Own estimate
- c. 2007 U.S. national average, Austin, D. 2015
- d. Assumed to be the same as barge cost
- e. 2004 U.S. national average, United States Department of Transportation 2019

Since the environmental impacts of transportation are dictated by the amount of fuel consumed, while whether or not the cargo is classified as hazardous materials is not expected to affect transportation fuel consumption, the environmental impacts for transportation in EverBatt are calculated as follows:

$$EI_k = \sum_i \sum_j Distance_{i,j} \times ei_{j,k}$$

Eq. 5

Where $ei_{j,k}$ denotes the environmental impact/emission category k result for transporting 1 ton of cargo over 1 mile by transportation mode j in GREET.

5 BATTERY RECYCLING

The battery recycling module in EverBatt covers processes pertaining to the recovery of materials from spent batteries in usable forms. For the cathode material in particular, this means recovery of it “as is”, or as Co/Ni/Li compounds, to allow for integration with the materials conversion, cathode powder production, and battery manufacturing with recycled materials modules. Depending on the wastewater discharge standards the recycler is subject to, on-site wastewater treatment may also be an integral part of battery recycling. Again, this version of EverBatt models the battery at the cell level. Therefore, unit operations that are often essential to battery pack recycling, such as discharge and disassembly, are not included at present, and will be added in future expansions of EverBatt.

EverBatt considers three recycling technologies/pathways: pyrometallurgical recycling, hydrometallurgical recycling, and direct cathode recycling (hereinafter referred to as direct recycling). In light of the collected data on equipment costing and the corresponding capacity as summarized in Appendix A, EverBatt currently supports cost analyses for recycling plants with an annual capacity up to 50,000 tonnes of cells.

Figure 2 depicts the process flow for a generic pyrometallurgical recycling process, in which spent batteries, either shredded or intact, are sent to a smelter, where electrolyte and plastics in the batteries are burned off to supply heat; graphite/carbon and aluminum in the batteries act as reductants for the metals and are oxidized; cobalt, nickel, copper, and iron in the batteries end up in the matte; and the rest of the materials, including oxidized aluminum end up in the slag. The Co/Ni/Cu/Fe matte is then further processed by acid leaching followed by solvent extraction and precipitation to produce cobalt and nickel compounds that can be used for new cathode materials production. It should be noted that lithium in the slag can potentially be recovered. This version of EverBatt does not include this scenario, however, due to lack of information on the lithium recovery process. It should be also noted that the slag may be used as aggregate for pavement, or as supplementary material for cement production.

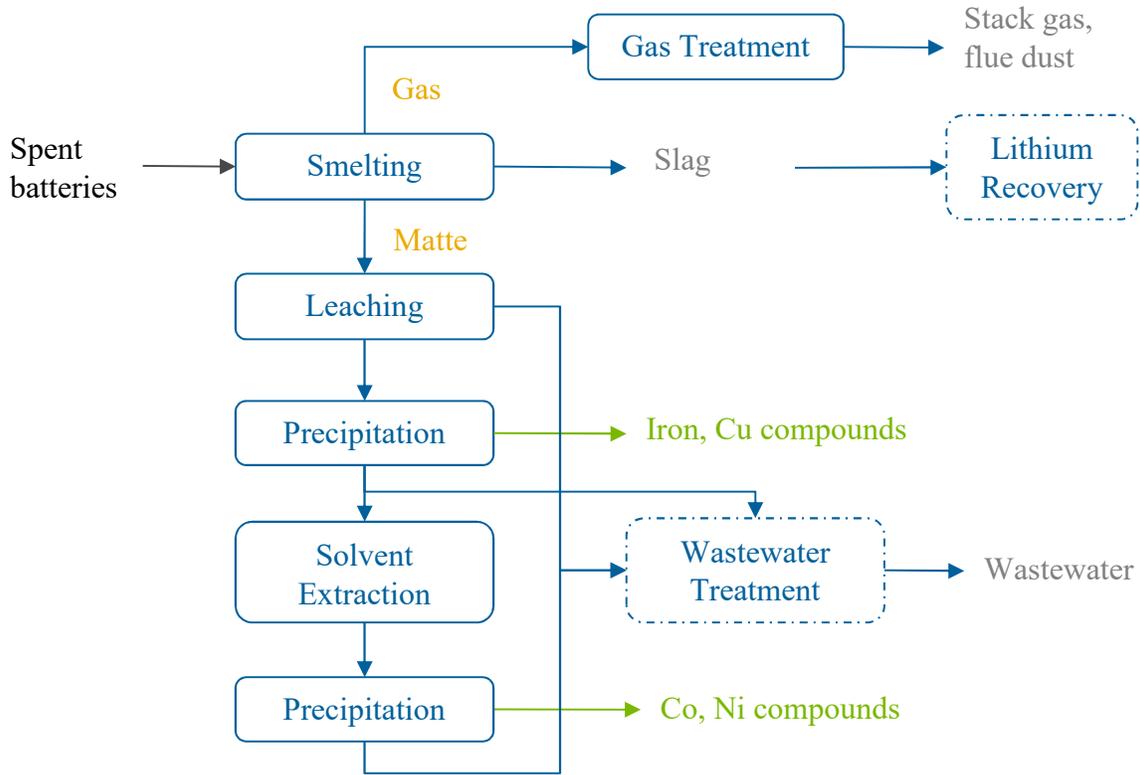


Figure 2. Process diagram of a generic pyrometallurgical recycling process. Solid boxes denote common unit operations; dashed boxes denote optional unit operations; green denotes products; yellow denotes intermediate products; grey denote wastes.

Figure 3 depicts the process flow for a generic hydrometallurgical recycling process. Discharged and disassembled spent batteries are shredded, and then undergo a low temperature calcination process to burn off the binder and electrolyte, several physical separation processes to separate out aluminum, copper, steel as metal scraps and plastics, and a leaching process followed by solvent extraction and sometimes precipitation to produce Co/Ni/Mn compounds, and potentially lithium carbonate for new cathode material production.

Figure 4 depicts the process flow for a generic direct recycling process. Discharged and disassembled batteries are perforated first, and then undergo supercritical CO₂ extraction to recycle the electrolyte solvents and salts. The rest of the batteries are shredded, and go through a series of physical separation processes to recover plastics, metals, anode material, and cathode material, respectively. The recovered cathode material is then relithiated to produce rejuvenated cathode powder.

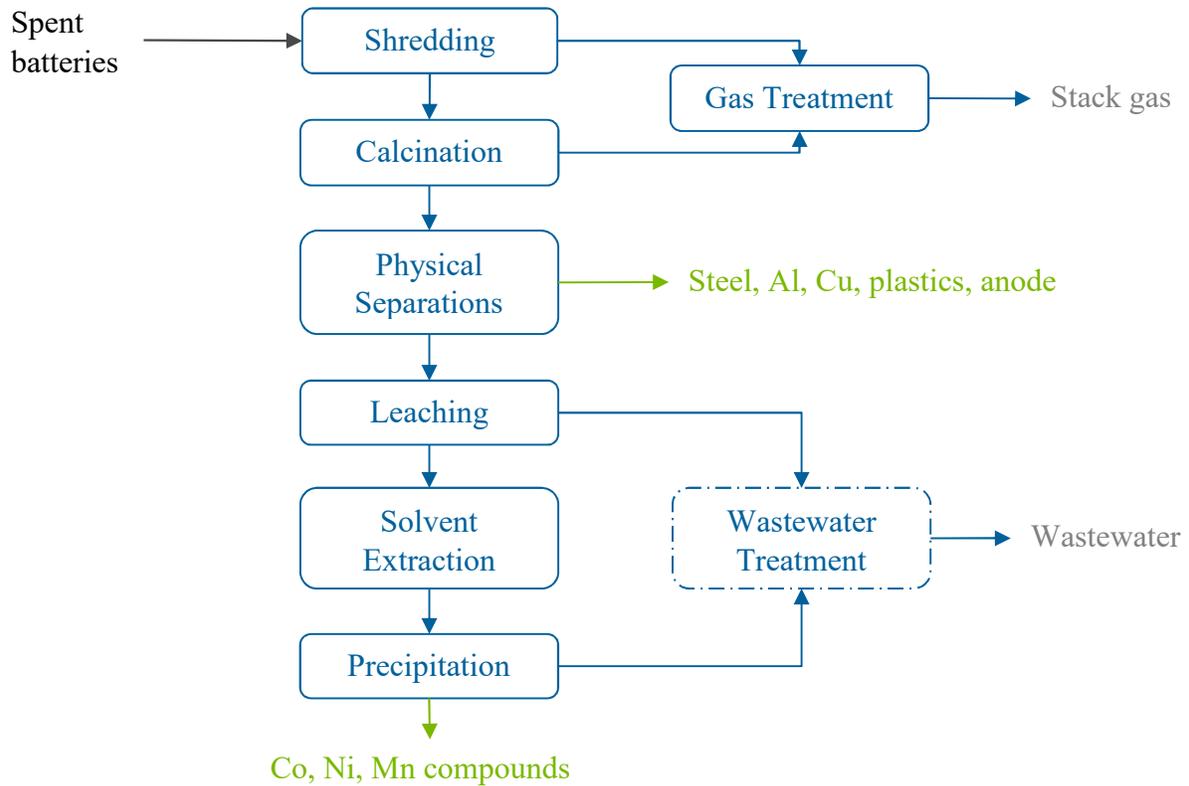


Figure 3. Process diagram of a generic hydrometallurgical recycling process. Solid boxes denote common unit operations; dashed box denotes optional unit operation; green denotes products; grey denotes wastes.

It should be noted that supercritical CO₂ extraction can be incorporated into the hydrometallurgical process to recycle the electrolyte. It could also be excluded from the direct recycling process if electrolyte recovery is not intended by the recycler. If not recycled, the electrolyte is typically removed from the batteries by combustion and/or evaporation, as currently assumed in the generic pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical processes, where gas treatment is needed to remove fluoride emissions generated from the combustion and/or decomposition of the electrolyte. Therefore, the three generic recycling technologies in EverBatt could differ from the process used by a specific recycler. To accommodate possible variations of the processes, in EverBatt we allow the users to customize the recycling process they want to analyze, provided that the cathode materials are recovered in chemical forms that can be incorporated back to the battery supply chain. The materials assumed to be recoverable from spent batteries through each of the recycling technologies are summarized in Table 9.

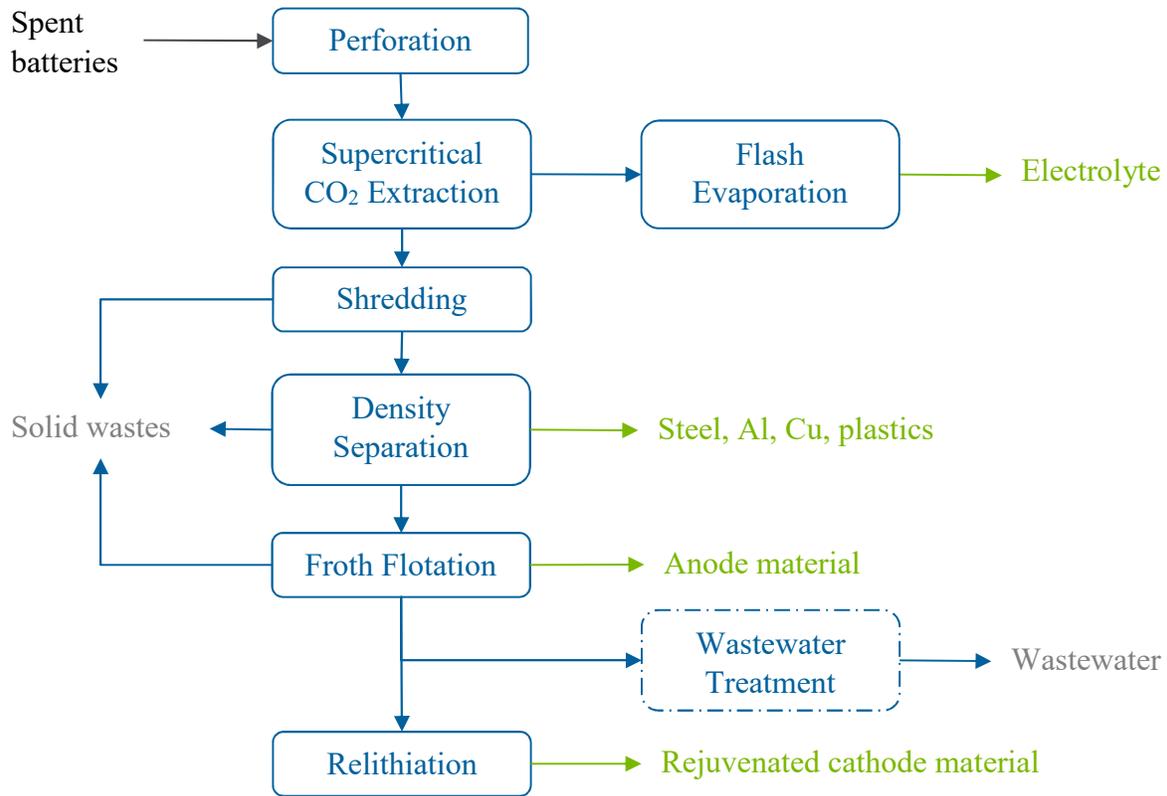


Figure 4. Process diagram of a generic direct recycling process. Solid boxes denote common unit operations; dashed box denotes optional unit operation; green denotes products; grey denotes wastes.

Table 9. Recoverable materials through different recycling technologies

| Pyrometallurgical | Hydrometallurgical | Direct |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copper compounds • Iron compounds • Co²⁺ in output • Ni²⁺ in output • Lithium compounds* • Aggregate (from slag)* | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copper • Steel • Aluminum • Graphite • Plastics • Lithium carbonate • Co²⁺ in output • Ni²⁺ in output • Mn²⁺ in output • Electrolyte solvents • Electrolyte salts* | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Copper • Steel • Aluminum • Graphite • Plastics • LCO • NMC(111) • NMC(622) • NMC(811) • NCA • LMO • LFP • Electrolyte solvents • Electrolyte salts* |

* Not currently included in EverBatt

5.1 MODULE INPUTS

For battery recycling, the required inputs include the chemistry of the battery to be recycled, the throughput (tonnes of cells per year) of the recycling plant, the location of the recycling plant, whether or not to recycle manufacturing scrap and rejected cells, the materials and energy flows associated with the recycling process, the equipment used for the process, the unit prices of chemicals and utilities consumed for the process, the unit prices of materials recovered from the process, and information regarding the operation of the plant. The users need to specify the first four inputs, while for the rest of the inputs the users can choose to provide their own values, or use the default values built into EverBatt.

5.1.1 Process-related Inputs

For the chemistry of the recycled battery, the user can choose any of the seven chemistries included in EverBatt. The recycling module in EverBatt can model a spent battery feedstock of one cathode chemistry, or a mixed feedstock of up to five different chemistries. Based on the specified shares of different chemistries in the spent batteries, EverBatt calculates the material composition of the feedstock to the recycling plant, assuming that the BOMs of the spent batteries are the same as the new batteries as shown in Table 4. The users can also specify their own material compositions for the spent batteries.

By default, the recycling plant, regardless of chosen recycling technology, is assumed to operate 320 days per year, 20 hours per day. The assumed lifetime for the plant is 10 years. These inputs are used to determine the amortized capital investment for the plant as part of the recycling cost calculation.

The default material and energy requirements for the three generic recycling technologies are obtained from literature, patents, and expert opinions, and are summarized in Table 10. The diesel consumption for all three technologies is for wheel loaders, and it is assumed that a wheel loader with a diesel consumption rate of 20 liters/hr (model 980H or similar, Caterpillar 2012) works on a 300kg battery pack for 15 minutes to load/unload it and transport it within the

recycling plant. The water consumption for the generic hydrometallurgical recycling technology is estimated by subtracting the water consumption for commercial NMC powder production in GREET (Dai *et al.* 2018a) from that for closed-loop recycling of NMC from spent batteries. The closed-loop recycling of NMC includes hydrometallurgical recycling of batteries to recover cobalt, manganese, and nickel as salts, and subsequent NMC powder production from these recovered salts, as reported by a leading recycler (Dai *et al.* 2017). The natural gas consumption for the generic hydrometallurgical recycling technology is calculated in the same manner. The direct recycling technology is still in its infancy, and even laboratory-scale process data are scarce. In the absence of data, the water consumption for the generic direct recycling technology is assumed to be the same as that for the generic hydrometallurgical technology.

Table 10. Materials and energy requirements to recycle 1 kg of spent battery through different technologies

| | Pyrometallurgical | Hydrometallurgical | Direct |
|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Material inputs (kg) | | | |
| Ammonium Hydroxide | --- | 0.031 ^d | --- |
| Hydrochloric Acid | 0.21 ^a | 0.012 ^d | --- |
| Hydrogen Peroxide | 0.06 ^a | 0.366 ^d | --- |
| Sodium Hydroxide | --- | 0.561 ^d | --- |
| Limestone | 0.30 ^b | --- | --- |
| Lithium Carbonate | --- | --- | 0.003 ^a |
| Sand | 0.15 ^b | --- | --- |
| Carbon Dioxide | --- | --- | 2.2 ^a |
| Sulfuric Acid | --- | 1.08 ^d | --- |
| Soda Ash | --- | 0.02 ^d | --- |
| Water consumption (gal) | --- | 1 ^c | 1 ^c |
| Energy consumption (MJ) | | | |
| Diesel | 0.6 ^c | 0.6 ^c | 0.6 ^c |
| Natural gas | --- | 2.5 ^c | --- |
| Electricity | 4.68 ^b | 0.125 ^d | 2.73 ^a |

a. Dunn *et al.* 2014

- b. Huelens *et al.* 2016
- c. Own estimate
- d. Xie *et al.* 2015

Table 11 summarizes the default assumption in EverBatt for what happens to the materials in the batteries if they are recycled via each of the generic recycling technologies. The users can opt to select the fates of battery constituents for their own process. If “burn for energy” is specified as the fate for a material, the emissions from combustion of this material will be included in the environmental impacts calculation.

Table 11. Fates of battery constituents for different recycling technologies

| | Pyrometallurgical | Hydrometallurgical | Direct |
|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|---------|
| Active cathode materials | Recycle | Recycle | Recycle |
| Graphite | Burn for energy | Recycle | Recycle |
| Copper | Recycle | Recycle | Recycle |
| Aluminum | Landfill | Recycle | Recycle |
| Steel | Recycle | Recycle | Recycle |
| Plastics | Burn for energy | Burn for energy | Recycle |
| Electrolyte | Burn for energy | Burn for energy | Recycle |
| Carbon black | Burn for energy | Landfill | Recycle |
| PVDF | Burn for energy | Landfill | Recycle |

The amounts of materials recovered from each of the recycling technologies are determined by the amount of each material in the feedstock, and the default recovery efficiency of each material assumed in EverBatt, which is summarized in Table 12. The recovery efficiencies for cathode materials and metals via the pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical technologies are based on what have been achieved in commercialized processes (Huelens *et al.* 2016, Xie *et al.* 2015), but slightly more conservative than those reported by the recyclers, to represent the average process performance. For plastics and electrolyte solvents, a material recovery efficiency of 50% is assumed, as the recycler may not be as incentivized to recycle these materials compared with cobalt and nickel, which have high values, or with metals, for

which there are often steady demands. Again, in the absence of data for direct recycling technology, it is assumed to have the same materials recovery efficiencies as the other two recycling technologies, except for cathode materials. Considering the challenges associated with separating the cathode material from the rest of the battery constituents while maintaining its structural integrity, a material recovery efficiency of 90% is assumed for the cathode materials.

Table 12. Material recovery efficiencies for different recycling technologies

| | Pyrometallurgical | Hydrometallurgical | Direct Physical |
|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Copper | 90% | 90% | 90% |
| Steel | 90% | 90% | 90% |
| Aluminum | N/A | 90% | 90% |
| Graphite | N/A | 90% | 90% |
| Plastics | N/A | 50% | 50% |
| Lithium | N/A | 90% | N/A |
| LCO | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| NMC(111) | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| NMC(622) | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| NMC(811) | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| NCA | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| LMO | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| LFP | N/A | N/A | 90% |
| Co ²⁺ in output | 98% | 98% | N/A |
| Ni ²⁺ in output | 98% | 98% | N/A |
| Mn ²⁺ in output | N/A | 98% | N/A |
| Electrolyte solvents | N/A | 50% | 50% |
| Electrolyte salts* | N/A | 50% | 50% |

* Not currently included in EverBatt

The equipment assumed for the generic pyrometallurgical, hydrometallurgical, and direct technologies in EverBatt is depicted in Figure 5, Figure 6, and Figure 7, respectively.

5.1.2 Cost Inputs

The unit costs of consumed raw materials and utilities are summarized in Appendix B, and the equipment costs are summarized in Appendix A. In addition to the consumed chemicals, the recyclers may be required to pay for the batteries they process. How much they pay (i.e., the battery fee) depends on the battery chemistry. Generally speaking, the recyclers need to pay a premium to get batteries with a higher cobalt content. The battery fees to the recyclers assumed in EverBatt for different chemistries, which we solicited from industry sources, are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13. Battery fees to the recyclers for different battery chemistries (\$/kg battery)

| | LCO | NMC(111) | NMC(622) | NMC(811) | NCA | LMO | LFP |
|-------------|--------|----------|----------|----------|--------|----------|----------|
| Fee (\$/kg) | \$2.00 | \$0.20 | \$0.00 | \$0.00 | \$0.00 | -\$1.00* | -\$2.00* |

*Negative values indicate that the recyclers get paid for taking the batteries.

The unit prices of recovered materials are also required costing inputs. The spot prices of recovered battery constituents on the North American market are summarized in Table 14. Metals, plastics, and graphite are assumed to be recovered and sold as scrap. Recovered Co/Ni/Mn/Li compounds from cathode materials via pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical recycling routes are typically considered “good as new” by cathode powder producers, and are therefore assumed to sell at the same prices as their virgin counterparts. Cathode materials recovered “as is” via the direct recycling route are also assumed to be equally priced as their virgin counterparts, because they should have comparable, if not superior electrochemical properties as the virgin materials, in order for the direct recycling route to be viable. Electrolyte solvents recovered by supercritical CO₂ extraction can be used as fuel in the worst case scenario, and therefore are assumed to be priced slightly less than gasoline, diesel and residual oil of the same energy content.

Table 14. Unit prices of recovered battery materials (\$/kg)

| Materials | Unit Prices (\$/kg) |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Aluminum | \$1.30 ^a |
| Copper | \$6.60 ^a |
| Steel | \$0.30 ^{a,b} |
| Plastics | \$0.10 ^c |
| LCO | \$35.00 ^d |
| NMC(111) | \$20.00 ^d |
| NMC(622) | \$17.00 ^d |
| NMC(811) | \$16.00 ^d |
| Lithium carbonate | \$7.90 ^d |
| Ni ²⁺ in output | \$11.00 ^d |
| Co ²⁺ in output | \$55.00 ^d |
| Mn ²⁺ in output | \$2.00 ^d |
| LMO | \$10.00 ^d |
| NCA | \$24.00 ^d |
| LFP | \$14.00 ^d |
| Electrolyte solvents | \$0.15 ^e |
| Graphite | \$0.28 ^f |

- a. Scrap Register 2019
- b. United States Geological Survey (USGS) 2016a
- c. Plastics Markets 2019, assumed to be recovered as mixed film
- d. Assumed to sell at the same price as virgin material
- e. Own estimate
- f. Recycler's World 2019

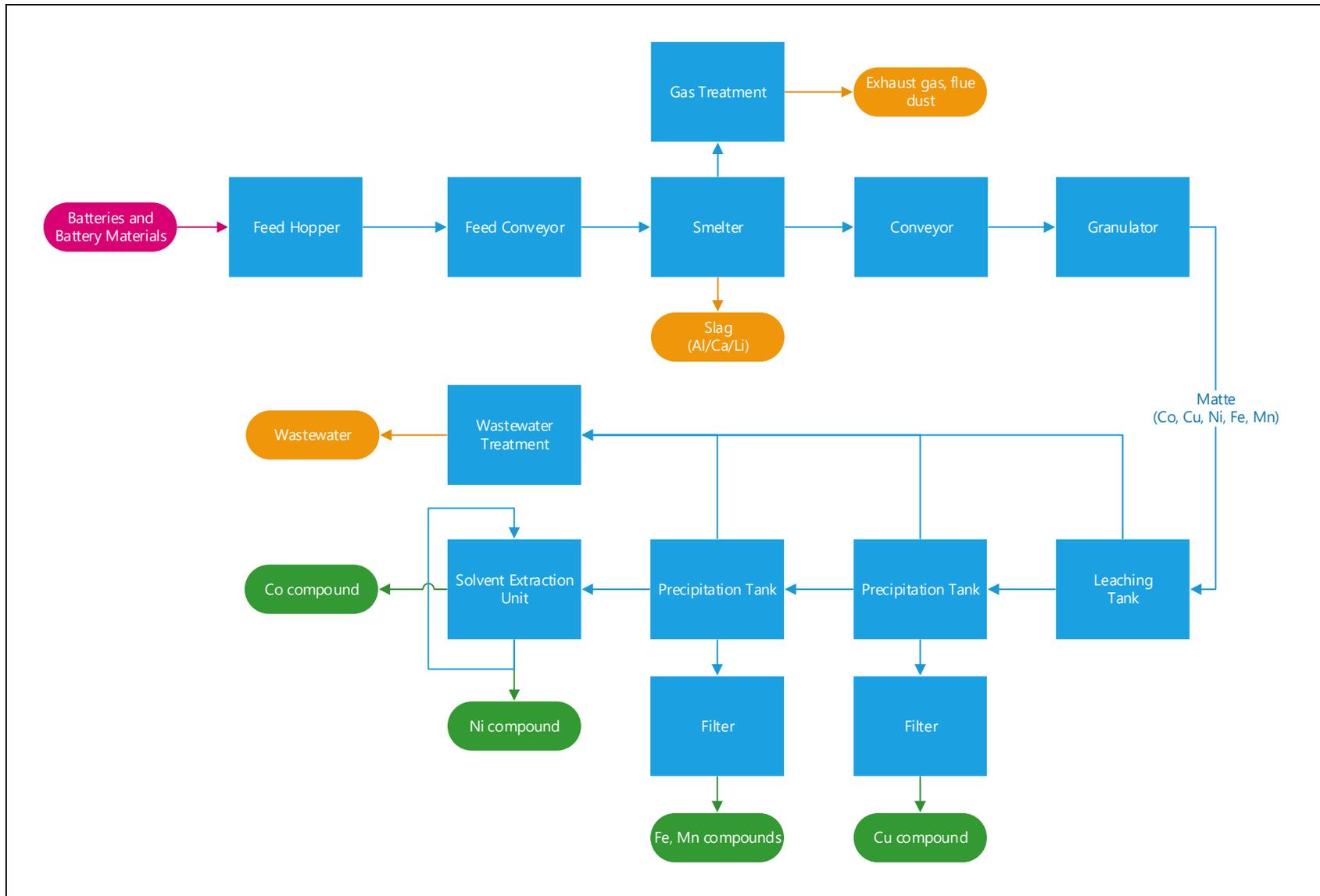


Figure 5. Equipment assumed for generic pyrometallurgical recycling. Green denotes products. Orange denotes wastes.

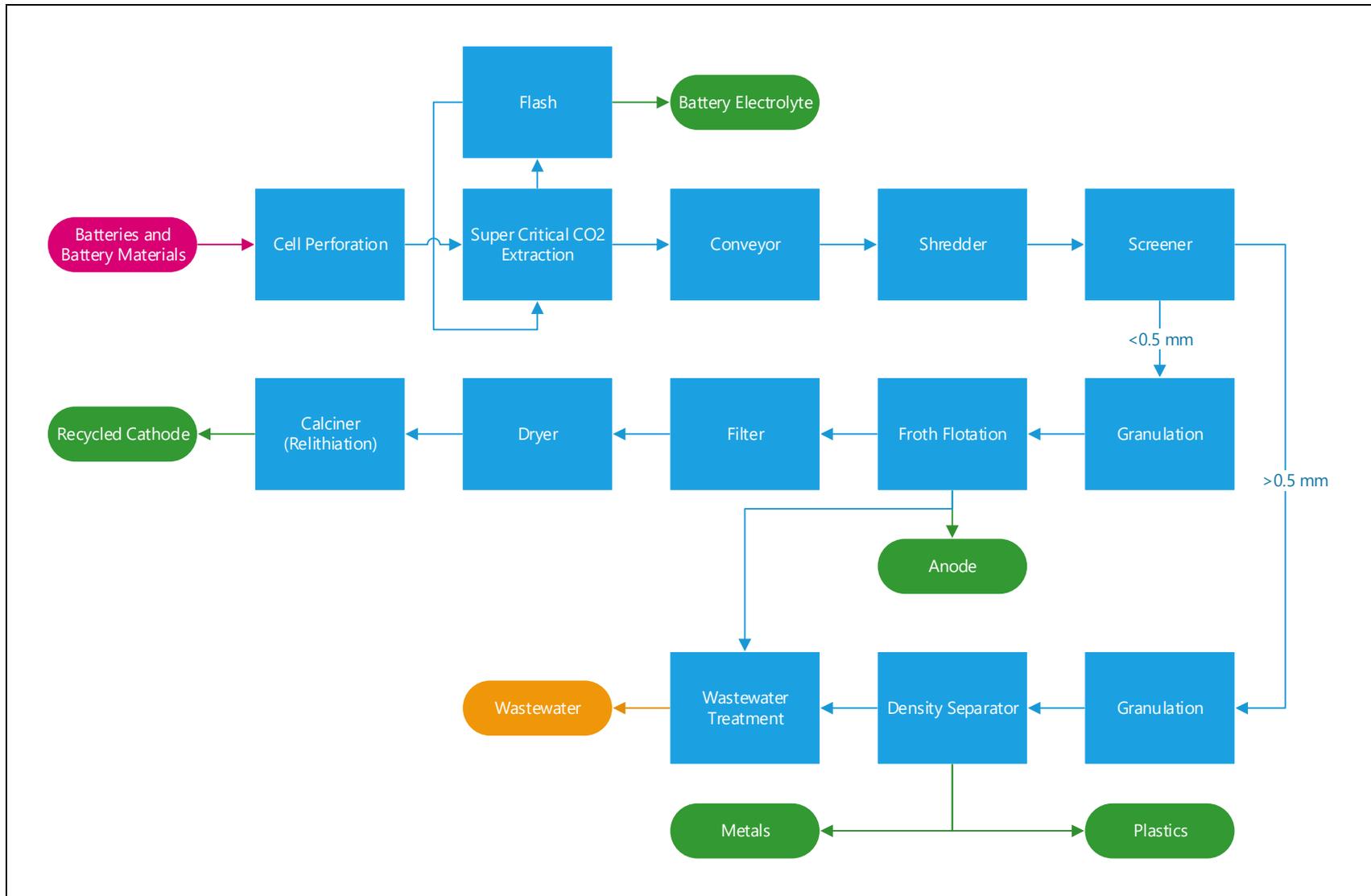


Figure 7. Equipment assumed for generic direct recycling. Green denotes products. Orange denotes wastes.

5.2 COST CALCULATION

The cost of battery recycling at the plant is estimated based on the production cost model for generic chemical plants as shown in Table 1. The specific cost parameters chosen for the recycling plant, as well as the modifications, are summarized in Table 15. The total battery recycling cost in EverBatt is the sum of transportation cost as calculated by Equation 4, and recycling cost at the plant as estimated by Table 15.

Table 15. Default parameters for recycling cost modeling

| Cost Item | Estimated as |
|--|--|
| I. Direct Costs | I.A+I.B+I.C+I.D |
| A. Equipment | I.A.1+I.A.2+I.A.3+I.A.4+I.A.5 |
| 1. Purchased equipment | Sum of equipment costs |
| 2. Installation, including insulation and painting | 40% of I.A.1 |
| 3. Instrumentation and controls, installed | 20% of I.A.1 |
| 4. Piping, installed | 20% of I.A.1 |
| 5. Electrical, installed | 10% of I.A.1 |
| B. Buildings, process and auxiliary | 25% of I.A.1 |
| C. Service facilities and yard improvements | 60% of I.A.1 |
| D. Land | 8% of I.A.1 |
| II. Indirect Costs | II.A+II.B+II.C |
| A. Engineering and supervision | 10% of I |
| B. Construction expense and contractor's fee | 10% of I |
| C. Contingency | 5% of III |
| III. Fixed Capital Investment | I+II |
| IV. Working Capital | 10% of V |
| V. Total Capital Investment | III+IV |
| VI. Manufacturing Costs | VI.A+VI.B+VI.C |
| A. Direct product costs | VI.A.1+VI.A.2+VI.A.3+VI.A.4+VI.A.5+VI.A.6+VI.A.7 |
| 1. Raw materials | Sum of raw materials costs |
| 2. Operating labor | Total labor-hour requirement × hourly labor rate |
| 3. Direct supervisory and clerical labor | 15% of VI.A.2 |
| 4. Utilities | Sum of utilities costs |
| 5. Maintenance and repairs | 5% of III |
| 6. Operating supplies | 15% of VI.A.5 |

| | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 7. Laboratory charges | 10% of VI.A.2 |
| 8. Patents and royalties | 1% of VIII |
| B. Fixed charges | VI.B.1+VI.B.2+VI.B.3+VI.B.4+VI.B.5 |
| 1. Depreciation | (III-I.D)/plant lifetime |
| 2. Local taxes | 4% of III |
| 3. Insurance | 1% of III |
| 4. Rent | 5% of (I.B+I.D) |
| 5. Financing (interest) | 5% of V |
| C. Plant overhead costs | 50% of (VI.A.2+ VI.A.2+ VI.A.2) |
| VII. General Expenses | VII.A+VII.B+VII.C |
| A. Administrative costs | 15% of (VI.A.2+ VI.A.2+ VI.A.2) |
| B. Distribution and selling costs | 6% of VIII |
| C. R&D costs | 5% of VIII |
| VIII. Total Product Cost | VI+VII |
| IX. Profit (optional) | 5% of V |
| X. Cost to Recipient | VIII+IX+battery fee |

Besides expenditures, the cost calculation for battery recycling also considers revenues, which are calculated as

$$Revenue = \sum_i m_i \times up_i$$

Eq.6

Where m_i is the mass of material i recovered from spent batteries, and up_i is the unit price of material i as shown in Table 14.

For both open-loop and closed-loop recycling scenarios, the net cost of recycling is determined as

$$Net\ recycling\ cost = transportation\ cost + recycling\ cost - Revenue$$

Eq.7

For closed-loop recycling scenarios, the cost of recovered materials that are incorporated back into the battery supply chain is needed for the cost calculation of cathode powder production and battery manufacturing, and is determined as

$$Cost_{recycled\ materials} = transportation\ cost + recycling\ cost - \sum_j m_j \times up_j$$

Eq.8

Where m_j is the mass of material j that is not closed-loop recycled, and up_j is its unit cost.

5.3 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS CALCULATION

The environmental impacts of battery recycling are calculated using Equation 1. Process emissions from both material combustion and material decomposition are considered in the battery recycling module, and are discussed in detail below. This section also discusses how the environmental impacts of battery recycling are allocated to each recovered material.

5.3.1 Process Emissions Calculation

Battery recycling processes often involve burning off some of the battery constituents to facilitate material separation, while also helping reduce energy demands of the plant. EverBatt accounts for CO₂ emissions from burning off graphite, carbon black, binder material, electrolyte, and plastics in the battery, and estimates these emissions as

$$P_{CO_2, combustion} = \sum_i m_i \times \frac{Carbon\ content_i}{Carbon\ content_{CO_2}}$$

Eq.9

Where $P_{CO_2, combustion}$ denotes process CO₂ emissions from material combustion, m_i denotes the mass of material i that is combusted in the recycling process, and $Carbon\ content_i$

denotes the carbon content of material i , as summarized in Table 16. Material combustion emissions other than CO₂ are not considered in EverBatt at present.

Table 16. Carbon contents of battery constituents

| | Graphite | Carbon black | Plastics | | | Electrolyte solvents | | PVDF |
|-------------------------|----------|--------------|----------|-----|-----|----------------------|-----|------|
| | | | PET | PP | PE | EC | DMC | |
| Carbon content (mass %) | 100% | 100% | 63% | 86% | 92% | 41% | 40% | 36% |

For process emissions from material decomposition in the recycling processes, EverBatt currently accounts for CO₂ emissions from thermal decomposition of lithium carbonate, calcium carbonate (limestone), and sodium carbonate (soda ash). These process CO₂ emissions are estimated based on stoichiometry. For recycling processes that deploy supercritical CO₂ extraction, a 10% CO₂ loss is assumed based on our communication with Dr. Steve Sloop. This CO₂ loss is also included in the process CO₂ emission calculation. In summary, the process CO₂ emissions from battery recycling are calculated as

$$P_{CO_2} = P_{CO_2,combustion} + P_{CO_2,decomposition} + P_{CO_2,loss} \tag{Eq.10}$$

5.3.2 Allocation

Recycling processes typically recover multiple materials from the spent batteries, but not all the recovered materials are used to make new batteries, which necessitates allocation to estimate the environmental impacts in the closed-loop recycling scenarios. In short, allocation is the practice of partitioning the environmental impacts of a multi-product process to its individual products. EverBatt includes four allocation options: no allocation, mass-based allocation, economic value-based allocation, and system expansion.

Since only cathode materials are closed-loop recycled at present, in the “no allocation” scenario, all environmental impacts of the recycling process are assigned to recovered cathode

materials or their precursors (e.g., cobalt and nickel compounds for pyrometallurgical recycling, cathode powder for direct recycling).

For “mass-based allocation”, the environmental impacts of the recycling process are partitioned based on allocation factors estimated as follows (for clarity’s sake, the equation calculates the allocation factor for recovered copper, but it can be any other material recovered from recycling)

$$Allocation\ factor_{mass,Cu} = \frac{m_{Cu}}{\sum_i m_i}$$

Eq.11

Where m_i denotes the mass of recovered material i , and m_{Cu} denotes the mass of recovered copper.

Similarly, the allocation factor used in “economic value-based allocation” is estimated as

$$Allocation\ factor_{economic\ value,Cu} = \frac{m_{Cu} \times up_{Cu}}{\sum_i m_i \times up_i}$$

Eq.12

Where up_i denotes the unit price of recovered material i , and up_{Cu} denotes the unit price of recovered copper.

In the “system expansion” scenario, a credit is given to each recovered material, based on the process it displaces. Since the ultimate goal of closed-loop recycling is to reuse any recovered material for its original application, if the users opt for the “system expansion” option, it is assumed in EverBatt that all recovered materials displace the production of their virgin counterparts. The environmental impacts of recovered cathode materials or their precursors are calculated as

$$EI_{cathode,k} = EI_{recycling,k} - \sum_j m_j \times ei_{j,k}$$

Eq.13

Where m_j is the mass of recovered material j other than cathode materials or their precursors, and $ei_{j,k}$ is the result of environmental impact/emission category k for 1kg of virgin material j in GREET.

The choice of allocation methods is a hotly debated issue of LCA. Generally speaking, “no allocation” results in the highest environmental impacts for the desired products and is the most conservative option, while “system expansion” returns the most optimistic estimates. The “no allocation” option is the default allocation method in EverBatt.

6 MATERIALS CONVERSION

The materials recovered from the recycling processes are not necessarily in a chemical form that can be directly used to produce new cathode powder. For instance, cobalt can be recovered as cobalt chloride from pyrometallurgical or hydrometallurgical recycling, while cobalt sulfate is needed to produce NMC, and cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4) is needed to produce LCO. The materials conversion module in EverBatt fills in the missing link, and models the conversion of recovered lithium carbonate into lithium hydroxide, recovered cobalt compounds into cobalt sulfate or cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4), and recovered nickel compounds into nickel sulfate.

The materials conversion module does not require any user input. It runs automatically based on built-in inputs. In addition, for materials conversion, only the materials and energy consumptions are considered in the cost and environmental impacts calculation, since in closed-loop recycling scenarios, the materials conversion steps presumably occur at the recycling plant or the cathode powder production plant, with minimal additional capital investment and labor requirements.

The default inputs for materials conversion include the materials and energy flows associated with the material conversion process as shown in Table 17, and the unit prices of chemicals and utilities consumed for the process as summarized in Appendix B. Lithium hydroxide is assumed to be produced commercially by reacting lithium carbonate with lime (CaO) mixed with water (Kamienski *et al.* 2004); cobalt sulfate is assumed to be produced by reacting recovered cobalt compounds with sulfuric acid in the closed-loop recycling scenarios; cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4) is assumed to be produced commercially by reacting recovered cobalt compounds with sodium hydroxide followed by calcination (Dai *et al.* 2018b); and nickel sulfate is assumed to be produced by reacting the recovered nickel compounds with sulfuric acid in the closed-loop recycling scenarios. The materials and energy requirements for cobalt oxide production are based on industry data (Dai *et al.* 2018b), while the materials requirements for the production of lithium hydroxide, cobalt sulfate, and nickel sulfate are determined based on stoichiometry assuming 100% conversion efficiency. Since none of the assumed processes for lithium hydroxide, cobalt sulfate, and nickel sulfate production requires heating, the energy

requirements for these processes are assumed to be negligible. A process water consumption of 0.2 gallon per kg precursor produced is used in EverBatt as a place holder.

Table 17. Material and energy requirements to convert recovered materials into 1kg of cathode precursors

| | Lithium Hydroxide | Cobalt Sulfate | Cobalt Oxide (Co ₃ O ₄) | Nickel Sulfate |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--|-------------------|
| Material inputs (kg) | | | | |
| Lime | 1.17 ^a | --- | --- | --- |
| Sulfuric Acid | --- | 0.63 ^a | --- | 0.63 ^a |
| Sodium Hydroxide | --- | --- | 0.47 ^b | --- |
| Ammonium Bicarbonate | --- | --- | 1.36 ^b | --- |
| Water consumption (Gal) | 0.20 ^a | 0.20 ^a | 2.66 ^b | 0.20 ^a |
| Energy inputs (MJ) | | | | |
| Electricity | 0.00 ^a | 0.00 ^a | 0.10 ^b | 0.00 ^a |
| Natural gas | 0.00 ^a | 0.00 ^a | 15.78 ^b | 0.00 ^a |

a. Own estimate

b. Dai *et al.*, 2018b

The cost of materials conversion is then calculated as

$$Cost_{materials\ conversion} = \sum_i m_i \times up_i + \sum_j q_j \times up_j + water\ use \times up_{water}$$

Eq.14

Where m_i denotes the mass of material i consumed for the process, q_j denotes the quantity of energy type j consumed, and up denotes the unit price of chemicals (by mass), utilities (by energy content) , and process water (by volume).

Similarly, the environmental impacts of materials conversion is calculated as

$$EI_{materials\ conversion,k} = \sum_i m_i \times ei_{i,k} + \sum_j q_j \times ei_{j,k} + water\ use \times ei_{water,k}$$

Eq.15

Where ei_k denotes the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of material, unit energy content of energy, and unit volume of water in GREET.

It should be noted that various leaching processes, including bioleaching, alkaline leaching, organic acid leaching, and inorganic leaching, have been proposed to recover cobalt and nickel from the intermediate products of pyrometallurgical and hydrometallurgical recycling routes (Lv *et al.* 2018). EverBatt is designed to be inclusive of all possible variations of the recycling processes, and the cobalt/nickel-containing outputs from the recycling processes are therefore generically defined as cobalt/nickel ion in the product, which is subsequently treated as a generic salt in the materials conversion module. For recycling processes that already recover cobalt/nickel in a form that can be used directly for cathode powder production (e.g., recover cobalt as cobalt sulfate), such configuration will lead to double counting. The effect of this potential double counting on the final cost and environmental impacts estimates, however, is negligible.

7 CATHODE POWDER PRODUCTION

The cathode powder production module in EverBatt evaluates the production of LCO, NMC111, NMC622, NMC811, and NCA, from both virgin and recycled Ni/Co/Mn/Li precursors. LFP and LMO powder production is not included in EverBatt at present, as LFP and LMO production from recycled precursors is not deemed to be economically viable, due to the relatively low costs of their virgin feedstocks. It should be noted, however, that EverBatt does include direct cathode recycling of LFP and LMO, which can be modeled in the battery recycling module. EverBatt also allows comparison of direct-recycled LFP and LMO powder with their virgin counterparts, based on virgin production costs from BatPaC, and environmental impacts from GREET. It should be also noted that the chemistry of the cathode powder being produced can be different from that of the battery recycled, provided that at least one of the recycled materials can be used as a precursor (with or without material conversion) for the new cathode powder. For instance, materials (cobalt and nickel salts) recycled from NMC111 batteries may be used for the production of NMC111, NMC622, NMC811, and NCA powders, while the recycled cobalt salts may be also for the production of LCO powder.

NMCs and NCA cathode powders are produced commercially by the co-precipitation method, as depicted in Figure 8, while LCO cathode powder is produced by the solid state method, as depicted in Figure 9 (Dai *et al.* 2018a).

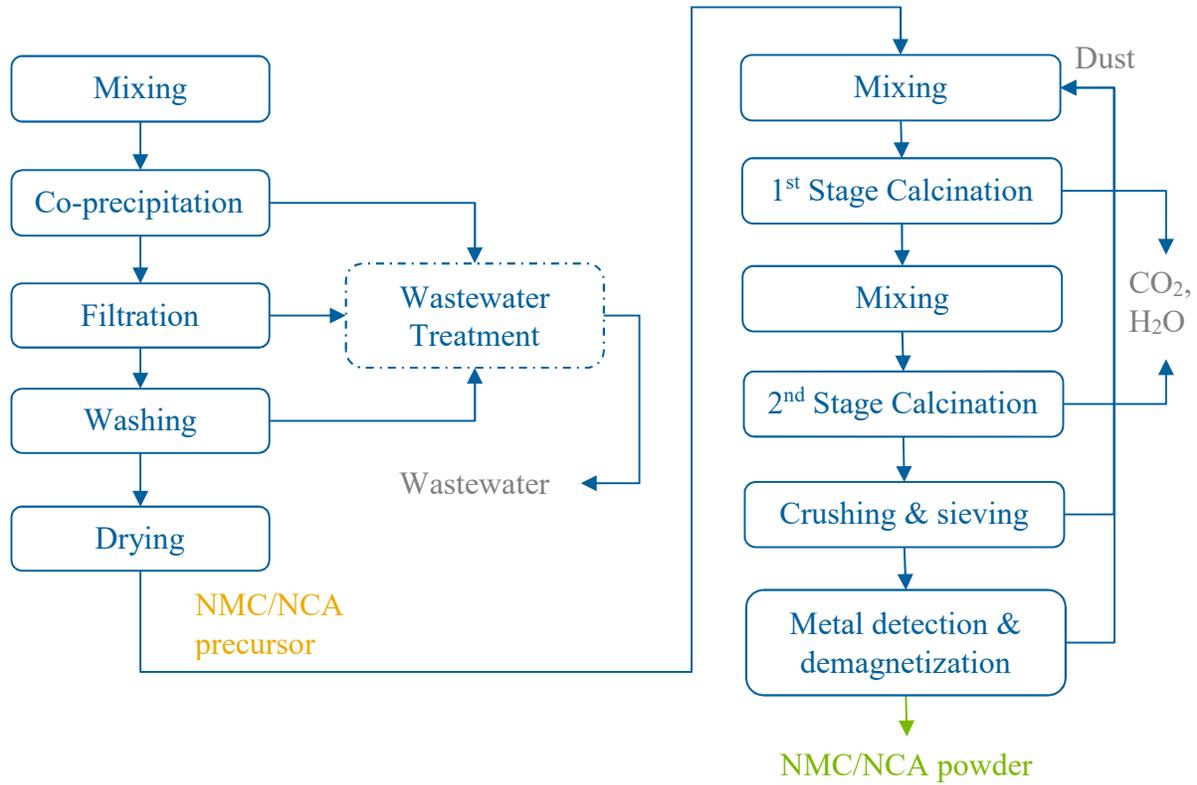


Figure 8. Process diagram of NMC/NCA powder production. Solid boxes denote required processes, and dashed box denotes optional process. Green denotes product; yellow denotes intermediate product; grey denotes wastes.

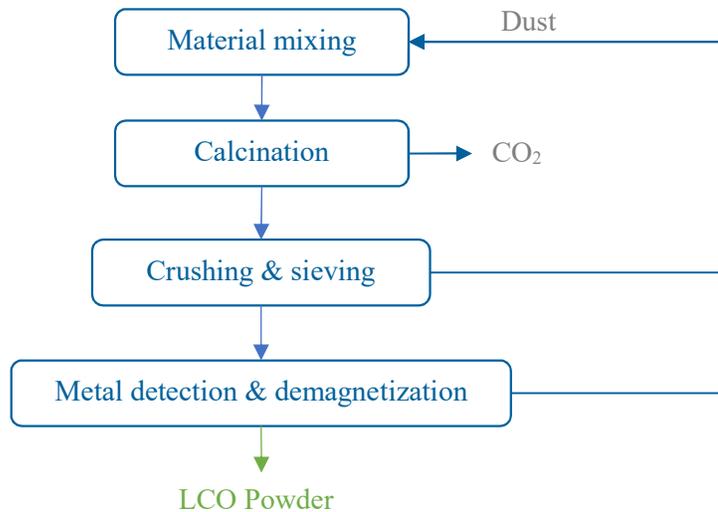


Figure 9. Process diagram of LCO powder production. Green denotes product, and grey denotes wastes.

7.1 MODULE INPUTS

For cathode powder production, the required inputs include the chemistry of the cathode powder being produced, the location of the production plant, the throughput (tonnes of cathode powder per year) of the plant, the materials and energy flows associated with the production process, and the unit prices of chemicals and utilities consumed for the process. The users need to specify the first two inputs, while for the rest of the inputs the users can choose to provide their own values, or use the default values built in EverBatt. Since cathode powder production processes are well-established, we do not expect considerable variations in the process design. Therefore, we do not make the equipment used for the process and the plant operation information customizable, as in the battery recycling module.

The cathode powder production plant is assumed to operate 320 days per year, with a 10-year life span. Again, these inputs are used to determine the amortized capital investment for the plant in cost calculation. Since current recycling processes primarily focus on cobalt recovery, by default, the throughput of the cathode powder plant is set equal to the amount of cathode powder that can be produced by depleting all recovered cobalt salts from spent batteries, as a best approximate of closed-loop recycling. Users can choose a throughput that is higher or lower than the default value, however, and EverBatt will account for the virgin materials requirement or excess recovered materials accordingly.

The equipment used for cathode powder production is based on a process model developed by the BatPaC team led by Dr. Ahmed (Ahmed *et al.*, 2017) as well as information we obtained from cathode producers (Dai *et al.*, 2018a), and is summarized in Figure 10. Since the process model developed by Ahmed *et al.* represents a plant producing 6,500 kg of NMC111 powder per day (equivalent to 2,080 tonnes per year as the plant operates 320 days per year) from one production line, and the industry data we obtained are based on a plant with multiple production lines, each of which has a production capacity of 2,000 tonnes per year, the cathode powder production module in EverBatt also assumes a maximum production line capacity of 2,000 tonnes per year. As a result, when the throughput of the cathode powder production plant

falls between 2,001 and 4,000 tonnes per year, two production lines will be needed; when the throughput of the cathode powder production plant falls between 4,001 and 6,000 tonnes per year, three production lines will be needed; et cetera. The throughput of each production line is then determined by dividing the throughput of the plant by the number of production lines, and used subsequently to derive the costs of equipment.

Table 18. Materials and energy requirements to produce 1 kg cathode power

| | LCO | NMC(111) | NMC(622) | NMC(811) | NCA |
|--|-------|----------|----------|----------|-------|
| Material inputs (kg) | | | | | |
| Sodium Hydroxide | --- | 0.844 | 0.844 | 0.845 | 0.836 |
| Lithium Hydroxide | --- | --- | --- | 0.246 | 0.250 |
| Lithium Carbonate | 0.377 | 0.383 | 0.381 | --- | --- |
| Hydrochloric Acid | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sodium Chlorate | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Cobalt Oxide (Co ₃ O ₄) | 0.820 | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Oxygen | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0.040 |
| Nickel Sulfate | --- | 0.535 | 0.958 | 1.273 | 1.292 |
| Cobalt Sulfate | --- | 0.536 | 0.320 | 0.159 | 0.247 |
| Manganese Sulfate | --- | 0.522 | 0.312 | 0.155 | --- |
| Ammonium Hydroxide | --- | 0.117 | 0.117 | 0.117 | --- |
| Aluminum Sulfate | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0.086 |
| Ammonia | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0.352 |
| Manganese Oxide | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Phosphoric Acid | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Iron Sulfate | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Process water (gal) | --- | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| Energy inputs (MJ) | | | | | |
| Electricity | 21.60 | 25.20 | 25.20 | 28.80 | 28.80 |
| Natural gas | --- | 42.62 | 42.63 | 42.62 | 42.66 |

The default materials and energy requirements for cathode powder production, as shown in Table 18, are based on industry data (Dai *et al.* 2018a). Again, the unit costs of consumed chemicals and utilities are summarized in Appendix B. It should be noted that the NMC111 powder production process as described in Ahmed *et al.* is based on the carbonate pathway (i.e., co-precipitating Ni/Mn/Co as carbonate), while the production process as described in Dai *et al.* is based on the hydroxide pathway (co-precipitating Ni/Mn/Co as hydroxide). However, except for the reagents used for the co-precipitation step, there is no substantial differences between the two pathways, especially with regard to equipment. Therefore, although EverBatt adopts the hydroxide pathway for the production of NMCs and NCA via co-precipitation, assuming the same equipment as the carbonate pathway is not expected to have any noticeable effect on the cost modeling result.

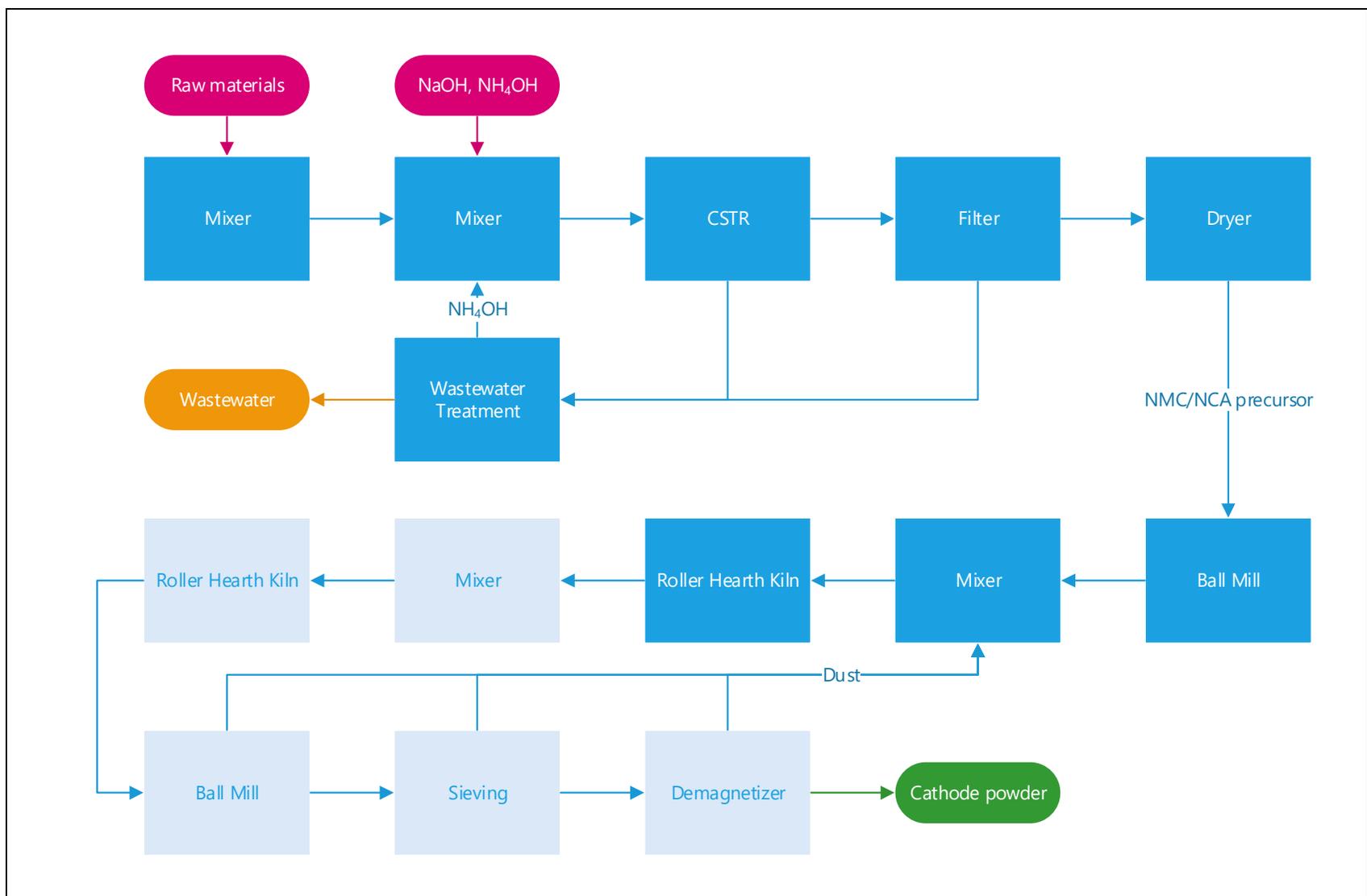


Figure 10. Equipment assumed for cathode powder production. Light blue boxes denote equipment that is needed for LCO powder production. Red denotes reagents. Green denotes product. Yellow denotes waste.

7.2 COST CALCULATION

The cost calculation for cathode production, except for the profit, is based on the production cost model developed by the BatPaC team (Ahmed *et al.*, 2017). The specific cost parameters chosen for the cathode production plant are summarized in Table 19.

Table 19. Default parameters for battery powder production cost modeling

| Cost Item | Estimated as |
|--|--|
| I. Direct Costs | I.A+I.B+I.C+I.D |
| A. Equipment | I.A.1+I.A.2+I.A.3+I.A.4+I.A.5 |
| 1. Purchased equipment | Sum of equipment costs |
| 2. Installation, including insulation and painting | 40% of I.A.1 |
| 3. Instrumentation and controls, installed | 20% of I.A.1 |
| 4. Piping, installed | 20% of I.A.1 |
| 5. Electrical, installed | 10% of I.A.1 |
| B. Buildings, process and auxiliary | 25% of I.A.1 |
| C. Service facilities and yard improvements | 60% of I.A.1 |
| D. Land | 8% of I.A.1 |
| II. Indirect Costs | II.A+II.B+II.C |
| A. Engineering and supervision | 10% of I |
| B. Construction expense and contractor's fee | 10% of I |
| C. Contingency | 5% of III |
| III. Fixed Capital Investment | I+II |
| IV. Working Capital | 10% of V |
| V. Total Capital Investment | III+IV |
| VI. Manufacturing Costs | VI.A+VI.B+VI.C |
| A. Direct product costs | VI.A.1+VI.A.2+VI.A.3+VI.A.4+VI.A.5+VI.A.6+VI.A.7 |
| 1. Materials cost | Sum of raw materials costs for virgin production; determined by Equation 16 for production with recycled materials |
| 2. Operating labor | Total labor-hour requirement × hourly labor rate |
| 3. Direct supervisory and clerical labor | 15% of VI.A.2 |
| 4. Utilities | Sum of utilities costs |
| 5. Maintenance and repairs | 5% of III |
| 6. Operating supplies | 15% of VI.A.5 |

| | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 7. Laboratory charges | 10% of VI.A.2 |
| 8. Patents and royalties | 1% of VIII |
| B. Fixed charges | VI.B.1+VI.B.2+VI.B.3+VI.B.4+VI.B.5 |
| 1. Depreciation | (III-I.D)/plant lifetime |
| 2. Local taxes | 4% of III |
| 3. Insurance | 1% of III |
| 4. Rent | 5% of (I.B+I.D) |
| 5. Financing (interest) | 5% of V |
| C. Plant overhead costs | 50% of (VI.A.2+ VI.A.2+ VI.A.2) |
| VII. General Expenses | VII.A+VII.B+VII.C |
| A. Administrative costs | 15% of (VI.A.2+ VI.A.2+ VI.A.2) |
| B. Distribution and selling costs | 6% of VIII |
| C. R&D costs | 5% of VIII |
| VIII. Total Product Cost | VI+VII |
| IX. Profit (optional) | 5% of V |
| X. Cost to Recipient | VIII+IX |

For cathode production with recycled materials, EverBatt first determines whether there is enough recycled material(s) to meet the production demand. If there is a shortage of recycled material(s), virgin material(s) will be used to meet the remainder of the demand. Since the chemistry of recycled batteries is not necessarily the same as that of the cathode powder being produced, and the throughput of the recycling plant can be higher than that of the cathode production plant, a surplus of recycled material(s) is also possible. For instance, recovered cobalt material from 1,000 tonnes of spent NMC111 batteries may be more than enough to produce the cathode powder needed for 1,000 tonnes of new NMC811/NCA batteries. EverBatt considers all possible scenarios, and the materials cost for cathode production with recycled materials is therefore calculated as

$$\begin{aligned}
Cost_{materials} = & \sum_i m_{virgin,i} \times up_{virgin,i} + Cost_{recycled\ materials} + Cost_{material\ conversion} \\
& - \sum_j m_{surplus,j} \times up_{surplus,j}
\end{aligned}$$

Eq. 16

Where $m_{virgin,i}$ is the mass of virgin material i consumed for cathode production, and $up_{virgin,i}$ is its unit price; $Cost_{recycled\ materials}$ is the aggregate cost of recycled materials as determined in Section 5.2; $Cost_{materials\ conversion}$ is the material conversion cost as determined in Chapter 6; $m_{surplus,j}$ is the mass of surplus material j recovered from battery recycling, and $up_{surplus,j}$ is its unit price.

7.3 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS CALCULATION

The environmental impacts of cathode production are calculated by Equation 1. CO₂ emissions from thermal decomposition of lithium carbonate in the calcination step are considered for cathode production, and are estimated based on stoichiometry.

Similar to the cost, the environmental impacts of materials for cathode production with recycled materials are calculated as

$$EI_{materials,k} = \sum_i m_{virgin\ i} \times ei_{virgin\ i,k} + EI_{recycled\ materials,k} + EI_{materials\ conversion,k} - \sum_j m_{surplus\ j} \times ei_{surplus\ j,k}$$

Eq.17

Where $ei_{i,k}$ is the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of virgin material i in GREET; $EI_{recycled\ materials,k}$ is the environmental impacts of recycled materials as determined in Section 5.3; $EI_{materials\ conversion,k}$ is the material conversion environmental impacts as determined in Chapter 6; $ei_{surplus\ j,k}$ is the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of recovered material j , and is dependent upon the selected allocation option in the battery recycling module. If the “no allocation” option is selected, $ei_{surplus\ j,k}$ is set to zero; If the “system expansion” option is selected, $ei_{surplus\ j,k}$ is equal to the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of virgin material j in GREET; If the “mass-based allocation” or “economic value-based allocation” is selected, $ei_{surplus\ j,k}$ is calculated based on the corresponding allocation factor for recovered material j as described in Section 5.3.2.

8 BATTERY MANUFACTURING WITH RECYCLED MATERIALS

The battery manufacturing with recycled materials module is identical to the battery manufacturing with virgin materials module, except that for manufacturing with recycled materials, the users also need to specify what recycled material(s) they would like to use in the new battery, and the recycled content(s) (i.e., what percentage of a battery's material is sourced from spent batteries).

The current version of EverBatt allows the use of recycled cathode material, graphite, and electrolyte solvents for new battery manufacturing, as they are most likely to be closed-loop recycled from processes that are already commercialized or under development.

The materials cost for battery manufacturing with recycled materials is estimated as

$$Cost_{materials} = \sum_i m_i \times up_{virgin,i} \times (1 - RC_i) + \sum_i m_i \times cost_{recycled,i} \times RC_i$$

Eq.18

Where m_i is the mass of material i in the battery; RC_i is its recycled content; $up_{virgin,i}$ is the unit price of virgin material i ; and $cost_{recycled,i}$ is the per kg cost of recycled material i as calculated in Section 7.2 for recycled cathode material, and in Section 5.2 for non-cathode materials.

Similarly, the environmental impacts for materials used for battery manufacturing with recycled materials is calculated as

$$EI_{materials,k} = \sum_i m_i \times ei_{virgin,i,k} \times (1 - RC_i) + \sum_i m_i \times ei_{recycled,i,k} \times RC_i$$

Eq.19

Where $ei_{i,k}$ is the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of virgin material i in GREET; and $ei_{recycled\ i,k}$ is the environmental impact/emission category k result for unit mass of recovered material i , as calculated in Section 7.3 for recycled cathode material, and in Section 5.3 for non-cathode materials.

The rest of the cost and environmental impacts calculations are the same as those for battery manufacturing with virgin materials.

9 CONCLUSIONS

In summary, EverBatt has been developed as a closed-loop battery recycling cost and environmental impacts model that draws on both Argonne's BatPaC and GREET models, aiming to inform battery recycling decisions, and help accelerate the development of a sustainable battery supply chain. The model can be used to benchmark cathode material production and/or battery manufacturing from recycled materials against that from virgin materials, or compare different recycling scenarios, to provide a holistic picture of the benefits and tradeoffs of battery recycling. The model can also help identify cost and environmental hotspots, both along the supply chain and within a specific process, to inform and direct battery recycling R&D efforts, and help overcome potential barriers to process commercialization.

The current version of EverBatt strives to provide a framework to evaluate the cost and environmental impacts of any stages or the entirety of the battery life cycle sans the use-phase. As noted throughout this document, some of the data assumed, as well as the parameters chosen for cost calculations in this version of EverBatt, are based on our best estimates. We will continue to update and improve the model to overcome limitations of the current version of EverBatt. Meanwhile, we also encourage users to supply their own data, if available, to produce results that are more representative of their process, and explore the sensitivity of results of their interest to model inputs.

Looking forward, we will continue to interact with the battery industry and battery researchers to improve the data quality in EverBatt, as well as the model usability. We will also continue to expand EverBatt to include any new processes as they come into existence.

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APPENDIX A EQUIPMENT COSTS

Equipment costs in 2002, 2003, and 2014 dollars are converted into 2017 dollars, based on the annual chemical engineering plant cost index (CEPCI) reported in chemical engineering magazine.

Table 20. CEPCI annual index (1957-1959 = 100)

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|
| 2017 | 2016 | 2015 | 2014 | 2013 | 2012 | 2011 | 2010 | 2009 | 2008 | 2007 | 2006 | 2005 | 2004 | 2003 | 2002 |
| 567.5 | 541.7 | 556.8 | 576.1 | 567.3 | 584.6 | 585.7 | 550.8 | 521.9 | 575.4 | 525.4 | 499.6 | 468.2 | 444.2 | 402 | 395.6 |

The costs and power ratings of equipment are summarized in Tables 21-37. These data are collected from engineering handbooks (Peters *et al.* 2003, Couper *et al.* 2005), literature (Rocha-Uribe *et al.* 2014, Rosa and Meireles 2005), and publicly available database (Matche).

Table 21. Costs and power ratings of ball mill (0.25 inch to 200 mesh)

| Size (Diameter x longitude. in ft) | Capacity (ton/day) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Horsepower | Couper <i>et al.</i> 2005 2003\$ | Matche 2014\$ | Matche 2003\$ |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|------------|----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| 3x2 | | | 10 | | | |
| 3x3 | | | 15 | | | |
| 3x4 | 7 | 0.29 | 15 | \$26,068 | | |
| 3x6 | 9 | 0.38 | 20 | \$31,004 | | |
| 3x9 | 13 | 0.54 | 25 | \$39,958 | \$92,100 | \$64,267 |
| 4x3 | 12 | 0.50 | 20 | \$37,811 | | |
| 4x5 | 16 | 0.67 | 30 | \$46,113 | | |
| 4x10 | 26 | 1.08 | 50 | \$64,464 | \$168,900 | \$117,858 |
| 5x3 | 22 | 0.92 | 40 | \$57,445 | | |
| 5x6 | 33 | 1.38 | 60 | \$75,990 | | |
| 5x12 | 54 | 2.25 | 125 | \$106,742 | \$270,500 | \$188,754 |

Table 22. Costs of incinerator (cylindrical, low-hazard)

| Duty (MBtu/hr) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 10 | 0.5 | \$921,300 |
| 25 | 1.25 | \$1,472,900 |
| 40 | 2 | \$1,873,600 |
| 50 | 2.5 | \$2,100,300 |
| 65 | 3.25 | \$2,402,300 |
| 75 | 3.75 | \$2,584,900 |
| 90 | 4.5 | \$2,837,800 |

Table 23. Costs of incinerator (rotary kiln, hazardous feed material, atmospheric pressure)

| Duty (MBTU/hr) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 10 | 0.5 | \$4,400,800 |
| 20 | 1 | \$6,138,000 |
| 25 | 1.25 | \$6,831,900 |
| 30 | 1.5 | \$7,456,700 |
| 35 | 1.75 | \$8,029,400 |
| 40 | 2 | \$8,560,900 |
| 50 | 2.5 | \$9,528,800 |
| 100 | 5 | \$13,290,200 |

Table 24. Costs of incinerator (catalytic, low-hazard feed material, atmospheric pressure)

| Duty (MBTU/hr) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 5 | 0.25 | \$172,300 |
| 10 | 0.5 | \$291,900 |
| 15 | 0.75 | \$397,200 |
| 20 | 1 | \$494,300 |
| 25 | 1.25 | \$585,600 |
| 30 | 1.5 | \$672,700 |

Table 25. Cost of conveyor (belt)

| Description | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|---|---------------------------|
| Belt, open, short, 42 inch width, 100 ft length | \$102,600 |

Table 26. Costs of conveyor (Screw conveyor, 12 inch diameter)

| Length (ft) | Cost | | |
|-------------|--|--------------------|--------------------|
| | Couper <i>et al.</i> 2005 (2003\$) Cost = $0.85 \text{Length}^{0.78} * 1000$ in 2003\$, $7 < \text{Length} < 100$ ft | Matche (2014\$) | Matche (2003\$) |
| 25 | \$10,467 | \$6,700 | \$4,675 |
| 40 | \$15,102 | \$8,800 | \$6,141 |
| 50 | \$17,973 | \$10,000 | \$6,978 |
| 70 | \$23,367 | \$12,200 | \$8,513 |
| 80 | \$25,932 | \$13,200 | \$9,211 |
| 100 | \$30,862 | \$15,000 | \$10,467 |

Table 27. Costs and power ratings of granulator

| Rotating disk granulator (Couper <i>et al.</i> 2005) | | | Agglomerator, disk with motor, stainless 304 |
|--|-------------------|------------|---|
| Disk size (ft) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Horsepower | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
| 3.25 | 0.5 | 1 | \$19,800 |
| 6 | 3 | 3 | \$51,100 |
| 9 | 5 | 6 | \$95,600 |
| 12 | 10 | 12 | \$149,100 |
| 15 | 18 | 25 | \$210,500 |
| 18 | 30 | 40 | \$279,000 |

Table 28. Cost of filter

| Description | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|---|---------------------------|
| Filter, plate and frame, 200 ft ² filter area, stainless 304 | \$173,000 |

Table 29. Costs of reactor (mixer/settler, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25 psi)

| Volume (gallon) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|-----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 200 | 0.2 | \$230,400 |
| 400 | 0.4 | \$314,300 |
| 500 | 0.5 | \$347,400 |
| 700 | 0.7 | \$403,900 |
| 800 | 0.8 | \$428,800 |
| 1,000 | 1 | \$473,900 |
| 1,300 | 1.3 | \$533,000 |
| 1,500 | 1.5 | \$568,300 |

Table 30. Costs of reactor (jacketed and agitated, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25psi)

| Volume (gallon) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|-----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 500 | 0.5 | \$91,000 |
| 1,000 | 1 | \$131,400 |
| 2,000 | 2 | \$189,800 |
| 2,800 | 2.8 | \$226,800 |
| 3,500 | 3.5 | \$255,300 |
| 5,000 | 5 | \$308,400 |

Table 31. Costs of screen (stainless steel, with medium carbon steel wire)

| Deck area (ft ²) | Capacity (ton/hr) | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 3 | 1.5 | \$5,800 |
| 5 | 2.5 | \$6,900 |
| 7 | 3.5 | \$8,000 |
| 10 | 5 | \$9,700 |
| 20 | 10 | \$15,600 |
| 40 | 20 | \$28,300 |

Table 32. Costs of extruder (roll-type)

| Solids flowrate (kg/s) | Capacity (tonne/hr) | Cost (2002\$ from Peters <i>et al.</i> 2003) |
|------------------------|---------------------|--|
| 1 | 3.6 | \$16,048 |
| 2 | 7.2 | \$21,111 |
| 5 | 18 | \$36,300 |
| 7 | 25.2 | \$46,427 |
| 10 | 36 | \$61,616 |

Table 33. Costs of crusher (roll)

| Capacity (kg/s) | Capacity (tonne/hr) | Cost (2002\$ from Peters <i>et al.</i> 2003) |
|-----------------|---------------------|--|
| 1 | 3.6 | \$17,636 |
| 5 | 18 | \$30,709 |
| 10 | 36 | \$43,351 |
| 50 | 180 | \$123,445 |
| 100 | 360 | \$215,377 |

Table 34. Costs of crusher (gyratory)

| Capacity (kg/s) | Capacity (tonne/hr) | Cost (2002\$ from Peters <i>et al.</i> 2003) |
|-----------------|---------------------|--|
| 1 | 3.6 | \$106,512 |
| 5 | 18 | \$69,370 |
| 10 | 36 | \$75,579 |
| 50 | 180 | \$161,244 |
| 100 | 360 | \$277,843 |

Table 35. Cost of hopper

| Description | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|---|---------------------------|
| Hopper with bottom, bolted, carbon steel, 5000 ft ³ bin volume | \$ 38,700 |

Table 36. Cost of cyclone

| Description | Cost (2014\$ from Matche) |
|--|---------------------------|
| Cyclone, wet, ceramic lined, 30inch diameter | \$50,300 |

Table 37. Cost of pump (centrifugal, cast iron, 1035 kpa)

| Volumetric flow rate (m ³ /s) | Capacity (tonne/hr) | Cost (2002\$ from Peters <i>et al.</i> 2003) |
|--|---------------------|--|
| 0.009 | 3.24 | \$3,009 |

The cost of the heavy duty cyclone separator in EverBatt is based on the empirical equation in Couper *et al.* 2005, as shown below

$$C = 1.69 \times Q^{0.96} \times 1000$$

Where C is the cost in 2003\$; Q is the flow rate in thousand standard cubic feet per minute (SCFM), and ranges between 2,000 to 40,000 SCFM.

It is assumed in EverBatt that the solids loading of the cyclone is 0.01kg/stand cubic feet.

The cost of the rotary steam tube dryer in EverBatt is based on the empirical equation in Couper *et al.* 2005, as shown below

$$C = 2.23 \times F \times A^{0.6} \times 1000$$

Where C is the cost in 2003\$; F is the material coefficient, and equals to 1.75 for 304 stainless steel; A is the tube surface area in square feet, and ranges between 500 and 18,000 square feet.

It is assumed in EverBatt that the heat load of the dryer is 2.6 MJ/kg product/hr, and the heat surface requirement is 4.3 ft²/kg product/hr.

The cost of the supercritical CO₂ extraction unit in EverBatt is based on the cost curve developed by Rocha-Uribe *et al.* 2014, as shown below

$$C = 31901 \times V^{0.6909}$$

Where C is the cost in 2009\$; V is volume in liters.

Based on process information reported in Rocha-Uribe *et al.* 2014 and Rosa and Meireles 2005, it is assumed that the extraction time is 1hr, and the solids loading is 0.5kg/L.

APPENDIX B UNIT PRICES OF RAW MATERIALS

Table 38. Unit prices of battery materials

| Material | Unit price (\$/kg) | Note |
|----------------|--------------------|---|
| LCO | \$35.00 | Calculated for cathode production plant with a throughput of 10,000 tonnes per year, superseded by new cost from cathode production module if available |
| LMO | \$10.00 | BatPaC |
| LFP | \$14.00 | BatPaC |
| NMC111 | \$20.00 | BatPaC, superseded by cost from cathode production module if available |
| NMC622 | \$17.00 | BatPaC, superseded by cost from cathode production module if available |
| NMC811 | \$16.00 | Internal version of BatPaC, superseded by cost from cathode production module if available |
| NCA | \$24.00 | BatPaC, superseded by cost from cathode production module if available |
| Graphite | \$12.50 | BatPaC |
| Carbon black | \$6.60 | BatPaC |
| PVDF | \$9.50 | BatPaC |
| Electrolyte | \$12.50 | BatPaC, converted from \$/L |
| Separator | \$159.42 | BatPaC, converted from \$/m ² |
| Cu | \$13.45 | Copper foil unit price in BatPaC, converted from \$/m ² |
| Al | \$7.41 | Aluminum foil unit price in BatPaC, converted from \$/m ² |
| Cell container | \$3.00 | BatPaC |

Table 39. Unit prices of chemicals (\$/kg)

| Chemical | Unit price (\$/kg) | Note |
|--|--------------------|--|
| Aluminum Sulfate | \$1.85 | 99 plus, Integra 2016 bulk quote |
| Ammonia | \$0.46 | 2014-2018 average, gulf price plus 15% margin, USGS 2019a |
| Ammonium Bicarbonate | \$0.46 | Assumed to be the same as ammonia cost |
| Ammonium Hydroxide | \$0.46 | Assumed to be the same as ammonia cost |
| Carbon Dioxide | \$0.10 | Rocha-Uribe <i>et al.</i> 2014 |
| Citric Acid | \$0.69 | 2016 India bulk import price, anhydrous, 1 USD = 67 INR; Zaubas 2019a |
| Cobalt | \$51.33 | London Metal Exchange (LME) 2016-2018 average, cash; USGS 2019b |
| Cobalt Oxide (Co ₃ O ₄) | \$37.66 | Converted from Co cost based on Co content |
| Cobalt Sulfate | \$19.51 | Converted from Co cost based on Co content |
| Coke | \$0.09 | 2018 U.S. export average, not calcined; U.S. Department of Commerce 2019 |
| Hydrochloric Acid | \$0.15 | 2013-2017 average; ICIS 2018 |
| Hydrogen Peroxide | \$0.74 | 2014-2018 China average, 27.5%, 1USD = 6.5 RMB; CEIC Data 2019a |
| Iron Sulfate | \$0.37 | Anhydrous, converted from monohydrate granular price; ICIS 2005 |
| Lime | \$0.13 | 2014-2018 average, at plant; USGS 2019c |
| Limestone | \$0.13 | Chemical grade; use lime price as a proxy |
| Lithium Carbonate | \$7.90 | BatPaC |
| Lithium Hydroxide | \$12.18 | Converted from Li ₂ CO ₃ cost based on Li content |
| Manganese | \$3.10 | LME 2011-2015 average, cash; USGS 2019d |
| Manganese Oxide | \$2.16 | Converted from Mn cost based on Mn content |
| Manganese Sulfate | \$1.13 | Converted from Mn cost based on Mn content |
| Nickel | \$11.30 | LME 2016-2018 average, cash; USGS 2019e |
| Nickel Sulfate | \$4.29 | Converted from Ni cost based on Ni content |
| NMP | \$3.10 | BatPaC |
| Oxygen | \$0.20 | Chemicool |
| Phosphoric Acid | \$0.92 | 2014-2018 China average, 85%, 1USD = 6.5 RMB; CEIC Data 2019b |
| Sand | \$0.06 | 2014-2018 average; USGS 2019f |
| Soda Ash | \$0.15 | 2014-2018 average; USGS 2019g |
| Sodium Chlorate | \$0.53 | 2016 India bulk import price, 1 USD = 67 INR; Zaubas 2019b |
| Sodium Hydroxide | \$0.40 | 2015-2018 average; ICIS 2019 |
| Sulfuric Acid | \$0.06 | 2015 import average, USGS 2017 |

APPENDIX C EQUIPMENT COST AND ENERGY RATING CURVES

The equipment cost and energy rating curves are derived based on information detailed in Appendix A. Below is the general form of the two curves:

$$Cost (2017\$) = (a \times Cap^b + c) \times adj$$

Where *Cap* is the design capacity of the equipment in tonnes per hour; *a*, *b*, and *c* are equipment-specific cost coefficients, and *adj* is the term to convert reported cost into 2017\$.

$$Energy\ rating\ (KW) = m \times Cap^n + p$$

Where *m*, *n*, and *p* are equipment-specific energy rating coefficients.

The cost and energy rating coefficients for each equipment are summarized in Table 40.

Table 40. Equipment cost and power rating coefficients

| Equipment | Cost coefficient | | | | Power consumption coefficient | | | Note |
|-----------------|------------------|-------|---|-------|-------------------------------|-------|---|--|
| | a | b | c | adj. | m | n | p | |
| Ball mill | 61,000 | 0.69 | 0 | 1.412 | 34 | 1.006 | 0 | Ball mill 0.25 inch to 200 mesh |
| Brine soak | 31,862 | 0 | 0 | 1.412 | 7.5* | 0 | 0 | Screw conveyor, stainless steel, 12 inch diameter |
| Briquetter | 16,048 | 0 | 0 | 1.435 | 75* | 0 | 0 | Roll-type extruder |
| Calciner | 1,313,832 | 0.512 | 0 | 0.985 | 5861* | 1 | 0 | Incinerator, cylindrical, low-hazard feed material |
| Cell perforator | 17,636 | 0 | 0 | 1.435 | 75* | 0 | 0 | Roll crusher |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|---|---------|---|
| Conveyor | 102,600 | 0 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 0 | 0 | Belt, open, short, 42inch wide, 100ft long |
| Crusher | 106,512 | 0 | 0 | 1.435 | 75* | 0 | 0 | Gyratory crusher |
| Density separator | 2,760 | 0.96 | 0 | 1.412 | 75* | 0 | 0 | Cyclone separator, heavy duty |
| Dryer | 591,236 | 0.6 | 0 | 1.412 | 729 | 1 | 0 | Steam tube dryer, class II, 304 stainless steel |
| Filter press | 173,000 | 0 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 0 | 0 | Filter, plate and frame, 200ft ² filter area, stainless 304 |
| Froth flotation cell | 131,410 | 0.5301 | 0 | 0.985 | 75* | 0 | 0 | Reactor, jacketed and agitated, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25psi |
| Gas treatment | 3,000,000* | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,000* | 0 | 0 | |
| Granulator | 29,902 | 0.6671 | 0 | 0.985 | 1.361 | 1 | -0.5806 | Agglomerator, disk with motor, stainless 304 |
| Hopper | 38,700 | 0 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 0 | 0 | Hopper with bottom, bolted, carbon steel, 5000 ft ³ bin volume |
| Hydrocyclone | 50,300 | 0 | 0 | 0.985 | 75* | 1 | 0 | Cyclone, wet, ceramic lined, 30inch diameter |
| Leaching tank | 473,892 | 0.4481 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 1 | 0 | Reactor, mixer/settler, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25 psi |
| Mixing tank | 473,892 | 0.4481 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 1 | 0 | Reactor, mixer/settler, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25 psi |
| Oxidizer | 494,284 | 0.7601 | 0 | 0.985 | 5861* | 0 | 0 | Incinerator, catalytic, low-hazard feed material, atmospheric pressure |
| Precipitation tank | 473,892 | 0.4481 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 0 | 0 | Reactor, mixer/settler, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25 psi |
| Pump | 3,009 | 0 | 0 | 1.435 | 3.192 | 1 | 0 | Centrifugal, cast iron, 1035 kPa |
| Screener | 1,218 | 1 | 3752.8 | 0.985 | 15* | 1 | 0 | DSM screen, stainless steel, with medium carbon steel wire |
| Skid steer | 40,000* | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Diesel-fueled |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------|--------|---|-------|--------|---|---------|---|
| Smelter | 6,137,979 | 0.48 | 0 | 0.985 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Incinerator, rotary kiln, hazardous feed material, atmospheric pressure |
| Solvent Extraction Unit | 473,892 | 0.4481 | 0 | 0.985 | 15* | 1 | 0 | Reactor, mixer/settler, stainless 304, atmospheric to 25 psi |
| Super critical CO ₂ system | 6,088,158 | 0.6909 | 0 | 1.087 | 1,000* | 0 | 0 | |
| Water treatment | 1,000,000* | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,000* | 0 | 0 | |
| Wet granulator | 29,902 | 0.6671 | 0 | 0.985 | 1.361 | 1 | -0.5806 | Agglomerator, disk with motor, stainless 304 |
| Wheel loader | 150,000* | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Diesel-fueled |

*Own estimate

APPENDIX D GEOGRAPHIC PARAMETERS

Table 41. Model parameters for different geographic regions

| Battery manufacturing w/ virgin materials | | | | |
|--|---------|------------|---------|---------|
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Building cost (\$/m ²) | \$3,000 | \$3,000 | \$1,500 | \$2,000 |
| Direct labor (\$/hr) | \$18.00 | \$20.00 | \$2.00 | \$10.00 |
| Capital cost adjustment (%) | 100% | 100% | 90% | 80% |
| Battery collection and transportation | | | | |
| <i>Hazardous materials transportation</i> | | | | |
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Rail | \$0.97 | \$0.97 | \$0.10 | \$0.20 |
| Medium-duty truck | \$9.40 | \$9.40 | \$1.00 | \$2.00 |
| Heavy-duty truck | \$6.28 | \$6.28 | \$0.60 | \$1.20 |
| Barge | \$0.50 | \$0.50 | \$0.10 | \$0.10 |
| Ocean tanker | \$0.50 | \$0.50 | \$0.10 | \$0.10 |
| <i>Non-hazardous materials transportation</i> | | | | |
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Rail | \$0.05 | \$0.05 | \$0.01 | \$0.02 |
| Medium-duty truck | \$0.15 | \$0.15 | \$0.03 | \$0.05 |
| Heavy-duty truck | \$0.14 | \$0.14 | \$0.03 | \$0.05 |
| Barge | \$0.02 | \$0.02 | \$0.01 | \$0.01 |
| Ocean tanker | \$0.02 | \$0.02 | \$0.01 | \$0.01 |
| Battery recycling | | | | |
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Equipment cost adjustment (%) | 100% | 100% | 60% | 80% |
| Direct labor (\$/hr) | \$20.00 | \$20.00 | \$2.00 | \$10.00 |
| Electricity cost (\$/kWh) | \$0.069 | \$0.134 | \$0.088 | \$0.076 |
| Natural gas cost (\$/1000 ft ³) | \$4.20 | \$7.05 | \$12.21 | \$12.21 |
| Water cost (\$/gal) | \$0.004 | \$0.004 | \$0.002 | \$0.003 |
| Landfill cost (tip fee \$/ton) | \$45.00 | \$45.00 | \$10.00 | \$20.00 |
| Wastewater discharge cost (\$/gal) | \$0.005 | \$0.005 | \$0.003 | \$0.003 |
| Cathode production | | | | |
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Equipment cost adjustment (%) | 100% | 100% | 90% | 80% |
| Direct labor (\$/hr) | \$20.00 | \$20.00 | \$2.00 | \$10.00 |
| Electricity cost (\$/kWh) | \$0.069 | \$0.134 | \$0.088 | \$0.076 |
| Natural gas cost (\$/1000 ft ³) | \$4.20 | \$7.05 | \$12.21 | \$12.21 |

| | | | | |
|--|---------|------------|---------|---------|
| Water cost (\$/gal) | \$0.004 | \$0.004 | \$0.002 | \$0.003 |
| Battery manufacturing w/ recycled materials | | | | |
| | U.S. | California | China | Korea |
| Building cost (\$/m ²) | \$3,000 | \$3,000 | \$1,500 | \$2,000 |
| Direct labor (\$/hr) | \$18.00 | \$20.00 | \$2.00 | \$10.00 |
| Capital cost adjustment (%) | 100% | 100% | 50% | 80% |



Energy Systems Division

Argonne National Laboratory
9700 South Cass Avenue, Bldg. 362
Lemont, IL 60439-4854

www.anl.gov



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